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*ДЛЯ*  
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Збірник навчально-методичних матеріалів містить тексти з історичної тематики з оригінальних та адаптованих англomовних видань, а також вправи для контролю розуміння змісту прочитаного та тематичний словник.

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## Text 1. HISTORY AS A SCIENCE

History is the study of the human past. Historians study records of the past events and prepare new records based on their research. These records are commonly can be called "history". History as a branch of knowledge that deals with the recording, analyzing, and correlating of past events. History is continuous methodical record of public events; study of growth of nations, it's a science dealing with the development of human society.

History is an ancient science. Historical thought appeared in the 4<sup>th</sup>-3<sup>th</sup> millennium B.C. (before Christ). Moses, the first historian, wrote about B.C. 1500. From the time to about B.C. 445, the writers of the Bible are the only historians. The most famous ancient historians are: Herodotus, who is considered as a father of the history, Xenophon and Polybius. They all came from Ancient Greece. The first historical writings were stone inscriptions showing different events in Egypt, Babylon, Assyria and Persia. General or World History is divided into four periods:

- Ancient History;
- Medieval History;
- Modern History;
- Contemporary History.

The past has left many traces, including traditions, folk tales, works of art, archaeological objects, and the books and other written records. Historians use all these sources, but they mainly study the past as it has been recorded in written documents. Historians study all aspects of past human life—social and cultural conditions as well as political and economical events. Some study the past simply to understand better how people of other times acted and thought. Other historians seek to draw lessons from those actions and thoughts to understand what decisions must be taken today.

History became a field of study in many schools during the 1800's. Today, students throughout the world study history in schools. They learn about the past mainly from textbooks but also through such activities as field trips to historical sites and visits to museums. Many schools require pupils to study their country's heritage as a means of developing patriotism. History is thus used not only to tell students and pupils how their national way of life developed but also to justify and support national ideals and institutions.

**Task 1. Answer the following questions:**

1. What is usually understood under the term history?
2. What is considered to be the first historian?
3. What ancient historians can you name?
4. What is the origin of the history?
5. What periods of history can you name?

**Task 2. Complete the sentences according the information of the text and your own:**

- History is a branch of knowledge that deals with .....
- The past has left many traces, including .....
- Historians study all aspects of past human life .....
- History became a field of study in many schools .....

**Task 3. Give the summary of the text.**

## **Text 2. WHAT HISTORIANS STUDY**

Until the 1900's historians primarily studied political events; they wrote about diplomacy, wars, and affairs of state. Today historians also study many other subjects, closely connected with history. Some examine economic and social conditions. Other follow the development of religions, the arts, or other elements of culture.

History is often classified as one of the social sciences such as economics, psychology and sociology. However, historians differ from other social scientist in the way in which they study social processes. Other social scientists try to develop general laws by examining patterns of behavior throughout the time. In contrast, historians study the conditions or events of a particular time. Historians may use theories from the other social sciences to help explain these conditions and events.

The divisions of history. The field of history is so vast that historians have traditionally split it into divisions. The three main divisions of history are based on period, nation and topic. Historians divide Western history into three periods:

- ancient times, from about 3000 B.C. to the A.D. 400's;
- medieval times, the 400's to the 1500's; and
- modern times, the 1500's to the present.

Scholars may divide these periods into many shorter periods.

A historian may study a particular century or a certain period, such as the High Middle Ages (about the 1200's) or the Age of Reason (1700's). The division of history into periods helps historian organize focus their studies. However, this division may distort the evidence presented by history. For years historians considered the medieval era as a period of superstition and disorganization that came between two supposedly better periods of history. This viewpoint prevented them from the realizing that the Middle Ages had a vitality of its own and formed the basis of the modern European civilization.

The division of history into ancient, medieval and modern periods applies only to European societies. Historians who study Asian or African societies base their work on entirely different periods. The division of history by nation involves the study of American, Chinese, or French history. The division by topic enables historians to deal with particular aspects of past human activity. Many historians study economic, social and intellectual history in addition to studying traditional political history. Some historians focus on such specialized topics as the history of science, or an ethnic group, or of a city.

***Task 1. Answer the following questions:***

1. What is the subject of the history?
2. Why do historians study social sciences?
3. What divisions of the history can you name?

***Task 2. Complete the sentences according to the information of the text and your own:***

- History is often classified as .....
- The field of the history is so vast .....
- For years historians considered the medieval era .....
- The division of history by nation involves .....

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

### **Text 3. HISTORY AND PREHISTORY**

History is a study of past human events and activities. Although this broad discipline has often been classified under either the humanities or the social sciences, it can be seen to be a bridge between them, incorporating methodologies from both fields of study.

The term "history" entered the English language with the meaning of "relation of incidents, story" from the Latin 'historia' "narrative, account". This derived from the Ancient Greek 'historia', meaning learning or knowing by inquiry, history, record, narrative.

Traditionally, historians have attempted to answer historical questions through the study of written documents, although historical research is not limited only to these sources. In general, the sources of historical knowledge can be separated into three categories: what is written, what is said, and what is physically preserved, and historians often include all three. Historians frequently emphasize the importance of written records, which universally date to the development of writing. This emphasis has led to the term "prehistory", referring to a time before written sources are available. Since writing emerged at different times throughout the world, the distinction between prehistory and history often depends on the topic.

Traditionally, the study of history was limited to the written and spoken word. However, the rise of academic professionalism and the development of new scientific fields in the 19<sup>th</sup> and the 20<sup>th</sup> centuries brought a flood of new information that challenged this notion. Archaeology, anthropology and other social sciences were providing new information and even theories about human history.

In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the division between history and prehistory became problematic. Prehistorians began using archaeology to explain important events in areas that were traditionally in the field of history. Historians began looking beyond traditional political history narratives with new approaches such as economic, social and cultural history, all of which rely on various sources of evidence.

There are three different views for the definition of when history begins. Some believe history began in the 34<sup>th</sup> century B.C., with cuneiform writing. Cuneiforms were written on clay tablets, on which symbols were drawn with a blunt reed called a stylus. The Sumerian script was adopted for the writing of the Akkadian, Elamite, Hittite, Hurrian (and Urartian) languages, and it inspired the Old Persian and Ugaritic national alphabets.

For others, history has become a “general” term meaning the study of “everything” that is known about the human past. Sources that can give light on the past, such as oral tradition, linguistics and genetics; have become accepted by many historians. Nevertheless, archaeologists distinguish between history and prehistory based on the appearance of written documents within the region in question. This distinction remains critical for archaeologists because the availability of a written record generates very different interpretations of problems and potentials.

***Task 1. Answer the following questions:***

1. What is the origin of the term ‘history’?
2. How can historical questions be answered?
3. What sources of historical knowledge can you name?
4. What sciences can help to find new information about human history?

***Task 2. Complete the sentences according information of the text and your own:***

- In general, the sources of historical knowledge can be separated into..... ..
- Traditionally the study of the history was limited .....
- Prehistorians began using archaeology .....
- History has begun a general term ‘meaning’ .....

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

#### **Text 4. THEORIES OF HISTORY**

Since ancient times, scholars have developed theories of history that attempt to explain the entire course of human events through some general principles. For example, the ancient Greeks regarded history as a cycle of events that repeated itself

endlessly. In contrast, the traditional Christian theory considers history as a series of events with a beginning and an end. According to this theory, God directs human events toward the final goal of the redemption of humanity. This theory dominated nearly all the history written in Europe during the Middle Ages.

In modern times, scholars have proposed many other theories. During the late 1700's and 1800's, philosophers developed the concept of history as a process of inevitable progress. They believed this progress would eventually lead to a logical social order based on a scientific understanding of human events.

The German historian Oswald Spengler argued in his book "The Decline of the West" (1918-1922) that civilizations go through a cycle of birth, development and death. Arnold Toynbee, a British historian, also presented a cyclical theory in his 12-volume work, "A Study of History" (1934-1961). However, Toynbee disagreed with Spengler that modern Western civilization is already doomed.

Nearly all theories of history assume that it has meaning and purpose, but there is no overwhelming evidence to support this concept. In fact, many scholars today question whether history has any meaning other than that which people read into it. As a result, most modern philosophers have turned away from such theories. Instead, they examine such points as the nature of history as a field of knowledge and the method of explanation used by historians.

***Task 1. Give the English equivalents of the words and word combinations:***

- повний перелік людських подій;
- спрямовувати людські події;
- середні віки;
- галузь знання.

***Task 2. Complete the sentences according the information of the text and your own:***

- The Ancient Greeks regarded history as .....
- God directs human events toward the final goal of the redemption of humanity.
- During the 1700's and 1800's philosophers....., but there is no overwhelming evidence to support this concept.

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

**Text 5. THE DEVELOPMENT OF HISTORICAL WRITING**

Ancient Times. The world's oldest written history comes from China. Archaeologists have discovered records of Chinese history written before 1000 B.C.



The first great Chinese historian, SimaQian, wrote the earliest major history of China about 100 B.C.

Western historian writing began in Ancient Greece. The first major Greek historian was Herodotus, who lived during the 400's B.C. He wrote a long account of the wars between the Greeks and the Persians. Herodotus, who is often called the "Father of History" had few Greek documents and could not read Persian. Therefore, he based his narrative on tradition and oral testimony. Herodotus' most famous successor, Thucydides, strove to write critically and accurately. His "History of the Peloponnesian War" is an authentic account of the 27-year war in which Sparta finally defeated Athens in 404 B.

Several ancient Romans also became famous historians. Livy wrote a long, detailed narrative called "History from the Founding of the City". It tells the story of Rome from the city's birth until 9 B.C.

Cornelius Tacitus is known especially for his Histories and Annals. These works examine Roman History from the death emperor Augustus in A.D. 14 through the reign of Vitellius, which ended in A.D. 69.

#### Medieval Times.

Christian writers, including a number of monks, contributed almost all the historical accounts of medieval times that were written during that period. Some Christian historians attempted to write a universal history by combining Jewish and Christian history with the records of the Greek and Roman past. During the early 300's, Eusebius, the bishop of Caesarea in Palestine, produced the most important universal history of that type. In another work, Ecclesiastical History, Eusebius presented a history of Christianity to show that God controlled all human events. During the 400's, Saint Augustine developed this idea fully into a philosophy of history in his book "The City of God".

The greatest historian of the early Middle Ages was an English monk named Bede. His major work, "Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation" (731), is still the principal source for English history up to that time. Bede and the other medieval historians tried to show the hand of God in historical events. Today, their works are significant chiefly as records of the events of their times.

During the 1300's, a great Arab historian named IbnKhaldun wrote his seven-volume "Universal History", a study of world civilization. Also in this time in Europe, people other than members of the clergy started to write histories. European historians of the 1400's began to concentrate more on the human view of events and less on the divine aspect.

#### Modern Times.

An important early modern historian was the British scholar Edward Gibbon. His work, "History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" (1776-1788), reveals Gibbon's accurate and thorough scholarship. This work also reflects the bias

against Christianity of Gibbon and other great thinkers of his day. Gibbon's book blames Christianity in part for the fall of the Roman Empire.

The methods of modern historical study developed during the 1800's, and history became a recognized academic field. Leopold von Ranke, a German historian, had the most significant impact on the development of history in the 1800's. Ranke, who is known as the father of modern history, devised the basic methods used by modern historians to analyze and evaluate documents. He also introduced the use of seminars for training future historians. Ranke mainly studied political history. During the 1900's, European and American historians began to emphasize the importance of social and economic forces in history. Today, historians study these and all other aspects of the human past.

***Task 1. Answer the following questions:***

1. Who was the author of the earlier Chinese history?
2. Who is considered to be the "father" of the history?
3. What Roman ancient historians can you name?
4. What the greatest historian of the Middle Age can you name?
5. What historian did make the most significant influence on the development of history of the 18<sup>th</sup> century?

***Task 2. Complete the following sentences according information of the text and your own:***

- Western historian writing began in .....
- ..... had few Greek documents and could not read Persian.
- Livy wrote a long, detailed narrative .....
- Christian writers, including a number of monks .....
- His major work, .....
- ....., devised the basis methods used by modern historians to analyze and evaluate documents.

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

## Text 6. HISTORICAL METHODS

The historical method comprises the techniques and guidelines by which historians use primary sources and other evidence to research and then to write history. Most historians follow a few basic steps in their work. First, they select for study an issue or person from some period of the past. Next, they try to read a variety of source materials-everything written by or about the subject. Then they interpret the information obtained from these sources. Finally, they write a narrative history or a biography.

Choosing and evaluating sources. Historians use two main types of sources in their research, primary sources and secondary sources. Primary sources consist of documents and other records produced during the period being studied. They include books, diaries, letters, and government records. Motion pictures and tape recordings may serve as primary sources for events of the 1900's. Secondary sources are materials prepared later by people who studied the primary sources.

Historians choose documents that reveal most accurately the facts they wish to know. Therefore, they prefer primary sources to secondary ones, and confidential reports to public ones. Historians who study recent events use a special type of source. They go to participants in those events and record their oral testimony. Such oral history supplements documentary history.

Historians analyze the documents with which they work to determine the reliability of these sources. They compare documents with other sources and also check for such flaws as errors in the order of events or variations in writing style. In addition, historians must determine whether the author's account of events can be trusted.

Interpreting of historical events. Basic historical facts are data generally accepted by all historians because the evidence for them seems unquestionable. However, historians often disagree about the meaning and significance of such facts. These experts try to be as unbiased as possible, but their own beliefs and prejudices influence their interpretation. For example, a historian's social, economic, and religious views help determine what he or she accepts as 'normal' in other person. This judgment, in turn, determines what the historian accepts as reliable testimony or as a likely sequence of events. Such interpretation explains why historians who use the same data may disagree about events and their significance.

Some historians rely on information from other social sciences to form their interpretations. For example, the study of history that uses theories and insights from psychology is called psychohistory. Some historians use statistical methods to interpret data from such sources as old censuses and account books. This approach is called cliometrics. The writing of history is part of a field called historiography.

Some of the best historians use the techniques of the novelist and dramatist to entertain as well as inform.

**Task 1. Give the English equivalents of the following words and word-combinations:**

- включати/охоплювати техніки та провідні принципи;
- свідчення;
- урядові документи/записи;
- шоденник;
- аналізувати документи;
- надійне свідчення.

**Task 2. Give the Ukrainian equivalents of the following words and word-combinations:**

- primary sources;
- interpret the information;
- secondary sources;
- confidential reports;
- significance of the facts;
- sequence of events;
- to rely on;
- approach.

**Task 3. Answer the following questions:**

1. What are the basic steps for historians to study some historical issue or person?
2. Why are primary sources more preferable to historians than secondary ones?
3. What primary sources can you name?
4. How do historians determine the reliability of historical sources?
5. What kind of historical sources do you deal with during your study at the faculty?

## Text 7. HISTORICAL ANALYSIS

The process of historical analysis is a difficult one, involving investigation and analysis of competing ideas, facts to create coherent narratives that explain 'what happened' and 'why' or how it happened. Modern historical analysis usually draws upon most of the other social sciences, including economics, sociology, politics, psychology, anthropology, philosophy and linguistics, in order to ensure what these narratives will start from the beginning of the world.

An important part of the contribution of many modern historians is the verification or, as revisionist history, the dismissal of earlier historical accounts through reviewing newly discovered sources and recent scholarship or through parallel disciplines such as archaeology. Although references are often made to the ancient writers such as Herodotus, or Tacitus as historians, their works do not meet the modern standards of impartiality and objectivity. Many of the historians of the past have been called upon to write histories either to furnish a king or ruling class or to give people a cultural heritage and a sense of identity. This meant that the works of these historians openly mixed oratory, poetry and literature in a way which is incompatible with the contemporary concern for impartiality and objectivity.

Herodotus's works covered what was then the entire known world of the Greeks, or at least the part regarded as worthy of study, i.e. the peoples surrounding the Mediterranean. At about the same time, Thucydides pioneered a different form of history, one much closer to 'reportage'. In his work, "History of the Peloponnesian War", Thucydides wrote about a single long conflict with its origins and results.

At the turn of the twentieth century, Western history remained biased toward the so-called "Great Men" school of history concerning wars, diplomacy, science and politics. This point of view was inherently predisposed toward the study of a small number of powerful men within the socio-economic elite. Since the 1960's, history as an academic discipline has undergone several evolutions. These changes fostered advances in a number of areas previously unrecognized in historiography. History of popular culture, mass culture, geographical culture and the lives of ordinary people became the subject of academic study.

Historians also started investigating the histories of ideas surrounding various categories of people, such as women's studies, including the entire branch of women's history, racial minorities or disabled people (e.g. an historian's study of the construction of ideas about disabled people and the results thereof, in a specific historical setting, such as Nazi Germany).

Today, many historians are employed at Universities and other facilities for post-secondary education. In addition, there are many historians who have a Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) degree in their chosen areas of study. The job market for graduate historians is relative limited. Historians typically work in libraries,

universities, archival centers, government agencies etc. Many with a history degree also may become involved with an administrative or clerical professions and a history degree is often used as a 'stepping stone' to further studies such as a law degree.

***Task 1. Answer the following questions:***

1. What does historical analysis include?
2. What other social disciplines connected with the process of historical analysis?
3. Why is Herodotus 's work is so significant for historians?
4. What has happened with history since 1960's?
5. In what spheres can modern historians work?

***Task 2. Complete the sentences according information of the text and your own:***

- Modern historical analysis usually draws .....
- Although references are often made to the .....  
- ..... known world of the Greeks,  
or at least the part regarded as worthy of study, i.e. the people  
.....  
- At the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, .....  
- ..... and other facilities for post  
secondary education.

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

## **Text 8. HISTORY OF SCIENCE**

Science is a body of empirical and theoretical knowledge, produced by a global community of researchers, making use of specific techniques for the observation and explanation of real phenomena, these techniques are summed up under the banner of scientific methods. The history of science draws on the historical methods of both intellectual history and social history. Forms of science first developed from practical concerns and from philosophical investigations of nature.

Though contribution to the development of the scientific method has been made since ancient time, the origin of the modern scientific method is also a complicated subject that is controversial. Science is a relatively recent word, whereas for centuries many natural philosophers did the work which one might now reasonably be called early science. The modern scientific method was not fully developed until the Scientific Revolution, which was initiated by the Scholastic universities of 13<sup>th</sup> century Europe, and its height during the 16<sup>th</sup> and the early 17<sup>th</sup> century saw a greater use of the modern scientific method to guide the evaluation of knowledge. The development of the scientific method is considered to be so

fundamental that some-especially philosophers of science and practicing scientists consider earlier inquiries into nature to be pre-scientific.

The historiography of science.

It's a historical study of the history of science which often overlaps the history of technology, the history of medicine, and the history of mathematics. It is generally found in an academic context as part of the discipline of the history of science and technology, history and the philosophy of science and other allied disciplines. Since the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, ideas about the history of science and technology have been tied to important philosophical and practical questions, such as whether scientific conclusions should be regarded as progressing towards truth, and whether freedom is important for scientific research. Historiography of science is a much more recent discipline than history of science, although they have exerted great mutual influence on each other, through the study of theories, changes in theories, the cultural, economic and political impact of science and technology, and the impact of society on scientific practice itself.

**Task 1. Give an English equivalents of the following:**

- емпіричне та теоретичне знання;
- історичні методи;
- філософське дослідження;
- частково співпадати;
- мати великий взаємний вплив.

**Task 2. Give the Ukrainian equivalents of the following:**

- global community of researches;
- contribution to the development;
- complicated and controversial;
- to be initiated by smb;
- allied disciplines;
- to be tied to important questions.

**Task 3. Give the summary of the text.**

## **Text 9. HISTORIOGRAPHY**

Historiography has a number of related meanings. It can refer to the history of historical study, its methodology and practices. It can also refer to a specific body of historical writing (for example, "medieval historiography during the 1960s" means "medieval history written during the 1960s"). Historiography can also be taken to mean historical theory or the study of historical writing and memory.

Historiography is a term with multiple meanings that has changed with time, place and observer. Broadly speaking, historiography is related to the study of the writing of history, examining factors such as how the style of historical writing, methods of interpretations, and tools of investigation have changed over time, but it can also refer to a body of historical work. Historiography is often broken down topically, such as 'Historiography of Islam' or 'Historiography of China'. There are many approaches or genres of history, such as oral history and social history. Beginning in the 19<sup>th</sup> century with a rise of academic historians a corpus of literature related to historiography has come into existence, with classic works as E. H. Carr's, "What is History" and Hayden White's "Metahistory".

There are two basic issues involved in historiography:

- the study of the development of histories is as academic discipline over time, as well as its development in different cultures and epochs;
- the study of the academic tools, methods and approaches that have been and are being used, including the historical method.

The term "historiography" can also be used to refer to a specific body of historical writing that was written during a specific time concerning a specific issue.

Modern Historiography.

Modern historiography began with Ranke in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, who was very critical on the sources used in history. He was opposed to analyses and rationalizations. He wanted eyewitness accounts and wanted an emphasis on the point of view of the eyewitness. Hegel and Marx introduced a change of society in history. Former historians had focused on cyclical events of the rise and decline of rulers and nations. A new discipline emerged in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century that analyzed and compared these perspectives on a larger scale and that discipline was sociology.

The French Annales School radically changed history during the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Fernand Braudel wanted history to become more scientific by demanding more mathematical evidence in history, in order to make the history discipline less subjective. Furthermore, he added a social-economic and geographic framework to answer historical questions. Other French historians, like Philippe Aries and Michael Foucault described history of daily life topics as death and sexuality. They wanted history to be written about all topics and that all questions should be asked.

***Task 1. Answer the following questions:***

1. What can historiography refer to?
2. What are the basic issues involved in historiography?
3. What can the term "historiography" also be used?
4. When did the Modern historiography begin?
5. Who radically changed the history during the 20<sup>th</sup>?



**Task 2. Give the Ukrainian equivalents of the following:**

- related meanings;
- historical writings;
- medieval historiography;
- methods of interpretations;
- tools of investigation;
- academic discipline;
- to be focused on.

**Task 3. Give the summary of the text.**

### **Text 10.ANCIENT HISTORIOGRAPHY**

Understanding the past appears to be a universal human need and the telling of history has emerged independently in civilizations around the world. What constitutes history is a philosophical question. The earliest critical historical thought emerged in Greece, a development which would be an important influence on the writing of history elsewhere in the world.

*Greek historiography.* Written history appeared first with the ancient Greeks, whose historians greatly contributed to the development of historical methodology. The very first historical works were “The Histories” composed by Herodotus (484B.C.-425B.C.), who became later known as the ‘father of history’. Herodotus attempted to distinguish between more and less reliable accounts, and personally conducted research by travelling extensively, giving written accounts of various Mediterranean cultures.

Thucydides, on the other hand, largely eliminated divine causality in his account of the war between Athens and Sparta, establishing a rationalistic element which became defining of subsequent Western Historiography. He was also the first to distinguish between cause and immediate origin of an event, while his successor Xenophon (ca. 431-355 B.C) introduced autobiographical elements and character studies in his ‘Anabasis’.

*Roman historiography.* The Romans adopted the Greek tradition, becoming the first people to write history in a non-Greek language. While early Roman works were still written in Greek, the Latin Origins, composed by the Roman statesman Cato the Elder (234-149 B.C) in a conscious effort to counteract the Greek cultural influence, marked the beginning of Latin historiography. Hailed for its lucid style, Julius Caesar’s (100 B.C.-44BC) *Bellum Gallicum* may represent the earliest autobiographical war coverage. The politician and orator Cicero (106-43 BC) introduced rhetorical elements in his political writings. Biography, although popular throughout antiquity, was introduced as a branch of history by the works Plutarch (c.

46-127) and Suetonius (c. 69-after 130) who described the deeds and characters of ancient personalities, stressing their human side.

Writing history was popular among Christian monks in the Middle Ages. They wrote about the history of the Jesus Christ, the Church and of their patrons, the dynastic history of the local rulers. History was written about states or nations during the Renaissance and soon history became an independent discipline.

**CHINESE HISTORIOGRAPHY.** In China, SimaQian (around 100 BC) was the first to lay the groundwork for professional historiography. His written work was the "Records of the Grand Historian" a monumental lifelong achievement in literature. Its scope extends as far back as the 16<sup>th</sup> century BC, including many treatises on specific subjects, along with individual biographies for prominent people, as well as exploring the lives and deeds of commoners found in his own time or in previous era. His work influenced every subsequent author of history in China, including the prestigious Ban family of the Eastern Han Dynasty era.

***Task 1. Answer the following questions:***

1. Where did the earliest critical historical thought emerge?
2. Who made the great contribution to the development of historical methodology?
3. How did Herodotus conduct his research?
4. Who introduced the autobiographical elements and characters in research?
5. Who introduced rhetorical elements in political writings?
6. What did Christian monks write about?

***Task 2. Complete the sentences according the information of the text and your own:***

- The earliest critical historical thought .....
- ....., whose historians greatly contributed to the development of historical methodology.
- Herodotus attempted to distinguish .....
- ....., becoming the first people to write history in non-Greek language.
- The politician and orator Cicero .....
- ..... In the Middle ages.

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

## Text 11. ANTHROPOLOGY

Anthropology (from Greek: antropos—‘human being’; and logos—‘knowledge’) is the study of humanity. Anthropology has origins in the natural sciences, the humanities, and the social sciences. Ethnography is both one of its primary methods, and the text that is written as a result of the practice of anthropology.

The anthropologist Eric Wolf once described anthropology as ‘the most scientific of the humanities, and the most humanistic of the science. Anthropology can best be understood as an outgrowth of the Age of Enlightenment, a period when Europeans attempted to study human behavior systematically. The traditions of jurisprudence, history, philology and sociology then evolved into something more closely resembling the modern views of these disciplines and informed the development of the social sciences, of which anthropology was a part.

Anthropology emerged from the development of natural history (expounded by authors such as Buffon) that occurred during the European colonization of the 17<sup>th</sup>, 18<sup>th</sup>, 19<sup>th</sup>, and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. Programs of ethnographic study originated in this era as the study of the ‘human primitives’ overseen by colonial administrations. There was a tendency in late 18<sup>th</sup> century Enlightenment thought to understand human society as a natural phenomenon that behaved in accordance with certain principles and that could be observed empirically.

Most 19<sup>th</sup>-century social theorists, including anthropologists, viewed non-European societies as windows onto the preindustrial human past. As academic disciplines began to differentiate over the course of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, anthropology grew increasingly distinct from natural history, on the one hand and from purely historical or literary fields such as Classics, on the other. During the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, battles over the ‘study of man’ took place between those of an ‘anthropological’ persuasion (relying on antropometrical techniques) and those of an ‘ethnological’ persuasion (looking at cultures and traditions), and these distinctions became part of the later divide between physical and cultural anthropology.

In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, academic disciplines have often been institutionally divided into three broad domains. The natural and biological sciences seek to derive general laws through reproducible and falsifiable experiments. The humanities generally study different local traditions, through their history, literature, music and art, with an emphasis on understanding particular individuals, events, or eras. The social sciences have generally attempted to develop scientific methods to understand social phenomena in a generalizable way. In particular, social sciences often develop statistical descriptions rather than the general laws derived in physics or chemistry, or they may explain individual cases through more general principles as in many fields of psychology.

Since the work of Franz Boas and Bronislaw Malinowski in the late 19<sup>th</sup>- and early 20<sup>th</sup>-centuries, cultural and social anthropology has been distinguished from other social science disciplines by its emphasis on in-depth examination of context, cross-cultural comparison (socio-cultural anthropology is by nature a comparative discipline), and the importance it places on long-term, experiential immersion in the area of research, often known as participant-observation.

In the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century, much of the methodologies of earlier anthropological and ethnographical study were reevaluated with an eye towards research ethnic, while at the same time the scope of investigation has broadened far beyond the traditional study of 'primitive cultures' (scientific practice itself is often an arena of anthropological study).

***Task 1. Give English equivalents for the following:***

- вивчення людства;
- доба просвітництва;
- людська поведінка;
- природне явище;
- у відношенні до чогось;
- вивчати місцеві традиції;
- наголошувати на чомусь;
- галузі психології;
- порівняльна дисципліна (галузь);
- ціль дослідження.

***Task 2. Say whether these statements correspond to the information of the text:***

- Anthropology can best be understood as a rise of Middle Ages;
- Anthropology emerged from the development of ethnography;
- In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, academic discipline have often been institutionally divided into three broad domains.
- The natural and biological sciences seek to derive social laws through reproducible and fashionable experiments.
- Social sciences often develop statistical descriptions rather than the general laws derived in physics or chemistry, or they may explain individual cases through more general principles, as in many field of psychology.

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

## **Text 12. ANTROPOLOGY—"The four field approach"**

Antropology is often defined as being 'holistic' and based on a four-field approach. There is an ongoing dispute on this view; supporters consider anthropology holistic in two senses: it is concerned with all human beings across time and places, and with all dimensions of humanity (evolutionary, biophysical, sociopolitical, economic, cultural, psychological, etc.); also many academic programs following this approach take a 'four-field' approach to anthropology that encompasses physical anthropology, archeology, linguistics, and cultural anthropology or social anthropology.

*The four fields are:*

- biological or physical anthropology seeks to understand the human being through the study of human evolution and adaptability, population genetics, and primatology.

- socio-cultural anthropology is the investigation, often through long term, intensive field studies (including participants-observation methods), of the culture and social organization of a particular people: language, economic and political organization, law and conflict resolution, patterns of consumption and exchange, family structure, gender relations, religion, mythology, symbolism, etc. (U.S. universities have tended to call the corresponding field social anthropology, and for much of the 20<sup>th</sup> century emphasized the analysis of social organization more than cultural symbolism). In some European countries, socio-cultural anthropology is known as ethnology. Subfield and related fields include psychological anthropology, folklore, ethnic studies and cultural studies.

- linguistic anthropology seeks to understand the process of human communication, verbal and non-verbal, variations in language across time and space, the social uses of language, and the relationship between language and culture. Linguistic anthropologists often draw the related fields including sociolinguistics, cognitive linguistics, semiotics, discourse analysis, and narrative analysis.

- archaeology studies the contemporary distribution and form of artifacts (material modified by past human activities), with the intent of understanding distribution and movement of ancient populations, development of human social organization, and the relationships among contemporary populations; it also contributes significantly to the work of population geneticists, historical linguists, and many historians. Archaeologists predominantly study materials produced by prehistoric groups but also includes modern, historical and ethnographical populations. Archaeology is usually regarded as a separate field outside North America, although closely related to the anthropological field of material culture, which deals with physical objects created or used within a living or past group as a means of understanding its cultural values.

A number of subfields of anthropology cuts across these divisions. For example, medical anthropology is often considered a subfield of socio-cultural anthropology; however, many anthropologists who study medical topics also look at biological variation in populations or the interaction of culture and biology. They may also use linguistic analysis to understand communication around health and illness, or archaeological techniques to understand health and illness in historical or prehistorical populations. Similarly, forensic anthropologists may use both techniques from both physical anthropology and archaeology, and may also practice as medical anthropologists.

It might be inferred from the above list of subfields, anthropology is a methodologically diverse discipline, incorporating both quantitative methods and quantitative methods.

***Task 1. Give the English equivalents of the following:***

- тривала дискусія;
- бути пов'язаним з чимось;
- намагатися зрозуміти;
- невербальне спілкування;
- розвиток соціальної організації людства;
- окрема галузь (знання);
- бути тісно пов'язаним з чимось;
- культурні цінності;
- бути протилежним;

***Task 2. Answer the following questions:***

1. Why is anthropology considered to be 'holistic'?
2. How many fields are there in approach to anthropology?
3. What does physical anthropology seek to understand?
4. What spheres are the main for socio-cultural anthropology?
5. What does linguistic anthropology identify?

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

### **Text 13. ARCHAEOLOGY**

Archaeology (from the Greek word 'apxaios—'ancient' and logos—word) is the study of human cultures through the recovery, documentation and analysis of material remains and environmental data, including architecture, artifacts, biofacts, human remains, and landscapes.

The goals of archaeology are to document and explain the origins and development of human culture, understand culture history, chronicle cultural evolution, and study human behavior and ecology, for both prehistoric and historic societies. Archaeology is the study of human culture through material remains from humans in the past. In the Old World, archaeology has tended to focus on the study of physical remains, the methods used in recovering them and the theoretical and philosophical achieving the subject's goal. The discipline's roots in antiquarianism and the study of Latin and Ancient Greek provided it with a natural affinity with the field of history.

Archaeology is more commonly devoted to the study of human societies and is regarded as one of the four branches of anthropology. The other three branches are cultural anthropology, which studies behavioral, symbolic, and material dimensions of culture; linguistics, which studies language, including the origins of language and language groups; and the physical anthropology, which includes the study of human evolution and physical and genetic characteristics. Other disciplines also supplement archaeology, including palaeontology, geography, geology, art history. Archaeology has been described as a craft that enlists the sciences to illuminate the humanities. According to American archaeologist Walter Taylor in "A Study of Archaeology" archaeology is neither history nor anthropology. As an autonomous discipline, it consists of a method and a set of specialized techniques for the gathering, or 'production' of cultural information.

Archaeology is an approach to understanding human culture through its material remains regardless of chronology. In England, archaeologists have uncovered the long-lost layouts of medieval villages abandoned after the crisis of the 14<sup>th</sup> century and the equally lost layouts of the 17<sup>th</sup> century parterre gardens swept away by a change in fashion. Traditional archaeology is viewed as the study of pre-historical human cultures, that is, cultures that existed before the development of writing for that culture. Historical archaeology is the study of cultures with some form of writing.

On the study of relatively recent cultures by Western scholars, archaeology is closely allied with ethnography. This is the case in large parts of North America, Oceania, Siberia and the other places where the study of archaeology mingles with the living traditions of the cultures being studied. In the study of cultures that were literate or had literate neighbours, history and archaeology supplement one another for broader understanding of the complete cultural context, as at Hadrian's Wall.

#### Importance and applicability of Archaeology.

Many thousands of cultures and societies and millions of people have come and gone across the millennia of which there simply is little or no written record—no history—or for written records may be misrepresentative or 'incomplete'. Writing as

it is known and understood today did not exist anywhere in the world until about 5000 years ago and only spread among a relatively small number of technologically advanced civilizations. These civilizations are, not coincidentally, the best-known; they have been open to the inquiry of historians for centuries, while the study of prehistoric cultures has arisen only recently. Even within a civilization that is literate at some levels, many important human practices are not officially recorded. Any knowledge of the formative early years of human civilization—the development of agriculture, the rise of first cities—must come from archaeology.

In many societies, literacy was restricted to the elite classes, such as the clergy or the bureaucracy of court or temple. Writings that were produced by people more representative of the general population were unlikely to find their way into libraries and be preserved there for posterity.

As such, written records cannot be trusted as a sole source. The material record is nearer to a fair representation of society, though it is subject to its own inaccuracies, such as sampling bias and different preservation. In addition to their scientific importance, archaeological remains sometimes have political significance to descendants of the people who produced them, monetary value to collectors, or simply strong aesthetic appeal. Many people identify archaeology with the recovery of such aesthetic, religious, political, or economic treasures rather than with the reconstruction of past societies

***Task 1. Give an English equivalents of the following:***

- відновлення;
- людські останки;
- досягнення цілі;
- мета археології;
- людські суспільства;
- бути присвяченим чомусь;
- матеріальний обсяг;
- природна спорідненість;
- розвиток сільськогосподарства.

***Task 2. Answer the following questions:***

1. Give the definition of archaeology. What does it study?
2. What are the main and general goals of archaeology?
3. What are the sources of archaeology?
4. What are the other disciplines connected with archaeology?
5. Have you got any personal experience in archaeology?

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***



## Text 14. HISTORY OF ARCHAEOLOGY

The idea of studying the past through ancient objects has developed gradually. But the most intense interest has occurred in the past 200 years. During the 1700<sup>th</sup>, some wealthy Europeans began to study and collect art objects from the times of Ancient Greece and Rome. This interest in classical art is called antiquarianism. These first diggers looked only for treasures and threw away ordinary objects. Also during the 1700's, European scholars began to debate how long human beings had lived on the earth. Their interests resulted partly from recent discoveries of primitive stone tools together with the bones of extinct animals. Scientists soon realized that human beings had a prehistoric past, but they could not decide when and where this past had begun.

In 1800's brought a more scientific approach to the study of the past. The great length of human prehistory became widely accepted due to advances in geology and biology. By the mid-1800's, archaeology had become a separate field of study, and evidence of human prehistory was accumulating rapidly. Important discoveries, included prehistoric lake dwelling in Switzerland, ancient cave paintings in France and Spain, and the part of a prehistoric human skulls found in Germany. In the late 1800's, archaeologists began to use techniques of excavation that made it possible to determine sequences of cultural development.

European archaeologists of the late 1800's focused their studies on the ancient European and Middle Eastern civilizations described by classical and Biblical authors. American archaeologists, however, could find almost no written records of the civilizations they studied. Partly for this reason, they turned to antropology for methods of interpreting their discoveries. They studied artifacts produced by contemporary American Indians to help interpret objects from past societies.

The 1900's. The scope of archaeology expanded greatly during the 1900's. Archaeologists began to explore the past civilizations of Central and South America, China, Japan, Southeast Asia and other areas. By the early 1900's, archaeologists were using stratigraphy and seriation to date their finds. During the mid-1900's, new techniques made dating much easier and more accurate. The most significant of these techniques was radiocarbon dating, developed in the 1940's by an American chemist named Willard F. Libby. Great advances in undervwater archaeology also occurred during the mid-1900's.

Recent developments. Since the 1500's, the primary aim of archaeologists has been to develop general theories that explain the changes in human societies revealed by archeological evidence. For example, archaeologists today look for reasons behind the growth of cities in the Middle East about 3000 B.C. Contemporary archaeologists have also developed many new research techniques. New scientific methods also aid in the discovery of underground sites. For example, archaeologists can locate buried

remains by using a magnetometer to measure slight irregularities in the earth's magnetic field.

A major concern among archaeologists today involves the preservation of archaeological sites that have not yet been studied. Many such sites are threatened by construction projects, the expansion of agriculture, and other types of development.

**Task 1. Give an English equivalents of the following:**

- розвиватися поступово;
- виникати (з'являтися);
- антикваріат;
- європейські вчені;
- людське існування;
- вимираючі тварини;
- науковий підхід;
- стародавні наскальні малюнки;
- узгодження культурного розвитку;
- зростання міст.

**Task 2. Complete the sentences according the information of the text:**

- During the 17<sup>th</sup> ..... .
- ..... together with the bones of extinct animals.
- ..... archaeology had become a separate field of study, ..... .
- American archaeologists could find ..... .
- Archaeologists began to explore ..... .
- ..... new techniques made dating much easier and more accurate.

**Task 3. Give the summary of the text.**

## Text 15. ETHNOGRAPHY

Ethnography (ethnos—people, and graphein—“writing”) is a genre of writing that presents varying degrees of quantitative descriptions of human social phenomena, based on fieldwork. Ethnography presents the results of a holistic research method founded on the idea that a system’s properties cannot necessarily be accurately understood independently of each other. The genre has both formal and historical connections to travel writing and colonial office reports. Several academic traditions in particular the constructivist paradigms, employ ethnographic research as a crucial research method. Many cultural anthropologists consider ethnography the essence of the discipline

Cultural anthropology and social anthropology were developed around ethnographic research and their canonical texts are mostly ethnographies: e.g. “Argonauts of the Western Pacific” (1922) by Bronislaw Malinowski, “Coming of Age in Samoa (1928) by Margaret Mead. Cultural and social anthropologists today place such a high value on actually doing ethnographic information—is rarely the foundation for a career.

Beginning in the late 1950’s and early 1960’s, anthropologists began writing ‘biconfessional’ ethnographies that intentionally exposed the nature of ethnographic research. Later ‘reflexive’ ethnographers refined the technique to translate cultural differences by representing their effects on the ethnographer. In the 1980’s, the rhetoric of ethnography was subjected to intense scrutiny within the discipline, under the general influence of literary theory and post-colonial thought. ‘Experimental’ ethnographies reveal the ferment of the discipline. Cultural anthropologists, such as Clifford Geertz and Xavier Andrade, study and interpret cultural diversity through ethnography based on field work. It provides an account of a particular culture, society, or community. The fieldwork usually involves spending a year or more in another society, living with the local people and learning about their ways of life. Ethnographers are participant observers. They take part in events they study because it helps with understanding local behavior and thought.

Psychology, economics, sociology and cultural studies also produce ethnography. Urban sociology and the Chicago School in particular are associated with ethnographic research, although some of the most well-known examples were influenced by an anthropologist. Lloyd Warner, who happened to be in the sociology department at Chicago Symbolic interactionism developed from the same tradition and yielded several excellent sociological ethnographies, including *Shared Fantasy* by Gary Alan Fine, which documents the early history of fantasy role-playing games. But even though many sub-fields and theoretical perspectives within sociology use ethnographic methods, ethnography is not the ‘sine qua non’ of the discipline, as it is in cultural anthropology. Education, ethnomusicology, performance studies, folklore,

and linguistics are other fields which have made extensive use of ethnography. The American anthropologist George Spindler was a pioneer in applying ethnographic methodology to the classroom. Ethnographic methods have been used to study business settings. Groups of workers, managers and so on are different social categories participating in common social systems. Each group shows different characteristic attitudes, behavior patterns and values. Ethnography uses different techniques such as:

- direct, first-hand observation of daily behavior
- conversation with different levels of formality
- the genealogical method;
- problem-oriented research:
- longitudinal research;
- team research;
- case research.

Almost all of these techniques are used, but interviews and participant observation are the most widely used. Gary Alan Fine argues that the nature of ethnographic inquiry demands that researchers deviate from formal and idealistic rulers or ethics that have come to be widely accepted in qualitative approaches to research. Many of these ethnical assumptions are rooted in positivist post-positivist epistemologies that have adapted over time, but nonetheless are apparent and must be accounted for in all research paradigms. These ethnical dilemmas are evident throughout the entire process of conducting ethnographies, including the design, implementation, and reporting of an ethnographic study. Essentially, Fine maintains that researchers are typically not as ethical as they claim or assume to be—and that ‘each job includes ways of doing things that would be inappropriate for others to know.

***Task 1. Select ending for the given statements:***

- Ethnography is the genre of .....
- Ethnography presents the result of .....
- Cultural anthropology and social anthropology were developed around .....
- Within cultural anthropology there are .....
- Cultural anthropologists study and interpret .....
- Ethnographic methods have been used to .....
- Education, Ethnomusicology, Performance Studies, Folklore, and Linguistics are .....

**Task 2. Answer the following questions:**

1. What is ethnography as a discipline?
2. What does ethnography present?
3. What traditions employ ethnographic as a crucial research method?
4. What were cultural anthropology and social anthropology developed around?
5. What do cultural anthropologists study?
6. What other related fields also produced ethnography?
7. What techniques are used by ethnographers?

**Task 3. Give the summary of the text.**

**Text 16. ETHNOHISTORY**

Ethnohistory is the study of ethnographic cultures and indigenous customs by examining historical records. It is also the study of the history of various ethnic groups that may or may not exist today.

Ethnohistory uses both historical and ethnographic data as its foundation. Its historical methods and materials go beyond the standard use of books and manuscripts. Practitioners recognize the utility of maps, music, paintings, photography, folklore, oral tradition, ecology, site exploration, archaeological materials, museum collections, language and place names.

Ethnohistorians have learned to use their special knowledge of the groups they study, linguistic insights, and the understanding of cultural phenomena in ways that make for in-depth analysis than the average historian is capable of doing based on written documents produced by and for one group. They try to understand culture on its own terms and according to its own cultural code.

Ethnohistory differs from other historically-regarded methodologies in that it embraces epic perspectives as tools of analysis. The field and its techniques are well suited for writing histories of Indian peoples because of its holistic and inclusive framework. It is especially important because of its ability to bridge different frameworks and access a more informed context for interpretations of the past.

The definition of the field has become more refined over the years. Early on, ethnohistory differed from history proper in that it added a new dimension, specifically 'the critical use of ethnological concepts and materials in the examination and use of historical source material', as described by William N. Fenton. Later, Axtell described ethnohistory as the 'use of historical and ethnological methods to gain knowledge of the nature and causes of change in the culture defined by ethnological

concepts and categories'. Schieffelin asserted, that ethnohistory must fundamentally take into account the people's own sense of how events are constituted, and their ways of culturally constructing the past. Finally, ethnohistory was formulated as understanding of a form of cultural biography that draws upon many kinds of testimony as possible over as long a time period as the sources allow. He described ethnohistory as an endeavor based on a holistic, diachronic approach that is most rewarding even it can be 'joined to the memories and voices of living people'.

**Task 1. Select endings for the given statements:**

- Ethnohistory is the study of .....

- Ethnohistory uses .....

- Ethnohistorians have learned to use .....

- Ethnohistory differs from other historically-related methodologies in .....

- The definition of the field has become .....

**Task 2. Answer the following questions:**

1. What kind of study is ethnohistory?
2. What does ethnohistory use as its foundation?
3. How does ethnohistory differ from other historically -related methodologies?
4. How do ethnohistorians try to understand culture?
5. How did they describe ethnohistory?

**Task 3. Give the summary of the text.**

**Text 17. FOLKLORISTICS**

Folkloristics is the formal academic study of folklore. What actually constitutes folklore is disputed even within the discipline, but generally folklore focuses on the forms of artistic expression communicated within groups. Historically, folklore has directed its attention towards oral narratives such as fairy tales and mythology, but in recent years has gained a strong focus on social science research and no longer limits its study to strictly oral communication.

Scholars specializing in folkloristics are known as folklorists. The word 'folklore' was first used in 1846. Folklore is the body of expressive culture, including tales, dance, legends, oral history, proverbs, jokes, popular beliefs, customs, and so forth within a particular population comprising the traditions (including oral

traditions) of that culture, subculture or group. It is also the set of practices through which these expressive genres are shared. The concept of folklore developed as a part on the 19<sup>th</sup> century ideology of romantic nationalism, leading to the reshaping of oral traditions to serve modern ideological goals; only in the 19<sup>th</sup> century did ethnographers begin to attempt to record folklore without overt political goals. The Brothers Grimm, Wilhelm and Jakob Grimm, collected orally transmitted German tales and published the first series as “Children’s and Household Tales” in 1812.

The term was coined in 1846 by an Englishman, William Thoms, who wanted to use an Anglo-Saxon term for what was then called ‘popular antiquities’. He advocated the deliberate recording and preservation of folklore to document the authentic spirit, tradition, and identity of people. The definition most widely accepted by current scholars of the field is ‘artistic communication in small groups’, and the term now includes non-verbal art forms and customary practices. Folklore can be divided into four areas of study:

- artifacts (such as voodoo dolls),
- describable and transmissible entity (oral tradition),
- culture,
- and behavior (rituals).

These areas do not stand alone however, often a particular item or element may fit into more than one in these areas.

Folklore can contain religious or mythic elements; it equally concerns itself with the sometimes mundane traditions of everyday life. Folklore frequently ties the practical and the esoteric into one narrative package. It has often been conflated with mythology, and vice versa, because it has been assumed that any figurative story that does not pertain to the dominant beliefs of the time is not of the same status as those dominant beliefs. Thus, Roman religion is called “myth” by Christians. In that way, both ‘myth’ and ‘folklore’ have become catch-all terms for all figurative narratives which do not correspond with the dominant belief structure. Folktales are general term for different varieties of traditional narrative. The telling of stories appears to be cultural, universal, common to basic and complex societies alike. Even the forms folktales take are certainly similar from culture to culture and comparative studies of themes and narrative ways have been successful in showing these relationships. Also it is considered to be an oral tale to be told for everybody. On the other hand, folklore can be used to accurately describe a figurative narrative, which has no sacred or religious content. Folktales may or may not emerge from the religious traditions, but nevertheless speak to deep psychological issues. There can be both a moral and psychological scope to the work, as well as entertainment value, depending upon the nature of the teller, the style of the telling, the ages of the audience members, and the overall context of the performance. Folklorists generally resist universal

interpretations of narratives and analyze oral versions of tellings in specific contexts, rather than print sources, which often show the work or bias of the writer or editor.

There are many forms of folklore that are so common, however, that most people do not realize they are folklore, such as riddles, children's rhymes and ghost stories, rumors, gossip, ethnic stereotypes and holiday customs and life-cycle ritual. Elements such as dolls, decorative items used in religious rituals, hand-built houses and hand-made clothing are considered to be folk artifacts, grouped within the field as 'material culture'.

Folklorist William Bascom states that folklore has many cultural aspects, such as allowing for escape from social consequences. In addition, folklore can also serve to validate a culture (romantic nationalism), as well as transmit a culture's morals and values. Folklore can also be used to assert social pressures, or relive them, in the case of humour and carnival. In addition, folklorists study medical, supernatural, religious and political belief systems as an essential, often unspoken, part of expressive culture.

Many rituals can be considered folklore, whether formalized in a cultural or religious system (e.g. wedding, baptisms, harvest festivals) or practiced within a family or secular context.

***Task 1. Explain the meaning of the following or give definitions:***

- fairy tale;
- proverb;
- joke;
- custom;
- popular belief;
- gossip;
- ritual;
- religious system;
- mythology.

***Task 2. Answer the following questions:***

1. What constitutes folklore?
2. How did concept of folklore develop?
3. Who began to attempt to record folklore without political goal?
4. What areas of study can folklore be divided?
5. What is general term for different varieties of traditional narratives.
6. What forms and elements of folklore do you know?

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***



## Text 18. MUSEOLOGY

Museum study, sometimes called museology, is the field that encompasses the ideas and issues involved in the museum profession—from the practical, day-today skills needed to operate a museum to theories on the societal role of museums.

Museology is the study of how to organize and manage museums and museum collections. More generally, museum studies is a term used to denote academic programs, generally graduate programs, in the management, administration, or theory of museums. The purpose of the Museum Studies is to introduce students to the history of museums, the various aspects of museum work, to acquaint them with the opportunities and problems faced by museums personnel, and to create career opportunities for students who might seek employment in the museum. Emphasis is placed on practicum experience involving such basic museum functions as exhibition, curatorial research, cataloguing, acquisition, community service, education and administration.

The Museum Studies Program's core courses provide a solid foundation in the theories, history, techniques, and related institutions as well as specialized operations of such institutions. The program's curriculum provides an understanding of the nature of museums, historical agencies and related institutions as well as specialized training administered by the Studies Program and the departments of Anthropology, Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Geology and History. A variety of careers exist within the discipline of museum studies, including Museum director, curator, educator, docent, graphic designer, exhibit designer, archivist and conservation specialist.

A graphic designer is a professional within the graphic design and graphic arts industry who assembles together images, typography or motion graphics to create a piece of art. A graphic designer creates the graphics primarily for published, printed or electronic media, such as brochures and advertising.

Curator in Latin means guardian or overseer. A curator of a cultural heritage institution (e.g. archive, gallery, library, museum or garden) is a content specialist responsible for an institution's collections and their associated collections catalogs. The object of a curator's concern necessarily involves tangible objects of some sort, whether it is inter alia artwork, historic items or scientific collections. A curator may have responsibility for the acquisition and care of objects. The curator will make decisions what objects to collect, oversee their care and documentation, conduct research based on the collection, and share that research with the public and scholarly community through exhibitions and publications. The curator's primary function is as a subject specialist, with the expectation that he or she will conduct original research on objects and guide the organization in its collecting. A physical care of the collection may be overseen by museum collections managers or museum

conservators, and documentation and administrative matters such as insurance and loans are handed by a museum registrar.

An archivist is a professional who assesses, collects, organizes, preserves, maintains control over, and provides access to information determined to have long-term value. The information maintained by an archivist can be any form of media ( photographs, video and sound recordings, letters, documents, electronic records, etc.). As Richard Pearce-Moses wrote, "Archivist keeps records that have enduring value as reliable memories of the past, and he helps people find and understand the information he needs in those records". Archivist must also select records valuable enough to justify the costs of storage and preservation, plus the labour intensive expenses of arrangement, description, and reference service. The theory and scholarly work underpinning archives practices is called archival science. Archivist's duties include acquiring and appraising new collections, arranging and describing records, providing reference service, and preserving materials.

Museum docents are educators, trained to further the public's understanding of the cultural and historical collections of the institution. In many cases, docents, in addition to their prescribed function as guiders also conduct research utilizing the institution's facilities. They are normally volunteers. Prospective docents generally undergo an intensive training process, at the expense of the educational institution, which teaches them good communicative and interpretive skills, as well as introduces them to the institution's collection and its historical significance. Docents are kept up-to-date with continuous training and seminars.

***Task 1. Give an Ukrainian equivalents of the following:***

- об'єднувати ідеї та проблеми;
- керувати музеями;
- здійснювати догляд;
- знайомити когось з чимось;
- шукати роботу в музеї;
- забезпечувати доступ до інформації;
- щоденні навички та обов'язки;
- проводити дослідження;
- історичне значення (важливість);
- превентивні заходи;
- модифікувати.

***Task 2. Answer the following questions:***

1. What kind of study is museology?
2. What are the purpose and core courses of museology's program?
3. What careers exist within the discipline of museum studies?

4. Who is responsible for a cultural heritage institution's collections and their catalogs?

5. What are the objects of a curator's concern?

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

Conservator is the profession devoted to the preservation of cultural property for the future. Conservator activities include examination, documentation, treatment, and preventive care, supported by research and education. Preventive conservation is an important element of museum policy and collections care. It is an essential responsibility of members of the museum profession to create and maintain a protective environment for the collection in their care, whether in store, on display, or in transit. A museum should carefully monitor the condition of the collection to determine when an object may require conservation-restoration work and the services of qualified conservator-restorer. The principle goal should be the stabilization of the objects. All conservation procedures should be documented and all alterations should be clearly distinguishable from the original objects and proofs.

## **Text 19. ARCHIVAL SCIENCE**

Archival science is the theory and study of the safe storage, cataloguing and retrieval of documents and items. It includes practice of organizing, preserving and providing access to information and materials in archives. Emerging from diplomatics, the discipline also is concerned with the circumstances under which the information or item was, and is used. Archival Science also encompasses the study of past efforts to preserve documents and items, revision of those techniques in cases where those efforts have failed, and the development of new processes that avoid the pitfalls of previous techniques. The field also includes the study of traditional and electronic catalogue storage methods, digital preservation and the long range impact of all types of storage programs.

Traditionally, archival science has involved time honored methods for preserving items and information in climate controlled storage facilities. This technique involved both the cataloguing and accessing of items into a collection archive, their retrieval and safe handling. However, the advent of digital documents and items, along with the development and electronic databases has caused the field to revalue the means by which is not only accounts for items, but also how it maintains and accesses both information on items and the items themselves. While generally associated with museums and libraries, the field also can pertain to individuals who maintain private collections (item or topic specific) or to the average person who seeks to properly care for, and either stop or slow down the deterioration of their family heirlooms and keepsakes.

Archival Science and course work pertaining to archival techniques as a course of study is taught in universities and included in the student's program. In the archival sense, 'appraisal' is a process usually conducted by a member of the record-holding institution (often a professional archivist) in which a body of records are examined to determine which records need to be captured and how long the records need to be kept. The word 'archives' can refer to any organized body of records fixed on media. The management of archives is essential for effective day-to-day organizational decision making, and even for the survival of organizations. Archives were well developed by the ancient Chinese, the Ancient Greeks, and Ancient Romans. Modern archival thinking has many roots in the French Revolution. The French National Archives, who possess the largest archival collection in the world, with records going as far back as A. D. 625, were created in 1790 during the French Revolution from various government, religious, and private archives seized by the revolutionaries. An archive refers to a collection of historical records, and also refers to the location in which these records are kept. Archives are made up of records (primary source documents) which have been accumulated over the course of an individual or organization's lifetime. For example, the archives of an individual may contain letters, papers, photographs, computer files, financial records, diaries or any other kind of documentary materials created or collected by the individual. The archives of an organization such as a corporation or government tend to contain different types of records, such as administrative files, business records, memos, official correspondence, meetings and so on.

In general, archives of any individual or organization consist of records which have been especially selected for permanent or long-term preservation, due to their enduring research value. Archival records are normally unpublished and almost always unique, unlike books or magazines, in which many identical copies exist. Archives are sometimes described as information generated as the "by-product" of normal human activities, while libraries hold specifically authored information 'products'. A person who works in archives is called archivist.

***Task 1. Give the Ukrainian equivalents of the following:***

- зберігання документів;
- бути пов'язаним з обставинами;
- програми по зберіганню;
- мати вплив на щось;
- асоціюватися з чимось;
- опис;
- зберігання, посилення та програмування;
- визначати;
- прийняття рішень;

- історичні записи.

**Task 2. Select the endings for the given statements:**

- Archival science is the study and practice of .....
- The discipline also encompasses .....
- The field generally associates with .....
- Appraisal is a process conducted by .....
- Archives refer to .....
- Sometimes archives are described as .....
- Archivist is .....

**Task 3. Answer the following questions:**

1. What field of knowledge is basic for archival science?
2. What does discipline comprise?
3. What methods and techniques has archival science involved?
4. What is the core of archival functions?
5. What is appraisal in archival sense?

## **Text 20. CULTURAL HERITAGE**

Cultural heritage –“national heritage” or just ‘heritage’ is the legacy of physical artifacts and intangible attributes of a group or society that are inherited from past generations, maintained in the present and bestowed for the benefit of future generations. Often though, what is considered cultural heritage by one generation may be rejected by the next generation, only to be revived by a succeeding generation.

Physical or “tangible cultural heritage” includes buildings, historic places, monuments, artifacts, etc., that are considered worthy of preservation for the future. These include objects significant to the archaeology, architecture, science or technology of a specific culture. “National heritage” is also an important part of a culture, encompassing the countryside and natural environment, including flora and fauna. These kinds of heritage often serve as an important component in a country’s tourist industry, attracting many visitors from abroad as well as locally.

The heritage that survives from the past is often unique and irreplaceable, which places the responsibility of preservation on the current generation. Smaller objects such as artworks and other cultural masterpieces are collected in museums and art galleries. Grass roots organizations and political groups have been successful at gaining the necessary support to preserve the heritage of many nations for the future. Significant was the Convention Concerning the Protection of World Cultural and National Heritage that was adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO in

1972. As of 2006, there are 830 World Heritage Sites: 664 cultural, 162 national, and 24 mixed properties, in 138 countries. Each of these sites is considered important to the international community. A broader definition includes intangible aspects of a particular culture, often maintained by social customs during a specific period in history. It also encompasses the ways and means of behavior in a society, and the often formal rules for operating in a particular cultural climate. These include social values and traditions, customs and practices, aesthetic and spiritual beliefs, artistic expression, language and other aspects of human activity. The significance of physical artifacts can be interpreted against the backdrop of socioeconomic, political, ethnic, religious and philosophical values of a particular group of people. Naturally, intangible cultural heritage is more difficult to preserve than physical objects.

Objects are important to the study of human history because they provide a concrete basis for ideas, and can validate them. Their preservation demonstrates recognition of the necessity of the past and the things that tell its story. In 'The past is a Foreign Country' David Lowenthal observes that preserved objects also validate memories; and the actuality of the object, as proposed to a reproduction or surrogate, draws people in and gives them a literal way of touching the past. This unfortunately poses a danger as places and things are damaged by the hands of tourists, the light required to display them, and other risks of making an object known and available. The reality of the risk reinforces the fact that all artifacts are in a constant state of chemical transformation, so that what is considered to be preserved is actually changing—it is never as it once was. Similarly changing is the value each generation may place on the past and on the artifacts that link it to the past. Decisions made about maintenance and access at any time will affect whether an artifact will survive as part of the cultural heritage.

***Task 1. Give English equivalents for the following:***

- нематеріальний атрибут групи чи суспільства;
- те, що вважається спадщиною одним поколінням, може бути відхилене іншим;
- об'єкти важливі для археології, архітектури, науки чи техніки;
- отримання необхідної підтримки у збереженні спадщини багатьох націй для майбутніх поколінь;
- невідчутну культурну спадщину важче зберігати, ніж фізичні об'єкти;
- нести небезпеку, так як речі руйнуються руками відвідувачів.

***Task 2. Give Ukrainian equivalents for the following:***

- to inherit from past generations;
- to be rejected by the next generation;
- to attract many visitors from abroad as well as locally;

- collected in museums and art galleries;
- to preserve the heritage of many nations;
- socioeconomic, political, ethnic, religious and philosophical values;
- literal way of touching the past;
- to be damaged by the hands of tourists.

***Task 3. Answer the following questions:***

1. What is Cultural heritage?
2. What does tangible cultural heritage include?
3. What is also an important part of a culture?
4. What objects are collected in museums and art galleries?
5. How can the significance of physical artifacts be interpreted?
6. Why are objects important to the study of human history?

## **Text 21.SOCIAL HISTORY**

Social History is an area of historical study considered by some to be a social science that attempts to view historical evidence from the point of view of developing social trends. In this view, it may include areas of economic history, legal history and the analysis of other aspects of civil society that show the evolution of social norms, behaviors and more. It is distinguished from political history, military history and so-called history of great men. Social history is often described as “history from below” because it deals with the every-day people, the masses and how they shape History rather than the leaders. While proponents of history from below and the French Annales school of historians have considered themselves part of social history, it is seen as a much broader movement among historians in the development of historiography. It tries to see itself as a synthetic form of history not limited to the statement of so-called historical fact but willing to analyse historical data in a more systematic manner.

An example of social history can be seen in the American Civil Rights Movement of the 1950's and 1960's. Typical history would focus on who, what, when and where; whereas social history focuses on the causes of the movement itself. Social historians would pose such questions as, “why did the movement come about when it did?, and What specific elements fostered the growth?. This approach is favored by scholars because it allows to a full discussion on the sometimes less studied aspects. By understanding the past, we can begin to understand who we are now.

Another example of social history may be found within the domain of Translation Studies, an area of research in which some scholars focus on translation

history. They study the different types of translations of a given source text that were produced over time, and try to posit explanations for the different translation strategies, uses of language, and so on, which are observed. They, thus seek to account for the form of a given translated text, by asking such questions as: What was the input of the individual translator? How does the translator's life attitudes as portrayed in their writings? How was the translation affected by such other causes as the prevailing norms or values attached to language and translation at the time; how did the function or target readership affect the target text; how did the differences between the source and target languages contribute to the form of the translation; what was the role of editors, publishers and so on?

## NATURAL HISTORY

*Natural history* is the scientific research of plants or animals, learning toward the observational than experimental usually, and encompasses more research that is published in magazines than in academic journals. Natural history involves the research and formation of statements that make elements of life and life styles comprehensible by describing the relevant structures, operations and circumstances of various species, such as diet, reproduction and social grouping. Most definitions include the study of living things (e.g. biology, including botany and zoology); other definitions extend the topic to include palaeontology, ecology or biochemistry, as well as parts of geology and climatology. Natural history is the scientific study of plants and animals in their natural environments. It is concerned with levels of organization from the individual organism to the ecosystem, and stresses identification, life history, distribution, and inter-relationships. It often and appropriately includes an aesthetic component. It has historically been a haphazard study, description, and classification of natural objects, such as animals, plants, minerals and placed an importance and significance on fieldwork rather than lab work. A person interested in natural history is known as a naturalist or natural historian. Natural history is not commonly applied to the fields of astronomy, physics and chemistry.

### ***Task 1. Find English equivalents for the following:***

- показувати еволюцію соціальних норм, моралі та поведінки;
- як прості люди формулюють історію;
- вважати себе частиною соціальної історії;
- поширені норми та цінності, приписані мові і перекладу відповідно до часу;
- брати до уваги форми перекладеного тексту;
- досліджувати різні види перекладів;
- підходи, що превалюють серед вчених;



- розуміючи минуле, можна зрозуміти хто ми є насправді.

**Task 2. Complete the following sentences:**

- Social history is an area of .....
- Social history includes areas of .....
- Social history is often described as .....
- Social history is distinguished from .....
- An example of social history can be seen in .....
- Natural history is the scientific research of .....
- Natural history involves .....
- Natural history has historically been a .....
- A person interested in natural history .....

**Task 3. Give the summary of the text.**

**Text 22. MILITARY HISTORY**

**Part 1. Military history** is composed of the events in the history of humanity that fall within the category of conflict. This may range from a melee between two tribes to conflicts between proper militaries to a world war affecting the majority of the human population. Military historians record the events of military history.

Military activity has been a constant process over thousands of years. However, there is little agreement about when it began. Some believe it has always been with us; others stress the lack of clear evidence for it in our prehistoric past, and the fact that many peaceful, non-military societies have and still do exist. The essential tactics, strategy, and goals of military operations have been unchanging throughout the past 5,000 years of our 90,000-year human history. By the study of history, the military seeks to not repeat past mistakes, and improve upon its current performance by instilling an ability in commanders to perceive historical parallels during battles, so as to capitalize on the lessons learned. The main areas of military history are the history of wars, battles, and combats, history of the military art and history of each specific military service.

There is a number of wars to categorize warfare. One categorization is conventional versus unconventional, where conventional warfare involves well-identified, armed forces fighting one another in a relatively open and straightforward way without weapons of mass destruction. "Unconventional" refers to other types of war which can involve raiding, guerrilla, insurgency and terrorist tactics or alternatively can include nuclear, chemical, or biological warfare. All of these categories usually fall into one of two broader categories:

- High intensity and
- Low intensity warfare

High intensity warfare is between two superpowers or large countries fighting for political reasons. Low intensity warfare involves counterinsurgency, guerilla warfare and specialized types of troops fighting revolutionaries. One method of dividing such a massive topic is by cutting it into periods of time.

**Prehistoric warfare.** The beginning of prehistoric wars is a disputed issue between anthropologists and historians. In the earliest societies, such as hunter-gatherer societies, there were no social roles or divisions of labor, so every able person contributed to any raids or defense of territory. In *War Before Civilization*, Lawrence H. Keeley, calculated that 87 per cent of tribal societies were at war more than once per year. The introduction of agriculture brought large differences between farm worker's societies and hunter-gatherer groups.

**Ancient warfare.** Much of what we know of ancient history is the history of militaries: their conquest, their movements, and their technological innovations. Kingdoms and empires, the central units of control in the ancient world, could only be maintained through military force. Weapons and armor, designed to be sturdy, tended to last longer than other artifacts and thus a great deal of surviving artifacts recovered tend to fall in this category as they are more likely to survive. Weapons and armor were also mass-produced that makes them quite plentiful throughout history and thus more likely to be found in archaeological digs. Such items were also considered signs of posterity or virtue, and thus were likely to be placed in tombs and monuments to prominent warriors. And writing, when it existed, was often used for kings to boast of military conquests or victories. Writing also tended to record such events as major battles and conquests constituted major events that many would have considered worthy of recording either in an epic such as Homeric writings pertaining the Trojan War, or even personal writings. Indeed, the earliest stories center around warfare, as war was both a common and dramatic aspect of life; the witnessing of a major battle involving many thousands of soldiers would be quite a spectacle, and thus considered worthy both of being recorded in song and art, but also in realistic histories, as well as being a central element in a fictional work. Lastly, as nation-states evolved and empires grew, the increased need for order and efficiently lead to an increase in the number of records and writings. Officials and armies would have good reason for keeping detailed records and accounts involving any and all things concerning a matter such as warfare.

Notable militaries in the ancient world included the Egyptians, Babylonians, Persians, Greeks (notably Spartans and Macedonians), Chinese and Romans. The fertile crescent of Mesopotamia was the center of several prehistoric conquests. Mesopotamia was conquered by the Sumerians, Akkadians, Babylonians, Assyrians and Persians. Iranians were the first nation who introduced cavalry into their army.

Egypt began growing as an ancient power, but eventually fell to the Persians, Greeks, Romans, Byzantines and Arabs. In China, the Shang and Zhou Dynasties had risen and collapsed. This led to a Warring States Period, in which several states continued to fight with each other over territory. Confucius and Sun Tzu wrote various theories on ancient warfare (as well as international diplomacy). Persian Empire was founded by Cyrus the Great and later fell to Alexander the Great. In Greece, several city-states emerged to power, including Athens and Sparta. The Greeks successfully stopped two Persian invasions. The Peloponnesian War then erupted between the two Greek powers Athens and Sparta. Athens built a long wall to protect its inhabitants, but the wall helped to facilitate the spread of a plague that killed about 30,000 Athenians.

The Macedonians, underneath Alexander the Great, invaded Persia and won several major victories, establishing Macedonia as a major power. Meanwhile, Rome was gaining power. At the three Punic Wars, the Romans defeated the neighboring power of Carthage. The first Punic War centered around naval warfare over Sicily; after the Roman development of the *corvus*, the Romans were able to board Carthaginian ships. The Second Punic War started with Hannibal's invasion of Italy by crossing the Alps. The Third Punic War was a failed revolt against the Romans.

In 54 bce the Roman triumvir Marcus Licinius Crassus took the offensive against the Parthian Empire in the east. In a decisive battle at Carrhae Romans were defeated and the golden Aquila (legionary battle standards) was taken as trophy. The result was one of the worst defeats suffered by the Roman Republic in its entire history.

**Task 1. Find English equivalents for the following:**

- письмові свідчення військових істориків;
- зброя масового знищення;
- символи/ознаки процвітання сили;
- видатні військові стародавнього світу;
- воювати за територію;
- легіонерські бойові стандарти;
- найгірші поразки протягом усієї історії;
- свідчення основних битв;
- ознаки процвітання або занепаду.

**Task 2. Finish up the statements:**

- Military history is composed of .....
- Military activity has been a .....
- The essential tactics, strategy, and goals of military operations have been ...
- By the study of history, the military seeks to .....
- Conventional warfare involves .....
- "Unconventional" refers to .....
- The introduction of the agriculture brought .....
- The first archaeological record of a prehistoric battle is .....
- Weapons and armor were .....
- Notable militaries in the ancient world included .....

**Task 3. Summarize the text given.**

**Part 2. Medieval warfare.** When stirrups came into use time during the dark age militaries were forever changed. This invention coupled with technological, cultural and social developments had forced a dramatic transformation in the character of warfare from antiquity, changing military tactics and the role of cavalry

and artillery. Similar patterns of warfare existed in other parts of the world. In China around the fifth century armies moved from massed infantry to cavalry based forces, copying the steppe nomads. The Middle East and North Africa used similar technologies than Europe. In Japan the Medieval warfare period is considered by many to have stretched into the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In Africa along the Sahel and Sudan states like the Kingdom of Sennar and Fulani Empire employed Medieval tactics and weapons well after they had been supplanted in Europe. In the Medieval period, feudalism was firmly implanted, and there existed many landlords in Europe. Landlords often owned castles to protect their territory.

The Islamic Arab Empire began rapidly expanding throughout the Middle East, North Africa, and the Central Asia, expanded to the Iberian Peninsula in the west and the Indus Valley in the east. At the Battle of Tours, the Franks under Charles Martel stopped short a Muslim invasion. The Abassids defeated the Tang Chinese army at the Battle of Talas, but were later defeated by the Turks and the Mongols centuries later, until the Arab Empire eventually came to an end after the Battle of Baghdad in 1258.

In China, the Sui Dynasty had risen and conquered the Chen Dynasty of the south. They invaded Vietnam, fighting the troops of Champa, who had cavalry mounted on elephants. The Sui collapsed and was followed by the Tang Dynasty, who fought with various groups, and collapsed due to political fragmentation of powerful regional military governors. The innovative Song Dynasty followed next, inventing new weapons of war that employed the use of Greek Fire and gunpowder against enemies. The Mongols under Genghis Khan, Ogodei Khan, Mongke Khan, and finally Kublai Khan later invaded and eventually defeated the Chinese Song Dynasty by 1279. The Mongol Empire continued to expand throughout Asia and Eastern Europe, but following the death of Kublai Khan, it fell apart.

*Gunpowder warfare* After Gunpowder weapons were first developed in China, the technology later spread west to the Ottoman Empire, from where it spread to the Empire of Persia and the Empire of India. The arquebus was later adopted by European armies during the Indian Wars of the early 16<sup>th</sup> century. This all brought an end to the dominance of armored cavalry on the battlefield. The simultaneous decline of the feudal system—and the absorption of the medieval city-states into larger states—allowed the creation of professional standing armies to replace the feudal levies and mercenaries that had been the standard military component of the Middle Ages.

The period spanning between the 1648 Peace of Westphalia and the 1789 French Revolution is also known as Princes' warfare as wars were mainly carried out by imperial or monarchies states, decided by cabinets and limited in scope and in their aims. They also involved quickly shifting alliances, and mainly used mercenaries.

*Industrial warfare* As weapons—particularly small arms—became easier to use, countries began to abandon a complete reliance on professional soldiers in favor of conscription. Technological advances became increasingly important: while the armies of the previous period usually had similar weapons, the industrial age saw encounters such as the Battle of Sadowa, in which possession of a more advanced technology played a decisive role in the outcome. Conscription was employed in industrial warfare to increase the amount of soldiers that were available for combat. This was used by Napoleon Bonaparte in the Napoleonic Wars. Total War was used in industrial warfare, the objective bring to prevent the opposing nation to engage in war.

*Modern warfare* In modern times, war has evolved from an activity steeped in tradition to a scientific enterprise where success is valued above methods. The notion of total war is the extreme of this trend. Militaries have developed technological advances rivaling the scientific accomplishments of any other field of study. However, it should be noted that modern militaries benefit in the development of these technologies under the funding of the public, the leadership of national governments, and often in cooperation with large civilian groups. And as for “total war” it may be argued that it is not an inclusive practice of modern militaries, but in the tradition of genocidal conflict that marks even tribal warfare to this day. What distinguishes modern military organizations from those previous is not their willingness to prevail in conflicts by any method, but rather the technological variety of tools and methods available to modern battlefield commanders, fro submarines to satellites, from knives to nuclear warheads.

World War 1 was sparked by the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, leading to the mobilization of Austria and Serbia. The Germans joined the Austrians to form the Central powers; The French, British, and Russians formed the Allied powers. Following the Battle of the Marne and the outflanking attempt of both nations in the “Race to the Sea”, trench warfare ensued, leaving the war in a great deadlock. World War 2 ensued after Germany’s invasion of Poland, forcing Britain and France to declare war. The Germans allied with Italy and Japan quickly defeated France and Belgium. The Germans then attacked Russia and marched to take over the Russian resources, but were thwarted. Meanwhile, Japan had launched a surprise attack on Pearl Harbor/ leading the United States to join the Allied power. In Europe, the Allies opened three fronts: in the west, after securing Normandy; in the east, aiding Russia; and in the south, through Italy. Germany eventually surrendered upon which the Allies turned and focused troops on Japan. The dropping of the atom bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki led to the surrender of Japan and the end of the Second World War.

***Task 1. Find English equivalents for the following:***

- винаходи поєднані з технологічним розвитком;

- залишатися під контролем;
- примусити оголосити війну;
- призвести до мобілізації;
- різноманітність засобів та методів;
- провідні технології;
- спалахнути внаслідок політичного вбивства;
- домінування важкої кавалерії;
- запобігти втягненню у війну;
- призвести до капітуляції;
- досягти апогею.

***Task 2. Complete the following statements to develop the idea:***

- The invention of stirrups coupled with .....
- The Middle East and North Africa used .....
- The Islamic Arab Empire began .....
- After Gunpowder weapons were first developed .....
- Conscription was employed in .....
- Total War was used in .....
- World War 1 was sparked by .....
- World War 2 ensued after .....
- The dropping of the atom bombs led to .....

***Task 3. Give the summary of the text.***

## PART 2

### OUTSTANDING HISTORIANS

**Historians are concerned with the constituous**, systematic narrative research of past events as relating to the human race; as well as the study of all events in time. A historian may be someone who compiles sources from the times prior to his own, or someone who archives the history of his own time for the purposes of preservation for future generations. There are a number of different branches of history, but the general accepted list of historians begins with two ancient Greeks, Herodotus and Thucydides. To be sure there are previous accounts, but they are neither continuous nor are they systematic. Historians do not discriminate between the *amateur* or the *professional*, really the term has no meaning. Anyone who compiles together an account is a historian in their own right irrespective of their professional qualifications. This is reflected in the very late phenomenon of professional historians in the mid of the late 19<sup>th</sup> century. Prior to that, most historians did not do history as their primary occupation and history was not taught as a discipline separate from the others by which one could earn a specific degree. So we must be very aware of this when assessing the merits of historians prior to the professional period, that professionalism is not necessary a guarantor of accuracy.

#### Text 1. Herodotus

*Herodotus of Halicarnassus* was a Greek historian from Ionia who lived in the 5<sup>th</sup> century BC (484 BC-ca. 425 BC) and is regarded as the “Father of History”. He is almost exclusively known for writings *The Histories*, a record of his ‘inquiries’ into the origins of the Greco-Persian Wars which occurred in 490 and 480-479 BCE—especially since he includes a narrative account of that period, which would otherwise be poorly documented and many long digressions concerning the various places and people he encountered during wide-ranging travels around the lands of the Mediterranean and Black Sea.

Most of what is known of Herodotus’ life has been gathered from his own work. There was duration of exile from his home city of Halicarnassus during which he may have undertaken the broad journeys that he describes in *The Histories*. These journeys took him to many places such as Egypt as far south as the first cataract of the Nile, to Ukraine, Italy and Sicily. Although his description of Babylon contains highly descriptive remarks, he does not actually claim to have visited the city. He lived for a period in Athens and became familiar with the oral traditions of the prominent families. The Athenians did not accept foreigners as citizens and Herodotus would have left out of place there. Where he died is uncertain. That is, he was a teller of stories written in prose (the ordinary forms of spoken or written language, without metrical structure, as distinguished from poetry or verse). It is important to emphasize that his work originally presented orally, and was designed to

have a sort of theatrical element to it. His subject matter often encompassed battles, other political incidents of note, and especially, the marvels foreign lands. He made tours of the Greek cities and the major religious and athletic festivals where he offered performances and expected payments. In 431 BCE, the Peloponnesian War broke out between Athens and Sparta. It may have been that conflict that inspired him to collect his stories into a continuous narrative. Centering on the theme of the Persian's imperial progress, which only a united Athens and Sparta had managed to resist, they may have been intended as a critique of, or an attack upon, the war-mongering that threatened to overwhelm the entire Greek world.

Contribution Herodotus gave us a lot of information concerning the nature of the world and the status of the sciences during the lifetime. For example, he reports that the annual flooding of the Nile was said to be the result of melting snows far to the south, and commenting that he can't understand how there can be snow in Africa, the hottest part of the known world; he concludes that the snow must be from Mount Kilimanjaro, a very large mountain in Southern Africa. Although this hypothesis proved to be wrong, if it were not for Herodotus method of comparing all theories known to him, we might never have discovered that such speculation existed in Ancient Greece. Written between 431 BCE and 425 BCE, *The Histories* were divided by later editors into nine books, named after the nine Muses (The 'Muse of History', Clio, represented the first book). As the work progresses, it becomes apparent that Herodotus is fulfilling his opening desire—to prevent the great and wonderful actions of the Greeks and the Barbarians from losing their due mead of glory; and to put on record what causes first brought them into conflict. He is attempting to discover who first made the 'west' and the 'east' mutual antagonists, and myth is the only source he can delve into for information on the subject.

The first six books deal broadly with the growth of the Persian Empire. The tale begins with the account of the first 'western' monarch to enter into conflict with an 'eastern' people—Croesus of Lydia attacked the Greek city-states of Ionia, and then, also attacked the Persians. Croesus was defeated by Cyrus the Great, founder of the Persian Empire, and Lydia became a Persian province.

The second book forms a lengthy digression concerning the history of Egypt, which Cyrus' successor, Cambyses, annexed to the Empire. The following four books deal with the further growth of the Empire under Darius, the Ionian Revolt, and the burning of Sardis. The sixth book described the very first Persian incursion into Greece, an attack upon those who aided the Ionians and a quest for retribution following the attack upon Sardis, which ended with the defeat of the Persians in 490 BCE at the battle of Marathon, near Athens.

The last three books describe the attempt of the Persian king Xerxes to avenge the Persian defeat at Marathon and to finally absorb Greece into the Empire. *The Histories* end in the year 479 BCE, with the Persian invaders having suffered both a



crushing naval defeat at Samalis, and near annihilation of the ground forces at Plataea. It is possible to see the dialectic theme of Persian power and its various excesses running like a “red thread” throughout the narrative—cause and effect, hubris and fate, vengeance and violence. Even the strange and fantastic tales that are liberally sprinkled throughout the text find their source in this momentum. At every stage, a Persian monarch crosses a body of water or other luminal space and suffers the consequences: Cyrus attack the Massagetae on the eastern bank of a river, and ends up decapitated; Cambyses attacks the Ethiopians to the south of Egypt, across the desert, and goes mad; Darius attacks the Scythians to the north and is flung back across the Danube; Xerxes lashes and then bridges the Hellespont, and his forces are crushed by the Greeks. Thus, though he strays off of this main course he always returns to the task at hand—answering the question, how and why did the Greeks and Persians enter into the greatest conflict then known, and what were the consequences.

Herodotus’s invention has earned him the twin titles The Father of History and The Father of Lies. As these epithets would seem to imply, there has long been a debate concerning the veracity of his tales, and, more importantly, concerning the extend to which he knew himself to be creating fabrications. Indeed, every manner of argument has surfaced on this subject, from a devious and consciously-fictionalizing Herodotus to a gullible Herodotus whose sources “saw him coming a long way off”. Herodotus was, however, by his *day's standards, reasonably accurate in his accounts, respectful of evidence, and a master of narrative.*

## Text 2. Thucydides

**Thucydides** (c.460 BC—c. 395BC) was an ancient Greek historian, and the author of *The History of Peloponnesian War*. Thucydides has been regarded as the father of specific history because of his strict standards of gathering evidence and his analysis in terms of cause and effect without reference to intervention by the gods. He also has been considered as the father or the school of political realism that views the relations between nations as based on might rather than right. More generally, he shows an interest in developing an understanding of human nature to explain human behavior in such crises as plague and civil war. Other scholars lay greater emphasis on the History’s elaborate literary artistry and the powerful rhetoric of its speeches and insist that its author exploited non-“scientific” literary genres no less than newer, rationalistic modes of explanation.

Considering his stature as a historian, we know comparatively little about Thucydides’ life. The most reliable information comes from his own *History of the Peloponnesian War*, and consists of his nationality, paternity and native locality. Thucydides also tells us that he fought in the war, contracted the plague, and was exiled by the democracy. Although there is no certain evidence to prove it, the rhetorical character of his narrative suggests that Thucydides was at least familiar

with the teaching of the Sophists. It has also been asserted that Thucydides' strict focus on cause and effect, his fastidious devotion to observable phenomena to the exclusion of other factors and his austere prose style were influenced by the methods and thinking of early medical writers such as Hippocrates. These theories are inferences from the perceived character of Thucydides' History. Thucydides admired Pericles, approving of his power over the people, and shows a palpable distaste for the more pandering demagogues who followed him. Thucydides did not approve of the democratic mob or the radical democracy Pericles ushered in but thought that was acceptable when in the hands of a good leader. Also he was clearly moved by the suffering inherent in war and concerned about the excesses to which human nature is apt to resort in such circumstances. This is evident in his analysis of the atrocities committed during civil conflict on Corcyra, which includes the memorable phrase "War is a violent teacher".

The History of the Peloponnesian War Thucydides wrote only one book; its modern title is *The History of the Peloponnesian war*. His entire contribution to history and historiography is contained in this one dense history of the twenty-seven year war between Athens and its allies and Sparta and its allies. Thucydides is generally regarded as one of the first true historians. Like his predecessor Herodotus, Thucydides placed a high value on autopsy, or eye-witness testimony to events, and writes about many episodes in which he himself probably took part. One major difference between Thucydides' history and modern historical writing is that Thucydides' history includes lengthy speeches which, as he himself states, were as best as could be remembered of what was said. These speeches are composed in a literary manner. Classical scholars pointed out that one of Thucydides' central themes was the ethic of Athenian imperialism. So, many scholars have studied the theme of power politics in Thucydides' history.

On the other hand, some authors reject the common perception of Thucydides as a historian of naked real politic. They argue that actors on the world stage who had read his work would all have been put on notice that someone would be scrutinizing their actions with a reporter's dispassion, rather than the mythmaker's and poet's compassion and thus consciously participating in the writing of it. Thucydides does not take the time to discuss the arts, literature or society in which the book is set and in which Thucydides himself grew up. Thucydides was writing about an event and not a period and as such took lengths not to discuss anything which he considered unrelated.

Leo Strauss argued that Thucydides had a deeply ambivalent understanding of Athenian democracy. More conventional scholars view him as recognizing and teaching the lesson that democracies do need leadership –and that leadership can be dangerous to democracy.

### Text 3. Thucydides versus Herodotus

Thucydides and his immediate predecessor Herodotus both exerted a significant influence on Western history. Herodotus records in his *Histories* not only the events of the Persian War but also geographical ethnographical information, as well as miraculous and mystical stories related to him during his extensive travels. Herodotus views history as a source of moral lessons, with conflicts and wars flowing from initial facts of injustice that propagate through cycles of revenge. In contrast, Thucydides claims to confine himself to factual reports of contemporary political and military events, based on unambiguous, first-hand, eye-witness, though –unlike Herodotus—he actually does not reveal his sources. Thucydides views life exclusively as political life and history in terms of political history. Morality plays no role in the analysis of political events while geographic and ethnographic aspects are, at best, of secondary importance.

Thucydides was held up as the model of truthful historian by subsequent Greek historians. Lucian refers to Thucydides as having given Greek historians their law, requiring them to say what had been done. Greek historians of the 4<sup>th</sup> century BC accepted that history was political history and that the contemporary history was the proper domain of a historian though, unlike Thucydides, they continued to view history as a source of moral lessons. Thucydides and Herodotus were largely forgotten during the Middle Ages but Herodotus became a very respected author in the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> century because of the Reformation when the *Histories* provided a basis for establishing a biblical chronology. Even during the Renaissance, Thucydides attracted less interest among historians than his successor Polybius. In the 17<sup>th</sup> century, the English political philosopher Thomas Hobbes advocated highly authoritarian systems of government and was an admirer of Thucydides. Thucydides, Hobbes and Machiavelli are together considered as founding fathers of the school of political realism, according to which states are primarily motivated by the desire for military and economic power or security, rather than ideals or ethics.

The reputation of Thucydides greatly revived in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Among leading historians, who developed modern source-based history writing, Thucydides was again the model historian. They valued in particular the philosophical and artistic component of his work. However, the reputation of Herodotus was high as well among German historians: the history of civilization was increasingly viewed as complementary to political history. In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, a different mode of historiography emphasized the study of long term cultural and economic developments, and the patterns of everyday life, over that the political history. The *Annales School*, which represents his direction, has been viewed as extending the tradition of Herodotus. At the same time, the influence of Thucydides became increasingly prominent in the area of international relations.

#### Text 4. Livy

**Titus Livius**, (traditionally 59 BC—AD 17), known as Livy of English, was a Roman historian, who wrote a monumental history of Rome, *AbUrbe Condita*, from its founding (traditionally dated to 753 BC) through the reign of Augustus in Livy's own time.

Livy was a native Of Patavium (modern Padua, Italy). He was married and had at least two children. He died in his native town. The title of his most famous work, *AbUrbe Condita*, expresses the scope and magnitude of Livy's undertaking. He wrote in a mixture of chronology and narrative—often having to interrupt a story to announce the elections of new consuls as this was the way that the Romans kept track of the years. Livy claims that lack of historian data prior to the sacking of Rome in 387 BC by the Gauls made his task more difficult. Livy wrote the majority of his works during the reign of Augustus. However, he is often identified with an attachment to the Roman Republic and a desire for its restoration. Livy's writing style was poetic and archaic in contrast to Caesar's and Cicero's styles. Also, he often wrote from the Roman's opponents point of view in order to accent the Roman's virtues in their conquest of Italy and the Mediterranean. In keeping with his poetic tendencies, he did little to distinguish between fact and fiction.

**Reception** Livy's work met with instant acclaim. His highly literary approach to his historical writing renders his works very entertaining, and they remained constantly popular from his own day, through the Middle Ages, and into the modern world. Many of Livy's comments on Roman politics seem surprisingly modern today.

#### Text 5. Sima Qian

**Sima Qian** (ca. 145—90 BC) (also spelled Sou-ma Ch'ien), was a Perfect of the Grand Scribes of the Han Dynasty. He is regarded as a father of Chinese historiography because of his highly praised work, *Shiji* (Records of the Grand Historian), an overview of the history of China covering more than two thousand years. His definitive work laid the foundation for later Chinese historiography.

SimaQian was born, grew up, and raised in the family of historiographers. His father served as the Perfect of the Grand Scribes. His main responsibilities were managing the imperial library and calendar. Under the influence of his father, SimaQian was well versed in old writings. He was a student of the famous Confucians. At the age of twenty, with the support of his father, he started a journey throughout the country, collecting useful first-hand historical records. The purpose of his journey was to verify the ancient rumors and legends and to visit ancient monuments, including the renowned graves of the ancient sage kings Yu and Shun. After his travels, he was chosen to be the Palace Attendant in the government whose duties were to inspect different parts of the country. In 110 BC, SimaQian was sent westward on a military expedition against some barbarian tribes. That year, his father

fell ill. Suspecting his time was running out, he summoned his son back to complete the historical work he had begun. Sima Tan wanted to follow the *Annals of Spring and Autumn*—the first chronicle in the history of Chinese literature. Fuelled by his father's inspiration, Sima Qian started to compile *Shiji* in 109 BC. In 105 BC, Sima was among the scholars chosen to reform the calendar. As a senior imperial official, Sima was also in the position to offer counsel to the emperor on general affairs of state.

Although the style and form of Chinese historical writing varied through the ages, *Shiji* has defined the quality and style from then onwards. Before Sima, histories were written as dynastic history; his idea on a general history affected later historiographers. Historians regard Sima's work as their model, which stands as the "official format" of the history of China. In writing *Shiji* Sima initiated a new writing style by presenting history in a series of biographies. His work extends over 130 chapters—not in historical sequence, but was divided into particular subjects, including annals, chronicles, treatises – on music, ceremonies, calendars, religion, economics, and extended biographies. Sima's influence on the writing style of histories in other places is also evident in, for example *The History of Korea*.

*Sima's Shiji*, is respected as a model of biographical literature with high literary value, and still stands as a "textbook" for the study of classical Chinese worldwide. Sima's writings were influential to Chinese writing, and become a role model for various types of prose within the neo-classical ("renaissance") movement. The great use of characterization and plotting also influenced fictional writing, including the classical short stories of the middle and the late imperial period. The influence is derived from the following key elements of his writing:

***Skillful Depiction*** Sima portrayed many distinguished subjects based on true historical information. He would illustrate the responses of the subject by placing him in a sharp contrast or juxtaposition, and then letting his words and deeds speak to him. The use of conversation in his writing also makes the descriptions more vibrant and realistic.

***Innovative approach*** Sima's new approach in writing involved language which was informal, humorous and full of variations. This was an innovative way of writing at that time and thus it has always been esteemed as the highest achievements of classical Chinese writings: *Shiji* was regarded as "the first and last great work by historians, poems without rhyme".

***Concise language*** The style was simple, concise, fluent, and easy-to-read. Sima made his own comments while recounting the historical events. In writing the biographies he avoided making general descriptions, and instead tried to catch the essence of the events. He would portray the subjects concretely, giving the readers vivid images with strong artistic appeal.

***Other literary works*** Apart from *Shiji*, Sima had written eight rhapsodies, which are compiled in *Hanshu*, in which he expressed his suffering and his

perseverance in writing *Shiji*. Sima and his father were both court astrologers. At that time, the astrologer had an important role, responsible for interpreting and predicting the course of government according to the influence of the Sun, Moon, and stars, as well as other phenomena like solar eclipses, earthquakes, etc. Sima adopted a new method in sorting out the historical data and a new approach to writing historical records to establish the relationship between heavenly law and men. He intended to find out the patterns and principles of the development of human history. Sima emphasized the role of men in affecting the historical development of China. It is the first time in Chinese history that men were put under the spotlight in the analysis of historical development. He also denounced Emperor, who was superstitious, and prayed to gods extravagantly. In addition, he also proposed his historical perception that a country cannot escape from the fate of the boom-bust cycle. With these in-depth analyses and insight, Sima set an example for writing journalistic articles in later generations.

### Text 6. Bede

**Bede** (also Saint Bede, the Venerable Bede, c.672 or 673—May 25, 735), was a Benedictine monk at the Northumbrian monastery of Saint Peter at Monkwearmouth, today part of Sunderland. He is well known as an author and scholar, and his main famous work, *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People* gained him the title “The Father of English History”. Almost all that is known of Bede’s life is contained in a notice added by himself when he was 59 to his *Historia*, which states that he was placed in the monastery at Wearmouth at the age of seven, that he became deacon in his nineteenth year, and priest in his thirtieth. He implies that he finished the *Historia* at the age of 59. It is not clear whether he was of noble birth. He was trained by the abbot Ceolfrid, and probably accompanied him to Wearmouth’s sister monastery of Jarrow. There he spent his life, prominent activities evidently being teaching and writing. There he also died, on May 25, 735, and was buried, although his body was later transferred to Durham Cathedral.

His works show that he had at his command all the learning of his time. It was thought that the library at Wearmouth-Jarrow was between 300-500 books, making it one of the largest and most extensive in England. It is clear that Bishop made strenuous efforts to collect books during his extensive travels. Bede’s writings are classed as scientific, historical and theoretical, reflecting the range of his writings from music and metrics to Scripture commentaries. He was proficient in patristic literature, and quotes Virgil, Lucretius, Ovid, Horace and other classical writers, but with some disapproval. He knew some Greek, but no Hebrew. His Latin is generally clear and without affectation, and he was a skillful story-teller. However his style can be considerably more obscure in his Biblical commentaries. Bede’s scriptural commentaries employed the allegorical method of interpretation and his history includes accounts of miracles, which to modern historians has seemed at odds with

his critical approach to the materials in his history. Modern studies have shown the important role such concepts played in the world-view of Early Medieval scholars.

The most important and best known of his work is the *Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum* (The Ecclesiastical History of the British People), giving in five books and 400 pages the history of England, ecclesiastical and political, from the time of Caesar to the date of its completion (731). The first twenty-one chapters are compiled from earlier writers such as Orosius, Gildas, Prosper of Aquitaine, the letters of Pope Gregory I and others, with the insertion of legends and traditions. After 596, documentary sources, which Bede took pains to obtain throughout England and from Rome, are used, as well as oral testimony, which he employed with critical consideration of its value. He cited his references and was very concerned about the sources of all of his sources, which created an important historical chain.

**Scientific writings.** The noted historian of science, George Sarton, called the eighth century "The Age of Bede"; clearly Bede must be considered as an important scientific figure. He wrote several major works: a work *On the Nature of Things*; a work *On Time*, providing an introduction of the principles of Easter computes; and a longer work on the same subject; *On the Reckoning of Time*, which became the cornerstone of clerical scientific education during the ninth century. He also wrote several shorter letters and essays discussing specific aspects of computes and a treatise on grammar and on figures of speech for his pupils.

*On the Reckoning of Time* included an introduction to the tradition and medieval view of the cosmos, including an explanation of how spherical earth influenced the changing length of daylight, of how the seasonal motion of the Sun and Moon influenced the changing appearance of the New Moon at evening twilight, and the quantitative relation between the changes of the Tides at a given place and the daily motion of the moon. Since the focus of his book was calculation, Bede gave instructions for computing the date of Easter and the related time of the Easter Full Moon, for calculating the motion of the Sun and Moon through the zodiac, and for many other calculations related to the calendar. He gives some information about the months of the Anglo-Saxon calendar. For calendar purposes, Bede made a new calculation of the age of the world since the Creation. Due to his innovations in computing the age of the world, he was accused of heresy at the table of Bishop Wildred, his chronology being contrary to accepted calculations. His works were so influential that late in the ninth century Notker the Stammerer, a monk of the Monastery of St. Gall in Switzerland, wrote that "God, the orderer of natures, who raised the Sun from the East on the fourth day of Creation, in the sixth day of the world has made Bede rise from the West as a new Sun to illuminate the whole Earth".

His scholarship and importance to Catholicism were recognized in 1899 when he was declared the only English Doctor of the Church as St. Bede the

Venerable. He is also the only Englishman in Dante's Paradise, mentioned among theologians and doctors of the church.

### **Text 7. Leopold von Ranke**

**Leopold von Ranke** (December 21, 1795—May 23, 1886), was one of the greatest German historians of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and is frequently considered one of the founders of modern source-based history. Ranke set the tone for much of later historical writing, introducing such ideas as reliance on primary sources, an

Ranke was born in Wiehe, then part of the Kingdom of Prussia. He was educated partly at home and partly in the Gymnasium. His early years engendered a life-long love of ancient Greek and Latin of the Lutheran Church. In 1814, Ranke entered the University of Leipzig, where his subjects were Classics and Lutheran theology. At Leipzig, Ranke became an expert in Philology and translation of the ancient authors into German. As a student, Ranke's favorite authors were Thucydides, Livy, I. Kant, F. Schelling, and F. Schlegel. Ranke showed little interest in the work of modern history because of his dissatisfaction with what he regarded as history books that were merely a collection of facts lumped together by modern historians. In 1817-1825 Ranke worked as a Classics teacher at the Gymnasium in Frankfurt. During this time, Ranke became interested in history in part because of his desire to be involved in the developing field of a more professionalized history and in part because of his desire to find the hand of God in the workings of history. Beginning with his first book in 1824, *History of the Latin and Teutonic Nations from 1494 to 1514*, Ranke used an unusually wide variety of sources for a historian of the age, including "memories, diaries, personal and formal missives, government documents, diplomatic dispatches and first-hand accounts the of eye-witnesses". He emphasized mundane documents instead of old and exotic literature.

Ranke began his book with the statement that he would show the unity of the experiences of the "Teutonic" nations of Scandinavia, England and Germany and the "Latin" nations of Italy, Spain and France through the great "respirations" of the great migration, the Crusades and colonization bound all of the nations together to produce modern European civilization. The book is best remembered for Ranke's comment that "History has had assigned to it the office of judging the past and of instructing the account for the benefit of future ages. To show high offices the present work does not presume: it seeks only to show what actually happened". Ranke's statement that history should embrace the principles of "show what actually happened" is taken by many historians as their guiding principle. Ranke went on to write that the historian must seek for the "Holy hieroglyph" that is God's hand in history by keeping an "eye for the universal" whilst taking "joy in the particular". Following the success of *Geschichte History of the Latin and Teutonic Nations from 1494 to 1514*, Ranke was given a position in the University of Berlin. At the



university, Ranke supported the professor Friedrich Carl von Savigny who emphasized the varieties of different periods of history. Also during this time, Ranke became the first historian to utilize the forty-seven volumes that comprised the diplomatic archives of 16<sup>th</sup>—17<sup>th</sup> centuries. Ranke came to prefer dealing with primary sources as opposed to secondary sources during this time.

Starting in 1831 Ranke founded and edited the *Historisch-PolitischeZeitschrift* journal, in which he claimed that every state is given a special moral character from God and individuals should strive to best fulfill the idea of their state. Thus, Ranke urged his readers to stay loyal to the Prussian state and reject the ideas or the French Revolution, which he claimed were meant for France, not for Prussia. In 1834-1836 Ranke produced the multi-volume *History of the Popes, their Church and State*. As a Protestant, Ranke was barred from viewing the Vatican archives, but on the basis of private papers, Ranke was able to explain the history the Papacy in the 16<sup>th</sup> c. In this book, Ranke coined the term the Counter Formation and offered colorful portrayals of Popes Paul the Fourth and Pius the fifth. Ranke has been generally praised by historians for placing the situation of the Catholic Church in the context of the 16<sup>th</sup> c. and for his treatment of the complex interaction of the political and religious issues in the 16<sup>th</sup> c. He followed his book up with multi-volume *History of the Reformation in Germany in 1845-1847*. Ranke used the ninety-six volumes from ambassadors to explain the Reformation in Germany as the result of both politics and religion. In the series of letters, Ranke argued that “every age is next to God”, by which he meant that every period of history is unique and must be understood in its own context. Ranke rejected the teleological approach to history where every period is inferior to the period that follows. In Ranke’s view, the historian had to understand a period on its own terms, and seek to find only the general ideas which animated every period of history. For Ranke, history was not to be an account of man’s “progress” because, “After Plato, there can be no more Plato”. Moreover, for Ranke Christianity was morally most superior and could not be improved upon. In 1871, Ranke continued to write on a variety of subjects relating to German history. Starting in 1880, Ranke began a huge six-volume work on *World History*, which began with ancient Egypt and the Israelities. By the time of Ranke’s death in Berlin 1886, he had only reached the 12<sup>th</sup> century. Subsequently his assistants used his notes to take the series up to 1453. At the core of his method, Ranke did not believe that general theories could cut across time and space. He made statements about the time using quotations from primary sources. He said, “My understanding of the ‘leading ideas’ is simply that they are dominant tendencies in each century. These tendencies, however, can only be described; they can not, in the last resort, be summed up in a concept.” In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Ranke’s work was very popular and his ideas about how an historian should operate were much copied.

## Text 8. Vikentij Khvoika

Today every thorough research on the Ancient Ukrainian or European history refers to discoveries made by the archaeologist VikentijKhvoika.

**Vikentij Khvoika** (1850-1914) was a descendant of Polish aristocrats who has dissipated their fortune and become ordinary peasants. As a child he was quiet and shy. Khvoika studied in a commercial college in Czechia. When he was 26, his parents decided to marry him to a rich girl. To avoid the unwanted marriage, Khvoika escaped from Czechia and settled in Kiev, the city that seems to bear strong resemblance of the ancient Czech towns. There he spent a half of his life. First Vikentij taught German language, drawing and fencing, later he took interest in agriculture, studied breeding of the new sorts of barley and millet and tried to develop new technologies in hop processing. At the exhibitions that took place in the cities of Romny (1884) and Kharkiv (1897), Khvoika was awarded a diploma and a bronze medal.

Since then, VikentijKhvoika decided to devote himself to archaeology. He was 43. During the next 21 year he examined the artifacts of almost all historical periods the Ukrainian society run through and explored over 50 different sites. His excavations cover vast territories of the present-day Ukraine and include Kiev, Cherkasy, Kirovograd, Poltava, Sumy, Zhytomyr and Khmelnytsky regions. In spite of the fact that methods of excavations were simpler than modern ones, the extent of Khvoika's work is amazing. VikentijKhvoika is famous mainly as a discoverer of one of the most advanced agricultural formations – the Trypilian culture that existed in Ukraine during Neolithic age. In addition, he discovered and studied Chernyakhivska and Zarubynetska cultures.

Khvoika made up the deficiency of special knowledge by rich reading and intercourse with Kiev archaeologist and historian VolodymyrAntonovich. Nevertheless, his relations with count Alexei Bobrinsky, the head of the Imperial Archaeological Committee, left much to be desired. Count had discovered many artifacts himself but failed to work out any scientific concept about them, in contrast to Khvoika. In 1907, Khvoika started new excavations in private sector on Starokyivska hill in Kiev. He could carry out excavations without any permission there. Khvoika discovered ruins of Kiev princes' stone palaces, pagan temples, artisan workshops and many unique artifacts of the Kiev Rus. Before archaeologists succeeded in finding only Slavonic tumuli, chronicles telling about the rich and glorious capital of the ancient Rus looked like legends resembling fairy tales poetizing early Kiev and his epic heroes. VikentijKhvoika discovered material remains of his olden magnificence and proved that not only ancient cities preserved archaeological memorials—Kiev represented an outstanding and very significant subject of antiquity as well.

Alexei Bobrinsky insisted on handing over Khvoika's research to his Committee. Also he objected to passing the excavations finds to Kiev city museum: "Exceptional enrichment of Kiev State Museum with the artifacts discovered during the excavations sponsored by the member of the Academy Kondakov from the Treasury would create for his provincial museum preferred position to the prejudice of the state's principal museum – the Imperial Heritage". With the excavations carried out in Kiev, Korosten and near Kaniv Khvoika started his systematic research of memorials of the Paleolithic era on territory of Ukraine. The most significant find discovered in Kyrilivska Paleolithic site in Kiev was a mammoth's tusk decorated with pictures engraved by an unknown artist of prehistoric times. It was the first artistic product belonging to that remote era that had been found in Eastern Europe

Vikentij Khvoika was one of the initiators and the founders of Kiev Society of Antiquities and Arts. The head of the society Bohdan Khanenko sponsored Khvoika's research, though the scientist put up his own money too. The archaeologist took active part in establishing of Kiev City Museum. After its opening Khvoika spent most of his time in a newly erected building. It was very dump there. As the scientist recollected, he had dried the entire building out with his lungs. Possibly that was the reason why he had taken ill with tuberculosis. Vikentij Khvoika died on the 2th of November in 1914. The scientist was buried in Baikove cemetery in Kiev; his tomb still remains intact. Vikentij Khvoika – Ukraine's well-known scientist—personifies the symbol of century-old-friendship between two Slavonic nations, whose historical destinies were alike in many respect.

### **Text 9. Dmytro Yavornytsky**

**Dmytro Yavornytsky** (also known by his pen name as Evarnitsky), November 6, 1855—August, 5 1940) was a noted Ukrainian historian, archaeologist, ethnographer, folklorist and lexicographer. He was one of the most prominent investigators of the Ukrainian Cossacks, especially in Zaporozhian Cossacks, and the author of their first general history. In recognition of his manifold contributions to the preservation of Zaporozhian history and culture, he is widely known as "the Father of the Zaporozhians".

Yavornytsky was educated at Kharkov, Kazan, and Warsaw universities but his academic career was repeatedly interrupted by the authorities for political reasons. Both as a student and later as a teacher he was accused of Ukrainian "separatism" and dismissed from his position. In the 1890's, he even was forced to go to Russian Turkestan to find employment. In 1897, the Russian historian Vasily Kluchevsky helped him to obtain a position as lecturer on the Zaporozhian Cossacks at Moscow University, but in 1902, when he was offered a position as Director of the Yekaterinoslav Historical Museum in central Ukraine, he gladly accepted and

remained there to the end of his life. As a historian, Yavornytsky displayed a romantic-antiquarian approach to his subject and was a conscious follower of his predecessor, the Ukrainian historian, Mykola Kostomarov. He was an enthusiast who avidly sought out both documents and material artifacts, as well as stories and the songs of the elderly, concerning the Zaporozhian Cossacks, and he wrote his histories on the basis of this material. He was a true pioneer of Zaporozhian history and was the first to compile an extensive archive of materials of their entire history from their origins to their demise. He published much of these materials in various collections, often at his own expense. His major work was undoubtedly his *History of the Zaporozhian Cossacks* which was published in Russia in three volumes between 1892 and 1897. He planned but never completed a fourth volume. In this and in his other works, he portrayed the Zaporozhians as representatives of Ukrainian liberty. Later, Ukrainian historians criticized him as being uncritical and unsystematic in his collection on source materials and lacking an appreciation for Ukrainian statehood (Dmytro Doroshenko), but Yavornytsky wrote at a time when political circumstances and the Imperial censors were extremely oppressive and any synthesis of Ukrainian history which displayed an enthusiasm for the subject, let alone political independence, was highly suspect. His *History of the Zaporozhian Cossacks* was a pioneering work which did, in fact, display such an enthusiasm.

As an ethnographer, folklorist, and lexicographer, Yavornytsky was similarly pioneering. He made numerous contributions to the historical geography of the Zaporozhian lands, and mapped in detail the Dnieper Rapids with the locations of the various Zaporozhian Sichs, or fortified headquarters. He published a large collection of the Ukrainian folksongs (1906; partly reprinted, 1990) as soon as the censor would permit it, contributed to Borys Hrinchenko's great Ukrainian dictionary, and after the revolution, began publication of one of his own (1920). He increased the holdings of the Yekaterinoslav Museum from 5,000 to 80,000 items.

During the repressions of the 1930s, Yavornytsky was prevented from publishing and had to keep a very low profile. During the great Ukrainian Famine of 1932-1933 he actually felt compelled to give away artifacts from his collections to obtain food for starving local peasants and others. His death passed unnoticed both in the USSR and in the wider world. But the Yekaterinoslav (today Dnipropetrovsk) Museum was eventually renamed in his honour. He was partially rehabilitated during the Khrushchev, materials about him began to appear, and in the early 1970s, a four volume collection of his works was prepared for publication. Political circumstances again prevented this from happening, but with the advent of the Perestroika reforms in the late 1980s, new materials began to appear and his major works were republished. At that time, his *History of the Zaporozhian Cossacks* was printed both in Russian and in Ukrainian (1990-91). In 2004, the first volume of his *Collected Works* in 20 volumes was published. The first ten volumes of his collection is

contained with historical, geographical, and archaeological works, the second ten volumes, his works on folklore, ethnography and language.

### **Text 10. Natalia Polonska-Vasylenko**

**Natalia Polonska-Vasylenko** (1884—1973) was one of the foremost Ukrainian historians of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Polonska-Vasylenko studied history under Mitrofan Donnar-Zapolskiy at Kiev University and from 1912 was a member of the Kiev-based Historical Society of Nestor the Chronicler. From 1916, she was a lecturer at Kiev University and Director of its archaeological museum. During the 1920s, the most liberal years of Soviet rule, she was a professor at the Kiev Universities of Geography, Archaeology, and Art, and a Research Associate at the All-Ukrainian Academy of Sciences (VUAN). She witnessed, but survived the Stalin purges of the 1930s and was a member of the recognized and Sovietized academy from 1937 to 1941. In 1940, she received her doctorate and became a professor at Kiev University. During the German occupation, she directed the Kyiv Central Archive of Old Documents and worked in Kyiv City Administration, was responsible for renaming of streets and consulted Kyiv Archive Museum of Transitional Period (dedicated to achievements of German occupation and crimes of Communists). As the tide of the war turned against the Germans, she fled west, first to Lviv, then to Prague, and finally to Bavaria. She was a Professor at the Ukrainian Free University in Prague (1944-45), and moved together with his institution to Munich where she continued to teach until her death in 1973. In the 1960s, she took an active part in the establishment of the American-Based Ukrainian Historical Association and was its Vice-president from 1965.

Polonska-Vasylenko was a specialist in Ukrainian archaeology, the history of Kievan Rus', the later history of the Zaporozhian Cossacks, and the history of her own times. She also wrote extensively of modern Ukrainian historiography. Before the first World War, she participated in the compilation and writing of a large Russian cultural history atlas which was published in three volumes between 1913 and 1914. During the 1920s, she published extensively in the various periodicals of the Ukrainian Academy on the Zaporozhian Cossacks and the transformation and absorption of southern Ukraine into the Russian Empire during the reigns of Catherine the Great and her predecessors. During the Cold War, deprived of the use of the archives of her native land, Polonska-Vasylenko collected and reprinted many of her earlier studies on Zaporozhia (1965-67), wrote several memoirs of intellectual life in revolutionary and Soviet Ukraine including *a History of the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences* (1955-58), published a book on *Stalin repressions of Ukrainian Historians* (1962), and turned increasingly toward synthesis, at the end of her career, publishing a volume on *Ukrainian Historiography* (1971) and a two volume *General History of Ukraine* (1973-1976).

In her general approach to Ukrainian history, she followed the lead of her distinguished émigré predecessor, Dmytro Doroshenko, and wrote in a conservative vein, stressing the importance of the Cossacks officer class and the Ukrainian gentry into which they were later transformed. She saw the strivings of this class for national unity and independence, or, at least autonomy, as one of the main currents of Ukrainian history, and she characterized the 19<sup>th</sup> century as a time of Russian and Austrian occupation. She ended her general history with the advent of Soviet rule.

Through her teaching at the Ukrainian Free University, and her many publications, Polonska-Vasylenko influenced several younger Ukrainian historians in the west, especially the founder of the Ukrainian Historical Association, L. I. Iuhymyč Wynar. After the proclamation of Ukrainian independence in 1991 and the subsequent growth of intellectual freedom, her major works, including the history of the Ukrainian Academy and her general history of Ukraine were reprinted in her homeland where she finally became widely known.

### **Text 11. Mykhailo Drahomanov**

**Mykhailo Drahomanov** (b. September 6, 1841) in Hadiach, Poltava gubernia, was a civil leader, publicist, political thinker. Being of Cossack origin, Drahomanov studied at Kiev University, where in 1864 he became private docent, and in 1873, docent, lecturing on ancient history. While pursuing an academic career, Drahomanov rose to a position of leadership in the Ukrainian secret society the Kiev Hromada and took part in its various activities. Drahomanov became an early victim of anti-Ukrainian repressive measures by the Russian government and was dismissed in 1875 from the university. Entrusted by the Hromada with the mission to become its spokesman in Western Europe, he settled in Geneva in 1876. He published the journal *Hromada* (1878—82), the first modern Ukrainian political journal. He strove to alert European opinion to the plight of the Ukrainian people under tsarism by pamphlets and articles in the French, Italian, and Swiss press. In 1889 Drahomanov accepted a professorship at Sophia University. During his last years he saw the rise of the Ruthenian-Ukrainian Radical party, founded in 1890 by his Galician followers. Drahomanov was their mentor through his intensive correspondence and programmatic articles in the party's organ, *Narod*. Soon after his move to Bulgaria, he developed a heart ailment. He died on July 20 in 1895, and was buried in Sophia.

Drahomanov was an outstanding Ukrainian political thinker. He dealt extensively with constitutional, ethnic, international, cultural and educational issues; he also engaged in a literary criticism. Drahomanov's ideas represent a blend of liberal-democratic, socialist, and Ukrainian patriotic elements, with a positivist philosophical background. Drahomanov insisted on the priority of civil rights free political institutions over economic class interests and all universal human values

over exclusive national concerns. However, he believed that nationality was a necessary building stone for all mankind, and he coined the slogan “Cosmopolitanism in the ideas and the ends, nationality in the ground and the forms.”

Drahomanov declared himself as a socialist, without subscribing to any school of contemporary socialist thought. The motivation for his socialism was ethical: concern for social justice and the underprivileged and exploited. He advanced a program of concrete socioeconomic reforms. Drahomanov was convinced that in agrarian Ukraine socialism must be oriented towards the peasantry. Therefore, he may be classified as a populist in the broad sense of the term. Drahomanov rejected Marxism, especially the materialist interpretation of the history.

### **Text 12. Mykhailo Hrushevskyi**

**Mykhailo Hrushevskyi** (b. September 29, 1866) in Kholm, was the most distinguished Ukrainian historian, principle organizer of Ukrainian scholarship, prominent civil and political leader, publicist and writer, member of the Shevchenko Scientific Society, and the USSR Academy of Sciences from 1929. Hrushevskyi's father was a Slavist and pedagogue. In 1869 the family moved to the Caucasus where Hrushevskyi graduated from the classical gymnasium in Tiflis (1886). While still a gymnasium student he began to write belle letters in Ukrainian. Hrushevskyi graduated in 1890 from the Historical-Philological faculty at Kiev University where he was a student of V. Antonovych. He remained at Kiev University to prepare his candidate's thesis, published as “A Survey of the History of Kyiv Land from the Death of Yaroslav to the End of the 14<sup>th</sup> Century”, 1891, and then received a master's degree for the dissertation in 1894. In 1894, on the recommendation of V. Antonovych, Hrushevskyi was appointed professor of the newly created chair of Ukrainian history at Lviv University.

Upon arriving in Lviv Hrushevskyi became active in the NTSh. He became the director of the Historical-Philosophical Section in 1894, and in 1897 he was elected president. In 1898, together with I. Franko and V. Hnatiuk, he founded *Literaturno-naukovyivisnyk*, the most important forum for Ukrainian literature and political discussion of its time. Hrushevskyi was also one of the organisers of the Ukrainian Publishing Association (1899) and the Society of Friends of Ukrainian Scholarship, Literature, and Art (1904). Hrushevskyi's contribution to the development of education in Galicia deserves particular attention. Soon after arriving in Lviv he began to work towards the creation of a Ukrainian university there, beginning with the organization of popular lecture series and a summer school. In 1898 the first volume of his monumental “History of Ukraine-Rus” was published in Lviv; by 1937 another nine volumes, covering Ukrainian history to 1658, had appeared in Lviv and Kyiv. This work was the first major synthesis of Ukrainian

history ever written. In 1904 his "Survey of the History of the Ukrainian People" was published in St. Petersburg. In 1904 Hrushevskiy published perhaps his most important essay, titled "The Traditional Scheme of 'Russian' History and the Problem of a Rational Ordering of the History of the Eastern Slavs". In this article Hrushevskiy traced the history of Ukraine and of the Ukrainian people to the period of Kyiv Rus and argued that the history of the Ukrainian nation is distinct from that of the Russian both in its origin and in its political, economic, and cultural development.

In 1899 Hrushevskiy was one of the founders of the National Democratic party, although he quit the party soon afterwards. His real political activity, however, began only after the 1905 Revolution in Russia, which resulted in the easing of restrictions on Ukrainian life and the emergence of mass Ukrainian organisations and political parties. Hrushevskiy was a prolific publicist. His articles on Ukrainian and international political affairs appeared in various Ukrainian and Russian publications. After a brief stay in St. Petersburg, Hrushevskiy transferred his activities in Kiev. In 1908 he was one of the founding members of the Society of Ukrainian Progressives, emerging as the universally acknowledged leader of the Ukrainian movement. During the First World War, when the Russian government again clamped down on Ukrainian activities, Hrushevskiy was arrested in the fall of 1914. After a two-month imprisonment in Kyiv, he was exiled to Simbirsk, then to Kazan, and finally to Moscow, where he remained under police surveillance. Despite this repression he continued his scholarly work.

Hrushevskiy was released from exile after the February Revolution of 1917 and he quickly emerged as the leader of the Ukrainian national revolution. On 17 March, while still in Moscow, he was elected chairman of the Central Rada. Under his direction, this body soon became the revolutionary parliament of Ukraine. In 1917 he became a supporter of the newly formed Ukrainian Party of Socialist Revolutionaries, the majority party in the Central Rada. On 29 April 1918, he was elected president of the UNR. A coup d'état led by P. Skoropadskiy overthrew the government of the UNR. This ended Hrushevskiy's involvement in government, although he continued his political activities and his publicistic work. In 1919 he emigrated and increased his political-publicistic activities as a member of the Foreign Delegation of the UPSR. Hrushevskiy left for Kyiv in early 1924. This action was severely criticized by most of the Ukrainian political emigres. Hrushevskiy soon resumed his role as the central figure in Ukrainian scholarship. He organized a series of academic commissions to research Ukrainian history and folklore, and directed the training of new historians as the holder of the Chair of Modern Ukrainian History. He revived and edited *Ukraina* (1924-30), which became the main organ of Ukrainian studies. In 1926 Ukraine solemnly celebrated Hrushevskiy's 60<sup>th</sup> birthday and the 40<sup>th</sup> anniversary of his scholarly work.



Despite Hrushevskyi great achievements in this period, opposition to him grew steadily in official circles and among Marxist scholars. Increasingly, his historical scheme was rejected as 'nationalistic', and he was criticized for not adopting the official Soviet Marxist interpretation of Ukrainian history. In March 1931 he was exiled to Moscow and most of his students and co-workers were arrested and deported. By 1934, the school of history he had founded in Soviet Ukraine was destroyed. Still, Hrushevskyi remained a productive scholar in his last years, working mostly on Ukrainian historiography of the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries; his last two articles were published in periodicals of the USSR Academy of Sciences in 1932 and 1934. Eventually, the difficult conditions of life in semi-freedom abroad and the further persecutions led to a deterioration of Hrushevskyi health. He died on 25 of November 1934, in Kislovodsk, North Caucasus, where he had gone for medical treatment, and was buried in Kyiv in the Baikove cemetery.

### **Text 13. Orest Subtelny**

**Orest Subtelny** (b. 1943 in Krakow) is a Canadian historian of Ukrainian descent. He received his Ph.D. from Harvard University in 1973. Since 1982 he is a professor at the Department of History and Political Science, York University, Toronto, Canada. Subtelny's major work is the general textbook "Ukraine": a History (1988), a work of Ukrainian historiography. During the Gorbachev reforms, the book was quickly translated into both Ukrainian and Russian and affected the growth of Ukrainian historical and national consciousness during the initial years of Ukrainian independence.

Under the influence of his mentors, the orientalist Omeljan Pritsak and the Ivan Mazepa specialist Oleksander Ohloblyn, Subtelny's earlier work dealt with the Cossacks era, especially with the revolt of Hetman Ivan Mazepa against Tzar Peter the Great. In this work, he sought to avoid the extremes of labeling Mazepa either an evil traitor to Russia or a heroic defender of Ukrainian national independence and portrayed him as a typical partisan of aristocratic local autonomy before the encroaching absolute monarchies of his time.

In his history of Ukraine, Subtelny took a more traditional approach, like his predecessor Mykhailo Hrushevsky, Dmytro Doroshenko, and Ivan Krypiakevych, writing a national history, primarily the history of the Ukrainian people. However, unlike these predecessors who wished to stress aspirations to statehood, Subtelny stressed "statelessness". In his view, modernization of the country was largely sponsored by outside powers and thus not exactly favourable to the rise of a Ukrainian national consciousness.

### A

**Ancient** – древній, стародавній

**Archaeology** – археологія

**Anthropology** – антропологія

**Appearance** – виникнення, поява

**Antiquity** – античність

**Achievement** – досягнення

**Antiquarianism** – антикваріат

**Affinity** – спорідненість, схожість

**To acquaint** – знайомити, сповіщати

**Archivist** – архіваріус

**Aesthetic** – естетичний

**Attitude** – ставлення, відношення

**Artillery** – артилерія

**Accuracy** – точність

**Earthquake** – землетрус

**Appreciation** – розуміння, відмінність

### B

**Behavior** – поведінка

**Blunt** – різкий, прямий, грубий, глухий кут

**To blame** – звинувачувати

**Barley** – ячмінь, але: просити перемир'я

### C

**Contemporary (history)** – новітній

**Cuneiform** – клинописний

**Cyclical** – циклічний

**Clergy** – духовенство

**Controversial** – суперечливий

**Conscious** – свідомий

**Consumption** – вживання, використання, туберкульоз, згасання від хвороби

**Cognitive** – пізнавальний

**Chronology** – хронологія (подій)

**Community** – спільнота, група (людей)

**Consequence** – наслідки, відповідальність, важливість, значення

**Circumstances** – обставини

**Conquest** – захоплення

**Conscription** – військова повинність

**Cornerstone** – каміньпреткновения

**Cemetery** – цвинтар, кладовище

**Consciousness** – свідомість, сумління, розуміння

**To convince** – переконувати

## **D**

**Description** – опис

**To deviate** – ухилятися від (відповідальності)

**To denote** – визначати

**Duration** – тривалість

**To distinguish** – відрізнятися

**Deficiency** – відсутність (чогось), нестача, неповноцінність

**To demise** – передавати щось (у спадок)

**To dedicate** – присвячувати, жертвувати

**Descent** – походження, зниження, падіння

## **E**

**To emphasize** – наголошувати, виділяти

**Evidence** – очевидність, докази, свідчення

**Ecclesiastical** – духовний, церковний

**Evaluation** – оцінка, визначення

**Existence** – існування

**To emerge** – виникати

**Ethnography** – етнографія

**Excavation** – розкопки

**Encompass** – охопити (увагою)

**Eclipse** – затемнення сонця

**Earthquake** – землетрус

**Exile** – вигнання

## **F**

**To furnish** – забезпечувати

**Fastidious** – витончений, розбірливий

## **G**

**Growth** – зростання, збільшення

**Goal** – ціль, мета

**Gunpowder** – порох

**Glory** – слава

**Generation** – покоління

**Guerrilla** – партизанська війна

## **H**

**Human** – людський

**Humanity** – людство

**Heritage** – спадщина

**Holistic** – священний

**Han** – Хан

**(heart) ailment** – хворобасерця

## **I**

**Inquiry** – питання, запит, дослідження

**Inevitable** – неминучий

**Investigation** – розслідування, дослідження

**Indigenous** – місцевий, природний, вроджений

**Insurance** – гарантування

**Insurgency** – бунт

**Invasion** – вторгнення

**To interrupt** – відволікати

**Interaction** – взаємодія

## **J**

**Judgment** – судження

**To justify** – виправдовувати

**Justice** – справедливість, юстиція

## **K**

**Knowledge** – знання

## **L**

**Legacy** – законність

**Labor** – праця

**Lungs** – легені

## **M**

**Majority** – більшість

**Medieval** – середньовічний

**Monk** – монах

**To maintain** – наголошувати на (чомусь)

**Mythology** – міфологія

**Melee** – рукопашний бій

**Mercenary** – найманий, найманець

**Millet** – просо

**Miracle** – чудо

**Mundane** – мирський, світський

## **N**

**Narrative** – розповідний

**Notable** – шляхетний

**Nomad** – кочівник

## **O**

**Opportunity** – можливість

## **P**

**Purpose** – мета

**Primary sources** – першоджерела

**Participant** – учасник

**Property** – власність

**Preventive** – превентивний, застережливий

**Pertain** – належати ( до чогось)

**Permanent** – постійний, довготривалий

**Papacy** – Папство

**Plague** – чума

**Predecessor** – предок

**Psychology** – психологія

## **Q**

**Qualitative** – якісний

**Quantitative** – кількісний

## **R**

**Research** – дослідження

**Reed** – солома

**Reign** – правління

**Reliable** – надійний

**Remains** – залишки

**Recovery** – відновлення

**Rhapsody** – рапсодія

**Restrictions** – обмеження

## **S**

**Scholar** – вчений

**Superstitions** – забобони

**Significance** – значення

**Survival** – виживання

**Sturdy** – сильний, твердий, відважний

Навчальне видання

*АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА*  
*ДЛЯ*  
*СТУДЕНТІВ-ІСТОРИКІВ*  
*Збірник текстів*



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