

**INDIVIDUAL AND SELF-
STUDY WORK OF
HISTORY DEPARTMENT
STUDENTS**

Кам'янець-Подільський

2020

УДК 811.111.091.322(075.8)

ББК 81.432.1 – 923

I – 59

Укладачі: А.В. Уманець, Н.А. Глушковецька, А.В. Дубінська,
А.А. Крук

Відповідальний редактор: **А. В. Уманець**, кандидат філологічних наук, доцент, професор кафедри іноземних мов, завідувач кафедри іноземних мов Кам'янець-Подільського національного університету імені Івана Огієнка.

Рецензенти: **В.Б. Крамар**, кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри перекладу Хмельницького національного університету.

З.Б. Куделько, кандидат філологічних наук, доцент, завідувач кафедри сучасних іноземних мов та перекладу Чернівецького національного університету імені Юрія Федьковича.

Н.І. Фрасинюк, кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри англійської мови Кам'янець-Подільського національного університету імені Івана Огієнка.

Допущено до друку вченою радою Кам'янець-Подільського національного університету імені Івана Огієнка (протокол № 1 від 30.01.2020 р.)

I – 59 Individual and Self-Study Work of History Department Students : навчальний посібник з англійської мови для студентів історичних спеціальностей / Укладачі: А.В. Уманець, Н.А. Глушковецька, А.В. Дубінська, А.А. Крук; За ред. А.В. Уманець. – Кам'янець-Подільський : ТОВ “Друкарня “Рута”, 2020. – 244 с.

ISBN 978-617-7887-24-8

Навчальний посібник “Individual and Self-Study Work of History Department Students” охоплює цілісний комплекс матеріалу, що сприяє оволодінню англійською мовою на рівні, достатньому для здійснення професійної діяльності, а також слугує ефективним підґрунтям для самостійної та індивідуальної роботи студентів. Матеріал містить Guidelines and Types of Projects for Individual and Self-Study Work of Students (Вказівки та види проєктів для індивідуальної та самостійної роботи студентів), а також чотири розділи для позааудиторної роботи Extracurricula work for students majoring in history / law studies / political sciences / archeology, для підготовки фахівців з історії, правознавства, політології та археології.

Навчальний посібник “Individual and Self-Study Work of History Department Students” рекомендований студентам, магістрантам, аспірантам та викладачам історичних спеціальностей.

УДК 811.111.091.322(075.8)

ББК 81.432.1 – 923

А.В. Уманець, Н.А. Глушковецька, А.В. Дубінська,
А.А. Крук

ПЕРЕДНЄ СЛОВО

Навчальний посібник з англійської мови “Individual and Self-Study Work of History Department Students” рекомендований для самостійної та індивідуальної роботи студентів історичних спеціальностей, базується на комплексному підході до вивчення англійської мови за професійним спрямуванням, що сприяє оволодінню англійською мовою на професійному рівні для посилення інтегрованості сучасного покоління у світовий соціокультурний простір.

Посібник націлений на вдосконалення комунікативних навичок та умінь іншомовного спілкування. Матеріал посібника структурований наступним чином: Guidelines and Types of Projects for Individual and Self-Study Work of Students (Вказівки та види проектів для індивідуальної та самостійної роботи студентів) та чотири розділи для позааудиторної роботи Extracurricula work for students majoring in history / law studies / political sciences / archeology для підготовки фахівців з історії, правознавства, політології та археології.

Посібник “Individual and Self-Study Work of History Department Students” може бути рекомендований студентам вищих навчальних закладів із рівнем мовної компетентності B2–C1, магістрантам, аспірантам та викладачам історичних спеціальностей, а також усім тим, хто прагне вдосконалити навички іншомовного спілкування з суспільно-політичної тематики.

Бажаємо успіхів!

CONTENTS

UNIT 1. Guidelines and types of projects for individual and self-study work of history department students	7
UNIT 2. Extracurricula work for students majoring in history	28
Text 1. Gregorian calendar	29
Text 2. Who discovered America	33
Text 3. The history of the Magna Carta	37
Text 4. Naked cooks, excrement, rats: The secretly disgusting history of Royal Palaces	42
Text 5. 9 Ancient Sumerian inventions that changed the world	49
Text 6. 6 things you (probably) didn't know about Alexander the Great	56
Text 7. Bugs of war: How insects have been weaponized throughout history	65
Text 8. How queen Victoria's matchmaking helped cause World War I	71
Text 9. In profile: The life and death of Marie Antoinette	76
Text 10. Globetrotting vikings: The quest for Constantinople	84
UNIT 3. Extracurricula work for students majoring in law studies	90
Text 1. Crime and punishment in the ancient world	91
Text 2. Ancient Rome and ancient Greek rules of law	96
Text 3. Importance of the Roman law: from ancient times to modern law systems	101
Text 4. Principles of criminal law	106

Text 5.	9 Defining principles of administrative law	110
Text 6.	The development of International law	115
Text 7.	Dress code of British lawyers	120
Text 8.	Law as a set of rules	125
Text 9.	Law in ancient Greece	129
Text 10.	The evolution of law	134
UNIT 4.	Extracurricula work for students majoring in political sciences	142
Text 1.	A brief history of political science	143
Text 2.	Fields and subfields of political science	148
Text 3.	The Yeomen of the guard	152
Text 4.	How the Mayflower Compact laid a foundation for American democracy	156
Text 5.	What is political science?	162
Text 6.	The social dimension of reasoning	166
Text 7.	Harnessing the wisdom of citizens	172
Text 8.	Direct emotional influence on political and moral reasoning	179
Text 9.	Twenty first century and its challenges	184
Text 10.	Political system of Ukraine	190
UNIT 5.	Extracurricula work for students majoring in archeology	195
Text 1.	The history of archaeology	196
Text 2.	Marine archaeology	200
Text 3.	Excavating human remains	204
Text 4.	The importance of context	209
Text 5.	1,100-year-old ‘Beer Hall’ for the viking elite discovered in Scotland	214
Text 6.	The secret art bunker of Nuremberg	219
Text 7.	Dinosaur discoverer	226
Text 8.	The Burgess shale fossils	229

Text 9. Environmental revolution	232
Text 10. Hidden army: clay soldiers	236
Literature to recommend	240

UNIT 1

Guidelines and Types of Projects for Individual and Self-Study Work of History Department Students

Introduction

Self-study is an integral part of any ESP course and as such requires regular and consistent assessment. With autonomous learning and growing learner responsibility for the results of their own study, students' ability to assess themselves is of critical importance. Students should thus be provided with reliable and usable self-assessment instruments.

Materials for self-study also require special attention on the part of ESP teachers. As Ukrainian students often do not have the necessary skills to organise their study without close teacher supervision, tasks and activities for self-study should be specially adjusted to the independent learning mode. Self-study resources should:

- contain clearly formulated tasks and samples of successful performance
- be accessible to students out of class
- be accessible via various media (books, audio, video, computer software, the Internet) to support individual learning styles
- provide clear criteria for measuring successful performance.

In addition to ESP materials, self-study support packs, i.e. recommendations on 'learning to learn' may be developed to compensate individual students for lack of study skills. Self-study tasks may vary in nature – from individual drills to group projects. The results of self-study may be presented in various forms, measurable in terms of learning outcomes (tests, reading logs, written reports, oral presentations, etc.).

Here are the tasks for individual and self-study work:

Task 1

Education

Topical issues in education:

- the threat of the possible decline in educational standards,
- a growth in violence at inner-city schools, especially in USA,
- the problem of drug abuse and drug addiction in US schools,
- the tendency of more and more pupils to drop out of school,
- an increase in truancy,
- a teacher shortage in some subjects, a surplus in other subjects,
- a chronic shortage of money invested by the state in its schools, in laboratories, books, equipment etc.

Task 2

Mass Media: Radio and TV

Problems of TV today and in the future:

1. Twenty, or even as many as 40, programmes may be enough for most viewers: saturation point may have been reached.
2. Will competition between the TV stations lead to an improvement in the programmes of public-sector broadcasters like the BBC or does a larger number of channels inevitably lower the standards of all TV programmes?
3. More channels do not necessarily mean a wider spectrum for viewers: more variety may be offered by three state-run TV stations than by 30 private channels.
4. Trivialized unbalanced news coverage must be avoided.

5. Will there be enough programmes for minorities, enough educational and arts programmes etc.?

6. Will satellite and cable TV alter viewing patterns, so that people will spend more time watching TV?

7. In order to protect young viewers from violent or pornographic programmes a legal framework and electronic devices in the TV sets are essential: it is a matter of parental control to ensure that children do not have access to such movies on video cassettes.

Task 3

Genetic Engineering

1. A new breed: half sheep, half goat.
2. Embryo donation and preservation.
3. Genetic therapy may cure heart disease.
4. The cloning of human beings.
5. Is the future of the human species at risk?

Task 4

The Destruction of the Ozone Layer and the Greenhouse Effect

Possible consequences:

1. The rise in temperature may cause the polar ice caps to melt, which would lead to a rise in sea levels. One metre would be enough to flood many coastal regions.

2. Storms, droughts and heatwaves may cause destruction, famines etc.

3. The adverse effect on vegetation and crops may lead to widespread malnutrition and even starvation among animals and humans.

4. Drinking water may become scarce, reservoirs may dry up.

Task 5

Possible solutions to the problem:

1. Drastically phase out prohibit the production of aerosol sprays and develop alternative compounds to replace CFCs.
2. Enforce tough controls on emissions to identify culprits and fine them.
3. Burn less coal or oil in order to reduce CO₂ emissions.
4. Make heating, lighting, domestic appliances and industrial machinery more energy-efficient; use energy-saving technologies.
5. Use better energy-conservation equipment in buildings.
6. Employ the huge quantities of waste heat from generators for heating buildings.
7. Develop new sources of energy not derived from fossil fuels (wind, water, tidal, geothermal and solar energy, i.e. renewable energy resources).

Task 6

Drugs

Methods of combating drug abuse:

1. International co-operation: multilateral efforts are essential in the fight against drug abuse.
2. Eradicate local crops of opium poppies, coca and cannabis, confiscate the chemicals used in processing drugs, destroy the laboratories engaged in cocaine processing, locate and destroy the clandestine airstrips in the jungle or in the mountains.
3. Encourage the peasants to find replacement crops such as coffee or cocoa.

4. More determined efforts to get hold of the major drug distributors, the middlemen and the street-level dealers/ pushers.
5. More police and customs officers to track down the supplies and to reduce the smuggling of drugs into the consumer countries.
6. More undercover agents who can give the police valuable information about the major drug distributors.
7. Stricter laws against the peddling of drugs and harsher penalties for drug racketeers.
8. Provide more and better information for parents in order to teach them how to keep their children away from drugs (for example the organization of self-help groups).
9. More rehabilitation centres for drug addicts who need to undergo special treatment to overcome their withdrawal symptoms.
10. More research into the psychological and social reasons for drug abuse so that the roots of the problem can be tackled.

Task 7

The Theatre

General problems:

1. Productions are becoming more and more expensive.
2. Theatres both in big cities and in the provinces generally suffer from a chronic shortage of money, partly owing to a lack of public subsidies.
3. Theatre owners and producers are often more interested in profits than in the quality of the plays produced, which leads to a lowering of standards.
4. Sponsors prepared to back new talent must be sought

5. There is a need for more tolerant and open-minded attitudes to experimental techniques like those used in off-Broadway productions and new dramatic modes of presentation e.g. theatre-in-the-round.

Task 8

Films

General problems:

1. The film industry is confronted with the task of enticing the public back into the cinemas and of surviving in the face of tough competition from television and the video business, especially as more and more feature films are now being shown on TV.

2. It is often difficult to find producers willing to finance expensive productions.

3. Many producers are interested only in films with great box-office potential rather than ones of artistic value.

4. To guarantee diversity there is a need for financial support for independent film productions.

Task 9

Music

General problems:

1. Rock stars often become cult figures or idols, the objects of a personality cult.

2. Synthesizers, computerized music etc. are replacing live musicians on stage or in the recording studios.

3. Expensive videos must be produced (e.g. for the title-tracks of new CDs) to promote sales.

4. Small independent labels cannot compete with the media and entertainment giants in the battle for a share of the market.

5. Symphony or chamber orchestras, especially in the provinces, are often lacking in funds, a problem which could be solved by an increase in subsidies.

Task 10

Women in Society

Feminists argue:

1. After decades of ‘emancipation’ and ‘liberation’ only little has changed for the majority of women: there is still widespread, sometimes even overt, discrimination and prejudice against working women; equal pay for equal work is guaranteed by law, but is not the practice.

2. There is only slow progress in the struggle for equal job opportunities: large numbers of women are employed in low-grade work, particularly in the service sector and the textile industry; even well-qualified women have less chance than men of becoming bank managers or top executives.

3. Life is harder for many women than it used to be because many have to go out to work to supplement the family’s income as well as running the household: such a ‘double burden’ is a great strain on the women and on family life.

4. In cases of redundancy it is often the unskilled women with their part-time jobs who are sacked first.

5. Women often retire at an earlier age than men: women’s pensions are therefore lower.

Task 11

Racial Problems: Blacks in the USA

Problems still facing the blacks:

1. Although overt discrimination has fortunately largely disappeared in all spheres of life – politics, education, law,

housing, recreation, sports, religion etc. – hidden discrimination against blacks still exists. The brutal segregation of earlier decades has been replaced by more subtle forms of discrimination.

2. Race relations have improved only superficially and to a limited extent. Black and white colleagues who mingle amicably at work tend to lead separate social lives after working hours. Even liberal whites who express enthusiasm for integration in theory are not always keen to promote it in practice by mixing socially with blacks.

3. Despite the advances made in politics at a local level, blacks remain under-represented at the state and federal level, especially in Congress and the Administration.

4. The most urgent problem is undeniably that of the ‘underclass’. There is now great disparity in income and social standing between successful middle-class blacks and the growing underclass. Most members of the latter live in inner-city ghettos, hotbeds of drug trafficking and crime and the scene of gang warfare between rival black or Hispanic groups. Nearly half of these underclass blacks live below the poverty line and are chronically dependent on welfare, food stamps and Medicaid benefits.

5. The unemployment rate of blacks is well above average. About one third of black teenagers drop out of high school. More than half of all black families are headed by one parent only. The infant mortality rate among blacks is double that of whites. Remedies are urgently needed if the underclass is not to become alienated from the rest of American society, whose belief in the work ethic and the possibility of upward mobility remains intact.

Task 12

Religion

Contemporary trends in Christian Churches:

1. A general decline in church attendance and membership has become evident.

2. There is now a widening gap between extremely liberal tendencies among clerics and church members at one end of the scale and very conservative tendencies at the other end.

3. There has been a spread of fundamentalism in the US and the growth in the popularity of the US televangelists. These preachers manipulate television in order to express their puritanical views and to attack various aspects of the permissive society such as greater sexual freedom, women's liberation etc. Their fundamentalist belief in the liberal truth of the Bible has even led them to oppose the teaching of Darwin's theory of evolution.

4. The fear of failing to attract the young is one of the main concerns of Churches today

5. More and more people have come to regard religion as a private and personal matter concerning only the individual and God, which explains the growing reluctance to worship in churches.

Task 13

Crime and Punishment

Capital punishment / the death penalty:

Capital punishment has been abolished in most countries (it was abandoned in England in 1965). As a result of the rising crime rates, the 'prohanging' lobby is growing stronger. Some people would like to have capital punishment restored/reintroduced: they demand retaliation, retribution and vengeance.

Arguments put forward in favour of capital punishment:

1. It is an expression of society's moral outrage at particularly offensive crimes; in this way a criminal meets with his or her 'just deserts'.
2. It may serve as a deterrent to others.
3. It reduces the cost of keeping prisoners sentenced to life imprisonment in the already overcrowded prison cells.

Arguments put forward against capital punishment:

1. Crime rates have proved to be unaffected in countries in which capital punishment is in force, so it does not work as a deterrent.
2. A system of justice based on the principle of 'an eye for an eye' is inhumane and an offence against human dignity.
3. There is no absolute certainty that the convicted murderer actually committed the crime because no legal system is foolproof.
4. It may create martyrs who can be exploited by radical movements.

Task 14

Football hooliganism

A comprehensive package of measures to ensure that reasonable precautions are taken requires that the authorities

1. separate rival supporters in the stadium,
2. impose tougher crowd control; everyone at the grounds must be searched for potential weapons,
3. change the existing football stadiums into all-seater stadiums,
4. restrict the sale of alcohol within the stadium and in the vicinity of the grounds,

5. bar known troublemakers from entering the stadium,
6. introduce the distribution of compulsory membership / ID cards,
7. install closed-circuit TV (CCTV) in order to have fan groups under constant video surveillance and to make it easier to identify troublemakers,
8. impose harsher penalties or even maximum sentences on hooligans, including prison and detention centre terms,
9. 'fine' a club a number of penalty points or relegate it to a lower division.

Task 15

Possible reasons for hooliganism:

1. Unemployment: many unemployed young people with deprived backgrounds rid themselves of their emotional and physical frustration; they give vent to their aggression in the stadium.
2. Sometimes there are not enough policemen in attendance at the football grounds.
3. Right-wing National Front supporters eager to provoke riots are present in the stadiums.
4. A wrong interpretation of what it means to be a patriot (for example 'I'm proud of being England's worst thug').

Task 16

Computers

1. A computer-dominated world.
2. The high-tech revolution.
3. Hackers – the new techno-terrorists.
4. Is data protection possible?

Organisation

By encouraging students to move out of the university classroom and into the world of work, project work helps to bridge the gap between language study and language use. It is therefore a valuable means of extending the communicative skills acquired in the classroom. Unlike traditional language learning, where all tasks were designed by the teacher, project work places responsibility for learning on the students themselves.

Project work, in its various guises, has a number of characteristic features.

Project work:

- focuses on content learning rather than on specific language targets. Real-world subject matter and topics of professional interest to students can become central to projects
- is student-centred, though the teacher plays a major role in offering support and guidance throughout the process
- is cooperative rather than competitive. Students can work on their own, in pairs or small groups, or as a class to complete a project, sharing resources, ideas, and expertise along the way
- leads to the authentic integration of skills and processing of information from various sources, mirroring real life tasks which students will encounter in their future jobs

- culminates in an end product (e.g. an oral presentation, a poster session, a bulletin board display, a report, or a stage performance) that can be shared with others, giving the project a real purpose

- is potentially motivating, stimulating, empowering, and challenging. It usually results in building student confidence, self-esteem and autonomy, as well as improving students' language skills, content learning, and cognitive abilities.

The value of such work, however, lies not just in the final product but in the process of working itself. Thus, project work has both a process and product orientation, and provides students with opportunities to focus on fluency and accuracy at different stages of the project.

A full-scale project involves three main stages:

- Classroom planning. The content and scope of the project are discussed and specific language needs are predicted. Ways of gathering necessary material, projected interviews and visits are decided upon

- Carrying out the project. The students move into the world of work and perform the tasks which they have planned

- Reviewing and monitoring the work. This implies discussions and feedback sessions, group analysis of the work, and self-monitoring by the participants.

Project work, whether it is integrated into a skills based thematic unit or introduced as a special sequence of activities in a more traditional classroom, requires multiple stages of development to succeed.

Project work development

№	Stages of Project development	Procedures	Language skills developed	Mode of interaction	Teacher's Functions
1.	Stimulus: initial discussion of the idea	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Brainstorming - Forming teams - Working out and negotiating rules of group work - Defining characteristics and stages of project - Making students aware of project stages and evaluation criteria 	Listening: for detail Writing: note-taking Speaking: enquiring and discussing, arguing Possible reference to prior reading	Teacher – class, pairs, groups	Resource, consultant, facilitator
2.	Definition of the project objective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Brainstorming - Presenting and evaluating ideas - Distributing responsibilities within the team 	Speaking: discussion, negotiation, summarising Listening: for gist, for detail, for attitudes Writing: note-taking, writing minutes	Pairs, groups	Facilitator, co-planner, devil's advocate
3.	Creating general outline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mapping out project stages - Reporting to class - Discussing initial outline - Redesigning group's work plan 	Speaking: accounting for and sustaining views, providing relevant explanations and arguments, suggesting ideas, summarising Writing: redrafting outline	Individual, groups	Facilitator, monitor
4.	Practice of language skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Determining language needed for the initial stage of project - Functions: e.g. introductions, suggestions, asking for information 	All skills, particularly writing in form of note-taking	Individual, pairs, groups	Resource, consultant
5.	Doing basic research around topic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Collecting data - Processing and analysing data - Recording information gathered 	Reading: skimming, scanning; intensive and extensive reading Speaking: information seeking, enquiring Listening: global, for detail Writing: forms, note-taking, describing, classifying	Individual, pairs, groups	Resource, consultant

6.	Collating information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reading notes - Explaining visual materials - Making group reports - Discussing presentations - Giving feedback Reading	Reading: skimming, scanning Speaking: reporting, discussing, developing the point, responding to questions and comments Listening: for main ideas, inferring links between positions Writing: recording, note-making	Individual, groups	Facilitator, troubleshooter, observer, sound-board
7.	Organisation of materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shaping ideas and processed information into project form - Writing proposal - Reading for crossreference and verification - Discussing proposal document 	Writing: writing proposal document along the framework Speaking: discussing, answering counter-argument, expressing judgement Reading: understanding text organisation, extracting main ideas Listening: for main ideas	Individual, groups	Consultant, observer, facilitator, evaluator
8.	Doing project	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Generating final product - Compiling report along guidelines - Revising and editing report 	Speaking: discussing, interpreting data, supplying arguments, drawing conclusions, suggesting amendments Writing: report writing, redrafting Reading: proof-reading	Individual, groups	Supporter, consultant, monitor
9.	Project presentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Presenting project to class - Discussing process and results 	Speaking: making presentation, discussing Listening: for gist, for detail, for text organisation	Individual, groups	Facilitator, observer, evaluator
10.	Project assessment and evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Commenting on process - Assessing product - Evaluating project as a whole - Providing effective feedback - Peer evaluation 	Listening: for detail Speaking: commenting, evaluating Writing: filling in questionnaires/evaluation forms	Individual, class	Evaluator, feedback provider, adviser to external evaluator

The following project types can be recommended for tertiary ESP courses:

- Text projects – which encourage students to use authentic English language texts on specialism related topics to do research, to carry out a survey, to create a product advertisement or a technical poster, etc.

- Correspondence projects – which involve letters, e-mail messages, and faxes as exchanges between students and potential employers, or between student groups from different universities. The efficiency of this project type can be further enhanced when the project is web-based, which would offer the following tools: e-mailing, weblogging (or ‘blogging’ – a tool that enables you to publish information and make it available to your colleagues or network instantly), on-line discussion lists and chat rooms.

- Encounter projects – which enable students to make contacts with the native speakers who can share their experience in the professional field (e.g. intercultural misunderstandings in the workplace, professional codes of behaviour in English-speaking countries, etc.).

Students can work on each of the following projects individually or in groups. It will probably work best in groups of three or four.

- Divide the class into groups.

- Students choose their topic. Students should only choose one of the possible ideas given. Encourage them to write in detail about a small area, rather than superficially about a wide area.

- Discuss with students the format that is given of the project.

- Emphasize that their project must follow this format.

- Students research and write their projects.
- Students display their projects and / or present them orally.
- Discuss the projects.

(From "English for Specific Purposes (ESP). National Curriculum for Universities" by G. Bakaieva)

We suggest such projects as:

Project 1

Choose a topic connected with the theme of transport. Find out more about it and write about it. Here are some possible ideas:

- a particular kind of vehicle or craft e.g. helicopters, oil tankers, sports cars, bicycles;
- a kind of construction that is necessary for transport e.g. roads, bridges, stations, canals;
- an invention that has made certain forms of transport possible, e.g. the rocket, sails, pneumatic tyres.

In your project you should:

- give a short history of the topic;
- give examples of where and how it is used;
- describe its advantages and disadvantages;
- predict how it is likely to develop in the future.

Illustrate your project with pictures, maps and diagrams.

Project 2

Make a project about a form of sport or other exercise that you do or would like to do. You should:

- Describe the activity. Say how you do it.
- Explain any rules or safety instructions.
- Describe the equipment and / or clothes that you need.

-Give some information about teams or individuals who do the activity.

Illustrate your project with photographs, pictures and drawings.

Project 3

Make a project about the languages used in your country.

Here are some areas that you can research and write about.

What is the main language in your country?

What other languages are spoken?

What languages are used on television, in films and newspapers and magazines?

What languages are taught in schools?

Find out about a minority language that is used your country.

What language(s) do you speak? Do you use different languages in different contexts?

In which other countries is your language used? Are there any differences between the language in your country and the languages in other countries?

Where does your language come from?

How does your language use differ from your parents' or grandparents' use?

Project 4

Make a project about a region of your country. It can be your own region or a different one.

Your project should include some information about:

- things that are typical of the region,

- things that are different between the region and the rest of the country,
- important events in the region's history,
- national heroes and heroines.

Illustrate your project with maps and pictures.

Project 5

You are going to make a new set of laws for your country. Here are some questions to consider.

- a) How would you change the laws affecting young people?
- b) What new laws would you introduce?
- c) What kind of law enforcement system would you have?
- d) Look at all the different kinds of crime mentioned in this project. What punishments would you have for each one?

Make your own set of laws.

Project 6

Make a project about the production and use of electricity in your environment. Here are some areas that you could investigate and write about.

In what ways do you and your family use electricity?

What could you do to save energy?

Is there a power station near where you live? Find out more about it.

-What kind of power station is it? How does it work?

-What effects does it have on the local economy and the local environment?

What alternative ways of producing electricity are there?

Find out more about one of them.

- How does it work?
- What are its advantages and disadvantages?

Project 7

Make a project about a mystery – something that is difficult to explain in scientific terms. Here are some possible topics.

1. A famous mystery, for example the Loch Ness monster, the Bermuda Triangle, UFOs.

- What do people say they have seen?
- Tell the story of one incident.
- What possible explanations are there?

2. Superstitions.

- What common superstitions are there? Do not forget things like lucky charms and mascots.

- Why are people superstitious?
- What are the origins of superstitions?

2. Telling the future.

-What other ways are there of trying to predict the future?
Describe some different ways.

- What is the basis to these methods?
- Do you believe these methods can work?

Project 8

Make a project about celebrations and festivals in your country. Your project should give the following information:

When are the festivals?

What kind of festivals are they – religious, national, etc.?

What are the origins of the festivals?

How are they celebrated?

Illustrate your project with pictures.

UNIT 2

Extracurricula Work for Students Majoring in History



Text 1

Gregorian Calendar

The Gregorian calendar is the calendar in current use in the Western world, both as the civil and Christian ecclesiastical calendar. Gregorian calendar, also called New Style Calendar, solar dating system now in general use. It was proclaimed in 1582 by Pope Gregory XIII as a reform of the Julian calendar.

Gregorian calendar Relief depicting the introduction of the Gregorian calendar on the tomb of Pope Gregory XIII, in Saint Peter's Basilica, Rome.

By the Julian reckoning, the solar year comprised 365 days; the intercalation of a “leap day” every four years was intended to maintain correspondence between the calendar and the seasons. A slight inaccuracy in the measurement (the solar year comprising more precisely 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 45.25 seconds) caused the calendar dates of the seasons to regress almost one day per century.

Although this regression had amounted to 14 days by Pope Gregory's time, he based his reform on restoration of the vernal equinox, then falling on March 11, to the date (March 21) it had in AD 325, the time of the Council of Nicaea, and not on the date of the equinox at the time of the birth of Christ, when it



fell on March 25. The change was effected by advancing the calendar 10 days after Oct. 4, 1582, the day following being reckoned as October 15.

The Gregorian calendar differs from the Julian only in that no century year is a leap year unless it is exactly divisible by 400 (e.g., 1600, 2000). A further proposed refinement, the designation of years evenly divisible by 4,000 as common (not leap) years, will keep the Gregorian calendar accurate to within one day in 20,000 years.

Within a year the change had been adopted by the Italian states, Portugal, Spain, and the German Catholic states. Gradually, other nations adopted the Gregorian calendar: the Protestant German states in 1699; England and its colonies in 1752; Sweden in 1753; Japan in 1873; China in 1912; the Soviet Union in 1918; and Greece in 1923. Islamic countries tend to retain calendars based on Islam.

Comprehension Check

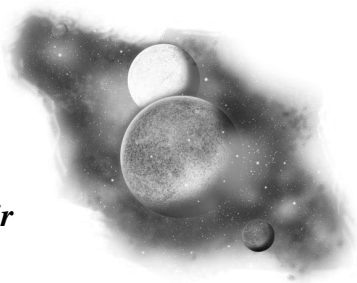
I. Check your understanding.

1. What is New Style Calendar?
2. What is the difference between the Gregorian and the Julian calendar?
3. Name states adopted the Gregorian calendar within a year.
4. What did a slight inaccuracy in the measurement cause?
5. Who was Pope Gregory XIII?



II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. Gregorian calendar was proclaimed in 1782 by Pope Gregory XIII as a reform of the Julian calendar.
2. The intercalation of a “leap day” every four years was intended to maintain correspondence between the calendar and the seasons.
3. By the Julian reckoning, the solar year comprised 385 days.
4. The Gregorian calendar differs from the Julian only in that no century year is a leap year unless it is exactly divisible by 400.
5. Islamic countries tend to retain calendars based on Islam.



III. Match the words and their definitions.

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| 1. Calendar | a) a large vault, typically an underground one, for burying the dead. |
| 2. Solar system | b) spring time, when day and night are of equal length (20 March) |
| 3. Tomb | c) the action of choosing a place for a special purpose or giving it a special status. |
| 4. Ecclesiastical calendar | d) a system by which the beginning, length, and subdivisions of the year are fixed. |
| 5. Leap year | e) a year, occurring once every four years, which has 366 days including 29 February as an intercalary day. |
| 6. Reckoning | f) the collection of eight planets and their moons in orbit round the sun, together with smaller bodies in the form of asteroids, meteoroids, and comets. |
| 7. Vernal equinox | g) the action or process of calculating or estimating something. |
| 8. Designation | h) relating to the Christian Church or its clergy. |



Text 2

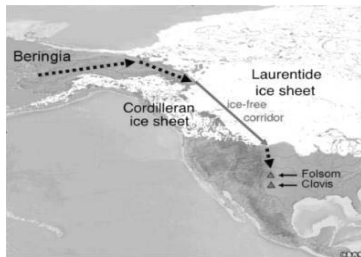
Who Discovered America

Americans get a day off work on October 10 to celebrate Columbus Day. It's an annual holiday that commemorates the day on October 12, 1492, when the Italian explorer Christopher Columbus officially set foot in the Americas, and claimed the land for Spain. It has been a national holiday in the United States since 1937.

It is commonly said that “Columbus discovered America”. It would be more accurate, perhaps, to say that he introduced the Americas to Western Europe during his four voyages to the region between 1492 and 1502. It's also safe to say that he paved the way for the massive influx of western Europeans that would ultimately form several new nations including the United States, Canada and Mexico.

But to say he “discovered” America is a bit of a misnomer because there were plenty of people already here when he arrived.

So who were the people who really deserve to be called the first Americans? VOA (Voice of America) asked Michael Bawaya, the editor of the magazine *American Archaeology*. He told VOA that they came here from Asia probably “no later than about 15,000 years ago”. They walked across the Bering land bridge that back in the day connected what is now the U.S. state of Alaska and Siberia. Fifteen-thousand years ago, ocean levels were much lower and the land between the continents was hundreds of kilometers wide.



The area would have looked much like the land on Alaska’s Seward Peninsula does today: treeless, arid tundra. But despite its relative inhospitality, life abounded there.

And archaeologists say that humans followed, in a never-ending hunt for food, water and shelter. Once here, humans dispersed all across North and eventually Central and South America.

Up until the 1970s, these first Americans had a name: the peoples. They get their name from an ancient settlement discovered near Clovis, New Mexico, dated to over 11,000 years ago. And DNA suggests they are the direct ancestors of nearly 80 percent of all indigenous people in the Americas.

Today, it’s widely believed that before the Clovis people, there were others, and as Bawaya says, “they haven’t really been identified.” But there are remnants of them in places as far-flung

as the U.S. states of Texas and Virginia, and as far south as Peru and Chile. We call them, for lack of a better name, the Pre-Clovis people.

And to make things more complicated, recent discoveries are threatening to push back the arrival of humans in North America even further back in time. Perhaps as far back as 20,000 years or more. But the science on this is far from settled.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. What do you know about Columbus Day?
2. Who discovered America?
3. Who were the people who really deserve to be called the first Americans?
- 4 Where and how did first Americans live?
5. Tell about different names of first Americans.

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. Independence Day is an annual holiday that commemorates the day on October 12, 1492.

2. American explorer Michael Bawaya officially set foot in the Americas, and claimed the land for Spain on October 12, 1492.

3. Christopher Columbus paved the way for the massive influx of western Europeans that would ultimately form several new nations including the United Kingdom, Canada and France.

4. Archaeologists say that humans followed, in a never-ending hunt for food, water and shelter.

5. First Americans (the peoples) get their name from an ancient settlement discovered near Clovis, New Mexico, dated to over 11,000 years ago. □ □

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Discover a) a person related to you who lived a long time ago.
2. Indigenous b) a place giving temporary protection from bad weather or danger.
3. Remnants c) to have earned something or be given something because of your actions or qualities.
4. Ancestor d) be the first to find or observe (a place, substance, or scientific phenomenon).
5. Far-flung e) a small piece or amount of something that is left from a larger original piece or amount.
6. Shelter f) originating or occurring naturally in a particular place; native.
7. Arid g) used to refer to places that are a great distance away, or something that is spread over a very large area.
8. Deserve h) (of land or a climate) having little or no rain; too dry or barren to support vegetation.



Text 3

The History of the Magna Carta

The Magna Carta is seen as one of the most influential legal documents in British history. Indeed Lord Denning (1899 -1999) a distinguished British Judge called the document “the greatest constitutional document of all time – the foundation of the freedom of the individual against the arbitrary authority of the despot”. However, its original conception was not nearly as successful.

The Magna Carta, also know as Magna Carta Libertatum (the Great Charter of Freedoms), was so called because the original version was drafted in Latin. It was introduced by some of the most notable barons of the thirteenth century in an act of rebellion against their King, King John I (24 December 1199 – 19 October 1216).

Increased taxes, the Kings' excommunication by Pope Innocent III in 1209 and his unsuccessful and costly attempts to regain his empire in Northern France had made John hugely unpopular with his subjects. Whilst John was able to repair his relationship with the Pope in 1213, his failed attempt to defeat Phillip II of France in 1214 and his unpopular fiscal strategies led to a baron's rebellion in 1215.

Whilst an uprising of this type was not unusual, unlike previous rebellions the barons did not have a clear successor in mind to claim the throne. Following the mysterious disappearance of Prince Arthur, Duke of Brittany, John's nephew and son of his late brother Geoffrey (widely believed to have been murdered by John in an attempt to keep the throne), the only alternative was Prince Louis of France. However, Louis' nationality (France and England had been warring for thirty years at this point) and his weak link to the throne as husband to John's niece made him less than ideal.

As a result, the barons focused their attack on John's oppressive rule, arguing that he was not adhering to the Charter of Liberties. This charter was a written proclamation issued by John's ancestor Henry I when he took the throne in 1100, which sought to bind the King to certain laws regarding the treatment of church officials and nobles and was in many ways a precursor to the Magna Carta.

Negotiations took place throughout the first six months of 1215 but it was not until the barons entered the King's London Court by force on 10 June, supported by Prince Louis and the Scottish King Alexander II, that the King was persuaded to affix his great seal to the 'Articles of the Barons', which outlined their grievances and stated their rights and privileges.

This significant moment, the first time a ruling King had been forcibly persuaded to renounce a great deal of his authority, took place at Runnymede, a meadow on the banks of the River Thames near Windsor on 15 June. For their part, the barons renewed their oaths of allegiance to the King on 19 June 1215. The formal document which was drafted by the Royal Chancery as a record of this agreement on 15 July was to become known retrospectively as the first version of the Magna Carta.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. Name one of the most influential legal documents in British history.

2. Who called the document “the greatest constitutional document of all time – the foundation of the freedom of the individual against the arbitrary authority of the despot”?

3. Why did notable barons of the thirteenth century create an act of rebellion against their King?

4. Did barons have a clear successor in mind to claim the throne?

5. Who was not adhering to the Charter of Liberties?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. The Magna Carta was so called because the original version was drafted in Hungarian.

2. The Magna Carta was introduced by some of the most notable barons of the nineteenth century in an act of rebellion against their King, King John I.

3. Louis' nationality and his weak link to the throne as husband to John's niece made him less than ideal.

4. The Charter of Liberties was in many ways a precursor to the Magna Carta.

5. The formal document which was drafted by the Royal Chancery as a record of this agreement on 15 June was to become known retrospectively as the last version of the Magna Carta.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Rebellion a) the action of officially excluding someone from participation in the sacraments and services of the Christian Church.
2. Excommunication b) a person or thing that comes before another of the same kind; a forerunner.
3. Successor c) a real or imagined cause for complaint, especially unfair treatment.
4. Uprising d) the process of discussing something with someone in order to reach an agreement with them, or the discussions themselves.
5. Precursor e) an act of opposition, sometimes using violence, by many people in one area of a country against those who are in power.

6. Negotiation f) violent action organized by a group of people who are trying to change the political system in their country.
7. Grievance g) loyalty and support for a ruler, country, group, or belief.
8. Allegiance h) someone or something that comes after another person or thing.



Text 4

Naked Cooks, Excrement, Rats: The Secretly Disgusting History of Royal Palaces

In July of 1535, King Henry VIII and his court of over 700 people embarked on an epic official tour. Over the next four months the massive entourage would visit around 30 different royal palaces, aristocratic residences and religious institutions. While these stops were important PR events for the king, designed to spark loyalty in his subjects, royal households had another reason entirely for their constant movement.

They weren't just exercising their tremendous wealth: they actually needed to escape the disgusting messes large royal parties produced. Palaces – like Henry's Hampton Court – had to be constantly evacuated so they could be cleaned of the accumulated mounds of human waste. Livestock and farmland also needed time to recover, after supplying food for so many people. Once the tour was over, Henry and a swelling court of

over 1,000 would keep moving for the rest of the year, traveling frequently between the King's 60 residences in a vain attempt to live in hygienic surroundings.

Within days of a royal party settling in one palace or another, a stink would set in from poorly discarded food, animal waste, vermin from or attracted to unwashed bodies, and human waste (which accrued in underground chambers until it could be removed.) The hallways would become so caked with grime and soot from constant fires that they were fairly black. The very crush of court members was so dense that it made a thorough house cleaning impossible – and futile. Though cleanliness standards were subpar throughout the Medieval, Renaissance and Regency eras, royal courts were typically dirtier than the average small cabin or home.

Some of the most storied reigns in history, like that of Catherine the Great, took place against a backdrop of horrifying smells, overcrowded quarters, overflowing chamber pots and lice-filled furniture. While paintings of Louis XIV's opulent court at Versailles show royals clad in gorgeously embroidered garments, viewers today are missing one of the main effects of their finery: the odor of hundreds of garments that have never been washed, all in one unventilated room. And Charles II of England let his flea-bitten spaniels lie in his bed chamber, where they rendered the room "very offensive and indeed made the whole Court nasty and stinking," according to a 17th century writer.

But without a doubt, the most pressing health concern was caused by the dearth of waste disposal options in an era before reliable plumbing. "Feces and urine were everywhere," Eleanor Herman, author of *The Royal Art of Poison*, says of royal palaces. "Some courtiers didn't bother to look for a chamber pot

but just dropped their britches and did their business – all of their business – in the staircase, the hallway, or the fireplace.”

A 1675 report offered this assessment of the Louvre Palace in Paris: “On the grand staircases” and “behind the doors and almost everywhere one sees there a mass of excrement, one smells a thousand unbearable stenchs caused by calls of nature which everyone goes to do there every day.”

According to historian Alison Weir, author of *Henry VIII: The King and his Court*, the fastidious Henry VIII “waged a constant battle against the dirt, dust, and smells that were unavoidable when so many people lived in one establishment,” which was fairly unusual for the time. The king slept on a bed surrounded by furs to keep small creatures and vermin away, and visitors were warned not to “wipe or rub their hands upon none arras [tapestries] of the King’s whereby they might be hurted.”

Many of the rules laid down by the King indicate that his battle against the advancing grime was a losing one. To keep servants and courtiers from urinating on the garden walls, Henry had large red X’s painted in problem spots. But instead of deterring men from relieving themselves, it just gave them something to aim for. Calls for people not to dump dirty dishes in the hallways – or on the King’s bed – seemed to fall on deaf ears.

Amazingly, Henry was even forced to decree that cooks in the royal kitchen were forbidden to work “naked, or in garments of such vileness as they do now, nor lie in the nights and days in the kitchen or ground by the fireside.” To combat the problem, clerks of the kitchen were instructed to purchase “honest and wholesome garments” for the staff.

While the King had a relatively sophisticated lavatory system for himself, other waste measures intended as hygienic seem disgusting today: servants were encouraged to pee in vats so that their urine could be used for cleaning. As actual cleanliness was often unachievable, the royal court resorted to masking the offending odors. Sweet-smelling plants covered palace floors, and the fortunate pressed sachets of scent to their noses.

Once Henry and his court moved on to the next royal residence, the scrubbing and airing out of the palace began. The waste from the King's non-flushing lavatories was held in underground chambers when the court was in residence. But after the court left, the King's Gong Scourers, tasked with cleaning the sewers in his palaces near London, went to work.

"After the court had been here for four weeks, the brick chambers would fill head-high," Simon Thurley, curator of Historic Royal Palaces, told *The Independent*. "It was the gong scourers who had to clean them when the court had left."

Of course, filthiness in over-crowded royal establishments was not just a problem at the English court. When the future Catherine the Great arrived in Russia from her family's relatively clean German court, she was shocked by what she found. "It's not rare to see coming from an immense courtyard full of mire and filth that belongs to a hovel of rotten wood," she wrote, "a lady covered in jewels and superbly dressed, in a magnificent carriage, pulled by six old nags, and with badly combed valets."

The Western European belief that baths were unhealthy did not help matters, either. Although neat freak Henry VIII bathed often and changed his undershirts daily, he was a royal rarity. "Louis XIV took two baths in his life, as did Queen Isabella of

Castile,” Herman says. “Marie-Antoinette bathed once a month.” The 17th century British King James I was said to never bathe, causing the rooms he frequented to be filled with lice.

It was the Sun King himself, Louis XIV, whose choice to no longer travel from court to court would lead to a particularly putrid living situation. In 1682, in an effort to seal his authority and subjugate his nobles, Louis XIV moved his court permanently to the gilded mega-palace of Versailles. At times over 10,000 royals, aristocrats, government officials, servants and military officers lived in Versailles and its surrounding lodgings.

Despite its reputation for magnificence, life at Versailles, for both royals and servants, was no cleaner than the slum-like conditions in many European cities at the time. Women pulled up their skirts up to pee where they stood, while some men urinated off the balustrade in the middle of the royal chapel. According to historian Tony Spawforth, author of *Versailles: A Biography of a Palace*, Marie-Antoinette was once hit by human waste being thrown out the window as she walked through an interior courtyard.

The heavily trafficked latrines often leaked into the bedrooms below them, while blockages and corrosion in the palace’s iron and lead pipes were known to occasionally “poison everything” in Marie-Antoinette’s kitchen. “Not even the rooms of the royal children were safe,” writes Spawforth. An occasional court exodus could have reduced the wear and tear on Versailles, perhaps leading to fewer unpleasant structural failures.

This unsanitary way of living no doubt led to countless deaths throughout royal European households. It was not until

the 19th century that standards of cleanliness and technological developments improved life for many people, including members of royal courts. Today, many European royals still move from residence to residence – but for pleasure, not to try and outrun squalor.

(By Hadley Meares)

Comprehension Check

I. Say if they are True, False or Unknown. Then, correct the sentences by showing evidence from the text.

Statement	True	False	Unknown
Charles II of England let his flea-bitten spaniels lie in his bed chamber			
The fastidious Henry VIII did not pay attention to the hygienic situation in his palace			
Catherine The Great arrived in Russia from the German court was astonished by the conditions in the courtyard			
Henry VIII bathed and changed his undershirts too rarely			
Marie-Antoinette bathed once a month			
Louis XIV took three baths in his life			
Versailles was the cleanest courtyard of the 17 th century			
King James VI of Scotland kept the same hat on 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, until it basically fell apart.			

II. Answer the questions to the text:

1. How did Henry VIII fight against the mess in his palace?
2. What do you know about the hygienic situation on the kitchen of Henry VIII?
3. How was the Louvre described in the report in 1675?
4. How often did the royals take bath in the 16th century?
5. What do you know about the state of hygiene in the Versailles?
6. Dwell upon the hygiene in the 16th and 17th centuries in your own country.



Text 5

9 Ancient Sumerian Inventions that Changed the World

The ancient Sumerians, who flourished thousands of years ago between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in what today is southern Iraq, built a civilization that in some ways was the ancient equivalent of Silicon Valley. As the late historian Samuel Noah Kramer wrote, “The people of Sumer had an unusual flair for technological invention.”

In what the Greeks later called Mesopotamia, Sumerians invented new technologies and perfected the large-scale use of existing ones. In the process, they transformed how humans cultivated food, built dwellings, communicated and kept track of information and time.

The Sumerians’ creativity was driven to an extent by their land’s lack of natural resources, according to Philip Jones, associate curator and keeper of the Babylonian section at the Penn Museum in Philadelphia. “They had few trees, almost no

stone or metal,” he explains. That forced them to make ingenious use of materials such as clay – the plastic of the ancient world. They used it to make everything from bricks to pottery to tablets for writing.

But the Sumerians’ real genius may have been organizational. They had the ability to take inventions that had been developed elsewhere and apply them on a much bigger scale. This way they could mass-produce goods such as textiles and pottery that they could then trade with other people.

As Kramer writes, there was something in the Sumerian identity that drove them to dream big and think ingeniously. “Spiritually and psychologically, they laid great stress on ambition and success, preeminence and prestige, honor and recognition,” he explains.

The Sumerians’ innovations gradually spread and led to the development of the modern technologically advanced world that we live in today. Here are some of the areas where the Sumerians left their mark.

Pottery. Other ancient people made pottery by hand, but the Sumerians were the first to develop the turning wheel, a device which allowed them to mass-produce it, according to Reed Goodman, a doctoral candidate in the art and archaeology of the Mediterranean at the University of Pennsylvania. That enabled them to churn out large numbers of items such as containers for workers’ rations, sort of the ancient forerunner of Tupperware.

Writing. Jones says that it’s likely, though not 100 percent certain, that the Sumerians were the first to develop a writing system. Either way, it’s clear that they were using written communication by 2800 B.C. But they didn’t set out to write great literature or record their history, but rather to keep track of the goods that they were making and selling. “Their very first

texts are just numbers and commodities,” Jones explains. They did that with a system of pictographs, which essentially were drawings of various objects. Eventually, though, they began to combine pictographs to express ideas and actions. The pictographs evolved into symbols that stood for words and sounds.

Scribes used sharpened reeds to scratch the symbols into wet clay, which dried to form tablets. The system of writing became known as cuneiform, and as Kramer noted, it was borrowed by subsequent civilizations and used across the Middle East for 2,000 years.

Hydraulic Engineering. The Sumerians figured out how to collect and channel the overflow of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers – and the rich silt that it contained – and then use it to water and fertilize their farm fields. They designed complex systems of canals, with dams constructed of reeds, palm trunks and mud whose gates could be opened or closed to regulate the flow of water.

The Chariot. The Sumerians didn’t invent wheeled vehicles, but they probably developed the first two-wheeled chariot, in which a driver drove a team of animals, writes Richard W. Bulliet in *The Wheel: Inventions and Reinventions*. Goodman says that there’s evidence the Sumerians had such carts for transportation in the 3000s B.C., but they were probably used for ceremonies or by the military, rather than as a means to get around the countryside, where the rough terrain would have made wheeled travel difficult.

The Plow. According to Kramer, the Sumerians invented the plow, a vital technology in farming. They even produced a manual that gave farmers detailed instructions on how to use various types of plows. And they specified the prayer that

should be recited to pay homage to Ninkilim, the goddess of field rodents, in order to protect the grain from being eaten.

Textile Mills. While other cultures in the Middle East gathered wool and used it to weave fabric for clothing, the Sumerians were the first to do it on an industrial scale.

“The Sumerians’ innovation was to turn their temples into huge factories,” Goodman explains. He notes that the Sumerians were the first to cross kin lines and form larger working organizations for making textiles – the predecessors of modern manufacturing companies.

Mass-Produced Bricks. To make up for a shortage of stones and timber for building houses and temples, the Sumerians created molds for making bricks out of clay, according to Kramer. While they weren’t the first to use clay as a building material, “the innovation is the ability to produce bricks in large amounts, and put them together on a large scale,” Jones explains. Their buildings might not have been as durable as stone ones, but they were able to build more of them, and create larger cities.

Metallurgy. The Sumerians were some of the earliest people to use copper to make useful items, ranging from spearheads to chisels and razors, according to the Copper Development Association. They also made art with copper, including dramatic panels depicting fantastical animals such as an eagle with a lion’s head. According to Kramer, Sumerian metallurgists used furnaces heated by reeds and controlled the temperature with a bellows that could be worked with their hands or feet.

Mathematics. Primitive people counted using simple methods, such as putting notches on bones, but it was the Sumerians who developed a formal numbering system based on

units of 60, according to Robert E. and Carolyn Krebs' book, *Groundbreaking Scientific Experiments, Inventions, and Discoveries of the Ancient World*. At first, they used reeds to keep track of the units, but eventually, with the development of cuneiform, they used vertical marks on the clay tablets. Their system helped lay the groundwork for the mathematical calculations of civilizations that followed.

(By Patrick J. Kiger)

Comprehension Check

I. Answer the following questions based on the text:

1. What do you know about the ancient Sumerians?
2. Why did the Sumerians begin to invent different things? What types of materials did they use?
3. What type of vehicle connected with pottery did they invent? How did it change their life?
4. What type of written artifacts can we find in the given culture?
5. How and on what did they write?
6. What for did the Sumerians use the chariot?
7. Dwell upon the innovations of the given civilization concerning agriculture and influence of them on farming.
8. How did the Sumerians construct their houses?
9. What type of metal was used by the Sumerians and what did they produce with the help of it?
10. What kind of mathematical invention is usually associated with the Sumerians? How did it help to the next generations?

II. Choose the right item:

1. The ancient Sumerians, who flourished thousands of years ago ...

- a) in Amazonia
- b) along the Nile
- c) between the Tigris and Euphrates

2. The ancient Sumerians for their inventions could use ...

- a) All types of minerals
- b) only clay and a few trees
- c) stone and metal

3. The Sumerians were ...

- a) not the first to develop the writing system
- b) presented with the writing system from their ancestors
- c) probably the first to develop the writing system

4. They scratched their symbols on ...

- a) in caves
- b) on papyrus
- c) on cloth
- d) on clay tablets

5. The first written texts of the given culture were ...

- a) the poems
- b) philosophical thoughts of scientists of that time
- c) just numbers and pictures

6. Did the ancient Sumerians farm?

a) Yes, because they could construct systems of channels to regulate the flow of water

b) It was impossible to grow crops because they lived in the desert

c) They grew crops but they were constantly destroyed by floods

7. In order to produce clothes they used ...

a) skin of animals

b) wool

c) fiber

8. The Sumerians used ... to build their homes.

a) stones

b) bricks

c) wood planks

9. The Sumerians were the great mathematicians because they invented ...

a) the first numbers

b) the geometrical figures

c) cuneiform



Text 6

6 things you (probably) didn't know about Alexander the Great

Alexander III of Macedon (356–323 BC), better known as Alexander the Great, created one of the largest empires of the ancient world in little over a decade. But how much do you know about the military commander?

Alexander the Great's name still echoes in time. Both deified and vilified, his legend exists in nearly every language on earth and in the four major religions. We know that he was born in Pella, the ancient capital of Macedonia, in 356 BC and succeeded his father, Philip II, to the throne at the age of 20, following his father's assassination.

His strength and genius as a military commander is legendary: just 10 years after his succession, he'd created one of the largest empires of the ancient world, reaching across three continents and covering around two million square miles, from Greece to India. He was undefeated in battle and is widely

considered one of history's most successful military commanders. Alexander the Great died just before his 33rd birthday in June 323 BC from unknown causes. But did you know...

Alexander played polo. Legend has it that when Alexander the Great was about to invade Persia in 334 BC, the Persian King Darius III sent him a polo mallet and ball. It's thought that this gesture was either inviting the Macedonian to a game, or he was suggesting that Alexander should "stick to games and avoid war". Whatever the intention, Alexander is said to have replied: "I am the stick and the ball is the Earth" – before going on to conquer Persia.

Polo, one of the oldest sports in the world, likely originated somewhere in Central Asia. Mounted nomads played a version of polo that was part sport, part training for war, with as many as 100 men on a side. If its origins are obscure, there is ample evidence of the game's regal place in the history of Asia: the game followed the nomads' migration to Persia sometime between 600 BC and 100 AD and the Persians adopted polo as their national sport, where it was played by nobles and soldiers alike. Some stories say Alexander the Great spent time with the Persian royal family when he was young, accompanying his father on diplomatic missions. Alexander most likely saw polo games on his many forays into Persia, and perhaps even played the "sport of kings".

He may have gone underwater in a glass diving bell. Almost immediately after his death in 323 BC, legends began to spread about Alexander the Great's exploits and life which, over the centuries, became increasingly fantastic as well as allegorical. Collectively, this tradition is called the Alexander Romance and the stories feature such episodes as Alexander

ascending through the air to paradise; journeying to the bottom of the sea in a glass bubble; and voyaging through the “Land of Darkness” in search of the “Fountain of Youth”.

Writing attributed to the Greek philosopher Aristotle references a diving bell, describing a cauldron forced straight down into water, thus keeping the air within it. In fact, it’s possible that Alexander the Great saw, or was perhaps even in, a glass diving bell. There are stories about him visiting the bottom of the ocean in a glass ball during his famous siege of Tyre (Lebanon), where it is said Alexander used divers to remove underwater obstacles from the harbour, and that the divers used crude glass diving bells. These may very well be just legends, but it is conceivable that Alexander, who was curious to learn about everything, had a go in a glass diving bell himself.

We almost certainly know what he looked like. The Azara herm is a Roman copy of a bust of Alexander the Great that was almost certainly made by the Greek sculptor Lysippus. According to the Greek writer Plutarch, Alexander made Lysippus his ‘official’ portrait artist during his reign. Thanks to its original inscription, this figure can be definitely identified as Alexander the Great, son of Philip II of Macedon.

Since the Azara herm is a Roman copy made centuries after Alexander’s death, it is likely not as precise as the original. The bust was unearthed in 1779 during an excavation at Tivoli, Italy, organised by Joseph Nicolas Azara (1730–1804), the Spanish ambassador to the Holy See (and later, to France). Azara presented the sculpture to Napoleon Bonaparte as a diplomatic gift. Today it resides in the Louvre museum in Paris. For a time, this was the only known portrait of Alexander the Great, and it is generally regarded as the surviving portrait that looks the most like him.

Much of Plutarch's famous writings about Alexander the Great can be considered fiction. The Greek writer Plutarch wrote Parallel Lives, his series of biographies of famous Greeks and Romans, in pairs: his famous biography of Alexander is paired with Julius Caesar. However, Plutarch's reliability as a biographer is questionable. He lived 400 years after Alexander the Great and contemporary writings were scarce. Plutarch was also Greek and the Greeks saw Alexander as an "upstart barbarian": firstly, because of historic snobbery (anyone non-Greek was considered a "barbarian"); and secondly, because the Greeks still resented the Macedonians who, under Alexander's father, had conquered Greece through battles and diplomacy.

Plutarch begins his biography by saying he's not writing "history", but rather "a life story", because, he goes on to explain, it's better to get to know a person from his character and his jokes than from endless battles fought and won. He pretends to glorify Alexander beyond reason, writing: "On his father's side, he was descended from Hercules". However, since Alexander himself had claimed the title of "son of Zeus", Plutarch was definitely trying to take him down a peg. Nevertheless, Plutarch's biography does include some fascinating tidbits of information, such as his claim that the battle of Gaugamela (the decisive battle Alexander the Great fought against Persia in 331 BC) was fought during an eclipse. He also describes how Alexander the Great spent the night before the battle in his tent with his diviner, Aristander, performing certain mysterious ceremonies and sacrificing to the god Fear.

Alexander's favourite military tactic was the phalanx. The phalanx – a rectangular mass military formation made up of closely ranked troops – was a formidable fighting machine. The

spears used by soldiers in a phalanx were long – sometimes as long as five metres – and made of sharpened wood or metal-tipped wood. The tactic was perfected by Alexander’s father, Philip, who first learned of it after observing Greek armies. According to the Greek historian Arrian’s *Anabasis* written in the second century AD: “Alexander drew up his army in such a way that the depth of the phalanx was 120 men; and [...] he ordered them to preserve silence, in order to receive the word of command quickly.

Interestingly, Macedonian author Polyaeus (in *Stratagemata*, also in the second century AD) says that Alexander spitefully made his men who had not fought bravely enough in battle wear the so-called *hemithorakion* – a half armour system that only covered the front part of the body. This punitive experiment made sure that the soldiers wouldn’t turn their backs on the enemy.

However, in reality the soldiers in a phalanx would actually not require much armour – coordinated, fast movement was what made the phalanx so effective. Polyaeus describes the Macedonian infantrymen of the phalanx as being armed with helmets (*kranos*); light shields (*pelte*); greaves (*knemides*) and a long pike (*sarissa*) – notice that armour is conspicuously missing from this list.

But while Alexander the Great led one of the most successful armies of all time, surprisingly little is understood about the main type of body armour that both he and many of his men wore – the *linothorax* – as there are no surviving examples. The *linothorax* was a type of body armour created by laminating together layers of linen. It wrapped around the torso and tied over the shoulder with two flaps. The most famous image of this kind of body armour is the Alexander Mosaic: a

celebrated ancient mosaic which was found in the largest house in Pompeii – the House of the Faun – and depicts Alexander the Great’s defeat of the Persian king Darius.

When his friend Hephaestion died, Alexander held a hugely expensive funeral. Hephaestion was a member of Alexander’s personal bodyguard and a general in his army. He was also Alexander’s best friend, right-hand man, and some say his lover as well. When he died suddenly in Ecbatana from unknown causes, Alexander wrote to the Oracle at Siwa in Egypt and asked if Hephaestion should be honoured as a god or a hero. The Oracle replied that he should be honoured as a hero, and so Alexander went all out for a mausoleum/funeral pyre designed to impress.

The Library of History, compiled by Diodorus Siculus, includes several accounts of the funeral pyre, of which there were even levels – each level more lavishly decorated than the last. Perched upon the bottom layer of 240 golden prows of ships and held up by palm tree trunks, Siculus says, there were: “Torches fifteen cubits high with golden wreaths about their handles. At their flaming ends perched eagles with outspread wings looking downward, while about their bases were serpents looking up at the eagles, [...] a multitude of wild animals being pursued by hunters, [...] a centauromachy rendered in gold, while the fifth [level] showed lions and bulls alternating, also in gold. The next higher level was covered with Macedonian and Persian arms, testifying to the prowess of the one people and to the defeats of the other. On top of all stood Sirens, hollowed out and able to conceal within them persons who sang a lament in mourning for the dead. The total height of the pyre was more than one hundred and thirty cubits.” A cubit is an ancient measurement of length based on the distance from the elbow to

the tip of the longest finger, so it varies. But the pyre, as described here, could have been more than 50 metres high. Alexander the Great plundered the treasuries of all his cities to pay for the monument – it has been estimated to have cost the modern equivalent of two billion dollars.

Alexander the Great had made his seat of government in Babylon, the capital of Babylonia (the alluvial plain between the Euphrates and Tigris), and he wanted to hold the funeral ceremony within the walls of the city. However, the monument was so huge that Alexander had to break down one of the city's walls to get it inside. He then set the monument on fire, cremating the general's body along with the magnificent pyre.

After a reign which had lasted 12 years and eight months, Alexander the Great was taken ill in June 323 BC. He died at the age of 33, having founded more than 70 cities, created an empire that stretched across three continents, and spread Greek culture and language into new regions.

He is remembered today one of the greatest military commanders in history.

(By Jennifer Macaire)

Comprehension Check

1. Match the word with the suitable meaning

- | | |
|------------------|--|
| 1. Assassination | a) a weapon with a long wooden handle and a sharp metal point used for fighting, hunting and fishing in the past |
| 2. to invade | b) to enter a country, town, etc. using military force in order to take control of it |

3. nomads c) the murder of an important or famous person, especially for political reasons
4. cauldron d) a military operation in which an army tries to capture a town by surrounding it and stopping the supply of food, etc. to the people inside
5. siege e) a member of a community that moves with its animals from place to place
6. ambassador f) special metal clothing that soldiers wore in the past to protect their bodies while fighting
7. barbarian g) a large deep pot for boiling liquids or cooking food over a fire
8. spear h) an official who lives in a foreign country as the senior representative there of his or her own country
9. infantryman i) a soldier who fights on foot
10. armour j) a member of a people who did not belong to one of the great civilizations

II. Answer the following questions based on the text:

1. Who was Alexander the Great? What do you know about him?
2. What type of sport did Alexander play? What do you know about the origin of it?
3. What was a glass diving ball? Where was it used?
4. Have we ever seen the real portrait of Alexander the Great?

5. Who was Plutarch? What did he do?
6. What do we know about the life of Alexander the Great from Plutarch's works?
7. What was the phalanx?
8. Describe a typical Macedonian infantryman of the phalanx.
9. What do you know about Hephaestion and his deeds?
10. Describe the funeral ceremony of the best friend of Alexander the Great.



Text 7

Bugs of War: How Insects Have Been Weaponized Throughout History

Beehive catapults. Scorpion bombs. Bug pit prisons. For thousands of years, military strategists have used insects as weapons of war – not only to inflict debilitating pain on enemies, but also to deliver deadly pathogens and destroy agriculture, with the intent of causing widespread misery, sickness and hunger.

Delivering disease via insect vectors has been wickedly effective. During WWII, Japanese biological warfare units dropped plague-infected fleas and cholera-coated flies on

Chinese cities – killing some 440,000 people. The Japanese military also developed plans to spread plague-carrying fleas over San Diego in 1945, but never followed through.

In 1989, domestic bioterrorists told authorities they were breeding and releasing medflies in California – and the eco-radicals would continue doing so until the government halted insecticide spraying. Had this devastating pest become established (the infestation was suppressed), the resulting quarantine on California fruits would have destroyed crops in one of America’s vital agricultural regions, costing tens of thousands of jobs and billions of dollars.

But for millennia, six-legged soldiers have been most consistently deployed to torment and disperse enemies. From Old Testament accounts (“I sent the hornet before you, which drove them out...” – Joshua 24:12) to the Vietnam War and beyond, insects have been effectively weaponized. Here are some of the most fiendish examples:

A scorpion blitz. At the end of the 2nd century, the Roman emperor Septimius Severus was on his way to wresting control of Mesopotamia from the local monarchs – that is, before a shower of scorpions helped waylay his plans, according to an account by ancient historian Herodian.

As the Roman legions advanced on the desert stronghold of Hatra – desirable for its control of Silk Road caravan routes – King Barsamia and his citizens holed up behind its 40-foot high perimeter walls. The defenders crafted earthenware bombshells loaded with scorpions – which were so prevalent in the region, and so dangerous, that Persian kings regularly ordered scorpion hunts and offered bounties to assure safe passage for the caravans. The locals knew

first-hand that scorpions inflicted intensely painful stings and that their venom can induce irregular breathing, slowed pulse, convulsions – and occasionally death.

As Severus's men reached the walls of Hatra, scorpion bombs rained down, inflicting agonizing punishment on the Romans wherever they had exposed skin – legs, arms and, worst of all, their faces and eyes. With arachnids deployed among the Hatreni defenses, Severus was held at bay for 20 days, until his troops finally broke off the battle and retreated.

Operation fling and sting. A major breakthrough in military pain delivery came with the development of machinery capable of launching insect-heavy payloads. What the slingshot did for the humble rock, the catapult did for bees – and shifted the balance of entomological power in favor of the attacking forces.

European history is replete with accounts of beehives and wasp nests being used as warheads – including on the high seas as a highly effective way to clear the decks of an enemy ship. The technological high point in hive-heaving machinery emerged in the 14th century with the development of the entomological predecessor of the Gatling gun – a windmill-like device that propelled straw hives from the ends of the rapidly rotating arms.

But attacking forces weren't the only ones employing stinging insects. European nobles assured that their bees were ready for producing honey or havoc, as the situation demanded. The interior walls of medieval castles were often equipped with recesses, termed bee boles, as homes for the six-legged troops.

Slowly eaten alive. Nasrullah Bahadur-Khan, the 19-century Emir of Bukhara (present-day Uzbekistan), was known for his sadistic streak – and perhaps best remembered by history for what the locals called the Black Well. According to western historians, the hole was 21 feet deep, covered with an iron grate and accessible only by a rope. The Emir seeded the “Bug Pit” (as it’s known today) with insects to assure a constant, torturous experience for his victims.

The foulest of the ruler’s six-legged minions were the assassin bugs, although their eight-legged cousins, the sheep ticks, added to the torment. Assassin bugs are inch-long, carnivorous insects endowed with stout, curved beaks for piercing their prey – most often other insects. But they’ll feed on people rather than starve. The bite of these insects has been compared to being stabbed with a hot needle, and the digestive enzymes that they inject to liquefy the tissues of their prey cause festering sores in human flesh.

The Emir's jailer described how two British prisoners were slowly eaten alive as “masses of their flesh had been gnawed off their bones.” In their case, Nasrullah mercifully (in his words) ended their agony with beheading.

Buggy booby traps. Using insects to inflict pain has continued into recent times. During the Vietnam War, the Viet Cong dug a network of underground tunnels allowing them to decide when and where to fight – sometimes lobbing wasp and hornet nests into U.S. positions to disrupt defenses before launching an attack.

Pity the Americans commandoes who, sent into the subterranean passages to engage the enemy, stumbled into booby traps instead. Feeling his way through a dank passage,

a “tunnel rat” might overlook a trip wire and have a load of scorpions rain down from a hidden cavity in the roof.

The Viet Cong also conscripted the Asian giant honeybee, described by tropical entomologists as “the most ferocious stinging insect on earth.” Soldiers gingerly relocated colonies to trails used by the Americans and then attached a small, explosive charge. When an enemy patrol passed by, a patiently waiting VC set off the blast. The infuriated insects drove the soldiers into dangerous disarray.

For their part, the U.S. military funded a research program to devise an apparatus to spray the Vietnamese enemy with the alarm pheromone of bees, thereby converting the local insects into fierce allies. This chemical signal functions like a cavalry bugle, inciting bees to attack. But the “weapon” was never deployed. It’s a reminder that, while these insects were just doing what they’ve evolved to do – inflict pain – humans can decide whether or not to create misery. And since the dawn of time, we’ve been conscripting six-legged warriors to do our brutal bidding.

(Jeffrey A. Lockwood)

Comprehension Check

I. Answer the questions to the given text:

1. When was the biological weapon firstly used?
2. What had happened to the Roman legions in the battle against Mesopotamian king?
3. Who and in which way did use the beehives as a kind of weapon?

4. Who was Nasrullah Bahadur-Khan? What was he famous for?

5. What type of biological weapon was used during the Vietnam War?

II. Fill in the table using the information from the text, like in the example.

Event	Type of Weapon	Consequences
WWII	plague-infected fleas and cholera-coated flies	440,000 people were killed



Text 8

How Queen Victoria's Matchmaking Helped Cause World War I

If you were a royal in the late part of the 19th century, there's a good chance you were related to Queen Victoria – and if Victoria was your grandmother, you were pretty much guaranteed a glamorous royal wedding to a prince or princess of her choosing.

“Victoria's descendants effectively gained automatic entry into what amounted to the world's most exclusive dating agency,” says Deborah Cadbury, author of *Queen Victoria's Matchmaking: The Royal Marriages That Shaped Europe*. The outcomes of her grandchildren's love lives were orchestrated by the queen herself, Cadbury says.

But those outcomes weren't always happy – and by marrying off her grandchildren, Victoria inadvertently helped stoke a world war. Here's how the queen's matchmaking helped create – and destroy – modern Europe.

It wasn't unusual for a monarch to be involved in her family's marriages. The Royal Marriage Act of 1772 gave Britain's monarch the chance to veto any match. But Victoria didn't stop at just saying no. She thought that she could influence Europe by controlling who her family members married. "Each marriage was a form of soft power," says Cadbury. Victoria wanted to spread stable constitutional monarchies like Britain's throughout Europe.

Luckily, she had plenty of family members with which to do it. Victoria had nine children and 42 grandchildren. Eventually, seven of them sat on European thrones in Russia, Greece, Romania, Britain, Germany, Spain and Norway – and all would take sides during World War I with disastrous consequences.

Some of Victoria's grandchildren followed their grandma's orders without complaint. Her grandson Albert Victor was second in line for the throne and, at Victoria's behest, asked Princess Mary of Teck to marry him. Victoria liked the German princess, who was also a cousin, because of her level headedness, and pressured Albert to marry her even though he was rumored to be gay. He dutifully proposed. Then, tragedy struck and he died suddenly of influenza in 1892.

Victoria then pressured Albert's brother, George, who was now second in line to the throne, to propose to Princess Mary. She accepted and, as queen consort of George V, became a beloved ruler.

But not everyone listened to their grandmother's warnings. Victoria's favorite granddaughter, Alix of Hesse, fell in love with Nicholas Romanov, heir apparent to the Russian throne. Victoria was horrified. She thought the Russians were barbaric and corrupt, and forbade the match. "Granny was right of course," says Cadbury, "but Alix was in love."

Though Alix turned down Nicholas twice, she eventually got Victoria's grudging approval and married him right after he became Tsar of Russia. Their love was strong, but fated for tragedy: During Nicholas' reign, Russia collapsed into revolution and war, and his British cousin, George V, declined to offer aid to the Romanovs, as he thought it would be politically unpalatable. The imperial family – Nicholas II, Czarina Alexandra and their five children – were executed by Bolshevik troops in 1918.

Once these first cousins took their thrones, they often found themselves at cross purposes. Victoria's most contentious grandchild was Kaiser Wilhelm II, the volatile ruler of the German empire. He was the product of what Victoria once thought was one of her most successful matches: the marriage of her daughter, Vicky, to Prince William of Prussia. But unlike many of Victoria's grandchildren, Wilhelm couldn't be controlled with a word from his grandma.

As he veered closer and closer to war, says Cadbury, his mother Vicky "was driven almost to treason in her letters to her British mother, so alarmed was she by the actions of her son. 'I think with fright and horror of the future' she confided to her mother in 1897. 'It makes one mad to think of all the misery that may yet come.'"

This misery crept across Europe as Victoria's grandchildren, their spouses and their countries became more and more nationalistic and fragmented. As the balance of power in Europe threatened to break down, they took sides – sometimes against their own family members. George V opposed Kaiser Wilhelm's policies (as did Czar Nicholas before his murder), and the diplomatic ties Victoria hoped she had helped form with her meddling matchmaking began to break down.

As the forces that would eventually cause World War I bore down on Victoria's grandchildren, says Cadbury, the bonds of royal cousinhood became "essentially powerless." The result was nothing short of tragic. "Cousin could betray cousin, husband was set against wife and even sister against sister," says Cadbury.

The consequences were astonishing: World War I left more people dead than any war in history and left Europe in shambles. By then, Queen Victoria had been dead for 17 years, but the marriages she pushed for with such authority and optimism still reverberated through Europe.

As Victoria's granddaughter, Victoria Melita of Saxe Coburg and Gotha wrote to her cousin, Marie of Romania in 1917, there was nothing to look forward to – "neither pride, nor hope, nor money, nor future." For many of Victoria's grandchildren, the war meant the end not just of their happiness, but their reigns: By the war's end, the monarchies of Turkey, Austria-Hungary, Germany and Russia had fallen.

Today, Britain's monarch exercises less power over royal marriages. Though the monarch must still give approval for royal weddings, sprawling royal dynasties are no longer engineered via matchmaking. But for many, says Cadbury, the idea of royal matchmaking feels like "the ultimate fairytale."

The idea of a prince and princess finding true love may be the dream of many, but for many of Victoria's grandchildren, what happened after the royal wedding was more like a nightmare.

(By Erin Blakemore)

Comprehension Check

I. Give the proper explanations for the given words.

To veto, constitutional monarchy, soft power, a behest, consort, barbaric, troops, treason, shamble, dynasty.

II. Answer the following questions based on the text.

1. Why was Victoria involved in her family's marriages?
2. How many descendants did Victoria have?
3. What had happened to Albert Victor?
4. How did Victoria treat the Russians?
5. Who was executed by Bolshevik troops in 1918?
6. Who was Kaiser Wilhelm II? What was his famous for?
7. Why was World War I provoked by Victoria?
8. What do you know about today's royal marriages?



Text 9

In Profile: The Life and Death of Marie Antoinette

Queen of France before the French Revolution, Marie Antoinette (1755–93) is famous for being overthrown by French revolutionaries and being publicly guillotined following the abolition of the monarchy. But how much do you know about her?

Here, we bring you the facts about Marie Antoinette’s life and death...

Born: 2 November 1755, Hofburg Palace, Vienna, Austria

Died: 16 October 1793, Place de la Concorde (previously known as Place de la Revolution), Paris, France

Remembered for: Being overthrown by French revolutionaries and being publicly guillotined after the abolition of the monarchy.

Family: Marie was the 15th child of Francis I, Holy Roman Emperor, and Empress Maria Theresa. Together the couple had 16 children, 10 of whom lived into adulthood.

At the age of 14, Marie married the heir to the French throne, Louis-Auguste, Duke of Berry and Dauphin of France, by proxy (a wedding that takes place without the presence of at least one of the two individuals) on 19 April 1770. Together they had four children: Marie Thérèse Charlotte, Louis Joseph, Louis Charles, and Sophie Hélène Béatrice.

Her life: Born an archduchess of Austria in 1755, Marie Antoinette spent her childhood in Vienna's Schönbrunn Palace and Hofburg Palace. Her education was typical of that given to a royal woman of the time, and she learned how to sing, dance and play music. Marie and her siblings would perform for their parents in the evenings at court. Growing up, Marie shared a governess with her elder sister, Maria Carolina, and the sisters remained close for the rest of Marie's life.

In 1756, France and Austria signed the Treaty of Versailles. This treaty promised that both countries would support one another after the outbreak of the Seven Years' War (1754–63) – a series of battles fought between the strongest powers of Europe over British and French colonies in the US. King Louis XV of France and Marie's mother, Empress Maria Theresa, decided that a marriage alliance would secure this treaty between the French and Austrians. As a result, the 14-year-old Marie was married to Louis XV's heir, his eldest grandson Louis-Auguste, by proxy on 19 April 1770. After meeting her husband for the first time on 14 May 1770, an official wedding ceremony took place at the Palace of Versailles on 16 May 1770.

In June 1770, some 50,000 people eagerly gathered along the streets of Paris to catch a glimpse of Marie during her first public appearance as a member of the French royal family. Members of the crowd were so keen to see the teenager that at least 30 people were crushed to death during the frantic rush. Many contemporaries were charmed by Marie during this public occasion, and praised her for her beauty.

Marie soon became involved in the extravagance of French court life, attending lavish balls and gambling. Her husband, however, shied away from public affairs. The couple would not consummate their marriage until seven years later – this became a popular matter of discussion and ridicule both at court and among the public.

King Louis XV died on 10 May 1774 after contracting smallpox. Marie, who was not yet 19 years old, became Queen of France when her husband inherited the throne as King Louis XVI. Marie gave birth to the couple's first child, Marie Thérèse Charlotte, in December 1778.

France experienced poor harvests during the 1780s, which consequently increased the price of grain, and the government faced mounting financial difficulties. As a result, Marie's lavish lifestyle at court came under attack. Numerous pamphlets and satires were distributed across the country demonstrating peoples' disgust towards the queen's extravagant spending.

According to popular legend, when Marie Antoinette was told that the French people were starving and they could not afford bread, she flippantly remarked: "Let them eat cake!" The quote, widely attributed to her, has become a symbol of the callous decadence of France's monarchy on the eve of the French Revolution. It is now generally accepted, though, that

Antoinette most likely never uttered these famous words. Instead they are thought to have been attributed to her by revolutionary propaganda keen to portray her as ignorant, distant and uncaring. Read more about the quote here.

Meanwhile, dangerous rumors also circulated that Marie was having an affair with her close companion Hans Axel von Fersen, a Swedish count, and questions arose regarding the paternity of Marie's children.

In 1783, Marie's extravagance reached new levels when she began building a secluded farming village on the grounds of the Palace of Versailles. Fitted with a farmhouse, cottages, a mill and farm animals, Le Hameau de la Reine (or 'The Queen's Hamlet') was created to allow the queen and her closest companions to escape the busy court in Versailles. Marie and her ladies-in-waiting would dress up as shepherdesses and pretend to be peasants, walking around the farm and milking the cows and sheep. Marie even employed servants to uphold the village and care for the animals. Despite the idyllic nature of this retreat, members of the court and the public believed that Marie was mocking French peasants by dressing up as shepherdesses and acting as if she was impoverished.

Meanwhile, the nobility – including the king's brother, the Count of Provence, and his cousin, the Count of Orleans – became disgruntled with Louis XVI's attitude towards pressing governmental matters: Louis was indecisive about how to rectify the growing government debt, and was hesitant in resolving the issues surrounding the poor harvests.

Facing mounting pressure from his nobles, on 8 May 1788 Louis XVI ordered the first meeting in 175 years of the Estates General – the general assembly of the representatives

of the clergy (first estate); the nobility (second estate), and the common people (third estate). Louis hoped that this would allow the representatives of France the opportunity to discuss ways to overcome the increasing state debt.

However, after reaching an impasse over France's financial situation, the third estate broke away from the Estates General and expressed plans to govern without the authority of the king. They were soon joined by representatives from the first and second estates, who were increasingly frustrated by the king's hesitancy over the rising prices of foodstuff and the queen's excessive lifestyle.

On 14 July 1789, public opposition to the royal family reached its height, and the Bastille – a state prison in Paris – was stormed by an angry, armed mob. The Bastille was seen to represent the monarchy's absolute authority, and the storming of its walls instigated the French Revolution and the beginning of the fall of the French monarchy.

Several weeks later, thousands of people surrounded the Palace of Versailles, demanding political reforms and changes to the way in which the monarchy governed. The royal family was then imprisoned within the walls of Tuileries Palace in Paris by the revolutionary forces that opposed the monarchy.

As more people joined the revolutionary cause in Paris, and public opinion of the monarchy deteriorated further, in 1791 Marie planned to flee France with her family and find sanctuary in Austria. However, the family was captured while attempting to escape and was taken back to Paris. They faced hostile crowds of people in the streets upon their return.

Amid mounting pressure from his political opponents, in September 1791 Louis XVI agreed to instigate a constitutional monarchy, and promised to share his political

power with the French Assembly. This failed to quell the rebellion, however: less than a year later, on 10 August 1792, a gang of revolutionaries broke into Tuileries Palace, where the royal family was being kept under surveillance, and took Louis XVI and Marie prisoner.

A month later, the Republican government was determined to eradicate anyone who opposed the French Revolution and the eradication of the monarchy. As a result, thousands of royalists, nobles and people affiliated with the royal family across the country were guillotined and brutally massacred, including the Princesse de Lamballe, who was one of Marie's closest companions. With the king and queen now under arrest, the National Convention ordered that the monarchy be abolished, and France was officially declared a republic.

On 21 September 1792, the Legislative Assembly in France voted for the monarchy to be abolished. Just four months later, after being put on trial by members of the new republican regime, (in the The National Convention – the assembly that administered France between September 1792 and October 1795) Louis XVI was convicted of treason and was sentenced to death. On 21 January 1793, Louis was executed by guillotine at the Place de la Concorde in Paris.

On 14 October 1793, after months of imprisonment, Marie was put on trial and found guilty of treason. Two days later, at the age of 37, the queen suffered the same fate as her husband and was executed. Marie's guillotined body was hurled into an unmarked grave in the cemetery of L'église de la Madeleine in Paris.

The bodies of Louis XVI and Marie were discovered during the restoration of the monarchy in France in the early 19th century. Their remains were properly reburied at the Basilica of St Denis on 21 January 1815.

(By Christopher Klein)

Comprehension Check

I. Read the given article and create a personal profile of Marie Antoinette using the table below.

PERSONA PROFILE



Name:
Fictionalize it

Profession:
Be very specific

Age:
Choose a number,
Not a Range

**Personal
BG:**
Mini Life story -
Hometown, Family,
Schooling, Work, etc

INTERESTS:
What does she spend her
time on?
What enrivens her?
What does she read, watch, ?
listen to?

NEEDS:
WHAT does she Need,
in her life, in her work?
What's ESSENTIAL for her?
What does she require?
WHAT'S MISSING?

VALUES:
What carries MEANING For Her?
WHAT'S her MORAL COMPASS?
What makes her INDIGNANT,
SATISFIED, FrustrATED?
What does she want for the world?

POWERS:
What Resources does she
Control?
What can she do, muster?
Who does she have INFLUENCE
Over?

BEHAVIORS:
What ARE her
ROUTINES
BUYING
Free Time
Rituals

ASPIRATIONS:
What KIND of Person
Do they want to Be?
BRANDS?
SPENDING Patterns?
Life Dreams? Hobbies?
Role Models?

(Picture taken from <http://www.openlawlab.com/2014/09/19/persona-template-user-centered-design-process/>)

II. Answer the following questions based on the text:

1. What do you know about the childhood of Marie Antoinette?
2. What was the meaning and the consequence of the Treaty of Versailles?
3. Dwell upon the French courtyard life of the Queen.
4. What do you know about the phrase “Let them eat cake!”?
5. Was ‘The Queen’s Hamlet’ a must or a whim of Marie Antoinette?
6. When and why did the French Revolution start?
7. How had the royal family been captured?
8. How had the royal family been punished?



Text 10

Globetrotting Vikings: The Quest for Constantinople

The Vikings coveted Constantinople but could never breach its walls. Only by becoming the personal bodyguards of the Byzantine emperor did the Nordic warriors grab a piece of its wealth.

The epic voyages of the Vikings to the British Isles, Iceland, North America and points west tend to obscure the fact that the Scandinavian warriors also ventured far to the east across Europe and parts of Asia. While the Danes and Norwegians sailed west, Swedish fighters and traders traveled in the opposite direction, enticed initially by the high-quality silver coins minted by the Abbasid Caliphate that sprawled across the Middle East.

These Vikings who crossed the Baltic Sea and descended across Eastern Europe were branded “Rus” – possibly derived from “ruotsi,” a Finnish word for the Swedes meaning “a crew of oarsmen” and the term from which Russia receives its name.

As the Rus migrated down the Dnieper and Volga Rivers, they established settlements along trade routes to the Black and Caspian Seas and conquered the native Slavic populations in present-day Russia, Belarus and Ukraine.

By the middle of the ninth century, Rus merchants turned up in Baghdad. The capital of the Abbasid Caliphate may have been the world's largest city with a population of more than one million people, but it failed to capture the Viking imagination like Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire that was said to harbor even greater riches.

“Silk and gold are the big lures,” says John Haywood, who chronicles the exploits of the Scandinavian raiders on four continents in his new book, “Northmen: The Viking Saga AD 793-1241.” “The Rus would have heard stories about the riches of Constantinople. The big attraction in trade was silk, which was a massively prestigious product for which they traded slaves, furs, beeswax and honey with the Byzantines. Constantinople was also one of the few places that still had gold coins, which were in short supply compared to the Roman period.”

Constantinople's location on the shores of the Bosphorus strait, which divided Europe from Asia, allowed it to become a prosperous crossroads of trade, the largest city in Europe and the richest city in the world. Great treasures necessitated stout defenses. The most-heavily fortified city in the world, Constantinople was encircled by a moat and three parallel walls. In addition, an iron chain that could be stretched across the mouth of the city's harbor protected it from a naval assault.

It is not known when the Rus first reached Constantinople, but it was before 839 when Rus representatives arrived at the Frankish court as part of a Byzantine diplomatic mission. In

June 860, the Rus launched a surprise attack on Constantinople at a time when the city was left largely undefended as Byzantine Emperor Michael III was off with his army fighting the Abbasid Caliphate in Asia Minor while the Byzantine navy was engaged with Arab pirates on the Mediterranean Sea.

In what the Greek patriarch Photius called “a thunderbolt from heaven,” the Rus plundered the suburbs of Constantinople and launched coastal raids around the Sea of Marmara in which they burned houses, churches and monasteries and slaughtered the patriarch’s servants. However, they never attempted to breach the city walls before suddenly departing in August. The Byzantines credited divine intervention, but the Rus likely departed to ensure they could arrive back home before winter set in.

A medieval Russian source details a second attack on Constantinople in 907 when a fleet of 2,000 ships encountered the iron chain blockading the harbor entrance. The resourceful Vikings responded by going amphibious, hauling their ships ashore, affixing wheels and dragging them overland before placing them back in the water on the other side of the chain before being repelled by the Byzantines. No Byzantine accounts of a Viking attack in 907 exist, however, and Haywood notes that the story could have been concocted as a way to explain a subsequent trade agreement between the Rus and the Byzantines.

In 941 the Rus launched a disastrous attack on Constantinople. With the Byzantine army and navy once again gone from the city, a fleet of 1,000 ships descended upon Constantinople only to be done in by 15 old dromons fitted with Greek Fire projectors that set the Viking ships ablaze. Weighed down by their armor, the Rus who avoided the flames by

jumping into the sea sank to a watery demise. Others caught fire as they swam. When Byzantine reinforcements finally arrived, the Rus sailed for home.

A half-century later, the Vikings would be recruited to defend Constantinople instead of attacking it. When Byzantine Emperor Basil II faced an internal uprising in 987, Vladimir the Great gave him 6,000 Viking mercenaries known as Varangians to differentiate the native Scandinavians from the Rus who by the middle of the 10th century had assimilated with the native Slavs and lost their distinct identity. Impressed by the ferocity with which the Vikings battled the rebels, the emperor established the elite Varangian Guard to protect Constantinople and serve as his personal bodyguards. With no local ties or family connections that could divide their loyalties and an inability to speak the local language, the Varangians proved far less corruptible than Basil's Greek guards.

“They were immensely well rewarded,” Haywood says of the Varangians. “They were given silk for everyday wear. If you are Scandinavian at that time, you are doing well if you have silk trim on your clothes. They get an enhanced share of the booty. It's this trickle of well-to-do homecoming mercenaries that spreads this image of Constantinople as the promised land of fabulous wealth.”

The Varangian Guard fought in every major Byzantine campaign – from Sicily to the Holy Land – until Constantinople was captured by Crusaders in 1204. Visitors to one of the most famous sites in the city now known as Istanbul can see that the Vikings left their mark on Constantinople – literally. At least two runic inscriptions carved into the marble walls of the Hagia Sophia may have been engraved by members of the Varangian Guard.

(Retrieved from <https://www.history.com/news/globetrotting-vikings-the-quest-for-constantinople>)

Comprehension Check

I. Answer the questions to the given text.

1. What do you know about the Rus? Where did they come from? What did they do?
2. Why was Constantinople thought to be the melting pot of that time?
3. Describe the Constantinople of that time.
4. When was the first attack on Constantinople by the Rus made? What do you know about the results of it?
5. Describe the tactics of the Vikings' attack on Constantinople in 914.
6. How did the Vikings help Constantinople in 987?
7. What do you know about the Varangian Guard?

II. Complete the following extract using the listed words. Use each word once.

moat coins raiders strait
assault capital trade lures
merchants defenses Empire

By the middle of the ninth century, Rus ... turned up in Baghdad. The capital of the Abbasid Caliphate may have been the world's largest city with a population of more than one million people, but it failed to capture the Viking imagination like Constantinople, the ... of the Byzantine ... that was said to harbor even greater riches.

"Silk and gold are the big ... ," says John Haywood, who chronicles the exploits of the Scandinavian ... on four continents

in his new book, “Northmen: The Viking Saga AD 793-1241.” “The Rus would have heard stories about the riches of Constantinople. The big attraction in ... was silk, which was a massively prestigious product for which they traded slaves, furs, beeswax and honey with the Byzantines. Constantinople was also one of the few places that still had gold ... , which were in short supply compared to the Roman period.”

Constantinople’s location on the shores of the Bosphorus ... , which divided Europe from Asia, allowed it to become a prosperous crossroads of trade, the largest city in Europe and the richest city in the world. Great treasures necessitated stout The most-heavily fortified city in the world, Constantinople was encircled by a ... and three parallel walls. In addition, an iron chain that could be stretched across the mouth of the city’s harbor protected it from a naval

UNIT 3

Extracurricula Work for Students Majoring in Law Studies



Text 1

Crime and Punishment in the Ancient World

The ancient Romans had no such punishment as life in prison. They could have considered housing, feeding, clothing, and giving medical care, at state expense for a person who broke the law, a total waste of public money. Rome, the capital, had over a million people in 100 C.E., and only one prison.

Many people are astonished that the Roman Empire, with a population at its height of over 35 million people, had many civil laws; such as those regarding property rights, sales of merchandise (slaves, for example, had a warranty), divorce, and

policies regarding standard weights and measures. However, they had very few criminal laws, except those regarding patricide as well as incidents involving state security such as treason.

The Romans had no police force; people were expected to police themselves. Soldiers were stationed outside the city to keep order because anytime crowds formed, there was always a chance for riots as political unrest was usually just under the surface. Their other responsibility was to serve as the emperor's bodyguards. Sometimes this did not function well, because if an emperor became unpopular, in some instances, the soldiers killed him themselves.

There were also no detectives or investigations of crime by authorities. This meant that, for example, if a man was murdered, it was the responsibility of the eldest male in his immediate or extended family to extract vengeance. This might be in the form of blood money. The murderer's family would try to scrape together the demanded amount and give it to the victim's relatives. In cases where money was not desired, or unavailable, the closest male of the murdered victim would thus hunt down and kill the perpetrator. This was what happened when Julius Caesar was killed in 44 B.C.E. In many cases, the criminal would flee the city before this could be carried out; but this too was dangerous. Traveling Roman roads without a large escort was risky.

In the Roman household, the father or eldest male had complete power over the rest of his family. In theory, he could order the death of his wife and children for any reason, with impunity, with slaves being particularly vulnerable. Most of the slaves were captured in war and, in all but a few cases, they would be slaves the rest of their lives as well as any children

they might conceive. They were forbidden to marry, were not Roman citizens, and had no rights under Roman law.

Punishments for crimes – whether slave or free – were usually carried out in rapid succession. For minor offenses, this might include a severe beating, being flogged or branded on the forehead. More severe crimes might receive a punishment of putting out the eyes, ripping out the tongue, or cutting off ears. The death penalty included being buried alive, impaling and, of course, crucifixion.

The Romans did not hesitate to torture before putting someone to death. One such punishment was sewing a bound prisoner in a heavy sack with a snake, a rooster, a monkey and a dog, then throwing the sack into the river. One can only imagine the agony inside. This punishment was usually reserved for patricide, or a son who killed his father.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. How did the ancient Romans punish perpetrators?
2. What civil laws did the Roman Empire have?
3. Name main functions of the Roman soldiers.
4. Who had complete power over the rest of his family in the Roman household?
5. What was the punishment for patricide?





II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. Rome, the capital, had over three million people in 100 C.E., and only one prison.

2. Soldiers were stationed inside the city to keep order because anytime crowds formed.

3. If a man was murdered, it was the responsibility of the eldest son in his immediate or extended family to extract vengeance.

4. The murderer's family would try to scrape together the demanded amount and give it to the victim's relatives.

5. Most of the slaves were captured in war and, in all but a few cases, they would be slaves the rest of their lives.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Property a) the cost incurred in or required for something.
2. Expense b) the crime of betraying one's country, especially by attempting to kill or overthrow the sovereign or government.
3. Treason c) a violent disturbance of the peace by a crowd.
4. Vengeance d) a person who kills their father.
5. Patricide e) a thing or things belonging to someone punishment inflicted or retribution exacted for an injury or wrong.
6. Perpetrator f) a person who carries out a harmful, illegal, or immoral act.
7. Merchandise g) goods to be bought and sold.



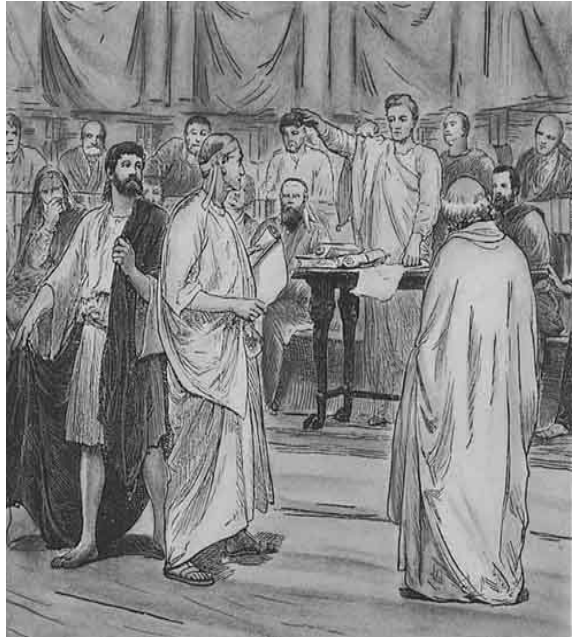
Text 2

Ancient Rome and Ancient Greek Rules of Law

Ancient Rome had many Rules and Laws a system which protects citizens and everyone has equal punishment depending on the crime. Laws must be published and written clearly. Everyone has to obey by these laws and usually no one has an exception to not obey. But the king they had was not being fair to them, so after a sixteen year battle with the king the people of Rome declared to be ruled by true elected leaders. In 509 B.C. the citizens of Rome created a new government called the Roman Republic. Although many things changed, and improved, women and children were still not citizens. Only an adult men were citizens. After 50 years of the Roman Republic being formed they wrote down the «old laws» to make sure

everyone understood them. This refers to the 12 tables because they were written in 12 sections the laws talked about property, crime, family, theft, marriage and inheritance. These were engraved on tablets of metal and put on display in the city, so that everyone could see. Each law applied to everyone for the better of Rome.

Ancient Greece had no rules of law until after the dark ages (which when from 1200 B.C. to 900 B.C.) and had no punishments either. Until rule of law started it was an eye for an eye, so if someone murdered your family member you would get to murder one of



theirs. Not until the middle of the 6th century B.C. that they had official laws and punishments. In 620 B.C. the first law was written by Draco (a law giver). This was the first written law of Ancient Greece. Then there began to be all of these laws that followed after that. Tort laws which was if someone does any sort of harm on your property or land. Family laws, Solon created many family laws which were laws regarding mainly marriage, adoption and laws concerning inheritance and supporting role of parents. Public laws choose how public

services were to be provided and how public functions should be accompanied. Procedural laws which were guidelines that told how judges should use other laws. Law givers were not kings but officials whose only job was to right laws that Ancient Greece has to obey by. In order to have punishments carried out the Ancient needed some sort of 'try', 'convict' and 'sentence' guilty people. Ancient Greek courts were cheap and run by what

we would call today 'amateurs'.



Ancient Rome and Ancient Greek both had there rules of law to keep there civilisation in order and fully functional. Rome didn't like there leader so they had a 16 year battle declaring that there civilisation should be led by a true leaders. Ancient Greece laws and rules didn't start until after the dark ages then during 620 B.C. the first official law was given by Draco. While

in rome they were fighting for freedom after they won that battle they made a government called the Roman Republic. The Greek laws consisted of tort laws, family laws, public laws and many others. After 50 years of the Roman Republic they wrote down the '12 tables'. These were 12 laws put on display on a metal slab in the city for people to obey by. Meanwhile in Greece they

people working for them in Greece that today they would be calling them 'amateurs'. Well both these civilisations had similar laws for citizens to obey by and without them there wouldn't be any peace in the Ancient world.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. What do you know about Rules and Laws in Ancient Rome?
2. Who created many family laws in Ancient Greece?
3. What was the job of law givers?
4. What is “eye for eye” law?
5. Who was the first law giver in Ancient Greece?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. In 509 A.D. the citizens of Rome created a new government called the Roman Republic.
2. After 50 years of the Roman Republic being formed they wrote down the «old laws» to make sure everyone understood them.
3. Each law applied to a government for the better of Rome.
4. In 620 B.C. the first written law of Ancient Greece was written by Draco (a law giver).
5. Ancient Greek courts were expensive and run by what we would call today 'amateurs'.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Declare a) a body of rights, obligations, and remedies that is applied by courts in civil proceedings to provide relief for persons who have suffered harm from the wrongful acts of others.
2. Adoption b) say something in a solemn and emphatic manner.
3. Amateur c) a process whereby a person assumes the parenting of another, usually a child, from that person's biological or legal parent, and, permanently transfers all rights and responsibilities.
4. Theft d) formal judgment of a convicted defendant in a criminal case setting the punishment to be meted out.
5. Inheritance e) a person who engages in an art, science, study, or athletic activity as a pastime rather than as a profession.
6. Convict f) the act of stealing; the wrongful taking and carrying away of the personal goods or property of another.
7. Sentence g) the practice of passing on property, titles, debts, rights, and obligations upon the death of an individual.
8. Tort law h) to prove or declare guilty of an offense, especially after a legal trial.



Text 3

Importance of the Roman Law: from ancient times to modern law systems

Roman law is the stable foundation on which modern legal culture has developed and evolved upon as a whole. The Civil law system is based on the late Roman law and its most distinctive feature – that its core principles are codified into a system which serves as the primary source of law.

It is claimed that the European identity is built on three pillars: Christianity, Aristotelian philosophy and Roman law. The very term “Roman law” refers to the legal system of ancient Rome from the time of the city founding in 753 BC until the fall of the Western Roman Empire in the 5th century CE. Later it was used in the Byzantine Empire (Eastern Roman Empire) until

1453. “Roman law” is also used to denote the legal systems implemented in the significant part of Western Europe until as late as the 18th century. This is the law implied in the Holy Roman Empire and at the same time the law of countries that were never subject to the Roman rule. Roman law has influenced the national legal systems not only in Europe but also in America, Africa and Asia. It forms the basis for the bourgeois civil codifications in most countries in continental Europe and derivative systems elsewhere. Nonetheless it has a significant influence on the formation of nations and modern statehood.

The system of Roman law has developed during the continuous existence of Roman Republic and Empire. Between 753-31 BC the jus civile (civil law) has been developed. This legislation was exclusively applied to Roman citizens. However, there were many cases in which foreigners were also involved.

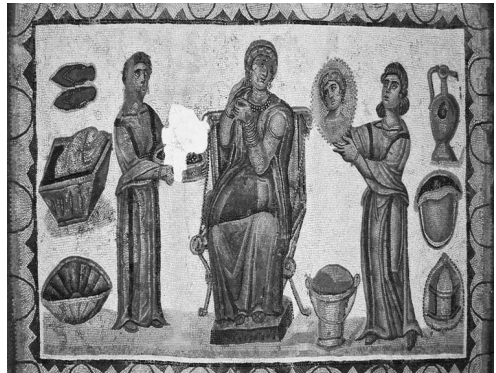
These cases were subject to justice by different magistrates and governors and hence the need of another type of law occurred. This other type of jurisdiction was then called law of nations and was applied to both the Romans themselves and the foreigners. It became a flexible alternative to jus civile applied by the magistrates. By the 3rd century AC when citizenship was extended throughout the empire, the practical differences between



jus civile and jus gentium ceased to exist. The term jus gentium obtained a more universal meaning referring to the same legal results whether the participated parties were citizens or not.

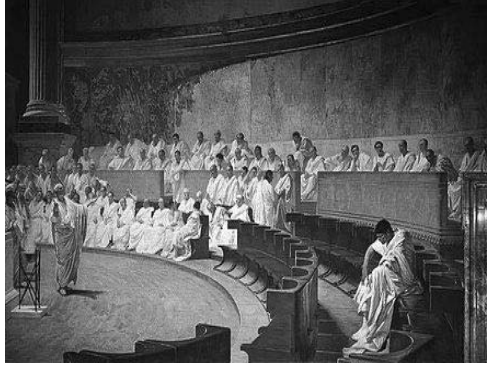
An important divisions of Roman law became what is now known as jus scriptum (written law) and jus non scriptum (unwritten law). There were various types of written law, the first of which consisted of leges or enactments of one of the general assemblies of the Roman people. They were source of law only during the Republic. With the establishment of the Empire in 31 BC the function of the assemblies was reduced to formal ratification of the emperor's wishes. The most important leges or legislation were the Twelve Tables, enacted in 451 BC. This is the first attempt by the Romans to create a code of law in order to prevent political struggle between classes.

Other types of written law were: the edicta (edicts) or proclamations, issued by a superior magistrate on judicial matters; the senatus consulta or resolutions of the Roman senate; constitutiones principum



which were expressions of the legislative power of the emperor as by the middle of the 2nd century AC the emperor was the sole creator of the law; and the responsa prudentium or answers to legal questions given by learned lawyers to those who consulted them.

Comprehension Check



I. Check your understanding.

1. What is the role of Roman law in the formation of modern European law?

2. Is the Civil law system based on the late Roman law?

3. Has Roman law influenced the national legal systems only in Europe?

4. When has the system of Roman law developed?

5. Name various types of written law. Describe each type.

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. It is claimed that the European identity is built on three pillars: Christianity, Cicero's Philosophy and Greek law.

2. Roman law has influenced the national legal systems not only in Europe but also in America, Africa and Asia.

3. Roman law forms the basis for the bourgeois civil codifications in most countries in continental Europe.

4. An important divisions of Roman law became what is now known as jus civile and jus gentium.

5. The function of the assemblies was reduced to formal ratification of the emperor's wishes with the establishment of the Empire in 31 BC.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Principle a) belonging to or typical of the middle class (a social group between the rich and the poor) especially in supporting existing customs and values, or in having a strong interest in money and possessions.
2. Bourgeois b) the position or status of being a citizen of a particular country.
3. Enactment c) the state council of the ancient Roman republic and empire, which shared legislative power with the popular assemblies, administration with the magistrates, and judicial power with the knights.
4. Civil law d) the action of signing or giving formal consent to a treaty, contract, or agreement, making it officially valid.
5. Citizenship e) the system of law concerned with private relations between members of a community rather than criminal, military, or religious affairs.
6. Ratification f) a basic idea or rule that explains or controls how something happens or works.
7. Proclamation g) public or official announcement dealing with a matter of great importance.
8. Senate h) a law that is passed.



Text 4

Principles of Criminal Law

Criminal law, the body of law that defines criminal offenses, regulates the apprehension, charging, and trial of suspected persons, and fixes penalties and modes of treatment applicable to convicted offenders.

Criminal law is only one of the devices by which organized societies protect the security of individual interests and ensure the survival of the group. There are, in addition, the standards of conduct instilled by family, school, and religion; the rules of the office and factory; the regulations of civil life enforced by ordinary police powers; and the sanctions available through actions. The distinction between criminal law and tort law is difficult to draw with real precision, but in general one may say that a tort is a private injury whereas a crime is conceived as an offense against the public, although the actual victim may be an individual.

The traditional approach to criminal law has been that a crime is an act that is morally wrong. The purpose of criminal sanctions was to make the offender give retribution for harm done and expiate his moral guilt; punishment was to be meted out in proportion to the guilt of the accused. In modern times more rationalistic and pragmatic views have predominated. Writers of the Enlightenment such as Cesare Beccaria in Italy, Montesquieu and Voltaire in France, Jeremy Bentham in Britain, and in Germany considered the main purpose of criminal law to be the prevention of crime. With the development of the social sciences, there arose new concepts, such as those of the protection of the public and the reform of the offender. Such a purpose can be seen in the German criminal code of 1998, which admonished the courts that the “effects which the punishment will be expected to have on the perpetrator’s future life in society shall be considered.” In the United States a Model Penal Code proposed by the American Law Institute in 1962 states that an objective of criminal law should be “to give fair warning of the nature of the conduct declared to constitute an offense” and “to promote the correction and rehabilitation of offenders”. Since that time there has been renewed interest in the concept of general prevention, including both the deterrence of possible offenders and the stabilization and strengthening of social norms.



III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Charging a) having been declared guilty of a criminal offence by the verdict of a jury or the decision of a judge.
2. Penalty b) the infliction or imposition of a penalty as retribution for an offence.
3. Convicted c) to express warning or disapproval to especially in a gentle, earnest, or solicitous manner.
4. Sanction d) a punishment imposed for breaking a law, rule, or contract.
5. Punishment e) an area of law that deals with the wrongful actions of an individual or entity, which cause injury to another individual's or entity's person, property, or reputation, and which entitle the injured party to compensation.
6. Retribution f) a threatened penalty for disobeying a law or rule.
7. Admonish g) punishment inflicted on someone as vengeance for a wrong or criminal act.
8. Tort law h) formally accuse someone of (an offence).



Text 5

Defining Principles of Administrative Law

Administrative law, the legal framework within which public administration is carried out. It derives from the need to create and develop a system of public administration under law, a concept that may be compared with the much older notion of justice under law. Since administration involves the exercise of power by the executive arm of government, administrative law is of constitutional and political, as well as juridical, importance.

There is no universally accepted definition of administrative law, but rationally it may be held to cover the organization, powers, duties, and functions of public authorities of all kinds engaged in administration; their relations with one another and with citizens and nongovernmental bodies; legal methods of controlling public administration; and the rights and liabilities of officials. Administrative law is to a large extent complemented by constitutional law, and the line between them is hard to draw.

The organization of a national legislature, the structure of the courts, the characteristics of a cabinet, and the role of the head of state are generally regarded as matters of constitutional law, whereas the substantive and procedural provisions relating to central and local governments and judicial review of administration are reckoned matters of administrative law. But some matters, such as the responsibility of ministers, cannot be exclusively assigned to either administrative or constitutional law. Some French and American jurists regard administrative law as including parts of constitutional law.

The law relating to public health, education, housing, and other public services could logically be regarded as part of the corpus of administrative law; but because of its sheer bulk it is usually considered ancillary.

Defining Principles. One of the principal objects of administrative law is to ensure efficient, economical, and just administration. A system of administrative law that impedes or frustrates administration would clearly be bad, and so, too, would be a system that results in injustice to the individual. But to judge whether administrative law helps or hinders effective administration or works in such a way as to deny justice to the individual involves an examination of the ends that public administration is supposed to serve, as well as the means that it employs.

In this connection only the broadest generalities can be attempted. It can be asserted that all states, irrespective of their economic and political system or of their stage of development, are seeking to achieve a high rate of economic growth and a higher average income per person. They are all pursuing the goals of modernization, urbanization, and industrialization. They

are all trying to provide the major social services, especially education and public health, at as high a standard as possible. The level of popular expectation is much higher than in former ages. The government is expected not only to maintain order but also to achieve progress. There is a widespread belief that wise and well-directed government action can abolish poverty, prevent severe unemployment, raise the standard of living of the nation, and bring about rapid social development. People in all countries are far more aware than their forefathers were of the impact of government on their daily lives and of its potential for good and evil.

The growth in the functions of the state is to be found in the more-developed and in the less-developed countries; in both old and new states; in democratic, authoritarian, and totalitarian regimes; and in the mixed economies of the West. The movement is far from having reached its zenith. With each addition to the functions of the state, additional powers have been acquired by the administrative organs concerned, which may be central ministries, local, provincial, or regional governments, or special agencies created for a particular purpose.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. Make a definition of administrative law.
2. What is the aim of creating the body of law that regulates the operation and procedures of government agencies?

3. How is administrative law complemented by constitutional law?

4. What are defining principles of administrative law?

5. Name additional powers acquired by the administrative organs with each addition to the functions of the state.



II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. One of the principal objects of administrative law is to ensure unproductive, social, and unjust administration.

2. All states are seeking to achieve a high rate of economic growth and a higher average income per person.

3. Administrative law is to a large extent complemented by constitutional law, and the line between them is easy to draw.

4. Some French and American jurists regard administrative law as including parts of international law.

5. The growth in the functions of the state is to be found in the more-developed and in the less-developed countries.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Framework a) having been declared guilty of a criminal offence by the verdict of a jury or the decision of a judge.
2. Executive arm b) the infliction or imposition of a penalty as retribution for an offence.
3. Convicted c) to express warning or disapproval to especially in a gentle, earnest, or solicitous manner.
4. Sanction d) a punishment imposed for breaking a law, rule, or contract.
5. Punishment e) an area of law that deals with the wrongful actions of an individual or entity, which cause injury to another individual's or entity's person, property, or reputation, and which entitle the injured party to compensation.
6. Retribution f) a threatened penalty for disobeying a law or rule.
7. Admonish g) Punishment inflicted on someone as vengeance for a wrong or criminal act.
8. Tort law h) a basic structure underlying a system, concept, or text.



Text 6

The Development of International Law

International law, also called public international law or law of nations, the body of legal rules, norms, and standards that apply between sovereign states and other entities that are legally recognized as international actors. The term was coined by the English philosopher Jeremy Bentham (1748–1832).

According to Bentham’s classic definition, international law is a collection of rules governing relations between states. It is a mark of how far international law has evolved that this original definition omits individuals and international organizations – two of the most dynamic and vital elements of modern international law. Furthermore, it is no longer accurate to view international law as simply a collection of rules; rather, it is a rapidly developing complex

of rules and influential – though not directly binding – principles, practices, and assertions coupled with increasingly sophisticated structures and processes. In its broadest sense, international law provides normative guidelines as well as methods, mechanisms, and a common conceptual language to international actors – i.e., primarily sovereign states but also



increasingly international organizations and some individuals. The range of subjects and actors directly concerned with international law has widened considerably, moving beyond the classical questions of war, peace, and diplomacy to include human rights, economic and trade issues, space law, and international organizations. Although international law is a legal order and not an ethical one, it

What is International law?

- “A rule... that has been accepted as such by the international community..”
- Includes :
 - Customary international law
 - International treaties and agreements
 - General principles common to major legal systems

has been influenced significantly by ethical principles and concerns, particularly in the sphere of human rights.

International law is an independent system of law existing outside the legal orders of particular

states. It differs from domestic legal systems in a number of respects.

International law is a distinctive part of the general structure of international relations. In contemplating responses to a particular international situation, states usually consider relevant international laws. Although considerable attention is invariably focused on violations of international law, states generally are careful to ensure that their actions conform to the rules and principles of international law, because acting otherwise would be regarded negatively by the international community. The rules of international law are rarely enforced by military means or even by the use of economic sanctions. Instead, the system is sustained by reciprocity or a sense of enlightened self-interest. States that breach international rules suffer a decline in credibility that may prejudice them in future relations with other states. Thus, a violation of a treaty by one state to its advantage may induce other states to breach other treaties and thereby cause harm to the original violator. Furthermore, it is generally realized that consistent rule violations would jeopardize the value that the system brings to the community of states, international organizations, and other actors. This value consists in the certainty, predictability, and sense of common purpose in international affairs that derives from the existence of a set of rules accepted by all international actors. International law also provides a framework and a set of procedures for international interaction, as well as a common set of concepts for understanding it.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. Who coined the term international law?
2. Make a classic definition of law of nations.
3. What is international law in its broadest sense?
4. What do you know about the range of subjects and actors directly concerned with international law?
5. How often are the rules of international law enforced by military means?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. International law provides methods, mechanisms, and a common conceptual language to international actors.
2. International law has been influenced insignificantly by ethical principles and concerns, particularly in the sphere of human rights.
3. States generally are not careful to ensure that their actions conform to the rules and principles of administrative law.
4. States that breach international rules suffer a decline in credibility that may prejudice them in future relations with other states. .
5. International law also provides a framework and a set of procedures for international interaction, as well as a common set of concepts for understanding it.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Assertion a) a body of rules established by custom or treaty and recognized by nations as binding in their relations with one another.
2. Violation b) to put something such as a plan or system in danger of being harmed or damaged.
3. Contemplate c) a confident and forceful statement of fact or belief.
4. International law d) harm or injury that results or may result from some action or judgment.
5. Reciprocity e) an action that breaks or acts against something, especially a law, agreement, principle, or something that should be treated with respect.
6. Jeopardize f) when something becomes less in amount, importance, quality, or strength.
7. Prejudice g) behaviour in which two people or groups of people give each other help and advantages.
8. Decline h) to spend time considering a possible future action, or to consider one particular thing for a long time in a serious and quiet way.



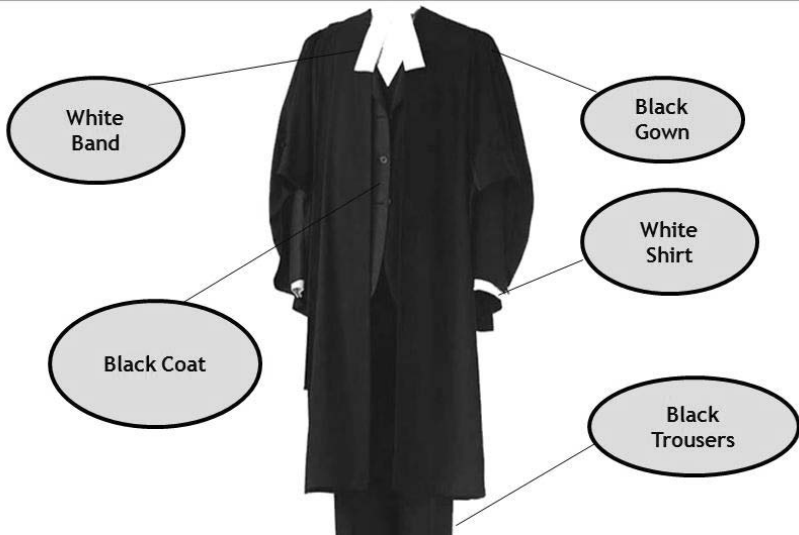
Text 7

Dress Code of British Lawyers

The courtroom dress of British judges and barristers (which is what British people call lawyers) may look straight out of the Renaissance, but the wigs and robes are more than just a chance to play dress up. The tradition of wearing a white wig and a robe dates back to the 17th century – and not much of the uniform has changed since.

In 1625, an academic paper called *The Discourse on Robes and Apparel* forever changed the way British high court officials dressed. This work led to the adoption of the robe and wig as the courtroom uniform to distinguish judges and barristers from other members of society. *The Discourse on Robes and Apparel* not only dictated what could be worn in a court of law, but the conditions and even seasons for each outfit, as well.

LAWYERS DRESS CODE



Courtroom wear isn't just boring black and white. Seasons and the type of case determine the color and style of robe judges wear. Robes of violet, green, black, and scarlet have served different purposes through the years, though the color requirements have fluctuated many times in the last few centuries.

But robes are just half of the look. The fashion trends of the 17th century helped wigs work their way into courtrooms. The headpieces were fully adopted as proper legal wear by 1685 and came with just as many strict rules as robes. Today, both judges and barristers wear wigs, but each has their own style.

Courtroom wigs are white, often handcrafted out of horsehair, and can cost thousands of pounds. Judges used to wear long, curled, full-bottom wigs until the 1780s when they

switched to smaller bench wigs. Barristers wear forensic wigs which consist of a frizzed crown with four rows of seven curls in the back.

Traditionalists will tell you the uniform carries a sense of power and respect for the law. The robes and wigs also make it more difficult for judges to be identified by criminal defendants



outside the courtroom.

However, the desire to keep formality and an homage to the court's history has been challenged. In 2007, a case to change the dress code was brought to court, and it won. The Lord Chief Justice,

Baron Phillips of Worth Matravers, stated that wigs would no longer be worn during civil or family cases and that judges need only one robe. Phillips wanted to simplify the court dress policies, reports Reuters.

The wigs and robes are still to be worn during criminal trials, but some people want the tradition to be fully wiped from the books. A growing number of lawyers feel the dress code is outdated as a suit of armor and believe the British courts should be more focused on important issues – and not on what officials are wearing.

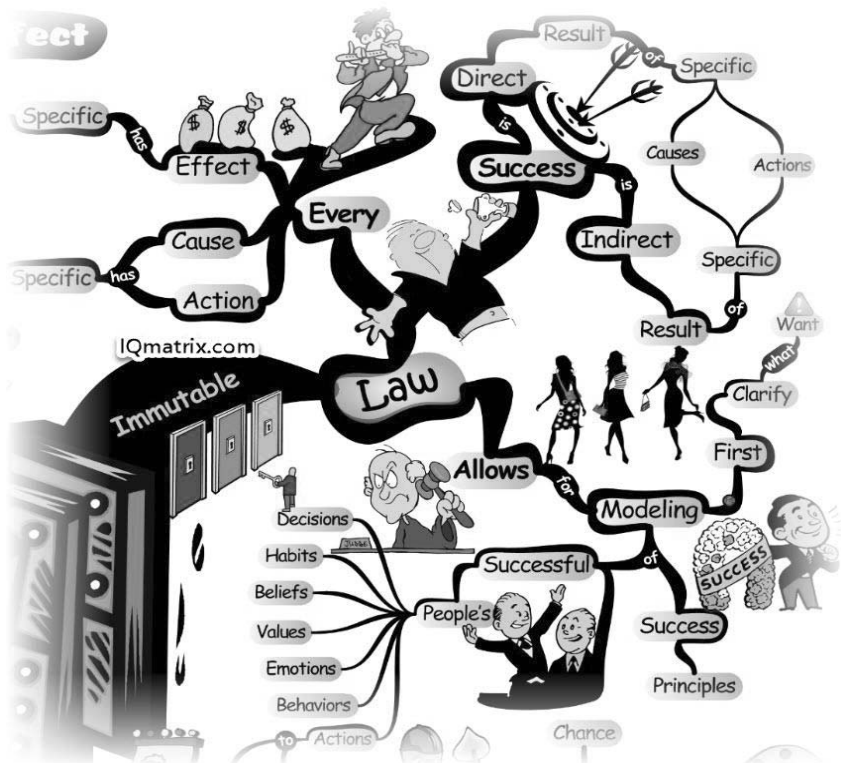
Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. How old is British tradition of wearing a white wig and a robe?
2. What academic paper did change the way British high court officials dressed?
3. What can determine the color and style of robe judges wear?
4. Describe courtroom wigs.
5. When did the British courts decide to simplify the dress code?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. In 1825, an academic paper called *The Discourse on Robes and Apparel* forever changed the way British high court officials dressed.
2. This work led to the adoption of the robe and wig as the courtroom uniform to distinguish judges and barristers from other members of society.
3. The headpieces were not fully adopted as proper legal wear by 1985 and came with just as many strict rules as robes.
4. Traditionalists will tell you the uniform carries a sense of power and respect for the law.
5. A growing number of lawyers believe the British courts should be more official and strict.



Text 8

Law as a Set of Rules

The law affects every aspect of our lives; it governs our conduct from the cradle to the grave and its influence even extends from before our birth to after our death. We live in a society which has developed a complex body of rules to control the activities of its members. There are laws which govern working conditions (e.g. by laying down minimum standards of health and safety), laws which regulate leisure pursuits (e.g. by banning alcohol on coaches and trains travelling to football matches), and laws which control personal relationships (e.g. by prohibiting marriage between close relatives). So, what is 'law'

and how is it different from other kinds of rules? The law is a set of rules, enforceable by the courts, which regulate the government of the state and govern the relationship between the state and its citizens and between one citizen and another. As individuals we encounter many ‘rules’. The rules of a particular sport, such as the off-side rule in football, or the rules of a club, are designed to bring order to a particular activity. Other kinds of rule may really be social conventions, such as not speaking ill of the dead. In this case, the ‘rule’ is merely a reflection of what a community regards to be appropriate behaviour. In neither situation would we expect the rule to have the force of law and to be enforced by the courts. In order to understand the legal implications of business activities, it is first necessary to examine some basic features of our English legal system. It is important to remember that English law refers to the law as it applies to England and Wales. Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own distinct legal systems.

(From "Introduction to Law")

Comprehension Check

1. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. The law cannot affect our lives, because it cannot control our behavior.

2. There are laws that regulate working conditions, leisure, and control personal relationships.

3. The law is a set of rules, which govern the relationship between the state and citizens.

4. The rule is a reflection of what a court regards to be bad behaviour.

5. For understanding the legal business implications, it is necessary to examine the main features of legal system.

II. Think about two main terms ‘law’ and ‘rule’. Write a paragraph to describe what is ‘law’ and how is it different from other kinds of rules?

III. Read the information in the chart and discuss it with your peers.

Constitutional law	Based on constitutions
Statutes	Enacted by legislative bodies
Administrative law	Rulings by administrative agencies
Civil law	Addresses wrongs done to individuals
Criminal law	Addresses wrongs done to society
Procedural law	Deals with methods of enforcing legal rights and duties
Substantive law	Defines legal rights and duties
Business law	Rules that apply to business transactions



Text 9

Law in Ancient Greece

Greek law, legal systems of the ancient Greeks, of which the best known is the law of Athens. Although there never was a system of institutions recognized and observed by the nation as a whole as its legal order, there were a number of basic approaches to legal problems, certain methods used in producing legal effects, and a legal terminology, all shared to varying degrees by the numerous independent states constituting the Hellenic world. It should not be forgotten, however, that such

common foundations as there were gave rise to a great variety of individual legal systems differing as to their completeness and elaboration and reflecting the tribal (i.e., Dorian, Ionian, etc.) and historical backgrounds as well as the changing social, economic, political, and intellectual conditions of their respective societies.

Greek legal life of the 5th and 4th centuries BCE was determined by three dominant factors. One was the existence of a multiplicity of city-states (*poleis*), each of which possessed and administered its own set of laws. The second element was the fact that in many, if not most, of the *poleis* (one certain exception was Sparta) the laws were laid down in written statutes, some of them being elaborate and more or less complete codes setting forth procedural methods and substantive rules for the administration of justice. This was the result of a great movement for legal codification that from the 7th century had swept the Greek world. Solon of Athens (594 BCE), who had been preceded in 621 by Draco, is the best



known of a number of famous lawgivers, other outstanding ones being Zaleucus of Locri Epizephyrii (south Italy) and Charondas of Cantana; Lycurgus of Sparta is considered legendary. A number of enactments rightly or wrongly attributed to Solon still are known from literary quotations rendering them in a modified form that reflects a legislative reform of 403–402 BCE. One of the Draconian laws has been preserved in an Attic inscription giving it in a revised version

dating from 409 or 408 BCE. The law code of Gortyn, which is itself the revised version of an older code, is the only one that comes close to being fully preserved.

The third determining factor for Greek law was the absence of a body of jurisprudence comparable to that of the Romans. Even the Attic orators, for all their practical familiarity with the laws of the city, were mainly interested in presenting arguments suited to persuade the mass juries before whom they had to argue, not in analyzing the legal system with the object of obtaining a deeper insight into its implications. Nor, for that matter, did the philosophers care for the law as it was, their aim being the discovery of abstract standards of justice.

The three characteristics outlined here were important influences on the general character of Greek law. The first two of these factors resulted in a rather stiff positivism. Contrary to views held by scholars until recently, new research has shown that the Athenian dicasts who sat in judgment did not feel free to base their verdicts on vague notions of equity but adhered, at least in theory, to the literal meaning of the written statutes (*nomoi*), which they were bound by a solemn oath to observe. This somewhat narrow clinging to literal interpretation, combined with the absence of any attempt to deal with statutes or legal situations in an analytical manner, led to the result that Greek law never attained the doctrinal refinement of Roman law, notwithstanding the remarkable technical flexibility that characterized it in Hellenistic times.



(From "Britannica")

Comprehension Check

I. What were the three dominant factors that Greek legal life of the 5th and 4th centuries BC was determined by? Fill in the chart.

The first	The second	The third

II. Unscramble the sentences.

a system / of / recognized / There / and / nation / observed / was / never / institutions / by / the

approaches / a number / of / basic / problems / were / to / There / legal

three / characteristics / here / influences / The / on / character / of / the / general / outlined / Greek / law / were / important

to observe / were / by / a solemn / oath / They / bound

interpretation / somewhat / clinging / This / to / literal / led /
to / the / result / attained / that / Greek / law / never / the /
doctrinal / of / Roman / law / narrow / refinement

III. Write the synonyms to the words:

institution _____

foundation _____

legal _____

completeness _____

social _____

intellectual _____

outstanding _____

preserve _____

factor _____

factor _____

implication _____



Text 10

The Evolution of Law

There ought to be, and many times is, a close nexus between manmade law and justice – law should aim at justice. Laws should be the objective expressions of the nature of reality rather than merely the subjective prejudices or whims of some person, group of people, or society as a whole. Natural law is objective since it is inherent in the nature of the entity to which it relates. The content of natural law is accessible to human reason. For example, it is easily understood that since each man has a natural right to survive, flourish, and pursue his own happiness, no other man or group of men should attempt to deprive him of a chosen value or action through the initiation or threat of force.

Historically, socially emergent ideas of legal principles, oftentimes in accord with the nature of reality, occurred prior to their adoption by political authorities. Voluntary forms of

governance through customary private laws preexisted state law and effectively ordered human affairs. Law arose as a spontaneous order – something to be discovered rather than enacted. Law is an evolutionary systemic process involving the experiences of a vast number of people.

The idea of law includes fundamental rules of behavior, as well as institutions and devices for changing, clarifying, refining, and applying the rules. Law is a natural outcome of people living and working together. If people are to live among others, there must be a way to resolve the inevitable disputes. Law can be seen as the activity of subjecting human conduct to the governance of rules.

The evolution of law began before history was recorded with laws built up one by one as disputes were settled. In fact, the development of rules in society predates both courts and the written law. For thousands of years, customary and private legal systems alone ordered human activities. The power of customary law is found in the fact that it is reflected in the conduct of people toward one another. The further a society moves away from customary and private law systems, the greater the need for laws coercively enforced by the state.

The law is essentially discovered, not made. Law is a systemic discovery process involving the historical experiences of successive generations. Law reflects and embodies the experiences of all men who have ever lived.

Customary law involves spontaneously evolved rules emerging through dispute adjudication. Customary law provides a rather reliable process for discovering the natural law, since a spontaneously evolved and voluntarily followed custom is more likely to result in mutual advantages to the involved parties than

a rule imposed by a powerful group. Natural law is the immutable standard to which manmade laws must correspond in order to be legitimate. Natural law is the general body of rules of right conduct and justice common to all men. Analogously, a common law system in which law arises via judicial precedent is better than a system in which courts and judges merely apply positive laws enacted by a legislative body.

Anglo-Saxon customary law involved a group individuals often referred to as a *bohr*, pledging surety for each of its members. In such a arrangement, each person secured his property claims by freely accepting an obligation to respect the property rights of others, who were expected to reciprocate. The group would back up this pledge of surety by paying the fines of its members if they were found guilty of violating customary law. The surety group had financial incentives to police its members and exclude those who frequently and flagrantly engaged in undesirable behavior. Individuals would deal cooperatively with those known to be trustworthy while refusing to interact with those known to be untrustworthy. These solidarity rules evolved spontaneously as individuals utilized ostracism instead of violence. There is a certain timeless appeal to such reciprocal arguments. Modern parallels to these reciprocal voluntary agreements can be found in insurance agencies, credit card companies, and credit bureaus. Insurance agencies spread risks through the combining of assets. Credit card companies stand behind their actions and claims of their members. In addition, credit bureaus attest to the financial standing of their members.

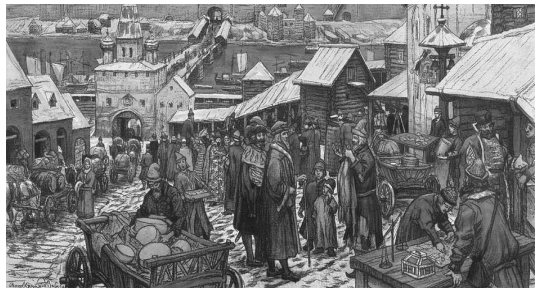
Additional institutional arrangements easily evolve in such a cooperative social order. When a charge is disputed, nonviolent

means of resolving conflicts and clarifying property rights emerge. For example, the dispute resolution process could be handled through the appointment of a mutually acceptable arbitrator or mediator. If the loser pays restitution, he may be permitted to rejoin the group. The coercive power of a central authority is not required in such a voluntary social arrangement except as a final coercive court of appeal to enforce judgments and protect rights.

Anglo-Saxon courts (moots) were assemblies of common men and neighbors. Operating similar to surety groups, their jurisdiction depended upon the consent of the parties. The moots passed judgment according to customary law.

In the late Middle Ages, the Law Merchant, a far-reaching system of private mercantile law that operated through reputation, credit, and economic embargo, regulated commercial transactions throughout Europe. This system of voluntary law

emerged in response to the need for common standards to govern international trade. Members formed their own Europe-wide court system and legal



order. They relied on credit reports for enforcement and the fact that those declining to submit to the system's rules and decisions would have great difficulty finding other merchants to do business with. Merchants who did not adhere to the Law Merchant standards found themselves ostracized from the community of reciprocal commercial relationships.

Bruce Benson has concluded that customary legal systems tend to share the following basic characteristics: 1) a strong concern for individual rights; 2) laws enforced by victims backed by reciprocal arguments; 3) standard adjudication procedures established to avoid violence; 4) offenses treated as torts punishable through economic restitution; 5) strong incentives for the guilty to submit to the prescribed punishments due to the threat of social ostracism; and 6) legal change by means of an evolutionary process of developing customs and norms.

States amassed enough power to claim monopoly in law relatively recently and only after a long battle with competing legal systems. State law gained dominance in the competition among medieval European legal systems such as Canon law, the Law Merchant, feudal (manorial) law, etc. State law forged ahead in part to the state's success in military conquests. In addition, the state's power to tax allowed it to subsidize its legal services. Royal law absorbed the functions of the Law Merchant by adopting its precedents and enforcing them at lower prices. Royal law, and eventually state law, wielded greater coercive power than competing legal systems which depended on reciprocity and trust. The state was able to lower its costs and legitimize its claims as the monopoly source of law by establishing courts backed by the threat of violence.

Citizens in a given geographical area began to view the sovereign as the sole legitimate source of law. Eventually, the state formulated and imposed its own laws in addition to claiming to be the source of existing customary laws. Early codes of kings were mainly codifications of customary law.

The influence of Christianity provided the throne with a godly character thus enabling kings to assert a divine mandate. When kings reformed royal law to absorb portions of the Church's Canon law, the state's legal system gained the strength and aura of ecclesiastical law.

Before the Norman conquest in 1066, governance and law in England were extremely decentralized. William the Conqueror



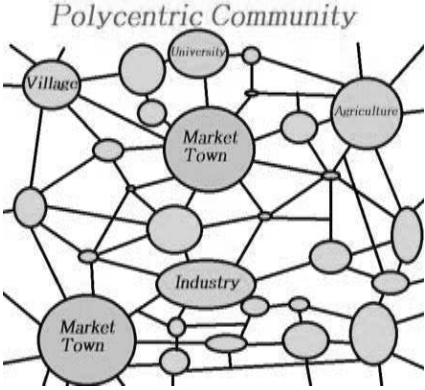
WILLIAM the CONQUEROR.

greatly contributed to the destruction of competing legal systems by completing the centralization of royal power that had been begun by Alfred the Great in the 9th Century. William and his successors worked to bring competing legal systems under royal control in order to levy fines and surcharges that would accrue to the king. By 1200, royal law

dominated the legal order of England and other countries in Europe.

In retrospect, most modern nation-states evolved from nonstatist extortionist institutions. There was a natural progression as tribal war chiefs became kings and kingdoms developed into nations. The coercive state is thus seen as the source of all law. The existence of coercive institutions and rules stifles the growth of voluntary trust relationships. In addition, the maturation for honoring commitments shifts to the avoidance of punishment from the sovereign state.

Still, competing legal and governance systems have continued to exist. In fact, multiple systems have been more common than unitary systems. For example, in the American West, before federal power had reached the territories, disputes were resolved by private courts. Throughout its history, America has been the home of wagon trains, cattlemen's associations, mining camps, clubs, churches, unions, trade associations, private communities, alternative dispute resolution arrangements (i.e., arbitration and mediation), etc. Polycentric law naturally fills the voids that appear when state laws are found to be lacking. For example, informal customary norms are currently effectively regulating the Internet. Systems of private and customary law rely on individual motivation and market mechanisms, rather than the state's monopoly of power, to provide the incentives to cooperate and maintain order.



(By Edward W. Younkins)

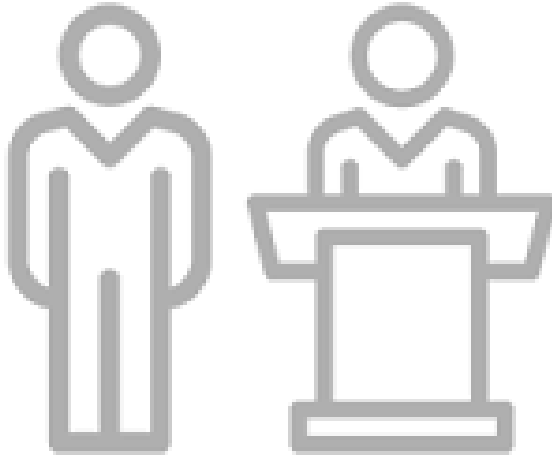
Comprehension Check

I. Outline your ideas by filling in the chart.

Law as a natural outcome of society	A voluntary commercial law	The centralization of royal power

UNIT 4

Extracurricula Work for Students Majoring in Political Sciences



Text 1

A Brief History of Political Science

Political science is the systematic study of politics, or the process by which governmental decisions are made. As a famous definition puts it, politics is determining who gets what, where, when, and how. The political scientist is an objective observer who asks questions about and studies the effects and structures of different systems of governments.

Political science originated with the ancient Greeks in the first century B.C. During this time, the philosopher Plato wrote

numerous dialogues about politics, asking about the nature of justice, what constitutes good government, and what is truly best for humanity. His student Aristotle worked in a more scientific way, observing and describing types of governments systematically. At the start of the seventeenth century, people began to apply the methods of the scientific revolution to politics. Thomas Hobbes, for example, employed the methods of geometry to break government down into its most basic parts in order to understand it. In the nineteenth century, thinkers such as Karl Marx and Max Weber used sociological methods to analyze politics.

Political science, the systematic study of governance by the application of empirical and generally scientific methods of analysis. As traditionally defined and studied, political science examines the state and its organs and institutions. The contemporary discipline, however, is considerably broader than this, encompassing studies of all the societal, cultural, and psychological factors that mutually influence the operation of government and the body politic.

Although political science borrows heavily from the other social sciences, it is distinguished from them by its focus on power – defined as the ability of one political actor to get another actor to do what it wants – at the international, national, and local levels. Political science is generally used in the singular, but in French and Spanish the plural (*sciences politiques* and *ciencias políticas*, respectively) is used, perhaps a reflection of the discipline's eclectic nature. Although political science overlaps considerably with political philosophy, the two fields are distinct. Political philosophy is concerned primarily with political ideas and values, such as rights, justice, freedom,

and political obligation (whether people should or should not obey political authority); it is normative in its approach (i.e., it is concerned with what ought to be rather than with what is) and rationalistic in its

method. In contrast, political science studies institutions and behaviour, favours the descriptive over the normative, and develops theories or draws conclusions based on empirical observations, which are expressed in quantitative terms where possible.

Although political science, like all modern sciences, involves empirical investigation, it generally does not produce precise measurements and predictions. This has led some scholars to question whether the discipline can be accurately described as a science. However, if the term science applies to any body of systematically organized knowledge based on facts ascertained by empirical methods and described by as much measurement as the material allows, then political science is a science, like the other social disciplines. In the 1960s the American historian of science Thomas S. Kuhn argued that political science was “pre-paradigmatic,” not yet having developed basic research paradigms, such as the periodic table that defines chemistry. It is likely that political science never will develop a single, universal paradigm or theory, and attempts to do so have seldom lasted more than a generation, making political science a discipline of many trends but few classics.



Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. Make a definition of political science.
2. Did political science originate with the ancient Greeks in the first century BC?
3. What is political philosophy?
4. When did people begin to apply the methods of the scientific revolution to politics?
5. Does political science borrow heavily from the other social sciences?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. The political philosopher is an observer who answers questions about and studies the effects and structures of different systems of governments.
2. Plato's student Aristotle worked in a more scientific way, observing and describing types of governments systematically.
3. In the nineteenth century, thinkers such as Karl Marx and Max Weber used the methods of geometry to break government down into its most basic parts in order to understand it.
4. Political science examines the state and its organs and institutions.
5. In the 1906s the German historian of science Thomas S. Kuhn argued that political science was "pre-paradigmatic," not yet having developed basic research paradigms, such as the periodic table that defines chemistry.



Text 2

Fields and Subfields of Political Science

Modern university departments of political science (alternatively called government or politics at some institutions) are often divided into several fields, each of which contains various subfields.

1. Domestic politics is generally the most common field of study; its subfields include public opinion, elections, national government, and state, local, or regional government.

2. Comparative politics focuses on politics within countries (often grouped into world regions) and analyzes similarities and differences between countries.

3. International relations considers the political relationships and interactions between countries, including the causes of war, the formation of foreign policy, international political economy, and the structures that increase or decrease

the policy options available to governments. International relations is organized as a separate department in some universities.

4. Political theory includes classical political philosophy and contemporary theoretical perspectives (e.g., constructivism, critical theory, and postmodernism).

5. Public administration studies the role of the bureaucracy. It is the field most oriented toward practical applications within political science and is often organized as a separate department that prepares students for careers in the civil service.

6. Public law studies constitutions, legal systems, civil rights, and criminal justice (now increasingly its own discipline).

7. Public policy examines the passage and implementation of all types of government policies, particularly those related to civil rights, defense, health, education, economic growth, urban renewal, regional development, and environmental protection.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

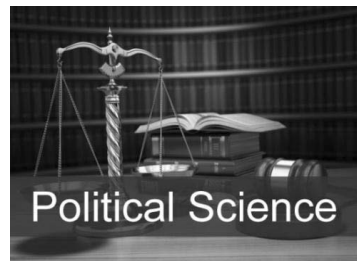
1. Name several fields of political science.

2. Is domestic politics generally the most common field of study?

3. What is comparative politics?

4. What does public administration study?

5. What does public policy examine?



II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. Modern university departments of political science are often divided into several fields.

2. International relations considers the public opinion, elections, national government, and state, local, or regional government.

3. Political theory includes the political relationships and interactions between countries.

4. Public administration studies the role of the bureaucracy.

5. Public law studies all types of government policies, particularly those related to civil rights, defense, health, education, economic growth.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Domestic politics a) the implementation of government policy and also an academic discipline that studies this implementation and prepares civil servants for working in the public service.

2. International relations b) a late 20th-century style and concept in the arts, architecture, and criticism, which represents a departure from modernism and is characterized by the self-conscious use of earlier styles and conventions, a mixing of different

artistic styles and media, and a general distrust of theories.

3. Political theory c) the set of decisions that a government makes relating to things that directly affect the people in its own country.
4. Public administration d) the study of the relations of states with each other and with international organizations and certain subnational entities (e.g., bureaucracies, political parties, and interest groups). It is related to a number of other academic disciplines, including political science, geography, history, economics, law, sociology, psychology, and philosophy.
5. Public policy e) the principled guide to action taken by the administrative executive branches of the state with regard to a class of issues, in a manner consistent with law and institutional customs.
6. Bureaucracy f) A system of government in which most of the important decisions are taken by state officials rather than by elected representatives.
7. Postmodernism g) the study of justice, legitimacy, and power by conjoining normative theory (reflection on political values), positive theory (study of how values can be achieved by institutions), and the intellectual history of political thought (from Plato to Rawls).



Text 3

The Yeomen of the Guard

The first part of the ceremony of the State Opening of Parliament takes place out of public sight, when the cellars beneath the Palace of Westminster are searched by the Yeomen of the Guard, resplendent in their Tudor-style uniforms, in a tradition that dates back to 1679.

This harks back to the Gunpowder Plot of 1605 when Guy Fawkes was discovered, with gunpowder, hiding in the cellars in an attempt to blow up both king and parliament.

The Body Guard of the Yeomen of the Guard, to give them their full title, was created by Henry VII in 1485 at the Battle of Bosworth and is the oldest military corps in existence in Britain. They have served the monarch continuously since then, even during The Commonwealth (1649 – 1659) when they guarded King Charles II in exile in France.

The Yeomen of the Guard were responsible for guarding the interior of the monarch's palaces: they tasted all of the sovereign's meals in case of poison, they prepared the monarch's bed and one of the guard slept outside the king's bedroom. These now obsolete duties are still referred to in the rather curiously named ranks of Yeoman Bed-Goer and Yeoman Bed-Hanger!

The Yeomen of the Guard also took to the field of battle, the last time at the Battle of Dettingen in 1743 during the reign of King George II. From then on their role became purely ceremonial, that is until 1914 when at the outbreak of the First World War, King George V requested that they again resume guarding the royal palaces, thus releasing the police elsewhere. He also allowed them to join the armed forces.

The Yeomen of the Guard, in their elaborate Tudor uniforms, are instantly recognisable. The gold embroidered emblems on their red tunics feature the crowned Tudor rose, the shamrock and the thistle, the motto 'Dieu et Mon Droit' and the initials of the reigning monarch. The outfit is completed by red knee breeches, red stockings and a sword. The long poles the Yeomen carry are eight foot long ornamental partisans, a popular weapon in the Middle Ages.

There are 73 Yeomen of the Guard. On appointment, all Yeomen have to be aged between 42 and 55 and have served in the military for at least 22 years. They must have attained the

rank of sergeant or above, but not be a commissioned officer. They must also have been awarded the Long Service and Good Conduct Medal (LS&GCM).

There are four ranks of officer in the Guard: Exon, Ensign, Lieutenant and the highest rank, Captain. The yeoman ranks include Yeoman, Yeoman Bed Hanger (YBH), Yeoman Bed Goer (YBG), Divisional Sergeant-Major (DSM) and Messenger Sergeant-Major (MSM).

Nowadays the Queen's Body Guard of the Yeomen of the Guard perform a purely ceremonial role. As well as the State Opening of Parliament, they take part in the annual Royal Maundy Service, state visits by foreign heads of state, investitures at Buckingham Palace, coronations, lying-in-state and royal funerals.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. What do you know about the first part of the ceremony of the State Opening of Parliament?
2. Who created the Body Guard of the Yeomen of the Guard?
3. Tell about the Yeomen of the Guard' responsibilities.
4. Describe the uniform of the Yeomen of the Guard.
5. What is the role of the Queen's Body Guard of the Yeomen of the Guard nowadays?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. The Body Guard of the Yeomen of the Guard is the oldest military corps in existence in Britain.

2. All Yeomen have to be aged between 32 and 45 and have served in the military for at least 12 years.

3. The Yeomen of the Guard, in their elaborate Tudor uniforms, are instantly recognisable.

4. The long poles the Yeomen carry are five foot long ornamental partisans, a popular weapon in the Renaissance.

5. There are four ranks of officer in the Guard: Exon, Ensign, Lieutenant and the highest rank, Captain.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| 1. Military | a) a wild plant with sharp points on the leaves and, typically, purple flowers. |
| 2. commissioned officer | b) attractive and impressive through being richly colorful or sumptuous. |
| 3. thistle | c) an officer in the armed forces holding rank by a commission. |
| 4. shamrock | d) the display of the corpse of a public figure for public before it is buried or cremated. |
| 5. sovereign | e) a body of soldiers serving to protect a place or person; the household troops of the British army. |
| 6. resplendent | f) a supreme ruler, especially a monarch. |
| 7. guard | g) relating to or belonging to the armed forces. |
| 8. lying-in-state | h) a low-growing clover-like plant with three-lobed leaves, used as the national emblem of Ireland. |



Text 4

How the Mayflower Compact Laid a Foundation for American Democracy

Pilgrims had to find a way to get along with “strangers” on their ship once they landed in the New World.

On the morning of November 11, 1620, when the Mayflower dropped its anchor off the coast of Cape Cod, the group of English Separatists later known as the Pilgrims fell to their knees and blessed God for bringing them safely across the “vast and furious ocean” to a new life in the New World.

Before they could begin this new life, however, they had to solve some very practical problems. Their solution was to draft an agreement, later known as the Mayflower Compact, that became a first in consensual government and ensured everyone in the new colony would abide by the same laws. The

Mayflower Compact Was an Agreement to Bind Colonists Together

Back in England, the Separatists had signed a contract with the Virginia Company to establish a colony near the Hudson River, which at the time was part of Virginia. By its terms, the stockholders who financed the journey would share in the new colony's profits.

In order to increase the voyage's chance of success, the Pilgrims recruited a number of other people—ordinary merchants, craftsmen and workers, along with their families and indentured servants—to come along with them. These “strangers,” as the Pilgrims called them, had their own reasons for joining the journey, and didn't share the goal of separating from the Church of England.

After bad weather during the Atlantic crossing pushed the Mayflower hundreds of miles further north, to Cape Cod, the “strangers” didn't think they should be subject to the contract's provisions anymore. As William Bradford later wrote in his famous *History of Plymouth Plantation*, some of them made “discontented and mutinous speeches” claiming that since they were not in Virginia, “none had power to command them.”

Before departing the ship, then, the Pilgrims decided to draw up an agreement to bind them and the “strangers” together, and ensure that everyone in the new colony would abide by the same laws. The result, a document drafted and signed aboard the ship by nearly all of the adult male passengers, would become known as the Mayflower Compact.

While they intended to form a government for their new colony, the Pilgrims and others aboard the Mayflower were not declaring their independence: The Mayflower Compact (though

the Pilgrims never called it that) began with a clear statement of loyalty to King James of England, along with a commitment to God and to Christianity.

In settling the first colony in the “Northern parts of Virginia,” the document continued, the Pilgrims and the other Mayflower passengers would “covenant and combine our selves together into a civil body politick.” As part of this united body, they pledged to make and abide by the same “laws, ordinances, Acts, constitutions, and offices” in order to further “the general good of the Colony: unto which we promise all due submission and obedience.”

In its form and content, the Mayflower Compact echoed that of earlier covenants that Separatist Christian groups had drawn up when they established their churches in England and Holland, to bind them to each other as well as to God.

The agreement also drew on the secular tradition of the social contract, the idea of covenants between men themselves, which went back to ancient times, but would later be made more famous by philosophers like Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau.

According to a list printed by Bradford’s nephew, Nathaniel Morton, in his 1669 pamphlet *New England’s Memorial*, 41 of the adult male passengers on the Mayflower signed the agreement, including two of the indentured servants aboard. Soon after signing it, they elected John Carver as the first governor of the new colony, which they called Plymouth Plantation.

While 400 years earlier, the Magna Carta had established the idea of the rule of law, this had previously meant the king’s law. In the Mayflower Compact, the Pilgrims and strangers were

pledging their loyalty to laws they would make themselves. As historian Rebecca Fraser wrote in her book *The Mayflower: The Families, the Voyage and the Founding of America*: “Plymouth Colony was the first experiment in consensual government in Western history between individuals with one another, and not with a monarch.”

The signatures of colonists who crossed the Atlantic on the *Mayflower*, on the *Mayflower Compact*, the first constitution written in America. Included are William Brewster, William Bradford, Myles Standish and Edward Winslow.

The *Mayflower Compact* was clearly a religious document, in that it held that the people derived their right of self-government from God. But it did not mention a specific church, or method of worship, leaving it open for acceptance by both the Separatist Pilgrims, and the “strangers,” many of whom remained loyal to the Church of England.

Finally, as the first written constitution in the New World, the *Mayflower Compact* laid the foundations for two other revolutionary documents: the Declaration of Independence, which stated that governments derive their powers “from the consent of the governed,” and the Constitution.

In 1802, speaking at Plymouth, the future president John Quincy Adams underscored the lasting importance of the agreement signed aboard the *Mayflower* more than 180 years earlier, calling it “perhaps the only instance, in human history, of that positive, original social compact, which speculative philosophers have imagined as the only legitimate source of government.”

(By Sarah Pruitt)

Comprehension Check

I. Answer the questions to the given text:

1. When did the Pilgrims come to the new world?
2. Why did they escape from their native land?
3. Why the Pilgrims want to draw up an agreement?
4. What did the first line of the Mayflower Compact state?
5. What was stated in the given Compact?
6. How did the Mayflower Compact influence the other revolutionary documents?

II. Match the word with the suitable meaning.

- | | |
|---------------|---|
| 1. Pilgrim | a) a long journey, especially by sea or in space; |
| 2. Agreement | b) an arrangement, a promise or a contract made with somebody; |
| 3. Colony | c) a member of the group of English people who sailed to America on the ship The Mayflower in 1620 and started a colony in Massachusetts; |
| 4. Commitment | d) a person who is the official head of a country or region that is governed by another country; |
| 5. Loyalty | e) the quality of being faithful in your support of somebody/something; |
| 6. Governor | 7. a promise to do something or to behave in a particular way; a promise to support somebody/something; the fact of committing yourself; |

Voyage

f) a country or an area that is governed by people from another, more powerful, country.

methodological approaches to examine the process, systems, and political dynamics of all countries and regions of the world. Political science is an excellent major for students interested in learning how groups of people govern themselves, how policies are made, and how we can improve our government policies at the local, state, national, and international levels. A political science major prepares students for jobs in many fields, from business to law to research.

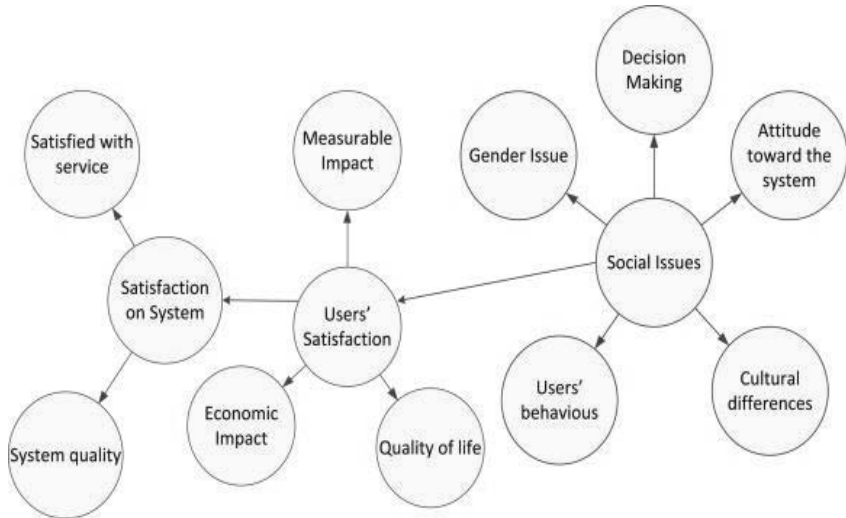
Political science majors acquire skills in writing, communications, and analysis that are critical to a liberal arts education. Such an education prepares students to think independently, with tolerance for others and concern for current affairs. Today, students can reasonably expect to change jobs and even to have more than one career. An undergraduate education in the liberal arts and sciences is excellent preparation for flexibility in employment. Political science majors qualify for many different careers in private and public sector organizations, including careers in business, law, local and federal government, journalism, international organizations and finance, political campaigns, interest groups and associations, and teaching. Political science training also provides valuable preparation for participating in community organizations, electoral politics, movements on behalf of specific policies, or even seeking elected or appointed positions in government. Political science helps students to develop reasoning and analytic skills and build competence in oral and written expression, skills that are valued in a wide spectrum of potential career areas.

(From "What is Political Science")

III. Outline your ideas by filling in the chart.

Topic and background information		
<hr/> <hr/>		
First heading and details	Second heading and details	Third heading and details
<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>

Write the first draft of your report in your notebook. Include a title, complete introduction, headings, enough information, organize your ideas, include an illustration and caption, read and revise.



Text 6

The Social Dimension of Reasoning

Our individual reasoning has evolved to serve collective action. Individually, human reasoning capacity is limited and subject to confirmation bias and motivated reasoning. Thinking collectively can overcome individual bias and significantly improve the quality of outcome but only if collaborative processes are carefully designed.

The theory of argumentative reasoning, explains that the function of reasoning and people's ability to argue convincingly are a social competence that benefit the community. An experiment showed that when asked to perform a selection of logical tasks, individuals achieved success rates of 10-20 % while small groups reached much higher rates of 70-80 %. Other experiments have demonstrated that individuals are systematically subject to 'the illusion of knowledge'. People systematically overestimate their understanding of concepts (e.g.

the workings of a bicycle) and only realise how limited their own knowledge is when challenged to provide a more detailed explanation.

People also systematically and incorrectly assume they know what others in their community know. However, a well-organised community can overcome this bias, highlighting the need to build effective *communities of knowledge*, within which reasoning tasks are shared among members.

Most political issues are complex, poorly structured and have to be addressed while coping with uncertainty, ambiguity, incomplete information and time constraints. Policymaking therefore is to a large extent driven by collective processes. However this does not inevitably lead to better decisions as groups do not necessarily collaborate effectively. Like individuals, groups are subject to biases. Knowledge, techniques and skills can help to mitigate these effects.

Apart from goal and incentive misalignments, time pressure, the tendency towards intergroup-discrimination and in-group favouritism, collective processes are also often subject to group biases and judgement errors leading to poor decisions. Unequal distribution of key information among group members and the failure to value expertise are very common in groups and reduce decision quality, since unshared information and unacknowledged expertise might provide support for alternative decisions. Only if all critical information, unique knowledge and expertise is shared across the group can the potential of the *wisdom of the crowd* be realised. Group members tend to share or withhold information strategically (e.g. due to conformity pressures or fear of rejection), focusing on information consistent with their values and see information supporting their

own position as more valid, particularly in competitive situations.

Policymaking poses particular challenges to collective intelligence because of the need to identify trade-offs between different competing values, interests and policy-options. This can accentuate the tendency to share or withhold information strategically to achieve policy goals and to focus on goal-consistent information.

Information shared at the beginning of the deliberative process and subsequently repeated is more salient and perceived as more credible. As a result, if no-one within a group is at least able to reach an accurate understanding of the problem, a wrong but convincingly communicated position can prevail.

Groups can also produce poor decisions through *groupthink*, when members privilege group harmony over the independence of thought and effective decision-making. Homogeneity within groups is when members share similar socio-demographic backgrounds, past experience and worldviews. This increases group cohesion, but facilitates the creation of echo chambers and the premature termination of discussions. On an individual level, group pressure and the desire to belong, may lead people to support the majority opinion despite better judgement. Groupthink can also occur due to the tendency to select 'like-minded' persons when hiring or setting up project teams. The result is low diversity in terms of perspective and reasoning that can lead to lower overall team performance. Reasoning styles are different from other types of diversity in that being internal, they are not directly visible and hard to identify. As a consequence, groups that are subject to groupthink are unlikely to reach optimal decisions. This has been the subject of

numerous studies, in particular on high profile policy failures such as the Bay of Pigs Invasion, the Vietnam War, as well as the space shuttle Challenger and Columbia accidents.

Group polarisation is the inclination to make more extreme (either riskier or more conservative) decisions than initial preferences would seem to suggest. This effect has been found in many high profile-situations ranging from economic and monetary policy committees to courts of law. Competing theories exist about this phenomenon. The surfacing of unshared information during the discussion process fuels this effect. Other research claims that informational factors such as social influences or a patchy, incomplete set of arguments are the underlying mechanisms of group polarisation. Convincingly presented arguments, which support initial inclinations and emerging group consensus seem to suppress new items of information.

Stress can also have a negative impact on the quality of group deliberations, just as it does for individual decision-making, by inducing a switch from reasoned deliberation to automatic intuition. Additionally, time pressure and the perception of one's task to be of low importance or not readily solvable can negatively affect decision quality.

This knowledge about what can go wrong when thinking in groups has helped identify the circumstances under which collective intelligence operates at its best.

(From "Understanding Our Political Nature. How to Put Knowledge and Reason at the Heart of Political Decision-Making" by Laura Smillie)

Comprehension Check

I. Answer these questions.

1. What is individual reasoning?

2. What does theory of argumentative reasoning explain?
3. What is policymaking?
4. What is group polarization?
5. Can stress have a negative impact on the quality of group deliberations?

II. Unscramble the adjectives. Write each one next to a certain term.

1. linvidduia

2. miornaatinfol

3. cheo

4. gvilprie

5. tebetr

6. berdeteliaiv

7. upgro

8. wlo

9. tioplma

10. amte

11. oosci-rapmodeghic

12. jormaity

13. remapretu

14. mtie

a _____ reasoning

b _____ factors

c _____ chambers

d _____ group

e _____ judgement

f _____ process
g _____ polarization
h _____ importance
i _____ decisions
j _____ performance
k _____ backgrounds
l _____ opinion
m _____ termination
n _____ pressure



Text 7

Harnessing the Wisdom of Citizens

These ideas can be applied not only within government but also externally, potentially involving thousands of citizens, through the Internet. Practical solutions such as deliberative systems like vTaiwan and the MIT Deliberatorium exist. One rationale for the use of such deliberative spaces is identifying and drawing on the (external) expertise of potentially very large crowds to improve prediction accuracy. Deliberative platforms are also being explored to improve the quality of online-debate on potentially controversial, complex topics by using argument-mapping software and moderation systems.

Collective intelligence approaches in government promise to improve the performance of teams and improve policymaking. Research on what drives collective intelligence confirms the importance of policymaking as a collective rather than an

individual activity. In practice this is already largely the case, with a proliferation of committees, working groups, task forces and meetings at the heart of policymaking. However, the research shows that collective processes do not succeed automatically but require precise and careful design, training and the development of skills to avoid polarisation, group-think or poor decisions.

There is no scientific agreement on the optimal team structure for a working group. However, a diversity of reasoning styles, socio-demographic backgrounds, socially perceptive individuals (women are on average more socially perceptive) and a range of views regarding the subject seems to provide the most fertile ground for the cultivation of collective intelligence.

While aligning goals and encouraging information sharing are essential to enhancing collective intelligence, research suggests that longer-term strategies also need to change. Hiring and staffing procedures, project-team composition, team-performance measurement and monitoring as well as professional development could be addressed.

In addition to team structure, the process of day to day collaboration deserves careful attention. Policymakers could consider using and integrating the following techniques.

Clearly structuring a group's task, e.g. by providing all relevant documents in good time before a meeting, enables members to deliberate more knowledgeably. Conceptual tasks, according to some evidence, benefit from a high degree of self-leadership, but the optimal degree of inter-dependence between group members will be highly context specific.

There is growing empirical support that the use of methods to structure collaborative projects (e.g. soft systems

methodology (SSM), strategic choice approach (SCA), cognitive Maps etc.) adds value, by supporting the creation of an objective and shared understanding of the underlying problem. Nevertheless, concerns over the effectiveness of different methods remain.

Governments can apply deliberative software that visualises and maps arguments to more objectively synthesise information. This approach enables a more comprehensive exploration of potential policy solutions. Computer-aided argument mapping (CAAM), software such as *Rationale* or *pol.is* visualises and explicitly infers relationships between arguments. The use of such software as a tool for collaborative processes has great potential.

Creating an environment of psychological safety is essential for the sharing of critical information, ideas, questions and dissenting opinions. Psychological safety has been defined as a ‘shared belief held by members of a team that the team is safe for interpersonal risk-taking in a climate of trust, care and mutual respect for competence.’ Research supports a significant link between psychological safety, team learning and team performance. In the absence of psychological safe zones, people tend to refrain from sharing tacit information, asking for help, admitting a mistake or revising beliefs when afraid to lose face or appear incompetent. It seems reasonable to expect a positive impact on a team’s overall collective performance when team members share a feeling of psychological safety and are willing to take interpersonal-risk and responsibility. This might also neutralise some group biases if information can be shared without fear of embarrassment, rejection or punishment. While relatively little research has been conducted about how best to

create such safe environments in government, results from participatory leadership and mindfulness techniques suggest that these are promising practices.

Participatory leadership is a collective intelligence technique that enables group members to prioritise and perform leadership tasks for the collective according to agreed group rules and norms. Participatory leadership can yield better decisions when group members contribute different sources of knowledge and/or expertise and are considered competent in their respective domain(s) via better information sharing. This is consistent with the importance of perspective diversity and independence of thought. A recent study also supports a positive link between participatory leadership and the emergence of collective intelligence, which can lead to higher decision quality.

Uncovering and clearly communicating relevant knowledge and the extent of team members' individual expertise, as well as explicitly assigning roles accordingly, can enhance group-performance.

Working effectively in an interdisciplinary environment, without shared theories, methodologies, assumptions or taxonomies is a difficult task. Expert teams are often poorly prepared for such collaboration as their thinking and knowledge structures are domain-specific. Making thought processes and assumptions explicit can help to shape a more accurate and comprehensive understanding of an underlying policy issue. Reaching informed consensus on the policy problem before weighing solutions would serve the development of political consensus and improve decision-making.

Group leaders can be trained, incentivised and evaluated based on group performance. Impact can be measured for: disseminating decision-relevant information, keeping people engaged in the discussion, moderating to ensure equal turn taking and the cultivation of group norms (psychological safety, civility, accountability).

Groups can deliberately, formally or informally establish dissent, whereby a minority is regularly challenging the majority. Evidence shows that pre-discussion dissent among group members increases decision quality, through greater discussion intensity on a wider spectrum of knowledge. This is because people tend to withhold diverging and/or potentially controversial opinions. Crucially however, a maximum range of dissenting options has to be expressed for a meaningful pre-discussion to take place. This will increase the probability that the optimal solution is considered. Again, a wide spectrum of initial perspectives benefits the outcome.

Similarly, so-called *What if?* thinking, which assumes that the emerging course of action will fail in order to imagine potential causes and alternative paths, can be helpful. Counterfactual thinking can improve the dissemination of information and the quality of decisions made.

Creating scenarios using foresight techniques can help policymakers reason, anticipate and develop a better understanding of complex policy issues as well as the paths that lead to different plausible scenarios by embedding them into a social context. Research has shown that this approach can have a significant de-biasing effect as long as the scenario planning process is thoroughly executed.

Teams can systematically challenge their majority opinion through the *Devil's Advocate* method to deliberately establish dissent. Experimental research has found that the Devil's Advocate can effectively reduce tendencies to stick to failing courses of action and conformity pressures. This requires an environment of psychological safety for the Devil's Advocate.

A similar instrument is *Red Teaming*, where distinct teams are tasked to identify shortcomings by applying a mix of critical and creative thinking techniques. An alternative to this is Collaborative Red Teams, which operate within the same team to consider multiple alternative perspectives. This idea is supported by evidence that people are more willing to accept criticism from within their own group.

(From "Understanding Our Political Nature. How to Put Knowledge and Reason at the Heart of Political Decision-Making" by Laura Smillie)

Comprehension Check

I. Re-read the article again to monitor and clarify your understanding. When you read, think about the author's purpose. What does she want you to learn?

II. Answer the questions. Use synonyms for the underlined words.

1. What do you know about developing groups into intelligent and effective teams?

2. What are the main tried and tested strategies to improve team collaboration and performance?

3. Are there tried and tested strategies to improve decisions?
What are they?

III. Fill in the blanks.

careful

harnessing

platforms

precise

promise

controversial

policymaking

collective

performance

Internet

succeed

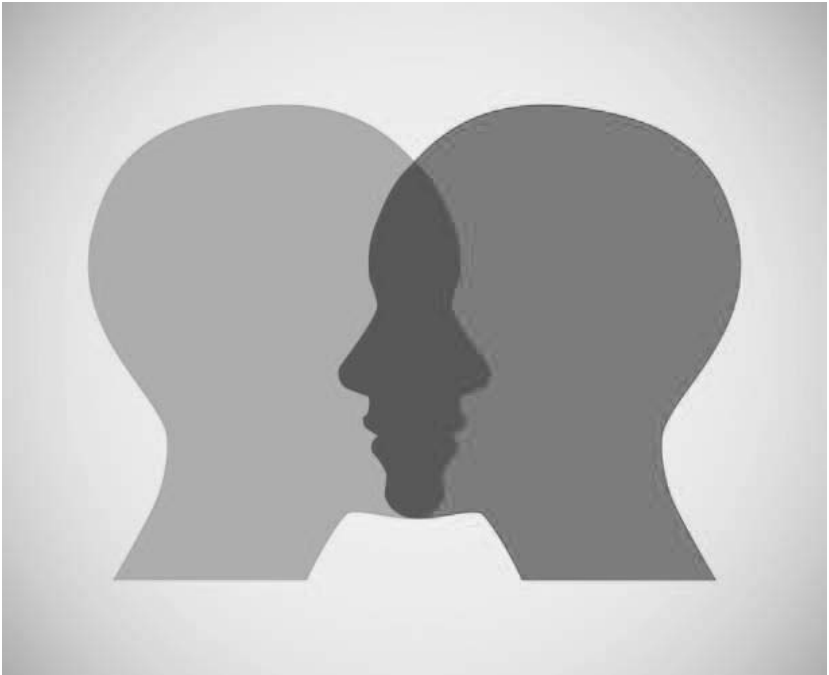
online-debate

1. Ideas of ... the wisdom of citizens can be applied not only within government but also through the

2. Deliberative ... are also being explored to improve the quality of ... on potentially ... , complex topics.

3. ... intelligence approaches in government ... to improve the ... of teams for improving

4. The research shows that collective processes do not ... but require ... and ... design.



Text 8

Direct Emotional Influence on Political and Moral Reasoning

Emotional states exert powerful influences on our judgements and may distort them in an undesirable way. However, as powerful short-cuts, they allow rapid decisions on matters of complexity that would otherwise exceed the capacity of our reasoning. Our reliance on emotions and physical sensations seems to increase as the surrounding environment becomes more complex, but also in risk-related decisions or contexts with high uncertainty. The use of sensations as information may be much more frequent than is often assumed, as they can influence a wide variety of judgements, including risk estimates and attitudes toward political issues: immediate

emotional responses to bodily states are instinctive and have a vital role to play in decision-making.

Additionally, new areas of research are attempting to show that individual differences of sensitivity to physical sensations may influence political attitudes and moral judgements. Research on individual differences in sensing ‘disgust’, a powerful basic emotion essential for survival, and political preferences illustrates this argument.

Emerging evidence on the role of disgust suggests that not only ‘momentary experience of disgust shift judgments in a politically conservative direction’ but also disgust sensitivity is associated with more stable moral and political attitudes. Disgust sensitivity seems to be connected to moral judgements and to broader political orientations, such as conservatism. People with high disgust sensitivity show more tolerance to inequality, score higher on authoritarianism, and show decreased liking of ethnic, low status or deviant groups. Furthermore, they often endorse stricter regulation across a wide range of political issues that belong to ‘purity policies’ focusing on maintaining health. For example, they are more likely to support organic foods and oppose genetically modified foods, support restrictions on cigarettes, and object to child vaccinations.

From an evolutionary point of view, disgust is a universal alarm system that motivates the avoidance of potential toxins. Since it is a protective emotion working outside conscious awareness, it is extremely difficult to override.

Immediate physiological responses that involve emotional reactions, like stress can affect a broad range of social, reasoning, and physiological functions. Exposure to stress limits working memory and impairs reasoning abilities. In addition

there is evidence that greater cumulative life stress may impact reasoning. Although the relationship between stress and performance might not be linear, too much or too little stress is often detrimental to reasoning. Stress levels above the optimal, e.g. in the context of perceived threats or when pushed to decide rapidly, may dramatically change decision-making strategies. Stress can make people switch from flexible reasoned deliberation and analytical reasoning to more intuitive processes to reach decisions. Such decision-making will naturally involve less conscious reasoning and may trigger emotional and affiliative preferences in some circumstances. The finding that this modulating effect of stress is not limited to one particular domain suggests that stress generally favours habitual over reasoned learning and memory. Also, individuals when stressed tend to be less likely to adjust their initial ruling, relying more on gut feelings in social situations and less on utilitarian judgements. Although evidence is growing in this emerging field of study, the specific effects of stress on individual judgement and decision-making in different contexts are unclear.

(From "Understanding Our Political Nature. How to Put Knowledge and Reason at the Heart of Political Decision-Making" by Laura Smillie)

Comprehension Check

I. Fill in the chart. What emotions can have direct influence on political and moral reasoning? Make sure to use full sentences. Use examples from the text.

Emotions	Direct Influence

II. Re-read the article to monitor your understanding. What are the initial unconscious and emotion-laden processing of information that shape all subsequent phases of thinking?

III. Fill in the letters.

em_rg_ng ev_d_nce
_ome_tary expe_ienc_
__ysiological respon_e
cons_rvative direc_ion
disg_st shi__judgm_nts
st_ble mor_l
_motion_l reac_ion
politic_l a__itudes
w__king m_mory
r__soning _b_lity
stre__lev_l
p_litic_l or__ntation
decr__sed l_king
l_w stat_s
dev__nt gr__p
stri_ter reg_lation
pol_t_cal i__ue
m__nt__ning h__lth
org_nic f__ds

g_n_tically mod_fied f__ds
su__ort r_str_ction
ch_ld va__ination

IV. Look for details about stress. Does stress impair reasoning and favour intuition? Write the phrases that give details on this information.



Text 9

Twenty First Century and Its Challenges

How can we best understand the political convulsions that confront the globe's more than six billion people almost daily? How can we anticipate their future significance? And how can we understand which factor and forces most influence the world's future? At the beginning of the twenty-first century, we have been engulfed in futurist talk. We have been forced to use unfamiliar language – “new century”, “new millennium”, “new world” – and to speculate what will the new world be like, will it be different or will the patterns of the past endure?

Every historical period is marked to some extent by change. Now, however, the pace of change seems more rapid and its consequences more profound than ever. To many observers, the cascade of events at the start of the 21st century implies a revolutionary restructuring of world politics. The countries of the world are drawing closer together in communications, ideas

and trade, as the integration of national economies has produced a globalized market, forming interdependent bonds among countries and cultures. Globalization is changing the way the world works. Likewise, disintegrative trends are shaking the globe and restructuring the way it operates. The proliferation of conventional and unconventional weapons, global environmental deterioration, and the resurgence of nationalism and ethnic conflict all portend a restructuring marked by disorder. The opposing forces of integration and disintegration point toward a transformation in world politics as extensive and important as the system-disrupting convulsion following World Wars I and II and the Cold War between the United States and the former Soviet Union and their allies.

Despite all that appears radically different since the 9/11 terrorist attacks, much also remains the same in world politics. In fact, as political journalist Robert J. Samuelson noted on the first anniversary of 9/11, “What is most striking about the past year is how little has changed... What no one can know is whether September 11 marked the beginning of the end for global terrorism or whether these theoretical threats will someday materialize. We are swamped with hypotheticals. Whether September 11 becomes a defining moment in history, or just an isolated tragedy depends on how all the hypotheticals turn out.”

How can we determine when an existing pattern of relationships gives way to a completely new international system? Following Stanley Hoffmann (1961), we will proceed by assuming that we have a new international system when we have a new answer to one of three questions: (1) What are the system’s basic units? (e.g. states or supranational institutions for

global governance); (2) What are the predominant foreign policy goals that these units seek with respect to one another? (e.g. territorial conquest or material gain through trade); and (3) What can these units do to one another with their military and economic capabilities?

These criteria might lead us to conclude that a new system has now emerged. First, new trade partnerships have been forged in Europe, the one of South America, North America and the Pacific Rim, and these trading blocks may behave as unitary or independent, nonstate actors as they compete with one another. Moreover, international organizations, such as the World Trade Organization and the European Union now sometimes flex their political muscles in contests with individual states and transnational religious movements, such as Islamic fundamentalism, challenge the global system itself – a system that international law still defines as composed primarily of states consisting of various nationality groups who perceive themselves as unified by a common language, culture or ethnic identity. At the same time, some states have disintegrated into smaller units.

Second, territorial conquest is no longer the predominant goal of most states' foreign policies. Instead, their emphasis has shifted from traditional military methods of exercising influence to economic means.

Third, the proliferation of weapons technology has profoundly altered the damage that states can inflict on one another. Great powers alone no longer control the world's most lethal weapons. Increasingly, however, the great powers' prosperity depends on economic circumstances throughout the globe.

(From C. W. Kegley Jr. and E. R. Wittkopf, World Politics)

Comprehension Check

I. Answer the questions. Use full sentences.

1. Do you agree with the statement that “the cascade of events at the start of the 21st century implies a revolutionary restructuring of world politics”?

2. In what ways have the countries of the world become closer?

3. How would you define the globalization process?

4. Do you agree with the claim that September 11 marked the beginning of the end for global terrorism?

5. Do you agree that a new system has emerged and, if so, what are its three main characteristics?

II. Describe and discuss the information that can't be true, information that must be true, and information that might be true.

III. Find in the text and add the following meanings of the words.

- a violent social or natural upheaval _____
 - be aware of a future event and take action _____
 - completely surround or cover _____
 - remain in existence _____
 - a force or feeling that unites people _____
 - be a sign or warning _____
 - overwhelm with too much of something _____
 - a large number of something _____
 - progressive worsening _____
 - increase or revival after a period of little activity, popularity or occurrence _____
 - carry on, continue; begin a course of action _____
-
- accept as true without proof _____
 - produce or create _____
 - become aware of; regard as _____
 - contract or tense (a muscle) _____

cause something unpleasant or painful to be suffered by
someone else _____

sufficient to cause death _____

the action of taking control by military force _____



Text 10

Political System of Ukraine

Ukraine is a unitary, sovereign and independent, democratic, social and legal state, a parliamentary-presidential republic. The people are the bearer of sovereignty and the only source of power in Ukraine.

The people exercise power directly and through state authorities and local self-government bodies. The power in Ukraine is carried out according to the principle of its division into legislative, executive and judicial.

The executive power in the country belongs to the Cabinet of Ministers, and the legislative power – to the parliament (the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine). The supreme body of the judiciary in Ukraine is the Supreme Court of Ukraine.



the legislative power which is represented by the Supreme (Verkhovna) Rada



the executive power, headed by the President



judicial power which is led by the Supreme Court

The President of Ukraine can influence the work of all three branches of power. According to the Constitution of Ukraine, the President must stop any of their actions that violate the Constitution.

Shortly after the proclamation of Ukraine's independence, as a result of the 1991 referendum, a parliamentary commission was organized in Ukraine to draft a new constitution.

June 28, 1996, with the adoption of the new democratic constitution, a multi-party political system (pluralism) and the legally declared fundamental rights and freedoms of citizens of Ukraine, as well as the rights of national minorities of the country, were introduced.

Various ethnic groups of Ukraine are guaranteed the right to receive education in their native language, to develop cultural

life, and to use national languages in everyday life. According to the Constitution, the state language of the country is Ukrainian.

The Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine is the only legislative body of state power in Ukraine, which has a collegiate structure and consists of 450 people's deputies of Ukraine elected for a period of 5 years on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

The Verkhovna Rada is the only legislative body authorized to pass laws in Ukraine. The powers of the Verkhovna Rada are realized by joint activity of people's deputies of Ukraine at the sessions of the Verkhovna Rada. The Verkhovna Rada ratifies international agreements and approves the budget.

The powers of people's deputies of Ukraine are determined by the Constitution and laws of Ukraine. People's deputies of Ukraine can voluntarily unite in factions, provided that each of them includes at least 15 deputies.

The President of Ukraine is elected by popular vote for a five-year term. On the proposal of the President, the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine appoints the Prime Minister of Ukraine, other members of the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine.

The President of Ukraine is the guarantor of state sovereignty, territorial integrity of Ukraine, observance of the Constitution of Ukraine, human and citizen rights and freedoms.

The Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine is the supreme body of executive power of Ukraine. It is responsible to the President of Ukraine and the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, is under the control and accountable to the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine within the limits provided by the Constitution of Ukraine.

(From "Ukraine Ultimate Travel Guide")

Comprehension Check

I. Make an overview in Ukrainian Political System.

Answer the questions.

1. How does the writer start the article?
2. What kind of information does the writer include in the speech?
3. How does the writer organize the article?

II. Write an opinion essay on the topic “Constitution of Ukraine”. Label the part of your essay. Write your ideas in the word web below.

Detail _____ _____ _____	Topic Idea _____ _____ _____	Detail _____ _____ _____
Detail _____ _____ _____		Detail _____ _____ _____

III. Outline your ideas in “Constitution of Ukraine” by filling in the chart.

Opinion:
Reasons:
Conclusion:

IV. Make a short summary on the topics “Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine” and “Executive Power in Ukraine”.

UNIT 5

Extracurricula Work for

Students Majoring in

Archeology



Text 1

The History of Archaeology

Today archaeology is a precise science. Archaeologists' tools include radioactive carbon dating and geophysical prospecting. The discipline is strongly influenced and even driven by humanities like history and art history. However, it is, at heart, intensely methodical and technical. But archaeology hasn't always been precise. In fact, it hasn't always been a science.

Archaeology originated in 15th and 16th century Europe with the popularity of collecting and Humanism, a type of rational philosophy that held art in high esteem. The inquisitive elite of the Renaissance collected antiquities from ancient Greece and Rome, considering them pieces of art more than historical artifacts.

It's easy to imagine the archaeologist in the field – a modern-day adventurer discovering the mysteries of the past before whisking off to a new, even more fascinating site. The archaeological process, however, begins long before the spade hits the dirt. Every excavation involves years of study, scouting and planning.

Some archaeologists consider fieldwork the entire outdoor archaeological process, from scouting to digging. Others consider fieldwork the pre-dig activity and differentiate it from actual excavation. This preliminary work includes everything from consulting aerial photographs, old maps and physical references in literature, or even using high-tech methods like geophysical prospecting, a technique that measures electrical conductivity in soil.

Through research and interpretation, archaeologists transform material remains with unknown meaning into items of historical significance. They piece together lost civilizations, solve ancient medical mysteries and find out how we got to where we are today. But their work hinges on accuracy – a disrupted site is less likely to hold verifiable clues. And while non-archaeologists sometimes make important accidental discoveries, amateur archaeologists and looters often destroy, displace or steal what has been miraculously preserved for years.

To prevent or at least curtail such destruction, many countries have antiquities laws. In the United States, the Antiquities Act prohibits the excavation or destruction of any archaeological materials on government land. The act has been in place since 1906 – right around the time archaeology became a recognized academic subject.

**Comprehension
Check**



I. Check your understanding.

1. What do you know about archaeologists' tools?
2. Has archaeology always been precise science?
3. Who collected antiquities from ancient Greece and Rome?
4. What does preliminary work include?
5. How countries can prevent or at least curtail destruction?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. Archaeology is strongly influenced and even driven by humanities like literature and philosophy.
2. Archaeology originated in 15th and 16th century Europe with the popularity of collecting and democratic criticism.
3. Some archaeologists consider fieldwork the entire outdoor archaeological process, from scouting to digging.
4. The archaeological process begins long before the spade hits the dirt.
5. Archaeologists transform material remains with unknown meaning into items of historical significance.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Art history a) a tool with a sharp-edged, typically rectangular, metal blade and a long handle, used for digging or cutting earth, sand, turf, etc.
2. Antiquity b) someone who takes a lot of money away from.
3. Artifact c) the ancient past, especially the period before the Middle Ages.
4. Spade d) the action of removing earth that is covering very old objects buried in the ground in order to discover things about the past.
5. Excavation e) someone who studies the buildings, graves, tools, and other objects of people who lived in the past.
6. Archaeologist f) the action or process of causing so much damage to something that it no longer exists or cannot be repaired.
7. Looter g) the academic study of the history and development of painting, sculpture, and the other visual arts.
8. Destruction h) an object made by a human being, typically an item of cultural or historical interest.



Text 2

Marine Archaeology

It is not just the land that reveals hidden secrets of past times but the sea offers wonderfully preserved treasures. For the archaeologist on land, the main dangers come from land developers. The marine archaeologist, however, must beware of the sea as they try to preserve shipwrecks from the pounding waves. Each fragile wreck is a unique time capsule of our past: encrusted cannons, ancient wine bottles and other historical treasures. Treasures that the sea is loath to give up. This is the story of underwater archaeology.

Those involved in a shipwreck may lose everything in the catastrophe, including perhaps their lives. But the remains of sunken vessels and their contents, even if broken up and scattered, provide future generations with unique windows into

the past. Each site represents a moment frozen in time, and every item recovered from it is part of a vast three-dimensional archaeological jigsaw. Archaeologists know they can never complete it, but by analysing the evidence they find, and fitting it into the jigsaw's framework, they come ever closer to their goal of constructing a true picture of the ship before it became a wreck. Each has a special story to tell, and is therefore a fragile and irreplaceable microcosm of its times.

Diving on sunken ships has happened throughout history. Alexander the Great is reputed to have gone down in a diving bell, while Roman *urinatores* (free divers) apparently salvaged cargo from a wreck 20m deep off the south of France.

The aqualung opened the underwater world to diving adventurers like Hans Hass and Jacques Cousteau in the 1940s. Although many ancient wrecks were found, little thought was given to their archaeological significance. It was not until 1960 that a young archaeologist, George Bass, teamed up with explorer Peter Throckmorton to investigate a Bronze Age shipwreck at Cape Gelidonya in Turkey. Bass learned to dive and showed that archaeology could be done underwater to the same standards as on land. Bass's team is now excavating a Bronze Age shipwreck of the 14th century BC at Uluburun off Turkey. Since then techniques have been refined, but the principles remain unchanged. Many classical wrecks have been investigated in the Mediterranean, such as the Roman wine carrier with 6000 amphoras off Madrague de Giens near Marseilles.

Underwater archaeologists working around the British Isles have investigated several wrecks of the Spanish Armada, such as the Girona off Antrim and La Trinidad Valencera off

Donegal. The biggest project has been the excavation and raising of Henry VIII's battleship, Mary Rose which sank in the Solent in 1545. The largely intact hull of the Dutch East Indiaman 'Amsterdam' was found off the English town of Hastings. The boat had been swallowed into the sand when she had beached there in 1748. The wreck has been the focus of investigations for 30 years now. Current projects include the Swan, a small Cromwellian warship, which was lost off the west of Scotland in 1653.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. Name the main dangers for the archaeologist on land.
2. Why is it difficult to be a marine archaeologist?
3. What is a unique time capsule of our past?
4. What did open the underwater world to diving?
5. Who learned to dive and showed that archaeology could be done underwater to the same standards as on land?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. Each fragile wreck is a unique time capsule of our past.
2. Each site represents a moment frozen in time, and every item recovered from it is part of a vast three-dimensional archaeological jigsaw.
3. Diving on sunken ships has happened throughout history.



Text 3

Excavating Human Remains

The British Isles are really one huge cemetery. Think how many generations have lived, died and been buried over the time that our islands have been permanently inhabited. Many of these people lie in places that we can recognise, in churchyards and cemeteries, or under prehistoric burial mounds, but many more lie unrecognised, in places that were special to those who buried them, but have now faded from memory. Many of these burials are rediscovered and excavated each year, either because sites need to be developed for roads, housing or quarries, or for research purposes, to help in our understanding of the past. In either case, the excavations are carried out by trained archaeologists, the remains treated with great respect, and the results of both excavation and scientific analysis made available through publications and museums.

Coming across human remains may often be the most exciting part of a dig, but in many ways the most important (and time-consuming) part of the whole process is what happens after the excavation is over. This is the 'detective story', where the bones and other finds from the site are analysed to provide the clues that we need to build a picture of a person and their surroundings. The skeleton itself will provide the first clues. The question of whether the person is male or female can usually be answered by examining the pelvis and skull. Height can be calculated from the length of the femur (thigh bone) and age from teeth and other aspects of the skeleton's growth and degeneration.

Injuries and diseases sometimes leave traces on the bones although the actual cause of death is often the most difficult to determine. Many injuries don't damage bone, their effect is just within the overlying soft tissue. Likewise many infections, without the aid of modern medicines, would have proved rapidly fatal, too swift to allow bones to develop tell tale signs and changes.

Radiocarbon dating, the analysis of ancient DNA and of isotopes locked into bones and teeth are all part of the



scientific armoury that can be used to help build up a picture of our ancestors. Used together these techniques can tell us when a person died, their diet and family relationships and even their place of birth and subsequent travels.

Where the bones themselves allow it, facial reconstruction techniques can be used to allow us to come face to face with the past. The techniques used have been developed for forensic work in tracing missing persons through their often fragmentary remains and for surgical reconstruction. Both sculptural and digital images are used to create an image of a person from the past that, although not claimed to be a precise likeness, would most probably have been recognisable to that person's friends or relatives.



The excavation of human remains, of whatever date, from their place of burial, is regulated by law and requires a licence from the Home Office. But even after excavation has taken place there is the question of what happens to the remains. The divide is often between Christian and non-Christian, with Christians more likely to be re-buried while prehistoric burials more often than not end up in museum storage. With museum storage there is the advantage that these remains are available for subsequent study or for the application of new methods of analysis. There is also the consideration that, in the majority of cases, the original place of burial, which may have been of great significance to the person buried there, has been destroyed by development.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. Are the British Isles really one huge cemetery?
2. Why do many of burials need to be developed?
3. What does happen after the excavation is over?
4. Why is it difficult to determine the actual cause of death?
5. What can be used to help build up a picture of our ancestors?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. Many of the burials are rediscovered and excavated each year.
2. The excavations are carried out by looters, the remains treated with great respect.
3. Height can be calculated from the length of the femur and age from teeth and other aspects of the skeleton's growth and degeneration.
4. Both sculptural and digital images are used to create an image of a person from the past.
5. The excavation of human remains from their place of burial, is not regulated by law but requires a licence from the Home Office.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Cemetery a) a form of an atom that has a different atomic weight from other forms of the same atom but the same chemical structure.
2. Burial mound b) coming after something in time; following.
3. Pelvis c) the bone of the thigh or upper hind limb, articulating at the hip and the knee.
4. Isotope d) the large bony structure near the base of the spine to which the hind limbs or legs are attached in humans and many other vertebrates.
5. Soft tissue e) an area of ground in which dead bodies are buried; a burial ground; a graveyard.
6. Subsequent f) the tissues that connect, support, or surround other structures and organs of the body, not being hard tissue such as bone.
7. Faded g) gradually grow faint and disappear.
8. Femur h) an area of land where dead bodies are buried, especially a long time ago.



Text 4

The Importance of Context

Investigating the area around a find. Archaeology lives and breathes on context. Knowing exactly what comes from where, the soils in which it lies, and the relationships or associations between artefacts, features and other forms of evidence, is critical for interpreting archaeological remains. Understanding an object in relation to other objects...can allow a much more powerful level of interpretation.

An object on its own may tell us quite a lot. For instance, using some of the many scientific techniques available, we might find evidence about the technologies and resources used in its manufacture. Or the form and design of the object, and the way it shows evidence of patterns of wear or repair, might tell us about its function and use. Techniques such as radiocarbon

dating also allow us to work out the age of some artefacts. Yet there may be little point in doing this work, if we know nothing of where the object was found.

By contrast, understanding an object in relation to other objects, and to the deposits in which they are found, can allow a much more powerful level of interpretation. An artefact of one type, for instance, which can be dated, can – if looked at in its proper archaeological context – also help date whole layers and features and other kinds of artefacts, which cannot be dated in any other way.

In the light of this, some archaeologists have advocated a much stronger regulation of metal detecting, but others suggest that the best approach is to foster a responsible approach among the detecting community, through better liaison and education.

Detecting on cultivated land – which is where most detecting takes place – is also beginning to tell us a lot about the vast impact of ploughing on archaeological sites. The discovery of grave goods typical of Anglo-Saxon cemeteries in East Anglia has resulted in the identification of previously unknown sites, and has also indicated the vast scale of attrition of archaeological remains - with many crucial clues lost under the plough in intensively farmed areas.

Increasing anecdotal evidence from detector finds also indicates that the action of fertiliser, and other agricultural chemicals, on cultivated earth is damaging many artefacts – particularly metal ones - buried in the soil.

Reporting and recording are essential for unlocking information from detectorists' finds. In the UK, regulation varies, so that in some parts of the country all finds have to be reported, in other parts, only some.



In Scotland all finders of archaeological artefacts are required by 'Treasure Trove' law to report everything that they find. More recently the law in Northern Ireland has become more stringent, and a licence is now required even to search for archaeological objects.

In England and Wales, however, the law relating to mandatory reporting is comparatively liberal. Under the Treasure Act only a limited range of categories of find have to be reported to a local coroner (although recently the categories of finds that must be reported have been broadened). To help prompt reporting finders and landowners are eligible for a share in a full market-value reward for items declared 'Treasure'.

Comprehension Check

I. Check your understanding.

1. What is critical for interpreting archaeological remains?
2. What can allow a powerful level of interpretation?
3. What is damaging many artefacts (particularly metal ones) buried in the soil?
4. Have some archaeologists advocated a much stronger regulation of metal detecting?
5. What should all finders of archaeological artefacts do in Scotland?

II. Are these sentences true (T) or false (F)?

1. Using some of the many scientific techniques available, we might find evidence about the technologies and resources used in its manufacture.
2. Understanding an object in relation to other objects can allow a much more weaker level of information.
3. Techniques such as radiocarbon dating allow us to work out the age of some artefacts.
4. Detecting on noncultivated land is also beginning to tell us a lot about the vast impact of drying on archaeological sites.
5. Reporting and recording are essential for unlocking information from detectorists' finds.

III. Match the words and their definitions.

1. Evidence a) one or more reasons for believing that something is or is not true.
2. Plough b) a natural or chemical substance that is spread on the land or given to plants, to make plants grow well.
3. Detectorist c) loss of material or resource due to obsolescence or spoilage.
4. Fertiliser d) a place in which evidence of past activity is preserved.
5. Archaeological site e) someone whose hobby is using a metal detector (special machine) to try to find valuable metal objects in the ground.
6. Deposit f) a layer that has formed under the ground, especially over a long period.
7. Attrition g) the action or process of identifying someone or something or the fact of being identified.
8. Identification h) turn up the earth of (an area of land) with a plough, especially before sowing.



Text 5

1,100-Year-Old ‘Beer Hall’ for the Viking Elite Discovered in Scotland

The drinking hall, researchers believe, may have been used by the mighty Norse chief Earl Sigurd, who was a powerful figure during the 12th Century, and his high-ranking officers.

The Vikings are not only known for their prowess in war but also their penchant for drinking – with a particular fondness for beer and mead. The latest archaeology discovery reinforces the latter notion as archaeologists have uncovered a massive Norse hall dating back to 1,100 years ago. Given the structure’s design and location, researchers believe that the Medieval stone structure may have been a drinking hall meant for the leisurely gatherings of the Viking elite.

According to the University of the Highlands and Islands Archaeology Institute website, a team of the school’s researchers, students and local residents have been excavating the site for years before the beer hall was discovered. The team was studying the site as a farming complex to learn more about the era’s dietary habits and its people’s farming and fishing practices.

As the team continued to dig on the site, they soon stumbled on mound walls extending from below the settlement that have been confirmed as part of a large Norse structure. Although only partially excavated, the stone walls appear to stretch more than three feet wide standing at about 18 feet from each other. Stone benches have been unearthed along both sides of the walls.

The Viking beer hall had been located on the coast and oriented straight down toward the sea. In addition to the hall's stone benches, diggers have also come across some smaller items, such as pottery, a bone spindle whorl, and a steatite (a soapstone made from Shetland). They also found parts of a Norse bone comb.

The site at Skail Farmstead in Westness, Rousay – known as the Egypt of the north – is believed to date back to the 10th century and may have been used by the chieftain Earl Sigurd who, according to the history of the islands known as Orkneyinga Saga, was a powerful figure during that era.

“You never know but perhaps Earl Sigurd himself sat on one of the stone benches inside the hall and drank a flagon of ale,” the excavation project's co-director Dan Lee enthused. Skail is a Norse word that translates to “hall” which is why researchers believe that it was a place to mingle among other high-ranking Viking officials. Orkney, the island where the site is located, was once a seat of power in the Norse empire.

The drinking hall structure also holds a resemblance to other Norse halls found in Orkney and other parts around Scotland.

The term “Norse” is typically used to describe medieval Scandinavian peoples, their culture, and language. Over the centuries, Norse men and women set sail from their homelands to venture to far off places, where they would settle into by

raiding and colonizing the new area. The islands in Orkney are believed to have been settled upon during the 8th century though the start of the Viking Age is believed to have kicked off sometime around 793 AD.

The Norse ruled the northern coast of Scotland which includes the Northern Isles of Orkney and Shetland up until the 15th century, spreading their influence throughout the British Isles. The words of Old Norse were spoken on the islands and, to this day, remnants of their settlement can still be found around the archipelago with place names such as Twatt, Kirkwall, and, of course, Skaill.

Due to its rich history, the Skaill Farmstead site had recently been opened to the public for archaeological tours of the ongoing excavation site.

“The discovery of such complex buildings at Skaill, along with the rich artefact assemblages from the medieval and post-medieval periods, provides us with a tantalising opportunity to understand life in Westness over the last few hundred years,” co-director Dan Lee said of the site.

For those who were unable to make it to the islands to witness its historical structures in person, the team created a 3D model that history fans can find online.

(By Natasha Ishak.

Retrieved from <https://www.livescience.com/viking-drinking-hall-scotland.html>)

Comprehension Check

I. Match the word with the suitable meaning.

1. Earl
2. Saga
3. Chieftain

4. Excavation
5. Remnants
6. Settlement
7. Artifact
8. Assemblage

- a) a collection of things; a group of people;
- b) a nobleman of high rank;
- c) the leader of a people or a clan in Scotland;
- d) a part of something that is left after the other parts have been used, removed, destroyed, etc.;
- e) an object that is made by a person, especially something of historical or cultural interest;
- f) a long traditional story about adventures and brave acts, especially one from Norway or Iceland;
- g) a place where people have come to live and make their homes, especially where few or no people lived before;
- h) the activity of digging in the ground to look for old buildings or objects that have been buried for a long time.

II. Answer the following questions based on the text:

1. Who were the Vikings? What do you know about them?
2. What did the archeologists find in Scotland connected with them?
3. Describe the discovered place in details.
4. Who was Earl Sigurd? What was he famous for?
5. Why is the given archeological site associated with Sigurd?

6. What can you tell about the dwelling of Norse men?
7. What is benefit for the human history of the given discovered place?



Text 6

The Secret Art Bunker of Nuremberg

Though more than 1,800 people in Nuremberg, Germany, died in a fiery hailstorm amid one million incendiary bombs and 120 blockbusters dropped on the city by the British Royal Air Force on Jan. 2, 1945, a horde of Nazi-accumulated artwork survived undamaged in a bunker hidden about 78 feet underground. The secret art bunker of Nuremberg, today known as the Historischer Kunstbunker, held the keys to the historic relics of the Nazis' Party Rally city.

The Nazis used a medieval tunnel system underneath Nuremberg's imperial castle to hide the city's ancient treasures, including the Imperial regalia of the Holy Roman Emperor, valuable paintings and even pieces of stained glass windows from local cathedrals. The underground maze had existed since the 14th century—medieval workers used hammers and chisels to carve a labyrinth of tunnels and vaults underneath the castle hill. The naturally cool chambers had been used to store beer and vats of pickled cabbage. The tunnel system runs about four stories deep and spans an estimated total area of six acres—equating to a space of more than six football fields.

By the time war broke out in 1939, Nazi officials had already developed a detailed plan to preserve “cultural treasures” in Nuremberg held sacred by Hitler’s Third Reich. These items included works of art, religious items and artifacts made in Nuremberg, the former seat of the Holy Roman Empire. Described since the 19th century as the “Treasury of the German Empire,” Nuremberg was home to such notable artists as Albrecht Dürer, Hans Sachs and Augustin Hirschvogel. The Nazis found propaganda value in Nuremberg’s history and transformed it into a symbol of the Third Reich during the 1930s. City officials collaborated with Heinrich Himmler and the SS to hide artwork in the bunker. The storage site was designed by Dr. Konrad Fries, head of the city’s Air Raid Protection department, an architect named Dr. Heinz Schmeissner, and Julius Linke, head of the city’s monument preservation department.

The secret tunnel system was completely renovated within six months after the war began. Previously, the tunnels were used to store Nazi Party Rally equipment, including props, lighting, and allegedly a podium used by Hitler. Renovations transformed the tunnels into a state-of-the-art artifact preservation facility with air conditioning, ventilation and moisture-control systems, and modern plumbing. Shock-resistant steel doors were designed to withstand bomb tremors. Guards kept watch in chambers equipped with bunks. The facility contained a wireless communication hub and an escape route with a ladder to the surface. Six main chambers were used to store artwork.

Artwork with cultural significance to the Third Reich was systematically removed during the war from Nuremberg and other German cities – and from conquered territories—and

stored in the bunker. The horde of items packed into the subterranean maze included historic armor and weapons, a globe created by Martin Behaim in 1492, scientific instruments, manuscripts, statues, paintings and drawings. The Nazis removed stained glass windows from Nuremberg's Frauenkirche and St. Lorenz cathedrals and packed them in carefully constructed wooden crates. Afterwards they installed substitute glass in the windows and draped them with long flags to conceal the missing panes from view. Fountains and altarpieces were also stored in the bunker. Artwork was packed into padded boxes as protection from bomb blasts.

The most famous items stored in the bunker were the Imperial treasures, called the "Reichskleinodien," which included the jeweled crown, scepter and orb of the ancient Holy Roman Emperor. The Nazis removed these objects from Austria in 1938. Another high-profile item was a Marian altar created by famed German artisan Veit Stoss, stolen from Krakow cathedral in Poland. According to postwar interviews conducted by the U.S. Army, various Nazi leaders worked together to confiscate and store the items, with Himmler and the S.S. playing a key role. Himmler ordered that the Imperial treasures be kept in copper containers.

Operations at the bunker were kept top secret. Allied bombings in January and February 1945 razed the Nazis' hallowed city to rubble, killing several thousand people and leaving more than 100,000 residents homeless. All artwork in the bunker was totally unscathed. More than 20,000 civilians huddled in a makeshift air raid shelter beneath the city's Paniersplatz Square during Allied attacks, unaware of the art bunker's existence. As Allied troops closed in at the end of

March, Nazi officials frantically relocated the Imperial treasures due to fear of looting.

As houses were leveled, streets blocked with rubble and city residents starved, Nazi extremists launched a crackdown to prevent surrender—and nearly destroyed the art bunker. Fanatical Nazi politician Karl Holz commanded Nuremberg’s defenses. He ordered that anyone caught attempting to flee the city, waving a white flag or failing to report for work duties would be executed. Using city loudspeakers to spread terror, Holz declared: “Who does not want to live with honor must die in shame,” and referred to the Allies as “devils.” On Holz’s orders, four Nuremberg residents were publicly executed for “disgrace” and an additional 35 citizens were sent to Dachau concentration camp for alleged defeatism. Holz planned to drastically enforce Hitler’s “Nero” decree (Nerobefehl), which called upon Germans to self-destruct rather than surrender. As American troops closed in on the outskirts of Nuremberg, Holz prepared to deploy demolition teams to blow up whole sections of the city – including the art bunker, according to later testimony by city official Albert Dreykorn.

Holz’s plan to destroy the art bunker was allegedly the last straw for city mayor Willy Liebel, a close associate of Albert Speer. Liebel had deported Jews and helped implement Nuremberg racist laws, yet switched side when confronted with the possible destruction of German artwork in the bunker. As American troops entered the eastern outskirts of the city on April 20, 1945, Liebel took refuge in a shelter below city police headquarters and attempted to contact the U.S. Army to negotiate surrender. Hearing of this, Holz entered the room and shot the mayor in the head, according to eyewitness Dreykorn.

Claiming Liebel “committed suicide,” Holz ordered troops in the city to hold to the last man. The resulting siege cost many lives on both sides during fierce house-to-house fighting. Ultimately Holz was killed during a standoff with American soldiers after refusing four chances to surrender. Following a victory celebration on the city’s main square, American troops moved into Nuremberg castle and discovered the steel doors of the secret art bunker.

The U.S. Army launched an investigation under the leadership of German-born U.S. Intelligence officer and “Monuments Man” Lt. Walter William Horn. An art expert, Horn had attended Heidelberg University and emigrated to the U.S. due to opposition to Nazism. Horn interrogated 21 people in Nuremberg, including two city councilors. After conducting hard rounds of cross-examination, Horn learned the location of the hidden Imperial treasures. Nazi officials confessed to hiding the items behind a wall in the Paniersplatz civilian air raid shelter, 80 feet below ground. According to Horn’s investigation, the Nazis planned to use the Imperial treasures as symbols to inspire a future resistance movement.

All works of art and cultural items stored in the secret art bunker of Nuremberg were eventually returned to the places they had occupied before the war. Due to bomb damage, it took more than 70 years before various historic objects could be displayed in restored buildings in Nuremberg. Despite protests from city residents – including Dr. Ernst Gunter Troche, director of the Germanic National Museum – the Holy Roman emperor’s Imperial treasures were returned to Vienna, where they had been for 134 years before the Nazis claimed them.

(By Zita Ballinger Fletcher.

Retrieved from <https://www.historynet.com/the-secret-art-bunker-of-nuremberg.htm>)

Comprehension Check

I. Answer the following questions based on the text:

1. Where did the Nazis hide their treasures? Describe the place.
2. Which treasures were hidden there?
3. How was the secret tunnel system renovated?
4. Describe the procedure of hiding of the masterpieces.
5. The most famous items stored in the bunker were...
6. What had happened to the hidden treasures during the bombings in January and February 1945?
7. Who was Holz? How was he connected with the hidden treasures?
8. How were the hidden Imperial treasures rescued?
9. Dwell upon the later fate of the stored items.

II. Join the terms with their explanations.

concentration camp	decree	a bunker
treasures	stained glass	Nazi
The Third Reich	orb	surrender
		a white flag

... the Nazi rule of Germany between 1933 and 1945;

... a strongly built shelter for soldiers or guns, usually underground;

... a collection of valuable things such as gold, silver and jewellery;

... an official order from a ruler or a government that becomes the law;

... pieces of coloured glass that are put together to make windows, especially in churches;

... a gold ball with a cross on top, carried by a king or queen at formal ceremonies as a symbol of power;

... belonging to or connected with the National Socialist party which controlled Germany from 1933 to 1945;

... to admit that you have been defeated and want to stop fighting; to allow yourself to be caught, taken prisoner, etc.;

... a sign that you accept defeat and wish to stop fighting;

... a type of prison, often consisting of a number of buildings inside a fence, where political prisoners, etc. are kept in extremely bad conditions;



Text 7

Dinosaur Discoverer

Roy Chapman Andrews was an American explorer born in 1884. He liked traveling to different places and studying animals. Andrews wanted to find fossils that would tell him more about early humans. Instead, he found something that changed what everyone thought about dinosaurs.

Andrews and his team made many trips to Asia during the 1920s. There, they found dinosaur fossils, as well as fossils from different mammals, including a type of early rhinoceros. Andrews sent his discoveries to the American Museum of Natural History in New York. They liked what he found and encouraged him to keep searching.

Andrews' most interesting discovery was made in 1923 in the Gobi Desert of Mongolia.

He and his team became the first people to find dinosaur eggs. Until this discovery, scientists weren't sure whether dinosaurs laid eggs or gave birth to live babies.



In 1927, the Boy Scouts of America made Andrews an honorary Scout. He was the first person to receive this award. Today, Andrews is regarded as a model explorer and adventurer.

(From "Daily Reading Comprehension" by Evans Marilyn)

Comprehension Check

I. Read the short story. Look for the main character. Think about how the main character acts and feels.

II. Re-read the story. List three important dates in Andrews' life in the order given in the text. Tell what happened on those dates.

III. Read each question and circle the correct answer.

1. Why did the museum in New York want Andrews to keep exploring?

- A They liked his discoveries.
- B He was earning a lot of money.
- C He was not welcome at home.
- D He had not discovered enough about early humans.

2. What happened after Andrews discovered the dinosaur egg?

- A He discovered an early type of rhinoceros.
- B He was given an award by the Boy Scouts.
- C He took a trip to Asia.
- D He began working at the museum.

3. Why did Andrews want to go to Asia in 1920?

- A to learn more about early humans
- B to discover dinosaur eggs
- C to find new animal fossils
- D to become a Boy Scout

4. Which of these is an opinion?

- A Andrews traveled to Asia during the 1920s.
- B Andrews discovered an early type of rhinoceros.
- C Andrews' most interesting discovery was of dinosaur eggs.
- D The museum liked what Andrews found.

IV. Discuss the main idea of the story.



Text 8

The Burgess Shale Fossils

An amazing collection of fossils lies on a ridge in the Canadian Rocky Mountains.

These fossils are called the Burgess Shale fossils. They come from animals that existed 505 million years ago, at a time when the only creatures on Earth lived in the sea. The Burgess Shale animals had many weird shapes, with tubes, spines, fans, extra feet, and antennae. They were unlike anything alive today.

The Burgess Shale fossils are amazing for another reason, too. The soft parts of the animals' bodies are preserved in stone. An animal's soft parts almost always rot away or are eaten shortly after the animal dies. This means that most fossils are made up of only hard parts, such as bones, teeth, and shells. What caused the Burgess Shale animals to be so well-preserved?

The fossils are embedded in a very smooth type of rock called *shale*. Shale is made of hardened mud. Scientists believe that the animals were killed in underwater mudslides.



The mud buried the animals and covered every part of their bodies. This protected their remains from being eaten by other animals. The mud also protected the soft body parts from air and bacteria, which kept the dead animals from rotting. As a result, the animals' bodies were preserved in a blanket of mud. Over millions of years, pressure turned that mud into shale.

(From "Daily Reading Comprehension" by Evans Marilyn)

Comprehension Check

I. Use the organizer to write about the story's main idea of the text.

How can you guess what is the main idea?

What does the main idea teach you?

II. Underline the details in the text that explain how the Burgess Shale fossils were preserved.

III. Read each question and circle the correct answer.

1. According to the passage, how did the Burgess Shale animals die?

- A They were hit by rocks.
- B They were eaten by other animals.
- C They were buried in mud.
- D The water got too cold.

2. The animals' soft parts did *not* rot away because

- A they had thick shells around them
- B no air or bacteria could get to them
- C the seawater preserved them
- D they were buried quickly

3. What causes mud to turn to shale?

- A heat
- B pressure
- C moving water
- D air

4. Why are fossils rarely made of soft parts?

- A Ancient animals had fewer soft parts.
- B Soft parts cannot be turned into stone.
- C Hard parts last forever.
- D Soft parts usually rot away.



Text 9

Environmental Revolution

As we enter the new millennium, the challenge for humankind is to transform the existing economy into one that does not threaten or destroy the environment. This Environmental Revolution can be compared to the Agricultural Revolution and the Industrial Revolution of the past.

Archaeological findings reveal that the great civilizations at the dawn of history pursued economies that were fairly destructive to the environment. However, the people then were unable to change what they were doing because they did not understand what was happening. Either that or they could not persuade their governments to bring about the necessary changes.

Today, however, we have the power to bring about changes to stop the destruction of the environment because we are becoming more aware of how our lives are shaped by the environment. Even when events do not directly affect us, reports

in the mass media expose us to the extensive damage caused by such events. Fishery collapses, water shortages, rainforests burning uncontrollably, sudden deaths of birds, dolphins and fish, record heat waves, and raging storms that cause widespread destruction only serve to increase our awareness that



our survival depends on the weather which in turn depends on our ability to maintain the ecological balance.

Decades before only environmental activists played a dominant role in drawing attention to the gradual destruction of the environment. Today, directors of large corporations, government ministers, prominent scientists and intelligence agencies are speaking out on the need to change. They have a clear sense of what has to be done for they know that the current economy cannot take us as far as we want to go under the present circumstances.

People can now make decisions that will help restructure economies. Consumers in the United States, for example, can choose to buy power from 'green' sources as consumers become more aware of different energy sources available. Governments can also decide to become a 'green consumer' by opting for sources of electricity that are climatefriendly and buying paper that has a high recycled content.

Comprehension Check

I. What is the main idea of the text? Fill in the organizer with the main idea and supporting details.

Main Idea:

Detail 1:

Detail 2:

Detail 3:

II. Read each question and circle the correct answer.

1. Why do you think the author compared the Environmental Revolution to the Agricultural Revolution and the Industrial Revolution?

- a) These Revolutions had a great impact on the lives of people.
- b) These Revolutions took place a long time ago.
- c) These Revolutions took place over many, many years.
- d) These Revolutions brought about bloodshed.

2. Why couldn't people in the past stop the destruction of the environment?

- a) They were ignorant peaceful people.
- b) They did not realize that their actions were slowly destroying the environment.
- c) They did not know people in the governments.
- d) Their governments did not believe that the environment was being destroyed.

3. The people of today have become more aware of the relationship between the weather, environment and global economies because of ...

- a) the havoc caused by storms and heat waves.
- b) the efforts of governments.
- c) extensive media coverage.
- d) collapsed fisheries.

4. Who is paying more attention to preserving the environment today?

- a) Environmental activists as opposed to big companies.
- b) Strong individuals as opposed to weak individuals
- c) Public corporations as opposed to individuals
- d) Ecologists as opposed to economists



Text 10

Hidden Army: Clay Soldiers

It is 210 BC and the moment before battle. The Chinese emperor's army is ready to charge. The soldiers – thousands of them – are lined up, row after row, as far as the eye can see.

However, the army will never attack. The soldiers are not real. They are the size of real soldiers. But they are made of terra-cotta, a strong kind of clay. They are more than 2,000 years old.

Amazingly, no two soldiers are alike. Their faces are different. Some are old; some are young. Some look tired; some look like they can't wait for the battle to start.

Their uniforms are different. The uniforms are exact copies of what real soldiers wore. The archers and foot soldiers were the lowest-ranking soldiers, so they have the plainest uniforms.

The generals, of course, wore the most elegant uniforms. Some of their caps had feathers. Sometimes their shoes turned up at the toes. Their armor had small iron rings that look like fish scales.

Here you see an image of a clay general. It shows how he looked 2,000 years ago. Every single soldier in the emperor's army was painted with bright colors. So were the terra-cotta horses.

Now most of the soldiers have only tiny traces of paint left. Scientists are trying to create a special varnish to brush over painted figures to hold the paint in place.

Today, craftsmen near the pits where the soldiers were found make copies of the soldiers. This helps archaeologists learn more about how people made the original army. Modern craftsmen have much better kilns than those in ancient times. Kilns are ovens that bake clay until it hardens. Yet no copies ever come out as hard or shiny as the originals. Why? Nobody knows – it is a mystery.

An even bigger mystery is what lies inside the emperor's tomb. Nobody knows the answer because the tomb has never been opened. The Chinese government plans to keep it closed for now. Work will not start until archaeologists are sure the tomb can be opened without damaging any of the treasures inside.

As for the emperor's body, according to historical records, it rests in a heavy, bronze coffin.

In ancient times, the custom was to dress the dead body of someone important in a suit the Chinese made from hundreds of pieces of thin jade. At that time, jade was more precious than gold.

Yet now, millions of people come to the emperor's burial place. They visit the covered pits to see the clay soldiers. The emperor lives on in the memory of all who see his amazing hidden army.

Comprehension Check

I. Answer these questions.

1. What does the discovery of the terra-cotta soldiers teach you?
2. What else do you want to know about life in China 2,000 years ago?
3. What is the author's purpose for each sentence below?

II. Write the number for each sentence in the correct box. Talk about your answers with your partner.

1. The Chinese emperor's army is ready to charge.
2. The emperor died when he was 49 years old.
3. The terra-cotta soldiers are more than 2,000 years old.
4. It is the moment before battle.
5. Some look like they can't wait for the battle to start.
6. Their armor had small iron rings that look like fish scales.

To Inform	To Entertain

III. Circle True (T) or False (F).

1. Every terra-cotta soldier looks exactly the same.
2. The terra-cotta horses were colorful a long time ago.
3. The original clay soldiers were shinier than the copies.
4. Archaeologists know what's inside the emperor's tomb.
5. Many people come to see the terra-cotta soldiers.

IV. Make a persuasive essay on the topic “How do we know what happened long ago?” Include the main parts: title, introduction, body and conclusion.

LITERATURE TO RECOMMEND

1. Английский язык для историков : учебник для бакалавров / Федоров С.Е., Шапиро А.В., Шульгат Л.И. Москва : Издательство Юрайт, 2019. 449 с.

2. Иванчук Г.П. English for Historians: навчальний посібник з англійської мови для студентів історичних спеціальностей вищих навчальних закладів / МОН України, Уманський держ. пед. у-тет імені Павла Тичини. Умань: ОМІДА, 2019. 131 с.

3. Иванчук Г.П. English for Historians: навчальний посібник з англійської мови для студентів історичних спеціальностей вищих навчальних закладів. Умань: ОМІДА, 2017. 158 с.

4. Миньяр-Белоручева А.П., Княжинская Е.В. Английский язык : учебное пособие для студентов бакалавриата, обучающихся по направлению подготовки «История», изучающих историю международных отношений. Москва/Берлин: Директ-Медиа, 2019. 157 с.

5. Смольянина Е.А. Английский язык для историков: учебник и практикум для академического бакалавриата. М. : Издательство Юрайт, 2018. 286 с.

6. Уманець А.В., Крук А.А. English for Students Majoring in History : навч. посіб. для студ.-істор. / за ред. А.В. Уманець. Кам'янець-Подільський : ТОВ “Друкарня “Рута”, 2015. 312 с.

7. Bianco W.T., Canon D.T. American Politics Today. New York, London : W.W. Norton & Company, 2019. 801 p.

8. Duke G., George R.P. The Cambridge Companion to Natural Law Jurisprudence. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2017. 458 p.

9. Fagan B.M., Durrani N. A Brief History of Archaeology. Classical Times to the Twenty-First Century. New York : Routledge, 2016. 271 p.

10. Giakoumopoulos C. Handbook on European data protection law. Luxembourg : Publications Office of the European Union, 2018. 399 p.

11. Guidelines and Tasks for Extracurricular and Individual Work of ESP Students : навч. посіб. / А.В. Уманець, Н.А. Глушковецька, А.В. Дубінська [та ін.] ; за ред. А.В. Уманець. Кам'янець-Подільський : ТОВ “Друкарня “Рута”, 2019. 254 с.

12. Harari Y.N. Sapiens. A brief history of humankind. Toronto, Ontario : McClelland & Stewart, 2014. 443 p.

13. Have N. The Prevention of Gross Human Rights Violations Under International Human Rights Law. Hague : Asser Press, 2018. 260 p.

14. Mildany H. Law in Political Context. London : MM Publications, 2019. 124 p.

15. Newton S. The Reinvention of Britain 1960–2016. A Political and Economic History. New York : Routledge, 2018. 272 p.

16. Nishiaki Y., Akazawa T. The Middle and Upper Paleolithic Archeology of the Levant and Beyond. Singapore : Springer. 2018. 218 p.

17. Pattaro E., Roversi C. Legal Philosophy in the Twentieth Century: The Civil Law World. Bologna : Springer. V. I. 849 p.

18. Randoly P. Main Historians. London : MM Publications, 2019. 324 p.

19. Schama S. The Face of Britain. A History of the Nation Through Its Portraits. New York : Oxford University Press, 2016. 603 p.

20. Science. Year by Year. A Visual History, From Stone Tools to Space Travel. London : Dorling Kindersley, 2018. 288 p.

21. Snow P. History of the World. Map by Map. London : Dorling Kindersley Limited, 2018. 360 p.

22. Stawony R. Development of Civilizations. Boston : Cengage Learning, 2018. 183 p.

23. Winslet L. History as Science. Boston : National Geographic Learning, 2017. 183 p.

24. Wonders of the World: учебное пособие / Архангельская А.И., Гетманская М.К., Дектерев С.Б. СПб. : ЛЕМА, 2018. 88 с.

Навчальне видання

Укладачі:

**Антоніна Володимирівна Уманець,
Наталія Анатоліївна Глушковецька,
Анастасія Володимирівна Дубінська,
Аліна Анатоліївна Крук**

**INDIVIDUAL AND SELF-
STUDY WORK OF
HISTORY DEPARTMENT
STUDENTS**

Підписано до друку 30.01.2020 р.

Формат 60x84\16

Гарнітура Times New Roman.

Папір офсетний. Друк офсетний.

Ум. друк. арк. 14,18.

Тираж 300 прим.

Замовлення № 282.

Віддруковано ТОВ «Друкарня «Рута»

(свід. Серія ДК №4060 від 29.04.2011 р.)

м. Кам'янець-Подільський, вул. Руслана Коношенка, 1

тел. 0 38 494 22 50, drukruta@ukr.net