

# СТРАНИЦЫ ИСТОРИИ

## PAGES OF HISTORY

Сборник текстов

Могилев 2010

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РЕСПУБЛИКИ БЕЛАРУСЬ

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им. А.А. КУЛЕШОВА”

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*Составители:*

М.В. Заблоцкая, Т.Н. Тадеуш



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**Рецензент**

старший преподаватель кафедры английского, общего  
и славянского языкознания УО «МГУ им. А.А. Кулешова»

*С.А. Пушкарёва*

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Тексты настоящего сборника освещают некоторые социально-политические и культурологические аспекты развития человеческого общества. Сборник состоит из четырех разделов. Представленные в сборнике тексты исторического содержания позволяют обучающимся приобрести необходимые им базовые знания и усвоить наиболее часто встречаемые слова и выражения из общественно-политического и культурологического лексикона.

Упражнения направлены на усвоение и отработку фонетического и лексического материала; формирование навыков чтения; стимулирование речемыслительной деятельности и вовлечение обучающихся в профессионально-ориентированное общение на иностранном языке.

Данный сборник текстов адресован студентам гуманитарных специальностей, а также широкому кругу читателей, интересующихся историей развития человеческой цивилизации. Может быть использован как для аудиторной, так и для самостоятельной работы.

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## Part I TEXTS FOR READING AND DISCUSSION

### HISTORY AND HISTORIOGRAPHY

*Transcribe the following words. Pay attention to the stress.*

|              |                |             |           |
|--------------|----------------|-------------|-----------|
| intermediary | rhetoric       | narrative   | intuitive |
| memoir       | sociology      | imaginative | acute     |
| hypothesis   | anthropology   | burial      | align     |
| politics     | psychoanalytic | standard    | bias      |

*Read and translate the text.*

History, in its broadest sense, is the totality of all past events, although a more realistic definition would limit it to the known past. Historiography is the written record of what is known of human lives and societies in the past and how historians have attempted to understand and interpret them. The term historiography also refers to the theory and history of historical writing. Of all the fields of serious study and literary effort, history may be the hardest to define precisely, because the attempt to uncover past events and formulate an intelligible account of them necessarily involves the use and influence of many auxiliary disciplines and literary forms. The concern of all serious historians has been to collect and record facts about the human past and often to discover new facts to fill up as many gaps as possible in our historical knowledge.

Except for the special circumstance in which historians record events they themselves have witnessed, historical facts can only be known through intermediary sources.

These include testimony from living witnesses; narrative records, such as previous letters, and imaginative literature; the legal and financial records of courts, legislatures, religious

institutions, or businesses; and the unwritten information derived from the physical remains of past civilizations, such as architecture, arts and crafts, burial grounds, and cultivated land. All these, and many more sources of information provide the evidence from which the historian deciphers historical facts. The relation between evidence and fact, however, is rarely simple and direct. The evidence may be biased or mistaken, fragmentary, or nearly unintelligible after long periods of cultural or linguistic change. Historians, therefore, have known that the information requires careful attention and they have to assess their evidence with a critical eye. All have tried to discover in the facts patterns of meaning addressed to the enduring questions of human life.

Before the late 18th century, historiography or the writing of history did not stand at the centre of any civilization. History was almost never an important part of regular education, and it never claimed to provide an interpretation of human life as a whole. This was more appropriately the function of religion, of philosophy, even perhaps of poetry and other imaginative literature. The historian's education was that of any cultivated man: careful reading of general literature, followed by the study of rhetoric, the art of fluent and persuasive use of language that dominated ancient higher education. The ideal historian would combine rigorous truthfulness and freedom from bias with the gift of developed expression. As examples of literary art, early historical accounts are interesting and dramatically unified, though sometimes at the expense of truth or verifiability of evidence. Impartiality was at least a goal, if it was not always achieved. Many of these works set standards for historical writing in their lands and beyond their bounds. The complex relation between literary art and historiography has been and continues to be a subject of serious debate.

Modern historians aim to reconstruct a record of human activities and to achieve a more profound understanding of them. This conception is quite recent, dating from the late 18th and early 19th centuries when history aligned with other modern sciences as an independent academic discipline with its own critical method and approach, requiring rigorous preparation. The combination of the neutral, non-partisan approach to the

sources (at least as an ideal) with the acute realization that all observers are the products of their specific time and place and are thus necessarily subjective recorders promised to break history's ancient connection to the intuitive literary arts.

The purpose of history as a serious endeavor to understand human life can never be fulfilled by the mere shifting of evidence for facts. Fact-finding is only the foundation for the selection, arrangement, and explanation that constitute historical interpretation. The process of interpretation informs all aspects of historical inquiry, beginning with the selection of a subject for investigation, because the very choice of a particular event or society or institution is itself an act of judgment that asserts the importance of the subject. Once chosen, the subject itself suggests a provisional model or hypothesis that guides research and helps the historian to assess and classify the available evidence and to present a detailed and coherent account of the subject. The historian must respect the facts, avoid ignorance and error as far as possible, and create a convincing, intellectually satisfying interpretation.

Furthermore, in the 20th century the scope of history has expanded immeasurably, in time, as archaeology and anthropology have provided knowledge of earlier ages, and in breadth, as field of inquiry entirely unknown in the past (such as economic history, psychohistory, history of ideas, of family structures, and of peasant societies) have emerged and refined their methods and goals. To many scholars, national history has come to seem an outmoded, culture-bound approach, although history written on thoroughly international assumptions is extremely difficult to achieve.

Historians have looked more and more to the social sciences — sociology, psychology, anthropology, and economics — for new methods and forms of explanation; the sophisticated use of quantitative data has become the accepted approach to economic and demographic studies. The influence of Marxist theories of economic and social development remains vital and contentious, as does the application of psychoanalytic theory to history. At the same time, many scholars have turned with sharpened interest to the theoretical foundations of historical knowledge

and are reconsidering the relation between imaginative literature and history, with the possibility emerging that history may after all be the literary art that works upon scholarly material.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

**1. Answer the following questions to check how carefully you have read the text:**

1. What is the difference between the notions "history" and "historiography"?

2. How can you specify literature and historiography? How can we assess early writings of history from literary point of view and from the point of view of their verifiability?

3. What kind of sources can historians use?

4. What qualities and attitudes are necessary to make history a serious endeavour? What should every historian try to avoid?

5. Has history always been an independent science? Did Greek and Roman historians get a special rigorous education?

6. How did history change in the 20<sup>th</sup> century?

7. Why do modern historians look more and more to social sciences?

**2. Give English-Russian equivalents of the following expressions:**

Rigorous truthfulness; за счет чего-то; sophisticated use of quantitative data; художественная литература; to present prose of striking style; точка зрения, признанная во всем мире; the art of persuasive use of language; толковать; crude bias; вспомогательные источники; показания свидетелей; the recovery of truth; риторика; verifiability; to be committed to something; расшифровывать; to align with something; беспристрастность; to avoid ignorance; пробелы.

**3. Complete the text translating Russian word combinations. Consult the prompt in the box, if necessary:**

*gift of developed expression, rigorous truthfulness, in its broadest sense, a provisional model, to present a detailed and coherent account, hypothesis, to interpret, to define it, was regarded, a cultivated man, to assess, to keep in mind, endeavour, to limit, to combine, by mere shifting of evidence, the art of fluent and persuasive use of language, prose of striking style; available evidence, freedom from bias*

History (в широком смысле) is the totality of all past facts. (Чтобы дать ей определение) more realistically we should (ограничить) it to the known past. We must (помнить) that the purpose of history as a serious (устремление, цель) is (объяснить) human life cannot be fulfilled (простой перестановкой данных) for facts. The chosen subject suggests (гипотезу) or (предположительную временную модель) that guides the research and helps the historian (оценить) and classify (имеющиеся факты) and (представить четкое и связное сообщение). The historian is held (избегать некомпетентности и ошибки) as far as possible.

Until modern times history (рассматривалась) as a special kind of literature. Historian's education was that of any (культурного человека): careful reading of serious literature, (искусство говорить четко и убедительно). The ideal historian should (сочетать) (строгую точность) and (объективность) with (умением выражаться кратко и убедительно). Many works devoted to earlier history present (произведения, написанные ярким выразительным языком).

#### **4. *Make up a plan and retell the text.***

### **WESTERN HISTORIOGRAPHY**

***Transcribe the following words. Mind the stress.***

|              |          |           |            |
|--------------|----------|-----------|------------|
| vernacular   | archival | precedent | voluminous |
| antiquarians | chivalry | erudite   | prestige   |
| ecclesiastic | devout   | laborious | authentic  |
| triumph      | treatise | exemplary | procedure  |



***Pronounce the following words. Mind the stress.***

'aristocrat, 'standard, 'annals, a'nalysis, 'concrete, 'impetus, pro'vocative, 'applicable, 'integral, mi'llennia

***Read and translate the text.***

The whole vast field of historiography can roughly be divided into two unequal branches: Western historiography and non-Western historiography. Western historiography originated with the ancient Greeks, and the standards and interests of the Greeks dominated historical study and writing for centuries. Herodotus (the 5th c. BC) has been called the father of history for his famous account of the Persian Wars. Before Herodotus, the historical tradition in Greece was based on myths and the epic tradition; and in Egypt and Babylon it consisted of genealogical records and commemorative archives. Shortly afterwards, Thucydides wrote his classical study of the Peloponnesian War between Athens and Sparta. These men recorded contemporary or near-contemporary events in prose of striking style, depending as much as possible on eyewitnesses or other reliable testimony for evidence. They concentrated on war, constitutional history, the character of political leaders to create pictures of human societies in times of crisis or change. Their works won the immense recognition of contemporaries for extraordinary accomplishment. Succeeding historians, too, would prefer recent events, consider visual and oral evidence superior to written (used only in ancillary ways) and assume that most significant human expression was the state and political life.

In the 4th century Xenophon (Theopompus of Chios, and Ephorus) continued the main traditions of Greek historiography and extended its scope. Polybius (the 2nd c. BC) explained Roman history, political life, and military successes to his fellow Greeks. The history of the Jews was placed in its Hellenistic and Roman context by Flavius Josephus, a Jewish aristocrat of Greek culture, who also defended and explained Jewish religion and customs. In the 2nd c. AD Plutarch wrote his biographies of famous Greeks and Romans, emphasizing dramatic, anecdotal

materials in his depiction of individual lives regarded as illustrations of moral choices and its effect on public life.

The prestige of Greek as a language of art and learning was so great that the first Roman historiography, even by the Romans was written in Greek. Cato the Elder was the first to write Roman history in Latin, and his example inspired others. Sallust developed a brilliant Latin style that combined ethical reflections with psychological insight. His political analysis, based on human motivation, was to have a long and pervasive influence on historical writing. Latin historian writing continued in this mode with Livy, Tacitus, and Suetonius.

It is essential to emphasize that the historians mentioned above (with the exception of Josephus) were all pagan and their works were entirely secular in subject and point of view. After the conversion of Emperor Constantine the Great, Christianity attained legal status and introduced new subjects and approaches to history. The introduction of Christianity was followed by the creation of a unified chronology that reconciled all history around the birth of Christ. Eusebius of Caesarea wrote an ecclesiastical history (c. 324) tracing the growth of the church from its generations of persecution and martyrdom, to the triumphs of his own day. Eusebius described religious life, books, ideas and people of no political importance; he included a great deal of documentary evidence and considered the major questions of human existence.

Such mingling of secular and ecclesiastical history with moral interpretation on the largest scale had its only precedent in the Old Testament, where the relation between God and humankind was seen in historical terms as a covenant between Jehovah and Israel. Built on this foundation, Christianity, too, was a religion with significant implications for the interpretation of human history. It was predicated (based) on the junction of divine and human realms over a clearly demarcated historical span — the life of Jesus Christ — and thus developed doctrines of the religious meaning of historical time and the operation of the divine in history.

During the Middle Ages with the disintegration of the Western Roman Empire the traditions of classical education and literary culture, of which historiography was a part, decayed. Literacy became one of the professional skills of the clergy. Many

monasteries kept chronicles or annals, often the anonymous work of generations of monks, which simply recorded whatever the author knew of the events, year by year, without any attempts at artistic or intellectual elaboration. The achievements of past historians preserved in monastic libraries kept alive the idea of a more ambitious standard, and early medieval writers, such as Gregory of Tours, struggled to meet it. The Ecclesiastical History of the English people (731) by the Venerable Bede, an English monk, achieved the integration of secular and ecclesiastic history, natural and supernatural events, in a forceful and intelligent narrative. In Russia a legendary account of the origin of Rus was compiled about 1113. The monk Nestor is known to be involved in writing the *Povest Vremennykh Let* («the Tale of Bygone Years»).

Although most of the later medieval historians were clerics and wrote in Latin, the traditions of secular historiography were also revived by chroniclers who wrote in vernacular languages. Jean de Joinville recorded the deeds of his king, Louis IX of France, on crusade; Jean Froissart wrote of the exploits of French and English chivalry during the Hundred Years' War.

The Renaissance brought about an awareness of historical change, although this awareness meant regarding the Middle Ages as a period of decline. Renaissance historiographers tended to regard the preceding period as that of ignorance and thus unimportant; hence the origin of the three-part division of all history into ancient, medieval, and modern.

This epoch saw the renewal of interest to the intensified study of Greek and Roman literature that encouraged a secular and realistic approach to political history both ancient and modern. In the 16th c. Niccolo Machiavelli and Francesco Guicciardini wrote works on political history in which ecclesiastical materials were separated from secular ones. From the 16th c. onward, many scholars throughout Europe devoted their lives to the laborious, systematic collection of the sources for their national and religious history. The French Benedictines, notably Jean Mabillon and Bernard de Montfaucon, began the exhaustive examination and publication of the sources of ecclesiastical history. Gottfried W. Leibniz compiled the annals of medieval Germany, and the Austrian Joseph Eckhel

established the field of numismatics. Sir William Dugdale, Bishop Thomas Tanner and Thomas

Hearne collected documents and inscriptions in English and edited medieval annals. These examples represent only a few of the many antiquarians, or erudites whose scrupulous work preserved the sources of historical knowledge and created and defined the major fields of critical research such as diplomatics, numismatics, and archaeology.

In the 18th century the ideas of the Enlightenment inspired (or gave birth, developed) philosophic history. Voltaire recharged literary traditions of historiography with his provocative rationalism. He ignored the classical focus on politics. Enlightenment historians, such as Montesquieu, David Hume, William Robertson continued the bolder philosophic conception of history and the philosophers' careless evaluation of evidence. But Edward Gibbon combined a deep respect for antiquarian research with Enlightenment elan and great literary gifts to produce *The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* (1776 – 1788) which set a standard for historical writing. Vasily Tatishchev (1686 – 1750) who managed to collect much historical and geographic data on Russia and published his great work *History of Russia from the Most Early Times* relied on sources that have since to a great extent disappeared. It was a pioneering work in its attempt to depict the development of the Russian state as a result of geographic and historical circumstances rather than as a result of divine providence.

In the 19th century with the work and influence of Leopold von Ranke, history achieved its identity as an independent academic discipline. Ranke insisted on dispassionate objectivity as the historian's proper point of view and made consultation of contemporary sources a law of historical construction. He substantially advanced the criticism of sources beyond the achievement of the antiquarians by making consideration of the historical circumstances of the writer the key to the evaluation of documents. Many modern historians trace the intellectual foundation of their discipline to the development of the 19th century German universities, which influenced historical scholarship throughout Europe and America. In England the

brilliant style of Thomas Macaulay continued the Enlightenment mode of a personal essaylike history, but more exacting methods were applied at the universities.

Russian historiography, of the 19th century gives us such glorious names as Nickolai M. Karamzin, Sergei M. Solovyov and Vassili O. Kluchevsky. N. Karamzin, also known as a poet and a journalist, devoted many years of his life to the 12-volume *Istoriya Gosudarstva Rossiyskogo* (1816 – 1829; «History of the Russian State»). Based on original research, this first general survey of Russian history was conceived not only as an academic work but also as a literary one as it remains a landmark in the development of Russian literary style. Sergei M. Solovyov's reputation as one of the greatest of all Russian historians rests on his monumental 29-volume *History of Russia from Ancient Times*. The history wove a vast body of data into a unified and orderly whole that provided an exceptionally powerful and vivid picture of Russia's political life over the centuries. The work inaugurated a new era in Russian scholarship and greatly influenced virtually all later Russian historians. Vassili O. Kluchevsky (1841 – 1911) introduced sociological approach to the study of Russia's past. His lively writing and lecturing style made him one of the foremost scholars of his time. By the 20th century, history was firmly established in European and American universities as a professional field, resting on exact methods and making productive use of archival collections and new sources of evidence.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

**1. Answer the following questions to check how carefully you have read the text:**

1. What branches can the whole field of historiography be divided into?

2. What aspects did Greek and Roman historians attach greatest importance in their works to?

3. How did the introduction of Christianity influence the development of history and historiography?

4. Did the history of mankind have a precedent of mingling secular and religious history with moral interpretation?

5. Did historical scholars always write in vernacular languages?

6. How did historiography develop during the Middle Ages? What is the connection between historical writing and literacy?

7. Say a few words about the historiography of the Renaissance and the Enlightenment.

8. Due to whose works did history achieve its identity as an independent science? What did he find necessary to introduce to the historical methodology?

9. Historiography of what country besides Russia do you find particularly interesting?

**2. Give English-Russian equivalents of the following expressions:**

Работа, трактат по политике и экономике; to compile the annals; тысячелетие, тысячелетия; nonpartisan approach; быть единственным прецедентом; the operation of the divine in history; писать на родном языке, местном диалекте; to achieve its identity as; дать толчок, стимул чему-то; mingling of secular and religious in history; Ветхий Завет, Новый Завет, завет; a provisional model; возрождение интереса к чему-то; reliable testimony; признание современников за необыкновенные достижения; literacy; на стыке божественного и светского; comprehensive history of; точный научный метод.

**3. Complete the text translating Russian word combinations. Consult the prompt in the box, if necessary:**

*narratives, ecclesiastic history; to give impetus to or to encourage to be committed to; to interpret; to avoid forgery, ignorance and mistakes; the only precedent in the Old Testament; roughly; decayed; to see or to witness the renewal of interest, one of professional skills of the clergy; to set a standard for; it should be noted that; to gain a legal status; intermediary evidences; to achieve its identity; sources; originated with; to keep annals and chronicles; mingling of secular and ecclesiastic history with moral interpretation; unequal; a covenant; academic subject; literacy*

Historiography may be (примерно) divided into two (неравные) parts: Western and non-Western.

Western historiography (произошла, появилась у) the ancient Greeks. The Greeks and the Romans (дали, показали образец, установили литературный стандарт) for historical writing. (Необходимо отметить, что) the Greeks and the Romans were pagans. After Christianity (получило законный статус) new approaches were introduced and the first (история церкви) was written where major questions of human existence were also considered. Such (соединение, смешение, совмещение церковной и светской истории и ее нравственная оценка) had (единственный прецедент в Ветхом Завете), where (завет) between God and mankind was seen in historical terms.

During the Middle Ages classical education (пришло в упадок). (Грамотность) became (одним из профессиональных навыков священнослужителей). Many monasteries (вели летописи) often anonymous work of generations of monks. The 15th century (был свидетелем возрождения интереса) to the intensified study of Greek and Roman literature that (дало стимул) secular and realistic approach to political history both ancient and modern. Only in the 19th c history (получила признание) as an independent (научная дисциплина). History firmly (утвердилась) as a professional field in European and American universities.

#### ***4. Make up a plan and retell the text.***

### **NON-WESTERN HISTORIOGRAPHY**

***Transcribe the following words. Mind the stress.***

|          |               |             |              |
|----------|---------------|-------------|--------------|
| Muslim   | antiquity     | Confucius   | encyclopedia |
| Islam    | sacred        | genuine     | applicable   |
| Mohammed | authoritative | rationality | Jewish       |
| triumph  | bureaucrat    | subtlety    | caliphate    |

***Read and translate the text.***

Many non-Western peoples have traditions of historical writing that date back over millennia. Perhaps the most familiar

to Westerners is the Jewish tradition as known from the Bible. The triumph of Christianity in the Roman Empire during the 4th century assured the predominance of a type of historiography radically different from the works of the pagan Greek and Roman historians. Its origins were Jewish. The Jews were the only people of antiquity who had the supreme religious duty of remembering the past because their traditional histories commemorated the working out of God's plan for his chosen people. By contrast, no Greek ever heard his gods ordering him to remember. It was the duty of every Jew to be familiar with the Jewish sacred writings, which were ultimately gathered into what became the Old Testament. The writers of these biblical books only gave an authoritative version of what everybody was supposed to know, and they were only concerned with the selection of such facts as seemed relevant in interpreting God's purpose. In addition, the Jews also cherished unwritten traditions. To quote Josephus, a Jewish historian of the 1st century AD, «what had not been written down, was yet entrusted to the collective memory of the people of Israel and especially of its priests.»

The origins of Arabic historiography still remain obscure because of the gap between the legendary traditions of pre-Islamic Arabia before the start of the Muslim era (AD 622) and the sophisticated and fairly exact chronicles that began to appear in the later 8th and 9th centuries. But while the detailed stages of this development still await reconstruction, the main influences shaping the early Muslim historiography are clear enough. As in the case of the ancient Jews, it was created and perpetuated by religion. Mohammed (died 632) regarded himself as the successor to a long series of Jewish and Christian prophets, and he made Islam a religion with a strong sense of history. The compilation and verification of the Hadith, the traditions which formed with the Koran the basis of Islamic law, encouraged early development of historical skills. Teachings of Mohammed (Hadith) were transmitted orally for several generations, until they were written down in the 8th and 9th centuries. The resultant collections were only partly historical, as myths and inventions crept into them. But the better Muslim historians



scrupulously quoted their authorities and tried to be truthful. This was particularly true of the «classical» school of historians, who were writing at the centre of the Abbasid caliphate in Iraq in the 9th and 10th centuries. Al-Tabari (died 923), the most authoritative of them all, wrote his *History of Prophets and Kings* which became the accepted source of early Islamic history.

One of the original features of Muslim historiography is the large amount of attention devoted to the lives of devout men and of scholars. To many Muslim historians, these spiritual and intellectual activities were of much greater importance than the doings of princes and warriors. One of the peculiarities of Muslim historiography was the liking for encyclopedic dictionaries of famous men. The earliest of these were devoted to the Companions of Mohammed and to the early transmitters of the Muslim traditions. For a thousand years extremely diverse types of biographical collections have continued to appear in the Muslim world.

In the 14th century Ibn Khaldun who is considered the greatest Arab historian wrote a universal history that reveals the extraordinary extent of his learning and his unusual ability to conceive of general theories to account for centuries of social and political development.

Muslim historiography appears to have originally developed independently of European influences. Until the 19th century Muslim writers only very seldom consulted Christian sources and almost never noted events in Christian countries. They displayed at times more curiosity about the non-Muslim peoples of Asia. It is worth mentioning that in several countries, notably in parts of India, the first works that deserve the name of history appeared only after the Muslim conquest or the conversion to Islam. After the 12th century Arabic ceased to be the main language of Muslim historiography. Distinguished histories were written in Persian in the 13th century, and subsequently Turkish and other vernaculars came to be used by historians in different parts of the Islamic world. But, in its isolation from non-Muslim influences and its traditional interests, Islamic historiography underwent no intrinsic change until the 19th century, when it began to be affected by the impact of modern Western civilization.

Of all nations in the world, China has the longest, most voluminous record of its past, dating back nearly 3,000 years. Historiography was an interest of Chinese scholars from very early times and it was invested with the task of conveying applicable lessons for human life. According to the Chinese conception, history makes sense only if it can furnish practical directives for action or to supply correct information upon which action can wisely be based. All the schools of Chinese thought quoted the lessons of history. Confucius, with his stress on the moral content of exemplary history and the keeping of authentic records formed part of the universal belief in the value of history. The careful attention to writing down and preserving information became a central obligation of the Confucian scholars who served as bureaucrats to the unified Chinese state after the 3d century BC. Most ancient Chinese histories are the official records of scholar-bureaucrats, immensely detailed and concrete, with no attention at synthesis or explanation. The sayings and actions of each emperor were recorded day by day and later used to compile a survey of his reign. A long series of official histories and of records connected with them has survived from the time of the T'ang dynasty (618 – 907) onward. From then on, the great bulk of Chinese history was written by bureaucrats for bureaucrats. In 626 a History Office was set up for the first time to collate state documents into official dynastic annals, and by 636 five official histories of the preceding inter-dynastic period, including precise biographies, had been composed.

The first person to write comprehensive history of China from earliest times was Sima Qian (Ssu-ma Ch'ien), who produced his *Historical Records* during the Han dynasty. This masterpiece was patterned after the *Chungiu* included tabulated data, separate topical essays, and biographies of important figures. Its breadth and literary power made it immensely influential. Sima Qian's successor Ban Gu covered his own time in the *History of the Han*, adding more essays and including a list of sources. Within a fairly unified tradition, China produced a mass of historical writings unequaled by any other country before modern times. Until the late 19th century, Japanese historiography formed an offshoot of this tradition.

From a practical point of view this immense body of historical writings fulfilled a very useful purpose. Such histories were bound to be highly stereotyped and restricted in content to what interested the higher officialdom. It is easy to condemn it by modern Western standards for its excessive preoccupation with concrete details and inability to produce works of wider synthesis. But this Chinese tradition did gradually evolve in the direction of greater rationality and subtlety. Its scope widened as the sphere of government expanded.

Furthermore, within this tradition there appeared from time to time writers of genius, men of bold critical spirit, genuine historical insight, and overriding integrity. One of the greatest was Liu Chih-chi (661 – 721), the writer of the *Shih Tung*, the first thorough treatise in Chinese, or any other language, on historical method, which also constituted in effect a history of Chinese historiography. He had a successor in Ssu-ma Kuang (1019 – 1086), the author of the first fairly comprehensive general history of China (covering the years 403 BC — AD 959). In the 17th century a remarkable group of historical scholars virtually founded a school of critical Chinese philology. None of these writers succeeded in radically transforming Chinese historiography, but they created an increasingly sophisticated and critical tradition. Their successors in the 20th century assimilated some valuable features of modern Western historiography.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

**1. Answer the following questions to check how carefully you have read the text:**

1. Historical writings of what countries do you know to date back over millennia?

2. What was the difference between Jewish and pagan traditions?

3. What are the origins of Muslim historiography?

4. Did Mohammed write his teachings? Speak on the role of Mohammed in Muslim history.

5. What was an original feature of Muslim historiography? What do many Muslim historians attach great importance to?

6. In what languages was Muslim historiography written? Why didn't it undergo any intrinsic change?

7. With what peculiar task was Chinese historiography invested?

8. What were Chinese historians? What did they record? What useful purpose did the immense body of historical writings fulfill?

9. Why is the Chinese historiography easy to be condemned from Western point of view?

10. Why have Ibn Khaldun in Muslim historiography and Confucius and Liu Chih-chi in Chinese historiography been considered the greatest? Characterize these people.

11. How has non-Western historiography developed in the 20th century?

**2. Give English-Russian equivalents of the following expressions:**

Происхождение, корни; to cherish smth; смутный, неясный, малоизвестный; to undergo some intrinsic changes; передавать из уст в уста; comprehensive general history; шедевр; an offshoot; genuine historical insight; полный, основательный трактат или глубокий научный труд; the higher officialdom; день за днем; voluminous; чиновники; writings unequalled by; в отношении чего-либо; иметь большое значение, важность, ценность; to perpetuate; the liking for; быть знакомым с чем-то.

**3. Complete the text translating Russian word combinations. Consult the prompt in the box, if necessary:**

*to date back over millennia; most familiar with; the only people of antiquity; sacred writings, the Old Testament; as in the case of; to perpetuate; to consider oneself a successor to Jewish and Christian prophets; to be of great importance; to be transmitted orally; to be written down; to turn out; partly; to creep into them; one*

*of the original features; their liking for doings of devout people; appeared; independently of; to undergo no intrinsic changes; voluminous; according to; to make sense; to convey applicable exemplary lessons; to keep authentic records; to stress; a comprehensive history; to be considered a masterpiece; to condemn; excessive preoccupation of concrete details; from time to time; writers of genius; bold critical spirit; genuine historical insight; the first thorough treatise in Chinese, or any other language, on historical method; succeeded in; sophisticated*

Many non-Western peoples have traditions of historical writing (которые датируются несколькими тысячелетиями до нашей эры). Westerners (лучше всего знакомы с) Jewish tradition thanks to the Bible. The Jews were (единственным народом Древности) whose supreme religious duty was to know (Священное Писание), which came to us as (Ветхий Завет).

(Как и в случае с) ancient Jews, Muslim historiography was created and (сохранена) by religion. Mohammed (считал себя преемником иудейских и христианских пророков) and that's why in Muslim tradition history (имеет большую важность). Teachings of Mohammed (передавались из уст в уста) for several generations. They (были записаны) only in the 8th and 9th century and the collections (оказались) only (частично) historical, as myths and inventions (постепенно появились, накопились в них). (Отличительной чертой) of Muslim historians was (их склонность, любовь к описанию деяний благочестивых людей) and creating encyclopedic dictionaries of famous people. Muslim historiography (как оказалось) developed (независимо от) European influences and (не испытала никаких значительных перемен) until the 19th century.

China has the longest and (самую обширную) record of its past. (В соответствии с) the Chinese conception, history (имеет смысл) in case it (дает примеры образцовых нравственных поступков) and (хранит, ведет достоверные летописи) which Confucius (особо подчеркивал). (Всеобщая история) of China by Sima Qian (считается шедевром). It is easy (обвинять) Chinese historians (за их чрезмерное увлечение подробностями). But within this tradition there appeared (время от времени) (гениальные писатели), (обладающие смелым

критическим умом) и (подлинной исторической проницательностью). One of the greatest was Liu Chih-chi who created (первый в истории глубокий, основательный труд по вопросу методики в исторической науке на китайском языке). None of Chinese historians (удалось) radically transforming Chinese historiography but they created (тонкую, сложную) and critical tradition.

#### ***4. Make up a plan and retell the text.***

## **CIVILIZATION**

***Transcribe the following words. Pay attention to the stress.***

|              |              |
|--------------|--------------|
| civilization | uniformities |
| prelude      | rigid        |
| aftermath    | discern      |
| compatriot   | perspective  |
| jurist       | entity       |

***Read and translate the text.***

Civilization is an advanced state of a society possessing historical and cultural unity. Specific societies, because of their distinctive achievements, are regarded by historians as separate civilizations. The historical perspective is used in viewing a civilization, rather than a country. Since the Middle Ages, most European historians have adopted either a religious or national perspective. The religious view-point dominated among European historians until the 18th century. Regarding the Christian revelation as the most momentous event in history, they viewed all history as either the prelude to or the aftermath of that event. The national viewpoint developed in the early 16th century, largely on the basis of the political philosophy of the Italian statesman and historian Niccola Machiavelli, for whom the proper object of historical study was the state. After that period the historians rarely dealt with societies beyond the realm of European culture.

Historians became interested in other cultures during the Enlightenment. The development in the 18th century of a secular point of view and principles of rational criticism enabled the French writer and philosopher Voltaire and his compatriot the jurist and philosopher Montesquieu to transcend the provincialism of earlier historical thinking. Their attempts at universal history suffered from their biases. They tended to ignore irrational custom's and to imagine that all people were inherently rational beings and therefore very much alike. Early in the 19th century, philosophers and historians identified with Romantic movement criticized the 18th century assumption that people were the same everywhere at all times. The German philosophers Johann von Herder and G. W. F. Hegel emphasized the profound differences in the minds and works of humans in different cultures, thereby laying the foundation for the comparative study of civilizations.

According to modern historians of civilization, it is impossible to write a comprehensible history of any nation without taking into consideration the type of culture to which it belongs. They maintain that much of the life of a nation is affected by its participation in a larger social entity often composed of a number of nations or states sharing many distinctive characteristics that can be traced to a common origin. It is this larger social entity, cultural rather than political, that such historians consider the truly meaningful object of historical study. In modern times, the existing civilizations have unhinged upon one another to the point that no one civilization pursues a separate destiny any more and all may be considered participants in a common world civilization.

Some historians see striking uniformities in the histories of civilizations. The German philosopher Oswald Spengler, in *The Decline of West* (1918 – 1922) described civilizations as living organisms, each of which passes through identical stages at fixed periods. The British historian Arnold Toynbee, although not so rigid a determinist as Spengler, in *A Study of History* (1934 – 1961) also discerned a uniform pattern in the histories of civilizations. According to Toynbee, a civilization may prolong its life indefinitely by successful responses to the various internal

and external challenges that constantly arise to confront it. Many historians, however, are sceptical of philosophies of history derived from an alleged pattern of the past.

Historians have found difficulties in delimiting a particular society and correctly labeling it a civilization; they use the term «civilization» to refer to a number of past and present societies that manifest distinctive cultural and historical patterns. Some of these civilizations are the Andean, which originated about 800 BC; the Mexican (c. 3rd century BC); the Far Eastern, which originated in China about 2200 BC and spread to Japan about AD 600; the Indian (c. 1500 BC); the Egyptian (c. 3000 BC); the Minoan (c. 2000 BC); the Semitic (c. 1500 BC); the Greco-Roman (c. 1100 BC); the Byzantine, which originated in the 4th century AD; the Islamic (8th century AD); and the Western, which arose in Western Europe in the early Middle Ages (641).

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

***1. Answer the following questions to check how well you have read the text:***

1. What does the term «civilization» imply?
2. What perspective has been adopted by most European historians since the Middle Ages? What was history for them?
3. What historical thinking dominated in the 18th century?
4. What historical movement prevailed early in the 19th century? How did the historians of this trend treat previous historical assumptions?
5. What do modern historians of civilization maintain?
6. Can you agree with the doctrine put out by Oswald Spengler? How may a civilization prolong its life according to A. Toynbee?
7. Is it difficult for historians to delimit a particular society? What world civilizations are mentioned in this text?

***2. Give English-Russian equivalents of the following expressions:***



An advanced state of a society; историческое и культурное единство; specific societies; Средние века; the historical perspective ;религиозная теория; the Christian revelation; a momentous event; последствия данного события; the national viewpoint; государственный деятель; за пределами европейской цивилизации; Просвещение; a secular point of view; principles of rational criticism; провиденциализм предшествующей истории; a common origin; всеобщая история; сравнительное изучение цивилизаций; modern historians of civilization; принимать во внимание; a social entity; a rigid determinist; internal and external challenges; philosophies of history.

**3. Complete the text with the words and word combinations from the box, if necessary.**

*labelling; delimiting; historical perspective; relatively; manifest; interested in; to refer to; advanced; possessing; the Enlightenment; separate*

Historians have found difficulties in ... a particular society and correctly ... it a civilization; they use the term «civilization» ... a number of past and present societies that... distinctive cultural and historical patterns. Historians became ... non-European cultures during ... . Civilization is an ... state of a society ... historical and cultural unity. Specific societies are regarded by historians as ... civilizations. The ... used in viewing a civilization, rather than a country, as the significant unit is of... recent origin.

**4. Make up a plan and retell the text.**

## STATE

**Transcribe the following words. Pay attention to the stress.**

jurisdiction  
utilitarian

nourish  
alignment

environment  
mutual

|          |            |           |
|----------|------------|-----------|
| focusing | continuity | anarchism |
| vitality | artificial | inherent  |
| coercion | supremacy  | ancient   |

***Read and translate the text.***

The state is a form of human association distinguished from other social groups by its purpose, the establishment of order and security; its methods, the laws and their enforcement; its territory, the area of jurisdiction or geographic boundaries; and finally by its sovereignty. The state consists, most broadly, of the agreement of the individuals on the means whereby disputes are settled in the form of laws.

The history of the Western state begins in ancient Greece. Plato and Aristotle wrote of the *polls*, or city-state, as an ideal form of association, in which the whole community's religious, cultural, political, and economic needs could be satisfied. This city-state, characterized primarily by its self-sufficiency, was seen by Aristotle as the means of developing morality in the human character. The Greek idea corresponds more accurately to the modern concept of the nation — i.e., a population of a fixed area that shares a common language, culture, and history — whereas the Roman *res publica*, or commonwealth, is more similar to the modern concept of the state. The *res publica* was a legal system whose jurisdiction extended to all Roman citizens, securing their rights and determining their responsibilities.

It was not until the 16th century that the modern concept of the state emerged, in the writings of Niccolo Machiavelli (Italy) and Jean Bodin (France), as the centralizing force whereby stability might be regained. In *The Prince*, Machiavelli gave prime importance to the durability of government, sweeping aside all moral considerations and focusing instead on the strength — the vitality, courage, and independence — of the ruler. For Bodin, his contemporary, power was not sufficient in itself to create a sovereign; rule must comply with morality to be durable, and it must have continuity — i.e., a means of establishing succession. Bodin's theory was the forerunner of the 17th-century doctrine of the «divine right of kings», whereby

monarchy became the predominate form of government in Europe. It created a climate for the ideas of the 17th-century reformers like John Locke in England and Jean-Jacques Rousseau in France, who began to reexamine the origins and purposes of the state.

Rather than the right of a monarch to rule, Rousseau proposed that the state owed its authority to the general will of the governed. For him, the nation itself is sovereign, and the law is none other than the will of the people as a whole. Influenced by Plato, Rousseau recognized the state as the environment for the moral development of humanity. Man, though corrupted by his civilization, remained basically good and therefore capable of assuming the moral position of aiming at the general welfare. Because the result of aiming at individual purposes is disagreement, a healthy (no corrupting) state can exist only when the common good is recognized as the goal.

Rousseau's ideas reflect an attitude far more positive in respect of human nature than either Locke or Thomas Hobbes, his 16th-century English predecessor. The «natural condition» of man, said Hobbes, is self-seeking and competitive. Man subjects himself to the rule of the state as the only means of self-preservation whereby he can escape the brutish cycle of mutual destruction that is otherwise the result of his contact with others.

For Locke, the human condition is not so gloomy, but the state again springs from the need for protection — in this case, of inherent rights. Locke said that the state is the social contact by which individuals agree not to infringe on each other's «national rights» to life, liberty, and property, in exchange for which each man secures his own «sphere of liberty».

The 19th-century German philosopher G. W. F. Hegel saw the sphere of liberty as the whole state, with freedom not so much an individual's right but rather a result of human reason. Freedom was not the capacity to do as one liked but was the alignment with a universal will toward well-being. When men acted as moral agents, conflict ceased, and their aims coincided. Subordinating himself to the state, the individual was able to

realize a synthesis between the values of family and the needs of economic life. To Hegel, the state was the culmination of moral action, where freedom of choice had led to the unity of the rational will, and all parts of society were nourished within the health of the whole. However, Hegel remained enchanted with the power of national aspiration.

For the English utilitarians of the 19th century, the state was an artificial means of producing a unity of interest and a device for maintaining stability. This benign but mechanistic view proposed by Jeremy Bentham and others set a precedent for the early communist thinkers like Karl Marx for whom the state had become an «apparatus of oppression» determined by a ruling class whose object was always to maintain itself in economic supremacy. He and his collaborator, Friedrich Engels, wrote in the *Communist Manifesto* that, in order to realize complete freedom and contentment, the people must replace the government first by a «dictatorship of proletariat,» which would be followed by the «withering away of the state», and then by a classless society based not on the enforcement of laws but on the organization of the means of production and the fair distribution of goods and property.

In the 20th century, concepts of state ranged from anarchism, in which the state was deemed unnecessary and even harmful in that it operated by some form of coercion, to the welfare state, in which the government was held to be responsible for the survival of its members, guaranteeing subsistence to those lacking it.

In the wake of the destruction produced by the nationalistically inspired world wars, theories of internationalism like those of Hans Kelsen and Oscar Ichazo appeared. Kelsen put forward the idea of the state as simply a centralized legal order, no more sovereign than the individual, in that it could not be defined only by its own existence and experience. It must be seen in the context of its interaction with the rest of the world. Ichazo proposed a new kind of state in which the universal qualities of all individuals provided a basis for unification, with the whole society functioning as a single organism.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

***1. Answer the following questions to check how well you have read the text:***

1. What does the term «state» imply?
2. What is the difference between the Greek and the Roman ideas of the state?
3. Speak of the modern concept of the state that emerged in the 16th century. Try to compare different points of view.
4. How did the 17th century reformers reexamine the origins and purposes of the state?
5. How did Hegel develop the idea of freedom in the state?
6. What changes did the concept of state undergo throughout the 20th century?
7. In which way did Kelsen and Ichazo treat the idea of universal internationalism?

***2. Give English-Russian equivalents of the following expressions:***

Вслед за разрушениями мировых войн...; benign but mechanistic view; создать прецедент; welfare state; отмирание государства; the state was deemed unnecessary; бесклассовое общество; coercion; to guarantee subsistence; средства производства; complete freedom and contentment; collaborator; орудие угнетения; perpetual peace; неотъемлемые права; to escape the brutish cycle of mutual destruction; единственный способ самосохранения; to infringe on smb's «natural rights»; равнение на всеобщее стремление к благополучию; device for maintaining stability; быть предвестником; self-sufficiency; всеобщее благо; the natural condition of man is self-seeking and competitive; подчиняться государственному порядку; «divine right of kings»; пересматривать первопричины и цели государства; durability of government; государство обязано своей властью всеобщей воле тех, кем оно управляет; it was not until the 16th century that...; закон есть не что иное, как воля народа; establishing succession; национальное самосознание; to share smb's vision; в полной мере.

**3. Complete the text with the words and word combinations from the box:**

*withering away of the state; ideal form of association; subsistence; health of the whole; self-sufficiency; to be nourished; apparatus of oppression; sphere of liberty; result of human reason; welfare state; to sweep aside; dictatorship of the proletariat; far more positive; to infringe natural rights; the predominate form of government; predecessors; moral development of humanity; general welfare*

1. Philosophers of Ancient Greece thought their city-state ... It was primarily characterized by its ...

2. Niccolo Machiavelli in his book *The Prince* ... all moral considerations and gave prime importance to the ... of government, focusing on the strength of the ruler.

3. In the 17th century monarchy became ... in Europe. The well-known doctrine of the ... came into being.

4. Rousseau recognized the state as the environment for the ... , that aimed at the ... . His attitude to the idea of human nature was ... than that of his English ...

5. Locke favoured the idea of the state as the social contact by which people agreed not to ... on each other's ... , securing in exchange their own ...

6. To Hegel, the 19th century German philosopher, freedom within the state was a ... , and the state itself was the culmination of moral action with all parts of society ... within the ...

7. The authors of the Communist Manifesto put forward the idea of establishing a ... , followed by the ... , as an ...

8. The 20th century witnessed a wide range of state concepts: from anarchism to the ... with ... guaranteed to its members.

**4. Make up a plan and retell the text.**

## TOTALITARIANISM

*Transcribe the following words. Pay attention to the stress.*

|                   |              |             |            |
|-------------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| totalitarianism   | amenable     | persecution | arbiter    |
| industrialization | ideology     | blurs       | dissent    |
| conquest          | acquiescence | nullifying  | extinction |

Totalitarianism is a form of government that theoretically permits no individual freedom and that seeks to subordinate all aspects of the individual's life to the authority of the government.

Totalitarianism is often distinguished from dictatorship, despotism, or tyranny by its supplanting of all political institutions with new ones and its sweeping away of all legal, social, and political traditions. The totalitarian state pursues some special goal, such as industrialization or conquest, to the exclusion of all others. All resources are directed toward its attainment regardless of the cost. Whatever might further the goal is supported; whatever might foil the goal is rejected. This obsession spawns an ideology that explains everything in terms of the goal, rationalizing all obstacles that may arise and all forces that may contend with the state. The resulting popular support permits the state the widest latitude of action of any form of government. Any dissent is branded evil, and internal political differences are not permitted. Because pursuit of the goal is the only ideological foundation for the totalitarian state, achievement of the goal can never be acknowledged.

Under totalitarian rule, traditional social institutions and organizations are discouraged and suppressed; thus the social fabric is weakened and people become more amenable to absorption into a single, unified movement. Participation in approved public organizations is at first encouraged and then required. Old religious and social ties are supplanted by artificial ties to the state and its ideology. As pluralism and individualism diminish, most of the people embrace the totalitarian state's ideology. The infinite diversity among individuals blurs, replaced by a mass conformity (or at least acquiescence) to the belief and behaviour sanctioned by the state.

Large-scale, organized violence becomes permissible and sometimes necessary under totalitarian rule, justified by the overriding commitment to the state ideology and pursuit of the state's goal. In Nazi Germany and Stalin's Soviet Union, whole classes of people, such as the Jews and the kulaks (wealthy peasant farmers), respectively, were singled out for persecution and extinction. In each case the persecuted were linked with some external enemy and blamed for the state's troubles, and thereby public opinion was aroused against them and their fate at the hands of the military and the police was condoned.

Police operations within a totalitarian state often appear similar to those within a police state, but one important difference distinguishes them. In a police state the police operate according to known, consistent procedures. In a totalitarian state the police operate without the constraints of laws and regulations. The actions are unpredictable and directed by the whim of their rulers. Under Hitler and Stalin uncertainty was interwoven into the affairs of the state. The German constitution of the Weimar Republic was never abrogated under Hitler, but an enabling act passed by the Republic in 1933 permitted him to amend the constitution at will, in effect nullifying it. The role of lawmaker became vested in one man. Similarly, Stalin provided a constitution for the Soviet Union in 1936 but never permitted it to become the framework of Soviet law. Instead, he was the final arbiter in the interpretation of Marxism-Leninism-Stalinism and changed his interpretations at will. Neither Hitler nor Stalin permitted change to become predictable, thus increasing the sense of terror among the people and repressing any dissent.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

***1. Answer the following questions to check how well you have read the text:***

1. What does the term «totalitarianism» imply?
2. What is the main feature that distinguishes totalitarianism from dictatorship, despotism and tyranny?



3. Explain why the achievement of the goal in a totalitarian state can never be acknowledged.

4. How does the state's ideology influence the people under totalitarian rule?

5. What is the nature of public opinion in totalitarian states?

6. Try to compare police operations within a totalitarian state with those within a police state.

7. Speak of the role of a constitution in states with totalitarian form of government.

***2. Decide whether the following statements are true or false; correct the wrong ones:***

1. Totalitarianism is a political system in which only one political party and no rival loyalties are permitted.

2. Under totalitarian rule all resources are directed toward the attainment of some special goal which is in fact never achieved.

3. The activity of social institutions and organizations are encouraged and stimulated by the totalitarian government.

4. Acquiescence is the only means of surviving under totalitarian rule.

5. The totalitarian regime spawns lots of internal and external enemies responsible for the state's troubles and condemned by public opinion.

6. Under totalitarianism old religious and social ties are hardly condoned.

7. Popular support of the totalitarian state's ideology is always unanimous and sincere.

8. Organized violence is necessary in totalitarian states as it is justified by the pursuit of the state's goal and therefore is considered legal.

9. The German constitution of the Weimar Republic was in fact nullified by Hitler.

10. Stalin's interpretation of Marxism-Leninism was within the framework of Soviet law.

11. In a police state the government operates without the constraints of laws.

### **3. Give English-Russian equivalents of the following expressions:**

Large-scale violence; преследовать некую особую цель; to contend with the state; клеймить позором; mass conformity; санкционированные общественные организации; to foil the goal; внешний враг; to abrogate a constitution; молчаливое согласие; to further the goal; действовать в рамках закона; to be amenable to absorption into a single unified movement; непредсказуемая политика; by the whim of the rulers; подавлять любое инакомыслие; to embrace the totalitarian state's ideology; произвольно вносить поправки в конституцию; a final arbiter; чувство страха у людей; constraints of laws; настраивать общественное мнение против кого-либо; supplanting of all political institutions by new ones; порождать идеологию; overriding commitment; предавать забвению; to single out people for persecution and extinction; отменять (аннулировать) конституцию; to sweep away all legal traditions; любой ценой, чего бы это ни стоило; obsession; общественный строй.

### **4. Complete the text with the words and word combinations from the box:**

*uncertainty; discouraged; final arbiter; be acknowledged; by the whim; terror; ideological foundation; long-standing; blurs; artificial; branded evil; foil; spawns; acquiescence; vested in; abrogated; further; supplanted; pursuit; amenable; an obsession; exemplified; at will; nullifying; predictable; framework; in terms; strives*

Under totalitarianism all... traditions are ... and suppressed. Traditional social institutions and organizations are ... with new ones. Old religious and social ties are replaced by ... ties to the state and its ideology.

The ... of some special goal to the exclusion of all others becomes ... with the totalitarian state. Whatever might ... the goal is supported; whatever might ... the goal is rejected. All this ... an ideology explaining everything ... of the goal and

making people ... to absorption into a single, unified movement. The infinite diversity among individuals ... , replaced by mass conformity or at least ... to the demands of the totalitarian state. Any dissent is repressed and ... .

Totalitarian dictatorships are often ... by Nazi Germany under Hitler and Soviet Union under Stalin. In both these states the actions of the government were extremely unpredictable and directed ... of the rulers. In fact the role of law maker was ... one man. Although Hitler never ... the German constitution, no one could prevent him from amending it ... , in effect ... it, as well as Stalin never permitted the constitution of 1936 to become the ... of Soviet law. He was also the ... in the interpretation of Marxism-Leninism. Neither Hitler nor Stalin was ever ... in their decisions; it inspired constant ... and ... into minds of their people.

The most curious thing about totalitarianism is the fact, that the great special goal it ... for can never ... as achieved, because pursuit of the goal is the only ... for the existence of a totalitarian state.

***5. Make up a plan and retell the text.***

## **DICTATORSHIP**

***Transcribe the following words. Pay attention to the stress.***

|              |                |              |
|--------------|----------------|--------------|
| designate    | tyranny        | impetus      |
| charismatic  | identification | abrogate     |
| crises       | to resort      | pluralism    |
| executive    | monocratic     | arbiter      |
| tyrant       | technique      | diversity    |
| totalitarian | authoritarian  | acquiescence |

***Read and translate the text.***

Dictatorship is a form of government in which one person or a small group possesses absolute power without effective

constitutional limitations. The term *dictatorship* comes from the Latin title *dictator*, which in the Roman Republic designated a temporary magistrate who was granted extraordinary powers in order to deal with state crises. Modern dictators, however, resemble ancient tyrants rather than ancient dictators. Ancient philosophers' descriptions of the tyrannies of Greece and Sicily go far toward characterizing modern dictatorships. Dictators usually resort to force or fraud to gain despotic political power, which they maintain through the use of intimidation, terror, and the suppression of basic civil liberties. They may also employ techniques of mass propaganda in order to sustain their public support.

With the decline and disappearance in the 19th and 20th centuries of monarchies based on hereditary descent, dictatorship became one of the two chief forms of government in use by nations throughout the world, the other being constitutional democracy. Rule by dictators has taken several different forms. In Latin America in the 19th century, various dictators arose after effective central authority had collapsed in the new nations recently freed from Spanish colonial rule. These *caudillos*, or self-proclaimed leaders, usually led a private army and tried to establish control over a territory before marching upon a weak national government. Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna in Mexico and Juan Manuel de Rosas in Argentina are examples of such leaders.

Later 20th century dictators in Latin America were different. They were national rather than provincial leaders and often were put in their position of power by nationalistic military officers, as was Juan Peron of Argentina. They usually allied themselves with a particular social class, and attempted either to maintain the interests of wealthy and privileged elites or to institute far-reaching left-wing social reforms.

In the new states of Africa and Asia after World War II, dictators quickly established themselves on the ruins of constitutional arrangements inherited from the Western colonial powers that had proved unworkable in the absence of a strong middle class and in the face of local traditions of autocratic rule. In some such countries, elected presidents and prime ministers

captured personal power by establishing one-party rule and suppressing the opposition, while in others the army seized power and established military dictatorships.

The communist and fascist dictatorships that arose in various technologically advanced countries in the first half of the 20th century were distinctively different from the authoritarian regimes of Latin America or the postcolonial dictatorships of Africa and Asia. Nazi Germany under Adolf Hitler and the Soviet Union under Joseph Stalin were the leading examples of such modern totalitarian dictatorships. The crucial elements of both were the identification of the state with a single mass party and of the party with its charismatic leader, the use of an official ideology to legitimize and maintain the regime, the use of terror and propaganda to suppress dissent and stifle opposition, and the use of modern science and technology to control the economy and individual behavior. Soviet-type communist dictatorships arose in central and eastern Europe, China, and other countries in the wake of World War II, though most of them (as well as the Soviet Union itself) had collapsed by the last decade of the 20th century. The two systems, however, may be distinguished in several ways. Fascism, in its National Socialist form, was primarily a counterrevolutionary movement that mobilized middle- and lower middle-class groups to pursue nationalistic and militaristic goals and whose sole principle of organization was obedience to the Fuhrer. By contrast, Soviet Communism grew out of a revolutionary theory of society, pursued the goal of revolutionary overthrow of capitalist systems internationally, and employed the complex bureaucratic structures of the Communist party as mechanisms of governmental organization. Western constitutional democracies have provided examples of another type of contemporary dictatorship. In the 20th century, during times of domestic or foreign crisis, even most constitutional governments have conferred emergency powers on the chief executive, and in some notable cases this provided the opportunity for duly elected leaders to overthrow democracy and rule dictatorially thereafter. The proclamation of emergency rule, for example, was the beginning of the dictatorships of Hitler in Germany, Benito

Mussolini in Italy, Ke-mal Ataturk in Turkey, Josef Pilsudski in Poland, and Antonio de Oliveira Salazar in Portugal. In other democracies, however, constitutional arrangements have survived quite lengthy periods of crisis, as in Great Britain and the United States during World War II, in which the use of extraordinary powers by the executive came to a halt with the end of the wartime emergency.

Many forces at work in the 20th century appear to lend impetus to the rise of monocratic forms of rule. In nearly all political systems, the powers of chief executives have increased in response to the demanding social, economic, and military crises of the age. The complex decisions required of governments in a technological era, the perfectionist impulses of the great bureaucratic structures that have developed in all industrialized societies, and the imperatives of national survival in a nuclear world continue to add to the process of executive aggrandizement. The question for many constitutional regimes is whether the limitation and balance of power that are at the heart of constitutional government can survive the growing enlargement of executive power.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

***1. Answer the following questions to check how carefully you have read the text:***

1. What is the origin of the term *dictatorship*?
2. What techniques did dictators use to maintain their political power?
3. Which two main forms of government were typical in the world in the 19th and 20th centuries?
4. What forms has the dictatorial rule of Latin America taken throughout its development in the 19th and 20th centuries?
5. Why did the constitutional arrangement inherited from the Western colonial powers prove unworkable in the new states of Africa and Asia after World War II?
6. What are the crucial elements that differentiate communist and fascist dictatorships from authoritarian regimes of Latin America and postcolonial dictatorships of Asia and Africa?

7. Speak of the features fascism and communism have in common.

8. How should the two systems (fascism and communism) be distinguished?

9. How did most Western constitutional democracies try to settle the problems of domestic or foreign crises? How far did those efforts lead them to?

10. What is the main question for many constitutional regimes under the condition of executive aggrandizement?

## **2. Give English-Russian equivalents of the following expressions:**

Явиться стимулом; aggrandizement; прибегать к насилию; perfectionist impulses; чрезвычайное положение военного времени; imperatives of national survival; подавление основных гражданских свобод; fraud; выступать в союзе с кем-либо; intimidation; объявление чрезвычайных полномочий; caudillos; проводить далеко идущие социальные реформы; to confer emergency powers; душить оппозицию; to prove unworkable; нацистская Германия; charismatic leader; военная диктатура; in the wake of World War II; преследовать цель; a temporary magistrate.

## **3. Complete the text with the words and phrases from the box:**

*Nazi; aggrandizement; proclamation of emergency rule; magistrate; monocrotic; extraordinary powers; lend impetus; crisis; forces at work; sustain their public support; resort to force or fraud; unworkable; mass propaganda; to institute; caudillos; social reforms; provincial; inherited from; allied; military dictatorships; charismatic leader; conferred; crucial elements; totalitarian dictatorship; domestic or foreign crisis; recognizable; notable cases, dissent*

In the Roman Republic the term *dictator* was associated with a temporary ... vested with ... for the period of state ...

Although rule by dictators can take different forms in various parts of the world, there are always ... features about all

dictatorships. To gain despotic political power dictators ... and through the use of elaborate techniques of ... they manage to ... .

In the course of the 19th and 20th centuries the countries of Latin America witnessed numerous dictators: from ... self-proclaimed leaders, ... , to national ones, who ... themselves with wealthy and privileged elites or attempted ... left-wing ... .

After World War II in some former Western colonies constitutional arrangements ... their previous masters proved ... for a number of reasons, creating ideal circumstances for establishing ... .

The communist and fascist regimes exemplified another form of dictatorial rule, brand new and distinctively different from all previous authoritarian regimes — the so called modern ... . The ... of both were the identification of the state with an only mass party with its ... at the helm and the use of an official ideology to suppress ... and stifle opposition.

In Western constitutional democracies there were also ... of providing the opportunity for emergence of dictatorships. Thus during times of ... most constitutional governments ... powers upon the chief executive. Such was the case with ... Germany where the ... was the beginning of Hitler's dictatorship.

In general, there are many ... , that ... to the rise of ... forms of rule, irrelevant to the type of political system. The process of executive ... in most industrialized societies can be explained by numerous social, economic and military requirements of the age.

#### ***4. Make up a plan and retell the text.***

## **TERRORISM**

***Transcribe the following words. Pay attention to the stress.***

|               |               |                |                |
|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|
| violence      | banishment    | unacknowledged | legitimate     |
| nationalistic | expropriation | media          | hijackings     |
| effectiveness | virtue        | isolation      | assassinations |



Terrorism is the systematic use of terror or unpredictable violence against governments, publics, or individuals to attain a political objective. Terrorism has been used by political organizations with both rightist and leftist objectives, by nationalistic and ethnic groups, by revolutionaries, and by the armies and secret police of the governments themselves.

Terrorism has been practiced throughout history and throughout the world. The ancient Greek historian Xenophon wrote of the effectiveness of psychological warfare against enemy populations. Roman emperors such as Tiberius (reigned AD 14—37) and Caligula (reigned AD 37—41) used banishment, expropriation of property, and execution as means to discourage opposition to their rule. The Spanish Inquisition used arbitrary arrest, torture, and execution to punish what is viewed as religious heresy. The use of terror was openly advocated by Robespierre as a means of encouraging revolutionary virtue during the French Revolution, leading to the period of his political dominance called the Reign of Terror (1793—94). After the American Civil War (1861—65) defiant Southerners formed a terrorist organization called the Ku Klux Klan to intimidate supporters of Reconstruction. In the latter half of the 19th century, terrorism was adopted by adherents of anarchism in Western Europe, Russia, and the United States. They believed that the best way to effect revolutionary political and social change was to assassinate persons in positions of power. From 1865 to 1905 a number of kings, presidents, prime ministers, and other government officials were killed by anarchists' guns or bombs.

The 20th century witnessed great changes in the use and practice of terrorism. Terrorism became the hallmark of a number of political movements stretching from the extreme right to the extreme left of the political spectrum. Technological advances such as automatic weapons and compact, electrically detonated explosives gave terrorists a new mobility and lethality.

Terrorism was adopted as virtually a state policy, though an unacknowledged one, by such totalitarian regimes as those of Nazi Germany under Adolf Hitler and Soviet Union under Joseph

Stalin. In these states arrest, imprisonment, torture, and execution were applied without legal guidance or restraints to create a climate of fear and to encourage adherence to the national ideology and the declared economic, social, and political goals of the state.

Terrorism has most commonly become identified, however, with individuals or groups attempting to destabilize or overthrow existing political institutions. Terrorism has been used by one or both sides in anticolonial conflicts (Ireland and the United Kingdom, Algeria and France, Vietnam and France/United States), in disputes between different national groups over possession of a contested homeland (Palestinians and Israel), in conflicts between different religious denominations (Catholics and Protestants in the Northern Ireland), and in internal conflicts between revolutionary forces and established governments (Malaysia, Indonesia, the Philippines, Iran, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Argentina).

Terrorism's public impact has been greatly magnified by the use of modern communications media. Any act of violence is certain to attract television coverage, which brings the event directly into millions of homes and exposes viewers to the terrorists' demands, grievances, or political goals. Modern terrorism differs from that of the past because its victims are frequently innocent civilians who are picked at random or who merely happen into terrorist situations. Many groups of terrorists in Europe hark back to the anarchists of the 19th century in their isolation from the political mainstream and the unrealistic nature of their goals. Lacking a base of popular support, extremists substitute violent acts for legitimate political activities. Such acts include kidnappings, assassinations, skyjackings, bombings, and hijackings.

The Baader-Meinhof gang of West Germany, the Japanese Red Army, Italy's Red brigades, the Puerto Rican FALN, al-Fatah and other Palestinian organizations, the Shining Path of Peru, and France's Direct Action were among the most prominent terrorist groups of the later 20th century.

## ASSIGNMENTS

***1. Answer the following questions to check how carefully you have read the text:***

1. What objectives are usually pursued by terrorism?
2. What was the role and place of terrorism throughout centuries and throughout the world?
3. Can terrorism be used in the framework of a state policy? Speak of such cases in history.
4. Do you think terrorism is the only means of settling various conflicts in societies?
5. Speak of the role of communications media in terrorism's public impact.

***2. Give English-Russian equivalents of the following expressions:***

Rightist and leftist objectives; приверженцы анархизма; to witness great changes; внутренние конфликты; to practice terrorism; дестабилизировать существующие политические институты; to adopt terrorism as virtually a state policy; ультралевые, ультра правые; to be puked at random; ослаблять оппозицию; public impact; преувеличивать; lethality; похищение людей; a contested homeland; различные религиозные вероисповедания; communications media; воздушное пиратство; to happen into terrorist situation; брать пример с кого-то, возвращаться к примеру кого-то; grievances; телерепортаж; psychological warfare; политическое убийство; unpredictable violence; запугивать кого-либо; electrically detonated explosives; захват заложников; to view something as religious heresy; поджоги; perpetration of hoaxes; ни в чем не повинные граждане; in the latter half of the 19th century; люди, стоящие у власти.

***3. Complete the text with the words and word combinations from the box:***

*hallmark; lethality; unpredictable; public impact; violence; unacknowledged; kidnapping and assassinations; random; grievances; happen into; adherence to; internal conflict; practiced*

Terrorism is a special type of ... . It is a tactic used in peace, ... and war. The threat of terrorism is ever present and an attack is likely to occur when least expected, so we can call it ... violence.

Nowadays terrorism is ... on a global scale in its various forms stretching from ... to bombings and perpetration of hoaxes. Technological advances gave the violence even greater sophistication and ... , resulting in thousands of deaths. Moreover, modern terrorism tends to publicize its ... and goals. It often drives target selection: the greater the symbolic value of the target, the more ... the attack brings to the terrorists and the more fear it generates. Anyone can ... a terrorist situation, anyone can be a ... victim.

Under totalitarianism terror is the ... of a state policy, though ... legitimately. There are no restraints to encourage ... the national ideology of the country.

***4. Decide whether the following statements are true or false; correct those that are wrong:***

1. The practice of using terrorism in its form of unpredictable violence throughout the contemporary world cannot be denied.

2. But for terror during the French Revolution Robespierre would have never entered the period of his political dominance.

3. Technological advances of the 20th century brought no changes into the practice of terrorism.

4. In order to encourage adherence to the national ideology and the declared political goals of the state Nazi Germany put no obstacles to terrorism.

5. The anarchists of the 19th century were always close to the political mainstream and put forward quite realistic demands.

6. Due to modern communications media, millions of viewers are directly exposed to the terrorists' political goals.

***5. Make up a plan and retell the text.***

## Part II ARTS AND MYTHOLOGY

*Give the definitions of the following terms.*

Culture, artifact, art, civilization, fine arts, decorative applied arts, architecture, painting, tempera, fresco, ink painting, oil, watercolour, acrylic, pastel, graphic arts, sculpture, literature, drama, music, cinema.

*Pronounce and remember the following vocabulary.*

|                    |                        |                   |
|--------------------|------------------------|-------------------|
| Ancient Art        | Art Nouveau            | Post-Modernism    |
| Impressionism      | International Gothic   | Rococo            |
| Classical Art      | Fauvism                | Pop Art           |
| Symbolism          | Realism                | Neo-Classical     |
| Byzantine Period   | High Renaissance       | Modern Realism    |
| Post-Impressionism | Surrealism             | Romantic          |
| Early Medieval     | Mannerism              | Early Renaissance |
| Expressionism      | Abstract Expressionism | Cubism            |
| Gothic Medieval    | Baroque                |                   |

*Before reading the texts answer the following questions.*

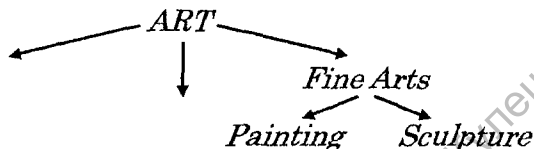
1. What arts are mainly concerned with beauty? What arts are more focused on utility?
2. What art deals with selection of furnishings?
3. What is the difference between prose and poetry?
4. What arts does cinema borrow from?

*Restore the omitted parts of the sentences.*

1. Culture is the socially \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Culture is \_\_\_\_\_ by intellectual and aesthetic training.

3. \_\_\_\_\_ is a simple object \_\_\_\_\_.
4. Civilization is the culture \_\_\_\_\_.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ human skill, and invention \_\_\_\_\_.

***Complete the following web-chart.***



***Read the texts below and enrich your knowledge in arts.***

## **ANCIENT ART**

Ancient Art — art of prehistoric cultures and the ancient civilizations, e.g. around the Mediterranean that predate the classical world of Greece and Rome (Sumerian and Aegean art).

Artifacts range from simple relics of the Paleolithic period, such as pebbles carved with symbolic figures, to the sophisticated art forms of Ancient Egypt and Assyria.

### ***Paleolithic Art***

The earliest surviving artifacts are mainly from Europe, dating back to 30,000-10,000 BC. This was the period of hunter-gathering cultures. Items that survive are small sculptures, such as the Willendorf Venus carved from a small stone and simply painted. Cave paintings in different places depict animals — bison, bulls, horses, and deer — and a few human figures. It is probable that the caves were decorated as part of magical rituals, perhaps to ensure successful hunts. The underground network of caves at Lascaux, south-west France, has some artworks with well-defined features and strong colouring, e.g. the Galloping Horse.

### ***Neolithic Art***

The Neolithic Era (4000-2400 BC) is generally understood as that time period during which people began to settle into

small agricultural communities and eventually formed cities. Various artistic expressions developed as people required permanent dwellings (architecture), furniture and utensils (woodcraft and pottery), a fixed location for gods (temple buildings and religious objects) and secure places for the bodies of the deceased (tombs and urns).

Some artifacts of the Neolithic Era are everyday objects. They reveal that fishing and hunting were the main occupations of that time. Neolithic people decorated clay vessels, created stone, horn and wooden figurines of people and animals.

«Human figurines are often understood as fertility and/or worship figures, although their exact purpose remains unknown. Most of the statuettes were found in burial locations.

Characteristic of late Neolithic Mesopotamian art are the large eyes of human figurines, the arms folded across the abdomen, and the staring, supplicant appearance:

The Bronze Age overlaps the Neolithic Era in time and is generally marked by an increased use of metals to replace stone tools and an increase in human settlements, often with locations with large megalithic structures, such as Carnac in France and Stonehenge in Britain.

### ***Egyptian Art***

The history of ancient Egypt falls into three periods: the Old, the Middle, and the New Kingdoms, covering about 3,000 years between them. Sculpture and painting of these periods use strict conventions and symbols based on religious beliefs. The best known artifacts of the time are: the monumental sculpture of the Sphinx; the treasures of grave goods; the temples of Karnak and Luxor and the maze, of tombs in the Valley of the Kings; and the golden coffins of Tutankhamen's mummified body.

Ancient Egyptian architectural development parallels the chronology of the historical periods: Old Kingdom, 2680-2258 BC, Middle Kingdom, 2134-1786 BC, New Kingdom, 1570-1085BC.

Old Kingdom remains are almost entirely sepulchral, chiefly the tombs of monarchs and nobles. The Mastaba is the oldest remaining form of sepulcher; it is a rectangular, flat-roofed structure with sloping walls containing chambers built over the

mummy pit. The pyramid of a sovereign was begun as soon as he ascended the throne. Groups of pyramids remain; those at Giza, which include the Great Pyramid of Cheops, are among the best known.

Middle Kingdom tombs were tunneled out of the rock cliffs on the west bank of the Nile; among them the remarkable group (c.1991-1786 BC) at Beni Hasan.

New Kingdom temples in the environs of Thebes, such as those of Medinet Habu and the Ramesseum, derived their form from the funerary chapels of previous ages. This period was a time of great temple construction, those temples extant conforming to a distinct type. The doorway in the massive facade is flanked by great sloping towers, or pylons, in front of which obelisks and colossal statues were often placed. The more important temples were approached between rows of sculptured rams and sphinxes. A high enclosing wall screened the building from the common people, who had no share in the temple rituals practiced solely by the king, the officials, and the priesthood. Beyond the open colonnaded courtyard was the great hypostyle hall with immense columns arranged in a central nave and side aisles. The shorter columns of the latter permitted a clerestory for the admission of light. Behind the hypostyle hall were small sanctuaries, where only the king and priests might enter, and behind these were small service chambers.

The Great Temple of Amon at Karnak is a product of many successive additions; the central columns of its hypostyle hall are the largest known. In the temples that resulted from many additions, unity of design was often sacrificed to sheer size. New Kingdom temples were also excavated from rock. The temples of Abu-Simbel begun by Seti I (1302-1290 BC), have four colossal figures, sculptured from solid rock, of Ramses II, who completed the temples.

### ***Sumerian Art***

More than 4,000 years ago the valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers began to teem with life — producing first the Sumerian, then the Babylonian, Assyrian, and Persian Empires. Excavations have unearthed evidence of great skill and artistry.

From Sumeria we have examples of fine works in marble, diorite, hammered gold, and lapis lazuli. Of the many portraits



produced in this area, some of the best are those of Gudea, ruler of Lagash.

Some of the portraits are in marble, others, such as the one in the Louvre in Paris, are cut in gray-black diorite. Dating from about 2400 BC, they have the smooth perfection and idealized features of the classical period in Sumerian art.

Sumerian art and architecture was ornate and complex. Clay was the Sumerians' most abundant material. Stone, wood, and metal had to be imported.

Art was primarily used for religious purposes.

Sumerian techniques and motifs were widely available because of the invention of cuneiform writing before 3000 BC. This system of writing developed before the last centuries of the 4th millennium BC, in the lower Tigris and Euphrates valley, most likely by the Sumerians. The characters consist of arrangements of wedge-like strokes, generally on clay tablets.

Among other Sumerian art forms were the clay cylinder seals used to mark documents or property. They were highly sophisticated.

The Sumerian temple was a small brick house that the god was supposed to visit periodically. It was ornamented so as to recall the reed houses built by the earliest Sumerians in the valley. This house, however, was set on a brick platform, which became larger and taller as time progressed until the platform at Ur (built around 2100 BC) was 45 by 60 meters and 23 meters high. These Mesopotamian temple platforms are called ziggurats, a word derived from the Assyrian *zigguratu*, meaning «high.» They were symbols in themselves; the ziggurat at Ur was planted with trees to make it represent a mountain. There the god visited Earth, and the priests climbed to its top to worship. The ziggurat was one of the world's first great architectural structures.

### ***Babylonian Art***

In the 18th cent. BC, Babylonia under Hammurabi rose to power and dominated Mesopotamia. A diorite head, wide-eyed, bearded, found at Susa (1792-50 BC; Louvre), is generally taken to be a portrait of Hammurabi. The surface is carved to show the marks of aging on a sensitive face. The great basalt stele found in Susa upon which Hammurabi's immortal code of law is

inscribed bears a relief at the top showing the king himself before the sun god who commands him to set down the law for his people (c. 1750 BC; Louvre). Hammurabi is also represented kneeling in prayer in a sculpture in the round that is coloured green and on which the hands and face have been gilded. A sculpture from Mari of a fertility goddess, holding a vase from which water flows down her skirt, further attests to the genius of Babylonian sculptors. Several examples of terra-cotta plaques of this period in the Louvre depict scenes of Babylonian daily life, including agricultural pursuits and crafts such as carpentry. Babylonia was also a glassmaking centre, but far less glass than sculpture has survived its destructive climate.

After Hammurabi's death Mesopotamia was torn for centuries by foreign invasions. For a time the Assyrian warrior people held sway and established some cultural coherence (see Assyrian art). One of their kings, Sennacherib, razed the city of Babylon. Babylonia was not to be reborn until Nebuchadnezzar divided the Assyrian lands with the Medes in 612 BC. Under his rule the Babylonians developed to perfection one of their most striking arts: the great polychrome-glazed brick walls modeled in relief, the foremost example of which is the Ishtar gates of Babylon. These, produced for Nebuchadnezzar, contain 575 reliefs of lions, dragons, and bulls of superb workmanship.

The king's palace, with its courtyard and hanging (balconied) gardens (constructed more than a century before Nebuchadnezzar came to power), the Ishtar gates, and the royal processional road made Babylon a city of unrivalled magnificence in its time. Its artisans were able to draw upon materials and styles from an area bounded only by Egypt and India. The new splendor was short-lived; less than a „ century later Babylonia fell prey to more invasions, and the Persians, Greeks, and Romans ruled in succession. The great Mesopotamian civilizations eventually crumbled. They were forgotten until archaeologists of the 19th century began to bring to light something of their history and appearance.

### ***Assyrian Art***

An Assyrian artistic style distinct from that of Babylonian art began to emerge in 1500 BC and lasted until the fall of

Nineveh in 612 BC. The characteristic Assyrian art form was the polychrome carved stone relief that decorated imperial monuments. The precisely delineated reliefs concern royal affairs, chiefly hunting and war making. Predominance is given to animal forms, particularly horses and lions, which are magnificently represented in great detail. Human figures are comparatively rigid and static but are also minutely detailed, as in triumphal scenes of sieges, battles, and individual combat.

Among the best known of Assyrian reliefs are the lion-hunt alabaster carvings showing Assurnasirpal II (9th cent. BC) and Assurbanipal (7th cent. BC), both of which are in the British Museum. Guardian animals, usually lions and winged beasts with bearded human heads, were sculpted partially in the round for fortified royal gateways, an architectural form common throughout Asia Minor. At Nimrod carved ivories and bronze bowls were found that are decorated in the Assyrian style but were produced by Phoenician and Aramaean artisans. Exquisite examples of Assyrian relief carving may be seen at the British and Metropolitan (NYCity) museums.

### ***Persian Art***

The long prehistoric period in Iran, is known to us mostly from excavation work carried out in a few key sites, which has led to a chronology of distinct periods, each one characterised by the development of certain types of pottery, artifacts and architecture. Pottery is one of the oldest Persian art forms, and examples have been unearthed, from burial mounds (Tappeh), dating back from the 5th millennium BC.

The «Animal style» which uses decorative animal motifs is very strong in the Persian culture first appearing in pottery, reappearing much later in the Luristan bronzes and again in Scythian art.

During the Achaemenian and Sassanian periods, metal-work continued its ornamental development. Some of the most beautiful examples of metal-ware are gilded silver cups and dishes decorated with royal hunting scenes from the Sassanian Dynasty.

## ***Aegean Art***

The art of the Aegean refers to those civilizations that flourished between c.3000 BC and c.1150 BC in the area known as the Aegean Sea. Bounded by modern Greece on the west and north, by Turkey to the east and the island of Crete to the south, the ancient cultures of the Aegean were the precursors to the classical Greek civilization. Several cultures developed on the islands and mainland surrounding the Aegean Sea. For instance, in Crete art forms were developed about 1800-1400 BC by wall paintings at the palace of Knossos, ceramics, and naturalistic bull's heads in bronze and stone. On the Greek mainland, Mycenaean culture reached its peak around 1400 to 1200 BC. Surviving examples of this culture include the ruins of the palace at Mycenae, gold masks, and metalwork.

The Aegean Bronze Age coincides with the period of the Aegean civilizations, and ends with their collapse and the arrival of invading Iron Age cultures.

Unlike the Egyptian civilization very few written accounts exist that can give us an accurate picture of the times. Much of our understanding of the cultures in the Aegean throughout this period comes from excavated palaces, houses and artifacts. This knowledge, linked with what we know of other civilizations before, during and after, has given historians the opportunity to piece together an idea of their lifestyles, beliefs, history and culture.

The Neolithic people of the Aegean were initially living as small farming communities spread thinly along coastal mainland areas and on the many islands. As they slowly formed into larger settlements the groups began to develop customs and beliefs which, with increasing trade and knowledge, gave rise to larger civilizations centered on the Cyclades and Crete.

The Cycladian civilization, which was centered on the many islands north of Crete, began to develop on the island group included Kos, Delos, Milos, Siros and Thira.

Marble carvings from the 3rd millennium of heads and figures are very Neolithic in their simplicity and are presumed to be ritual objects since nearly all have been found in stone-lined burial chambers called cists. Most of these sculptures are just a few centimeters long with a few reaching 1.5 meters.

The most complete examples of Cycladic painting have come from the island of Thira and include scenes depicting festivals, animals, sports and warfare, all with some apparent religious significance. The striking art of this early Aegean Bronze Age culture produced a wide range of objects including polished pottery (often decorated with incised geometric and spiral designs), metalwork and wall paintings.

The first cultural flowering on Greek lands began in Minoan Crete around 3000 BC. The Minoan civilization was one of the most unique and influential of its age, and at its height was a major seafaring power with wealth, lavish buildings, political stability and a high level of artistic and architectural creativity.

The first Cretans were Neolithic farmers, but with the introduction of metals in c.3000 BC the Island was slowly transformed, and its people grouped into a number of major centers of populations, controlled by separate rulers living in large palaces.

Archaeologist Sir Arthur Evans who called the people Minoans after the legendary King Minos, was the first to discover the ancient civilization after he began excavating the palace at Knossos in 1900.

The palace at Knossos covered about 2.5 hectares (6 acres) and had a surrounding city which could have supported a population of over 50,000 people. It was built around an uncovered courtyard with rooms coming off the sides for living and official purposes. It was unique for having many passages with no clearly direct route to rooms; this design aspect probably gave rise to the legendary labyrinth of the Minotaur in Greek mythology.

There was a throne room, many storage rooms, sunken pools and baths with running water, toilets which flushed into sewers as well as terraces, covered porches and light walls to reflect sunlight into dark rooms.

Built of stone, rubble and sun-dried brick, with stucco walls painted with brightly coloured frescoes, the emphasis was on interior comfort, light, space and convenience. Water was brought in from many kilometers away along close fitting tapered terracotta pipes, while drains and drainpipes also carried away

rain and wastewater. Well designed for hot climates, allowance was made for cool winds to circulate with the strategic placement of folding doors to direct breezes. A feature of Minoan architecture are the downward tapering painted wooden pillars with their flattened, bulging blue capitals which held up large flat roofs and were frequently used in the construction of colonnades.

Minoan painting is highly individualistic. Colorful, lively and at times almost impressionistic, the Minoan artists achieved great skill through their imaginative use of form and space. Compared to both Egyptian and Mesopotamian painting there is greater spontaneity, more animated human representation and an increased sense of realism and design.

Minoan painting lacked the constraints imposed on other civilizations by a dominant ruling priesthood, and as such the wall paintings give us some insight into the courtly life, games, rituals, plants and animals prominent in their lives.

Unfortunately much of the fresco work discovered is very fragmentary. The main features of their style however demonstrate a strong use of reds, blues, greens and yellows, bold outlines filled with flat washes and a convention of painting women white, men red and the dead blue. In fact so skilled in the true fresco style were the Minoans that no other civilization attained the same degree of control until the Romans 2000 years later.

Early painting consists of simple decorative abstract patterns in spirals and meanders, while later work sees a greater use of natural forms such as flowers and animals.

The Minoans were highly skilled in the art of pottery, an artifact that not only had numerous uses within their own civilization, but one that was a sought after commodity by other cultures. As in painting there is a strong understanding of form and decoration in their work where floral and marine motifs evolve into stylized, attractive and often complex imaginative designs. Two styles of pottery painting stand out; the «marine style» which uses naturalistic subjects such as fish and the octopus, and the «palace style» where the pictorial qualities become more ordered and symmetrical with the use of geometric patterns.

As the Aegean Bronze Age began later on mainland Greece than it did on Crete, large settlements took longer to develop into effective centers of civilization; the culture at this time was called «Early Helladic». Around 2000 BC after invasion from the north, there followed a period which saw new architectural forms, burial customs and artifacts evolve. This culture has been called Mycenaean after the excavated ancient city of Mycenae on the Peloponnese in southern Greece. Again in about 1600 BC they were conquered, this time by the warlike Achaeans who probably provided the Mycenaeans with powerful leadership. Finally in 1150 BC the culture collapsed through a likely combination of earthquake and Doric invasion.

The Mycenaeans were a warrior culture and eventually became the major Aegean power around 1400 BC after the decline of Minoan civilization. They colonized widely and traded with both central Europe and across the Mediterranean. They are sometimes called the «first Greeks».

The Mycenaeans and Minoans had plenty of contact with each other and as such Mycenaean artistic and architectural styles were very much influenced by the Cretan civilization. Two notable features of Mycenaean architecture are the Megaron and the Tholos tombs. Megarons are isolated rectangular rooms usually surrounded by corridors and are the forerunner of classical Greek temples. Tholos tombs are dug into hillsides and have circular floors and a domed ceiling constructed with close fitting stones. They were designed for royalty.

The fortress palace of Mycenae and the one at Tiryns were probably built not long after Knossos and display a combination of Minoan and mainland Greek influences. Palaces were also built at Athens, Thebes, Pylos, Lolkos and Orchomenos. Although Mycenae was discovered first in 1876 by German Heinrich Schliemann, it is possible that Tiryns was the first built as it follows the Minoan style of an open square court with a main hall surrounded by minor halls, chambers and corridors, unlike Mycenae where the main Hall is separate.

The palaces were generally only one story in height and surrounded by massive rough shaped stone walls, while on the interior the plastered walls were richly decorated with frescos.

The wall that surrounds the palace at Mycenae consists of two entrances, one of which is called the Lion Gate. This large rectangular post and lintel opening is topped with two 3-metre-high relief carved lions, part standing, with heads turned outward. It is the largest known sculpture to come out of the Aegean Bronze Age civilizations.

It is very probable that the Mycenaeans employed Minoan artists, craft workers and architects for long periods particularly in the early stage of their development, and perhaps it is through this process that they learnt many of their skills. Fresco painting for example is produced using the same Minoan technique.

### ASSIGNMENTS

1. Write down ten questions to the text.

2. Complete the chart:

| ANCIENT ART     | ARTIFACTS   |
|-----------------|---|
| Paleolithic art | Pebbles and tools with symbolic figures, the Willendorf Venus |
| ...             | ...   |

## INDIAN, CHINESE AND JAPANESE ART

**Indian art** includes the painting, sculpture, and architecture of India. Indian art dates back to the Indus Valley civilization of about 3000 BC.

**Buddhist art** includes sculptures and murals created in the periods of the Gandhara and Gupta kingdoms. The first known images of the Buddha were produced in a monumental soft and rounded style that was exported, with the Buddhist religion, to China, Korea, and Japan.

**Hindu art** was influenced by Buddhist art. But, unlike Buddhist art, Hindu art shows the human figure curved and filled with potential motion. Ancient beliefs of India understood the body as an aesthetic form second only to the deities.



Hindu artists created brilliant sculptural schemes in rock-cut caves at Mamallapuram, and some huge temple complexes. The caves at Ellora are known for their ensemble of religious art (Buddhist, Hindu, and Jain) dating from the 6th and 7th centuries.

**Mogul art** dates from the Muslim invasion of northwest India in the Middle Ages. The invaders destroyed Buddhist and Hindu temple art and introduced their own styles, particular of the *Islamic art*. The Koran forbids human and animal representation in art, therefore Islamic artistry was channeled into calligraphy and ornament. Ceramic tiles decorated mosques and palaces (the Q'utb mosque in Delhi, Taj Mahal in Agra).

The Shiraz School is distinguished by its brilliance of colouring, a love of gorgeous landscapes, by the frequent inclusion of freely drawn bird and flower motifs in the margins, and by faces and figures with rounded contours, fine lines, narrow eyes, and rather characteristic profile glances. A new system of vertical perspective is evident in which figures are shown one over the other, and where such things as ponds and carpets appear as flat on the page.

With the arrival of Prince Humay, the symbolic decorative basis of Persian painting is here fully apparent. The flowers bask in the brilliance of daylight while the stars shine in the sky, combining realism with symbolism. The artist is completely unbounded by the practicality of naturalism, yet his approach remains completely comprehensible.

The art of pottery was greatly advanced in the ninth century with the development of the technique of luster painting. Luster painting is a spectacular means of decorating pottery, perhaps in imitation of precious metal, which was first developed in Iraq and subsequently spread to Egypt, Syria, Iran, and Spain. The production of luster-decorated pottery was complicated, costly, and time-consuming, indicating that such objects were regarded as luxury wares. This technique combines silver and copper oxides with sulfur and other materials, which are applied in liquefied form to the surface of a previously glazed and fired object. The ware is then refired in a muffled, or reducing, kiln, so that the oxygen is drawn out from the metal oxides, producing

a dazzling metallic surface. Lusterware can vary in colour from a rich gold to deep reddish brown.

From the Bronze Age to the Cultural Revolution, *Chinese art* shows a stylistic unity unparalleled in any other culture. From about the 1st century AD Buddhism inspired much sculpture and painting in China.

Bronze Age Chinese art is characterised by rich burial goods with bronzes and jade carvings decorated with hieroglyphs and simple stylized animal forms. Life-size terracotta figures from the Qin Period guard the tomb of Emperor Shi Huangdi in the old capital of Xian.

Once Buddhism was established in China it inspired a monumental art, with huge rock-cut and bronze images in rounded forms.

Tang dynasty art shows naturalistic portraits, such as the carved figures of Buddhist monks.

The golden age of Chinese painting was the Song Dynasty (960 – 1278). The imperial court created its own workshop, fostering a fine calligraphic art, mainly devoted to natural subjects - landscape, mountains, trees, flowers, birds. Genre scenes of court beauties were also popular. Scrolls, albums, and fans of silk or paper were painted with watercolours and ink, using soft brushes. Painting was associated with literature, and painters added poems or quotations to their work. The Song Dynasty also produced the first true porcelain of classic simplicity.

Ming Dynasty (1368 – 1644) painters continued the landscape tradition. The Song style of porcelain gave way to elaborate work of rich colours.

Qing Dynasty (1644 – 1911) painters developed personal styles of brushwork. In the 20th century the strong spirit that supported traditional art began to fade.

Early *Japanese art* was influenced by China. Painting later developed a distinct Japanese character, bolder and more angular, with the spread of Zen Buddhism in the 12th century. Ink painting and calligraphy flourished, followed by book illustration and decorative screens. Japanese pottery stresses simplicity.

The 17th century saw the beginnings of kabuki, the popular drama of Japan. Kabuki theatre was founded by a shrine maiden who brought her unique dance style to the ancient capital of Kyoto, and over the next 300 years this art of performing developed into a highly stylized form of theatre. Though, kabuki was created by a woman, since the early days all roles have been taken by men. Kabuki theatre is an establishment in which the Japanese take great pride.

The best known Japanese traditional forms in poetry are Haiku (the stanza of three lines of 5, 7 and 5 syllables respectively) and Tanka (31-syllable).

Haiku is a small poem with oriental metric that appeared in the 16th century and has been very popular in Japan. It's been disseminated all around the world during this century. It has an old and long story based on spiritualist philosophy and the Taoist symbolism of the oriental mystics and Zen-Buddhist masters who express many of their thoughts in the form of myths, symbols, paradoxes and poetic images like the Haiku. It should transcend the limitations imposed by language and linear/scientific thinking that treat nature and human beings like machines.

It's a contemplative poetry that valorizes nature, colour, season, full of contrasts and surprises. Usually it has 3 lines and 17 syllables distributed in 5, 7 and 5. It must register or indicate a moment, sensation, impression or drama of a specific fact of nature. It's almost like a photo.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

### ***1. Answer the following questions.***

1. What do you know about the influence of Buddhist art?
2. What ensemble of religious art combines the three religions of India?
3. What invaders destroyed Buddhist and Hindu temples?
4. What is particular to Islamic art?
5. What do you know about Chinese and Japanese porcelain and pottery?
6. What does Japanese Haiku express?

**2. Reproduce situations from the text using the following words:**

Paint, king, monument, art, religious, invade, represent, culture, style, unit, parallel, bury, carve, nature, main, quote, simple, person, angle.

## **PRE-COLUMBIAN CULTURES OF CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA AND THEIR ART**

**The Maya Indians** developed a fine civilization in what are now Belize, Guatemala and South-eastern Mexico. The Maya Empire was at its height from about 250 AD to the 800s. The Mayas constructed stone buildings and stepped pyramids without metal tools, used hieroglyphic writing in manuscripts, were skilled potters, weavers, and farmers. They regulated their rituals and warfare by observations of the planet Venus. They counted in twenties instead of tens as we do. Their priests were keen astronomers and produced an accurate calendar.

Chichen Itza, Bonampak, Copan, Tikal, and Palenque were the sites of Mayan worship. They had steeply inclined pyramids with sculptures, human heads and giant figures of deities. Mayan figures had squat proportions and squared-off composition. The great Mayan cities were abandoned in the 800s. Nobody knows why.

The classical period of ancient Central American Indian culture (2nd BC-7th AD) is connected with *Teotihuacan*, the cradle of several civilizations. Teotihuacan was situated not far from the present-day Mexico City. All art forms developed by the civilization were strongly influenced by religion. Two of the most important temples in the city were built on pyramids, both about 65 meters high. One of the temples was devoted to the Sun, the other to the Moon. The temples contained fantastic riches such as statues of deities adorned with precious stones. The artisans of Teotihuacan were famous for producing ornamented ceramics and unique stone masks. The civilizations of the classical period were destroyed by Toltec invaders.

**The Toltecs** ruled much of Mexico in the 10<sup>th</sup> – 12<sup>th</sup> centuries and created their own civilization. Teotihuacan remained the religious centre but the Toltecs also built a new capital - Tula. Artifacts that were found in the ruins of Tula include stone statues of Toltec soldiers with carved butterflies on their chests. Toltec architecture has rough forms. The walls of the buildings were covered with snakes and skulls. The Toltecs also constructed a similar city at Chichen Itza in Yucatan.

After the Toltecs' fall in the 13<sup>th</sup> century **the Aztecs** took over much of their territory. In 1325 they built their capital Tenochtitlan on marshlands on the site of the present-day Mexico City. Under Montezuma I (reigned from 1440), the Aztecs created a tribute empire. After the Spanish conquistador Cortez landed in 1519, Montezuma II was killed and Tenochtitlan was destroyed.

The Aztecs are known for their architecture, jewellery (gold, jade, and turquoise), sculpture, and textiles. Their form of writing combined hieroglyphs and pictographs, and they used a complex calendar that combined a sacred period of 260 days with the solar year of 365 days. The main god in pantheon of gods was Huitzilopochtli (Hummingbird Wizard), but they also worshipped the feathered serpent Quetzalcoatl, inherited from earlier Mexican civilizations. Religious rituals included human sacrifice on a large scale, the priests tearing the heart from the living victim or flaying people alive. War captives were obtained for this purpose, but their own people were also used. The Aztec state was a theocracy with farmers, artisans, and merchants taxed to support the priestly aristocracy. Tribute was collected from a federation of conquered nearby states.

**The Inca** civilization began to develop about 400 AD, and reached its height in the 1400s. The ancestors of the Incas lived among the mountains of Peru. From 1438 to 1493, two kings, Pachacuti and his son Topa Inca, expanded the Inca Empire. It eventually covered an area which extended northwards into present-day Ecuador, and south into Bolivia, part of Chile and part of Argentina. The Inca's name comes from the title of their emperor, who was called the Inca. The first emperor was believed to be a descendant of the Sun. He ruled as a dictator through a system of governors. The Inca people never develop writing, but used knotted cords called «quipu» to record numbers.

The Inca civilization was destroyed by the Spanish conquest in the 1530s. The conquerors were fascinated by the treasures of the Incas. It was reported that the attraction of their capital was The Golden Garden located in the temple of the Sun. Trees, animals, and people in the Garden were as big as in real life, but all of them were cast from silver and gold. The architecture and ceramics of the Inca people are less elaborate than that of other Central American civilizations. The Inca artisans produced artwork in gold which was their favourite material, but today we can't enjoy the beauty of what they made and appreciate their skill. The Spanish conquerors took all the gold objects, melted them down, and then gold bullion was shipped to Spain.

### **ASSIGNMENTS**

#### ***1. Answer the following questions.***

1. What do you know about the pre-Colombian cultures of the classical period?

2. What artifacts can be found in the ruins of Tula and what civilization left them?

3. What do you know about the Aztec Empire?

4. What is the mystery of the Mayas? What facts about their civilization did you learn?

5. What differences of the Inca civilization can be observed?

6. What was the role of the Spanish conquerors in the development of pre-Columbian civilizations?

7. What is the difference between the Egyptian pyramids and ancient American pyramids?

8. What was the artwork of pre-Columbian cultures of Central and South America?

#### ***2. On the basis of the text try to speak on:***

the Maya Indians;

the Toltecs;

the Aztecs;

the Inca.

## THE ART OF ANCIENT GREECE

The first Greek civilization, known as Mycenaean (1600-1200 BC) owed much to the Minoan civilization of Crete. From the 14th century BC a new wave of invasions began. The Achaeans overran Greece and Crete destroying the Minoan and Mycenaean civilizations and penetrating Asia Minor; the siege of Troy belongs to this period (1180 BC). The next invaders were the Dorians (1100BC) who settled in the Peloponnesia and founded Sparta.

In 750-550 BC the Greeks not only became great traders, but founded colonies around the coast of the Mediterranean and the Black Sea, in Asia Minor, Sicily, South Italy, South France, Spain, and North Africa. The main centers of Greek culture in the 6th century BC were the wealthy Ionian ports of Asia Minor, where Greek philosophy, science, and lyric poetry originated, as well as in Athens and Sparta which remained unique. In 5th century Athens, Greek tragedy, comedy, sculpture, and architecture were at their peak. Socrates and Plato founded moral philosophy.

Greek cities subsequently fell under the dominion of the Persian and Roman Empires, but they still remained cultural centers.

The architecture of ancient Greece underpins all architectural developments in Europe. The Greek invented the entablature, which allowed roofs to be hipped (inverted V-shape), and perfected the design of columns: Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian.

Of the Greek orders, the Doric is the oldest. The finest example of a Doric temple is the Parthenon in Athens (447-438 BC). The earliest building in which the Ionic capital appears is the temple of Diana in Ephesus (530 BC). The gateway to the Acropolis has internal columns in Ionic order. The Corinthian order belongs to a later period of Greek art. The leading example of the order is the temple of Jupiter (Zeus) Olympus in Athens (174 BC), completed under Roman influence in 129 AD. The Mausoleum in Halicarnassus (353 BC) was one of the Seven Wonders of the World.

The art of ancient Greece (sculpture, mosaics, and crafts) is usually divided into three periods: Archaic (late 8th century-

480 BC), showing an Egyptian influence; Classical (480-323 BC), characterised by dignified realism; and Hellenistic (323-27 BC), more exuberant or dramatic. Sculptures of human figures dominate all periods, and vase painting was a focus for artistic development for many centuries.

**Archaic period.** Statues of naked standing men and draped females show an Egyptian influence in their rigid frontality. By about 500 BC the figure was allowed to relax its weight onto one leg. Subjects were usually depicted smiling.

**Classical period.** Expressions assumed a dignified serenity. Further movement was introduced in new poses, such as in Myron's bronze «The Discus Thrower», and in the rhythmic Parthenon reliefs of riders and horses supervised by Phidias. Polykleitos' sculpture «The Spear Carrier» was of such harmony and poise that it set a standard for beautiful proportions. Praxiteles introduced the female nude into the sculptural repertory with the graceful «Aphrodite of Knidos». It was easier to express movement in bronze, hollow-cast by the lost-wax method, but relatively few bronze sculpture survive, and many are known only through Roman copies in marble.

**Hellenistic period.** Sculptures such as the «Winged Victory of Samothrace» with its dramatic drapery, and the tortured «Laocoon» explored the effects of movement and deeply felt emotion.

Vase painting of ancient Greece was developed by artists who worked as both potters and painters, and the works they signed were exported throughout the empire. Made in several standard shapes and sizes, the pots served as functional containers for wine, water, and oil. The first decoration took the form of simple lines and circles, from which the Geometric style emerged near Athens in the 10th century BC. It consisted of precisely drawn patterns, such as the key meander. Gradually the bands of decoration multiplied and the human figure, geometrically stylized, was added.

About 700 BC the potters of Corinth invented the Black Figure technique in which the unglazed red clay was painted in black with mythological scenes and battles in a narrative frieze.

About 530 BC Athenian potters reversed the process and developed the more sophisticated Red Figure pottery, which



allowed for more detailed and elaborate painting of the figures in red against a red background. This grew increasingly naturalistic with lively scenes of daily life. Later painters tried to follow major art trends and represent special depth, dissipating the unique quality of their fine linear technique.

The ancient Greeks excelled in carving gems and cameos and in metalwork. They also invented a pictorial mosaic, and from the 5th century BC onwards floors were paved with coloured pebbles depicting mythological subjects. Later, specially cut cubes of stone and glass called «tesserae» were used.

The earliest literature of ancient Greece is represented by works of Homer, reputed author of the epic poems the «Iliad» and the «Odyssey», and Hesiod, whose long poem «Works and Days» deals with agricultural life. The lyric poet Pindar and the historian Herodotus belong to the 5th and 6th centuries BC. The 5th century BC saw the development of Athenian drama through the works of the tragic dramatists Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, and the comedies of Aristophanes. After the fall of Athens came a period of prose with the historian Xenophon, the idealist philosopher Plato, the orators Isocrates and Demosthenes, and the scientific teacher Aristotle.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

### ***1. Match the left and the right column to complete the sentences.***

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 1. «Illiad» is a Greek epic poem of 24 books, ...  | ... which might have been triggered by such incident as Paris running off with Helen.          |
| 2. Herodotus wrote a nine-book history of the Greek-Persian struggle, ...  | ...and executed the colossal statue of Zeus at Olympia, one of the Seven Wonders of the World. |
| 3. Laocoon in classical mythology was a Trojan priest of Apollo. Laocoon and his sons were killed by serpents, ... | ... probably written before 700 BC and attributed to Homer.                                    |

1. Troy was an ancient city of ASIA Minor, besieged in the ten-year Trojan War, ...

2. Aeschylus, Euripides and Sophocles are widely regarded ...

3. Aristotle opened a school in the Lyceum (grove sacred to Apollo) ...

4. Phidias supervised the sculptures for the Parthenon ...

5. Halicarnassus was an ancient city in Asia Minor (now Bodrum in Turkey )

... where the tomb of Mausolus was built by widowed Queen Artemisia.

... when the foresaw disaster for Troy in the Trojan horse left by the Greeks.

... as the founders of Greek tragedies.

... where he advocated reason and moderation.

... and was the first historian to apply critical evaluation to his material.

## ***2. Complete the sentences.***

1. Aristototle was one of the greatest \_\_\_\_\_ who became a tutor to \_\_\_\_\_.

2. He was the first scientific \_\_\_\_\_ classified organisms into species and genera.

3. He was a philosopher whose vast output was accepted by most medieval \_\_\_\_\_ without question.

4. Aristotle, whose works were incorporated into \_\_\_\_\_ theology, was born in Stagira in \_\_\_\_\_.

## **THE ART OF ANCIENT ROME**

The civilization of ancient Rome was based in the city of Rome, which first occupied the Italian peninsula, then most of Europe, the Near East, and North Africa. It lasted for about 800 years. Traditionally founded in 753 BC, Rome became a kingdom, then a self-ruling republic in 510 BC. Then, the history of Rome is one of continual expansion, interrupted only by civil war, until the murder of Julius Caesar and foundation of the empire under Augustus and his successors. At its peak under Trajan, the

Roman Empire stretched from Britain to Mesopotamia and the Caspian Sea. Along train of emperors ruling by virtue of military, rather than civil, power marked the beginning of Rome's long decline. Under Diocletian, the empire was divided into two parts — East and West — although temporarily reunited under Constantine, the first emperor formally to adopt Christianity. The end of the Roman Empire is generally dated by the sack of Rome by the Goths in 410 AD. The Eastern Empire continued until 1453 in Constantinople.

The civilization of ancient Rome influenced the whole of West Europe throughout the Middle Ages, the Renaissance in the fields of art, architecture, literature, law, and engineering. For instance, the Roman law code has been taken into consideration by many rulers in different countries.

The laws of the Twelve Tables, one of the earliest law codes, are of great interest. Covering both civil and criminal matters, these laws it is commonly believed served to codify existing custom. The actual codes do not survive, nor do we have them in their entirety. The extant codes have been compiled from fragments and references to them by authors such as Cicero. Roman historians tell us that the plebeians demanded written laws in order to protect themselves from the caprices of patrician magistrates, and again, as in 494, protested by seceding from Rome. Some modern scholars dispute this occurrence as an actual historical event. The tables provide not only a valuable insight into Roman law, but into Roman culture as well. Here are some excerpts:

*Quickly kill a dreadfully deformed child.*

*If a father thrice surrenders a son for sale, the son shall be free from the father.*

*A child born ten months after the father's death will not be granted a legal inheritance.*

*Females shall remain in guardianship even when they have attained their majority (adulthood) except Vestal Virgins.*

The art of ancient Rome (sculpture and painting) developed from the 4th century BC onwards to the fall of the empire. Roman art was intended for the public education, notably the sculpted triumphal arches and giant columns, such as the Trajan Column, and portrait sculptures of soldiers, politicians, and

emperors. Surviving mural paintings (in Pompeii, Rome, and Ostia) and mosaic decorations show Greek influence.

Realistic portrait sculpture was an original development by the Romans. A cult of heroes began in public places. The erected statues were of generals, rulers, and philosophers. The portrait bust developed as a new art form from about 75 BC. These were serious, factual portraits of men to whose wisdom and authority, the busts implied, their subject nations should reasonably submit.

Narrative relief sculpture also flourished on Rome, linked to the need to commemorate publicly the military victories of their heroes. These sculptures appeared on monumental altars, triumphal arches, and giant columns such as Trajan's Column, where his battles are recorded in relief like a strip cartoon winding its way around the column for about 200 meters. Gods and allegorical figures featured with Rome's heroes on narrative relief sculptures, such as those on Augustus's giant altar to peace.

Very little Roman painting has survived. And much of what has is due to the volcanic eruption of Mount Vesuvius in 79 AD that buried the South Italian towns of Pompeii and Herculaneum under ash, thus preserving the lively and impressionistic wall paintings that decorated the villas of the art-loving elite. Common motifs were illusion and still life. A type of interior decoration known as Grottesque, rediscovered in Rome during the Renaissance, combined swirling plant motifs, strange animals, and tiny fanciful scenes. Grottesque was much used in later decorative schemes to quote the classical period.

The art of mosaic was found throughout the Roman Empire. It was introduced from Greece and used for floors as well as walls and vaults, in illusionary effects, geometric patterns, and scenes from daily life and mythology.

The dominating language of ancient Rome was Latin which passed through four influential phases: as the language of republican Rome, the Roman Empire, the Roman Catholic Church, and West European culture, science, philosophy, and law during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. During the first and fourth phases, much Latin vocabulary entered the English language. It happened in two major waves: as religious vocabulary from Anglo-Saxon times until the Reformation, and

as the vocabulary of science, scholarship, and the law from the Middle Ages onward. In the 17th century the makers of English dictionaries deliberately converted Latin words into English, enlarging the already powerful French component of English vocabulary into the language of education and refinement, placing «fraternity» alongside «brotherhood», «comprehend» beside «understand», «feline» beside «catlike», and so on.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

**1. Give the definitions to the following using relative pronouns or adverbs according to the model.**

*Model: Aeneas was a hero, who founded Latium and the Roman state.*

|                   |                  |               |
|-------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Aeneas            | Latin language   | Latium        |
| Anglo-Saxon Times | a general        | Olympus       |
| a poet            | Vigil            | a legend      |
| a queen           | an artist        | a philosopher |
| Homer             | a triumphal arch | Troy          |
| Aphrodite         | Constantine      | Aeneid        |
| Pompeii           | Christianity     |               |

**2. Write down questions to which the following statements may serve as the answers.**

1. The civilization of ancient Rome was based in the city of Rome.

2. A long train of emperors ruling by virtue of military, rather than civil, power marked the beginning of Rome's long decline.

3. The civilization of ancient Rome influenced the whole of West Europe throughout the Middle Ages, the Renaissance in the fields of art, architecture, literature, law, and engineering.

4. The art of ancient Rome (sculpture and painting) developed from the 4th century BC onwards to the fall of the empire.

5. A type of interior decoration known as Grotesque, rediscovered in Rome during the Renaissance, combined swirling plant motifs, strange animals, and tiny fanciful scenes.

6. The art of mosaic was found throughout the Roman Empire. It was introduced from Greece and used for floors as well as walls and vaults, in illusionary effects, geometric patterns, and scenes from daily life and mythology.

## MYTHOLOGY

*Read the following notes about myths and collect some additional material about ancient and modern myths.*

**Mythology** is the study of myths and or of a body of myths. For example, comparative mythology is the study of connections between myths from different cultures, whereas Greek mythology is the body of myths from ancient Greece. The term «myth» is often used colloquially to refer to a false story; however, the academic use of the term generally does not refer to truth or falsity. In the study of folklore, a myth is a sacred narrative explaining how the world and humankind came to be in their present form. Many scholars in other fields use the term «myth» in somewhat different ways. In a very broad sense, the word can refer to any traditional story.

### Typical characteristics

The main characters in myths are usually gods or supernatural heroes. As sacred stories, myths are often endorsed by rulers and priests and closely linked to religion. In the society in which it is told, a myth is usually regarded as a true account of the remote past. In fact, many societies have two categories of traditional narrative — «true stories», or myths, and «false stories», or fables. Myths generally take place in a primordial age, when the world had not yet achieved its current form. They explain how the world gained its current form and how customs, institutions, and taboos were established.

Closely related to myth are legend and folktale. Myths, legends, and folktales are different types of traditional story. Unlike myths, folktales can take place at any time and any place, and they are not considered true or sacred even by the societies that tell them. Like myths, legends are stories that are

traditionally considered true; however, they are set in a more recent time, when the world was much as it is today. Also, legends generally feature humans as their main characters, whereas myths generally focus on superhuman characters.

The distinction between myth, legend, and folktale is meant simply as a useful tool for grouping traditional stories. In many cultures, it is hard to draw a sharp line between myths and legends. Instead of dividing their traditional stories into myths, legends, and folktales, some cultures divide them into two categories — one that roughly corresponds to folktales, and one that combines myths and legends. Even myths and folktales are not completely distinct: a story may be considered true — and therefore a myth — in one society, but considered fictional — and therefore a folktale — in another society. In fact, when a myth loses its status as part of a religious system, it often takes on traits more typical of folktales, with its formerly divine characters reinterpreted as human heroes, giants, or fairies.

Myth, legend, and folktale are only a few of the categories of traditional stories. Other categories include anecdotes and some kinds of jokes. Traditional stories, in turn, are only one category within folklore, which also includes items such as gestures, costumes, and music.

### **Origins of myth**

There are some theories on the origin of myths.

#### **Euhemerism**

This theory claims that myths are distorted accounts of real historical events. According to this theory, storytellers repeatedly elaborated upon historical accounts until the figures in those accounts gained the status of gods. For example, one might argue that the myth of the wind-god *Aeolus* evolved from a historical account of a king who taught his people to use sails and interpret the winds. *Herodotus* and *Prodicus* made claims of this kind. This theory is named «euhemerism» after the novelist *Euhemerus* (c.320 BC), who suggested that the Greek gods developed from legends about human beings.

#### **Allegory**

Some theories propose that myths began as allegories. According to one theory, myths began as allegories for natural

phenomena: *Apollo* represents fire, *Poseidon* represents water, and so on. According to another theory, myths began as allegories for philosophical or spiritual concepts: *Athena* represents wise judgment, *Aphrodite* represents desire, etc. The 19th century Sanskritist Max Muller supported an allegorical theory of myth. He believed that myths began as allegorical descriptions of nature, but gradually came to be interpreted literally: for example, a poetic description of the sea as «raging» was eventually taken literally, and the sea was then thought of as a raging god.

### **Personification**

Some thinkers believe that myths resulted from the personification of inanimate objects and forces. According to these thinkers, the ancients worshipped natural phenomena such as fire and air, gradually coming to describe them as gods. For example, according to the theory of mythopoeia thought, the ancients tended to view things as persons, not as mere objects; thus, they described natural events as acts of personal gods, thus giving rise to myths.

### **The myth-ritual theory**

According to the myth-ritual theory, the existence of myth is tied to ritual. In its most extreme form, this theory claims that myths arose to explain rituals. This claim was first put forward by the biblical scholar William Robertson Smith. According to Smith, people begin performing rituals for some reason that is not related to myth; later, after they have forgotten the original reason for a ritual, they try to account for the ritual by inventing a myth and claiming that the ritual commemorates the events described in that myth. The anthropologist James Frazer had a similar theory. Frazer believed that primitive man starts out with a belief in magical laws; later, when man begins to lose faith in magic, he invents myths about gods and claims that his formerly magical rituals are religious rituals intended to appease the gods.

### **Functions of myth**

One of the foremost functions of myth is to establish models for behavior. The figures described in myth are sacred and are therefore worthy role models for human beings. Thus, myths often function to uphold current social structures and



institutions: they justify these customs by claiming that they were established by sacred beings.

Another function is to provide people with a religious experience. By retelling myths, human beings detach themselves from the present and return to the mythical age, thereby bringing themselves closer to the divine. In fact, in some cases, a society will reenact a myth in an attempt to reproduce the conditions of the mythical age: for example, it will reenact the healing performed by a god at the beginning of time in order to heal someone in the present.

**Greek mythology** is the body of myths and legends belonging to the ancient Greeks concerning their gods and heroes, the nature of the world, and the origins and significance of their own cult and ritual practices. They were a part of religion in ancient Greece. Modern scholars refer to the myths and study them in an attempt to throw light on the religious and political institutions of Ancient Greece, on the Ancient Greek civilization, and to gain understanding of the nature of myth-making itself.

Greek mythology is embodied explicitly in a large collection of narratives and implicitly in representational arts, such as vase-paintings and votive gifts. Greek myth explains the origins of the world and details the lives and adventures of a wide variety of gods, goddesses, heroes, heroines, and other mythological creatures. These accounts initially were disseminated in an oral-poetic tradition; today the Greek myths are known primarily from Greek literature.

The oldest known Greek literary sources, the epic poems *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, focus on events surrounding the Trojan War. Two poems by Homer's near contemporary Hesiod, the *Theogony* and the *Works and Days*, contain accounts of the genesis of the world, the succession of divine rulers, the succession of human ages, the origin of human woes, and the origin of sacrificial practices. Myths also are preserved in the Homeric Hymns, in fragments of epic poems of the Epic Cycle, in lyric poems, in the works of the tragedians of the fifth century BC, in writings of scholars and poets of the Hellenistic Age and in texts from the time of the Roman Empire by writers such as Plutarch and Pausanias.

Archaeological findings is a principal source of detail about Greek mythology, with gods and heroes featuring prominently in the decoration of many artifacts. Geometric designs on pottery of the eighth century BC depict scenes from the Trojan cycle as well as the adventures of Heracles. In the succeeding Archaic, Classical, and Hellenistic periods, Homeric and various other mythological scenes appear, supplementing the existing literary evidence.

Greek mythology has exerted an extensive influence on the culture, the arts, and the literature of Western civilization and remains part of Western heritage and language. Poets and artists from ancient times to the present have derived inspiration from Greek mythology and have discovered contemporary significance and relevance in these mythological themes.

## ***ASSIGNMENTS***

### ***1. Answer the questions.***

1. What is mythology? What is myth?
2. What are the typical characteristics of myths?
3. What is the difference between myths, legends and folktales?
4. What are the theories on the origin of myths?
5. What are the functions of myths?
6. What mythological heroes do you know?
7. Who created myths? And why?
8. What did you learn about Greek mythology?

### ***2. Give the definitions of the terms:***

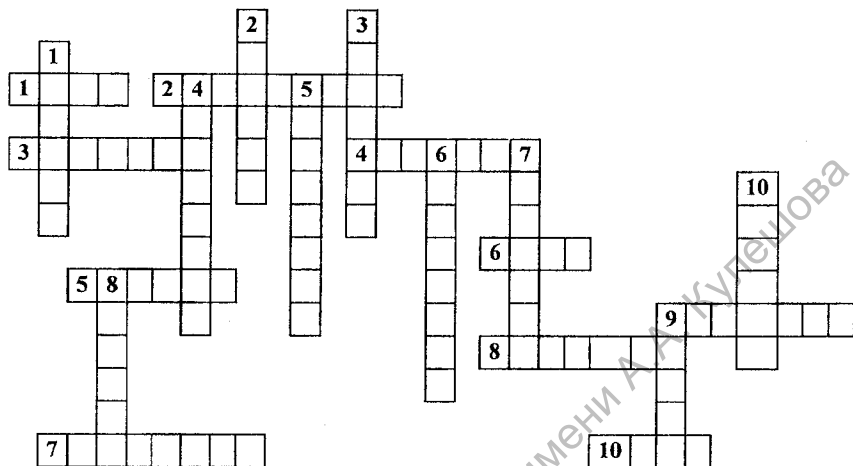
Mythology, myth, legend, folktale, folklore, ritual, mythological hero, allegory, personification.

### ***3. Work in pairs and compare ancient and modern myths.***

***4. Collect all the material about your favourite mythological hero or creature and write down a short abstract.***

***5. Do the crossword puzzle to check up your knowledge in mythology.***

## MYTHOLOGICAL HEROES AND CREATURES



### Down

1. Goddess of daylight and the sun. 2. God of flight, thieves, mischief, commerce, and travelers. Likes to trick people and is very inventive. 3. Goddess of the hunt, wild things, and the moon. Protector of the dewy young. 4. God of the sea. He created horses from sea foam. God of earthquakes as well. 5. God of wine, parties/festivals, madness and merriment. 6. A creature with the head of a bull on the body of a man. 7. Goddess of fertility, agriculture, grain and harvest. 8. A malevolent goblin easily distinguishable for its namesake red hat and fiery red eyes. 9. This creature is usually depicted as grotesque dwarves wearing tight-fitting brown clothes and monastic hoods. 10. Goddess of wisdom, warfare, strategy, handicrafts and reason.

### Across

1. The king of the gods, the ruler of Mount Olympus and the god of the sky and thunder. 2. Goddess of love, lust, beauty, wife of Hephaestus. 3. A winged horse sired by Poseidon, in his role as horse-god, and foaled by the Gorgon Medusa. 4. This creature has the upper body of a man and the lower body of a fish. 5. A mythological Greek god, the messenger of the sea. He is usually represented as a merman, having the upper body of a human and the tail of a fish. 6. Goddess of marriage, women, and childbirth. Zeus' wife and sister. 7. God of the west wind. 8. A legendary creature with the body of a lion and the head and wings of an eagle. 9. The monster described in the English epic called Beowulf. 10. Goddess of the Earth (Mother Earth); mother of the Titans.

Key: Down 1. HEMERA, 2. HERMES, 3. ARTEMIS, 4. POSEIDON, 5. DIONYSUS, 6. MINOTAUR, 7. DEMETER, 8. REDCAP, 9. GNOME, 10. ATHENA. Across 1. ZEUS, 2. APHRODITE, 3. PEGASUS, 4. MERMAID, 5. TRITON, 6. HERA, 7. ZEPHYRUS, 8. GRIFIN, 9. GRENDL, 10. GAIA

### **Part III THEY MADE HISTORY...**

The following selection of articles represents only a few of the milestones in the long course of the world history. While reading the articles you should bear in mind that the history of the world is inseparable from the people who make it.

*Read the articles creating a glossary of unknown words.*

#### **THE WHITE GENERAL**

Mikhail Scobelev is one of Russia's greatest military leaders. Although Scobelev lived a very short life, less than forty years, in the fifteen years of his active military service his achievements were greater than those of most generals in fifty years. He also left a significant trace in politics.

Michail came from a military family. Both the beginning and the end of Mikhail Scobelev's life are shrouded in mystery. He was born near Moscow or, according to the sources, in St. Petersburg. After home tutoring, he was sent to a boarding school in Paris. In 1861 Scobelev entered St. Petersburg University, but was expelled a month later in connection with student unrest. Mikhail then enlisted as a cadet at the Horse-guardsmen's Regiment. In 1863 he received the rank of cornet.

The future general gained his first experience in battle during the Polish Insurgency of 1863. Then Scobelev commanded General Lomakin's advance guard in the expedition against Khiva. With the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish War, in March 1877, he was assigned to the commander-in-chief to take part in operations in European Turkey. During the crossing of the Danube under General Dragomirov General Scobelev had no command, but managed to make himself even in his capacity of volunteer general. The Russo-Turkish war of 1877 – 1878 was

the first war closely followed by the broad public in Russia. Thus General Scobelev became famous and was hailed as Russian's most brilliant military commander. He was known as the «White General» because he invariably rode a white horse dressed in an immaculate white uniform. Following the war, generals Scobelev and Kaulbars in effect ruled the newly independent state of Bulgaria. Soon Scobelev returned to Central Asia and conquered Akhal-Teke, where he received another St. George's Cross. Following his exploits Scobelev returned to Moscow and travelled abroad. Scobelev's activities also caused irritation in Germany and Austria.

General Scobelev died in the Hotel Anglia in Moscow on July 7, 1882. It was generally known that his death was linked to a female presence, but recently new facts have come to light from the archives. It is also known that he had sold his property, but the money he received disappeared, and his economic adviser went mad.

Although General Scobelev could be cruel not only to himself but also to his enemies, he always took care of his soldiers. Thus, despite the scandal associated with his name and his rabid nationalism, Scobelev will always remain in popular memory as White General loved by common soldier. His statue was put up on the site where the founder of Moscow Prince Yuri stands today, but the Bolsheviks tore it down. The town of Fergana also bore his name from 1907 to 1924.

### ***ASSIGNMENTS***

#### ***1. On the basis of the text answer the following questions:***

1. What is Michail Scobelev famous for?
2. What military campaigns did General Scobelev take part in?
3. Why was Scobelev called the White General?
4. When and how did General Scobelev die?
5. How was General's name memorized?

#### ***2. Speak on Michael Scobelev's ...***

## FROM RAGS TO RICHES

Little is known about Menshikov's earliest years, although subsequently an intricate story of his aristocratic origins was most likely invented to correspond to his high position.

Alexander's first step towards wealth and power was made when Fr. Lefort, one of the Peter the Great's closest associates, made him his servant. Soon the future czar noticed the boy, who was of almost the same age as he, and their relationship developed into a lifelong friendship.

While Menshikov was virtually illiterate, his natural abilities were many and outstanding. He was energetic, enterprising and intelligent. Alexander served in the Preobrazhenskiy regiment, which formed the nucleus of Peter the Great's new European-style army. It soon turned out that Menshikov also had excellent military talent.

But first he travelled with Peter to the west to learn naval and other skills. Despite his illiteracy, Menshikov learned to speak Dutch and German.

Menshikov's first military experience was gained earlier during the Azov campaign in 1695 – 1696 against the Turks. In 1702 he distinguished himself in the capture of Noteburg from the Swedes. Menshikov's finest hour came in 1709 at the decisive battle against Swedish King Charles XII at Poltava, where he commanded the left wing, which played a crucial part in the victory that made Russia a European power. Three horses had been killed under Menshikov on the battlefield. Menshikov's military career ended in 1713, and from that time on he spent all his time in his luxurious place in St. Petersburg. However, in those last years of Peter the Great's reign Menshikov was virtually always under investigation for corruption. The situation became particularly serious in 1723, when Peter the Great gradually distanced himself from his favorite. Only Menshikov's

illness saved him on this occasion from losing all his wealth and influence.

When Peter the Great died in 1725, Menshikov was largely instrumental in bringing Catherine to the throne. In effect Prince Menshikov became not just one of the most influential men in Russia, but the country's virtual ruler.

With the decline in the Empress's health, Menshikov began to play the game of palace intrigue. It was through his efforts that Peter II came to power in 1727. But fortune turned away from Menshikov. In the same year he fell ill and was arrested by the members of the old aristocratic families, then exiled to his estate in Voronezh Province and finally to Berezov in Siberia, where he died in 1729. All his honors and riches were taken away from him.

Prince Alexander Menshikov was no doubt a brilliant man. Although his shortcomings were monumental and probably had a fatal impact on the future fate of the empire.

## ***ASSIGNMENTS***

***1. Ask questions on the text.***

***2. Write a summary of the article using the following key word combinations:***

Aristocratic origin, steps towards wealth and power, lifelong friendship, outstanding abilities, military talent, military experience, Menshikov's finest hour, to play a crucial part in the victory, to be under investigation, to bring somebody to the throne, to be a virtual ruler, to play the game of palace intrigue, to be exiled, to have a fatal impact on the future of the empire.

## **NICHOLAS II OF RUSSIA**

Nicholas II ruled from 1894 until his abdication on 15 March 1917. His reign saw Imperial Russia go from being one of the foremost great powers of the world to an economic and military

disaster. Critics nicknamed him Nicholas the Bloody because of the Khodynka Tragedy, Bloody Sunday, and the anti-Semitic pogroms that occurred during his reign. As head of state, he approved the Russian mobilization of August 1914 which marked the first fatal step into World War I and thus into the demise of the Romanov dynasty.

Nicholas was the son of Emperor Alexander III and Empress Maria Feodorovna of Russia. His paternal grandparents were Emperor Alexander II and Empress Maria Alexandrovna of Russia. His maternal grandparents were King Christian IX of Denmark and Princess Louise of Hesse-Kassel.

A long trip for educational purposes became an important part of training for

the state activity of the members of the Russian Imperial house. In 1890 Emperor Alexander III of Russia decided to establish the Trans-Siberian Railway and his heir Tsarevich Nicholas took part in the opening ceremony and from there he was obliged to make journey around the world which became known as the Eastern Journey. Although Nicholas attended meetings of the Imperial Council, his obligations were limited until he acceded to the throne, which was not expected for many years, since his father was only forty-five.

Nicholas took the throne in 1894 at the age of 26 following Alexander III's unexpected death. Because Alexander had expected to live and rule for another 20 or 30 years, Nicholas did not have as much political training or imperial experience as perhaps necessary. It is said that Nicholas felt unprepared for the duties of the crown asking his cousin, «What is going to happen to me and all of Russia?» Throughout his reign, Nicholas chose to maintain the conservative policies favored by his father. While Alexander had concentrated on the formulation of general policy, Nicholas devoted much more attention to the details of administration.

On May 14, 1896 Nicholas' formal coronation as Tsar was held in Uspensky

Cathedral located within the Kremlin.

The first years of his reign saw little more than continuation and development of the policy pursued by Alexander III. Nicholas



allotted money for All-Russia exhibition of 1896. In 1897 restoration of gold standard by Sergei Witte, Minister of Finance, completed the series of financial reforms, initiated fifteen years earlier. By 1902, the Great Siberian railway was nearly completed, this helped for the Russian trade in the Far East but the railway still required huge amounts of work (England and France railways completed in 1930s).

In foreign relations, Nicholas followed policies of his father, strengthening Franco-Russian Alliance and pursuing a policy of general European pacification, which culminated in the famous Hague peace conference.

During the February Revolution of 1917 Nicholas II and his family were imprisoned first in the Alexander Palace at Tsarskoe Selo, then later in the Governor's Mansion in Tobolsk, and finally at the Ipatiev House in Yekaterinburg. Nicholas II, his wife, his son, his four daughters, the family's medical doctor, the Tsar's Valet, the Empress' Lady in Waiting and the family's cook were all killed in the same room by the Bolsheviks on the night of 17 July 1918. This led to the canonization of Nicholas II, his wife the Empress and their children as martyrs by various groups tied to the Russian Orthodox Church within Russia and, prominently, by the Russian Orthodox Church outside Russia.

In 1981, Nicholas and his immediate family were recognised as martyred saints by the Russian Orthodox Church outside Russia. On 14 August 2000, they were recognised by the synod of the Russian Orthodox Church. This time they were not named as martyrs, since their death did not result immediately from their Christian faith; instead, they were canonized as passion bearers. According to a statement by the Moscow synod, they were glorified as saints.

In January 1998, the remains excavated from underneath a dirt road near

Yekaterinburg, in 1991, were identified as those of Nicholas II and his family (excluding one of the sisters, and Alexei). The identifications by separate Russian, British and American scientists using DNA analysis concur and were found to be conclusive. In April 2008, the Russian authorities announced that in 2007 they had found the two missing skeletal Romanov

remains near Yekaterinburg and confirmed their identities by DNA testing. On 1 October 2008, Russia's Supreme Court ruled that Nicholas II and his family were victims of political repression and should be rehabilitated. In March 2009, results of the DNA testing were published, confirming that the two bodies discovered in 2007 were those of Crown Prince Alexei and his sister Anastasia.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

***1. Write down questions to which the following statements may serve as the answers.***

1. The reign of Nicholas II saw Imperial Russia go from being one of the foremost great powers of the world to an economic and military disaster.

2. Although Nicholas attended meetings of the Imperial Council, his obligations were limited until he acceded to the throne.

3. On May 14, 1896 Nicholas' formal coronation as Tsar was held in Uspensky Cathedral located within the Kremlin.

4. In foreign relations, Nicholas followed policies of his father, strengthening Franco-Russian Alliance and pursuing a policy of general European pacification, which culminated in the famous Hague peace conference.

5. During the February Revolution of 1917 Nicholas II and his family were imprisoned first in the Alexander Palace at Tsarskoe Selo, then later in the Governor's Mansion in Tobolsk, and finally at the Ipatiev House in Yekaterinburg.

6. On 1 October 2008, Russia's Supreme Court ruled that Nicholas II and his family were victims of political repression and should be rehabilitated

***2. Outline the main parts of the article. Make up a plan and give a short summary of the article.***

## **GEORGE WASHINGTON**

**(February 22, 1732 – December 14, 1799)**

George Washington was the commander of the Continental Army in the American Revolutionary War (1775 – 1783) and served as the first President of the United States of America (1789 – 1797). For his central role in the formation of the United States, he is often referred to as the father of his country.

George Washington was born on February 22, 1732. He was the first child of Augustine Washington and his second wife, Mary Ball Washington, on the family's Pope's Creek Estate near present-day Colonial Beach in Westmoreland County, Virginia. His father had four children by his first wife, Jane Butler: two died young, but two sons survived making George the third son, but very much younger. Moving to Ferry Farm in Stafford County at age six, George was educated in the home by his father and eldest brother.

In his youth, Washington worked as a surveyor, and acquired what would become invaluable knowledge of the terrain around his native Colony of Virginia. Washington embarked upon a career as a planter, which historians defined as those who held 20 or more slaves.

On January 6, 1759, Washington married the widow Martha Dandridge Custis. Surviving letters suggest that he may have been in love at the time with Sally Fairfax, the wife of a friend. Some historians believe George and Martha were distantly related. Nevertheless, George and Martha made a good marriage, and together raised her two children from her previous marriage. Later the Washingtons raised two of Mrs. Washington's grandchildren. George and Martha never had any children together. The newlywed couple moved to Mount Vernon, where he took up the life of a planter and political figure.

Washington lived an aristocratic lifestyle — fox hunting was a favorite leisure activity. Like most Virginia planters, he imported luxuries and other goods from England and paid for them by exporting his tobacco crop. By 1766, he had switched Mount Vernon's primary cash crop from tobacco to wheat, a crop which could be sold in America, and diversified operations to

include flour milling, fishing, horse breeding, spinning, and weaving.

During these years, Washington concentrated on his business activities and remained somewhat aloof from politics. Although he expressed opposition to the 1765 Stamp Act, the first direct tax on the colonies, he did not take a leading role in the growing colonial resistance until after protests of the Townshend Acts (enacted in 1767) had become widespread. In August 1774, Washington attended the First Virginia Convention, where he was selected as a delegate to the First Continental Congress.

After fighting broke out in April 1775, Washington appeared at the Second Continental Congress in military uniform, signaling that he was prepared for war. Washington had the prestige, the military experience, the charisma and military bearing, the reputation of being a strong patriot, and he was supported by the South, especially Virginia. Although he did not explicitly seek the office of commander and even claimed that he was not equal to it, there was no serious competition. On June 14, 1775 Washington was appointed Major General and elected by Congress to be Commander-in-chief.

The following year, he forced the British out of Boston, lost New York City, and crossed the Delaware River in New Jersey, defeating the surprised enemy units later that year. As a result of his strategy, Revolutionary forces captured the two main British combat armies at Saratoga and Yorktown. Negotiating with Congress, the colonial states, and French allies, he held together a tenuous army and a fragile nation amid the threats of disintegration and failure. Following the end of the war in 1783, King George III asked what Washington would do next and was told of rumors that he'd return to his farm; this prompted the king to state, «If he does that, he will be the greatest man in the world.» Washington did, in fact, return to private life and retired to his plantation at Mount Vernon.

On December 12, 1799, Washington spent several hours inspecting his farms on horseback, in snow and later hail and freezing rain. He sat down to dine that evening without changing his wet clothes. The next morning, he awoke with a bad cold, fever, and a throat infection called quinsy that turned into acute

laryngitis and pneumonia. Washington died on the evening of December 14, 1799, at his home aged 67, while attended by Dr. James Craik, one of his closest friends, Dr. Gustavus Richard Brown, Dr. Elisha C. Dick, and Tobias Lear V, Washington's personal secretary. Washington has been consistently ranked by scholars as one of the greatest U.S. Presidents.

Modern doctors believe that Washington died largely because of his treatment, which included calomel and bloodletting, resulting in a combination of shock from the loss of five pints of blood, as well as asphyxia and dehydration. Washington's remains were buried at Mount Vernon. Originally, he was interred in the old tomb on the estate. In 1831, for the centennial of his birth, his remains were moved to the current tomb. To protect their privacy, Martha Washington burned the correspondence between her husband and herself following his death. Only three letters between the couple have survived.

Many things have been named in honor of Washington. Today, Washington's face and image are often used as national symbols of the United States, along with the icons such as the flag and great seal. Washington, together with Theodore Roosevelt, Thomas Jefferson, and Abraham Lincoln, is depicted in stone at the Mount Rushmore Memorial. The Washington Monument, one of the most well-known American landmarks, was built in his honor. The George Washington Masonic National Memorial in Alexandria, Virginia, constructed entirely with voluntary contributions from members of the Masonic Fraternity, was also built in his honor.

## ***ASSIGNMENTS***

### ***1. On the basis of the text try to prove the following facts:***

1. For his central role in the formation of the United States, George Washington is often referred to as the father of his country.
2. Washington was successful both in his business activities and politics.

3. Washington had the prestige, the military experience, the charisma and military bearing, the reputation of being a strong patriot.

4. Washington has been consistently ranked by scholars as one of the greatest U.S. Presidents.

5. Many things have been named in honor of Washington.

*2. Give a short summary of the article.*

## THE PEOPLE'S ATTORNEY

Louis Brandeis was born on November 13, 1856, in Louisville. His parents, Adolph and Fredericka Brandeis, had emigrated from Prague. Although the Brandeis family was Jewish, Adolph and Fredericka decided to raise their four children outside the confines of a synagogue and opted instead to teach their children «basic moral values» at home.

Although he received no formal religious instruction, the young Brandeis did get an education. He attended Louisville's best schools and proved to be an excellent student — so good in fact that, in 1872, the Public Schools of Louisville gave him a gold medal for his efforts! But, just a year later, Brandeis left Louisville to finish high school in Dresden, Germany. It was there, Brandeis would later recall, that he «really learned to think.»

Brandeis excelled at Annen Realschule, his German school, and, when he graduated, Harvard University admitted him into its law school — although he did not have a college degree. Even without formal training that so many of his law school peers had, the young scholar managed to make the best grades in the law school's history. Brandeis graduated in two just years at the unprecedented age of 20.

After working as a lawyer for a short time in St. Louis, Missouri, Louis Brandeis moved back to Boston, Mass., home of Harvard University, in 1879. Brandeis worked as a corporate lawyer, sometimes for big companies, other times for individuals. But he always tried to balance the rights of individuals with the

interests of big companies, who sometimes put profits above what was best for their employees or for citizens in general. His efforts on behalf of the «common man» eventually gained him the nickname «the people's attorney.»

Brandeis was interested in things other than the law, too. The «people's attorney» served as an unofficial advisor to President Woodrow Wilson on matters like U.S. business and unfair trade policies. And, in 1913, Brandeis became involved in a campaign that was important to many American Jews - Zionism. Jews faced discrimination and prejudice in all parts of the world, and Zionists wanted to create a safe haven — a Jewish homeland called «Zion» — which later became known as the State of Israel. Although Brandeis was technically Jewish, he had never really practiced Judaism. But something about the Zionist cause struck Brandeis as important, and the «people's attorney» decided to support the cause. He eventually served as the President of the Zionist Organization of America.

But Brandeis' days as an activist for Zionism and as a practicing attorney were limited. On January 2, 1916, President Wilson nominated Brandeis to serve on the Supreme Court - the highest and most important court in the United States. To get the job, however, Brandeis had to be approved by the U.S. Senate. Normally, the approval process was quick and without incident, but this time things were different.

Brandeis was a controversial nominee for several reasons. Most opponents cited the lawyer's liberal views. One Boston newspaper, for example, called him «radical, impractical, and reckless.» Other critics, however, revealed a more sinister reason for their opposition, and Brandeis began to feel the sting of anti-Semitism.

The approval process dragged on for five months. In the end, however, the Senate approved Brandeis' nomination by a comfortable margin of 47 to 22. On June 5, 1916, Louis Brandeis was sworn in as an associate justice of the U.S. Supreme Court. He was the first Jew - and some would argue the first liberal - to be appointed to the nation's highest court.

Brandeis served on the Supreme Court for 23 years; he died in Washington, D.C., on October 5, 1941. Seven years later, a

new college opened nine miles outside of Boston; it was named after the «people's lawyer.» Brandeis University is die only nonsectarian Jewish-sponsored college or university in the country.

### **ASSIGNMENTS**

- 1. List some of Brandies' qualifications.***
- 2. List the reasons that some people had for opposing Louis Brandies. Agree or disagree with the critics' reasoning.***
- 3. Make a list of the places (countries and cities) mentioned in the article. Identify their locations on a world map and use an encyclopedia or atlas to find out more about each place.***



## Part IV AROUND THE WORLD

### Texts for examinational translation

*Read and translate the following texts. Do the tasks below.*

#### Level 1

There is no other nation in the world, who would keep in such a high reverence, have such a high respect for, love with such a mystical adoration their national relic as the Hungarians do with their crown, the Hungarian Holy Crown. There is no other nation to be found, whose national relic's source, origin and age are so much unanswered, surrounded with such a mystery, and went through such fantastic adventures as did the crown of the Hungarians. Believed to be the crown of the first Hungarian king, Saint Stephen I. (1000 – 1038), this crown was pawned or lost, stolen or seized, stashed or rescued and was kept in more royal courts, towns, castles and citadels than any other nation's coronation jewel.

Wars were waged for this crown and it happened that it was dug underground in a iron chest or in a crude oil barrel. Every time the Holy Crown returned to Hungary, it brought about an elevated emotional, solemn atmosphere in the entire country, and its power was so enormous over the nation that the people knelt down before the coach carrying the crown, as they did later before the train bringing home the remains of Louis Kossuth.

The Hungarian Holy Crown consists of two separate parts, i.e. the lower circular crown called the Greek crown and the upper arch-type crown called the Latin crown.

The two parts were attached together by Hungarian king Geza I at the end of the 11th century, and it is proved that the complete Hungarian Holy Crown already existed in 1166. So, it is more than 800 years old.

The Hungarian Holy Crown is a harmonic complex of many styles of art, fine goldsmiths and artistic works, so it truly counts for a masterpiece. Apart from

that, it represents their country, nation and culture for the Hungarians, and such, it is much more than just a regal jewel for them, it is their highest regarded national relic. If the Holy Crown were able to speak, it could tell all the ups and downs, despairs and hopes, anguishes and happiness, cares and cheers the Hungarians went through with their crown during their history which made them, the Holy Crown and the nation, two unseparable parts.

### ASSIGNMENTS

1. Give the title to the text.
2. Ask 5 questions on the text covering its contents.
3. Underline the main idea of the text in 2-3 sentences.

#### Level 2

On December 4, 1872, the brigantine *Mary Celeste*, carrying 1,700 barrels of crude alcohol en route from New York to Genoa, was found abandoned and drifting in the Atlantic Ocean between the Azores and Portugal. The crew of the *Dei Gratia*, the cargo ship that found the *Mary Celeste*, inspected her carefully and then sailed her to Gibraltar to collect the large salvage reward. Their report given at the inquiry suggests that the captain, his wife, his young daughter, and the seven-man crew had deserted the ship in a great hurry. The captain's bed was unmade, something unheard of in a well-run ship, which the *Mary Celeste* was known to be. The oilskin boots and pipes belonging to the crew had also been left, although the chronometer, sextant, and lifeboat were missing. The arrangement of the sails also suggested sudden abandonment. The cargo was intact, although some barrels had leaked and two of the hatches were not in place.

Several theories have been propounded to explain why those aboard left a perfectly seaworthy vessel to risk their lives in an

open boat. It has been suggested that they were the victims of alien abduction or sea-monster attacks. Such outlandish notions are hardly credible. The idea that the ship was a victim of piracy can also be discounted, since the cargo and other valuables were untouched. Likewise, mutiny does not seem plausible, since the captain and first officer were known to be fair and experienced, the voyage was relatively short, and mutineers would probably have taken over the ship, not forsaken it.

A possible explanation is that some event made the captain fear for the safety of the ship. In fact, recently studied seismic records indicate that a violent earthquake, whose epicenter was on the seafloor in the region where the *Mary Celeste* was sailing, occurred some days before the ship's discovery. If the ship had been subjected to intense shocks caused by the quake, all aboard may have hastily abandoned ship to avoid what they imagined might be its imminent destruction from an explosion of the combustible cargo. A severed rope found dangling from the side of the *Mary Celeste* suggests that the evacuees trailed behind in the lifeboat, attached to the ship, waiting for the crisis to pass. Great waves may then have snapped the rope and capsized the smaller boat, whose occupants would have disappeared without a trace.

## ASSIGNMENTS

1. Give the title to the text.
2. Ask 5 questions on the text covering its contents.
3. Underline the main idea of the text in 2-3 sentences.

### Level 3

Teotihuacán is the largest and most impressive urban archaeological site of ancient America, covering an area of roughly twenty square kilometers. The city was at one time thought to be the religious center of the Toltecs but is now believed to be a creation of an earlier civilization about whose origins little is known. The earliest artifacts from Teotihuacán

date from over two thousand years ago, but the period of greatest expansion dates from A.D. 200 to A.D. 500. At its peak the city is estimated to have had a population of up to two hundred thousand inhabitants, with residential areas extending throughout the built-up area. Judging by regionally dispersed finds of the image of the rain god Tlaloc, of «thin orange wear» pottery, and of the characteristic architectural forms, the influence of Teotihuacán was widespread. It is not clear what caused the city's decline and eventual abandonment, but the evidence points to overpopulation, a depletion of resources, and the possible sacking by adversaries.

The primary axis of the city was the Avenue of the Dead, which extends for 2.5 kilometers through the center of the urban area, starting in the north at the Moon Plaza and continuing beyond the Great Compound complexes to the south. The avenue divided Teotihuacán into two sections with apartment compounds arranged on either side, often symmetrically, suggesting a highly planned layout from the earliest phases of construction.

The vast Pyramid of the Sun, located in the middle of the central zone, is the tallest and most dominant structure of Teotihuacán, with a height of 65 meters and a base covering approximately ten acres. At one time the edifice was surmounted by a temple. A cave located underneath the pyramid and possibly used for ritual activities hints at its religious importance. The Pyramids of the Moon and Feathered Serpent are other notable ceremonial sites nearby.

A particular feature of the architecture of many of the pyramidal platforms at this site is the series of sloping apron walls, known as *taluds*, interspersed with vertical panels — *tableros* — producing a step like appearance. Originally all such structures would have been covered with a layer of stucco and then painted, often with pictures of animals and mythological creatures.

### **ASSIGNMENTS**

1. Give the title to the text.
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3. Underline the main idea of the text in 2-3 sentences.

## Level 4

It was the Prairie School of Architecture, which developed the foremost architectural style in North America in the first decades of the twentieth century. The impetus for the movement can be found in the philosophy and practice of Louis Sullivan, who was also instrumental in the building of the first skyscrapers. Other important influences were the English Arts and Crafts Movement and traditional Oriental themes. The students and followers of Sullivan, the most famous of whom was Frank Lloyd Wright, developed Sullivan's ideas into a quintessentially American style, expressing an underlying belief in the unity of man and nature.

When many people think of architecture, they think of large public buildings, but most of the effort of the Prairie School was devoted to domestic buildings. The most visible external feature of this architecture was the predominance of horizontal lines and heavy projecting roofs. The shapes were designed to both harmonize with and reflect the broad, flat prairies of the Midwestern United States. The guiding principle behind the interior of these houses was an emphasis on reducing the number of separate rooms to a minimum, opening up living space, and designing internal divisions so that the light and vista created a sense of unity. The interior corners typical of traditional European houses were abolished to create a feeling of movement and freedom. This aesthetic ideal was an attempt to make the living space more compatible with human proportions and living requirements. In line with their belief in the importance of nature, these architects related the interiors to the surrounding landscape by their use of windows that were continuous ribbons of glass, of projecting terraces with parapets that were used as planting boxes, and of deeply cantilevered roof overhangs that led the eye towards the horizon. Often natural rocks formed a broad fireplace anchored at the center of the design.

Ornamentation was only permitted to complement the overall expression of the building. To this end, the Prairie School architects tended to use simple, unmixed, natural materials, sometimes with geometric or Oriental motifs. For example, many

of the Prairie houses had a «turned-up» roof edge reminiscent of traditional Japanese houses.

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

- 1. Give the title to the text.**
- 2. Ask 5 questions on the text covering its contents.**
- 3. Underline the main idea of the text in 2-3 sentences.**

### **Level 5**

Every year about two million people visit Mount Rushmore, where the faces of four U.S. presidents were carved in granite by the sculptor Gutzon Borglum and his son. The creation of the Mount Rushmore monument took fourteen years — from 1927 to 1941 — and nearly a million dollars. These were times when money was difficult to come by and many people were jobless. To help him with this sculpture, Borglum hired laid-off workers from the closed-down mines in the Black Hills area. He taught these men to dynamite, drill, carve, and finish the granite as they were hanging in midair in his specially devised chairs, which had many safety features.

Borglum used dynamite to remove 90 percent of the 450,000 tons of rock from the mountain quickly and relatively inexpensively. His workmen became so skilled that they could blast to within four inches of the finished surface and grade the contours of the facial features. Borglum was proud of the fact that no workers were killed or severely injured during the years of blasting and carving the granite. Considering the workers regularly used dynamite and heavy equipment, this was a remarkable feat.

During the carving, many changes in the original design had to be made to keep the carved heads free of large fissures that were uncovered. However, not all the cracks could be avoided, so Borglum concocted a mixture of granite dust, white lead, and linseed oil to fill them.

Every winter, water from melting snow gets into the fissures and expands as it freezes, making the fissures bigger.

Consequently, every autumn maintenance work is done to refill the cracks. To preserve this national monument for future generations, the repairers swing out in space over a 500-foot drop and fix the monument with the same mixture that Borglum used.

### ***ASSIGNMENTS***

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3. Underline the main idea of the text in 2-3 sentences.

## CONTENTS

|  |    |
|--|----|
| <b>Part I TEXTS FOR READING AND DISCUSSION</b> .....                       | 3  |
| HISTORY AND HISTORIOGRAPHY .....   | 3  |
| WESTERN HISTORIOGRAPHY .....   | 7  |
| NON-WESTERN HISTORIOGRAPHY .....   | 14 |
| CIVILIZATION .....   | 21 |
| STATE .....  | 24 |
| TOTALITARISM .....   | 30 |
| DICTATORSHIP .....   | 34 |
| TERRORISM .....  | 39 |
| <b>Part II ARTS AND MYTHOLOGY</b> .....                                    | 44 |
| ANCIENT ART .....  | 45 |
| INDIAN, CHINESE AND JAPANESE ART .....                                     | 55 |
| PRE-COLUMBIAN CULTURES OF CENTRAL<br>AND SOUTH AMERICA AND THEIR ART ..... | 59 |
| THE ART OF ANCIENT GREECE .....  | 62 |
| THE ART OF ANCIENT ROME .....  | 65 |
| MYTHOLOGY .....  | 69 |
| <b>Part III THEY MADE HISTORY</b> .....                                    | 75 |
| THE WHITE GENERAL .....  | 75 |
| FROM RAGS TO RICHES .....  | 77 |
| NICHOLAS II OF RUSSIA .....  | 78 |
| GEORGE WASHINGTON .....  | 82 |
| THE PEOPLE'S ATTORNEY .....  | 85 |
| <b>Part IV AROUND THE WORLD</b> .....                                      | 88 |



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*Составители:*

**Заблюцкая Марина Валентиновна  
Тадеуш Татьяна Николаевна**

Технический редактор *А.Н. Гладун*  
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