

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
РІВНЕНСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ ГУМАНІТАРНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
КАФЕДРА ІНОЗЕМНИХ МОВ

ENGLISH FOR HISTORIANS
APPLYING FOR MASTER'S DEGREE

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другого (магістерського) рівня, спеціальностей 014 Середня освіта
(Історія), 032 Історія та археологія*

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Навчальний посібник розроблено для магістрів істориків та археологів факультету історії, політології та міжнародних відносин денної та заочної форм навчання. Структура посібника дає можливість викладачеві вибрати оптимальні шляхи організації як аудиторної, так і самостійної роботи з урахуванням рівня їх знань. Спеціальні тексти для читання, перекладу та переказу сприяють розвитку навичок одержання інформації та її аналітичної обробки. Більшість текстів аутентичні та адаптовані. Навчально-методичний посібник можуть використовувати студенти та наукові працівники відповідного профілю.

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ПРОГРАМА НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

Змістовий модуль 1.

Professional English for Historians and Archaeologists

Тема 1. The Code of Hammurabi.

Grammar: Present tenses: present simple; present continuous; stative verbs.

Past tenses 1: past simple; past continuous; *used to*; *would*.

Athens and Sparta.

Тема 2. The Aztec Legend of Tenochtitlan.

Grammar: Present perfect: present perfect simple; present perfect continuous.

Past tenses 2: past perfect simple; past perfect continuous.

Ellis Island: The Golden Door.

Тема 3. The Remarkable Road of the Inca Empire.

Grammar: Future 1. Plans, intentions, predictions: present continuous; *going to*; *will*.

Future 2: present simple; *be about to*; future continuous; future perfect.

Abraham Lincoln and the Gettysburg Address.

Тема 4. King Tutankhamen's Tomb.

Grammar: Countable and uncountable nouns: countable and uncountable nouns; quantity expressions (*many*, *much*, *a lot of*, *some*, *any*, *a few*, *few*, *no*).

Referring to nouns: articles; other determiners (demonstratives, possessives, inclusives: *each*, *every*, *both*, *all*, etc.).

The World Wars.

Змістовий модуль 2.

English for Scientific Research

Тема 5. In Pursuit of Knowledge: The Scientific Method.

Grammar: Pronouns and referencing: personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns; avoiding repetition.

Adjectives and adverbs: describing things; adding information about manner, place, time, frequency and intensity.

Two Kinds of Research: Basic and Applied.

Тема 6. Writing annotation.

Grammar: Comparing things: comparative and superlative adjectives and adverbs; other ways of comparing.

The noun phrase: noun + prepositional phrase; noun + participle clause; noun + to-infinitive clause.

Writing annotation.

Тема 7. Diploma Thesis Presentation.

Grammar: Modals 1: ability; possibility; alternatives to modals.

Modals 2: obligation and necessity; suggestions and advice; adverbs.

My Research Interests.

ПЕРЕДМОВА

Навчальний посібник “English for Historians Applying for Master’s Degree” для здобувачів вищої освіти другого (магістерського) рівня денної та заочної форм навчання факультету історії, політології та міжнародних відносин створено відповідно до вимог програми з дисципліни «Іноземна мова (англійська) в професійній діяльності».

Мета, яку ставили перед собою автори посібника, полягає в підготовці майбутніх фахівців до читання та розуміння фахово спрямованого навчального матеріалу англійською мовою та вироблення навичок підготовленого і не підготовленого мовлення в межах засвоєної професійної тематики. Усі тексти посібника тематично співвідносяться з майбутньою професією студентів.

Посібник складається з двох змістових модулів, граматичного матеріалу, модульних тестів, текстів для додаткового читання. Усього посібник містить 7 тем, які розбиті на дві частини: одна опрацьовується студентами під час аудиторної роботи, а частина Self-study має на меті самостійне опрацювання студентами матеріалу. Ряд завдань виконується письмово і носить тестовий характер.

Щодо самих текстів, то їх побудовано з дотриманням дидактичного принципу наростання лексико-граматичних труднощів. Це стосується як дібраних із фахових першоджерел і відповідним чином опрацьованих і адаптованих англійських текстів, так і створених авторами, з використанням тих чи інших джерел. Тексти опрацьовувались і вносились до посібника з метою виробити у студентів вміння читати, перекладати літературу зі свого майбутнього фаху, розуміти, орієнтуватися в ній і видобувати з неї необхідну фахову інформацію.

MODULE I

Professional English for Historians and Archaeologists

THEME 1. The Code of Hammurabi

1. Read and translate the text.

THE CODE OF HAMMURABI

If a man breaks into a house, he shall be killed in front of that house and buried there.

That is just one law in Hammurabi's Code. Hammurabi (hah moo RAH bee) was among the greatest kings of the ancient Middle East. He ruled the great kingdom of Babylonia from about 1792 B.C. to 1750 B.C.

Hammurabi sought to unite his empire by publishing a set of laws. Many of the rulings had been around for a long time. But Hammurabi wanted to make it clear that his subjects must follow them. He ordered artisans to carve nearly 300 laws on a pillar. The seven-foot stone column stood in the capital city of Babylon. Hammurabi's Code became history's first major collection of laws.

At the top of the pillar, a carving showed Hammurabi sitting on his throne. These engraved words declared the king's goal: That the strong may not oppress the weak.

The Code of Hammurabi dealt with many aspects of life. There were laws about marriage and divorce, property, business contracts, wages, loans, and military service. The Code spelled out lawbreakers' penalties. By the standards of A.D. 2000, some of these punishments seem harsh. Hammurabi believed in the principle of "an eye for an eye; a life for a life." Imagine, for example, that a house collapsed due to poor construction. If someone in that house was killed, the builder could be put to death. This was Hammurabi's idea of justice!

While its punishments were harsh, Hammurabi's Code showed a concern for human rights and welfare. Borrowers, for example, did not have to repay their loans if personal misfortune made it impossible to do so. The code also allowed a wife to own property and leave it to her children.

Eventually, invaders conquered the Babylonians. Hammurabi's laws, however, were passed down through the ages. Many of his ideas are reflected in today's laws.

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What two-letter abbreviation stands for the words "Before Christ"? (used to date events before the year Jesus Christ was born)?

2. What two-letter abbreviation stands for the Latin words “Anno Domini”? (used to date events from the year Jesus Christ was born)?

4. Unscramble the word in each clue. Then complete the puzzle with the unscrambled words.

1. The noun SOICNOTCUTNR means something that has been built; a structure.

c _ _ _ _ r _ _ _ _ o _

2. The adjective HRASH describes something that is unusually hard or cruel.

h _ _ _ _

3. The noun TECIJSU means the quality of being fair and lawful.

j _ _ _ _ c _

4. The plural noun SITSNAAR means craftspeople who are skilled in some trade.

a _ _ _ _ a _ _

5. The verb REPPSSO means to keep people under control by a cruel use of power.

o _ _ _ _ s s

6. The noun LEFREAW means the health, happiness, and general well-being of a people.

w _ _ _ _ r _

5. Circle the possessive noun in each sentence.

Possessives are words that show ownership. Singular nouns are made possessive by adding an apostrophe (') and an s (Mary's sweater). Plural nouns that end in s are made possessive by adding an apostrophe after the s (five countries' flags). Plural nouns that do not end in s are made possessive by adding an apostrophe and an s (the children's rooms).

1. Hammurabi's Code was engraved on a stone pillar.

2. This was history's first published set of laws.

3. Lawbreakers' punishment could be harsh.

6. Read each sentence below. Write the possessive form of the noun in parentheses.

1. Hammurabi was thinking of his (people) welfare. _____

2. The (Babylonians) kingdom was governed by strict laws. _____

3. The (kingdom) ruler was Hammurabi. _____

7. Underline the prefix (word part added to the beginning) or suffix (word part added to the end) in each word. Next, write the meaning of the word part you underlined. (Check a dictionary if you need help.) Finally, write another word that has that same prefix or suffix.

1. misfortune

WORD PART MEANING: _____

ANOTHER WORD: _____

2. powerless

WORD PART MEANING: _____

ANOTHER WORD: _____

3. greatest

WORD PART MEANING: _____

ANOTHER WORD: _____

Grammar:

Present tenses: present simple; present continuous; state verbs.

PRESENT SIMPLE

statement	negative	question
I/you/we/they play ...	I/you/we/they do not (don't) play ...	Do I/you/we/they play ..?
He/she/it plays ...	He/she/it does not (doesn't) play ...	Does he/she/it play ..?

Use	Example
Present habits	Marsha goes to dance lessons every Saturday.
Permanent situations	Does Dan work at the cinema?
States	I like the new James Bond film.
General truths	You play chess with 32 pieces.

HELPFUL HINTS

The present simple is often used with the following words and phrases:

adverbs

- *always* • *usually* • *often*
- *sometimes* • *rarely* • *never*

phrases

- *every Monday/week/e tc*
- *each Monday/week/e tc*
- *once/twice a week/month/etc*
- *three times a week/month/e tc*

Remember that these adverbs usually go before the verb, but **after** the verb be.

- *I **often** play football with my friends.*
- *I am **often** late for my piano lessons.*

PRESENT CONTINUOUS

statement	negative	question
-----------	----------	----------

<i>I am ('m) playing...</i>	<i>I am not ('m not) playing...</i>	<i>Am I playing...?</i>
<i>He/she/it is('s) playing.....</i>	<i>He/she/it is not (isn't /s not) playing...</i>	<i>Is he/she/it playing...?</i>
<i>You/we/they are ('re) playing...</i>	<i>You/we/they are not (aren't / 're not) playing ...</i>	<i>Are you/we/they playing...?</i>

Use	Example
Actions happening now	<i>Jan is watching a DVD upstairs.</i>
Temporary situations	<i>She is working at the museum until the end of the month.</i>
Annoying habits (usually with <i>always</i>)	<i>My brother is always borrowing my CDs without asking!</i>

HELPFUL HINTS

The present continuous is often used with the following words and phrases:

- *now* • *right now* • *at the moment*
- *today* • *this week/month/etc*

STATIC VERBS

Stative verbs do not usually describe actions. They describe states (feelings, thoughts, etc). They are not normally used in continuous tenses.

***I like** reading books in my free time.*

Not: ~~*I am liking*~~ ~~*reading books in my free time.*~~

Some common stative verbs:

appear	include	see
be	know	seem
believe	like	taste
belong to	love	think
hate	need	understand
have	prefer	want

1. Complete using the correct present continuous form of the verbs in brackets. You may have to use some negative forms.

1. Gordon? I think he..... (**write**) a letter at the moment.
2. Yes, the match is on TV now, but we.....(**lose**).
3. Right now, Margaret..... (**have**) a shower. Do you want to ring later?
4. Sally.....(**stay**) with her aunt for a few days.
5. I.....(**lie**)! It's true! I did see Madonna at the supermarket.
6. Josh.....(**always / use**) my bike! It's so annoying.

7. We.....(**have**) lunch, but I can come round and help you later.

8. (you / **play**) music up there? It's really noisy!

2. Rewrite correctly. Change the words or phrases in bold.

1 **Are top musicians studying** for many years?

2 What's going on? I hope you **don't touch** my things!

3 It's a small business, so each person **is doing** lots of different jobs

4 **Does Christine listen** to the radio, or is that the TV I can hear?

5 I **am usually buying** a special ticket each week for the bus because it's cheaper.

6 Our washing machine **is starting** when you press this button

7 **How's the match going? Does our team win?**

8 Many people **are enjoying** spending time on the beach on holiday.

3. Circle the correct word or phrase.

1 I **work** / **am working** at the local library for the summer.

2 We **don't go** / **aren't going** to the theatre very often.

3 Stacy **gets** / **is getting ready for school, so she can't come to the phone.**

4 **Does Gary ever talk** / **Is Gary ever talking** about his expedition to the Amazon jungle?

5 In squash, **you hit** / **are hitting** a ball against a wall.

6 I **read** / **am reading** a newspaper at least once a week.

7 **Do you practise** / **Are you practising** the piano for two hours every day?

8 Nadine and Claire **do** / **are doing** quite well at school at the moment.

9 A good friend **knows** / **is knowing** when you're upset about something.

10 How **do you spell** / **are you spelling** your name?

4. Complete using the correct present simple or present continuous form of the verbs in the box. You may have to use some negative forms.

belong • do • have • help • hold • move • use • watch

1 In Monopoly, you.....around the board, buying houses and hotels.

2 you.....this programme or can I turn the TV off?

3 Regular exercise.....you to stay healthy.

4 I.....my brother's guitar until I get a new one.

5 Simon always.....the washing-up after lunch?

6 you.....any sweaters in a larger size?

7 You.....the kite right. Let me show you.

8 Dad.....to the local astronomy club.

5. Underline ten verbs in the wrong tense and rewrite them correctly.

'One game I am loving is backgammon. You are throwing the dice and then you move your pieces around the board. It is seeming quite easy, but in fact you are needing to be quite careful. When your piece lands on one of the other person's pieces, you are taking it off the board and you send it back to the beginning. You are winning by getting all your pieces to the end and off the board. Some people are preferring chess, but I am not understanding that game. Right now, I wait to have a game with my brother. He does his homework. I usually win, so I think he doesn't want to play a game with me!'

1.....

2.....

3.....

4.....

5.....

6.....

7.....

8.....

9.....

10.....

SELF-STUDY

1. Read and translate the text.

ATHENS AND SPARTA.

The ancient Greek empire was a mountainous land. It included many small islands that were separated by seas. Because of this geography, contact between regions was difficult. The empire's city-states maintained individual governments and built their own power.

Each city-state had its unique idea about the way people should live. Some were ruled by a single leader. Others gave citizens a voice in government.

Sometimes the citystates supported each other as allies. At other times, they challenged each other's power. In the two largest citystates— Athens and Sparta— citizens led very different lives!

Sparta was a military society governed by a small group of men. A Spartan boy was raised to be a soldier. A Spartan girl was thought to be useless as a warrior—and thus without value. Most of the work in Sparta was done by slaves. The Spartan men were usually off fighting in the army. The Spartans had little interest in philosophy, art, or music.

By contrast, the Athenians gave less thought to warfare. Athens was a wealthy city. Its wealth allowed the people to enjoy life. They created marble statues, built fine temples, and made their city one of the most beautiful in the world. Actors performed plays in outdoor amphitheaters. Great teachers, like Socrates, encouraged Athenians to question their world and think about right and wrong. Athenians developed a democratic government. A constitution declared that all free men were citizens with the right to vote. While Athenians did have slaves, some citizens questioned the practice. Many other Greek city-states admired the Athenian way of life and adopted their ideas of democracy.

Sparta, however, greatly resented Athens' growing power. In 421 B.C., Sparta led some other city-states in a war for control of Greece. This war, called the Peloponnesian War, lasted 27 years! It finally ended when a plague broke out in Athens. With one-fourth of its population dead from the illness, Athens could no longer hold out. In 404 B.C. Athens finally surrendered to Sparta.

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What seven-letter plural noun from the reading means "land masses smaller than continents and surrounded by water"? **i** _____
2. What ten-letter noun from the reading means "the study of human thought about the meaning of life and about right and wrong"? **p** _____
3. What ten-letter noun from the reading means "all the people living in a country, city, or other specific region"? **p** _____

4. Use the clues to complete the puzzle with words from the reading.

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. captive servants | s _ a _ _ s |
| 2. house of worship | t _ _ p _ e |
| 3. felt angry about | r _ s _ n _ _ d |
| 4. a body of laws | c _ _ _ _ t _ _ _ _ n |
| 5. quarreled about | c _ a _ _ e _ _ _ d |
| 6. backed up | s _ _ p _ _ _ _ d |
| 7. sculpted likenesses | s _ _ _ _ _ _ |
| 8. because of this | t _ _ s |

5. Historical dates may be labeled B.C. or A.D. Numbers followed by B.C. are dated from before the birth of Jesus Christ. Numbers preceded by A.D. are dated from after the birth of Christ. According to the reading, the Peloponnesian War began in 431 B.C. and ended in 404 B.C.

Use this information to answer the following questions.

1. Which came first, 431 B.C. or 404 B.C.? _____
2. Which came first, 2000 B.C. or 31 B.C.? _____
3. Which came first, A.D. 1994 or 2404 B.C.? _____
4. Which came first, A.D. 1999 or A.D. 1521? _____
5. From 550 B.C. to 479 B.C. the Persians tried to conquer Greece. Their many attacks failed. Which came first, the Peloponnesian War or the Persian Wars?

6. When using the abbreviation B.C., which comes first—the date or the abbreviation? _____
7. When using the abbreviation A.D., which comes first—the date or the abbreviation? _____

6. Think about the similarities and differences between Sparta and Athens. Then complete the *Venn diagram* below. In the first section, list qualities unique to Sparta. In the last section, list qualities unique to Athens. In the center section, list qualities shared by both Athens and Sparta.

SPARTA	BOTH	ATHENS

7. The word Spartan is still part of our language today. Look up *Spartan* in a dictionary and write the meaning below.

Grammar:
Past tenses 1: past simple; past continuous; *used to*; *would*.

PAST SIMPLE, PAST CONTINUOUS, *used to*

statement	negative	question
I/you/he/she/it/we/they played ..	I/you/he/she/it/we/they did not (didn't) play ...	Did I/you/he/she/it/we/they play...?

Use	Example
Completed actions	<i>I saw the new James Bond film yesterday.</i>
Repeated actions in the past	<i>I went to the theatre four times last month.</i>
General truths about the past	<i>Fifty years ago, people didn't spend as much on entertainment as they do today.</i>
Main events in a story	<i>Josh pushed the door open and looked inside the room.</i>

HELPFUL HINTS

The past simple is often used with the following words and phrases:

- *yesterday*
- *last week/summer/year/etc*
- *in January/2001/etc*
- *an hour/a week/a year ago*

PAST CONTINUOUS

statement	negative	question
I/he/she/it was playing ... You/we/they were playing ...	I/he/she/it was not (wasn't) playing ... You/we/they were not (weren't) playing....	Was I/he/she/it playing? Were you/we/they playing?

Use	Example
Actions happening at a moment in the past	<i>At nine o'clock last night, I was watching TV</i>
Two actions in progress at the same time	<i>I was reading a book while you were doing washing-up.</i>

Background information in a story	<i>It was raining so Wendy decided to go to the cinema.</i>
-----------------------------------	--

HELPFUL HINTS

The past continuous is often used with the following words and phrases:

- *at that moment*
- *at one/two/etc o'clock*

When one action in the past happens in the middle of another, we use the past simple and the past continuous together.

/ The phone rang while I was watching a DVD.

We do not use the past continuous for regular or repeated actions in the past.

X Last year, ~~I was going to the cinema every weekend.~~

used to

used to + bare infinitive statement	negative	question
<i>I/he/she/it was playing ... I/you/he/she/it/we/they used to ...</i>	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they never used to .. I/you/he/she/it/we/they didn't use to ..</i>	<i>Did I/you/he/she/it/we/they use to ...?</i>

Use	Example
Distant past habits and states	<i>When I was four, I used to eat ice cream every day.</i>

1. Complete using the correct past simple form of the verbs in the box. You may have to use some negative forms.

come • give • go • have • know • make • send • take

1 I got to the post office just before it closed and.....the letter.

2 We invited Stephanie to the party, but she..... .

3 Jack lost his job because he.....too many mistakes.

4 Everyone....that it was Bill's fault, but nobody said anything.

5 Karen.....the keys from the kitchen table and ran out the door.

6 I was bored, so Mum.....me some money to go shopping.

7 Do you remember the time we.....to India on holiday?

8 It started raining, but luckily I.....an umbrella in my bag.

2. Complete using the correct past continuous form of the verbs in brackets.

Ted.....(play) his guitar at half past seven. At midnight, I

At midnight, I.....(sleep), but Jane.....(listen) to music.

Luke.....(stand) outside the bank when suddenly two robbers ran past him.

I know Doug.....(work) late at the office because I saw him when.....(leave).

.....you.....(have) a shower when the earthquake happened?

Penny(run) to catch the bus when she slipped and fell.

When you saw Eugene.....he.....(go) home?

At midnight? Erm .. we.....(watch) a DVD, I think.

3. Circle the correct word or phrase.

1 When we were in Canada, we **went / were going** skiing almost every day.

2 About four years ago, I **decided / was deciding** to become a chef.

3 Georgia **had / was having** a shower when someone knocked at the door.

4 Holly and I ran from the house to the taxi because it **rained / was raining** heavily.

5 Two men **argued / were arguing** outside, so I went to see what was happening.

6 Daniel **called / was calling** you at one o'clock yesterday, but you were here with me.

7 We **ate / were eating** breakfast when a letter came through the letter box.

8 As I walked past the window, I saw that Paula **made / was making** a cake.

9 I **dreamt / was dreaming** about my favourite band when the alarm clock went off.

10 While I **practised / was practising** the trumpet late last night, a neighbour came to complain.

4. Complete using the correct past simple or past continuous form of the verbs given below.

answer • be • continue • get • go • have • open • practise • put • ring • say • shine • sing • wake

One morning, Amber (1)..... up early. The sun (2)..... and the birds (3)..... . Amber (4)..... very excited because it was the day of the big tennis match. Amber (5)..... downstairs and into the kitchen, where her father (6)..... breakfast. 'Morning, Amber. Today's the day!' he (7)..... . Amber smiled nervously. 'Don't worry!' he (8)..... . 'You'll be fine.' Amber (9)..... some toast into the toaster and (10)..... the fridge. Just as she (11)..... the butter out, the phone (12)..... . Her father (13)..... it. After a few minutes, he put the phone down. 'Bad news, I'm afraid. The other player (14)..... yesterday when she had an accident. The match is off.' Amber ate her toast slowly. She was surprised she didn't feel

disappointed.

5. Complete using the correct form of used to. You may have to use some negative forms.

When I was younger, I..... eat pizza almost every day!

..... there..... be a supermarket on the corner?

Bradley is a teacher, but he want to be a train driver

I like eating cabbage, but now I love it!

..... Rick..... have blond hair when he was a little boy?

I know Lily..... cook much, but now I think she makes dinner every day.

THEME 2. The Aztec Legend of Tenochtitlan

1. Read and translate the text.

THE AZTEC LEGEND OF TENOCHTITLAN

In central Mexico, volcanic mountains ring a large bowl of land. Around A.D. 1200, a group of wanderers arrived there to settle the region—the Valley of Mexico. Some of these people were a tribe who would become known as the Aztecs. Unfortunately, they drifted from the north just when wars between small city-states were being fought in central Mexico.

Forced to defend themselves, the Aztec nomads became excellent warriors. According to legend, they received word from Huitzilopochtli (wheet-zee-loh-POHS-tee)—their god of the sun and of warfare.

“Search for an eagle perched on a cactus!” the great god commanded. “The bird will grasp a snake in its beak. Where you find the eagle and cactus, build your city.”

The legend says that the Aztecs finally saw the sign they were looking for. It was on a swampy island in Lake Texcoco (tay-SKOH-koh). There the tribe settled. They stopped hunting and became a farming society. They called their new home Tenochtitlan (tay-nawch-tee-TLAHN)—the “Place of the Cactus.” In time, it became the heart of a great empire.

Because it was a swampland, Tenochtitlan could not grow enough crops to feed its population. So Aztec builders constructed reed rafts in shallow parts of the lake. They used tree branches to anchor these rafts to the lake bed. Then they blanketed the rafts with fertile mud from the lake bottom. The rich soil on these chinampas—or floating gardens—was ideal for growing corn, squash, and beans. This method of farming turned the swampy island of Tenochtitlan into a powerful capital city.

The Aztecs ruled there for hundreds of years—until the Spanish conquistadors arrived. In 1521, the Spaniards captured Tenochtitlan and conquered the Aztec empire. Today, Mexico City stands on the site where Tenochtitlan once stood.

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What eight-letter adjective in the reading describes a mountain that may erupt with molten rock that has built up inside? **v** _____

2. What six-letter noun in the reading means “low land that lies among or between hills or mountains”? **v** _____

3. What ten-letter plural noun in the reading means “cities that are independent political states, each with its own government”? **c** _____

4. What six-letter noun in the reading names a fleshy fruit that grows on a vine and can be cooked and eaten as a vegetable? **s** _____

4. Writers often try to use verbs that create a colorful picture for the reader.

Use the boldface verb in each sentence as a puzzle clue. The answer word will be a more colorful synonym (word with a similar meaning) from the reading.

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| 1. The eagle will hold a snake in its beak. | g _ _ _ _ |
| 2. The Spaniards took over Tenochtitlan. | c _ _ _ _ _ _ _ |
| 3. The tribe moved down from the north. | d _ _ _ _ _ |
| 4. The eagle will be standing on a rock. | p _ _ _ _ _ |
| 5. They covered the rafts with fertile soil. | b _ _ _ _ _ _ _ |

5. Many words in English come from other languages. The word *conquistadors*, which appears in the reading, is borrowed from Spanish. So are the other words listed in the first column.

Write a letter by the number to match each word with its meaning. Check a dictionary if you need help.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1. _____ conquistadors | a. brick made of sun-dried clay |
| 2. _____ mustang | b. any of the early Spanish conquerors of Mexico and Peru |
| 3. _____ rodeo | c. a very rich deposit of ore |
| 4. _____ patio | d. a donkey |
| 5. _____ mesa | e. a small wild or partly wild horse of America's southwestern plains |
| 6. _____ bonanza | |
| 7. _____ adobe | |

8. _____ burro

f. a courtyard around which a house is built, or a paved area near the house

g. a large, high rock with steep sides and a flat top

h. competition in which contestants ride horses and rope cattle

6. Some of the difficult names in the reading are rewritten to help readers pronounce them correctly. The syllable (word part) written in capital letters is accented to show that it should be pronounced with the most emphasis. Example: *Texcoco* (tay-SKOH-koh).

Rewrite each boldface word from the reading to show how it is correctly pronounced. Divide each word into syllables. Write the accented syllable or syllables in capital letters. Use a dictionary if you need help. The first one has been done for you.

1. Mexico MEX i co
2. cactus _____
3. legend _____
4. Spanish _____

Grammar:

Present perfect: present perfect simple; present perfect continuous.

PRESENT PERFECT SIMPLE

have (has) + Past Participle

statement	negative	question
I/you/we/ they have ('ve) learnt He/she/it has ('s) learnt	I/you/we/they have not (haven't) learnt ... He/she/it has not (hasn't) learnt	Have I/you /we/they learnt...? Has he/she/it learnt?

Use	Example
Situations that started in the past and are still true	Mrs Jenkins has been the head teacher for three years.
Completed actions at a time in the past which is not mentioned	I've already read that book
Completed actions where the important thing is the result now	They've all done their homework.

HELPFUL HINTS

The present perfect simple is often used with the following words and phrases:

- *for* She's taught German here for over five years
- *since* Mr Gray has taught French here since 2006.
- *just* We've just done this exercise.
- *already* We've already done this exercise.
- *yet* We haven't checked the answers yet.
- *ever* Have you ever had guitar lessons?
- *never* I've never understood why they give us so much homework!
- *it's the first time* It's the first time we've watched a video in class.

Present perfect simple

We don't use the present perfect simple **when** we want to say when something happened in the past. We use the past simple.

*/I **did** my homework **last night**.*

We don't use the past simple when we want to show that something happened **before now** or is **still important now**. We use the present perfect simple.

*/I've **finished**! Can I go home now?*

Some verbs have irregular past participle.

PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

have/has + been + -ing

statement	negative	question
<i>I /you/we/they have ('ve) been studying ...</i> <i>He/she/it has('s) been studying...</i>	<i>I/you/we/they have not (haven't) been studying ...</i> <i>He/she/it has not (hasn't) been studying</i>	<i>Have I/you/we/they been studying...?</i> <i>Has he/she/it been studying...?</i>

Use	Example
Actions continuing up to now or just before now	<i>We've been doing grammar exercises for over an hour.</i> <i>They're having a break now because they've been working so hard.</i>

HELPFUL HINTS

The present perfect continuous is often used with the following words:

- *for* I've been learning English for over three years.
- *since* He's been learning Chinese since 2004.
- *just* I've just been reading the school newspaper.

The present perfect simple often emphasises the result of an action:

/ *She's **written** an article for the school newspaper.* (= She's finished it.)

• The present perfect continuous often emphasises the action, and the time spent on the action, rather than the result:

/ *She's **been writing** an article for the school newspaper.* (= She's started, but she hasn't finished it yet.)

1. Complete using the correct present perfect simple form of the verbs in brackets.

- 1 I.....(**see**) this film already.
- 2 John and Julie..... (**had**) their car for about a year.
- 3 She (**not / take**) her driving test yet.
- 4 Sue (**be**) a tour guide since she left university.
- 5 (**you/ ride**) into town on your new bike yet?
- 6 This new computer..... (**make**) my life a lot easier.
- 7 We (**not / decide**) what to get Mark for his birthday yet.
- 8 (**Paul / ever / meet**) a famous person?

2. Choose the correct answer.

- 1..... never played this game before.
A I've B I
- 2 Adam his room last night.
A has tidied B tidied
- 3 here since 2005?
A Have you lived B Did you live
- 4 Carol and I to the cinema three nights ago.
A have been B went
- 5 It's the first time our flat, isn't it?
A you've visited B you visited
- 6 They the baby a name yet.
A haven't given B didn't give
- 7 to New York when you went to the States last summer?
A Have you been B Did you go
- 8 an e-mail before?
A Have you ever sent B Did you ever send

3. Complete using the correct present perfect continuous form of the verbs in brackets. Use short forms where possible.

Mandy: Hi Matt. How are you? What (1) (you/ do) recently?

Matt: Oh, hi Mandy! Well, (2) (I / study) for my exams.

Mandy: That sounds boring! (3) (you/ work) hard?

Matt: Very! Basically, (4) (I / just / sit) at my desk in my bedroom for the past three weeks and (5) (I / not / go) out at all.

(6) (I / work) with Michael, my best friend, some of the time, though, so at least I've had some company. How about you?
 Mandy: Well, my mum and (7) (I / paint) my bedroom for the last few days. That has been fun! And (8) (we / also / plan) our summer holiday.
 Matt: Great! Where are you going?
 Mandy: Well, we haven't decided yet. (9) (We / look) at different places to see which we like best.
 Matt: I'm sure you'll have a great time, wherever you go. Oh, by the way, (10) (I / think) of having a party when I finish my exams. Would you like to come?
 Mandy: Sure! That would be great!

4. Circle the correct word or phrase.

- 1 I think I've **heard** / **been hearing** that song before.
- 2 They haven't **arrived** / **been arriving** yet, but they should be here soon.
- 3 You've **written** / **been writing** that e-mail for over an hour. How long is it going to take you?
- 4 Have you **talked** / **been talking** on the phone since eight o'clock?
- 5 Jo has already **invited** / **been inviting** Shirley to dinner.
- 6 I've **read** / **been reading** an interview with Brad Pitt, but I haven't finished it yet.
- 7 Have the boys **played** / **been playing** computer games since this morning?

5. Complete using the words in the box.

already • ever • for • just • never • since • yet

- 1 I haven't listened to their new CD Is it any good?
- 2 I've been waiting for you over an hour. Where have you been?
- 3 Have you been to the UK before?
- 4 I'm afraid we've made plans for this weekend, so we won't be free.
- 5 Pedro has been having English lessons he was five years old.
- 6 It's strange that you mention the film Crash. I've been reading about it in the paper.
- 7 I've heard of a 'sudoku'. What is it?

SELF-STUDY

1. Read and translate the text.

ELLIS ISLAND: THE GOLDEN DOOR

Ellis Island was the port of entry for more than 16 million immigrants to the United States. Some called this island in New York Harbor the "Gateway to the New World." Others saw it as a "Golden Door" to opportunity. For yet others, it was a scary place—an "island of tears." Newcomers, most of whom did not speak

English, had to answer questions. “Do you have relatives in America? Have you got a job? Have you ever been arrested?” Doctors checked each person’s physical and mental health. Actually, few newcomers were sent home.

About 98 percent of those examined at Ellis Island were allowed to enter the country. The U.S. government used Ellis Island as an immigration station from 1892 until 1924. The station closed completely in 1954. In 1965, the island became a national historic site, part of the Statue of Liberty Monument.

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What ten-letter plural noun from the reading means “those who come into a foreign country to make a new home”? **i** _____

2. What eight-letter noun from the reading means “something, such as a statue or building, erected in memory of people or events”?
m _____

3. What eight-letter noun from the reading means “official identification a person uses when traveling in foreign countries”?
p _____

4. The reading explains that many immigrants saw Ellis Island as a Golden Door. Gold is often used to stand for, or symbolize, good things—wealth, good times, good fortune. Many colors stand for ideas or feelings.

Use context clues to figure out which idea the boldface color symbolizes in each sentence below. Circle the letter of your choice.

1. The **red** warning sign was posted next to the elevator.

a. danger b. good luck c. death

2. The pirate had a **black** heart that knew no mercy.

a. warmth b. love c. evil

3. The young bride wore a **white** dress and veil.

a. danger b. fear c. purity

4. “I’m not **yellow**,” whispered Frederick as he stood on the high diving board. “I’m just cautious!”

a. fear, cowardice

b. anger, hatred

c. gentleness, kindness

5. When Andrea saw her boyfriend with another girl, the **green**-eyed monster gripped her soul!

a. love b. jealousy c. evil

5. In the sentences below, replace each italicized word with its synonym (word with a similar meaning) above.

Immigrant, opportunities, peak, port

1. The *newcomer* nervously answered questions at Ellis Island.

2. Millions of people from foreign lands sailed into the *harbor* of Ellis Island.

3. The *height* of immigration came between 1900 and 1909.

4. New arrivals hoped to find *chances* for a better life.

Grammar:

Past tenses 2: past perfect simple; past perfect continuous.

PAST PERFECT SIMPLE

had + past participle

statement	negative	question
I/you/he/she/it/we/they had ('d) written... .	I/you/he/she/it/we/they had not (hadn't)written.	Had I/you/he/she/it/we/they written...?

Use	Example
Actions and states before a moment in the past	I'd finished my homework a few minutes before the lesson started. Mrs Cross had been a teacher for twenty years before she became a head teacher.
Finished actions and states where the important thing is the result at a moment in the past	We were happy because we'd all done our homework.

HELPFUL HINTS

The past perfect simple is often used with the following words and phrases:

- *by I'd finished my homework **by** eight o'clock.*
- *by the time **By the time** I got to class, the lesson had started.*
- *before The teacher had checked the answers **before** the lesson.*
- *after I left **after** I'd finished the test.*
- *just Simon had **just** finished the test when the bell rang.*
- *when I left **when** I'd finished the test.*

Whether we use the past simple or the past perfect simple can change the meaning of a sentence.

/ *The lesson started when I arrived.* (= I arrived and then the lesson started.)

/ *The lesson had started when I arrived.* (= The lesson started and then I arrived.)

The past perfect simple often emphasises the result of an action.

PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

had + been + -ing

statement	negative	question
I/you/he/she/it/we/they had ('d) been writing...	I/you/he/she/it/we/they had not (hadn't) been writing ...	Had I/you/he/she/it/we/they been writing...?

Use	Example
Actions continuing up to, or stopping just before, a moment in the past	<i>We'd been doing grammar exercises for over an hour, so we were really bored!</i> <i>They had a break because they'd been working so hard.</i>

The past perfect continuous is often used with the following words and phrases:

- *for Tony had been studying **for** hours, so he had a headache.*
- *since She'd been hoping to win the competition **since** the summer.*
- *before We'd been talking about the Internet **before** the lesson started.*
- *all day/night/etc I'd been studying **all day**.*

The past perfect continuous often emphasises the action, and the time spent on the action, rather than the result:

/ *She'd **written** an article for the school newspaper.* (= She'd finished it.)

/ *She'd **been writing** an article for the newspaper.* (= She'd started, but she hadn't finished)

it.)

1. Complete using the correct past perfect simple form of the verbs in brackets.

By the time I arrived, everyone (**leave**)!

Steve..... (**already / see**) the film, so he didn't come with us to the cinema.

Tina..... (**not/ finish**) doing the housework by seven o'clock, so she called

..... (**you/ just / speak**) to Billy when I rang?

The car broke down just after (**we / set off**).

I didn't eat anything at the party because(I / **already / eat**) at home.

..... (**you/ hear**) about the accident before you saw it on TV?

2. Choose the sentence (A or B) which means the same as the first sentence.

- 1 We'd had dinner when Wendy arrived.
A Wendy arrived and then we had dinner.
B We had dinner and then Wendy arrived.
- 2 I read the book after I'd seen the film.
A I saw the film and then I read the book.
B I read the book and then I saw the film.
- 3 By the time Dad came home, I'd gone to bed.
A I went to bed before Dad came home.
B I went to bed after Dad came home.
- 4 She didn't go to bed until her mum had come home.
A She went to bed and then her mum came home.
B Her mum came home and then she went to bed.
- 5 Mr Banks hadn't arrived at the office by the time I got there.
A I arrived before Mr Banks.
B Mr Banks arrived before me.
- 6 They'd bought the plane tickets before they heard about the cheaper flight.
A They bought the plane tickets and later they heard about the cheaper flight.
B They heard about the cheaper flight and then they bought the plane tickets.
- 7 The girls had tidied the house when the visitors arrived.
A The visitors arrived and later the girls tidied the house.
B The girls tidied the house and then the visitors arrived.

3. Write sentences using the prompts. One of the verbs must be in the past perfect simple.

1 we / just / hear / the news / when / you / ring

2 I / already / think of / that / before / you / suggest / it

3 when / I / turn on / the TV / the programme / already / start

4 she / be / hungry / because / she / not / eat / anything / all day

5 by the time / I leave / school / I / decide / to become / a musician

4. Choose the correct answer.

1 I'd only the washing-up for a few minutes when Clare came home, so she offered to finish it.

A done B been doing

2 Had you already James his birthday present when we gave him ours?

A given B been giving

3 Gail hadn't me that she would help me, so I wasn't angry when she didn't.

A told B been telling

4 Mum had her cup of tea for several minutes before she realised it had salt in it!

A drunk B been drinking

5 We'd ready all day when they called to say the party had been cancelled.

A got B been getting

6 It was a fantastic experience because I'd never in a plane before.

A flown B been flying

THEME 3. The Remarkable Road of the Inca Empire

1. Read and translate the text.

THE REMARKABLE ROAD OF THE INCA EMPIRE

Throughout the 15th century and into the 16th, a mighty empire thrived along the west coast of South America. This was the land of the Inca. It was ruled by an emperor believed to be the son of the sun god. This godly mortal, known as the Sapa Inca, faced a daunting job. He needed to figure out a way to unite his vast lands and many peoples.

The emperor decided to link the parts of his empire with an amazing system of roads. This was a time when most European roads were dirt tracks. Eventually, the Inca roads covered 12,000 miles of desert and mountains. Builders stretched bridges across rivers and canyons. They cut tunnels through mountains and chiseled steps into slopes. The incredible Inca engineers tackled varied climates and terrain—from steep, icy mountain sides to windswept lowlands and steaming jungles.

The Royal Road of the Inca may well be the world's greatest feat of engineering. It ran more than 1,250 miles—between the capital, Cuzco, and the city of Quito in the north of the empire. For most of its length, the roadway was arrow-straight and 24 feet wide. The paving stones fit tightly together like pieces of a jigsaw puzzle. Trees gave shade, and a stream flowing in a roadside ditch provided water.

The Inca road system was off-limits to commoners—farmers or crafts people, for example. Regular travelers included the Sapa Inca's warriors and

messengers. Relay teams carried news throughout the empire. They had to memorize their messages. Why? Because the Inca had no system of written language. A message could travel the 1,250 miles from Quito to Cuzco in five days. Travelers journeyed the Royal Road by foot—perhaps accompanied by a llama to carry gear. Despite their engineering genius, the Incas had not invented the wheel!

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What seven-letter plural noun from the reading means “long, narrow valleys with high cliffs on each side”? **c**_____
2. What seven-letter noun from the reading means “the usual patterns of weather conditions in a certain place”? **c**_____
3. What seven-letter noun from the reading means “the ground, or an area of land”? **t**_____
4. What five-letter adjective from the reading describes an event in which each member of a team runs only a certain part of the whole distance? **r**_____

4. Complete the puzzle with words from the reading. Clue words are synonyms (words with a similar meaning) of the answer words.

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. remarkable, amazing | i _ c _ _ d _ _ _ _ |
| 2. prospered, flourished | t _ _ _ _ _ |
| 3. human | m _ _ _ _ _ |
| 4. fearsome, dismaying | d _ _ _ _ _ |
| 5. carved | c _ _ _ _ _ |
| 6. trench, channel | d _ t _ _ |

5. Circle the correct homonym in each sentence below.

Homonyms are words that sound the same but have different spellings and meanings. For example, the words bear (the animal) and bare (without covering) are homonyms.

1. The Royal Road was 1,250 (feat / feet) long.
2. The Inca believed their emperor was the (sun / son) of a god.
3. The Inca worshipped the (sun / son), which gave them light and warmth.
4. The Inca had amazing roads, but they had not invented the (wheel / we'll).
5. Cuzco was the (capital / capitol) city of the empire.
6. Each stone fit together like a (piece / peace) of a jigsaw puzzle.

6. Write a compound word from the reading to complete each sentence.

1. Artisans who craft tools and goods are called _____.
2. An area that is banned or forbidden is said to be _____.
3. A paved surface used for travel is called a _____.
4. The land bordering a traveler's route may be called the _____.
5. _____ are regions that are lower than the land around them.

7. Words that end in -or, -er, or -eer often name people, such as doctors, hikers, and pioneers, who "do something."

Complete each sentence with a word from the reading that ends with one of these suffixes. Check a dictionary if you need help.

1. An _____ plans and designs roads, bridges, buildings, and such.
2. A _____ erects buildings and other structures.
3. A _____ tills the soil before planting, growing, and harvesting crops.
4. One who journeys from place to place is a _____.
5. In all ages and places, _____ fight in wars.

Grammar:

Future 1. Plans, intentions, predictions: present continuous; *going to*; *will*.

Present continuous

We use the present continuous to talk about **plans** or definite **arrangements** for the future:

We're staying in a small hotel. (we have made the arrangements)

Notice that time expressions are used or understood from the context in order to show that we are talking about the future (and not the present):

The manager is having a party just after we get back. (time expression given)

We're playing four matches there. (future time expression understood)

Will

+ will + verb	<i>We'll enjoy it.</i>
- will not (won't) + verb	<i>He won't enjoy it.</i>
? will ... + verb	<i>Will they enjoy it?</i>

We use **will**

- to make **predictions**, usually based on our opinions or our past experience:
*I think it'll **be** extremely hot there.*
- to talk about future events we haven't arranged yet:
*We'll probably **stay** in some sort of mountain lodge there.*
- to talk about future events or facts that are not personal:
*The best player on the tour **will get** a special trophy.*
*The prime minister **will open** the debate in parliament tomorrow.*
- to talk about something we decide to do at the time of speaking:
*Tell me all about it and I'll **pass on** the information to the rest of the team.*

We often use **will** to make **offers, promises** or **suggestions**:

*Don't worry, I'll **let** everyone know. (a **promise**)*

Going to

+ am/is/are + going to + verb	<i>We're going to hire a bus.</i>
- am/is/are not + going to + verb	<i>He is not going to hire a bus.</i>
? am/is/are ... + going to + verb	<i>Are they going to hire a bus?</i>

Going to often means the same as the present continuous and **will**.

We use **going to**

- to talk about events in the future we have already thought about and **intend to do**:
*We're **going to hire** a bus. (we **intend to go**, but we haven't made the arrangements yet)*
*We're **going to get** a boat to a couple of the islands.*
- to make **predictions** when there is present evidence:
*Well, we're **certainly going to have** a varied trip. (I am judging this from what I know about the **plans**)*
Going to and **will** can follow words like **think, doubt, expect, believe, probably, certainly, definitely, be sure** to show that it is an opinion about the future:
*I **think** it's **going to be** a great trip.*
*I'm **sure** we'll **enjoy** it whatever the weather.*
*It'll **probably rain** every day.*

We can often choose different future forms to talk about the same future situation. It depends on the speaker's ideas about the situation:

Present continuous or going to?	
<i>The manager is having a party when we get back. (definite arrangement)</i>	<i>We're going to hire a bus and then drive through the mountains. (less definite arrangement - we haven't booked the bus yet)</i>

Going to or will?	
<i>We're going to have a very varied trip!</i> (prediction based on what I know about the weather)	<i>I'm sure we'll enjoy it.</i> (prediction based on my guess)

Often there is very little difference between **going to** and **will** for predictions.

Grammar extra: Making predictions using words other than will

In formal writing we often use expressions other than **will** to predict the future (e.g. **be likely to, be predicted to, be estimated to, be certain to**):

*The population **is likely** to increase to 22 million in 2011.*

*The average annual rainfall **is predicted** to be ten per cent lower than today's figures.*

1. Fill in the gaps in the second half of this model answer with phrases from the box.

Thanks to modern technology, there have been enormous changes in the workplace over the past 100 years.

What are the most significant changes that have occurred and what changes do you foresee in the next 100 years?

are going to feel are likely to occur will be will find	are going to happen are predicted will continue will have	are likely to lead to is likely to become will develop will result
--	--	---

So, now let us consider the changes that 1 are likely to occur in the next 100 years. Unfortunately, I believe that not all changes 2 _____ for the better. For example, in the future more and more people 3 _____ from home and so they 4 _____ more isolated from their colleagues. On the other hand they 5 _____ (certainly) greater freedom to choose their working hours.

A further possible change is that handwriting 6 _____ obsolete. We are already so used to using a keyboard that today's children are losing the ability to spell without the aid of a word processor

Without a doubt even greater changes 7 _____ in technology used in the

workplace. Computers 8 _____ (undoubtedly) to grow even more powerful and this 9 _____ (probably) in an even faster pace of life than we have now. Let us hope that our employers 10 _____ a way to reduce the stress on workers this fast pace can bring. I also think these improvements in technology 11 _____ even more globalization than now and companies 12 _____ very strong international links.

2. Underline the most suitable form of the verbs.

Dear Paul and Claire

We're having a wonderful time here in France. The weather is beautiful and we've got lots of plans for how to spend the next couple of weeks. Tomorrow 1 *we're going out / we will go out* on a glass-bottomed boat to look at the wonderful sea life, and then on Wednesday we think 2 *we're taking / we'll take* a tour of the old town. Ollie's aunt lives quite close, so 3 *we're visiting / we're going to visit* her too if we have time.

The hotel is lovely and lively and has lots of good night life. Tonight 4 *they're holding / they'll hold* an international evening, with lots of food from different countries.

As you know, we're here with our friends, John and Wendy, but 5 *they aren't staying / they won't stay* as long as us, so 6 *we're probably doing / we'll probably do* the really 'touristy' things with them, and be lazy in our second week. You can hire small sailing boats for the day, so we think 7 *we're doing / we're going to do* that next week, and 8 *we're also going to try / we're also trying* to have time to do some shopping!

I hope you are ready for your big trip. 9 *You're loving / You'll Love* Australia. In fact 10 *you're going to probably end up / you'll probably end up* staying there much longer than you've planned.

Have a great time, and 11 *we're going to see / we'll see* you when you get back.

Love Kath and Ollie

3. Fill in the gaps with the present continuous or will-future form of the verbs in brackets.

Kirsty: Hi Elaine. It's Kirsty, here.

Elaine: Hello, how are you?

Kirsty: Fine. Listen, I know this is very short notice but are uou doing (1 do) anything tonight?

Elaine: Nothing why?

Kirsty: Well I(2 *take*) my class to the theatre, but one of them can't go. Would you like to come?

Elaine: I'd love to. What's the play about?

Kirsty: Oh, I.....(3 *tell*) you all about that a little later. I (4 *pick*) you up at 6.30 - is that okay?

Elaine: Yes, OK. Or how about meeting a bit earlier? We could have a coffee beforehand.

Kirsty: Well, I..... (5 *see*) the school principal at four, but I suppose I could come after that. My meeting.....(6 *probably/finish*) at about 5.30. Is that okay?

Elaine: Yes, of course. What time does the play actually start?

Kirsty: At 7.30, although we (7 *need*) to be there before as I (8 *meet*) my students at the theatre at seven. Afterwards they (9 *probably/want*) to talk about the play for a little while. But I hope that..... (10 *not/go on*) for too long. There (11 *..be*) plenty of time for us to discuss it at tomorrow's lesson.

Elaine: That's fine. I.....(12 *see*) you at 5.30!

4. Look at Shelley's diary and use the prompts to write sentences. Use the correct form of the present continuous.

meet Alison - Friends Café 1 On Monday, she

go shopping – Mum 2 On Tuesday, she

catch train - Brighton 3 On Wednesday, she

spend day - Charlie in Brighton 4 On Thursday, she.....

catch train - home - 10 am 5 On Friday, she.....

work – Dad's shop- all morning 6 On Saturday, she.....

5. Complete using *will* or *shall* and the verbs in the box. You may have to use some

negative forms.

be • come • find • have • lend • live • take • visit

- 1 This year, more than a million tourists our local area.
- 2 I'm sure we your bag soon. Where did you last see it?
- 3 youme some money until Saturday?
- 4 Everything on the menu looks delicious! Erm ... I Chicken Kiev, please.
- 5 I you to the bus station, if you like.
- 6 One day, people on Mars in special buildings.
- 7 No, there..... any problems with delivering your new furniture next week.
- 8 we at six to help you get things ready for dinner?

6. Complete using the correct form of *be going to* and the verbs in brackets. You may have to use some negative forms.

- 1 When I grow up, I (play) guitar in a rock group!
- 2 Rick and Mark....(start) going to the gym twice a week.
- 3 Lauren (tell) her mum about what happened?
- 4 I (look) on the Internet for information about snowboarding.
- 5 No, Nadine (invite) everyone from class - just her close friends.
- 6 Harry (be) ready on time or not?
- 7 Careful! You.....(break) something with that ball! Go outside!
- 8 I (lie down) for half an hour. Call me at six o'clock.

7. Circle the correct word or phrase.

- 1 Oscar says he is doing / will do the washing-up after dinner.
- 2 I'm a bit scared because I am seeing / will see the dentist this afternoon.
- 3 What are you going to do / do you do this evening?
- 4 Shall you tell / Will you tell Rupert I'm sorry about yesterday?
- 5 My dad will grow / is going to grow a beard, but my mum doesn't like the idea.
- 6 I have to revise tonight because we are having / will have an exam tomorrow.
- 7 I am remembering / will remember this day for the rest of my life!
- 8 Do you go / Are you going to Australia next Christmas?
- 9 I'm sure you are passing / will pass your driving test. Don't worry.
- 10 If you want me to, I will complain / am going to complain to the manager about it.

8. Choose the correct answer.

- 1 'Have you made plans for the summer?'
'Yes to Spain.'
A We'll go B We're going C We go
- 2 'We're moving house tomorrow.'

'Really? you with the furniture.'
 I help B I'm helping C I'll help
 3 'Do you need this paintbrush?'
 'Ah, yes it to me, please?'
 A Do you pass B Will you pass C Are you passing
 4 'What do you want to be when you grow up, Stevie?'
 '..... a scientist. That's what I want to do, anyway.'
 A I be B I'm going to be C I'm being
 'Oh, yes the match tomorrow, I expect.'
 A He'll win B He wins C He's winning
 6 'The weather has been terrible, hasn't it?'
 'Yes, I thinkagain later.'
 A it's going to rain B it's raining C it rains

SELF-STUDY

1. Read and translate the text.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN AND THE GETTYSBURG ADDRESS.

The United States of America was still less than 100 years old when it was torn in two by the Civil War. In 1861, bitter warfare broke out between the northern and southern states. The war was a clash of different ways of thinking, different customs, and different ways of life. In July of 1863, the tide of war turned in favor of the North. It was then that Union forces defeated Confederate troops at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. During that three-day battle, the loss of life on both sides was staggering! More than 23,000 Union soldiers died. About 28,451 men were lost from the Confederate ranks.

On November 19 of the same year, ceremonies were held to dedicate a cemetery on the Gettysburg battlefield. President Abraham Lincoln was asked to say a few words. The president came prepared with a short speech written on the back of an envelope. Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address" would become one of history's most powerful calls for democracy, equality, and freedom.

Lincoln began his speech by saying, "Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal." He ended with these words: "We here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom; and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the Earth."

The victory at Gettysburg and Lincoln's speech made a difference. His ringing declaration of democracy and equality seemed to promise that the end of the war was near. But the bitter battles and bloodshed continued until the Confederacy finally surrendered in 1865.

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What five-letter adjective from the reading means “of or within a country or government”? (Hint: It’s part of the name of a major U.S. war.)
c_____
2. What eleven-letter noun from the reading means “a public statement”?
d_____
3. What eight-letter verb from the reading means “to open something or some place with a formal ceremony”? d_____

4. Circle a letter to show how each sentence should be completed.

1. Four score and seven would be a period of
 - a. 27 years.
 - b. 87 years.
 - c. 107 years.
 - d. 127 years.
2. When Lincoln refers to “our fathers,” he means
 - a. the Union generals.
 - b. all American fathers and grandfathers.
 - c. Grandfather Lincoln.
 - d. The founding fathers of the United States.
3. To “die in vain” means to:
 - a. bleed to death.
 - b. die bravely.
 - c. die uselessly, for no good cause.
 - d. die in a bloody battlefield.
4. A government “of the people, by the people, for the people” could best be described as a:
 - a. dictatorship.
 - b. monarchy.
 - c. tyranny.
 - d. democracy.

5. Analogies are statements of relationship.

To come up with the missing word, you must figure out the relationship between the first two words. Then complete each analogy with a word from the reading that shows the same relationship.

1. North is to Union as South is to _____.
2. Dozen is to number 12 as score is to number _____.
3. Reign is to rain as vein is to _____.
4. King is to monarchy as president is to _____.

6. Complete the puzzle with words from the reading. Clue words are synonyms (words with a similar meaning) of the answer words.

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. proposal | p _ _ p _ _ i _ _ o _ |
| 2. graveyard | c _ _ _ t _ _ _ |
| 3. sour or harsh | b _ _ _ e _ |
| 4. envisioned | c _ _ _ _ i _ _ _ |
| 5. to give up | s _ r _ _ _ _ _ |
| 6. land mass | c _ _ t _ _ e _ _ |
| 7. die | p _ _ _ _ _ |

7. Unscramble the compound words to complete the sentences.

1. REFWRAA _____ raged for more than four years.
2. Many soldiers died on the FLEELABDITT _____.
3. The LOSBODHED _____ continued for four long years.

8. Figurative language is not intended to be taken literally.

Read the sentence pairs below. In one sentence, the italicized word is an example of figurative language. In the other, the word or phrase has a literal meaning. Circle the letter of the sentence that contains figurative language.

1. a. The *tide* of war turned in favor of the North.
b. The warship sailed on the outgoing *tide*.
2. a. The soldier was *staggering* from the blow to his head.
b. The loss of life on both sides was *staggering*!
3. a. The United States of America was *torn* in two by the Civil War.
b. The Union flag was *torn* in two by the Confederate soldiers.

Grammar:
**Future 2: present simple; be about to; future continuous;
future perfect.**

Present simple

We use the present simple with a future meaning

- to talk about **timetables** or **schedules**:

*The conference only **lasts** three days.*

*The train to the airport **leaves** in 20 minutes.*

- after conjunctions such as **when, as soon as, after, before, until, as long as**:

*I'll be feeling really nervous when I **get** to Rome, (**not** when I will get to Rome)*

*Can you do it before we **have** the departmental meeting? (**not** before we will have the meeting)*

Note that other present tenses are also possible:

*I won't be able to relax until I'm actually **giving** my talk.*

Be about to

+ am/is/are about to + verb	<i>I'm about to go to Rome.</i>
- am/is/are not about to + verb	<i>I'm not about to go to Rome.</i>
? am/is/are ... about to + verb	<i>Are you about to go to Rome?</i>

We use **be about to** to talk about something likely to happen in the immediate future:

*I'm **about to go** to Rome for a conference. (I will be leaving very soon)*

! The negative form suggests the speaker has no intention of doing something:

*I'm **not about to cancel** my trip. (= I have no intention of cancelling my trip)*

Future continuous

+ will be + verb + -ing	<i>I'll be feeling nervous.</i>
- will not (won't) be + verb + -ing	<i>She won't be feeling nervous.</i>
? will ... be + verb + -ing	<i>Will you be feeling nervous?</i>

We use the future continuous

- to describe or predict events or situations continuing at a particular point in the future or over a period of time in the future:

*I'll be **working** on the report all next week.*

*I'll be **thinking** of you in Rome.*

*By the year 2015 it is estimated that well over one billion people **will be learning** English.*

- to talk about events that are planned or already decided (this use is similar to the present continuous for future arrangements):

*I'll be **seeing** Sarah at lunch.*

Future perfect simple

+ will have + past participle	<i>I'll have done it by then.</i>
- will not (won't) have + past participle	<i>We won't have done it by then.</i>
? will ... + have + past participle	<i>Will you have done it by then?</i>

We use the future perfect simple to talk about a future event that will finish before a specified time in the future, often with **before**, **by** + fixed time, or **in** + amount of time:

*By the end of the year I **will have given** the same talk at 6 conferences!*

*I'll **have finished** it by next Friday.*

*In a week's time I'll **have written** the report.*

Future perfect continuous

+ will have been + verb + -ing	<i>I'll have been studying here for three months.</i>
- will not (won't) have been + verb + -ing	<i>We won't have been studying here for three months.</i>
? will ... + have been + verb + -ing	<i>How long will you have been studying here?</i>

We use the future perfect continuous to show how long an activity or situation has been in progress before a specified time in the future. We usually mention the length of time:

*By the end of the month I'll **have been working** here for three years.*

Grammar extra: The future in the past

We use **was/were going to**, **was/were planning to**, **was/were about to** + verb to talk something planned which did not or will not happen:

*I **was going to leave** this morning but they cancelled my flight.*

*We **were about to leave** when the phone rang.*

1. Complete the sentences about planned activities for Saturday using the future continuous tense.

Do sport play computer games read books watch TV study rest see friends

- 1 Twelve students will be watching TV on Saturday afternoon.
- 2 The students books on Saturday.
- 3 The largest group of studentsthis Saturday afternoon.
- 4 A similar number of students andthis weekend.
- 5 A very small number of students..... this weekend.
- 6 Approximately 15 students.....this weekend.

2. Write what you will be doing at the following times.

- 1 At six o'clock tomorrow I'll.....
- 2 Next Saturday afternoon I won't.....
- 3 On Sunday morning.....
- 4 In a year's time

3. Read the following projections about the future population of Australia.

Population projections

According to the latest available projections (which are based on several combinations of assumptions reflecting past trends in births, deaths and migration), the total population of Australia is likely to have increased to between 22.3 and 23.3 million by 2021.

The projected population will increase at a declining rate. The average annual growth rate is predicted to be between 0.5 and 0.8 during 2011-2021. Without overseas migration, the projected total population should peak at about 23.3 million in 2041, and then start to decline marginally.

Age distribution

The projected population will age progressively due to the increasing proportion of the elderly (aged 65 years or more) and the decreasing proportion of children (aged under 15 years). In brief, the number of persons aged under 15 is projected to be between 3.7 and 4.1 million in 2031; the population of working age (15-64 years) is projected to increase to between 14.4 and 15.0 million in 2031; and the number of persons aged 65 years or more is projected to increase to between 2.94 and 2.98 million in 2031. The projections also show significant increases in the number of persons aged 80 years or more.

4. Write the verbs in brackets in the future perfect tense. Then choose the correct ending for each sentence.

- 1 By the year 2021 the population of Australia will have reached (reach) **a** by the early 2040s.
- 2 The population of Australia **b** to almost 2.98 million.
..... (peak)
- 3 By the year 2031 the number of children aged under 15 **c** a maximum of 23.3 million.
..... (rise)
- 4 By 2031 the number of people of working age in Australia **d** to between 3.7 and 4.1 million.
..... (grow)
- 5 By 2031 the number of people aged 65 and over **e** significantly.
..... (go up)
- 6 By the year 2031 the number of people aged over 80 **f** to around 15 million.
..... (increase)

5. In six of these sentences there is a verb in the wrong tense. Underline each mistake and write the correction.

- 1 When I'll find the answer I'll let you know. I find
- 2 My exams finish on 27th June _____
- 3 I'll be fine in the interview as long as they won't ask me technical questions. _____
- 4 What time is your meeting about to start tomorrow? _____
- 5 I'll hand in my notice for this job after I'll get the contract for my new one. _____
- 6 I'll text you before we set off _____
- 7 The bus doesn't arrive until 7.30 in the evening _____
- 8 I've got my schedule for the Japan trip We're about to fly to Tokyo at 10 am on Monday, and then travel by train to Kyoto for one night _____
- 9 The moment I'll receive my results I'll phone you, _____

6. Fill in the gaps with a future form of the verbs in brackets .

Teacher: What will you be done (1 you/do) this time next year?

Student 1: Well, that's difficult to say but I hope that I.....(2 travel) round the world. Before then I(3 hopefully/save up) enough money for the ticket. I plan to end up in Australia and when I(4 get) there I'll get a job and earn some money. So, in a year's time I(5 probably/travel) for a few months already. I(6 visit) quite a lot of different countries by then too.

Teacher: What do you plan to do when you graduate?

Student 2: Well, my plans have changed a bit. I(7 do) a journalism course, but I didn't get accepted. So I've sorted something else out and I(8 start) a hospitality course tomorrow, actually. It's for six months, so I(9 not/finish) in time to go travelling next spring, unfortunately. However, as soon as I(10 find out) if I've passed the course, I can apply for a job in a hotel in Australia.

THEME 4. King Tutankhamen's Tomb

1. Read and translate the text.

KING TUTANKHAMEN'S TOMB

" . . . when we came to a golden shrine with doors closed and sealed, we realized we were to witness a spectacle such as no other man in our time had been privileged to see. . . ."

These words were written by British archeologist Howard Carter when he discovered the tomb of King Tutankhamen (toot-ahngKAH-muhn). King Tut, as the pharaoh has been called, ruled Egypt more than 3,300 years ago. Because he became ruler at age nine, he is sometimes called "the boy king."

When he died at age 18, Tut's people followed the usual funeral custom for kings. They buried him in a giant tomb. Treasures and items of daily life were buried along with him. It was 1922, in the Valley of the Kings (the site of about 30 other tombs), that Carter and his party discovered entrance doors. Until then, they had been hidden by debris from a nearby digging.

What Carter saw inside the tomb amazed him. "There, filling the entire area," he describes, "stood an immense, yellow sarcophagus. . . . A gasp of wonderment escaped our lips, so gorgeous was the sight that met our eyes. A golden effigy of the young king . . ."

The sarcophagus, or coffin, was carved with a lifelike gold mask of Tutankhamen.

Inside it was the boy king's clothwrapped mummy. The four-room tomb also held more than 5,000 objects. There were carved chests, golden thrones, beds, clothing, and necklaces. There were chariots, bows and arrows, swords, shields, and trumpets. The ancient Egyptians believed in life after death. They buried the king's favorite toys and games along with practical objects he could use in the afterlife. Howard Carter had uncovered a rare prize—the only tomb of an Egyptian pharaoh ever to be found that was almost completely undamaged.

The treasures of King Tut's tomb have traveled to museums around the world. Most of the items are on permanent display in the Egyptian Museum in Cairo, Egypt.

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What twelve-letter noun from the reading means “a scientist who studies ancient times and people by digging up the remains of past civilizations”?

a _____

2. What eleven-letter noun from the reading means “a decorated coffin found in a tomb”? s _____

4. Unscramble the words from the reading. Write each unscrambled word next to its synonym (word with a similar meaning).

MINEMES _____

FIGYEF _____

BMT0 _____

SIDYALP _____

1. likeness _____

2. vault _____

3. exhibition _____

4. huge _____

5. Complete the puzzle with words from the reading. Clues are definitions of the answer words.

1. an open, two-wheeled cart drawn by horses c _ _ _ _ _
2. seldom found or seen; unusual r _ _ _
3. a brass horn that makes a loud, blaring sound t _ _ m _ _ _
4. a tomb or any spiritual place containing sacred items s _ r _ _ _
5. useful in daily life p _ _ _ t _ _ _ _
6. a cloth-wrapped body kept from rotting by the use of chemicals m _ _ _ _

6. The Latin root *specto* means “look at.” The word *inspect*, for example, means “to look at closely.”

Read the list of words containing *specto*. Then write a letter to match each word with its meaning. Use a dictionary if you need help.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. _____ spectacle | a. a person who watches something |
| 2. _____ perspective | b. an especially unusual sight |
| 3. _____ spectator | c. eyeglasses |
| 4. _____ spectacles (a pair of) | d. the way things look from a certain point |

7. Analogies are statements of relationship.

To come up with the missing word, you must figure out the relationship between the first two words. Then, complete each analogy with a word from the reading that shows the same relationship.

1. *Marriage* is to *wedding* as *death* is to _____.
2. *Ancient Russia* is to *czar* as *ancient Egypt* is to _____.
3. *Impossible* is to *possible* as _____ is to *damaged*.
4. *Timothy* is to *Tim* as *Tutankhamen* is to _____.

8. Circle a letter to show the answer to each question.

1. What would you find in Egypt’s Valley of the Kings?
a. tombs
b. the capital of government
2. Why is King Tut called the “boy king”?
a. He ruled Egypt at a very young age.
b. He was young-looking for his age.
3. Why was King Tut’s tomb undiscovered for so long?
a. Its entrance was hidden by dirt and rocks from another digging.
b. It was much smaller than the other tombs.

Grammar:

Countable and uncountable nouns: countable and uncountable nouns; quantity expressions (*many, much, a lot of, some, any, a few, few, no*).

Countable nouns

Countable nouns have a singular and a plural form and take a singular or plural verb.

Countable nouns	Example
shop / shops	<i>There are over 100 shops in the new shopping centre.</i>
baby/babies	<i>They've got some great toys for babies in there.</i>
dish / dishes	<i>We need to get some new dishes for this evening.</i>

HELPFUL HINTS

We use these words with countable nouns:

- *a, an* • *many*
- *a few* • *one, two*, etc

A few countable nouns have irregular plurals. They include:

- *one child, two children*
- *one foot, two feet*
- *one man, two men*
- *one person, two people*
- *one tooth, two teeth*
- *one woman, two women*

UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

We cannot count some nouns (*uncountable nouns*). They do not have a plural form and take a singular verb, even if they end in -s.

Some uncountable nouns	Example
advice, bread, fruit, furniture, hair, homework, information, money, news, paper, rice, work	<i>My money is in my wallet. Your hair is really long! The news was a complete shock.</i>

HELPFUL HINTS

We use these words with uncountable nouns:

- *a little* • *much*
- *a bit of* • *a piece of*

We use these words with both countable and uncountable nouns:

- *a lot of* • *some* • *lots of* • *the*

We can use *any* in questions and negative statements with both uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns:

- Have we got **any** homework today?
- There aren't **any** eggs left.

There are a few uncountable nouns that are plural and are followed by a plural verb. Be careful with the following words.

- *clothes*
/ Your clean **clothes are** on the bed.
- *jeans*
/ Your new **jeans look** great!

- Some nouns are uncountable with one meaning and countable with another meaning. / Get me some **paper** when you go to the shops. (= a packet of paper to write on) / Get me **a paper** when you go to the shops. (= a newspaper)

1. Complete using the plural form of the words in the box.

child • foot • man • person • puppy • tooth • watch • woman

- 1 Did you know that Jason's dog has had three beautiful
- 2 The *Spice Girls* was an all-girl band, so there weren't any
- 3 It's a bit strange that Victor wears two..... - one on each arm.
- 4 If do the same jobs as their husbands, they should be paid the same.
- 5 The dentist says I have to have two..... taken out!
- 6 How many.....were there at the show?
- 7 We've walked miles! My..... are hurting!
- 8 Mrs Jenkins has just had a baby, so she's got three..... now.

2. Circle the correct word or phrase.

- 1 Your money **is** / **are** on the table in the dining room.
- 2 The advice you gave me **was** / **were** really useful. Thanks!
- 3 The cakes in that shop **looks** / **look** absolutely delicious.
- 4 There **has** / **have** been a lot of bad news recently.
- 5 Your homework **was** / **were** late. Please do it sooner next time.
- 6 **Does** / **Do** the information about the museum include the opening times?

- 7 We need new furniture in the dining room. **It's / They're** very old and scratched.
- 8 The fish in this tank all **seems / seem** to be ill.
- 9 I love your hair. **It's / They're** really soft.
- 10 Oh, no! The rice **has / have** gone all over the floor!

3. Complete each second sentence using the word given, so that it has a similar meaning to the first sentence. Write no more than three words.

- 1 We don't know anything about the problem, **information**
We don't..... about the problem.
- 2 Is it okay if I have some cheese? **bit**
Is it okay if I have..... cheese?
- 3 There's only a little coffee left in the jar. **much**
There..... coffee left in the jar.
- 4 I try not to drink too much Coca-Cola in a week, **cans**
I try not to drink too..... of Coca-Cola in a week.
- 5 Would you like some more chocolate? **piece**
Would you like..... chocolate?
- 6 I don't want a lot of cream on my strawberries, **cream**
I only want..... on my strawberries.

4. Choose the correct answer.

- 1 Be careful with that vase because it's made of !
A glass B a glass
- 2 I started coughing because I hadat the back of my throat.
A hair B a hair
- 3 Don't put your hot cup on my new table! It's..... and I don't want you to burn it.
A wood B a wood
- 4 We should all recycle.....so that it can be used again.
A paper B a paper
- 5 My dad getsevery day on his way to work.
A paper B a paper
- 6 Of course you can have some milk. Getout of the cupboard.
A glass B a glass

5. Write one word in each gap.

OPEN-AIR MARKETS

Even if you only have a (1) money, you can still have a great time at your local open-air market. The clothes (2) cheap, and the fruit (3) cheap, too! Often, the food in your local supermarket (4) travelled a long way, but at the market you know that you're buying food which has been produced locally. The vegetables (5) fresh, even if you go late in the day when there are only a (6) left. Support your local market and help local farmers. Contact your Town Hall to find out if there are (7) open-air markets in your area.

SELF-STUDY

1. Read and translate the text.

THE WORLD WARS

Students of history often find charts helpful—especially for comparing and contrasting. Charts can show you similarities and differences at a glance. The chart below compares and contrasts World War I and World War II.

	WORLD WAR I	WORLD WAR II
	1914–1918	1939–1945
Causes	Growing power struggles erupt when Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, is killed by a Serbian assassin.	Aggressive dictators become powerful: Hitler (Nazi party, Germany), Tojo (Japan); German invasion of Poland; Germany's Nazi campaign to kill all Jews
Alliances	Central Powers: Germany, Austria-Hungary Allies: England, France, Russia, Italy* (*Italy joined the Allies in 1915)	Axis nations: Germany, Japan, Italy Allies: England, France, Russia, United States, and many smaller nations
U.S. Involvement	United States declares war April 6, 1917	Japanese bomb Pearl Harbor; U.S. declares war on Dec. 11, 1941
New Technology	poison gas, fighter planes, tanks, trench warfare	submarines, atom bomb
Results	An Allied victory! A peace treaty drawn up in Versailles, and France sets up the League of Nations to promote world peace.	Allies are victorious! Victory in Europe (V-E Day) declared May 8, 1945. Japanese surrender on August 15, 1945; United Nations set up as peacekeeping organization

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What eight-letter noun in the reading means “nations or people joined together for some purpose, such as the uniting of nations by a treaty”?

a _____

2. What eight-letter noun means “a ruler who has complete power”?

d _____

3. What four-letter proper noun names a dictator-run political party that ruled Germany from 1933 to 1945?

N _____

4. Complete the puzzle with words from the reading. Clue words are synonyms (words with a similar meaning) of the answer words.

1. differences

c _ _ _ _ _ s

2. to explode

e _ _ p _

3. a ditch

t _ _ n _ _

4. similarities

c _ _ _ _ r _ _ _ _ _

5. U-boat (underwater boat)

s _ _ _ _ _ n _

6. crusade

c _ _ p _ _ _ _

7. agreement

t _ _ _ t _

5. Circle the homonym that correctly completes each sentence. Then write an original sentence using the homonym you DID NOT circle. Use a dictionary for help.

Homonyms are words that sound the same but have different meanings and spellings.

1. Archduke Ferdinand was the (heir / air) to the kingdom of Austria-Hungary.

2. The Archduke was killed before he could sit on the (thrown / throne).

3. V-E Day celebrated (piece / peace) in Europe.

4. The United States developed the atom (bomb / balm) and used it to end the war with Japan.

5. (Plains / Planes) were first used for warfare during World War I.

6. Analogies are statements of relationship. To come up with the missing term, you must figure out the relationship between the first two terms. Then complete each analogy with a term from the reading that shows the same relationship.

1. *Poison gas* is to *World War I* as _____ is to *World War II*.
2. *1914* is to *World War I* as _____ is to *World War II*.
3. *League of Nations* is to *World War I* as _____ is to *World War II*.
4. *Mussolini* is to *Italy* as _____ is to *Germany*.
5. *Central Powers* are to *World War I* as _____ are to *World War II*.

7. *Connotations are the feelings and ideas associated with a word.*

Find the word *aggressive* in the reading. Then read the synonyms for *aggressive* listed below. Notice that some have positive connotations and others suggest negative feelings.

Put a + or – beside each synonym to tell whether it is *positive* or *negative*.

1. _____ assertive
2. _____ bold
3. _____ combative
4. _____ militant
5. _____ determined
6. _____ pushy

Grammar:

Referring to nouns: articles; other determiners (demonstratives, possessives, inclusives: *each, every, both, all*, etc.).

ARTICLES

Indefinite article

a

Use	Example
singular countable nouns (not specific)	<i>I need to get a new coat.</i>

an

Use	Example
instead of a when the next word begins with a vowel sound	<i>I don't have enough money for an expensive dress.</i>

Whether we use *a* or *an* with a word depends on the sound, not the spelling. Be careful with the following words and phrases.

• *an honest person* • *an hour* • *a euro* • *a uniform*

Definite article

the

Use	Example
singular countable nouns (specific)	<i>Let's go to the new shopping centre.</i>
plural countable nouns (specific)	<i>Where are the books I ordered?</i>
uncountable nouns (specific)	<i>I gave the shop assistant the money and then left.</i>

No article (zero article)

Use	Example
plural countable nouns (general)	<i>Prices have gone up a lot recently</i>
uncountable nouns (general)	<i>Fresh fruit is really good for you.</i>

Special rules

Use	Example
places	the: seas (the Atlantic), rivers (the Amazon), areas (the Antarctic), some countries (the USA, the UK), public buildings (the theatre), the Earth, the world, the sky, the moon, the sun, the sea, the environment no article: towns and cities (Rivne), most countries (France), continents (Europe), streets (Baker Street), planets (Mars)
activities	a/an: have a job, work as a ... the: on the radio, the media, play the piano no article: go to work, on TV, go shopping, play tennis, listen to music, go to work, go to school, be at school, be at university, school subjects (maths)
time	the: in the morning/afternoon/evening, on the 20th March, in the 1950s no article: days (Thursday), months (May), years (2009), at night
people	the: the King, the Prime Minister, the army, the navy, the police, the Germans, the English no article: become king, he's English, speak English

OTHER DETERMINERS

Demonstratives: this, that, these, those

We use these words to show whether something is near or remote? In terms of time or place:

	Near	Remote
--	-------------	---------------

Time	I'd like to talk to you this morning about an exciting development. (today)	My mother called me later that day. (I am telling you this on a different day)
Place	I like these pictures. (here)	Oh, I prefer those pictures. (over there)

We can use **this / that / these / those** to refer back to something previously mentioned in the text:

*The total cost of the Envisat programme is 2.3 billion euros over 15 years. Included in **this sum**... (this sum = 2.3 billion euros)*

We can refer back to whole sentences or ideas with **this** and **that**:

*Seeing the earth from outer space highlights how tiny and fragile our planet is/ Envisat helps people to understand **that**. (= understand how tiny and fragile our planet is)*

There is often very little difference between **this** and **that** when used in this way, so we could say:

*Envisat helps people to understand **this**.*

Possessives

We use possessive determiners (my / your / his / her / its / our / their) to tell us what or who something belongs to:

our blue planet; **their** children

We cannot use possessive determiners after other determiners (**a, the**). We use determiner + noun + of + possessive pronoun:

*This planet of ours (**not** this our planet)*

We use **'s** with singular nouns and irregular plural nouns. We use **s'** after regular plural nouns:

Europe's technological showpiece; the children's toys; my parents' house

We usually use noun + **of** instead of **'s** when the thing we are referring to is not a person or animal:

*The price of the hotel (**not** the hotel's price)*

Inclusives

each, every

Each and **every** are used with a singular noun and verb.

Each is used for things or people in a group of two or more, with a focus on the individuals in the group:

***Each** European citizen has therefore invested seven euros in the environment.*

Every is used for three or more things? With a focus on the group. Often the difference in focus between **each** and **every** is very small:

***Every** citizen will have access to precise information about changes in the environment (= **Each** citizen)*

We can use **each** (but not **every**) + of + noun/pronoun:

Each of the students gave the teacher a present. (**not every** of the student)

all, most, some

We use **all / most / some** + plural noun / pronoun:

Most children like sweets.

Some people believe space exploration is a waste of money.

We use **all / most / some** + of + pronoun determiner + noun or to refer to a specific group:

Most of the children at my school play football.

We do not need to use **all** + of before a noun, but we need of before a pronoun:

All the children at my school play a musical instrument.

All of them like music. (**not** all them)

When all is followed by a singular noun referring to time the meaning is different. Compare:

I worked hard **all** day. (=I worked hard for one whole day)

I worked hard **every** day. (=I regularly worked hard)

both, neither, either, none

Both, neither and **either** refer to two people or things. We use **both** + plural noun and **either/neither** + singular noun:

Both satellites were launched in the 1990s.

Neither person knew very much about Envisat before the conference. (= **not** one or the other)

I don't mind where we go. **Either** restaurant is fine. (= one or the other is fine)

We use **both** + of + determiner + plural noun (or pronoun) with a plural verb. We can use **either/neither** + of + determiner + plural noun (or pronoun) with a singular or a plural verb:

Neither of my sisters **lives/live** in the same town as me.

Both of them **are** married, (**not** Both of them is married.)

None means 'not one' (of a group). It can be followed by a singular or plural verb:

None of our countries **is/are** able to ignore the implications of global warming.

1. Complete using a, an or the.

- 1 We hadreally good science lesson at school today.
- 2 I foundunusual insect on the wall outside our house.
- 3 It's your birthday next week. Are you going to have party?
- 4 We waited for hours, but we finally saw Queen.
- 5 Why don't we listen to radio?
- 6 Have you goteuro I could borrow?
- 7 Mum has gone to bank, but she'll be back soon.
- 8 Where have you been? I've been waiting for over hour!

2. Circle the extra word in each sentence.

- 1 Do you think we will ever send a person to the Mars?
- 2 When you go to the London, don't forget to see the London Eye.
- 3 When we use the cars, we damage the environment.
- 4 I'm not telling a lies! It's the truth.
- 5 I'm looking for a teacher who can teach me the German.
- 6 Ray needs a warm hat and a new coat for his visit to the Russia.
- 7 Dad has gone to a work and forgotten the car keys.
- 8 Some people have an unusual pets, such as lions or tigers.

3. In each sentence there is a word missing. Put an arrow (f) to show where the missing word should go and write the word.

- 1 English music was popular in America in 1960s.
- 2 Would you prefer to read book or watch television?
- 3 We had maths at school yesterday and our teacher gave us surprise test!
- 4 Peter joined police and caught ten thieves in his first month!
- 5 Gordon wanted to be writer, so he studied English at university.
- 6 Suddenly, two UFOs appeared in sky over Washington.

4. Rewrite the sentences correctly, adding articles where necessary.

- 1 We had great time in USA.
- 2 Let's go to Belgium for week this summer.
- 3 Where's money I gave you on fifteenth of last month?
- 4 I'd like to join army and become soldier.
- 5 For Christmas, I got book, DVD and latest CD by my favourite band.
- 6 They say that English drink lot of tea.
- 7 I heard song on radio that I really liked.
- 8 Do Japanese and other people in Asia eat cheese?

5. Underline ten mistakes in the dialogue and correct them.

Gary: It's the lovely day, isn't it? Let's walk down to a shops and look around.

Helen: That's an good idea. I'll just have a look in a kitchen and see what we need.

Gary: I got a milk yesterday, so we don't need any more. We might need a bread, though.

Helen: Okay. Bread ... oh, and the packet of sugar. After shopping, we could go to a new market in a town centre and see what they have.

Gary: Right. You get your coat and I'll get a car keys.

5. Underline the most suitable words.

Report on holiday survey

1 *This/That* survey aimed to find out about 2 *people's / the people's* ideal holidays. We used 3 *the interviews / interviews* and 4 *the questionnaires / questionnaires* to collect 5 *our/their*

data. **6 Both/All** of **7 those/these** methods of data collection were quick and simple to carry out and **8 neither/none** of them were too demanding of the public. **9 Our findings / Findings** show that many people like to take their holidays in the summer. **10 This/The** view was reinforced by the destinations suggested by **11 the people / people** involved in **12 a survey / the survey**. **13 The beach holidays / Beach holidays** were the most popular? Particularly in **14 the Spain / Spain** or **15 the France / France**. **16 Most/Both** people in the survey said they looked forward to their holiday. **17 Each/All** person we interviewed agreed that it was important to have at least one holiday **18 every/all year**. **19 The price of the holiday / the holiday's price** was important to most people, with general agreement that value for money was a primary consideration.

7. Fill in the gaps with words from the box.

both	each	every	my	none	that
that	their	those	neither	this	

My home town is smaller than London, but there are some similarities. **1 Each** of the two cities is famous for its architecture. For example, **2.....** Kuala Lumpur and London have tall, modern buildings, set amongst older historical buildings. Although both cities have rivers running through them, **3.....** city is by the sea, which is a shame, as I think some of the most beautiful cities in the world are by the sea.

4 major city in the world has one thing in common – being large and busy – and **5** is true of both London and Kuala Lumpur. In fact, some people don't like my city because it is so noisy and busy, but **6.....** is one reason why I love it.

A lot of city markets take place in the day-time, but in **7** home city they don't open until it's dark! Malaysians tend to buy all their groceries at the night markets. In London people tend to use supermarkets for **8.....** food shopping.

It is always hot in Kuala Lumpur, but London can get very cold. **9.....** 's probably why you get outdoor restaurants all over Kuala Lumpur all year round whereas in London there are almost **10... ..** in the winter. In some restaurants in Kuala Lumpur, you can go to the kitchen and point at the food and say, 'I'll have one of **11.....** , please!' You can't do that in London!

MODULE TEST

1. Complete each definition below with a word from the box.

aqueduct autonomy conspire despot dispatch
dominion embark isthmus loyalist

1. _____ is a verb meaning “to plan together secretly.”
2. An _____ is a channel or pipe for carrying water over a distance.
3. A cruel, unjust ruler who has complete control might be called a _____.
4. To begin or start out on a journey is to _____.
5. To maintain rule or power is to have _____.
6. To _____ is to send something out promptly to a certain place in order to do a certain job.
7. Another word for self-government and independence is _____.
8. During a revolt, a _____ supports the present government.
9. An _____ is a narrow strip of land with water on both sides; it serves as a land bridge between two larger bodies of land.

2. Use context clues to figure out which boldface word correctly completes each sentence. Circle the word.

1. The (**meteorologist** / **loyalist**) supported Britain’s rule over the 13 colonies.
2. The emperor will (**dispatch** / **despot**) a messenger with news of the invaders’ movements.
3. Many colonists wanted (**dominion** / **autonomy**) from England.

3. Complete the puzzle with synonyms (words with a similar meaning) of the clue words.

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. waterway, channel | a _ _ _ d _ _ _ |
| 4. tyrant, dictator | d _ _ _ _ _ |
| 1. independence, self-rule | a _ _ _ _ m _ |
| 2. control, supremacy | d _ _ _ _ o _ |
| 3. to scheme or plot | c _ _ _ p _ _ _ |

4. For each item, underline the word that appears in Exercise 1. Then find and circle a word that is its antonym (word with the opposite meaning).

1. George will embark on a dangerous mission. Hopefully, he will return with the information.
2. The king rewarded loyalists with favors and privileges. He punished traitors harshly.
3. The people overthrew the despot. They held a free election and chose a president.
4. We will dispatch the message at dawn. If the situation changes, we will send a second messenger to retrieve the document.

5. Many words have a certain shade of meaning. They carry feelings and emotions that affect the way a reader feels. For example, the words *despot* and *ruler* are synonyms—but *despot* is a negative word, while *ruler* is neutral or even positive.

• Underline the word in each pair that has the most *positive* connotation.

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. err / fail | 7. shifty / shrewd |
| 2. complain / whine | 8. comedy / farce |
| 3. bizarre / unusual | 9. reckless / daring |
| 4. evil / bad | 10. assistant / subordinate |
| 5. curious / nosy | 11. barren / infertile |
| 6. ambitious / industrious | 12. dry spell / drought |

• Read the sentences below. Write a plus (+) if the italicized word has a *positive* connotation. Write a minus (–) if it has a *negative* connotation.

1. _____ The king, who was a *confident* man, made up his own mind.
2. _____ The *arrogant* king did not listen to his advisors.
3. _____ Some called Samuel Adams a bold *rebel*.
4. _____ Other people called Samuel Adams a *traitor* to England.
5. _____ The soldiers made a *cautious* retreat.
6. _____ The soldiers made a *cowardly* retreat.

MODULE II

English for Scientific Research

THEME 5. In Pursuit of Knowledge: The Scientific Method

1. Read and translate the text.

IN PURSUIT OF KNOWLEDGE: THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD

Science is the study of nature and the universe, based on facts learned from observation and experiment. This process of discovery is called the scientific method.

There are five orderly steps in the scientific method:

1. State the problem. You can't begin to answer a question or solve a problem until you know exactly what it is that you're trying to learn.
2. Gather all related information. You must research your subject thoroughly to determine what is already known. Besides reading about the subject, you might talk to others who are working on the same problem.
3. Suggest a possible answer or solution. Scientists call this preliminary theory a hypothesis. For the time being, they use this idea as the basis for further study and reasoning.
4. Conduct experiments to try out the theory. A scientific experiment is a test – or series of tests – designed to determine whether a theory is correct. The

results of one experiment often lead to further experiments.

5. Record the results. Lastly, a scientist writes a report on the experiment. This document, which is recorded in some detail, may be used as proof that the theory is correct.

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What eight-letter noun in the reading means “everything that exists, including the Earth, sun, planets, and outer space”?

u _____

2. What eight-letter noun from the reading means “a written record that proves something”?

d _____

3. What eleven-letter noun in the reading means “careful examination and study of something”?

o _____

4. What seven-letter noun in the reading means “something being discussed or examined”?

s _____

4. Study the words in the box. Circle only the words that can be used as either a noun or a verb. Check a dictionary if you’re not sure. (Hint: You should circle 12 words.)

problem	conduct	time	learn	observe
percent	document	test	basis	step
study	solve	experiment	reading	lead
subject	proof	state	determine	results

5. Write sentences of your own. Use two of the words you just circled in two different ways.

1. NOUN:

VERB:

2. NOUN:

VERB:

6. Write the plural (names more than one) form of each word from the reading.

1. experiment _____
3. proof _____
2. discovery _____
4. theory _____

7. Write synonyms (words with a similar meaning) of each word from the reading.

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------|
| 1. additional | f _ _ _ _ _ |
| 2. introductory | p _ _ _ _ _ |
| 3. process | m _ _ _ _ |
| 4. thinking | r _ _ _ _ _ |
| 5. test | e _ _ _ _ _ |
| 6. comprehended | k _ _ _ _ |
| 7. theory | i _ _ _ |
| 8. collect | g _ _ _ _ |

8. Write each word next to its antonym (word with the opposite meaning) from the reading. Then unscramble the words.

- | | |
|----------------|---------|
| 1. haphazardly | t _____ |
| 2. follow | l _____ |
| 3. avoidance | p _____ |
| 4. ignorance | k _____ |

HOOLTRYHUG	_____
TURIPUS	_____
GELEDWONK	_____
ADLE	_____

Grammar:

Pronouns and referencing: personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns; avoiding repetition.

PRONOUNS AND POSSESSIVE DETERMINERS

Subject pronouns

Use	Example
The subject of a verb	They built the first aeroplane. Alexander Fleming discovered penicillin, but he did it by mistake!

Object pronouns
me / you / him / her / it / us / them

Use	Example
The object of a verb	<i>Could you give me that equipment? Could you give that equipment to me?</i>

Possessive determiners
my / your / his / her / its / our / their

Use	Example
To show who owns or has something	<i>That's their car.</i>

HELPFUL HINTS

- Possessive determiners are always followed by a noun.

/ Is this **my** coffee?

/ Here's the dog's water and here's **its** food. (= the dog's food)

/ **It's** the best camera I've ever had. (= It is ...)

Possessive pronouns
mine / yours / his / hers / ours / theirs

Use	Example
To show who owns or has something	<i>That car is ours.</i>

HELPFUL HINTS

- Possessive pronouns are not followed by a noun.

X ~~This is hers car.~~

Reflexive pronouns
myself / yourself / himself / herself / itself / ourselves / yourselves / themselves

Use	Example
To describe actions where the subject and object are the same	<i>My computer turns itself off after half an hour..</i>
To emphasise who does something	<i>Nobody helped me. I did it myself</i>

1. Complete using the words in the box. You have to use some words more than once.

I • you • he • she • it • we • they

- 1 asked Mr Simons, my science teacher, what glass was and said that is a liquid!
- 2 Hi Diana! Are still coming shopping with us tomorrow?
- 3 My mum studied history at university says was a really interesting course.
- 4 Scientists are working hard to find cures for lots of diseases, but haven't found a cure for the common cold yet.
- 5 Adam, do think should all bring some food with us to your party?
- 6 Dad, do know if sell computer games in the market?

2. Replace each word or phrase in bold with a word from the box. You have to use some words more than once.

him • her • it • us • them

- 1 Did you give **that book** back to Alicia?
- 2 I told **Bill** that you don't eat meat.
- 3 Why does she always give **our class** more tests than the other class?
- 4 They paid **Kate Winslet** a lot of money to be in this film.
- 5 I haven't seen **Rich and Andy** for ages.
- 6 Did you give an invitation to **Mr and Mrs Clark**?
- 7 A TV channel has invited **my family** to take part in a game show!

3. Rewrite the sentences using the word given.

- 1 This is where we live. **house**
This is
- 2 That wallet belongs to me! **That** wallet!
- 3 Do those shoes belong to you? **your**
Are..... ?

- 4 That car doesn't belong to them. **car**
That's.....
- 5 This is where she sleeps. **bed**
This.....
- 6 That isn't what he does. **job**
That.....
- 7 Have you seen the dog's blanket? **its**
Where's

4. If a sentence is correct, put a tick (/). If there is an extra word in a sentence, write the word,

- 1 Is that my milkshake or yours milkshake?
- 2 Look where the dog has put its bone!
- 3 I haven't got a camera with me because I've lent mine to my brother
- 4 Your DVD player is just the same as theirs is.
- 5 Was it your decision or hers decision?
- 6 You can borrow my laptop, but why aren't you using yours laptop?
- 7 I think those are your CDs and these are ours.
- 8 This is her book, these are your books and these two are mine books
- 9 That video belongs to Carol and Doug - at least, I think it's theirs video

Each of the words in bold is in the wrong sentence. Write the correct word.

- 1 That's great, Cathy. Did you make that **herself**?
- 2 Doug hit **myself** in the eye by mistake with his toothbrush!
- 3 Cats can look after **yourself**, can't they?
- 4 I hope you all enjoy **himself** on holiday!
- 5 Dad didn't help me. I did it all **themselves**!
- 6 We painted the room **yourselves**; we didn't pay anyone to do it.....
- 7 This kitchen isn't going to clean **ourselves**, you know!
- 8 Wendy decided that she would buy **itself** a new dress in the sales

Complete using the correct pronouns or determiners.

INVENTIONS

If you invented something important, (1) would want to make money out of (2) , right? Most of us would want to make some money from (3) invention. It seems only fair - we did the work, so the money should be (4) too. Many inventors who have had (5) inventions produced, have become rich and famous and we shouldn't blame (6) for that. But have (7) heard of Tim Berners-Lee? (8) invented the World Wide Web on the Internet, one of the most important inventions of the last fifty years. Millions of lives have been changed by (9) introduction. When Tim Berners-Lee invented the Web, he made a promise to (10) - that he wouldn't make any money out of it, and that he would give (11) invention to the world. He did, and now the Web belongs to all of (12) Ask (13) what life would be like if the World Wide Web wasn't free. We should be grateful to Tim Berners-Lee, and thank (14) for (15) amazing gift to the world.

SELF-STUDY

1. Read and translate the text.

TWO KINDS OF RESEARCH: BASIC AND APPLIED

Research – the quest for information – was born when people first started asking questions and searching for answers. The inventors of the wheel were great researchers. Modern research, based on study and experimentation, got its true start in the 1500s with the work of Galileo.

In the natural sciences – such as biology, chemistry, and medicine – methods of research are very exact. Scientists have developed very accurate instruments such as electronic microscopes.

Basic research is aimed at discovering more about the laws of nature. As they push into the unknown, scholars doing basic research may have little idea of what lies ahead. They may be trying to find out why birds migrate or whether plants grow on Mars. Wishing only to add to the world's knowledge, they don't concern themselves with the practical applications of their findings.

Applied research is aimed at a practical goal. Researchers focus on discovering or inventing new and useful products or better ways of doing something. The first synthetic plastic, for example, was developed to find a substitute for ivory in the manufacture of billiard balls. This early plastic – called Celluloid – paved the way for development of today's enormous plastics industry.

Basic and applied researchers work hand in hand. Applied research is often built on ideas from basic research. In turn, basic researchers depend on applied research for the invention of instruments that make further investigations possible.

2. Write down unfamiliar words and phrases (work with dictionary).

3. Search word from the text.

1. What five-letter noun in the reading means “a seeking, hunt, or pursuit”?

q _____

2. What seven-letter verb in the reading means “to move from one region to another with the change of seasons”?

m _____

3. What ten-letter noun in the reading means “something used in the place of another”?

s _____

4. Complete the chart below with different forms of the verbs apply and investigate.

APPLY

PAST-TENSE VERB: _____

NOUN FORM: _____

ONE WHO DOES: _____

INVESTIGATE

PAST-TENSE VERB: _____

NOUN FORM: _____

ONE WHO DOES: _____

5. Write T or F to show whether each statement is true or false

1. _____ Modern research got its start with the discovery of the wheel.
2. _____ Scientists involved in applied research are trying to solve specific problems.
3. _____ The words knowledge and information are synonyms.
4. _____ Basic researchers try to discover more about the laws of nature.

6. Write synonyms (words with a similar meaning) of each word from the reading.

- | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1. targeted | a _ _ _ _ |
| 2. tools; devices | i _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ |
| 3. to rely | d _ _ _ _ _ |
| 4. precise | e _ _ _ _ |
| 5. to concentrate | f _ _ _ _ |
| 6. data | i _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ |
| 7. improved | b _ _ _ _ _ |

7. First unscramble the words from the reading. Then draw a line to connect each word with its antonym (word that means the opposite).

- | | | |
|--------------|-------|--------------|
| 1. ALARUNT | _____ | a. miniature |
| 2. RUTE | _____ | b. subtract |
| 3. TRACECAU | _____ | c. synthetic |
| 4. NOURSOME | _____ | d. useless |
| 5. CATRICLAP | _____ | e. false |
| 6. DAD | _____ | f. imprecise |

Grammar:

Adjectives and adverbs: describing things; adding information about manner, place, time, frequency and intensity.

Adjectives

Adjectives describe nouns.

We can use adjectives:

- before nouns:

*There are so many **historical buildings**.*

*It was well worth the trip, especially if you like **local crafts**.*

- after the following verbs: *be, become, get, seem, appear, look, smell, taste, feel*

*The mosques in particular **are very beautiful**.*

*They always **seem pleased** to see you.*

- After *find/make/keep* + object:

*Work hard on your research if you want to **make your trip enjoyable and rewarding**.*

*I **found the insects** rather **frightening**.*

- with other adjectives or with other nouns to describe a noun:

*a **long, tiring boat ride***(adjective + adjective + noun + noun)

The order of adjectives

When we use adjectives together, we put words which express opinion before words which describe the characteristics or type of what we are talking about:

*a **beautiful Turkish** carpet* (*beautiful* = opinion + *Turkish* = type: not a Turkish beautiful-carpet)

We often use nouns as adjectives to add information about type:

*the Gujarati **Textile Museum***

When we use more than one adjective to describe characteristics or type, they usually follow this order:

size —> temperature —> age —> shape —> colour —> nationality —> material —> type

Indian silk embroidery small mountain villages

hot black coffee a beautiful old round table

When there are two or more adjectives after a verb or noun, we use **and** between the last two:

*The people are very **welcoming and friendly** towards visitors.*

We use **and** between two colours:

*vivid **blue and green** feathers*

Adjectives ending in **-ed** and **-ing**

Some adjectives connected with feelings are formed from verbs and have two possible forms, usually **-ed** or **-ing** e.g. *tired/tiring*. We use **-ed** forms to talk about how we feel:

*I was **fascinated** to see the extraordinary range of patterns.*

*I was **amazed** at the variety of wonderful animals.*

We use **-ing** forms to describe the things or people that cause the feelings:

*It's an absolutely **amazing** city to visit.*

*India is a **fascinating** country.*

Adverbs

Adverbs give information about verbs, adjectives or other adverbs. Adverbs tell us *how* (manner), *where* (place), *when* (time), *how often* (frequency), or *how much* (intensity) something happens or is done. An adverb can be a single word (*sometimes*) or a phrase (*from time to time*).

How adverbs are used

Adverbs which tell us about

- **manner** are often formed by adding **-ly** to the adjective form:

careful —> carefully —> happy —> happily

They usually come after the verb (and object, if there is one):

I plan my trips **very carefully**, (not I plan very-carefully my trip»)

- **place** usually come after the verb:

It was the first time I had been **there**.

Try to stay **near the old part of the city**.

- **time** such as today, tomorrow, now, since 2003, for three minutes can go at the beginning or the end of a clause:

I had a very memorable trip **last year**, (or **Last year** I had a very memorable trip.)

- **frequency** usually come before the verb but after be or an auxiliary verb:

I **often travel** for my job.

I **have always enjoyed** my visits there.

He's **never** late.

- **intensity** affect the strength of adjectives or adverbs:

<i>fairly, quite, rather, pretty</i>	<i>very, extremely, highly, really</i>	<i>absolutely, completely, totally</i>
--	--	--

weaker		strong
---------------	--	---------------

The adverbs at the stronger end of the scale (*absolutely, completely, totally*) can only be used with some adjectives. These tend to be 'extreme' adjectives that suggest a limit in their meaning (e.g. *terrifying, excellent, exhausted*). Other 'non-extreme' adjectives (e.g. *frightened, good, tired*) never collocate with these stronger adverbs. Compare:

There are some **absolutely stunning** examples of Indian silk embroidery, (not fairly stunning) The people are **very friendly**, (not absolutely friendly)

Really collocates with most adjectives.

We cannot intensify adjectives or nouns which describe type (**not** a very *Textile Museum*).

The order of adverbs

When two or more adverbs are used together at the end of a clause the order is usually manner → place → time:

I'll meet you **outside the station at six o'clock**, (*outside the station* = place, *at six o'clock* = time)

Irregular adverbs

Some adverbs of manner look the same as the adjective form (e.g. *hard, fast, straight, late, early*):

Work **hard** on your research, (adverb)

This is a **hard** exercise, (adjective)

Hard is an adjective and an adverb, and **hardly** is an adverb meaning *very little*:

He **hardly** had time to say hello. (= he had very little time to say hello)

Good is an adjective, and **well** is the adverb:

He spoke **very good** English, (describes English)

He spoke English **very well**, (describes how he spoke)

However, well can also be an adjective when talking about health:

She's not **well** - she's got a cold.

Grammar extra: Adjectives

Some adjectives can be followed by **to** + infinitive to add to their meaning (e.g. *able, likely, right, wrong, lucky*) and some adjectives describing feelings (e.g. *surprised, afraid, happy, delighted*):

I'll be **happy to answer** questions.

I was **fascinated to see** the extraordinary range of patterns.

Some adjectives can be followed by a preposition + **-ing**:

People are **tired of hearing** politicians' promises, (**not**-tired te-kear)

I am not very **good at taking** photographs, (**not** good to -take -photograph)

1. Read the test task and the students' responses. Some of the adjectives they used are underlined. If they are used correctly, put a tick (V). If they are wrong, write the correct answer.

Describe a favourable place.

You should say:

where it is

what kind of place it is

what makes it special

and explain why you like it so much.

My favourite place is a 1 <u>quiet little</u> wood near my home town in Indonesia. I like it because it is a 2 <u>green peaceful</u> place. It is full of 3 <u>old tall</u> trees and there are lots of 4 <u>wild</u>	1 <u> V </u>
	2 <u> peaceful green </u>
	3 <u> </u>

<u>interesting</u> animals.	4 _____
I'm going to tell you about my bedroom. I love it because it is full of my things. The walls are painted with 5 <u>blue yellow stripes</u> , and there is a 6 <u>wooden dark</u> floor. There is a 7 <u>lovely old</u> photo on my family by my bed, and all my precious books are on the shelves.	5 _____ 6 _____ 7 _____
My favourite place is the town I grew up in. It has 8 <u>an ancient beautiful ruined</u> castle and lots of 9 <u>historical old</u> buildings. The streets are 10 <u>narrow winding</u> , and there are lots of good shops. It is 11 <u>busy noisy</u> , but I like that. I feel good there because I have so many 12 <u>childhood happy</u> memories.	8 _____ 9 _____ 10 _____ 11 _____ 12 _____

2. Write the missing adjectives and adverbs.

dramatic – dramatically impressive - _____ slight - _____
steady - _____ sharp - _____ steeply - _____

3. Now use these words to fill in the gaps.

- 1 a Sales of coffee showed a slight increase between 2004 and 2006.
b Sales of coffee increased slightly between 2004 and 2006.
- 2 a The domestic car market showed an _____ growth of 50% for three consecutive years from 2001 to 2003.
b The domestic car market grew _____ by 50% for three consecutive years from 2001 to 2003.
- 3 a The world population grew _____ between 1950 and 2005.
b The world population experienced a _____ growth between 1950 and 2005.
- 4 a The number of British households using their own shopping bags when shopping fell _____ between 1965 and 2005.
b There was a _____ fall in the number of British households using their own shopping bags when shopping between 1965 and 2005.
- 5 a House prices climbed _____ during the first half of the year before falling _____ in August.
b There was a _____ climb in house prices during the first half of the year before a _____ fall in August.

4. Match the beginnings (1-8) and the endings (a-h) of the sentences. Join them by adding a suitable -ed or -ing adjective formed from one of the verbs in the box. Use each verb once.

Excite frighten interest please relax surprise tire satisfy

- | | | |
|--|------------------|---|
| 1 I was really | <u>pleased</u> c | a adventure I've ever had. I can't wait to go back! |
| 2 Martin's excellent exam results were very | _____ | b as he had hardly had time to study. |
| 3 The jungle was full of strange noises and I felt | _____ | c when I opened my present because it was just what I wanted. |
| 4 After so much hard work, it was a very | _____ | d after exercise. |
| 5 Paula wasn't | _____ | e moment when I finally finished the project. |
| 6 Having a warm bath can be very | _____ | f so I had a warm bath. |
| 7 My trip through the jungle was the most | _____ | g during the whole trip. |
| 8 After walking so far I felt very | _____ | h in the lecture so she fell asleep. |

5. Underline the correct words.

Environmentalists and conservationists tell us that there are ways that each of us can help to 1 *very reduce* / *greatly reduce* our impact on the planet. We can 2 *work hard* / *hardly work* to conserve energy and we can invest in equipment to help us create our own power. People 3 *say often* / *often say* that they want to save the planet, but the only way to do this is to 4 *take immediately action* / *take action immediately*.

It is 5 *really important* / *important really* for individuals to 6 *responsibly act* / *act responsibly* and try to reduce their contribution to greenhouse gases. There are several ways we can do this. For example there are mini wind turbines that you 7 *can install easily* / *easily can install* on your roof as well as very efficient solar panels that 8 *work good* / *work well* all year round to provide electricity.

But if this is all too expensive, there are other ways to conserve energy that actually save you money. In cooler weather, simply keep the heat 9 *inside safely* / *safely inside* by closing doors after you so that the warmth doesn't escape. It is 10 *absolutely essential* / *very essential* that we all take this seriously and do our best to lead a more sustainable life.

THEME 6. Writing annotation.

1. Read and translate the text.

WRITING ANNOTATION

An **annotation** or an **abstract** is a brief summary or description in your own words of an article, a book, or other publication. The purpose of an annotation is to give a reader sufficient information for him / her to decide whether or not to read the whole material. It is not evaluative and must not include your personal opinion. It should be brief and clear every sentence should convey maximum amount of information in a minimum number of words. There must be a clear organization and the content must be devoid of irrelevant ideas. The annotation should include:

1. A clear statement of the scope and purpose of a work.
2. A summary of the contents.
3. A statement of the conclusions or results.

Annotations describe the content of a book or article and indicate distinctive features. Writing annotations one should **not**:

- repeat the words of the title,
- give the same information in different phrasing,
- offer information that the intelligent person could readily infer from the text.

Step-by-step guide to annotating:

- Familiarize yourself with the contents of the book or article.
- Read as much of the book or article as is necessary to understand its content.
- Outline or make notes of the information you think you should include.
- Write a paragraph that reflects the spirit of the book or article without emphasis on any of the point.

2. Study the list of verbs for referring to texts ideas in annotations.

Translate them into Ukrainian. Use them in sentences of your own:

account for _____ describe _____ indicate
analyze _____ depict _____ investigate
assess _____ distinguish _____ justify
assert _____ evaluate _____ narrate
assume _____ emphasize _____ persuade
claim _____ examine _____ propose
compare _____ exhibit _____ recognize
conclude _____ explain _____ reflect
criticize _____ frame _____ refer to
define _____ illustrate _____ review

demonstrate _____ imply _____ suggest

3. Study and memorize the expressions necessary for writing annotations.

The beginning:

The article analyzes the issue of...

This article discusses the features of...

The article deals with the problem of... It examines...

The article discusses the problem of...

The article depicts some project tasks and shows...

This article presents an analysis of ...

The article is devoted to the problem of...

The article describes ... and justifies...

The main part:

The evidence indicates that...

The author identifies the reasons for...

The article questions the view that...

The concept of the "... " is defined.

The problems of ... are considered.

It has been discovered that...

Different aspects of ... are shown in the article such as...

The topicality of the...is discovered.

We consider the views of scientists on the issues involved.

The principles, conditions and ...are grounded.

The special attention is paid to...

The role of ...is characterized.

The ending:

...is determined.

...is analyzed.

... is characterized.

... is discovered.

... are shown.

... are distinguished.

... are listed.

... are grounded.

4.Using the words and expressions above make up 10 sentences of your own.

5. Read and remember the model for annotation of the article:

1. I was supposed to annotate the following article.
2. It was published in the British journal (magazine, newspaper) ...
3. The title (headline) of the article is ...
4. The author of the article is ...
(The article was written by a special correspondent of the journal).
5. The article represents a definite interest from the point of view ...
6. It gives facts (tables, diagrams, figures, schemes).
7. The article considers the problem of ...
8. It describes (discusses) ...
9. The article draws the reader's attention to ...
10. The author points out that ...
11. He stresses that ...
12. The writer analyses the achievements of ...
13. He approves ...
14. The key problem of the article is ...
15. To my mind (in my opinion) ...
16. The article is worth reading because the problem is of great interest (of good use, actual, informative).

Grammar:

Comparing things: comparative and superlative adjectives and adverbs; other ways of comparing.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

COMPARATIVES

Use	Example
To compare things/people/actions that are different	<i>My new job is more enjoyable than my old one.</i> <i>I'd like you to get to the office earlier tomorrow.</i>

	adjective		comparative
one syllable	<i>hard</i>	+ -er	<i>harder</i>
one syllable ending in -e	<i>late</i>	+ -r	<i>later</i>
one syllable ending in vowel + consonant	<i>big</i>	double last letter + -er	<i>bigger</i>
two syllables ending in -y	<i>pretty</i>	-y — -ier	<i>prettier</i>
two or more syllables	<i>interesting</i>	more/less + adjective	<i>more/less interesting</i>
irregular adjectives / quantifiers	<i>good — better</i> <i>bad — worse</i>	<i>little — less</i> <i>far — farther/further</i>	<i>many — more</i> <i>much — more</i>
	adverb		comparative
regular adverbs	<i>carefully</i>	more/less + adverb	<i>more/less carefully</i>
irregular adverbs	<i>well — better</i> <i>badly — worse</i> <i>early — earlier</i>	<i>near — nearer</i> <i>late — later</i>	<i>fast — faster</i> <i>far — farther/further</i>

HELPFUL HINTS

The comparative form is often followed by *than*.

✓ *My working day is **longer than** it used to be.*

SUPERLATIVES

Use	Example
To compare one member of a group of things/people/actions with the whole group	<i>Out of all the jobs in the company, John's is the hardest.</i> <i>The person who does best will get a pay rise.</i>

	adjective		superlative
one syllable	<i>hard</i>	+ -est	<i>hardest</i>
one syllable ending in -e	<i>late</i>	+ -st	<i>latest</i>
one syllable ending in vowel + consonant	<i>big</i>	double last letter + -est	<i>biggest</i>
two syllables ending in -y	<i>pretty</i>	-y — -iest	<i>prettiest</i>
two or more syllables	<i>interesting</i>	most/least + adjective	<i>most/least interesting</i>
irregular adjectives / quantifiers	<i>good — better</i> <i>bad — worse</i>	<i>little — laest</i> <i>far — farthest/furthest</i>	<i>many — most</i> <i>much — most</i>
	adverb		superlative
regular adverbs	<i>carefully</i>	most/least+ adverb	<i>most/least carefully</i>
irregular adverbs	<i>well — better</i> <i>badly — worse</i> <i>early — earlier</i>	<i>near — nearest</i> <i>late — latest</i>	<i>fast — fastest</i> <i>far — farthest/furthest</i>

HELPFUL HINTS

We usually use *the* before the superlative form.

✓ Today was **the worst** day since I started working there.

1. Complete using the comparative form of the words in brackets.

- Wait! Your bicycle is (**fast**) than mine!
- Phew! It's much (**hot**) than it was yesterday, isn't it?
- I think you look (**pretty**) when you wear your hair up.
- The price of batteries has gone up. They're a lot (**expensive**) than last time.
- Angus hasn't been practising the piano and he's got a lot (**bad**).
- His new film is much (**entertaining**) than his last one. I loved that one!
- Tell us another joke - but a (**short**) one this time! That one took forever!
- I didn't win the lottery. Maybe I'll be (**lucky**) next time.
- The Ukrainian athlete threw the discus (**far**) than all the others and won gold.
- I think these biscuits are even (**nice**) than the last ones you made!

2. The words in bold in each sentence are wrong. Write the correct word.

- We lost the match because we played **badly** than the other team did.
- It rains a lot in England, so the countryside is a lot **green** than in Greece.
- You gave Sarah a really small piece of cake - and you've given me even **little!**
- I must have lost weight. These jeans seem **large** than they were before.
- I got to the party **early** than everyone else, so I had to wait.

- 6 I hear her new CD is **good** than her last one. What do you think?
- 7 Our cat seems to be getting **fat** every day - maybe she should go on a diet!
- 8 I'm disappointed. I think you could have done a lot **well** on this test.

3. Rewrite the sentences using the correct comparative form of the words in the box.

bad • beautiful • confident • fat • happy • near (to) short • young

- 1 Joshua is much taller than Alex.
Alex is
- 2 Theresa is more confident than Amy.
Amy is a lot
- 3 Your house is further from the school than mine.
My house is.....
- 4 Jude is less happy than Andy about the decision.
Andy is
- 5 Bill is thinner than Simon.
Simon is.....
- 6 Terry is older than Sarah-Jane.
Sarah-Jane is
- 7 Patricia is better than her sister on the clarinet.
Patricia's sister is
- 8 The houses here are uglier than in my grandparents' village.
The houses in my grandparents' village

4. Complete using the correct form of the words in the box.

bad • big • far • funny • hard • kind • scary • tasty

- 1 This really is thesong I've ever heard! It's terrible!
- 2 Ivy is thewoman I know. She'll do anything for anybody.
- 3 Listen! I promise you, this is the.....joke ever! Well, a man goes into a shop ...
- 4 Mmm! This is thesoup you've made so far.
- 5 What's the.....thing about English grammar for you?
- 6 Ben appeared and he was carrying thepresent I'd ever seen. It was huge!
- 7 We had a competition to see who could swim the.....
- 8 Sandra told us the.....ghost story she could, and it was really frightening!

5. Complete using the correct form of the words in brackets.

I think this is the (1) (bad) job I've ever had. My last job was much (2) (good) than this one. I had a lot (3) (little) work there and my boss was really nice. My boss here is the (4) (strict) in the whole firm, and the working day is (5) (long) than in my last job, too. The (6) (good) thing about it is that the office is (7) (close) to my house than the old one. At least now I get home (8) (early) than I used to.

SELF-STUDY

WRITING ANNOTATION

1. Read and translate the article.

CASUS BELLI: DID LENIN CREATE MODERN UKRAINE?

Serhii Plokhii

February 27, 2022

Vladimir Putin has justified his ongoing invasion of Ukraine on the basis of a bizarre reading of history and accusations that Ukraine is at the same time Lenin's creation and the homeland of the Nazis.

Much has been said in the last few years to show the fraudulent nature of the "Nazi" claim. But the Lenin theme fully emerged only recently, in Putin's February 21 speech in which he recognized the "independence" of the two puppet states created by Russia in eastern Ukraine at the start of the Russo-Ukrainian war in 2014. The bizarre nature of that claim is underlined by the fact that at least one of those "republics," the Donetsk one, claimed at its creation the legacy of an earlier puppet state, the Donetsk-Kryvyi Rih republic, which was formed by the Bolsheviks in 1918 to prevent that territory from being included in the Ukrainian state.

In his de facto declaration of war, Putin stated that "modern Ukraine was entirely created by Russia or, to be more precise, by Bolshevik, Communist Russia. This process started practically right after the 1917 revolution, and Lenin and his associates did it in a way that was extremely harsh on Russia—by separating, severing what is historically Russian land." He developed that idea by stating: "Soviet Ukraine is the result of the Bolsheviks' policy and can rightfully be called 'Vladimir Lenin's Ukraine.' He was its creator and architect."

In Ukrainian social media, reaction to Putin's statement was almost immediate. Within a few hours, Facebook was flooded with images of Vladimir Lenin surprised to learn that he had created Ukraine. Another montage inserted Lenin into the monument to the legendary founders of Kyiv, the brothers Kyi, Shchek, and Khoryv and their sister, Lybid. Lenin replaced Lybid at the prow of the boat carrying the founders of the Ukrainian capital. The monument expresses Ukrainians' belief that their country's roots go back to the Middle Ages.

But what about modern Ukraine, a state that, according to Mr. Putin, came into existence at the expense of historical Russian lands? Even a cursory

acquaintance with the history of the Russian Revolution and fall of the Russian Empire that accompanied it indicates that the modern Ukrainian state came into existence not thanks to Lenin but against his wishes and in direct reaction to the Bolshevik putsch in Petrograd in October (according to the Gregorian calendar, November) of 1917. The Bolsheviks tried to take control of Kyiv as well but were defeated, jumpstarting the process of the modern Ukrainian state-building.

In January 1918 the Central Rada (Council), the revolutionary Ukrainian parliament, dominated by socialist and leftist parties and led by Ukraine's most prominent historian, Mykhailo Hrushevsky, declared the creation of the Ukrainian People's Republic. It encompassed most of today's Ukrainian territories within the borders of the Russian Empire, including the mining region of the Donbas (Donets Basin). The new state wanted to maintain federal ties with Russia, but after the Bolshevik invasion of January 1918, the Central Rada declared the independence of Ukraine.

The Bolsheviks waged war on the Ukrainian government under the banner of their own Ukrainian People's Republic—a fiction created to provide a degree of legitimacy for the Bolshevik takeover of Ukraine. Bolshevik troops massacred the population of Kyiv, killing hundreds if not thousands of its citizens, including Metropolitan Vladimir (Bogoiavlensky) of the Orthodox Church. The Bolshevik commander in Kyiv, Mikhail Muraviev, sent Lenin a telegram: "Order has been restored in Kyiv."

The Central Rada had to leave Kyiv but soon returned, having signed an agreement with Germany and Austria-Hungary, whose troops moved into Ukraine in the spring of 1918 and drove the Bolsheviks out of its territory, including the Donbas. The Germans soon replaced the democratic Central Rada with the authoritarian regime of Herman Pavlo Skoropadsky, but the democratic Ukrainian People's Republic was restored when the Germans withdrew from Ukraine late in 1918. The Bolsheviks moved in once again, this time under the banner of their adversary Ukrainian People's Republic, formally independent of Russia. After the original defeats in Ukraine, Lenin came to the conclusion that the formal independence of the Ukrainian state, coupled with concessions in the realm of language and culture, was absolutely necessary if the Bolsheviks were to maintain their control over Ukraine. He felt that Ukrainian aspirations to independence were so strong, not only among Ukrainians in general but even among the Bolsheviks themselves, as to require the granting of a degree of autonomy and a status equal to Russia within the Soviet Union, the new state whose creation was declared in 1922.

Lenin was indeed central to the formation of the USSR, as Mr. Putin has claimed. But Lenin's main contribution to the history of Russo-Ukrainian relations was not the formation of a modern Ukraine state but the endowment of the Russian Federation—the name under which it entered the Soviet Union—with a territory and institutions of its own, distinct for the first time in centuries from the territory and institutions of the empire that it was seeking to preserve. If anything, Lenin

laid the foundations for the formation of modern Russia, not Ukraine. Boris Yeltsin, Mr. Putin's patron, took that state, the Russian Federation, out of the Soviet Union in 1991. It is over that state, not pre-revolutionary Russia, that Mr. Putin presides.

2. Write annotation to this article.

3. Write annotations to 2 English and 2 Ukrainian articles by analogy.

4. Annotate your own article(s).

Grammar:

The noun phrase: noun + prepositional phrase; noun + participle clause; noun + to-infinitive clause.

The noun phrase

A noun phrase is a group of words with a noun as its main part. Information about the noun can be before the noun and/or after the noun.

Information that comes before the noun in a noun phrase is usually expressed through

- determiners

this horrible rubbish

- adjectives and adverbs

a rich habitat

Information that comes after the noun is usually expressed through

- prepositional phrases:

an abundance of creatures

- past participle clauses:

the rubbish contained in the harbour

- present participle (-ing) clauses:

the rubbish lying at the bottom of the harbour

- to-infinitive clauses:

a decision to expand

Noun + prepositional phrase

We can add information after a noun by using a prepositional phrase. Common prepositions in these phrases *are of, in, for, on, to, with*.

possible sites with submerged rubbish

a rich habitat for an abundance of creatures

Of is the most common preposition used in prepositional noun phrases. It is used after nouns of quantity or containers:

*the **number of** fish* *an **abundance of** creatures (quantities)*
*a **bottle of** water* *a **packet of** biscuits (containers)*

We also use **of** to show belonging or possession:

*the rubble **of the past** (**not** the past's rubble)*
*particular areas **of the harbor***

We often use **at**, **in** and **on** to talk about physical location:

*this rubbish lying **at the bottom** of the harbour*
*different species living **in Sydney Harbour***

Prepositional phrases containing **with** often express the same information as a relative clause with the main verb **have**:

*harbour sites **with submerged rubbish** (= harbour sites which have submerged rubbish)*
*sea tulips **with bright red bodies** (= sea tulips which have bright red bodies)*

Noun + past participle clause

A past participle clause gives the same information as a relative clause (see Unit 20) with a passive verb:

*all of the rubbish **contained in the harbour** (= rubbish which is contained in the harbour)*
*areas **cleared of rubbish** (= areas which have been cleared of rubbish)*
*the data **collected from the sites** (= the data which is collected from the sites)*

In both spoken and written English using a noun + past participle clause is more common than the equivalent relative clause because it can express the same information in fewer words.

Noun + present participle (-ing) clause

A present participle clause can give the same information as a relative clause with an active verb, often in the present or past continuous:

*the other debris **lying on the sea floor** (= the other debris which is lying on the sea floor)*

The noun + present participle clause is more common than the equivalent relative clause.
Noun + to-infinitive clause.

Noun + to-infinitive clause

To-infinitive clauses are used to show a purpose or intention and usually follow nouns of time, place, manner and quantity:

time to go
the place to visit
a way to look at it
a lot to look at

Nouns followed by the **to**-infinitive are related to verbs also followed by the **to**-infinitive (e.g. *decide/decision; plan/plan*):
a decision to expand (*decide to*)
our plan to build *a new hospital* (*plan to*)

1. Fill in the gaps with *of, in, for, on, to* or *with*.

- 1 My family live in an old, wooden house with shutters.
- 2 Our main meal _____ the day usually includes rice and vegetables.
- 3 She got the best exam results _____ the whole school.
- 4 At a wedding reception in Britain, all the guests usually get a piece _____ the cake.
- 5 In my country there are special universities _____ talented sportsmen and women.
- 6 You need a large amount _____ money if you want to travel around the world.
- 7 My recent business trip _____ Florida was a great success.
- 8 The house _____ the corner is for sale.
- 9 The weather _____ Greece is wonderful compared with here.
- 10 You should buy a grammar book _____ answers, so that you can practice by yourself.

2. Fill in the gaps with the present or past participle of the verbs in brackets.

- 1 The information given (*give*) in the graph shows the more and more people _____ (*work*) in towns and cities prefer to live in the countryside and commute to work. The number of people _____ (*move*) out of towns and cities increased significantly between 1985 and 2005.
- 2 Our awareness of food quality has changed recently with more people _____ (*buy*) organic food and eggs and meat _____ (*produce*) from animals that live in natural, comfortable conditions. Since 1980 the quantity of food _____ (*grow*) organically in the UK has risen steadily.
- 3 The graph gives information _____ (*concern*) sales and profits of two manufacturing companies. Company A sells pencils _____ (*make*) in the UK, whereas Company B sells pencils _____ (*manufacture*) overseas. Company B has lower costs _____ (*result*) in a higher annual profit.

3. Join the two sentences to make one sentence using a noun phrase. Add prepositions where

necessary.

- 1 I live in Malaysia. I live in the capital city.
I live in the capital city of Malaysia.
- 2 Many people buy their own home. The number is increasing.
The number of _____ increasing.
- 3 A proposal was made by the education department. It was rejected by the government.
The proposal _____ the government
- 4 We have computer software. The software's purpose is to predict future earthquakes.
We have computer software _____ earthquakes.
- 5 A new dictionary is about to be published. The dictionary contains more words than ever before.
A new dictionary _____ to be published.
- 6 My favourite novel is a story. The story is based on the author's own experience.
My favourite novel _____ own experience.

4. Use noun phrases to replace the underlined sentences.

Describe a holiday you have had that was successful.

You should say:

when the holiday took place
who you went with
why it was successful.

I recently had a wonderful holiday in Crete / with my friends. 1 I went with my friends. When we arrived we saw a bus. 2 The bus was waiting to take us to our hotel. The hotel was nice with good views. 3 The views were of the sea. The location was also very good. 4 There was lots to do nearby. There are lots of Minoan sites. 5 You can visit them. It's a lovely island. 6 It has beautiful beaches. We spent our time sightseeing, lying on the beach and walking. Actually, it was the walking that I liked best. We did one amazing walk. 7 It was through the Samaritan Gorge. It took all day, but was well worth it. We saw a snake. 8 The snake was curled up on a rock. And lots of lizards and birds. We got really hot and were very tired when we arrived at the beach at the end of the long walk. It was great to see the sea. 9 It was sparkling in the sun. We ran into the water to cool down. It was the best holiday ever.

THEME 7. Diploma Thesis Presentation.

1. Study the structure of the diploma thesis presentation.

STRUCTURE OF THE DIPLOMA PAPER PRESENTATION

I. State the topic of your master-paper and do some introduction to your research.

II. State

- the objective
- the subject and the object of the research
- tasks
- the scientific novelty
- the topicality of the research
- experimental methods

III. Describe the process of the experiment.

IV. Present conclusions/results of the diploma paper.

V. Perspectives of the research.

5. Read and remember the model for substantiation of a research:

SUBSTANTIATION

Our research is focused on the **theme** ...

The **topicality** of the research is stipulated by ...

The **object** of the research is ...

The **subject matter** of the research is ...

The **goal** of the project is ...

To achieve the goal we have to solve the following **tasks**:

- to investigate ...
- to analyze ...
- to determine ...
- to work out practical recommendations as to the application ...

To solve these concrete tasks the following **methods** of scientific investigation will be applied:

- the method of comparative analysis;
- the method of typological analysis;
- the method of quantitative analysis;
- the method of statistic analysis.

The **scientific significance** is determined by ...

The **practical application** of the research is based on the possible usage of the obtained data ...

The main **conclusions, results** of the work in the research work ...

6. Make up the presentation of your diploma thesis.

Grammar: Modals 1 (ability, permission, advise)

INTRODUCTION TO MODALS

The modal verbs are:

statement	negative
<i>can</i>	<i>can't / cannot</i>
<i>may</i>	<i>may not</i>
<i>will</i>	<i>won't / will not</i>
<i>shall</i>	<i>shan't / shall not</i>
<i>must</i>	<i>mustn't / must not</i>
<i>could</i>	<i>couldn't / could not</i>
<i>might</i>	<i>mightn't / might not</i>
<i>would</i>	<i>wouldn't / would not</i>
<i>should</i>	<i>shouldn't / should not</i>

All modal verbs:

- have only one form
*I/you/he/she/it/we/they **may** write an e-mail.*
- are followed by the bare infinitive
*You **should** **call** Stella.*
- do not have an infinitive

Semi-modals

There are also some phrases that we use like modals:

- ***ought to** (**ought not to**)*
- ***have to** (**don't have to**)*
- ***need to** (**don't need to** / **needn't**)*

Like modals, ***ought to*** doesn't change. ***Have to*** and ***need to*** change for person and tense like normal verbs and have infinitives.

- We form questions with modal verbs like this:
***Can** you understand what he's saying?*
- We use modals with the passive voice like this:
*The address **should be written** clearly on the front of the envelope.*

ABILITY

Use	Modal	Example
Ability now or generally	<i>can</i>	<i>Can you use a fax machine?</i>

Ability in the past	<i>could</i>	<i>Tom could read when he was two years old.</i>
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- We use **be able to** to form other tenses.

*It's useful **to be able to** order things by e-mail.* (infinitive)

*Soon, I'll **be able to** speak Italian quite well.* (future)

*Have you **been able to** speak English for a long time?* (present perfect)

PERMISSION

Use	Modal	Example
Asking for permission	<i>can / could / may</i>	<i>Can / Could / May I use the phone?</i>
Giving permission	<i>can / may</i>	<i>You can / may send the fax when you like.</i>

May is more polite than *could* and *could* is more polite than *can*.

ADVISE

Use	Modal	Example
Asking for and giving advise	<i>should / ought to</i>	<i>Liam ought to / should watch less TV.</i>

1. Underline the mistake in each sentence and write the correct words.

1. My older brother can to ride a motorbike, but I can't. _____
2. He'll has his dinner early today because he's going out. _____
3. Do you can come to my party? _____
4. You should to see a doctor about your foot. _____
5. I couldn't bought any bread because the baker's was closed. _____
6. You needn't to do the washing-up. I've already done it. _____
7. The school ought listen to pupils' opinions. _____
8. People shouldn't to drop their rubbish in the street. _____

2. Complete the sentences using *can*, *could* or the correct form of *be able to*. You may have to use some negative forms.

Amy really loves playing chess and she (1) _____ play very well.
When she was a baby she (2) _____ play chess. She thinks that when she's older, she'll (3) _____ win the national championships!

Amy has (4) _____ ride a bicycle since she was three. She wants to learn to drive when she grows up, though. When she's eighteen, she hopes she'll (5) _____ do her driving test. She (6) _____ drive a car now though. It's against the law!

3. Write what they say using the word given.

1. Tony wants to borrow his friend's pencil. **could**
'Could I borrow your pencil?' _____
2. Alex wants to allow her friend to use her dictionary. **can**
'_____'
3. Julie wants permission for her teacher to leave the classroom. **may**
'_____'
4. Lou wants to wear his brother's new trainers. **can**
'_____'
5. Terry wants to ask her boss for permission to take the day off work. **could**
'_____'
6. Diane wants to use her dad's car this weekend. **can**
'_____'
7. A teacher wants to give her students five extra minutes to finish the test. **may**
'_____'

4. Circle the correct word or phrase.

1. I've been having swimming lessons and now I **can** / **could** swim really well.
2. Please **could** / **should** I use your mobile phone?
3. Sam **could** / **ought** to get a job instead of complaining about having no money.
4. Okay, yes - you **can** / **should** leave five minutes early today.

5. Do you think I **must** / **should** tell Michael the truth about what happened?
6. I **can't** / **couldn't** read until I was five years old.
7. I'm sorry, but you **can't** / **couldn't** leave your car there.
8. If you want to pass the exam, you **can** / **ought to** do some revision.
9. I know John lived in Tokyo, but I don't think he **can** / **may** speak Japanese.
10. Tracy **can** / **could** sing really well now that she's had a few lessons.

5. Match to make sentences.

1. There's a lot of washing-up; I think we should	A wait for their flight in the VIP area.
2. It's getting quite late and we ought	B borrow some if you need it.
3. I don't have much money, but you can	C to think about getting a taxi.
4. It's amazing that Andrew could	D offer to do it.
5. Passengers travelling in first class may	E walk when he was just six months old.

SELF-STUDY

- 1. Study the scheme of compiling the topic "My Research Interests". Use it to write about your own research.**

MY RESEARCH INTERESTS

My name is

I am a master student of Rivne State University for the Humanities, as I want to improve my professional qualification.

I study at the ... Faculty, at the Department of ...

The direction of my research is ..., as I became interested in it when I was an undergraduate.

I work under the tutorship of Docent (Professor) ...

My topic can be phrased as ".....".

I believe my topic is of great importance for the studying of

I hope to complete the work at my diploma paper

I plan to continue the work at my topic as a post graduate student of

I'd like to add that I have taken part in the work of ... research conference which was held in

I have published one (two, three) article(s) based on my scientific research.

Grammar:

Modals 2 (obligation, probability, possibility)

OBLIGATION

Use	Modal	Example
Present or future obligation	<i>must/ mustn't have to need to</i>	<i>All visitors must turn off their mobile phones. You have to/need to press 'send'.</i>
No present or future obligation	<i>don't have to don't need to needn't</i>	<i>You don't have to/don't need to/needn't pay to send an e-mail.</i>
Past obligation	<i>had to</i>	<i>Yesterday, Sam had to buy more stamps.</i>
No past obligation	<i>didn't have to didn't need to</i>	<i>I learnt a little Italian, but everyone spoke English, so I didn't have to/didn't need to use it.</i>

- In spoken English, **have to** is more common than **must**. **Must** is often used in written notices and instructions.

*'We **have to** pay the phone bill today,' Rita said.*

*Passengers **must** turn off all mobile phones.*

- Mustn't** and **don't have to** do not mean the same.

*You **mustn't** do that! (= Don't do that!)*

*You **don't have to** do that. (= You can do that if you want to, but it's not necessary.)*

PROBABILITY AND POSSIBILITY

Use	Modal	Example
Present strong probability	<i>must can't couldn't</i>	<i>The phone is ringing - it must be Simon. This letter can't/couldn't be from Japan because it's got a French stamp.</i>
Present and future probability	<i>should ought to</i>	<i>We ought to/should hear from Cheryl this weekend.</i>

Present and future possibility	<i>could</i> <i>may</i> <i>might</i>	<i>I'm not sure what language it is - it could/may/might be Polish.</i>
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- We often use **must**, **can't** and **couldn't** for probability when we have some evidence for our opinion.

*I just rang Paul, but there's no answer. He **must** be out.*

1. Choose the sentence (A, B or C) which means the same as the first sentence.

1. We have to pay the electricity bill before Friday.
A We can pay it if we want to.
B We must pay it.
C We've already paid it.
2. You don't need to buy me a birthday present.
A You must buy me a birthday present.
B It's not necessary to buy me a birthday present.
C You mustn't buy me a birthday present.
3. I have to do some work on my project this evening.
A I haven't got time to do the work.
B I've already done the work.
C I need to do the work.
4. Lenny didn't have to see the head teacher after all.
A It wasn't necessary for Lenny to see the head teacher.
B Lenny went to see the head teacher.
C Lenny is waiting to see the head teacher.
5. Students mustn't run in school buildings.
A They can run if they want to.
B Students don't like running.
C Running isn't allowed.
6. All passengers must fasten their seatbelts.
A They have to fasten their seatbelts now.
B They don't have to fasten their seatbelts.
C They can fasten their seatbelts.
7. Mr. Reed had to go to the police station to answer some questions.

- A Mr. Reed was able to go to the police station
B Mr. Reed forgot to go to the police station.
C Mr. Reed was obliged to go to the police station.

8. It's kind of you to offer to help, but you really don't need to.

- A I don't want you to help me.
B Your help isn't necessary.
C You won't be able to help me.

2. Circle the correct word or phrase.

1. 'Smoking isn't allowed in the airport.'
You **mustn't** / **don't have to** smoke in the airport.
2. 'It's not necessary to come to the train station to meet me.'
You **have to** / **don't have to** meet her at the train station.
3. 'We were forced to wait for over two hours in the rain!'
They **had to** / **didn't need to** wait for over two hours in the rain.
4. 'The instructions tell you to write in pencil.'
You **must** / **needn't** write in pencil.
5. 'You can contact us by either phone or e-mail.'
'You **mustn't** / **don't have to** phone them.
6. 'In my country, you can carry your passport with you if you want, but it's not necessary.'
In her country, you **don't need to** / **mustn't** carry your passport with you.
7. 'My grandfather was made to start work when he was just fourteen years old.'
He **had to** / **must** start work when he was just fourteen years old.
8. 'It's not necessary to book a hotel; you can stay in our spare room.'
You **mustn't** / **don't have to** stay in a hotel.

3. Complete using the correct form of *have to*. You may have to use some negative forms.

1. Jade can't come out tonight. She _____ look after her little brother.
2. I didn't have enough money, so I _____ borrow some from Yuri.
3. It's raining really hard, but luckily we _____ go out this evening.

4. To start the laptop you _____ press the power button.
5. Robbie worked last weekend, but I _____.
6. _____ you _____ go to piano lessons when you were younger?

4. Match the sentences with the explanations. You have to use some of the explanations more than once.

1. 'Someone is at the door. It must be Mrs. Johnson from next door.'

2. Lena might not know where the cinema is.'

3. Dad should know what the capital of New Zealand is.'

4. 'Greg can't be in the final! He's a terrible player!'

5. The dog is wet. It must be raining outside.'

6. 'We may go to the Canary Islands for Easter.'

7. Ken must like that film. He's seen it six times!'

8. Barry ought to be able to cook Chinese food. He lived there for two years. _____

A I'm almost certain.

B It's probable.

C Maybe/Perhaps.

MODULE TEST

1. Complete each definition with a word from the box.

administration Congress ecology siege harbor
unconstitutional propaganda isolated foliage elector

1. An _____ is a member of the Electoral College or any person who has the right to vote in an election.
2. _____ is the group of elected officials in the U.S. government that makes laws; it has two parts: the Senate and the House of Representatives.
3. Something that is not allowed by the government or does not conform to the written laws can be called _____.
4. _____ consists of often false or misleading ideas that are spread to do damage to the opposition.
5. The _____ includes the president and those working with him in the federal government.
6. Ships and boats may safely anchor in a _____.
7. _____ is the study of the relationship between living things and the conditions that surround and affect them.
8. Something that is _____ is alone, secluded, or set apart.
9. A _____ occurs when an army tries to capture a city or fort by surrounding it for a long period of time.
9. The leaves of trees or plants are called their _____.

2. Use *context clues* to figure out which word correctly completes each sentence. Circle the word.

1. The Spartan warriors laid (foliage / siege) to the city-state of Athens.
2. The (administration / elector) cast her one vote for candidate Mario Mendelson.
3. Some voters did not like Mario, who had spread some exaggerated (propaganda / ecology) about his opponent.

3. Look at the boxed words in Exercise 1. Then tell which word . . .

1. . . . has a prefix that means “not”? _____
2. . . . is a proper noun? _____
3. . . . has a suffix that means “one who does something”? _____
4. . . . uses the suffix *-ion* to make a verb into a noun? _____
5. . . . follows the spelling rule
 1. “i before e except after c”? _____

4. The suffix *-al* is often used to build adjectives. Circle the correctly spelled adjective in each group. (Use a dictionary if you need help.)

Then use the correctly spelled adjective in a sentence.

1. congressional congresional congressial congressal

SENTENCE:

2. ecological ecologal ecological eclogical

SENTENCE:

3. electral electoral electrocal electional

SENTENCE:

5. Match each item on the left with the word that describes it. Write a letter by each number.

1. _____ George W. Bush and his cabinet

a. isolated

2. _____ "I refuse to hire women!"

b. propaganda

3. _____ "I want everyone to know that candidate Mario Mendelson once flunked high school algebra!"

c. administration

4. _____ The team of scientists will live alone at a remote Antarctic post.

d. ecology

5. _____ Old-growth forests should be maintained to protect certain birds and animals.

e. unconstitutional

• The word part *-ology* means "the science or study of." What word from the box in Exercise 1 has the word part *-ology*, and what does it mean?

WORD: _____ **MEANING:**

• Now complete each sentence with one of the following words. Use a dictionary for help.

anthropology

psychology

archeology

geology

1. The study of the Earth's crust, rocks, and fossils is called _____.

2. _____ is the study of the human mind and the reasons behind people's actions.

3. The science that studies the origin, development, and customs of human beings is called _____.

4. The science of _____ studies ancient times and ancient life by examining ruins, artifacts, and tombs.

TEXTS FOR ADDITIONAL READING

HISTORY

History is the study of the human past. Historians study records of past events and prepare new records based on their research. These records, as well as the events themselves, are also commonly called history. This article discusses history as a field of study.

The past has left many traces, including traditions, folk tales, works of art, archaeological objects, and books and other written records. Historians use all these sources, but they mainly study the past as it has been recorded in written documents. Thus, history is generally limited to human events that have taken place since the development of writing about 5,500 years ago.

Historians study all aspects of past human life – social and cultural conditions as well as political and economic 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 as a guide for decisions and policies today. However, they disagree about history's lessons, and so there are many different interpretations of the past.

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

What historians study

The content of history. Until the 1900's, historians primarily studied political events; they wrote almost exclusively about diplomacy, wars, and affairs of state. Today, historians also study many other subjects. Some examine economic and social conditions. Others trace the development of religions, the arts, or other elements of culture.

History is often classified as one of the social sciences, along with such fields as economics, psychology, and sociology. However, historians differ from other social scientists in the way in which they study social processes.

Other social scientists seek to develop general laws by examining patterns of

behaviour that recur throughout 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. But historians rarely attempt to develop general laws.

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. Periods of time form the chief divisions in the study of history. Historians divide Western history into three periods. They are:

- ◆ 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.

For example, 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 historians organize and 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 realizing that the Middle Ages had a vitality of its own and formed the basis of 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. Even the dating system differs because Western society uses the birth of Jesus Christ as a dividing line. The years before the birth of Christ are designated B.C. (before Christ), and those thereafter are considered AD (Anno Domini—in the year of our Lord).

The division of history by nation involves, for example, 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, of an ethnic group, or of a city.

HISTORY AND PREHISTORY

History is the 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 itself was derived from the Ancient Greek *historía*, meaning "a learning or knowing by inquiry, history, record, narrative," from the verb *historeîn*, "to inquire".

Traditionally, **historians** have attempted to answer historical questions through the study of written documents, although historical research is not limited merely 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 consult 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.

As a field of study, history encompasses many subfields and ancillary fields. These include chronology, historiography, archaeology, genealogy, palaeography among many others.

The scope of the human past has naturally led scholars to divide that time into manageable pieces for study. There are a variety of ways in which the past can be divided, including chronologically, culturally, and topically. These three divisions are not mutually exclusive, and significant overlap is often present. It is possible for historians to concern themselves with both very specific and very general locations, times, and topics, although the trend has been toward specialization.

History and Prehistory. Traditionally, the study of history was limited to the written and spoken word. However, the rise of academic professionalism and the creation of new scientific fields in the 19th and 20th 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. Some traditional historians questioned whether these new studies were really history, since they were not limited to the written word. A new term, prehistory, was coined, to encompass the results of these new fields where they yielded information about times before the existence of written records.

In the 20th 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 relied on various sources of evidence. In recent decades, strict barriers between history and prehistory may be decreasing.

There are different views for the definition of when history begins. Some believe history began in the 34th century BC, with cuneiform writing. Cuneiforms were written on clay tablets, on which symbols were drawn with a blunt reed called a stylus. The impressions left by the stylus were wedge shaped, thus giving rise to the name cuneiform ("wedge shaped"). The Sumerian script was adapted for the writing of the Akkadian, Elamite, Hittite (and Luwian), Hurrian (and Uartian) 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 (but even this barrier is being challenged by new fields such as Big History).

Sources that can give light on the past, such as oral tradition, linguistics, and genetics, have become accepted by many mainstream 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 interpretative problems and potentials.

Protohistory refers to a period between prehistory and history, during which a culture or civilization has not yet developed writing, but other cultures have already noted its existence in their own writings. For example, in Europe, the Celts and the Germanic tribes may be considered to have been protohistoric when they began appearing in Greek and Roman texts.

Protohistoric may also refer to the transition period between the advent of literacy in a society and the writings of the first historians. The preservation of oral traditions may complicate matters as these can provide a secondary historical source for even earlier events. Colonial sites involving a literate group and a non-literate group are also studied as protohistoric situations.

In *The Oxford Illustrated History of Prehistoric Europe* an article by Timothy Taylor says,

"Because of the existence in some but not all societies of historical writing during the first millennium BC, the period has often been termed 'protohistoric' instead of prehistoric. Of course, the understanding of the past gained through archaeology is broadly different in nature to understanding derived from historical texts. Having both sorts of evidence is a boon and a challenge."

In the abstract of a later paper on "slavery in the first millennium Aegean, Carpatho-Balkan and Pontic regions", Taylor, who is primarily an archaeologist, says,

"I have taken the rather unusual step of trusting what the classical authors tell us they knew."

As with prehistory, determining when a culture may be considered prehistoric or protohistoric is sometimes difficult for the archaeologist. Data vary considerably from culture to culture, region to region, and even from one system of reckoning dates to another.

In its simplest form, protohistory follows the same chronology as prehistory, based on the technological advancement of a particular people with regard to metallurgy:

- The Copper Age or Chalcolithic
- The Bronze Age
- The Iron Age

The best known protohistoric civilizations and ethnic groups are those for whom the term was originally coined: the European barbarian tribes. Many of these peoples of course also experienced periods of prehistory and history.

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 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 thoroughly 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, like organisms, 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 issues as the nature of history as a field of knowledge and the method of explanation used by historians.

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, Sima Qian (also spelled Sou-ma Ch'ien), wrote the earliest major history of China about 100 B.C.

Western historical 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 primarily on tradition and oral testimony. He added fictitious details to make it more lively, but modern historians have confirmed the basic accuracy of his writing. 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.C.

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 of the 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 record 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 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 Ibn Khaldun wrote his seven-volume *Universal History*, a study of world civilization. Also at 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 masterpiece, *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, however, 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.

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.

Historical method basics

The following questions are used by historians in modern work.

1. When was the source, written or unwritten, produced (date)?

2. Where was it produced (localization)?
3. By whom was it produced (authorship)?
4. From what pre-existing material was it produced (analysis)?
5. In what original form was it produced (integrity)?
6. What is the evidential value of its contents (credibility)?

The first four are known as higher criticism; the fifth, lower criticism; and, together, external criticism. The sixth and final inquiry about a source is called internal criticism.

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.

The scarcity of sources is a great problem for historians, whose work sometimes resembles that of detectives. Many activities and thoughts of ordinary people, plus other useful data, were never recorded. Much that was written down has been lost or destroyed through the years. Also, historians often must rely on the writings of only a few people. Such writings are mere fragments on which to base a reconstruction of the past.

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, the historian must determine whether the author's account of events can be trusted.

Interpreting 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 another 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 heavily 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. Similarly, some historians use statistical methods to interpret data from such sources as old censuses and account books. This approach is called cliometrics. As the last step in interpretation, a historian prepares a written account of events. 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.

Methods and tools

Contemporaneous corroboration: A method historians use to establish facts beyond their limited lifespan.

Prosopography: A methodological tool for the collection of all known information about individuals within a given period.

Historical revisionism: Traditionally been used in a completely neutral sense to describe the work or ideas of a historian who has revised a previously accepted view of a particular topic.

HISTORICAL ANALYSIS

What does a good historian need to have? The process of historical analysis is a difficult one, involving investigation and analysis of competing ideas, facts and purported 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 that these narratives will start from the beginning of the world. These prefaces are usually of much less historical interest. While ancient writers do not normally share modern historical practices, their work remains valuable for its insights within the cultural context of

the times.

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, the so-called father of history, 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 a ruling class with a lineage, thereby offering it legitimacy, or to give a people a cultural heritage and 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. This does not necessarily devalue their work but does require that their efforts be considered within their cultural context.

Concerning Herodotus (5th century BC), one of the earliest nameable historians whose work survives, his recount of strange and unusual tales are gripping but not necessarily representative of the historical record. Despite this, The Histories of Herodotus displays some of the techniques of more modern historians. He interviewed witnesses, evaluated oral histories, studied multiple sources and then pronounced his particular version.

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. But, as it was mainly within living memory and Thucydides himself was alive at the time of many of the events, there was less room for myths and tall tales.

Much of the groundwork in creating the modern figure of the historian was done by Charles de Second, baron de Montesquieu (1689–1755). His wide-ranging Spirit of the Laws spanned legal, geographical, cultural, economic, political and philosophical studies and was greatly influential in forging the fundamentally interdisciplinary historian.

Referred to as "the first modern historian", Edward Gibbon wrote his grand opus The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. However, some authors such as Christiansen regard ancient Greek author Polybius as the first historian of a modern kind, criticizing sources and making unbiased judgments

based on presumed neutral analysis; indeed, Livy used him as a source. Polybius, one of the first historians to attempt to present history as a sequence of causes and effects, carefully conducted his research – partly based on what he saw and partly on the communications of eye-witnesses and the participants in the events.

At the turn of the twentieth century, Western history remained notoriously 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.

A pronounced shift away from crude Whiggish analyses has started, in favour of a more critical and precise perspective. For example, a common myth is that Thomas Edison invented the electric light bulb; a traditional American history might highlight Edison's story at the expense of all others. In contrast, a modern history of Edison mentions all his predecessors and competitors, in order to show that Edison's real accomplishments were in concert with the successful commercial deployment of technology (in tandem with inventor Joseph Swann, hence the Edison-Swann company).

Since the 1960s, history as an academic discipline has undergone several evolutions. These changes fostered advances in a number of areas previously unrecognized in historiography. Formerly neglected topics have become the subject of academic study, such as the history of popular culture, mass culture, sexuality, geographical culture and the lives of ordinary people.

Historians also started investigating the histories of ideas surrounding various categories of people, such as women's studies (including an entire branch of women's history), racial minorities (like African-American history) or disabled people (e.g., an historian's study of the construction of ideas about disabled people and the results thereof, perhaps 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, it is common, although not required, for many historians to have a Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) degree in their chosen areas of study. During the preparation of their thesis for this degree, many develop into their first book, since regular publishing activities are essential for advancement in academia. There is currently a great deal of controversy among academic historians regarding the possibility and desirability of the neutrality in historical scholarship.

The job market for graduate historians is relatively limited. Historians typically work in libraries, universities, archival centres, government agencies

(particularly heritage) and as freelance consultants. Many with a history degree also may become involved with administrative or clerical professions and a history degree is often used as a "stepping stone" to further studies such as a law degree.

The term "buff" is sometimes used to describe an historian, such as stating that a historian of the Second World War is a "World War II Buff". This term is normally regarded as somewhat insulting to professional historians, since "buffs" are those typically who study history as a minor hobby and do not have the same training and background of a professional historian who has received college level academic training in a given field.

There is also the related expansion in the popularity of history as a subject for television programmes, which has led to the growth of "super historians" known variously as "super dons" or "celebrity dons", who can present their own views to a wider audience.

PERIODIZATION

Periodization is the attempt to categorize or divide time into discrete named blocks. The result is a descriptive abstraction that provides a useful handle on periods of time with relatively stable characteristics.

Most sciences that engage the history of some particular object find it helpful to utilize a system of periodization. All of these periods are retrospectively defined, and therefore only valuable to the extent that they aid critical analysis and convenient description. Historical periods are limited by generally agreed-upon temporal and geographical boundaries. Periodization from the sciences includes the geologic Cretaceous or Jurassic periods, while examples from human history include the Modern and Medieval periods.

Periodization is a complex issue. To the extent that history is continuous, all systems of periodization are more or less arbitrary. Nevertheless, it is pragmatically useful to divide up history in order to make sense of the past and to articulate changes over time. Different nations and cultures, which experience different histories, require different models of periodization. Periodizing labels are continually challenged and redefined. Thus a historian may claim that there was no such thing as the Renaissance, while others will defend the concept.

The reasons for this are complex. Periodizing blocks will inevitably overlap, or even seemingly contradict one another. Furthermore, certain periodizing concepts only apply under specific conditions. Some have a cultural usage. Others refer to historical events, yet others are defined by decimal numbering systems ("the 1960s", "the 17th Century"). Other periods are named from influential or

talismanic individuals ("the [Victorian Era](#)", "the [Edwardian Era](#)", "the [Napoleonic Era](#)").

Some of these usages will also be geographically specific. This is especially true of periodizing labels derived from individuals or ruling elites, such as the [Jacksonian Era](#) in America, the [Meiji Era](#) in Japan, or the [Merovingian Period](#) in France. Cultural terms may also have a limited reach. Thus the concept of the "Romantic period" may be meaningless outside of Europe and European-influenced cultures. Likewise, "the 1960s", though technically applicable to anywhere in the world according to [Common Era](#) numbering, has a certain set of specific cultural connotations in certain countries. For this reason it may be possible to say such things as "The 1960s never occurred in Spain." This would mean that the [sexual revolution](#), [counterculture](#), youth rebellion and so on never developed during that decade in Spain's conservative [Roman Catholic](#) culture and under [Francisco Franco](#)'s authoritarian regime. Likewise it is possible to claim, as the historian [Arthur Marwick](#) has, that "the 1960s" began in the late [1950s](#) and ended in the early [1970s](#). His reason for saying this is that the cultural and economic conditions that define the *meaning* of the period covers more than the accidental fact of a 10 year block beginning with the number 6. This extended usage is termed the "long 1960s". This usage derives from other historians who have adopted labels such as "[the long 19th century](#)" (1789–1914) to reconcile arbitrary decimal chronology with meaningful cultural and social phases. Similarly, an Eighteenth Century may run 1714–1789. [Eric Hobsbawm](#) has also argued for what he calls "[the short twentieth century](#)", encompassing the period from the [First World War](#) through to the end of the [Cold War](#).

Similar problems attend other labels. Is it possible to use the term "Victorian" outside of Britain? It sometimes is used when it is thought that its connotations usefully describe the politics, culture and economic conditions characteristic of the last two-thirds of the nineteenth century. Nevertheless periodizing terms often have negative or positive connotations which may affect their usage. This would include "Victorian", which is often used negatively to suggest sexual repression, class conflict, heavy industry and so on. Other labels such as "Renaissance" have strongly positive characteristics. As a result, these terms will sometimes be extended in meaning.

Because of these various positive and negative connotations, some periods are luckier than others regarding their names, although this can lead to problems such as the ones outlined above.

The term [Middle Ages](#) also derives from Petrarch. He was comparing his own period to the Ancient or [Classical world](#), seeing his time as a time of rebirth

after a dark intermediate period, the Middle Ages. The idea that the Middle Ages was a "middle" phase between two other large scale periodizing concepts, Ancient and Modern, still persists. It can be sub-divided into the [Early](#), [High](#) and [Late](#) Middle Ages. The term [Dark Ages](#) is no longer in common use among modern scholars because of the difficulty of using it neutrally, though some writers have attempted to retain it and divest it of its negative connotations. The term "Middle Ages" and especially the adjective *medieval* can also have a negative ring in colloquial use ("the barbaric treatment of prisoners in such-and-such a prison is almost medieval") but this does not carry over into academic terminology. However other terms, such as [Gothic architecture](#), used to refer to a style typical of the High Middle Ages have largely lost the negative connotations they initially had, acquiring new meanings over time.

The [Gothic](#) and the [Baroque](#) were both named during subsequent stylistic periods when the preceding style was unpopular. The word "Gothic" was applied as a pejorative term to all things Northern European and, hence, barbarian, probably first by [Giorgio Vasari](#). Vasari is also credited with first using the term "Renaissance" (*rinascita*), the period during which he was art historian, artist and architect. [Giorgio Vasari](#) coined the term "Gothic" in an effort to describe, particularly architecture that he found objectionable, supposedly saying "it is as if the Goths built it". The word "baroque" (probably) was used first in late 18th century French about the irregular natural pearl shape and later about an architectural style *perceived* to be "irregular" in comparison to the highly regular Neoclassical architecture of that time. Subsequently these terms have become purely descriptive, and have largely lost negative connotations. However the term "Baroque" as applied to art (for example [Rubens](#)) refers to a much earlier historical period than when applied to music ([Händel](#), [Bach](#)). This reflects the difference between stylistic histories *internal* to an art form and the *external* chronological history beyond it.

In many cases people living through a period are unable to identify themselves as belonging to the period that historians may later assign to them. This is partly because they are unable to predict the future, and so will not be able to tell whether they are at the beginning, middle or end of a period. Another reason may be that their own sense of historical development may be determined by religions or ideologies that differ from those used by later historians.

It is important to recognize the difference between self-defined historical periods, and those which are later defined by historians. At the beginning of the [20th century](#) there was a general belief that culture, politics and history were entering a new era – that the new century would also be a new era in human

experience. This belief was repeated at the beginning of the [21st century](#), though in a very different way. Other cultural and historical phases have only been described many years, or even centuries, later.

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 method. As such, 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 contributions to the development of the scientific method have been made since antiquity, the origin of the modern scientific method is also a complicated subject that is controversial. Ibn al-Haytham (Alhazen) in his *Book of Optics* recorded important contributions to the development of what would come to be known as science many centuries later. Science is a relatively recent word, whereas for centuries natural philosophers did the work which one might now reasonably call early science. The modern scientific method was not fully developed until the Scientific Revolution, which was initiated by the Scholastic universities of 13th century Europe, and its height during the 16th and early 17th 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. Traditionally, historians of science have defined science sufficiently broadly to include those inquiries.

Mathematics is closely related to, but distinct from science (at least in the modern conception). Technology concerns the creative process of designing useful objects and systems, which differs from the search for empirical truth. Philosophy differs from science in that, while both the natural and the social sciences attempt to base their theories on established fact, philosophy also enquires about other areas of knowledge, notably ethics. In practice, each of these fields is heavily used by the others as an external tool.

The historiography of science is the 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 philosophy of science, science studies, and other allied disciplines. The historiography of science is a meta-level analysis of the history of science itself — whereas the history of science is concerned with scientific events, the historiography of science is concerned with the descriptions of scientific events over time.

Since the mid-19th 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. Put broadly, the field as a whole examines the entire spectrum of human experience relating to science and technology, and how our understanding of that experience has changed over time. 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, disciplinary and institutional history, the cultural, economic, and political impacts of science and technology, and the impact of society on scientific practice itself.

THE METHODS **OF DOING HISTORY OF SCIENCE**

Just as the 1930s were a seminal decade for the development of our modern understanding of science, they were a seminal decade for the history and historiography of science as well. Some of the most influential historians and philosophers of science were first coming into the picture, and the setting of the philosophical battle which is now known as "the Science Wars" was being set.

In 1931, the Second International Congress of the History of Science was convened in London. The papers delivered by the Soviet delegation, led by N.I. Bukharin, quickly invigorated the discipline. Boris Hessen in particular delivered a paper entitled *The Social and Economic Roots of Newton's Principia*, in which he asserted that Isaac Newton's most famous work was created to cater to the goals and desires of 17th century industry and economy. Hessen asserted that Newton's work was inspired by his economic status and context, that the Principia was little more than the solution of technical problems of the bourgeoisie.

Hessen's thesis had a wide effect in Western history of science. Though Hessen's work is now easily dismissed as "vulgar Marxism", its focus on the relationship between society and science was, in its time, seen as novel and inspiring. It was a challenge to the notion that the history of science was the history

of individual genius in action.

Few contemporary Western readers of Hessen took his paper at face value. His rigid connection between economy and knowledge was not accepted by a majority of historians. However, his assertion that a connection existed between the growth of knowledge and the art of war, and that ballistics played a central part of physics and Newton's world, was viewed with keen interest. In the shadow of the first war to employ chemical weapons, and as the war machines were again gearing up in preparation for another world war, the role between science, technology, and warfare was becoming more interesting to scholars and scientists. Previous views of science as separate from the mundane or vulgar aspects of practical life – the disembodiment of the scientific mind from its context – were becoming less attractive than a view that science and scientists were increasingly embedded in the world in which they worked.

This method of doing the history of science became known as externalism, looking at the manner in which science and scientists are affected, and guided by, their context and the world in which they exist. It is an approach which eschews the notion that the history of science is the development of pure thought over time, one idea leading to another in a contextual bubble which could exist at any place, at any time, if only given the right geniuses.

The contrast to this approach, the method of doing history of science which preceded externalism, became known as internalism. Internalist histories of science often focus on the rational reconstruction of scientific ideas and consider the development of these ideas wholly within the scientific world. Although internalist histories of modern science tend to emphasize the norms of modern science, internalist histories can also consider the different systems of thought underlying the development of Babylonian astronomy or Medieval impetus theory.

In practice, the line between internalism and externalism can be incredibly fuzzy. Few historians then, or now, would insist that either of these approaches in their extremes do not paint a wholly complete picture, nor would it necessarily be possible to practice one fully over the other. However, at their heart they contain a basic question about the nature of science: what is the relationship between the producers and consumers of scientific knowledge? The answer to this question must, in some form, inform the method in which the history of science and technology is conducted; conversely, how the history of science and technology is conducted, and what it concludes, can inform the answer to the question. The question itself contains an entire host of philosophical questions: what is the nature of scientific truth? What does objectivity mean in a scientific context? How does change in scientific theories occur?

The historian-sociologist of science Robert K. Merton produced many famous works following Hessen's thesis, which can be seen as reactions to and refinements of Hessen's argument. In his work on science, technology, and society in the 17th century England, Merton sought to introduce an additional category – puritanism – to explain the growth of science in this period. Merton worked to split Hessen's crude category of economics into smaller subcategories of influence, including transportation, mining, and military technique. Merton also tried to develop empirical, quantitative approaches to showing the influence of external factors on science. Despite these changes, Merton was quick to note his indebtedness to Hessen. Even with his emphasis on external factors, though, Merton differed from Hessen in his interpretation: Merton maintained that while researchers may be inspired and interested by problems which were suggested by extra-scientific factors, ultimately the researcher's interests were driven by "the internal history of the science in question" Merton attempted to delineate externalism and internalism along disciplinary boundaries, with context studied by the sociologist of science, and content by the historian.

CHRONOLOGY

Chronology is the science of locating events in time. An arrangement of events, from either earliest to latest or the reverse, is also called a chronology or, particularly when involving graphical elements, a timeline or a living graph. Unlike chronometry (i.e. timekeeping), which is part of physics, **(general) chronology**, as the science of locating historical events in time, is part of the discipline of history.

A chronology may be either relative—that is, locating related events relative to each other—or absolute—locating these events to specific dates in a Chronological Era. In that these dates are themselves events, the difference between the two blurs a little: an absolute chronology just includes a strange sort of event called a date which is common to all absolute chronologies covering the same period of time. Even this distinction may be blurred by use of different calendars. In Judeo-Christian cultures, historical dates in an absolute chronology are understood to be referred to the Christian era, in combination with the (proleptic) Julian calendar (originally) and the Gregorian calendar respectively.

Calendar and Era

The familiar terms 'calendar' and 'era' (within the meaning of a coherent system of numbered calendar years) concern two complementary fundamental concepts of chronology. For example during eight centuries the calendar belonging

to the Christian era, which era was taken in use in the eighth century by Bede, was the Julian calendar, but after the year 1582 it was the Gregorian calendar. Dionysius Exiguus (about the year 500) was the founder of that era, which is nowadays the most widespread dating system on earth.

Anno Urbis Conditae Era

Though in Roman antiquity one frequently reckoned back to any supposed year of foundation of the city of Rome, the Anno Urbis Conditae era, which like the Anno Domini era did not in reality exist yet in antiquity, was used systematically for the first time only about the year 400, namely by the Iberian historian Orosius; pope Boniface IV (about the year 600) seems to have been the first who recognized the connection between these two eras (i.e. AD 1 = AUC 754).

Astronomical Era

Dionysius Exiguus' Anno Domini era (which contains only calendar years AD) was extended by Bede to the complete Christian era (which contains in addition all calendar years BC but no year zero). Ten centuries after Bede the French astronomers Philippe de la Hire (in the year 1702) and Jacques Cassini (in the year 1740), purely in order to simplify certain calculations, put the Julian Dating System (proposed in the year 1583 by Joseph Scaliger) and with it an astronomical era into use which contains a leap year zero, which the year 1 (AD) precedes but does not exactly coincide with the year 1 BC. Astronomers never proposed seriously to replace our era with their astronomical era (which for that matter coincides exactly with the Christian era where it concerns the calendar years after the year 4).

Other chronological subjects

Other familiar chronological subjects are for example: timeline, linear timescale, French revolutionary era, leap year, Jewish calendar. Subjects of the Christian chronology are for example: Dionysius Exiguus' Easter table, Paschal full moon, lunar cycle, solar cycle, Easter cycle, lunar phase number, millennium question.

Prehistoric chronologies

In the absence of written history, with its chronicles and king lists, late 19th century archaeologists found that they could develop relative chronologies based on pottery techniques and styles. In the field of Egyptology, William Flinders Petrie pioneered sequence dating to penetrate pre-dynastic Neolithic times, using groups of contemporary artefacts deposited together at a single time in graves and working backwards methodically from the earliest historical phases of Egypt.

Known wares discovered at strata in sometimes quite distant sites, the

product of trade, helped extend the network of chronologies. Some cultures have retained the name applied to them in reference to characteristic forms, for lack of an idea of what they called themselves: "The Beaker People" in northern Europe during the 3rd millennium BCE, for example. The study of the means of placing pottery and other cultural artefacts into some kind of order proceeds in two phases, classification and typology: Classification creates categories for the purposes of description, and typology seeks to identify and analyse changes that allow artefacts to be placed into sequences <http://www.staff.ncl.ac.uk/kevin.greene/wintro/chap4.htm>.

Laboratory techniques developed particularly after mid-20th century helped constantly revise and refine the chronologies developed for specific cultural areas. Unrelated dating methods help reinforce a chronology, an axiom of corroborative evidence. Ideally, archaeological materials used for dating a site should complement each other and provide a means of cross-checking. Conclusions drawn from just one unsupported technique are usually regarded as unreliable.

Bayesian analysis has recently started to be routinely applied in the analysis of chronological information, including radiocarbon-derived dates.

Several legendary sources tend to assign unrealistically long lifespan to pre-historical heroes and monarchs (e.g. Egypt, Hebrews, Japanese), if the number of years there reported are understood as years of more than 340 days. One potent explanation for this has been that there have been more than one harvest during the actual year, and memories evolving to legends tend to count each growth period as separate year.

Though chronologies formulated before the 1960s are subject to serious scepticism today, more recent results are more robust than readily appears to journalists and enthusiastic amateurs.

CHRONICLE

Generally a **chronicle** (Latin: *chronica*, from Greek *χρονικά*) is a historical account of facts and events in chronological order. Typically, equal weight is given for important events and less important events, the purpose being the recording of events that occurred. This is in contrast to a narrative or history, which focuses on important events, sets them in a meaningful interpretive context and excludes those the author does not see as important.

Scholars categorize the genre of chronicle into two subgroups: live chronicles, and dead chronicles. A *dead chronicle* is one where the author gathers a list of events up to the time of his writing, but does not record further events as

they occur. A *live chronicle* is where one or more authors add to a chronicle in a regular fashion, recording contemporary events shortly after they occur. Because of the immediacy of the information, [historians](#) tend to value live chronicles, such as [annals](#), over dead ones.

"The chronicle is one of the quintessentially Christian forms of historical writing," Michael Kulikowsky has remarked. "The ultimate goal of this exercise is usually to place the events of human history in the framework of Christian time, to record the annual stages by which human history marches towards the [Second Coming](#)" This makes the Christian chroniclers particularly awake to wars, plagues and disasters.

The term often refers to a [book](#) written by a chronicler in the [Middle Ages](#) describing historical events in a country, or the lives of a nobleman or a clergyman, although it is also applied to a record of public events. Various contemporary [newspapers](#) or other [periodicals](#) have adopted "chronicle" as part of their name. Various [fictional](#) stories have also adopted "chronicle" as part of their title, to give an impression of [epic](#) proportion to their stories.

The *universal chronicle* (or world chronicle), tracing history from the beginning of the world up to the present, was an especially popular genre of [historiography](#) in [medieval Western Europe](#). The universal chronicle differs from the ordinary chronicle in its much broader chronological and geographical scope, giving, in principle, a continuous account of the progress of world history from the creation of the world up to the author's own times, but in practice often narrowing down to a more limited geographical range as it approaches those times.

The *Chronica* of [Eusebius of Caesarea](#) (275–339) is considered to be the starting point of this tradition. The second book of this work consisted of a set of concordance tables (*Chronici canones*) that for the first time synchronized the several concurrent chronologies in use with different peoples. Eusebius' chronicle became known to the [Latin](#) West through the translation by [Jerome](#) (347–420).

Universal chronicles are sometimes organized around a central [ideological](#) theme, such as the [Augustinian](#) idea of the tension between the heavenly and the earthly state, which plays a major role in [Otto von Freising](#)'s *Historia de duabus civitatibus*. In other cases, any obvious theme may be lacking. Some universal chronicles bear a more or less [encyclopedic](#) character, with many digressions on non-historical subjects, as is the case with the *Chronicon* of [Helinand of Froidmont](#).

Other notable universal chroniclers of the Medieval West include [Bede](#) (672 or 673–735), [Isidore of Seville](#) (560–636), [Matthew Paris](#) (1200–1259), [Ranulf Higdon](#) (1280–1363), [Rudolf von Ems](#), and [Vincent of Beauvais](#) (1190–1264?).

Christian writers as late as [Bossuet](#) (in his *Discours sur l'histoire universelle*, (1679) were still reflecting on and continuing the Medieval tradition of universal history.

Chronological narration Chronicles, the predecessors of modern 'histories' were accounts, in prose or verse, of national or worldwide events over a considerable period of time. If the chronicles deal with events year by year, they are often called [annals](#). Unlike the modern historian, most chroniclers tended to take their information as they found it, and made little attempt to separate fact from legend. The most important English chronicles are the [Anglo-Saxon Chronicle](#), started by King Alfred in the ninth century and continued until the twelfth century, and the *Chronicles of England, Scotland and Ireland* (1577-87) by [Raphael Holinshed](#) and other writers; the latter documents were important sources of materials for Elizabethan drama.

HISTORIOGRAPHY

Historiography has a number of related meanings. It can refer to the history of historical study, its methodology and practices (the history of history). 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. As a meta-level analysis of descriptions of the past, this third conception can relate to the first two in that the analysis usually focuses on the narratives, interpretations, worldview, use of evidence, or method of presentation of other historians.

Historiography is a term with multiple meanings that has changed with time, place and observer, and is thus resistant to a single encompassing meaning. 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 interpretation, 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 19th century with the rise of academic historians a corpus of literature related to historiography has come into existence, with classic works such as E. H. Carr's, *What is History?* and Hayden White's *Metahistory*.

There are *two basic issues involved in historiography*:

- ◆ First, the study of the development of histories is as an academic discipline over time, as well as its development in different cultures and epochs.
- ◆ Second, 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. For instance, "ancient historiography during the 1870s" would be taken to mean the methodological approaches and ideas about ancient history that were developed during that decade.

Conal Furay and Michael J. Salevouris define historiography as "the study of the way history has been and is written — the history of historical writing. When you study "historiography" you do not study the events of the past directly, but the changing interpretations of those events in the works of individual historians."

Questions studied

Some of the common questions of historiography are:

Reliability of the sources used, in terms of authorship, credibility of the author, and the authenticity or corruption of the text.

Historiographical tradition or framework. Every historian uses one (or more) historiographical traditions, some of which are Marxist, or Annales School ("total history"), political history, etc.

An issue engaged by critical historiography includes topics such as:

- What constitutes a historical "event"?
- In what modes does a historian write and produce statements of "truth" and "fact"?
- How does the medium (novel, textbook, film, theatre, comic) through which historical information is conveyed influence its meaning?
- What inherent epistemological problems does archive-based history possess?
- How do historians establish their own objectivity or come to terms with their own subjectivity?
- What is the relationship between historical theory and historical practice?
- What is the "goal" of history?

- **Modern historiography**

- Modern historiography began with Ranke in the 19th 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 the 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 nineteenth 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 20th 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 Ariès and Michel 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.

ANCIENT HISTORIOGRAPHY

Understanding the past appears to be a universal human need and the telling of history has emerged independently in civilisations around the world. What constitutes history is a philosophical question. For the purposes of this survey it is written history recorded in a narrative format for the purpose of informing future generations about events. 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 of Halicarnassus (484 BC–ca.425 BC), who became later known as the 'father of history' (Cicero). Herodotus attempted to distinguish between more and less reliable accounts, and personally conducted research by travelling extensively, giving written accounts of various Mediterranean cultures. Although Herodotus's overall emphasis lay on the actions and characters of men, he also attributed an important role to divinity in the

determination of historical events.

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 origins of an event, while his successor Xenophon (ca. 431–355 BC) introduced autobiographical elements and character studies in his *Anabasis*.

The proverbial Philippic attacks of the Athenian orator Demosthenes (384–322 BC) on Philip II of Macedon marked the height of ancient political agitation. The now lost history of Alexander's campaigns by the diadoch Ptolemy I (367–283 BC) may represent the first historical work composed by a ruler. Polybius (ca. 203–120 BC) wrote on the rise of Rome to world prominence, trying to harmonize the Greek and Roman point of views.

Reports exist of other near-eastern histories, such as that composed by the Phoenician historian Sanchuniathon; but his very existence is considered semi-fabled and writings attributed to him are fragmentary, known only through the later historians Philo of Byblos and Eusebius, who asserted that he wrote before even the Trojan war.

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 BC) 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 BC–44 BC) *Bellum Gallicum* may represent the earliest autobiographical war coverage. The politician and orator Cicero (106–43 BC) introduced rhetorical elements in his political writings.

Strabo (63 BC–ca. AD 24) was a main exponent of the Greco-Roman tradition of combining geography with history, presenting a descriptive history of peoples and places known to his era. Livy (59 BC–AD 17) recorded the rise of Rome from city-state to world dominion. His inquiry into the question of what would have happened if Alexander the Great had marched against Rome represents the first known instance of alternate history.

Biography, although popular throughout antiquity, was introduced as a branch of history by the works of Plutarch (c. 46 - 127) and Suetonius (c. 69-after 130) who described the deeds and characters of ancient personalities, stressing

their human side. Tacitus (c. 56–c. 117) denounced Roman immorality by praising German virtues, elaborating on the tops of the Noble savage.

Writing history was popular among Christian monks in the Middle Ages. They wrote about the history of 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. The study of history changed during the Enlightenment and Romanticism. Voltaire described the history of certain ages that were important according to him, instead of describing events in a chronological order. History became an independent discipline. It was not called *philosophia historiae* anymore, but merely history (*historia*).

EASTERN HISTORIOGRAPHY

Chinese historiography

In China, Sima Qian (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 16th 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 eras. His work influenced every subsequent author of history in China, including the prestigious Ban family of the Eastern Han Dynasty era.

Traditionalist Chinese historiography describes history in terms of dynastic cycles. In this view, each new dynasty is founded by a morally righteous founder. Over time, the dynasty becomes morally corrupt and dissolute. Eventually, the dynasty becomes as weak as to allow its replacement by a new dynasty.

Muslim historiography

The first detailed writings on the subject of historiography itself appeared in the works of the Arab Muslim historian and historiographer Ibn Khaldun (1332–1406), who is regarded as the father of historiography and the philosophy of history, especially for his historiographical writings in the *Muqaddimah* (Latinized as *Prolegomena*) and *Kitab al-I'bar* (*Book of Advice*). Among many other things, his *Muqaddimah* laid the groundwork for the observation of the role of state, communication, propaganda and systematic bias in history.

Muslim historical writings first began developing earlier from the 7th

century with the reconstruction of Muhammad's life in the centuries following his death. Due to numerous conflicting narratives regarding Muhammad and his companions from various sources, it was necessary to verify which sources were more reliable. In order to evaluate these sources, various methodologies were developed, such as the "science of biography", "science of habit" and "Isnad" (chain of transmission). These methodologies were later applied to other historical figures in the Islamic civilization. Egyptology began in Arab Egypt from the 9th century, with the first known attempts at deciphering Egyptian hieroglyphs made by Dhul-Nun al-Misri and Ibn Wahshiyya. Muhammad ibn Jarir al-Tabari (838-923) is known for writing a detailed and comprehensive chronicle of Mediterranean and Middle Eastern history in his *History of the Prophets and Kings* in 915.

Until the 10th century, history most often meant political and military history, but this was not so with Persian historian Biruni (973-1048). In his *Researches on India*, he did not record political and military history in any detail, but wrote more on India's cultural, scientific, social and religious history. He also discussed more on his idea of history in another work *The Chronology of the Ancient Nations*. Biruni is considered the father of Ideology for his detailed studies on Indian history. Other famous Muslim historians included Urwah (d. 712), Ibn Ishaq (d. 761), Al-Waqidi (745-822), Ibn Hisham (d. 834), and Ibn Hajar (1372-1449), among others.

Franz Rosenthal wrote in the History of Muslim Historiography:

"Muslim historiography has at all times been united by the closest ties with the general development of scholarship in Islam, and the position of historical knowledge in Muslim education has exercised a decisive influence upon the intellectual level of historical writing....The Muslims achieved a definite advance beyond previous historical writing in the sociological understanding of history and the systematisation of historiography. The development of modern historical writing seems to have gained considerably in speed and substance through the utilization of a Muslim Literature which enabled western historians, from the seventeenth century on, to see a large section of the world through foreign eyes. The Muslim historiography helped indirectly and modestly to shape present day historical thinking."

ANTROPOLOGY

Anthropology (from Greek: *anthropos* - "human being"; and *logos* - "knowledge") is the study of humanity. Anthropology has origins in the natural sciences, the humanities, and the social sciences. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anthropology> - [note-Lewis# note-Lewis](#) 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 sciences." Contemporary anthropologists claim a number of earlier thinkers as their forebears, and the discipline has several sources; Claude Lévi-Strauss, for example, claimed Montaigne and Rousseau as important influences. Anthropology can best be understood as an outgrowth of the Age of Enlightenment, a period when Europeans attempted systematically to study human behavior. 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. At the same time, the Romantic reaction to the Enlightenment produced thinkers, such as Johann Gottfried Herder and later Wilhelm Dilthey, whose work formed the basis for the "culture concept," which is central to the discipline.

Institutionally, anthropology emerged from the development of natural history (expounded by authors such as Buffon) that occurred during the European colonization of the 17th, 18th, 19th and 20th 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 18th century Enlightenment thought to understand human society as natural phenomena that behaved in accordance with certain principles and that could be observed empirically. In some ways, studying the language, culture, physiology, and artifacts of European colonies was not unlike studying the flora and fauna of those places.

Early anthropology was divided between proponents of unilinealism, who argued that all societies passed through a single evolutionary process, from the most primitive to the most advanced, and various forms of non-lineal theorists, who tended to subscribe to ideas such as diffusionism. Most 19th-century social theorists, including anthropologists, viewed non-European societies as windows onto the pre-industrial human past. As academic disciplines began to differentiate over the course of the 19th 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. A common criticism has been that other fields focus

disproportionately on the Westerns while anthropology focuses disproportionately on "others".

During the late 19th-century, battles over the "study of man" took place between those of an "anthropological" persuasion (relying on anthropometrical techniques) and those of an "ethnological" persuasion (looking at cultures and traditions), and these distinctions became part of the later divide between physical anthropology and cultural anthropology.

In the twentieth 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 arts, 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, though usually with methods distinct from those of the natural sciences. 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. Anthropology (like some fields of history) does not easily fit into one of these categories, and different branches of anthropology draw on one or more of these domains.

Since the work of Franz Boas and Bronisław Malinowski in the late 19th- and early 20th-centuries, cultural and social anthropology has been distinguished from other social science disciplines by its emphasis on in-depth examination of context, cross-cultural comparisons (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. Cultural-Social anthropology in particular has emphasized cultural relativity and the use of their findings to frame cultural critiques. This has been particularly prominent in America, from Boas's arguments against 19th-century racial ideology, through Margaret Mead's advocacy for gender equality and sexual liberation, to current criticisms of post-colonial oppression and promotion of multiculturalism.

In the mid-20th century, much of the methodologies of earlier anthropological and ethnographical study were reevaluated with an eye towards research ethics, 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).

Anthropology as it emerged among the colonial powers has generally taken

a different path than that in the countries of southern and central Europe (Italy, Greece, and the successors to the Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman empires). In the former, the encounter with multiple, distinct cultures, often very different in organization and language from those of Europe, has led to a continuing emphasis on cross-cultural comparison and a receptiveness to certain kinds of cultural relativism. In the successor states of continental Europe, on the other hand, anthropologists often joined with folklorists and linguists in the nationalist/nation-building enterprise. Ethnologists in these countries tended to focus on differentiating among local ethnolinguistic groups, documenting local folk culture, and representing the prehistory of the nation through museums and other forms of public education. In this scheme, Russia occupied a middle position. On the one hand, it had a large Asian region of highly distinct, pre-industrial, often non-literate peoples, similar to the situation in the Americas; on the other hand, Russia also participated to some degree in the nationalist discourses of Central and Eastern Europe. After the Revolution of 1917, anthropology in the USSR and later the Soviet Bloc countries were highly shaped by the need to conform to Marxist theories of social evolution.

The emergence of paleoanthropology, a scientific discipline which draws on the methodologies of paleontology, physical anthropology and ethnology, among other disciplines, and increasing in scope and momentum from the mid-20th century, continues to yield further insights into human origins, evolution, genetic and cultural heritage, and perspectives on the contemporary human predicament as well.

THE "FOUR FIELD" APPROACH

Anthropology 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 times 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 physical human being through the study of human evolution and adaptability, population genetics, and primatology. Subfields or related fields include

anthropometrics, forensic anthropology, osteology, and nutritional anthropology.

- ***Socio-cultural anthropology*** is the investigation, often through long term, intensive field studies (including participant-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, kinship and family structure, gender relations, childrearing and socialization, religion, mythology, symbolism, etc. (U.S. universities more often use the term cultural anthropology; British universities have tended to call the corresponding field social anthropology, and for much of the 20th century emphasized the analysis of social organization more than cultural symbolism.) In some European countries, socio-cultural anthropology is known as ethnology. Subfields and related fields include psychological anthropology, folklore, anthropology of religion, ethnic studies, cultural studies, anthropology of media and cyberspace, and study of the diffusion of social practices and cultural forms.
 - ***Linguistic anthropology*** seeks to understand the processes of human communications, verbal and non-verbal, variation in language across time and space, the social uses of language, and the relationship between language and culture. It identifies the many subtle elements of the world's languages, and documents, their structure, function and history. Subfields include anthropological linguistics. Linguistic anthropologists often draw on related fields including sociolinguistics, cognitive linguistics, semiotics, discourse analysis, and narrative analysis.
 - ***Archaeology*** studies the contemporary distribution and form of artifacts (materials modified by past human activities), with the intent of understanding distribution and movement of ancient populations, development of human social organization, and relationships among contemporary populations; it also contributes significantly to the work of population geneticists, historical linguists, and many historians. Archaeology involves a wide variety of field techniques and laboratory procedures. Archaeologists predominantly study materials produced by prehistoric groups but also includes modern, historical and ethnographic populations. Archaeology is usually regarded as a separate (but related) 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 or modes of anthropology cut 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. Bio-cultural anthropology is a broad term used to describe syntheses of cultural and biological perspectives. Applied anthropology is perhaps better considered an emphasis than a subfield in the same sense as the standard four; applied anthropologists may work for government agencies, nongovernmental agencies, or private industry, using techniques from any of the subfields to address matters such as policy implementation, impact assessments, education, marketing research, or product development.

As might be inferred from the above list of subfields, anthropology is a methodologically diverse discipline, incorporating both qualitative methods and quantitative methods. Ethnographies—intensive case studies based on field research—have historically had a central place in the literature of socio-cultural and linguistic anthropology, but are increasingly supplemented by mixed-methods approaches. Currently, technological advancements are spurring methodological innovation across anthropology's subfields. Radiocarbon dating, population genetics, and digital video- and audio-recording are just a few of the many technologies spurring new developments in anthropological research.

ARCHAEOLOGY

Archaeology, archeology, or archæology (from the Greek words *αρχαίος* – ‘ancient’ and *λόγος* – ‘word/speech/discourse’) 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 behaviour 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 underpinnings in achieving the subject's goals. 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 behavioural, symbolic, and material dimensions of culture; linguistics, which studies language, including the origins of language and language groups; and physical anthropology, which includes the study of human evolution and physical and genetic characteristics. Other disciplines also supplement archaeology, including palaeontology, paleozoology, paleoethnobotany, paleobotany, 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 crises of the 14th century and the equally lost layouts of 17th century parterre gardens swept away by a change in fashion. In downtown New York City archaeologists have exhumed the 18th century remains of the Black burial ground. 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.

In 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 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.

HISTORY OF ARCHAEOLOGY

Beginnings. 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's, 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 interest resulted partly from recent discoveries of primitive stone tools together with the bones of extinct animals. These scholars also knew about the huge mounds and ruined cities in the Americas that pointed to ancient human life there. They realized that human beings had a prehistoric past, but they could not decide when and where this past had begun.

The 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 early 1800's, geologists had determined that rock formation resulted from extremely slow processes, such as erosion and volcanic activity. This view, known as uniformitarianism, led most scholars to believe that the earth was much older than previously thought. Then, in 1859, the British biologist Charles R. Darwin proposed the theory of biological evolution in his book *The Origin of Species*. This theory suggested that human beings, like other animals and the earth itself, had developed slowly over a great period of time.

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 dwellings in Switzerland, ancient cave paintings in France and Spain, and part of a prehistoric human skull 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. In an excavation at Naqada, near Qus, Egypt, the British scholar Sir Flinders Petrie became one of the first diggers to look carefully for all remains, not just for treasures. Others who undertook major excavations at that time included the British nobleman Sir Austen Henry Layard, at Nineveh in what is now Iraq, and the German businessman Heinrich Schliemann, at Troy in what is now Turkey.

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 anthropology for methods of interpreting their discoveries. For example, 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 underwater archaeology also occurred during the mid-1900's. Previously, underwater excavation had been both difficult and expensive. The aqualung and other diving devices invented during the 1940's enabled divers to move more freely.

Recent developments. Since the 1950's, the primary aim of archaeologists has been to develop general theories that explain the changes in human societies revealed by archaeological 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. They use sampling methods based on the principles of statistics and probability. In this way, they can study sites quickly and without extensive excavation. 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. This method led to the discovery of an ancient city buried 15 feet (4,6 meters) below the ground in Italy.

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. The United States enacted laws during the 1960's and 1970's that require federal agencies to identify and preserve places that might be of historic importance.

On an international scale, archaeologists seek to halt the illegal sale of archaeological objects. They urge developed nations to enact and enforce laws to prohibit the import of ancient objects unless an export certificate has been obtained from the country of origin.

Excavation

Archaeological excavation existed even when the field was still the domain of amateurs, and it remains the source of the majority of data recovered in most field projects. It can reveal several types of information usually not accessible to survey, such as stratigraphy, three-dimensional structure, and verifiably primary context.

Modern excavation techniques require that the precise locations of objects and features, known as their provenance or provenience, be recorded. This always involves determining their horizontal locations and sometimes vertical position as

well. Similarly, their association, or relationship with nearby objects and features, needs to be recorded for later analysis. This allows the archaeologist to deduce what artifacts and features were likely used together and which may be from different phases of activity. For example, excavation of a site reveals its stratigraphy; if a site was occupied by a succession of distinct cultures, artifacts from more recent cultures will lie above those from more ancient cultures.

Excavation is the most expensive phase of archaeological research. Also, as a destructive process, it carries ethical concerns. As a result, very few sites are excavated in their entirety. Sampling is even more important in excavation than in survey. It is common for large mechanical equipment, such as backhoes, to be used in excavation, especially to remove the topsoil (overburden), though this method is increasingly used with great caution. Following this rather dramatic step, the exposed area is usually hand-cleaned with trowels or hoes to ensure that all features are apparent.

The next task is to form a site plan and then use it to help decide the method of excavation. Features dug into the natural subsoil are normally excavated in portions in order to produce a visible archaeological section for recording. A feature, for example a pit or a ditch, consists of two parts: The cut and the fill. The cut describes the edge of the feature, where the feature meets the natural soil. It is the features boundary. The fill is, understandably, what the feature is filled with, and will often appear quite distinct from the natural soil. The cut and fill are given consecutive numbers for recording purposes. Scaled plans and sections of individual features are all drawn on site, black and white and color photographs of them are taken, and recording sheets are filled in describing the context of each. All this information serves as a permanent record of the archaeology and is used in describing and interpreting the site.

Once artifacts and structures have been excavated, or collected from surface surveys, it is necessary to properly study them, to gain as much data as possible. This process is known as post-excavation analysis, and is normally the most time-consuming part of the archaeological investigation. It is not uncommon for the final excavation reports on major sites to take years to be published.

At its most basic, the artifacts found are cleaned, catalogued and compared to published collections, in order to classify them typologically and to identify other sites with similar artifact assemblages. However, a much more comprehensive range of analytical techniques are available through archaeological science, meaning that artifacts can be dated and their compositions examined. The bones, plants and pollen collected from a site can all be analyzed (using the techniques of zooarchaeology, paleoethnobotany, and palynology), while any texts

can usually be deciphered.

These techniques frequently provide information that would not otherwise be known and therefore contribute greatly to the understanding of a site.

ETHNOGRAPHY

Ethnography (*ethnos* – 'people' and *graphein* – 'writing') is the genre of writing that presents varying degrees of qualitative and 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 and relativist 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 Bronisław Malinowski, *Coming of Age in Samoa* (1928) by Margaret Mead, *The Nuer* (1940) by E. E. Evans-Pritchard, or *Naven* (1958) by Gregory Bateson. Cultural and social anthropologists today place such a high value on actually doing ethnographic research that ethnology—the comparative synthesis of ethnographic information—is rarely the foundation for a career. Within cultural anthropology, there are several sub-genres of ethnography. Beginning in the late 1950s and early 1960s, anthropologists began writing "bi-confessional" ethnographies that intentionally exposed the nature of ethnographic research. Later "reflexive" ethnographies refined the technique to translate cultural differences by representing their effects on the ethnographer. In the 1980s, the rhetoric of ethnography was subjected to intense scrutiny within the discipline, under the general influence of literary theory and post-colonial/post-structuralist 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 others 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.

Techniques

- ◆ Direct, first-hand observation of daily behavior.
- ◆ Conversation with different levels of formality.
- ◆ The genealogical method.
- ◆ Discovery of local beliefs and perceptions.
- ◆ Problem-oriented research.
- ◆ Longitudinal research.
- ◆ Team research.
- ◆ [Case studies](#).

Not all of these techniques are used by ethnographers, 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 rules or ethics that have come to be widely accepted in qualitative and quantitative approaches to research. Many of these ethical assumptions are rooted in positivist and post-positivist [epistemologies](#) that have adapted over time, but nonetheless are apparent and must be accounted for in all research paradigms. These ethical 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".

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, enduring [customs](#), [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 a more in-depth analysis than the average historian is capable of doing based solely 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-related [methodologies](#) in that it embraces [emic](#) 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 differing 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 a culture defined by ethnological concepts and categories". Others have focused this basic concept on previously ignored historical actors. [Schieffelin](#) asserted, for example, 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, Simmons formulated his understanding of ethnohistory as "a form of cultural biography that draws upon as 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 when it can be "joined to the memories and voices of living people."

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](#), [music](#), [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 those expressive genres are shared. The concept of folklore developed as part of the 19th century ideology of [romantic nationalism](#), leading to the reshaping of oral traditions to serve modern ideological goals; only in the 20th 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:

- ◆ artifact (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 of 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 a 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 a religious tradition, 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, wherever possible, 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](#) (including [conspiracy theories](#)), [gossip](#), [ethnic stereotypes](#), and [holiday](#) customs and life-cycle [rituals](#).

Elements such as dolls, decorative items used in religious rituals, hand-built houses and barns, and handmade clothing and other crafts are considered to be folk artifacts, grouped within the field as "material culture." Additionally, figures that depict characters from folklore, such as statues of the [three wise monkeys](#) may be considered to be folklore artifacts, depending on how they are used within a culture. The operative definition would depend on whether the artifacts are used and appreciated within the same community in which they are made, and whether they follow a community [aesthetic](#).

Folklorist [William Bascom](#) states that folklore has many cultural aspects, such as allowing for escape from societal 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 [humor](#) 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. weddings, baptisms, harvest festivals) or practiced within a family or secular context. Additionally, children's [counting-out games](#) can be defined as behavioral folklore.

MUSEOLOGY

Museum studies, sometimes called *museology*, is the field that encompasses the ideas and issues involved in the museum profession—from the practical, day-to-day 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 and museum personnel, and to create career opportunities for students who might seek employment in a museum. Emphasis is placed on practicum experiences 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 problems common to museums, historical agencies and related institutions as well as the 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* (also known as a graphic artist) 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](#). A core responsibility of the designer's job is to present information in a way that is both accessible and aesthetic.

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 regarding 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. The 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 handled by a museum registrar. In [contemporary art](#), the title curator is given to a person who organizes an exhibition. In this context, to curate means to pick objects and arrange them to achieve a desired effect. Usually, this means finding a theme to link a set of works, or finding works to fit a desired theme. In addition to selecting works, the curator is responsible for writing labels, catalog essays, and other supporting content for the exhibition.

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](#) or [sound recordings](#), letters, documents, [electronic records](#), etc.). As Richard Pearce-Moses wrote, "Archivists keep records that have enduring value as reliable memories of the past, and they help people find and understand the information they need in those records."

Archivists 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](#).

Archivists' duties include acquiring and [appraising](#) new collections, [arranging and describing records](#), providing reference service, and preserving materials. In arranging records, archivists apply two important principles: [provenance](#) and original order sometimes referred to as *respect des fonds*. *Provenance* refers to the origin of records, essentially who created them. The idea

of *respect des fonds* is applied by keeping records in their original order as established and maintained by the creator(s). This also means that records from one corporate body should not be mixed with records from another. Original order is not always the best way to maintain some collections, and archivists must use their own experience and current best practices to determine the correct way to keep collections of mixed media or those lacking a clear original arrangement.

In American English (but not in British English, where the word is not used), a docent has two meanings. Firstly, a professor or university lecturer; and secondly, the corps of volunteer guides who staff museums and other educational institutions. Docent is derived from the present participle of the Latin word *docēre*, meaning "to teach".

A *docent of a university* is one who has the right to teach. Qualifications are: one dissertation and demonstrating the competence of conducting scientific research independently. Unlike professors, docents may not actively take part in senior administrative duties, such as heading a department. In Ukraine, docent is an academic title between assistant professor and full professor. It is an academic title immediately below that of a full professor. It is equivalent to reader in the UK and the associate professor in the USA. Such persons are usually expected to give lectures on their specialties if their professional activities permit this.

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 guides, 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.

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 collections in their care, whether in store, on display, or in transit. A museum should carefully monitor the condition of collections to determine when an object or specimen may require conservation-restoration work and the services of a qualified conservator-restorer. The principal goal should be the stabilisation of the object or specimen. All conservation procedures should be documented and all alterations should be clearly

distinguishable from the original object or specimen. Art conservation can involve the cleaning and stabilization of art work. Cleaning is not a reversible process and can sometimes be controversial due to fears that cleaning would damage a piece or on the grounds that damage or residue forms part of the history of a given piece and should not be modified.

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 diplomats, the discipline also is concerned with the circumstances (context) 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 (and failed) 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 accession of items into a collection archive, their retrieval and safe handling. However, the advent of digital documents and items, along with the development of electronic databases has caused the field to revalue the means by which it 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, usually under the umbrella of a History 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. Some considerations when conducting appraisal include how to meet the record-granting body's organizational needs, how to

uphold requirements of organizational accountability (be they legal, institutional, or determined by archival ethics), and how to meet the expectations of the record-using community.

Appraisal is considered a core archival function (alongside acquisition, arrangement and description, [preservation](#), [reference](#), and public programming) although the task of records appraisal is somewhat slippery and can occur within the process of acquiring records, during arrangement and description, and for the sake of preservation; further, public programming projects often prompt the reappraisal process. The official definition is as follows:

"In an archival context, appraisal is the process of determining whether records and other materials have permanent (archival) value. Appraisal may be done at the collection, creator, series, file, or item level. Appraisal can take place prior to donation and prior to physical transfer, at or after accessioning. The basis of appraisal decisions may include a number of factors, including the records' provenance and content, their authenticity and reliability, their order and completeness, their condition and costs to preserve them, and their intrinsic value. Appraisal often takes place within a larger institutional collecting policy."

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 perhaps 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. Archivists tend to prefer the term "archives" (with an S) as the correct terminology to serve as both the singular and plural, since "archive", as a noun or a verb, has meanings related to computer science.

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, scrapbooks, financial records, diaries or any other kind of documentary materials created or collected by the individual - regardless of media or format. The archives of an organization (such as a [corporation](#) or [government](#)),

on the other hand, tend to contain different types of records, such as administrative files, business records, memos, official correspondence, meeting minutes, 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. This means that archives (the places) are quite distinct from [libraries](#) with regard to their functions and organization, although archival collections can often be found within library buildings.

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 an [archivist](#).

An ***archivist*** is a professional who assesses, collects, organizes, preserves, maintains control over, and provides access to information determined to have long-term value. Determining what records have enduring value is not always easy.

Archivists are guided in their work by a code of ethics. Alongside their work behind the scenes arranging and caring for collections, archivists assist users in interpreting collections and answering inquiries. This reference work can be just part of an archivist's job in a smaller organization, or consist of most of their occupation in a larger archive where specific roles (such as processing archivist and reference archivist) may be delineated.

Archivists work for a variety of organizations, including government agencies, local authorities, museums, hospitals, historical societies, businesses, charities, corporations, colleges and universities, and any institution whose records may potentially be valuable to researchers, exhibitors, genealogists, or others. Alternatively, they could also work on the collections of a large family or even of an individual. Applicants for archives jobs usually outnumber positions available.

Archivists are often educators as well; it is not unusual for an archivist employed at a university or college to lecture in a subject related to their collection. Archivists employed at cultural institutions or for local government frequently design educational or outreach programs to further the ability of archive users to understand and access information in their collections. This might include such varied activities as exhibitions, promotional events or even media coverage.

Because of the varied nature of the job and organisations and work environment, archivists need to have a wide range of skills:

- Those who work in reference and access-oriented positions need to be good with people, so that they are able to help them with their research.
- An ability to apply some basic knowledge of conservation is needed to help extend the useful life of cultural artifacts. Many different types of media (such as photographs, acidic papers, and unstable copy processes) can deteriorate if not stored and maintained properly.
- Although many archival collections are comprised of paper records, increasingly archivists must confront the new challenges posed by the preservation of electronic records, so they need to be forward-looking and technologically proficient.
- Because of the amount of sorting and listing, they need to be very logical and organised and be able to pay attention to detail.
- When cataloguing records, or when assisting users, archivists need to have some research skills.

ORIENTAL STUDIES

Oriental studies embrace Near Eastern and Far Eastern societies and cultures, languages, and peoples and their histories; in recent years the term **Asian studies** has mostly replaced the older term. European study of the region had primarily religious origins, which has remained an important motivation until recent times. Linguistic knowledge preceded a wider study of cultures and history. The modern study found its origins in the sometimes naive fascination of the exotic East for Mediterranean and European writers and thinkers, captured in images by artists, that is embodied in a repeatedly-surfacing theme in the history of ideas in the West, called "Orientalism". In the last century, scholars from the region itself have participated on equal terms in the discipline, transforming it.

The Western world's original distinction between the "West" and the "East" was crystallized in the Greco-Persian Wars of the fifth century BC/BCE, when Athenian historians made a distinction between their "Athenian democracy" and that of the "Persian monarchy". An institutional distinction between East and West did not exist as a defined polarity before the Oriens- and Occidens-divided administration of the Roman Empire at the end of the third century AD/CE, and the division of the Empire into Latin and Greek-speaking portions. The classical world had intimate knowledge of their Ancient Persian neighbors (and usually enemies), but very imprecise knowledge of most of the world further East. However there was substantial direct Roman trade with India (unlike with China) in the Imperial period.

The rise of Islam and Muslim conquests in the seventh century established a sharp opposition, or even a sense of polarity, between medieval European Christendom and the medieval Islamic world. During the Middle Ages, Muslims were considered the "alien" enemies of Christendom. Popular medieval European knowledge of cultures farther to the East was poor, dependent on the wildly fictionalized travels and legends of P. John, although the equally famous, and much longer, account by Marco Polo was a good deal more accurate.

Scholarly work was initially very largely linguistic in nature, with primarily a religious focus on understanding both Biblical Hebrew and other languages with early Christian literature, but also from a wish to understand Greek and Arabic works on medicine, philosophy and science. This effort existed sporadically throughout the Middle Ages, and the "Renaissance of the 12th century" witnessed a particular growth in translations of Arabic texts into Latin. The earliest translation of the Qur'an into Latin was completed in 1143, although little use was made of it until it was printed in 1543, after which it was translated into other European languages.

There was vague but increasing knowledge of the complex civilizations extant in China and India, from which luxury goods (notably cotton and silk textiles as well as ceramics) were imported. Although the Crusades produced relatively little in the way of scholarly interchange, the eruption of the Mongol Empire has strategic implications for both the Crusader kingdoms and Europe itself, and led to extended diplomatic contacts. As European exploration and colonization occurred, the distinction between illiterate peoples (i.e. in sub-Saharan Africa and the Americas) and the literate cultures of the East became entrenched.

University Oriental studies became systematic during the Renaissance, with the linguistic and religious aspects continuing to dominate. There was also a political dimension, as translations for diplomatic purposes were needed, even before the West engaged actively with the East. Distinguished scholars had traveled to the East and wrote also on the modern history and society of Eastern peoples. In France, it was initiated a training programme for young linguists with the diplomatic service. Study of the Far East was pioneered by missionaries, especially Jesuits, and missionary motives were to remain important, at least in linguistic studies.

In the eighteenth century, Enlightenment thinkers characterized aspects of the pagan East as superior to the Christian West. Edward Gibbon, praised the relative religious tolerance of the Islamic East as opposed to the intolerant Christian West, and many, including Diderot and Voltaire, the high social status of scholarship in Mandarin China.

With a great increase in knowledge of Asia among Western specialists, increasing political and economic involvement in the region, and in particular the realization of the existence of close relations between Indian and European languages, there emerged more complex intellectual connections between the early history of Eastern and Western cultures. Some of these developments occurred in the context of Franco–British rivalry for control of India. Liberal economists denigrated Eastern civilizations as static and corrupt. Oriental despotism was generally regarded in Europe as a major factor in the relative failure of progress of Eastern societies. The study of Islam was central to the field since the majority of people living in the geographical area termed 'the Orient' were Muslims. Interest in understanding Islam was partly fuelled by economic considerations of growing trade in the Mediterranean region and the changing cultural and intellectual climate of the time.

The first serious European studies of Buddhism and Hinduism were conducted by scholars E.Burnouf and M.Müller. In that time, the academic study of Islam also developed, and, by the mid-nineteenth century, Oriental Studies was a well-established academic discipline in most European countries, especially those with imperial interests in the region. Yet, while scholastic study expanded, so did racist attitudes and stereotypes of "inscrutable", "wily" Orientals. Scholarship often was intertwined with prejudicial racism and religious presumption, to which the new biological sciences tended to contribute until the middle of the following century.

The participation in academic studies by scholars from the newly-independent nations of the region itself inevitably changed the nature of studies considerably, with the emergence of post-colonial studies and Subaltern Studies. The influence of Orientalism in scholarship on the Middle East was seen to have re-emerged and risen in prevalence again after the end of the Cold War. It is contended that this was partly a response to "a lacuna" in identity politics in international relations generally, and within the "West" particularly, which was brought about by the absence of Soviet communism as a global adversary. The post-Cold War era has been marked by discussions of Islamist terrorism framing views on the extent to which the culture of the Middle East region and Islam, its predominant religion, poses a threat to that of the West. The essence of this debate reflects a presupposition, for which Orientalism has been criticized – that the "Orient" is defined by Islam. Such considerations as these were seen to have occurred in the wider context of the way in which many Western scholars responded to international politics in the post-Cold War world; and they were arguably heightened following the terrorist attacks of September 11th 2001.

From "Oriental Studies" to "Asian Studies"

Like the term Orient, Orientalism derives from the Latin word "*oriens*" – "rising" and, equally likely, from the Greek word "*he'oros*" – "the direction of the rising sun". "Orient" is the opposite of Occident. In terms of The Old World, Europe was considered The Occident (The West), and its farthest-known extreme The Orient (The East). Dating from the Roman Empire until the Middle Ages, what is now, in the West, considered "the Middle East" was then considered "the Orient". At that time, the flourishing cultures of the Far East were unknown; likewise Europe was unknown in the Far East. However, use of the various terms and senses derived from "Orient" has greatly declined in the twentieth century.

Oriental Studies has now been replaced by Asian Studies localized to specific regions, such as, Middle Eastern or Near Eastern Studies, South Asian studies, and East Asian Studies. This reflects the fact that the Orient is not a single, monolithic region but rather a broad area encompassing multiple civilizations. The generic concept of Oriental Studies, to its opponents, has lost any use it may have once had and is perceived as obstructing changes in departmental structures to reflect actual patterns of modern scholarship.

Opponents offer various political explanations for the change. By some, the term "Oriental" has come to be thought offensive to non-Westerners. Area studies that incorporate not only philological pursuits but identity politics may also account for the hesitation to use the term "Oriental".

Supporters of "Oriental Studies" counter that the term "Asian" is just as encompassing as "Oriental" and may well have originally had the same meaning, if it were derived from an Akkadian word for "East" (a more common derivation is from one or both of two Anatolian proper names.). Replacing one word with another is to confuse historically objectional opinions about the East with the concept of "the East" itself. The terms Oriental/Eastern and Occidental/Western are both inclusive concepts that usefully identify large-scale cultural differences. Such general concepts do not preclude or deny more specific ones.

EGYPTOLOGY

Egyptology is the study of Ancient Egypt and Egyptian antiquities and is a regional and thematic branch of the larger disciplines of ancient history and archaeology. A practitioner of the discipline is an Egyptologist, though Egyptology is not exclusive to such practitioners.

Egyptology investigates the range of Ancient Egyptian cultures (language,

literature, history, religion, art, economics, and ethics) from the 5th millennium BC up to the end of Pagan religion in the 4th century AD. Some of the first historical accounts of Egypt was given by Herodotus, Strabo and the largely lost work of Manetho, an Egyptian priest in the 3rd century BC.

The first known attempts at deciphering Egyptian hieroglyphs were made by Dhul-Nun al-Misri and Ibn Wahshiyya in the 9th century AD, who were able to at least partly understand what was written. Abdul Latif al-Baghdadi in the 13th century wrote detailed descriptions on ancient Egyptian monuments.

European exploration and travel writings of ancient Egypt commenced from the 13th century onward, with only occasional detours into a more scientific approach, notably by John Greaves, Claude Sicard, Frederic Louis Norden and Richard Pococke. With Napoleon's scholars recording of Egypt's flora, fauna and history, published as *Description de l'Egypte*, the study of many aspects of ancient Egypt became more scientifically oriented. The British took over Egypt from the French and gained the Rosetta Stone. Modern Egyptology is generally perceived as beginning around 1822.

Jean François Champollion and Ippolito Rosellini were some of the first Egyptologists of wide acclaim. The German Karl Richard Lepsius was an early participant in the investigations of Egypt; mapping, excavating, and recording several sites. Champollion announced his general decipherment of the system of Egyptian hieroglyphics for the first time, employing the Rosetta Stone as his primary aid. The Stone's decipherment was a very important development of Egyptology. With subsequently ever-increasing knowledge of Egyptian writing and language, the study of Ancient Egyptian civilization was able to proceed with greater academic rigour and with all the added impetus that comprehension of the written sources was able to engender. Egyptology became more professional via work of William Matthew Flinders Petrie, among others. Petrie introduced techniques of field preservation, recording, and excavating. Howard Carter expedition brought much acclaim to the field of Egyptology. Around 1830, Rifa' al-Tahtawi was one of the first main works of Egyptian Egyptology. Egyptian Egyptology developed slowly compared to its Western scholars, primarily because Islamic identity (and the disdain of pre-Islamic antiquity by some Muslims) and Western imperialism (till decolonization in the 1920's). Islamic and modern Egyptian civilization has been influenced by the pre-Islamic Egyptian culture of which Egyptology is concerned with.

In the Modern era, the Supreme Council for Antiquities control excavation permits for Egyptologists to conduct their work. The field can now use geophysical methods and other applications of modern sensing techniques to further

Egyptology. The Egyptian languages (such as Hieratics and Coptic) and the Egyptian writing systems are still of importance in Egyptology.

Egyptology has attracted various pseudoscientific theories of which most are widely discounted by many Egyptologists. This includes esoteric, or extraterrestrial, subjects which are considered pseudohistorical overall; few in Egyptology entertain views of the "New Age", ufology, occultism, "secret societies", or Atlantis ideas.

There are many open problems concerning Ancient Egypt, and some of them may never be solved. Egyptian archaeology is in a state of constant transition, with much of the terminology and chronology in dispute. The archaeological record is incomplete, with countless relics and artifacts missing or destroyed. New archaeological discoveries can call into question previous conclusions about Ancient Egypt. Furthermore, there are internal problems of overall cohesion of various dynasties and there are problems reconciling the Egyptian civilization with other concurrent civilizations.

Ancient Egypt appeared as a unified state no earlier than 3300 BC. It survived as an independent state until about 300 BC. Archaeological evidence suggests that a developed Egyptian society may have existed for much longer. The creation of a reliable Chronology of Ancient Egypt is a task fraught with problems. There is a "Conventional Egyptian chronology" that has a general consensus. While the overwhelming majority of Egyptologists agree on the outline and many of the details of a common chronology, disagreements either individually or in groups have resulted in a variety of dates offered for rulers and events. This variation begins with only a few years in the Late Period, gradually growing to a decade at the beginning of the New Kingdom, and eventually to as much as a century by the start of the Old Kingdom. The reader is advised to include this factor of uncertainty with any date offered either in encyclopedia or any history of Ancient Egypt.

Many Egyptian temples are still standing today. Some are in ruin from wear and tear, while others have been lost entirely. The Egyptian structures are among the largest man-made constructions ever conceived. They constitute one of the most potent and enduring symbols of Ancient Egyptian civilization.

Mummification of the dead was not always practiced in Egypt. Once the practice began, an individual was placed at his or her final resting place through a set of rituals and protocols. The Egyptian funeral was a complex ceremony including various monuments, prayers, and rituals undertaken in the deads' honor. The poor, who could not afford expensive tombs, were buried in shallow graves in the sand; because of the arid environment they were often naturally mummified.

The ancient Egyptians are featured in the Hebrew Scriptures, and played a prominent role in the early Hebrews' life, from Joseph's capture to the departure of the Hebrews from Egypt to later interaction with the Kingdom of Israel. There are several unanswered questions as to the precise influence each had on the other.

POLITICAL HISTORY

Political history is the narrative and analysis of political events, ideas, movements, and leaders. It is usually structured around the nation state. It is distinct from, but related to, other fields of history such as social history, economic history, and military history.

Generally, political history focuses on events relating to nation-states and the formal political process. According to Hegel, Political History "is an idea of the state with a moral and spiritual force beyond the material interests of its subjects: it followed that the state was the main agent of historical change". This contrasts with, for instance, social history, which focuses predominantly on the actions and lifestyles of ordinary people, or people's history, which is historical work from the perspective of common people.

Diplomatic history sometimes referred to as "Rankian History" in honour of Leopold von Ranke, focuses on politics, politicians and other high rulers and views them as being the driving force of continuity and change in history. This type of political history is the study of the conduct of international relations between states or across state boundaries over time. This is the most common form of history and is often the classical and popular belief of what history should be.

Diplomatic history is the past aggregate of the art and practice of conducting negotiations between accredited persons representing groups or nations. It is the continuum of events occurring in succession leading from the past to the present and even into the future regarding diplomacy, the conduct of state relations through the intercession of individuals with regard to issues of peace-making, culture, economics, trade and war. Diplomatic history records or narrates events relating to or characteristic of diplomacy.

The first "scientific" political history was written by Leopold von Ranke in Germany in the 19th century. His methodologies profoundly affected the way historians critically examine sources; see historiography for a more complete analysis of the methodology of various approaches to history. An important aspect of political history is the study of ideology as a force for historical change. One author asserts that "political history as a whole cannot exist without the study of ideological differences and their implications". Studies of political history typically

centre around a single [nation](#) and its political change and development. Some historians identify the growing trend towards narrow specialisation in political history during recent decades: "while a college professor in the [1940s](#) sought to identify himself as a "historian", by the [1950s](#) "American historian" was the designation".

From the [1970s](#) onwards, new movements sought to challenge traditional approaches to political history. The development of [social history](#) and [women's history](#) shifted the emphasis away from the study of leaders and national decisions, and towards the role of ordinary citizens; "...by the 1970s "the new social history" began replacing the older style. Emphasis shifted to a broader spectrum of American life, including such topics as the history of urban life, public health, ethnicity, the media, and poverty". As such, political history is sometimes seen as the more 'traditional' kind of history, in contrast with the more 'modern' approaches of other fields of history.

Although much of existing written history might be classified as diplomatic history - [Thucydides](#), certainly, is among other things, highly concerned with the relations among states - the modern form of diplomatic history was codified in the 19th century by [Leopold von Ranke](#), a [German](#) historian. Ranke wrote largely on the history of [Early Modern Europe](#), using the diplomatic archives of the European powers (particularly the [Venetians](#)) to construct a detailed understanding of the history of Europe ("as it actually happened"). Ranke saw diplomatic history as the most important kind of history to write because of his idea of the "Primacy of Foreign Affairs", arguing that the concerns of international relations drive the internal development of the state. Ranke's understanding of diplomatic history relied on the large number of official documents produced by modern western governments as sources.

Ranke's understanding of the dominance of foreign policy, and hence an emphasis on diplomatic history, remained the dominant paradigm in historical writing through the first half of the twentieth century. This emphasis, combined with the effects of the [War Guilt Clause](#) in the [Treaty of Versailles \(1919\)](#) which ended the [First World War](#), led to a huge amount of historical writing on the subject of the origins of the war in [1914](#), with the involved governments printing huge, carefully edited, collections of documents and numerous historians writing multi-volume histories of the origins of the war. In general, the early works in this vein, including [Fritz Fischer](#)'s controversial (at the time) [1961](#) thesis that German goals of "world power" were the principal cause of the war, fit fairly comfortably into Ranke's emphasis on Aussenpolitik.

In the course of the [1960s](#), however, some German historians (notably [Hans-](#)

[Ulrich Wehler](#) and his cohort) began to rebel against this idea, instead suggesting a "Primacy of Domestic Politics", in which the insecurities of (in this case German) domestic policy drove the creation of foreign policy. This led to a considerable body of work interpreting the domestic policies of various states and the ways this influenced their conduct of foreign policy.

At the same time, the middle of the twentieth century began to see a general de-emphasis on diplomatic history. The French [Annales](#) school had already put an emphasis on the role of geography and economics on history, and of the importance of broad, slow cycles rather than the constant apparent movement of the "history of events" of high politics. The most important work of the Annales school, [Fernand Braudel](#)'s *The Mediterranean and the Mediterranean World in the Age of Philip II*, contains a traditional Rankean diplomatic history of Philip II Mediterranean policy, but only as the third and shortest section of a work largely focusing on the broad cycles of history in the *longue durée* ("long term"). The Annales were broadly influential, leading to a turning away from diplomatic and other forms of political history towards an emphasis on broader trends of economic and environmental change. In the 1960s and 1970s, an increasing emphasis on giving a voice to the voiceless and writing the history of the underclasses, whether by using the quantitative statistical methods of [social history](#) or the more qualitative assessments of [cultural history](#), also undermined the centrality of diplomatic history to the historical discipline.

Nevertheless, diplomatic history has always remained a historical field with a great interest to the general public, and considerable amounts of work are still done in the field, often in much the same way that Ranke pioneered in the middle years of the 19th century.

Major works of political history [Edward Gibbon's *The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*](#), published in four volumes between 1776 and 1781, was one of the earliest comprehensive works of political history. Gibbon has been described as "the first modern historian of ancient Rome". [Leopold von Ranke](#), often considered the founder of the modern source-based approach to political history, published a number of pioneering works during his lifetime, including *History of the Reformation in Germany* (published 1881).

UNIVERSAL HISTORY

Universal history is basic to the Western tradition of [historiography](#), especially the Judeo-Christian wellspring of that tradition. Simply stated, universal history is the presentation of the history of mankind as a whole, as a coherent unit.

In Greco-Roman antiquity, the first universal history was written by [Ephorus](#). This work has been lost, but its influence can be seen in the ambitions of [Polybius](#) and [Diodorus](#) to give comprehensive accounts of their worlds. Later, universal history provided an influence on the rise of Christianity in the Roman Empire in such works as [Eusebius](#)' *Ecclesiastical History*, [Augustine](#)'s *City of God*, and [Orosius](#)' *History Against the Pagans*.

The first five books of the Bible constitute a primary example of such a history. To the extent that the [Pentateuch](#) presents itself as an account of mankind as a whole, from creation to the death of Moses, it is universal history. The story progresses according to a universal principle: the Bible posits that the history of mankind is governed by [Yawveh](#), and that his will is manifest in every event that takes place. The destiny of all mankind, according to this idea, is governed by man's relationship with God. This idea naturally flows into the story of the [Children of Israel](#), whose patriarchs conversed with God and made various covenants with Him. These covenants governed mankind's destiny. This idea extends into the [New Testament](#), which posits that the sacrifice of Jesus now affects every person, and every generation since his resurrection, into the limitless future.

In the [medieval world](#), universal history in this vein was taken up by [Muslim historians](#) such as [al-Tabari](#) and [Ibn Khaldun](#). The 13th Century [Jami al-Tawarikh](#) ("*Compendium of Chronicles*") by [Rashid al-Din](#) (now held at the [University of Edinburgh](#)) is a significant example of this.

An early European project was the *Universal History* of [George Sale](#) and others, written in the mid-eighteenth century. In the nineteenth century, universal histories proliferated. Philosophers such as [Kant](#), [Schiller](#) and [Hegel](#), and political philosophers such as [Marx](#), presented general theories of history that shared essential characteristics with the Biblical account: they conceived of history as a coherent whole, governed by certain basic characteristics or immutable principles. For example, Hegel presented the idea that progress in history is actually the progress not of mankind's material existence, but of humanity's spiritual development. Concomitantly, Hegel presented a developmental theory of how the human spirit progresses: through the [dialectic](#) of synthesis and antithesis. [Marx](#)'s theory of dialectic materialism is essential to his general concept of history: that the struggle to dominate the means of production governs all historical development.

Basic ideas of universal history are so prevalent that they are difficult to separate from basic Western assumptions of how the world is or should be. Outside some [intellectuals](#), such ideas continue to predominate as core assumptions. The

[teleological](#) aspects of universal history remain entrenched. Many people believe that the events of our world, and more specifically, the events within the human community, are directed toward an end or tending toward an end of some sort. 'Linear' pre-suppositions of the theory are no less prevalent. Most people living in Western cultures conceive of time, and therefore of history, as a line or an arrow, that is proceeding from past to future, toward some end. The idea that time may be cyclical, or that there is no fundamental "end" to the human struggle, is unfamiliar.

The roots of [historiography](#) in the nineteenth century are bound up with the concept that history written with a strong connection to the primary sources could, somehow, be integrated with "the big picture", i.e. to a general, universal history. For example, [Leopold Von Ranke](#), probably the pre-eminent historian of the nineteenth century, founder of "[Rankean positivism](#)," the classic mode of historiography that now stands against [postmodernism](#), attempted to write a Universal History at the close of his career. The work of [Oswald Spengler](#) and [Arnold J. Toynbee](#) are two examples of attempts to integrate primary source-based history and Universal History. Spengler's work is more general; Toynbee created a theory that would allow the study of "civilizations" to proceed with integration of source-based history writing and Universal History writing. Both writers attempted to incorporate teleological theories into general presentations of the history.

WORLD HISTORY

World History is a field of [historical study](#) that emerged as a distinct academic field in the [1980s](#). It examines [history](#) from a global perspective.

Unlike most history writing of the 19th and most of the 20th centuries, which focused on narratives of individuals, and on national and ethnic perspectives, World History looks for common [patterns](#) that emerge across all cultures. World historians use a [thematic](#) approach, with two major focal points: [integration](#) (how processes of world history have drawn people of the world together) and difference (how [patterns](#) of world history reveal the [diversity](#) of the human experience).

The study of world history is in some ways a product of the current period of accelerated [globalization](#). This period is tending both to integrate various cultures and to highlight their differences.

The advent of World History as a distinct field of study was heralded in the [1980's](#) by the creation of the [World History Association](#) and of graduate programs at a handful of universities. Over the past 20 years, scholarly publications, professional and academic organizations, and graduate programs in World History have proliferated. It has become an increasingly popular approach to teaching

history. Many new [textbooks](#) are being published with a World History approach.

Many works are analogous to World History, in that they discuss "the history of the world" in a unified framework — for example; it was a genre popular in the 19th century with [universal history](#), and with Christian historians going back to at least the 4th century. Shortly after [World War I](#) several popular books were written which dealt with the history of the world, though with a somewhat different approach. These included the children's book *[The Story of Mankind](#)* (1921) by [Hendrik Willem van Loon](#) and the textbook *[The Outline of History](#)* (1918) by [H.G. Wells](#).

The history of the world is human [history](#) from the first appearance of [Homo sapiens](#) to the present. Human history is marked both by a gradual [accretion](#) of [discoveries](#) and [inventions](#), as well as by [quantum leaps](#) — [paradigm shifts](#), and [revolutions](#) — that comprise [epochs](#) in the [material](#) and [spiritual](#) evolution of [humankind](#).

Human history, as opposed to [prehistory](#), has in the past been said to begin with the invention, independently at several sites on [Earth](#), of [writing](#), which created the [infrastructure](#) for lasting, accurately transmitted [memories](#) and thus for the diffusion and growth of [knowledge](#). Writing, in its turn, had been made necessary in the wake of the [Agricultural Revolution](#), which had given rise to [civilization](#), i.e., to permanent settled [communities](#), which fostered a growing [diversity](#) of [trades](#).

Such scattered [habitations](#), centred about life-sustaining bodies of [water](#) — rivers and lakes — [coalesced](#) over time into ever larger units, in parallel with the evolution of ever more efficient means of [transport](#). These processes of coalescence, spurred by rivalries and [conflicts](#) between adjacent communities, gave rise over [millennia](#) to ever larger [states](#), and then to [super states](#) or [empires](#). The fall of the [Roman Empire](#) in [Europe](#) at the end of [antiquity](#) signalled the beginning of the [Middle Ages](#).

In the mid-15th century, [Johannes Gutenberg](#)'s invention of modern [printing](#), employing [movable type](#), revolutionized [communication](#), helped end the [Middle Ages](#) and ushered in modern times, the [European Renaissance](#) and the [Scientific Revolution](#).

By the 18th century, the accumulation of [knowledge](#) and [technology](#), especially in [Europe](#), had reached a [critical mass](#) that sparked into existence the [Industrial Revolution](#). Over the quarter-millennium since, [knowledge](#), [technology](#), [commerce](#), and — concomitantly with these — [war](#) have accelerated at a [geometric rate](#), creating the [opportunities](#) and perils that now confront the human communities that together inhabit a [planet](#) of scarce resources.

BIG HISTORY

Big History examines [history](#) on a [large scale](#) across long [time frames](#) through a multi-disciplinary approach. Big History gives a focus on the alteration and adaptations in the human experience. Big History is a discrete field of [historical study](#) that arose in the late [1980s](#). It is related to, but distinct from, [world history](#), as the field examines history from the [beginning of time](#) to the [present day](#) and is thus closer to the older concept of [universal history](#).

Big History looks at the past on all time scales, from the [Big Bang](#) to [modernity](#), seeking out common [themes](#) and [patterns](#). It uses a multi-disciplinary approach from the latest findings, such as [biology](#), [astronomy](#), [geology](#), [climatology](#), [prehistory](#), [archeology](#), [anthropology](#), [cosmology](#), [natural history](#), and [population](#) and [environmental studies](#). Big History arose from a desire to go beyond the specialized and self-contained fields that emerged in the [20th century](#) and grasp history as a whole, looking for common themes across the entire time scale of history. Conventionally, the study of history is typically limited to the written word and the systematic narrative and research of past events as relating to the human race; yet this only encompasses the past 5,000 years or so and leaves out the vast majority of history and all events in time, in relation to humanity.

The first courses in Big History were experimental ones. The first book in Big History was published in 1996 by [Fred Spier](#) entitled, [*The Structure of Big History: From the Big Bang until Today*](#), which offers an ambitious defense of the project and constructs a unified account of history across all time scales. One notable text in Big History is David Christian's [*Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History*](#), which explores history from the first micro-seconds of the Big Bang, to the creation of the solar system, to the origins of life on earth, the evolution of humans, the agricultural revolution, modernity, and the [20th century](#). Christian examines large-scale patterns and themes, and provides perspective of time scales.

INTELLECTUAL HISTORY

Intellectual history refers to the [history](#) of the people who create, discuss, write about and in other ways propagate [ideas](#). The historical study of ideas has engaged not only western intellectual traditions, including, but not limited to, those in the [far east](#), [near east](#), [mid-east](#) and [Africa](#).

Intellectual history is closely related to the [history of philosophy](#) and the [history of ideas](#). Its central perspective suggests that ideas do not change in isolation from the people who create and use them and that one must study the

[culture](#), lives and environments of people to understand their notions and ideas. This is also fraught with the sentiment of hostility towards, or mistrust of, intellectuals and intellectual pursuits known as [anti-intellectualism](#). This may be expressed in various ways, such as attacks on the merits of science, education, or literature.

Europe and the West An [intellectual](#) is one who tries to use his or her intellect to work, study, reflect, speculate on, or ask and answer questions with regard to a variety of different ideas. There are, broadly, three modern definitions at work in discussions about intellectuals. First, "intellectuals" as those deeply involved in ideas, books, the life of the mind. Second, "intellectuals" are recognizable occupational class consisting of lecturers, professors, lawyers, doctors, scientist, and etc. Third, cultural "intellectuals" are those of notable expertise in culture and the arts, expertise which allows them some cultural authority, and who then use that authority to speak in public on other matters. The social/intellectual context in the writings of western [European history](#) includes:

- ◆ [The Enlightenment](#) [Human rights](#), new science, [democracy](#) (scholarly sources; [Kant](#), [Wilhelm Dilthey](#)).
- ◆ [The Royal Society](#) A secular creation of an intellectual world led by figures such as [Isaac Newton](#), [Robert Hooke](#), [Joseph Addison](#), [Bishop Sprat](#).
- ◆ [The Encyclopaedists](#) The creation of central repositories of knowledge available to all outside of academies, including mass market encyclopaedias and dictionaries: [Diderot](#), [Samuel Johnson](#), [Voltaire](#).
- ◆ [Romanticism](#) Individual, subjective, imaginative, personal, visionary (scholarly sources [Carlyle](#), [Rousseau](#), [Herder](#)).
- ◆ [Post-romanticism](#) Reaction to [naturalism](#), opposes external-only observations by adding internal observations (scholarly sources [Comte](#), [von Ranke](#)).
- ◆ [Modernism](#) Rejects Christian academic scholarly tradition (scholarly sources [Friedrich Nietzsche](#), [Jacob Burckhardt](#), [Ferdinand de Saussure](#), [Sigmund Freud](#), [Carl Jung](#)).
- ◆ [Existentialism](#) Pre- and post-WW2 rejection of Western norms and cultural values represented by [Jean-Paul Sartre](#), [Albert Camus](#), [Herbert Marcuse](#) and engaged with the intellectual prominence of fascism and socialism in Europe during in the 1930s and 1940s, which they saw needed both repudiation and study, as a way to re-establish the individual against the values of a hostile and

destructive series of communities creating alienation, isolation, and individual meaninglessness.

- ◆ [Postmodernism](#) Rejects Modernism, [meta-narrative](#) – multiple perspectives, role of individual (scholarly sources [Lyotard](#), [Foucault](#), [Barthes](#)).

- ◆ [Structuralism](#) Many phenomena do not occur in isolation but in relation to each other (scholarly sources [Geertz](#), [Levi-Strauss](#)).

- ◆ [Poststructuralism](#) [Deconstruction](#), destabilizes the relationship between language and objects the language refers to (scholarly sources [Lyotard](#), [Derrida](#), [Foucault](#)).

Asia and the Far East Central to development of intellectual history has been the birth of scholarship in ancient China, the creation of [Confucianism](#) with its extensive exegesis of the texts of Confucius, and the active part of scholars in governments.

In ancient [China](#) literati referred to the government officials who formed the ruling class in China for over two thousand years. These [scholar-bureaucrats](#) were a [status group](#) of educated [laymen](#), not ordained [priests](#). They were not a [hereditary](#) group as their position depended on their knowledge of writing and literature. After 200 B.C. the system of selection of candidates was influenced by [Confucianism](#) and established its ethic among the literati. The [Hundred Flowers Campaign](#) in China was largely based on the government's wish for a mobilization of intellectuals; with very sour consequences later.

Confucianism is a Chinese ethical and philosophical system originally developed from the teachings of the early Chinese sage Confucius. Confucianism is a complex system of moral, social, political, philosophical, and religious thought which has had tremendous influence on the culture and history of East Asia up to the 21st century.

Another avenue of intellectualism in Asia has been Buddhism. According to the [Buddhist](#) scriptures, in his lifetime, the Buddha had not answered several philosophical questions. On issues like whether the world is eternal or non-eternal, finite or infinite, unity or separation of the body and the [self](#), complete in existence of a person after nirvana and then death etc, the Buddha had remained silent. The scriptures explain that such questions distract from practical activity for realizing [enlightenment](#).

Buddhist missionaries often faced philosophical questions from other religions whose answers they themselves did not know. For those, who have attachment to [intellectualism](#), Buddhist scholars produced a prodigious quantity of intellectual theories, philosophies and worldview concepts.

Africa and the Middle East In the [Near East](#), [Islam and modernity](#)

encompass the relation and compatibility between the phenomenon of modernity, its related concepts and ideas, and the religion of Islam. In order to understand the relation between Islam and modernity, one point should be made in the beginning. Both Islam and modernity are not simple and unified entities. They are abstract quantities which could not be reduced into simple categories. The history of Islam, like that of other religions, is a history of different interpretations and approaches to Islam. Modernity is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon rather than a unified and coherent phenomenon. It has historically had different schools of thoughts moving in many directions.

[Ali al-Masudi](#), a well known Arab intellectual in history, known as the "Herodotus of the Arabs", was the first Arab to combine history and scientific geography in a large-scale work, *The Meadows of Gold and Mines of Gems*, a world history. [Ibn Khaldūn](#) was a famous Arab Muslim historian, historiographer, demographer, economist, philosopher and sociologist. He is regarded as a forefather of demography, historiography, philosophy of history, and sociology, and is viewed as one of the forerunners of modern economics.

[Persian philosophy](#) can be traced back as far as to Old Iranian philosophical traditions and thoughts which originated in ancient [Indo-Iranian](#) roots and were considerably influenced by [Zarathustra](#)'s teachings. Throughout Iranian history and due to remarkable political and social changes a wide spectrum of schools of thoughts showed a variety of views on philosophical questions extending from Old Iranian and mainly [Zoroastrianism](#)-related traditions to schools appearing in the late pre-Islamic era. Iranian philosophy after Arab invasion of [Persia](#), is characterized by different interactions with the [Old Iranian philosophy](#), the [Greek philosophy](#) and with the development of [Islamic philosophy](#).

[Intellectual movements in Iran](#) involve the Iranian experience of [modernism](#), through which Iranian modernity and its associated art, science, literature, poetry, and political structures have been evolving since the 19th century. [Religious intellectualism in Iran](#) developed gradually and subtly and involved numerous philosophers, sociologists, political scientists and cultural theorists.

The [African Renaissance](#) is a concept in which the African people and nations are called upon to solve the many problems troubling the [African](#) continent. It reached its height in the late 1990's but continues to be a key part of the post-[apartheid](#) intellectual agenda. The elements of this would eventually be seen to comprise the African Renaissance, social cohesion, [democracy](#), economic rebuilding and growth and the establishing of Africa as a significant player in geopolitical affairs.

With the rise of [Afrocentrism](#), a recently developed [academic](#), [philosophical](#),

and historical approach to the study of world history, the push away from Eurocentrism has led to the focus on the contributions of African people and their model of world civilization and history.

Afrocentrism aims to shift the focus from a perceived European-centered history to an African-centered history. More broadly, Afrocentrism is concerned with distinguishing the influence of European and Oriental peoples from African achievements.

CULTURAL HISTORY

Cultural history (from the German term Kulturgeschichte), at least in its common definition since the 1970s, often combines the approaches of anthropology and history to look at popular cultural traditions and cultural interpretations of historical experience. Cultural history involves the records and narrative descriptions of past knowledge, customs, and arts of a group of people. Cultural history encompasses the continuum of events occurring in succession leading from the past to the present and even into the future pertaining to a culture.

Cultural history, as a discipline, records and interprets past events involving human beings through the social, cultural, and political milieu of or relating to the arts and manners that a group of favors. Jacob Burckhardt helped found cultural history as a discipline. Cultural history studies and interprets the record of human societies by denoting the various distinctive ways of living built up by a group of people under consideration. Cultural history involves the aggregate of past cultural activity, such as ceremony, class in practices, and the interaction with locales.

Cultural history overlaps in its approaches with the French movements of 'histoire des mentalités' and the so-called new history, and in the U.S. it is closely associated with the field of American studies. As originally conceived and practiced by 19th Century Swiss historian Jakob Burckhardt with regard to the Italian Renaissance, cultural history was oriented to the study of a particular historical period in its entirety, with regard not only for its painting, sculpture and architecture, but for the economic basis underpinning society, and the social institutions of its daily life as well.

Most often the focus is on phenomena shared by non-elite groups in a society, such as: carnival, festival, and public rituals; performance traditions of tale, epic, and other verbal forms; cultural evolutions in human relations (ideas, sciences, arts, techniques); and cultural expressions of social movements such as nationalism. Also examines main historical concepts as power, ideology, class, culture, cultural identity, attitude, race, perception and new historical methods as

narration of body. Many studies consider adaptations of traditional culture to mass media (TV, radio, newspapers, magazines, posters, etc.), from print to film and, now, to the Internet. Its modern approaches come from art history, annales, marxist school, microhistory and new cultural history.

Common theoretical touchstones for recent cultural history have included: Jürgen Habermas's formulation of the public sphere in *The Structural Transformation of the Bourgeois Public Sphere*; Clifford Geertz's notion of "thick description" (expounded in *The Interpretation of Cultures*); and the idea of memory as a cultural-historical category, as discussed in Paul Connerton's *How Societies Remember*.

An area where new-style cultural history is often pointed to as being almost a paradigm is the "revisionist" history of the French Revolution, dated somewhere since François Furet's massively influential essay *Interpreting the French Revolution*. The "revisionist interpretation" is often characterised as replacing the allegedly dominant, allegedly Marxist, "social interpretation" which say the causes of the Revolution in class dynamics. The revisionist approach has tended to put more emphasis on "political culture", and through this the cultural historians have come. Reading ideas of political culture through Habermas' conception of the public sphere, historians of the Revolution in the past few decades have looked at the role and position of cultural themes such as gender, ritual, and ideology in the context of pre-revolutionary French political culture.

Historians who might be grouped under this umbrella are Roger Chartier, Robert Darnton, Patrice Higonnet, Lynn Hunt, Keith Baker, Joan Landes, Mona Ozouf and Sarah Maza. Of course, these scholars all pursue fairly diverse interests, and perhaps too much emphasis has been placed on the paradigmatic nature of the new history of the French Revolution. Colin Jones, for example, is no stranger to cultural history, Habermas, or Marxism, and has persistently argued that the Marxist interpretation is not dead, but can be revived; after all, Habermas' logic was heavily indebted to a Marxist understanding. Meanwhile, Rebecca Spang has also recently argued that for all its emphasis on difference and newness, the "revisionist" approach retains the idea of the French Revolution as a watershed in the history of (so-called) modernity, and that the problematic notion of "modernity" has itself attracted scant attention.

Cultural studies is an academic discipline popular among a diverse group of scholars. It combines political economy, communication, sociology, social theory, literary theory, media theory, film/video studies, cultural anthropology, philosophy, museum studies and art history/criticism to study cultural phenomena in various societies. Cultural studies researchers often concentrate on how a

particular phenomenon relates to matters of ideology, nationality, ethnicity, social class, and/or gender. The term was coined by Richard Hoggart in 1964.

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 and 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. "Natural heritage" is also an important part of a culture, encompassing the countryside and natural environment, including flora and fauna. These kinds of heritage sites 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 Natural Heritage that was adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO in 1972. As of 2006, there are 830 World Heritage Sites: 644 cultural, 162 natural, 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 of 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 opposed 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 this 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.

GENEALOGY

Genealogy (from Greek: *genea* – "family"; and *logos* – "knowledge") is the study and tracing of family pedigrees. This involves the collection of the names of relatives, both living and deceased, and establishing the relationships among them based on primary, secondary and/or circumstantial evidence or documentation, thus building up a cohesive family tree. Genealogy is often also referred to as family history, although these terms may be used distinctly: the former being the basic study of who is related to whom; the latter involving more "fleshing out" of the lives and personal histories of the individuals involved.

Genealogists collect oral histories and preserve family stories to discover ancestors and living relatives. Genealogists also attempt to understand not just where and when people lived but also their lifestyle, biography, and motivations. This often requires — or leads to — knowledge of antique law, old political boundaries, immigration trends, and historical social conditions.

Genealogists and family historians often join a Family History Society where novices can learn from more experienced researchers, and everyone benefits from shared knowledge.

Even an unsuccessful search for ancestors leads to a better understanding of history. The search for living relatives often leads to family reunions, both of distant cousins and of disrupted families. Genealogists sometimes help reunite families separated by war, immigration, foster homes, and adoption. The

genealogist can help keep family traditions alive or reveal family secrets.

In its original form, genealogy was mainly concerned with the ancestry of rulers and nobles, often arguing or demonstrating the legitimacy of claims to wealth and power. The term often overlapped with heraldry, in which the ancestry of royalty was reflected in the quartering of their coat of arms. Many of the claimed ancestries are considered by modern scholars to be fabrications, especially the claims of kings and emperors who trace their ancestry to gods or the founders of their civilization. For example, the Anglo-Saxon chroniclers traced the ancestry of several English kings back to the god Woden (the English version of the Norse god Odin). If these descents were true, Queen Elizabeth II would be a descendant of Woden, via the kings of Wessex.

Genealogy, a popular hobby, received a big boost in the late 1970's. With the advent of the Internet, the number of resources available to genealogists has vastly increased; however, some of these sources must be treated with caution due to issues of accuracy.

Research efforts sometimes specialize on: types of relationships among people such as kinship to a particular group, e.g. a Scottish clan; a particular surname such as in a one-name study; a small community, e.g. a single village or parish, such as in a one-place study; or a particular person such as Winston Churchill or Ivan Mazepa.

Genetic analysis With the discovery that a person's DNA contains information that has been passed down relatively unchanged from our earliest ancestors, analysis of DNA has begun to be used for genealogical research.

A genealogical DNA test allows for two individuals to estimate the probability that they are (or are not) related within a certain time frame. Individual genetic test results are being collected in various databases to match people descended from a relatively recent common ancestor.

On a much longer time scale, genetic methods are being used to trace human migratory patterns and to determine biogeographical and ethnic origin. The results can be used to place people within ancient ancestral groups.

In a related development, non-genetic mathematical models of ancestry have been devised to determine the approximate year when the most recent common ancestor of all living humans existed.

Records in genealogical research Records of persons who were neither royalty nor nobility began to be taken by governments in order to keep track of their citizens (In most of Europe, for example, this started to take place in the 16th century). As more of the population began to be recorded, there were sufficient records to follow a family using the paper trail they left behind.

As each person lived his or her life, major events were usually documented with a license, permit or report which was stored at a local, regional or national office or archive. Genealogists locate these records, wherever they are stored, and extract information to discover family relationships and recreate timelines of persons' lives.

Records that are used in genealogy research include:

Vital records, Birth records, Death records; Marriage and divorce records; Adoption records; Baptism or christening records; Cemetery records, funeral home records, and tombstones; City directories and telephone directories; Criminal records; Diaries, personal letters and family Bibles; Emigration, immigration and naturalization records; Land and homestead records, deeds; Medical records; Passports; Photographs; School records; Pension records, Tax records, Voter registration records; Wills and probate records.

As a rule, genealogists begin with the present and work backward in time. Written records have the property of hindsight in that they only tell where a person might have lived and who their parents were, not where they and their descendants might subsequently reside. Two exceptions are when a genealogist might interview living relatives as to who and where their children and grandchildren are, or tries to locate long-lost relatives who may already have traced their families backward to an ancestor they have in common.

Ethnic group

An ethnic group or ethnicity is a population of human beings whose members identify with each other, usually on the basis of a presumed common genealogy or ancestry. Ethnicity is also defined from the recognition by others as a distinct group and by common cultural, linguistic, religious, behavioural or biological traits.

"Ethnicity is a fundamental factor in human life: it is a phenomenon inherent in human experience" despite its often malleable definitions. However ethnic identities only arise under specific conditions. Processes that result in the emergence of such identification are called ethnogenesis. Members of an ethnic group, on the whole, claim cultural continuities over time, although historians and cultural anthropologists have documented that many of the values, practices, and norms that imply continuity with the past are of relatively recent invention.

The sociologist Max Weber once remarked that "The whole conception of ethnic groups is so complex and so vague that it might be good to abandon it altogether".

In any case, Weber proposed a definition of ethnic group that became accepted by many social scientists:

"Those human groups that entertain a subjective belief in their common descent because of similarities of physical type or of customs or both, or because of memories of colonization and migration; this belief must be important for group formation; furthermore it does not matter whether an objective blood relationship exists".

Anthropologist Ronald Cohen claimed that while many ethnic groups subjectively claimed common descent and cultural continuity, objectively there was often evidence that countered such claims. Harold Isaacs has identified other diacritics (distinguishing markers) of ethnicity, among them physical appearance, name, language, history, and religion; this definition has entered some dictionaries. Social scientists have thus focused on how, when, and why different markers of ethnic identity become salient. Thus, anthropologist Joan Vincent observed that ethnic boundaries often have a mercurial character. Ronald Cohen concluded that ethnicity is "a series of nesting dichotomizations of inclusiveness and exclusiveness".

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, behaviours and more. It is distinguished from political history, military history and the so-called history of great men. Social history is often described as 'history from below' or 'Grass- roots history' 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. Unlike other approaches, 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. A question in social history is whether the masses follow the leaders or whether it is the other way around.

An example of social history can be seen in the American Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s. 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?" "What elements hindered the development?" This approach is favoured by scholars because it allows for 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 differing 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 themselves such questions as: What was the input of the individual translator? How does that translator's life and attitudes as portrayed in their writings, shed light on their interpretation of the source text and their translation solutions? 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, leaning 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. The term has grown to be an umbrella term for what are now often viewed as several distinct scientific disciplines of integrative organism biology. 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, abundance, 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.

FUTUROLOGY

Futurology is the science and art of postulating the future by studying events and trends, and the worldviews and myths that underlie them. Futurology, or more appropriately "futures studies," seeks to understand what is likely to continue, what is likely to change, and what is novel. It thus seeks to understand past and present, and determine the likelihood of future events and trends. It is an interdisciplinary field, recording today's changes to predict their impact on tomorrow's reality. It includes analyzing the sources, patterns, and causes of change and stability in the attempt to develop foresight and to map possible futures.

Futurology is the detailed critical inspection and reasoning of the state in which things will develop in the future on the basis of existing circumstances in history. The term literally means the "study of the future". The term was coined by German professor Ossip K. Flechtheim in the mid-1940's, who proposed it as a new branch of knowledge that would include a new science of probability.

Futurology basics Two factors usually distinguish the studies from the research conducted by other disciplines (although all disciplines overlap to differing degrees):

- Futurology often examines not only possible but also probable, preferable, and wildcard futures;
- Futurology typically attempts to gain a holistic or systemic view based on insights from a range of different disciplines.

Methodologies Like historical studies that try to explain what happened in the past and why, the efforts of futurology try to understand the latent potential of the present. This requires the development of theories of present conditions and how conditions might change. For this task, futurology, as it is generally undertaken, uses a wide range of theoretical models and practical methods, many of which come from other academic disciplines (including economics, sociology, geography, history, engineering, mathematics, psychology, technology, tourism, physics, biology, astronomy, and theology).

In a linear conception of time, the future is the portion of the timeline that

has yet to occur, i.e. the place in space-time where lie all events that still have not occurred. In this sense the future is opposed to the past (the set of moments and events that have already occurred) and the present (the set of events that are occurring now). Futurists are those who look to and provide analysis of the future. The discipline is referred to by different terms, depending on the cultural context. Futures studies has become the common term in the English-speaking world.

Futures studies does not generally include the work of economists who forecast movements of interest rates over the next business cycle. The discipline also excludes those who make future predictions through supernatural means, as well as people who attempt to forecast the short-term or readily foreseeable future. However, while excluding those, it does seek to understand the models they use and the interpretations they give to these models.

Futurologists attempt to apply Strategic Foresight for forecasting alternative futures. While forecasting – i.e., attempts to predict future states from current trends – is a common methodology, professional scenarios often rely on "back casting" – i.e., asking what changes in the present would be required to arrive at envisioned alternative future states. Practitioners of futures studies classify themselves as futurists (or foresight practitioners).

The modern multi-disciplinary and cross-cultural discipline of futurology, known more generally as futures studies, emerged in the mid-1960's, according to first-generation futurists Olaf Helmer, Dennis Gabor, Oliver Markley, Burt Nanus, and Wendell Bell. Futures studies reflects on how today's changes (or the lack thereof) become tomorrow's reality. It includes attempts to analyze the sources, patterns, and causes of change and stability in order to develop foresight and to map alternative futures. The subjects and methods of futures studies include possible, probable, and desirable variations or alternative transformations of the present, both social and "natural" (i.e. independent of human impact). A broad field of inquiry, futures studies explores and represents what the present could become from multiple interdisciplinary perspectives. As a discipline it is still early in conceptual and methodological development, grounding, and validation. *The Limits to Growth* by Dennis Meadows is a good place to start. It is widely used by corporations, as a discipline to challenge strategies composed for long term growth.

Education in the field of future studies has taken place for some time. Beginning in the 1960's, it has since developed in many different countries. Futures education can encourage the use of concepts, tools and processes that allow students to think long-term, consequentially, and imaginatively. It generally helps students to:

- conceptualize more just and sustainable human and planetary futures
- develop knowledge and skills in exploring probable and preferred futures
- understand the dynamics and influence that human, social and ecological systems have on alternative futures conscientize responsibility and action on the part of students toward creating better futures.

While futures studies remains a relatively new academic tradition, numerous tertiary institutions around the world teach it. These vary from small programs, or universities with just one or two classes, to programs that incorporate futurology into other degrees, (for example in planning, business, environmental studies, economics, development studies, science and technology studies).

Counterfactual history, also sometimes referred to as virtual history, is a recent form of history which attempts to answer "what if" questions known as counterfactuals. It seeks to explore history and historical incidents by means of extrapolating a timeline in which certain key historical events did not happen nor had an outcome which was different from that which did in fact occur.

The purpose of this exercise is to ascertain the relative importance of the event, incident or person the counterfactual hypothesis is negating. For instance, to the counterfactual claim "What would have happened had Hitler died in the July, 1944, assassination attempt?", all sorts of possibilities become readily apparent, starting with the reasonable assumption that the Nazi generals would have in all likelihood sued for peace, bringing an early end to World War II. Thus, the counterfactual brings into sharp relief the importance of Hitler as an individual and how his personal fate shaped the course of the War and, ultimately, of world history.

Counterfactual history is in many ways a reaction to the extreme de-personalization and determinism of much of current historical studies, with their emphasis on social history as opposed to event- and personality-driven history.

Few attempts to bring counterfactual history into the world of academia were made until the 1996 publication of *Virtual History: Alternatives and Counterfactuals*, a collection of essays exploring different scenarios by a number of historians, edited by the historian N.Ferguson. Ferguson has become a significant advocate of counterfactual history, using counterfactual scenarios to illustrate his objections to deterministic theories of history such as Marxism, and to put forward a case for the importance of contingency in history, theorizing that a few key changes could result in a significantly different modern world.

It should be noted that counterfactual history is most emphatically not historical revisionism (negationism). Nor should it be confused with the genre of

alternate history fiction. In general, the main distinguishing feature of counterfactual history is that it is interested precisely in the incident or event that is being negated by the counterfactual, and is seeking to evaluate its relative historical importance by means of the counterfactual. Thus, the counterfactual historian attempts to provide reasoned arguments for each change, and the changes are usually outlined only in broad terms, since the results of the counterfactual are not the point of the exercise but merely the byproduct. An alternative history writer, on the other hand, is interested precisely in the hypothetical scenarios that flow from the negated incident or event.

PSYCHOHISTORY

Psychohistory is the study of the psychological motivations of historical events. It combines the insights of psychotherapy with the research methodology of the social sciences to understand the emotional origin of the social and political behaviour of groups and nations, past and present. This field of study is considered to have significant differences from the mainstream fields of history and psychology.

Psychohistory derives many of its insights from areas that are ignored by conventional historians as shaping factors of human history, in particular, the effects of childbirth, parenting practice, and child abuse. The historical impact of incest, infanticide and child sacrifice are considered. Psychohistory holds that human societies can change between infanticidal and non-infanticidal practices and has coined the term "early infanticidal childrearing" to describe abuse and neglect observed by many anthropologists. Lloyd deMause, the pioneer of psychohistory, has described a system of psychogenic modes which describe the range of styles of parenting he has observed historically and across cultures.

Many political scientists and historians teach that social behaviour is usually for rational reasons rather than irrational ones, and that international violence is often instigated for economic gain. Psychohistorians, on the other hand, suggest that social behaviour may be a self-destructive re-enactment of earlier abuse and neglect; that unconscious flashbacks to early fears and destructive parenting could dominate individual and social behaviour.

Psychohistory has been credited with helping to revitalize the historical biography. Notable examples of psychobiographies are those of Lewis Namier, who wrote about the British House of Commons and Fawn Brodie, who wrote about Thomas Jefferson.

There are three inter-related **areas of psychohistorical study**:

- **The History of Childhood** – looks at such questions as:

How have children been raised throughout history?

How has the family been constituted?

How and why have practices changed over time?

How have the place and value of children changed in society over time?

How and why have our views of child abuse and neglect changed?

- **Psychobiography** - seeks to understand individual historical people and their motivations in history.

- **Group Psychohistory** - seeks to understand the motivations of large groups, including nations, in history and current affairs. In doing so, psychohistory advances the use of group-fantasy analysis of political speeches, political cartoons and media headlines since the fantasy words therein offer clues to unconscious thinking and behaviours.

Sigmund Freud's well known work *Civilization and Its Discontents* (1929) included an analysis of history based on his theory of psychoanalysis.

The psychologist and philosopher Erich Fromm wrote about the psychological motivation behind political ideology, starting with *The Fear of Freedom* in 1941.

Psychohistory's first academic use appeared in Erik Erikson's book *Young Man Luther* (1958), where the author called for a discipline of "psycho-history" to examine the impact of human character on history.

Lloyd deMause developed a formal psychohistorical approach and continues to be an influential theorist in this field.

DeMause and others have argued that psychohistory is a separate field of scholarly inquiry with its own particular methods, objectives and theories, which set it apart from conventional historical analysis and anthropology. Some historians, social scientists and anthropologists have, however, argued that their disciplines already describe psychological motivation and that Psychohistory is not, therefore, a separate subject. Others have dismissed deMause's theories and motives arguing that the emphasis given by Psychohistory to speculation on the psychological motivations of people in history make it an undisciplined field of study. Doubt has also been cast on the viability of the application of post-mortem psychoanalysis by Freud's followers.

Psychohistorians maintain that the difference is one of emphasis and that, in conventional study, narrative and description are central, while psychological motivation is hardly touched on. For deMause, child abuse takes the centre stage.

Psychohistorians accuse most anthropologists and ethnologists of being apologists for incest, infanticide, cannibalism and child sacrifice. They maintain

that what constitutes child abuse is a matter of objective fact, and that some of the practices which mainstream anthropologists apologize for may result in psychosis, dissociation and magical thinking: particularly for the surviving children who had a sacrificed brother or sister by their parents. Psychohistorians also believe that the extreme cultural relativism proposed by many anthropologists is contrary to the letter and spirit of human rights.

Part I

MILITARY HISTORY

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 battle, 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 ways 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, calculates that 87 per cent of tribal societies were at war more than once per year.

The introduction of agriculture brought large differences between farm workers' societies and hunter-gatherer groups. Probably, during periods of famine, hunters started to massively attack the villages of countrymen, leading to the beginning of organized warfare. In relatively advanced agricultural societies a major differentiation of roles was possible; consequently the figure of professional soldiers or militaries as distinct, organized units was born.

Ancient warfare Much of what we know of ancient history is the history of militaries: their conquests, 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. Due to limited agricultural ability, there were relatively few areas that could support large communities, so fighting was common.

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 the Homeric writings pertaining to 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 efficiency led 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 that was "a matter of vital importance to the state"(Sun Tzu).

Notable militaries in the ancient world included the Egyptians, Babylonians, Persians, Greeks (notably the 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 Atheninans. After a disastrous campaign against Syracuse, the Athenian navy was decisively defeated.

The Macedonians, underneath Alexander the Great, invaded Persia and won several major victories, establishing Macedonia as a major power. However, following Alexander's death at an early age, the empire quickly fell apart.

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. He famously won the encirclement at the Battle of Cannae. 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.

By the time of Marcus Aurelius, the Romans had expanded to the Atlantic Ocean in the west to Mesopotamia in the east. However, Aurelius marked the end of the Five Good Emperors, and Rome quickly fell to decline. The Huns, Goths, and other barbaric groups invaded Rome, which continued to suffer from inflation and other internal strifes. Western Rome collapsed. The Byzantine empire continued to prosper, however.

Part II

MILITARY HISTORY

Medieval warfare When stirrups came into use some 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 nineteenth 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 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 Italian Wars of the early 16th 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 monarchic 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 had 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 being 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 rivalling 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 exclusive 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 conflict by any method, but rather the technological variety of tools and methods available to modern battlefield commanders, from submarines to satellites, from knives to nuclear warheads.

World War I 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. Major operations by the Germans at the Battle of Verdun and by the British and the French at the Battle of the Somme were carried out, and new technology like tanks and chlorine gas were used. Following the USA's entrance into the war, the Germans and their allies were eventually defeated.

World War II 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. A hasty evacuation occurred at Dunkirk to save the Allied army from complete disaster. 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 powers. 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.

The Cold War then emerged, reaching the peak at the Cuban Missile Crisis. Hostilities never actually occurred, though the US did engage against communist states in the Korean War and the Vietnam War.

APPENDIX

Таблиця неправильних дієслів (Irregular verbs)

Verb/Infinitive	Past Simple	Past Participle	Translation
1. arise	arose	arisen	виникати, з'являтися
2. awake	awoke	awoken	прокидатися, будити
3. be	was/were	been	бути
4. bear	bore	born	носити, народжувати
5. beat	beat	beaten	бити
6. become	became	become	ставати
7. begin	began	begun	починати
8. bet	bet	bet	битися об заклад
9. bind	bound	bound	зв'язувати
10. bite	bit	bitten	кусатися
11. bleed	bled	bled	кровоточити
12. blow	blew	blown	дути
13. break	broke	broken	ламати
14. breed	bred	bred	розводити
15. bring	brought	brought	приносити
16. build	built	built	будувати
17. burn	burn/burned	burnt/burned	палити
18. burst	burst	burst	вибухати, розривати
19. buy	bought	bought	купувати
20. cast	cast	cast	кидати
21. catch	caught	caught	ловити
22. choose	chose	chosen	вибирати
23. come	came	come	приходити
24. cost	cost	cost	коштувати
25. cut	cut	cut	різати
26. dare	dared	dared	сміти, наважуватись
27. deal	dealt	dealt	мати справи
28. dig	dug	dug	копати, рити
29. do	did	done	робити
30. draw	drew	drawn	тягти, креслити
31. dream	dreamt	dreamt	мріяти, бачити сон
33. drink	drank	drunk	пити
34. drive	drove	driven	водити, керувати
35. dwell	dwelt	dwelt	жити, мешкати
36. eat	ate	eaten	їсти

37. fall	fell	fallen	падати
38. feed	fed	fed	годувати
39. feel	felt	felt	відчувати
40. fight	fought	fought	боротися
41. find	found	found	знаходити
42. fly	flew	flown	літати
43. forbid	forbade	forbidden	забороняти
44. forecast	forecast	forecast	передбачати, завбачати
45. foresee	foresaw	foreseen	передбачати
46. forget	forgot	forgotten	забувати
47. forgive	forgave	forgiven	прощати
48. freeze	froze	frozen	морозити
49. get	got	got	отримувати
50. give	gave	given	давати
51. go	went	gone	ходити
52. grow	grew	grown	рости, вирощувати
53. hang	hung	hung	вішати, висіти
54. have	had	had	мати
55. hear	heard	heard	чути
56. hide	hid	hidden	ховати(ся)
57. hit	hit	hit	ударяти
58. hold	held	held	тримати
59. hurt	hurt	hurt	поранити, завдати болю
60. keep	kept	kept	тримати
61. kneel	knelt	knelt	стояти навколішки
62. knit	knit/knitted	knit/knitted	в'язати, з'єднувати
64. know	knew	known	знати
65. lay	laid	laid	класти
66. lead	led	led	вести, керувати
67. lean	leant/leaned	leant/leaned	нахиляти(ся)
68. leap	leapt	leapt	стрибати
69. learn	learnt	learnt	вчити
70. leave	left	left	залишати
71. lend	lent	lent	позичати
72. let	let	let	дозволяти, пускати
73. lie	lay	lain	лежати
74. light	lit	lit	запалювати
75. lose	lost	lost	губити

76. make	made	made	робити
77. mean	meant	meant	означати
78. meet	met	met	зустрічати
79. mislead	misled	misled	вводити в оману
80. misspell	misspelt	misspelt	робити орфогр.помилки
81. misunderstand	misunderstood	misunderstood	неправильно розуміти
82. overcome	overcame	overcome	перемагати
83. partake	partook	partaken	підслуховувати
84. pay	paid	paid	платити
85. prove	proved	proved/proven	доводити
86. put	put	put	класти
87. read	read	read	читати
88. rebuild	rebuilt	rebuilt	відбудовувати
89. retell	retold	retold	переказувати
90. rewrite	rewrote	rewritten	переписувати
91. rid	rid	rid	звільняти, позбавляти
92. ride	rode	ridden	їхати верхи
93. ring	rang	rung	дзвонити
94. rise	rose	risen	сходити, вставати
95. run	run	run	бігти
96. say	said	said	казати
97. see	saw	seen	бачити
98. seek	sought	sought	шукати
99. sell	sold	sold	продавати
100. send	sent	sent	відсилати
101. set	set	set	ставити, розміщувати
102. shake	shook	shaken	трусити
103. shine	shone	shone	світити, блищати
104. shoot	shot	shot	стріляти
105. show	showed	shown/showed	показувати
106. shut	shut	shut	закривати(ся)
107. sing	sang	sung	співати
108. sink	sank	sunk/sunken	тонути
109. sit	sit	sit	сидіти
110. sleep	slept	slept	спати
111. slide	slid	slid	ковзати
112. smell	smelt/smelled	smelt/smelled	відчувати запах
113. sow	sowed	sown/sowed	сіяти
114. speak	spoke	spoken	розмовляти

115. speed	sped	sped	поспішати
116. spell	spelt/spelled	spelt/spelled	читати по літерах
117. spend	spent	spent	витрачати
118. spill	spilt/spilled	spilt/spilled	розливати
119. spin	spun	spun	прясти
120. spoil	spoilt/spoiled	spoilt/spoiled	псувати
121. spread	spread	spread	поширювати, простягати
122. spring	sprang	sprung	стрибати
123. stand	stood	stood	стояти
124. steal	stole	stolen	красти
125. stick	stuck	stuck	додержуватися
126. stride	strode	stridden	крокувати
127. strike	struck	struck	бити, страйкувати
128. string	strung	strung	зав'язувати, натягувати
129. strive	strove	striven	намагатися, старатися
130. sunburn	sunburned	sunburned	загорати
131. sweep	swept	swept	підмітати
132. swim	swam	swum	плавати
133. swing	swung	swung	коливати, хитати
134. take	took	taken	брати
135. teach	taught	taught	навчати
136. tear	tore	torn	рвати
137. tell	told	told	казати
138. think	thought	thought	думати
139. throw	threw	thrown	кидати
140. undergo	underwent	undergone	знавати
141. understand	understood	understood	розуміти
142. undo	undid	undone	розв'язувати, розстібати
143. upset	upset	upset	засмучувати
144. wake	woke	woken	будити, прокидатися
145. wear	wore	worn	носити
146. weep	wept	wept	плакати
147. win	won	won	перемагати
148. wind	wound	wound	заводити годинник
149. withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn	відкликати
150. write	wrote	written	писати

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