

МИНИСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ И ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ  
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УТВЕРЖДАЮ

Проректор по образовательной деятельности КФУ

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## Программа дисциплины

Иностранный язык в профессиональной сфере

Направление подготовки: 46.03.01 - История

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Квалификация выпускника: бакалавр

Форма обучения: очное

Язык обучения: русский

Год начала обучения по образовательной программе: 2023

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Программу дисциплины разработал(а)(и): старший преподаватель, б/с Губайдуллина Р.Н. (Кафедра лингвистического образования для иностранных студентов, Высшая школа иностранных языков и перевода), Ramzia.Gubaidullina@kpfu.ru ; Галимзянова Алина Тагировна

**1. Перечень планируемых результатов обучения по дисциплине (модулю), соотнесенных с планируемыми результатами освоения ОПОП ВО**

Обучающийся, освоивший дисциплину (модуль), должен обладать следующими компетенциями:

Шифр компетенции	Расшифровка приобретаемой компетенции
ПК-7	Способен к разработке информационно-коммуникационного обеспечения историко-культурных и историко-краеведческих аспектов в тематике деятельности организация и учреждений культуры

Обучающийся, освоивший дисциплину (модуль):

Должен знать:

- Знать основы грамматической системы иностранного языка
- Знать лексический минимум, необходимый для работы с англоязычными текстами в процессе профессиональной деятельности

Должен уметь:

- Уметь вести диалог/полилог в рамках повседневного общения
- Уметь читать англоязычную литературу с целью поиска информации из зарубежных источников

Должен владеть:

- Владеть языком на уровне, достаточном для межличностного общения и базовой профессиональной деятельности
- Лексикой и основами перевода текстов по специальности

Должен демонстрировать способность и готовность:

- говорить быстро и спонтанно, чтобы постоянно общаться с носителями языка без особых затруднений для любой из сторон; делать четкие, подробные сообщения на различные темы и изложить свой взгляд на основную проблему, показать преимущество и недостатки разных мнений;
- понимать развернутые доклады и лекции и содержащуюся в них даже сложную аргументацию, если тематика этих выступлений достаточно знакома; понимать почти все новости и репортажи о текущих событиях; содержание большинства фильмов, если их герои говорят на литературном языке;
- понимать статьи и сообщения по современной проблематике, авторы которых занимают особую позицию или высказывают особую точку зрения;
- без подготовки довольно свободно участвовать в диалогах с носителями изучаемого языка; принимать активное участие в дискуссии по знакомой проблеме, обосновывать и отстаивать свою точку зрения;
- понятно и обстоятельно высказываться по широкому кругу вопросов; объяснить свою точку зрения по актуальной проблеме, высказывая все аргументы 'за' и 'против';
- писать понятные подробные сообщения по широкому кругу вопросов;
- владеть техникой написания эссе или докладов, освещая вопросы или аргументируя точку зрения 'за' или 'против'.

## 2. Место дисциплины (модуля) в структуре ОПОП ВО

Данная дисциплина (модуль) включена в раздел "Б1.В.ДВ.01.01 Дисциплины (модули)" основной профессиональной образовательной программы 46.03.01 "История (Отечественная история)" и относится к дисциплинам по выбору части ОПОП ВО, формируемой участниками образовательных отношений.

Осваивается на 1 курсе в 1, 2 семестрах.

## 3. Объем дисциплины (модуля) в зачетных единицах с указанием количества часов, выделенных на контактную работу обучающихся с преподавателем (по видам учебных занятий) и на самостоятельную работу обучающихся

Общая трудоемкость дисциплины составляет 4 зачетных(ые) единиц(ы) на 144 часа(ов).

Контактная работа - 73 часа(ов), в том числе лекции - 0 часа(ов), практические занятия - 72 часа(ов), лабораторные работы - 0 часа(ов), контроль самостоятельной работы - 1 часа(ов).

Самостоятельная работа - 62 часа(ов).

Контроль (зачёт / экзамен) - 9 часа(ов).

Форма промежуточного контроля дисциплины: отсутствует в 1 семестре; экзамен во 2 семестре.

## 4. Содержание дисциплины (модуля), структурированное по темам (разделам) с указанием отведенного на них количества академических часов и видов учебных занятий

### 4.1 Структура и тематический план контактной и самостоятельной работы по дисциплине (модулю)

N	Разделы дисциплины / модуля	Се- местр	Виды и часы контактной работы, их трудоемкость (в часах)						Само- стоя- тель- ная ра- бота
			Лекции, всего	Лекции в эл. форме	Практи- ческие занятия, всего	Практи- ческие в эл. форме	Лабора- торные работы, всего	Лабора- торные в эл. форме	
1.	Тема 1. Тема 1. Peter The Great	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	4
2.	Тема 2. Тема 2. Winter Palace	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	3
3.	Тема 3. Тема 3. Elizabeth of Russia	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	4
4.	Тема 4. Тема 4. Death Penalty	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	3
5.	Тема 5. Тема 5. Catherine the Great	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	4
6.	Тема 6. Тема 6. Catherine II: Foeign Policy	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	4
7.	Тема 7. Тема 7. Alexander I	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	4
8.	Тема 8. Тема 8. Alexander's Marching into Paris	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	4
9.	Тема 9. Тема 9 Nickolas I	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	4
10.	Тема 10. Тема 10..Women, the family and public life	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
11.	Тема 11. Тема 11. Alexander II	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	3
12.	Тема 12. Тема 12. Abolition of serfdom	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	3
13.	Тема 13. Тема 13. Alexander III	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	3
14.	Тема 14. Тема 14. Russian culture under Alexander III	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	3
15.	Тема 15. Тема 15. Nickolas II	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	3
16.	Тема 16. Тема 16. Tsarina Alexandra	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	2
17.	Тема 17. Тема 17. Peasants and Agriculture	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	2
18.	Тема 18. Тема 18. Religions in the Russian Pre-revolution	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	3
19.	Тема 19. Тема 19. History as event. 1900-1914	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	2

N	Разделы дисциплины / модуля	Се- местр	Виды и часы контактной работы, их трудоемкость (в часах)						Само- стоя- тель- ная рабо- та
			Лекции, всего	Лекции в эл. форме	Практи- ческие занятия, всего	Практи- ческие в эл. форме	Лабора- торные работы, всего	Лабора- торные в эл. форме	
20.	Тема 20. Тема 20. The First World War. 1914-1918	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	2
	Итого		0	0	72	0	0	0	62

#### 4.2 Содержание дисциплины (модуля)

##### Тема 1. Тема 1. Peter The Great

##### READING AND COMPREHENSION

##### Peter the Great

The country Peter I inherited lagged far behind most European states. It did not escape Peter's attention that his country lacked an access route to the seas, which was so vital for trade at the time. The determined Russian tsar embarked on an ambitious program to transform Russia into an advanced European country while winning a maritime outlet. Breaking the resistance of the old land-owning nobility, the boyars, and severely punishing all opposition to his projects, Peter launched a series of reforms that affected every area of his nation's life - administration, industry, commerce, technology and culture.

The first steps he took were the campaigns of 1695-1696 against the Crimean Tatars, the vassals of Turkey, in the hope of carving a route to the Black Sea. Initially unsuccessful, the campaign eventually brought some land gains and prompted Peter to start building a navy. His next undertaking was an extensive European tour, the first time a Russian Tsar went abroad. Peter's main objective was to strengthen the anti-Turkish coalition, but also to learn more about Europe's economic and cultural life.

Meanwhile, having found no allies against the Turks among the Western powers, and realizing Russia couldn't fight them alone, Peter gave up his dream of a Black Sea access, turning his attention to the Baltic Sea to the north instead. At this time, Russia's route to the Baltic coast was blocked by the powerful Swedes. To dislodge them, Peter allied himself to several European powers and, in 1700, embarked on his biggest military undertaking, the so-called Northern War. Mobilizing all of Russia's vast resources, the Russian tsar personally involved himself in key planning and operations, often seen aboard warships or on the battlefield.

As it turned out, Russia proved ill-prepared to fight the Swedes, the most advanced army of the time. Thus, at the Battle of Narva, Russia's first attempt at seizing the Baltic coast ended in disaster. In 1704, Russian troops captured Tartu and Narva. This victory was followed by the Battle of Poltava (1709), which represents one of the key victories in Russian military history. But despite the success of Russian forces, Peter had to wait until 1721 for the eastern shores of the Baltic to be at last ceded to Russia.

2. Make a brief report using a vocabulary from the text:

Introduction of numerous reforms made by Peter the Great

##### Тема 2. Тема 2. Winter Palace

##### READING AND COMPREHENSION

##### The Winter Palace

St. Petersburg's most famous building, not only physically dominates Palace Square and the south embankment of the Neva River, but also plays a central political, symbolic, and cultural role in the three-century history of the city. The first Imperial residence on the site of the Winter Palace was a wooden house in the Dutch style built in 1708 for Peter the Great and his family. This was replaced in 1711 by a stone building, the remains of which formed the foundations of the Hermitage Theatre. Parts of this original palace have now been restored and are open to the public.

Empress Anna Ioannovna was the first of Peter's descendants to reconstruct the palace. In 1731, she commissioned Francesco Bartolomeo Rastrelli, the recently appointed court architect who would go on to become the recognized master of late baroque in Russia, to create a new, larger palace on the site. Completed in 1735, the third Winter Palace served for only 17 years before Rastrelli was again asked, this time by Empress Elizabeth (Elizaveta Petrovna), to expand the building. After two years proposing different plans to adapt the existing building, Rastrelli eventually decided to completely rebuild the palace, and his new design was confirmed by the empress in 1754. When Catherine the Great came to the throne in 1762, the new palace was nearly complete and, although Catherine removed Rastrelli from the project, his designs for the exterior of the building have remained almost completely unaltered to this day. The building forms a square with an interior courtyard accessed via three archways facing Palace Square. The palace is 22m high, and local planning regulations have prevented any building in the city centre rising higher than this ever since. Within the Winter Palace, continual improvements and revisions were made to the interiors throughout the 18th and 19th centuries. In the 1780s and 1790s, Giacomo Quarenghi and Ivan Starov created a new enfilade of state rooms overlooking the Neva River. Under Emperor Nicholas I, Carlo Rossi added the 1812 War Gallery in 1826. In December 1837, fire broke out in the Winter Palace, destroying nearly all the palace interiors and only being prevented from spreading to the priceless art collections in the Hermitage with the prior destruction of three passages leading between the two buildings. Nicholas ordered that reconstruction of the palace be completed within one year, a monumental effort considering the construction technologies of the day. The lavish interiors were recreated under the supervision of Vasily Stasov, while his fellow architect Alexander Briullov added new designs in more contemporary styles. Alexander II was the last of the Tsars to genuinely use the Winter Palace as his main residence. After his assassination in 1881, it became clear that the palace was too large to be properly secured (the first attempt on his life the year before had been a bomb that damaged several rooms in the palace and killed 11 guards). Alexander III and Nicholas II both set up their family residences at suburban palaces, the former at Gatchina and the latter at the Alexander Palace in Tsarskoye Selo. Nonetheless, the Winter Palace was still used for official ceremonies and receptions.

### Тема 3. Elizabeth of Russia

#### READING AND COMPREHENSION

Elizabeth of Russia, also known as Elizaveta Petrovna, was the Empress of Russia from 1741 to 1762.

Elizabeth Petrovna led a charmed existence. Born on 18 December 1709, to Peter the Great and Martha Skaronska, or Catherine I, a peasant, she was technically illegitimate (her parents were not officially married at the time of her birth). She had 11 siblings but only a few of them survived to adulthood. Elizabeth grew up in a supportive and loving environment. She lived an enchanted lifestyle in which she learned to appreciate the customs and etiquette of both Western culture and Russian tradition; Elizabeth was a passionate church attendee, Russian patriot, fluent speaker of the French, Italian, and German languages, and a competent dancer of the minuet.

Elizabeth's father, Peter, had abolished the law of succession during his reign. Subsequently, the Supreme Council was given the right to choose Peter's heir to the throne. Upon the death of Peter the Great, her cousin Anna ascended to the throne and Elizabeth was allowed to remain a promiscuous, apathetic Russian socialite. By 1740, however, Elizabeth had matured; she was frustrated by her cousin, Empress Anne's, vindictiveness as a political leader and the perpetual threats of banishing Elizabeth to a nunnery. As Empress Anne lay on her deathbed, the people hoped that Elizabeth would take the throne. Instead, she was passed over in favor of Prince Anton and Anna Leopoldovna's newly born son, Ivan VI, on whose behalf his mother, served as regent. Secret agents acting on the orders of the Regent Anna watched Elizabeth day and night. Anna was worried that Elizabeth would incite a revolt against her, because Anna recognized that as a foreigner, the Russian populace distrusted her, while Elizabeth was a favorite of the guards and loved by the people.

On November 25, 1741, Elizabeth was ready to take her place among the annals of Russian political leaders. With the help of her political supporters, Elizabeth arrested Regent Anna and the infant emperor. Even though it was a daring coup, it was accomplished without bloodshed. Elizabeth crowned herself the empress on April 25, 1742. That in victory, Elizabeth was fair, graceful, and managed to keep her revenge in check; she had emerged from the shadows of neglected, carefree princess status to become Russia's ruler.

Elizabeth proved to be politically and militarily beneficial to Russia. The incompetence of the previous two tsars had cost the country scores of national pride. Elizabeth increased morale by reinstating her father's policy of appointing only Russian citizens to top advisory positions within the government, thereby avoiding foreign influence. The Senate was revitalized and the 'Secret Council' was eradicated. She made humanitarian gains by outlawing the death penalty. In 1743, she attained a historic victory for diplomacy by negotiating an end to the long-standing land dispute between Russia and Sweden. She was also chiefly responsible for maintaining the alliance between Russia, Austria, and France, against Prussia during the Seven Years' War.

Elizabeth's reign was marked by political as well as cultural advancements. On January 25, 1755, she set forth a decree to establish the founding of the University of Moscow. She proved to be a blessing to the Russian Orthodox Church; she donated large sums of money to the church and set the price of Bibles at five rubles. Elizabeth established a solid foundation for the arts; she created a state theater, brought in Italian instrumentalists, singers, and set designers to complement the court choir. In addition, she changed Petersburg architecture to reflect the styles that were dominant in Western Europe at that time.

On December 25, 1761, Elizabeth died leaving no children as heirs; she had never married. She left the throne to her nephew, Peter II who died shortly thereafter. His wife, Sophia, who would later become Catherine II.

### Тема 4. Death Penalty

#### READING AND COMPREHENSION

Death penalty was used extensively in the Russian Empire. In 1649, there were 63 crimes punishable by death and under Peter I that number was doubled. When his daughter Elizabeth seized power she had a very different attitude to the death penalty. On the eve of the coup, she promised "not to execute anyone" and to the granadiers vowing to kill her enemies, she replied that, if any blood was shed, she wouldn't lead them. The coup was successful but the new Empress did not abolish death penalty straight away. She decided to proceed with caution instead.

Elizabeth was worried that abolishing the death penalty, with the fear such a punishment inspires, would increase the numbers of crimes committed. But that was not the only reason that held her back. Elizabeth was the only one who wanted to abolish the death penalty. The Synod would happily have released the Empress from her promise, and even the Russian people would not understand why she wanted to give mercy to criminals. The Senate was against it, too. They had just approved a law that, in addition to the usual forms of death penalty, recommended other ones. The Empress refused to approve that law.

In the end, Elizabeth never officially abolished the death penalty. Instead, she approved the Senate's report "On Not Abolishing The Death Penalty For Thieves, Bandits, Murderers and Counterfeiters". But she ordered that all the death sentences should be submitted to her for her "imperial approval". And she never approved any of them. This way the death penalty was de facto, if not de jure, abolished during her reign. But what happened to those sentenced to death? They remained in prison "until further orders", and in 1754, an edict was passed that commuted the punishment to hard labor but only after being flogged, branded and put in shackles for the rest of their lives. Although the de facto ban of the death penalty was a remarkable accomplishment for the time, the Empress never thought of abolishing torture too. That was still widely used and those subjected to this harrowing ordeal often died.

## **Тема 5. Тема 5. Catherine the Great**

### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

#### **Catherine the Great**

Catherine II was Empress of Russia for more than 30 years and one of the country's most influential rulers.

The future Catherine the Great, Sophie Friederike Auguste von Anhalt-Zerbst, was born in one of the tiny German states in Stettin, part of Prussia (now Szczecin in Poland), the daughter of a minor German prince on 2 May 1729. She turned out to be a powerful and enlightened ruler of the vast Russian Empire. In 1745, after being received into the Russian Orthodox Church, and changing her name to Catherine, she married Grand Duke Peter, grandson of Peter the Great and heir to the Russian throne. Being a bright personality with a strong sense of determination she learned the Russian language and by doing a lot of reading acquired a brilliant education.

The marriage was unhappy, but the couple did produce one son, Paul. In 1762 Catherine's husband became Tsar Peter III but he was soon overthrown and killed "in an accident", while Catherine became Russia's ruler. It is not known whether Catherine had a part in his death.

Catherine went on to become the most powerful sovereign in Europe. Her major influences on her adopted country were in expanding Russia's borders and continuing the process of Westernization begun by Peter the Great. During her reign she extended the Russian empire southwards and westwards, adding territories which included the Crimea, Belarus and Lithuania. Agreements with Prussia and Austria led to three partitions of Poland, in 1772, 1793, and 1795, extending Russia's borders well into central Europe. Russia's influence in European affairs in Eastern and Central Europe were increased and expanded as well.

Catherine began as a political and social reformer but gradually grew more conservative as she got older. In 1767 she convened the Legislative Commission to codify Russia's laws and in the process modernized Russian life. She presented the commission with her Nakaz, (or 'Instruction'), a strikingly liberal document that presented the empress's vision of the ideal government. The commission produced no desired results and the outbreak of war against the Ottoman Empire in 1768 provided a good opportunity to disband it.

The Pugachev Rebellion of 1774-1775 gained huge support in Russia's western territories until it was extinguished by the Russian army. Catherine realized her heavy reliance on the nobility to control the country and instigated a series of reforms giving them greater control over their land and serfs. The 1785 'Charter to the Nobility' established them as a separate estate in Russian society and assured their privileges. Catherine therefore ignored any concern she may previously have had for the plight of the serfs, whose status and rights declined further. From 1789 until her death, she reversed many of the liberal reforms of her early reign. One notable effect of this reversal was that, like Peter the Great, Catherine ultimately contributed to the increasingly distressing state of the peasantry in Russia. As it was mentioned above with the onset of the French Revolution, Catherine became strikingly conservative and increasingly hostile to criticism of her policies.

Catherine was also an enthusiastic patron of the arts, literature and education and acquired an art collection which now forms the basis of the Hermitage Museum, which she also built and founded. Catherine commissioned buildings all over Russia, established academies, journals, and libraries. She read widely and corresponded with many of the prominent thinkers of the era, including Voltaire, Diderot and d'Alembert.

Catherine died in St Petersburg on 17 November 1796 and was succeeded by her son Paul. Paul's reign lasted only five years and was by all accounts a complete disaster. Paul was succeeded by his son Alexander I, who is remembered mostly for having been the ruler of Russia during Napoleon Bonaparte's epic Russian Campaign.

## **Тема 6. Тема 6. Catherine II: Foreign Policy**

### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

Assassination and the threat of it were a persistent means of intimidating progressive governments all over Europe in the 18th century - the age of the nobles' revolt. Catherine II discovered early the force of conservative reaction it spoiled her Legislative Assembly and her plans to improve the lot of the serfs.

If Peter I's achievements in Sweden and Poland had been considerable, there had been some backsliding, some lost ground, in both areas during the era of palace revolutions, and Catherine was to address herself to articulation and repair. In both Poland and Sweden, she would meddle in constitutional questions, as different as they were in the two environments, bribing and supporting political parties in Sweden with money, in Poland supporting or suppressing them with arms.

The first was Catherine's astonishingly stubborn and ambitious pretensions. She was determined to pursue the campaign to a glorious conclusion, to diminish the Turks if not ruin them and drive them out of Europe. These aspirations could only raise apprehensions elsewhere. The French were naturally committed to the Turks. The Austrians were threatened by Russian successes. The alliance of small and indigent Prussia with St Petersburg required Frederick to pay throughout the war subsidies that he could ill afford. The Swedes naturally found in Russian involvement in two fronts already an opportunity that they could scarcely overlook. In fact, this development portended a new war on yet another front, and Catherine apprehensively deployed troops to deal with it, though it did not actually happen. At the same time, the plague broke out in Moscow (1771), and the stresses and strains of the war in the form of tax and recruitment burdens on the population provoked the infamous Pugachev rebellion (1773).

By reference to the standards prevailing in the age, the foreign policy of Catherine was a great success. She conquered 200,000 square miles of new territory and expanded the Russian population from 19,000,000 to 36,000,000. Yet there is here another element of this story, one taken too little into account. If the opposition of the Russian nobility to the reforming aspirations of the monarchy is well known, its opposition to Russian foreign policy is less familiar.

The Greek Project, for example, provoked dissent even in the inner circle of Catherine's government. As the French ambassador reported in 1786, 'the Russian ministers' loathed the plans of Potemkin. And yet the remarkable 19th-century commercial progress of the newly founded port city of Odessa does speak pointedly to the breadth of Catherine's vision. In any event, Catherine was obviously able to master dissent in foreign policy as she was not able to do in reform at home. And yet, the social dynamic of protest in foreign policy continued. It was clearly present in the reign of Tsar Paul, though it may not have been the chief motivation behind the tragedy of his demise. It was more important, yet still rarely decisive, in the reign of Alexander.

## **Тема 7. Тема 7. Alexander I**

### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

#### **Alexander I**

His parents were Paul, son of Catherine the Great and Maria Fyodorovna, the former Princess of Wurttemberg. At his birth he was taken to be raised by his Grandmother Catherine the Great. His childhood was troubled by the divisions in the family. Both sides tried to use him for their own purposes and he was torn emotionally between his grandmother and his father, the Heir to the throne. This taught Alexander, very early on, how to manipulate those who loved him and he came a natural chameleon, changing his views and personality depending on who he was with at the time.

He was tutored by the Swiss republican philosopher, La Harpe, who was personally chosen by Catherine to mold Alexander's personality and give him a broad education. Catherine expected that a liberal education would help Alexander to reign wisely for the benefit of the country. The young prince became an idealist in the tradition of the Enlightenment.

Alexander was 17 in 1793 when he married the lovely Elizabeth of Baden, a pretty princess who was only fourteen years old. They were very happy together in the first years of their marriage. As a wedding present, Catherine gave Alexander the Alexander Palace, showing her preference for his grandson over her son, Paul, by granting Alexander a larger court than his father's. This further poisoned the atmosphere in the family.

Catherine died on November 6, 1796 and her son Paul assumed the throne. He quickly instituted a number of new laws to undermine those aspects of his mother's reign he disagreed with. Paul's actions went much too far, he infuriated the country and especially the nobility. Aristocratic plots were hatched against Paul's life. With the tacit approval of Alexander, the Tsar was murdered at the Mikhailovski Castle in St. Petersburg during the night of March 11, 1801.

Alexander was crowned Tsar to succeed his father. In his first years on the Russian throne, Alexander tried to rule in an enlightened way. The country was very excited at the prospects of Alexander's reign; there were great hopes for the future of Russia and an anticipation of a more liberal form of government and increased freedom. Some went so far as to hope for an end to the institution of serfdom, which sapped the nation of its energy. At first the Tsar did little to discourage these aspirations. Slowly, for a number of reasons, Alexander turned away from his childhood dreams and principals. Increasingly he found it easier to get results by using the power of autocracy. The longer he used this method of ruling Russia, the more difficult he began for him to return to the principals of good government and the role of the monarch he had learned in his youth.

## **Тема 8. Тема 8. Alexander's Marching into Paris**

### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**



- a) Napoleon's brother King Joseph was in charge of defending Paris with over 60,000 soldiers. Although there were not enough troops to resist the large coalition army coming towards them, they were falsely reassured that Napoleon was on his way with reinforcement. A battle escalated, the coalition began their attack. Fighting continued until Joseph abandoned Paris wishing to surrender. Alexander was not haunted with the desire to destroy Paris, like the Prussians who wished to set the city on fire; instead he wanted to bring peace to France rather than its destruction. "When God made me powerful and gave my armies success, He wished me to secure the peace of the world. If we can do so without shedding any more blood we shall be glad, but if not, we shall carry on the fight to the end ...." Alexander hastened the surrender and signed a treaty offering generous terms to France. And on March 31, the Russian tsar was presented with the keys to the French capital, and Alexander along with the Coalition armies entered the city. Until this time no foreign army had reached Paris in nearly 400 years.
- b) Russian and Prussian armies were the driving and decisive force behind the Coalition. The King of Prussia and Alexander I had a close relationship and supported each other in the war against Napoleon. Alexander was determined; he wished to enter Paris just as Napoleon had entered Moscow, on his failed invasion in Russia in 1813. Alexander promised 'I shall not make peace as long as Napoleon is on the throne'.
- c) On March 31, 1814, Emperor Alexander I of Russia at the head of the Coalition Army triumphantly marched into Paris, forcing Napoleon to abdicate a few days later.
- d) It was a great move by Alexander, who deceived Napoleon. During the battles on the outskirts of Paris, Alexander directed the main Coalition armies to march on to Paris; while a Russian general with a huge mass of 10,000 cavalymen rode towards Saint Pizier where Napoleon was in battle with the Austrian allies. Napoleon realized too late that it was a divisionary detachment sent, and not the main army. By this time Russian and Prussian armies were nearing Paris.
- e) The Coalition armies, including Russian, Prussian, and Austrian, entered France earlier that year and after several battles reached the gates of Paris. By this time Napoleon's army was weakened. After 25 years of Napoleonic wars, in some departments there remained only old men and children, and resources to support the war were scarce. Previous battles resulted in huge casualties and his nation was discouraged.

## **Тема 9. Тема 9 Nickolas I**

### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

#### Nicholas I

Tsar Nicholas I (r. 1825-55) is perhaps best known for the tripartite formula 'Orthodoxy, Autocracy, Nationality' thought up by his minister of education, Sergei Uvarov. This formula is frequently cited as evidence for strong nationalist and Russifying tendencies under Nicholas. Certainly, Nicholas emphasized the importance of Russian culture (and the Orthodox religion) in the empire; for instance, he demanded that his bureaucrats write their reports in Russian and not, as had often previously been the case, in French. For many of the highest officials, this order must have been very difficult indeed to fulfill. It was also during Nicholas's reign that the term "inorodtsy" (aliens) came to be applied to many of the empire's Asian subjects. The actual law establishing the inorodets category was part of Mikhail Speranskii's Siberian Reforms of 1822. As originally defined, the inorodtsy were non-Christian peoples living in Siberia, considered by the Russian government as living at a low level of civilization. Typically for the Russian Empire, however, ethnicity and language played absolutely no role in determining whether one belonged to this legal category. By the later nineteenth century, however, in popular-and to some extent official - usage the term inorodets took on the connotation of 'non-Russian' and was even used to describe Christians such as Poles. It would be a mistake, however, to ascribe overtly Russifying motives to Nicholas I - he was far too conservative a man for that. Rather, Nicholas aimed above all things at maintaining order and existing hierarchies. Finland's autonomy, for example, was not touched. And when the Slavophile Iurii Samarin dared to criticize imperial policy in the Baltic provinces as too favourable towards the Baltic German nobility in 1849, Nicholas I had him removed from his position and locked up (albeit briefly) in the Peter and Paul Fortress in St Petersburg. In a personal conversation with Samarin, Nicholas made clear to the young idealist (and Russian nationalist) that real threats to Romanov rule came not from the loyal Baltic Germans but from the ignorant Russian masses.

In one instance, however, Nicholas did adopt a more activist policy towards non-Russians. His reign witnessed serious measures aimed at breaking down Jewish corporate structures. Under Nicholas, Jews were subjected to the military draft. More notoriously yet, under-age Jewish boys were drafted into so-called 'cantonist' units. At the same time, Nicholas's minister of education, Uvarov, elicited the help of the enlightened Jewish educator, Dr Max Lilienthal, to set up state Jewish schools. Though government-sponsored 'rabbinical institutes' were established in Wilno, Zhitomir and Warsaw, they ultimately failed to create the desired 'enlightened Jewish community' envisioned by reformers. Another project aimed at increasing Jewish 'productiveness' was a programme to encourage Jews to take up farming, in particular in the sparsely populated region north of the Black Sea. Once again, the policy had at best limited effects. A more important change was Nicholas's abolition of the Jewish kahal (autonomous community) in 1844. Nonetheless, in matters of family life and religious practices, Russia's Jewish communities were only marginally affected by government policy even at the end of Nicholas's reign.

## **Тема 10. Тема 10..Women, the family and public life**

### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

#### Women, the family and public life

Women's subordinate social status became a burning issue in the middle of the nineteenth century, as educated Russians began to subject every traditional institution to re-evaluation, the patriarchal family included. In the opinion of those on the left of Russia's emergent political spectrum, authoritarian family relations reproduced and reinforced the social and political hierarchy.

Was women's primary responsibility to devote themselves to the family and to appropriate mothering of future citizens? Or did the broader society need women's energies, too? As substantial numbers of women and men sought to answer these questions for themselves and others, the 'woman question' emerged as one of the central issues of the day.

The debate unfolded in 1856, when Nikolai Pirogov (1810-81), the surgeon and educator, published an essay entitled 'Questions of Life' that posed explicitly the question of women's social role. Pirogov had just returned from the Crimean War (1854-1856), where he had supervised some one hundred and sixty women who had volunteered as nurses. The women had served without pay and working right at the front, faced many of the same dangers and hardships as soldiers. To Pirogov, the women's exemplary work demonstrated that 'up to now, we have completely ignored the marvelous gifts of our women'. To his mind, those gifts were mainly applicable in the family. To prepare women better to perform the role of mother to future male citizens and true companion to their husbands, capable of sharing fully in men's concerns and struggles, Pirogov advocated improvements in women's education.

## **Тема 11. Тема 11. Alexander II**

### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

#### **Alexander II**

The abolition of serfdom in 1861, under Alexander II, and the reforms which followed (local government reforms, the judicial reform, the abolition of corporal punishment, the reform of the military, public education, censorship and others), were a "watershed", "a turning point" in the history of Russia. This is the verdict of the reformers themselves and their opponents, people who lived at the time in Russia as well as beyond its borders, and many researches. This theme remains crucial for historians. But in particular periods such as during the 1905 Revolution or Gorbachev's perestroika, interest in the history of Alexander II's reforms has acquired a particular topicality and political colouring. At such times instead of the already established term "the Great Reforms", new terminology emerges particularly in the academic literature for wider audiences such as "revolution from above", "a revolutionary break with the past" and "coup d'etat".

However, mainstream scholarship still accepts the more subtle term "the Great Reforms". If the question of the suitability of the term for designating this epoch is unlikely to evoke serious doubts and disagreements, that is not true of the issues raised in the title of this text as well as others (including the personal role of Alexander II in the realization of the reforms, the interconnection among them, their subsequent fate), on which there is no consensus in the academic literature. It is sufficient to refer to contemporary Western and Russian research whose authors consider the boundary between "the pre-reforms" of Nicholas I, "the Great Reforms" of Alexander II and the "counter-reforms" of Alexander III relative and even artificial. They present the whole process of reforms as an unbroken continuum spanning the entire nineteenth century. This approach contradicts the other, more traditional one, which views the epoch of the Great Reforms as delimited on the one side by the failure of the Nicholas system with the conclusion of the unsuccessful Crimean War and on the other by the tragic end of the Tsar-Liberator on 1 March 1881. There is no doubt that this subject demands further attention and additional research.

Emperor Alexander II himself was the initiator of the transformations in Russia. The question as to what induced the autocratic monarchy to abolish serfdom, which had been its foundation-stone for centuries, has been sufficiently elucidated in the literature. The defeat in the Crimean War (1853-1856), which interrupted the one-and-a-half-century-long victorious advance to the Black Sea and was incurred on home territory; the surrender of Sebastopol; the conditions of the Peace of Paris of 18 (30) March 1856, which deprived Russia's of its fleet and naval bases on the Black Sea and parts of Bessarabia and shed doubt on Russia's prestige as a great power: all these things exposed the extent to which Russia was lagging behind other European countries.

The former system had out lived its time - this was the judgment of one of the former apologists of this system, the historian M.P. Pogodin, Alexander II, who ascended to the throne on 19 February 1855 inherited a difficult legacy

## **Тема 12. Тема 12. Abolition of serfdom**

### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

Tsar Alexander II inherited the Russian throne in 1855, as the Crimean War seemed at its most hopeless. It is clear that Russia's humiliation affected his reign, leading to a host of significant policies designed to modernize the country.

(1) \_\_\_\_\_ Pressure from the serfs, as well as Russia's civil society, and even landowners themselves, added to the weight on the Tsar to take action.

In reality, Alexander II actually asked the Russian nobility to decide on the changes needed to destroy serfdom. After a number of committees were held, Alexander eventually published the Emancipation Manifesto on March 3rd, 1861. The Manifesto was made into law within a few days, and all serfs were given the right to become free citizens, to marry who they wanted and to purchase land.

In order to buy the land on which they lived, serfs were forced to take government loans. These loans, which had 100% interest and needed to be repaid over 49 years, not only put tremendous strain on the serfs of 1861, but also their children who inherited the land and the debt. (2)\_\_\_\_\_ In the short term, the emancipation of the serfs, combined with other modernizing reforms initiated by the Tsar, had the desired impact. Between 1860 and 1900 the Russian economy grew at an average of 4.6% per year. There was also a dramatic rise in commercial farming, which significantly changed the structure of Russian rural society.

Alongside the desire to modernize Russia, it seems the decision to emancipate the serfs was also driven by an urge to prevent social unrest. (3)\_\_\_\_\_ The Emancipation seemed like a grand gesture designed to appease the serfs that made up a third of the country's population. The reform also saw a strict system of local government installed in Russia, replacing the rule of the landowner with that of a local authority.

(4)\_\_\_\_\_ It is clear that his rule saw drastic change in Russian society, but this seemed to be motivated by the need to make Russia competitive on the international stage, rather than a desire for equality or democratization. Perhaps the biggest measure of the Tsar's reformist reputation concerns his death. On March 2nd 1881 he was assassinated by members of the People's Will, a revolutionary terrorist organization. Alexander was responsible for one of the most monumental changes in Russian History, yet failed to do enough to truly quench the desire for progress.

These sentences have been removed from the text. Choose one of the sentences a-d which best fits each gap 1-4.

- a. In the years between 1826 and 1854 there had been over 700 peasant uprisings in Russia.
- b. Alexander II is often remembered as a reforming Tsar, a comparatively liberal member of a notoriously conservative dynasty.
- c. Serfdom was held up as the cause of a host of Russia's problems, from its military failure, to famines, slow industrialization and civil disorder.
- d. The serfs had gained significant freedom, but their impoverished position as the "dark masses" of Russian society remained.

### Тема 13. Тема 13. Alexander III

#### READING AND COMPREHENSION

##### Alexander III

Considered Russia's last true autocrat, Alexander III was the epitome of what a Russian Emperor was supposed to be. Forceful, formidable, fiercely patriotic, and at 6' 4" towered over his fellow countrymen. He was the embodiment of the fabled Russian bear. He came to power at a critical point in Imperial Russian history. The Industrial Revolution had finally come to Russia and capitalism was taking root. Foreign investment within the country was at an all time high. His Father, Alexander II was within hours of granting the country its first constitution. Ironically, Alexander III was not born heir to the Russian throne.

Born in St Petersburg on February 26, 1845 (old style), he was the second son of Alexander II, the "Tsar Liberator" who had freed the serfs. His older brother and heir to the throne, Nicholas, died in 1865. The young Grand Duke was greatly influenced by his tutor Constantine Petrovich Pobedonostsev who instilled into him conservative fundamentals of autocracy, Orthodoxy and nationalism that were required to govern the Russian Empire.

With the death of his brother, Alexander inherited more than just the title of Tsarevich. In October 1866 Alexander married the Danish Princess Dagmar. After her conversion to Orthodoxy, she took the name of Marie Fedorovna. Together, Alexander III and Empress Marie had five children.

The reign of Alexander III began in tragedy. On March 1, 1881, on the eve of the signing into law Russia's first constitution, two assassins threw bombs at the Tsar's carriage in St. Petersburg. Alexander II was mortally wounded and died shortly thereafter. As a result of the assassination, Alexander III would not consider granting the constitution. He tightened censorship of the press and sent thousands of revolutionaries to Siberia. In his Accession Manifesto, he declared his intention to have "full faith in the justice and strength of the autocracy" that he had been entrusted with. Any liberal proposals in government were quickly dismissed. Alexander was determined to strengthen autocratic rule as a God given right. His reign is often referred to as the Age of Counter Reform.

He was not educated or prepared in his youth to be Emperor. But what he lacked in style he more than made up for in his conviction of his position, his love for his country, and an understanding of the importance he could play in shaping his country's future. He possessed such a strong will as to rule the Russian Empire as absolute autocrat, to the point where the Empire stabilized and prospered, thus allowing capitalism to begin to take root. During his reign the autocracy stabilized and dissent was forced underground. He worked to strengthen and modernize Russia's armed forces while avoiding armed conflict and improve Russia's standing as a world power.

History tends to view Alexander III as a brutish despot. His only accomplishment being to strengthen his autocratic rule was made at the expense of the working class and peasantry. To his credit he stabilized the Russian government and maintained peace with his European and Asian neighbors. Alexander was hopelessly out of touch with the emerging realities of a modern industrialized Russia. Autocratic rule was established at a time in Russian history when the nation was illiterate, uneducated, and attacked from foreign powers on all sides. That time was no more. At a time when the Russian government should have begun adjusting itself to the changing realities of the 19th Century, Alexander instead clung to and strengthened the autocracy.

### Тема 14. Тема 14. Russian culture under Alexander III

## READING AND COMPREHENSION

### Russian culture under Alexander III

Alexander III reacted to the violent circumstances of his father's death by introducing repressive measures which actually attempted to undo some of the 1860s reforms, and by increasing censorship: it should not be forgotten that Russian writers after 1804 had to endure the humiliations of submitting their work to the censor, and then complying with whatever demands were made. Russian culture had already begun to undergo significant change by the time of Alexander II's death, as non-conformists and former radicals amongst the artistic community gradually began to become part of the establishment: Rimsky-Korsakov was appointed to teach at the St. Petersburg Conservatoire in 1871, and members of the Wanderers group had begun to take up professorships at the Academy of Arts. Under Alexander III, nationalist Russian culture was for the first time supported by the state and thus could no longer be seen as "progressive". Alexander's reactionary policies caused widespread despondency amongst the liberal educated population, who came to see this period as a sterile era of "small deeds". The government's closure of the country's leading literary journal in 1884, due to its allegiance to "dangerous" (i.e. Populist) political ideas, was a further blow to morale; Notes of the Fatherland had been a mouthpiece of liberal thought for forty-five years. This was the year in which the Holy Synod assumed control of Russian primary schools, and universities lost their autonomy. It was also the year in which Alexander presented his wife with the first exquisitely crafted Easter egg commissioned from the court jeweler Carl Fabergé, and so began an annual tradition which was continued by his heir Nicholas II.

Konstantin Pobedonostsev, appointed procurator of the Holy Synod in 1880, was as much responsible as Alexander III for the atmosphere of gloom and paranoia during his reign. The lay head of the Russian Orthodox Church (this was a civil appointment, made by the emperor), he was a staunch defender of autocracy and an implacable opponent of reform. Pobedonostsev had licence to intervene in questions of censorship as well as in matters of national education and religious freedom, and his edicts were so unpopular in educated circles that they won him the nickname of "The Grand Inquisitor" after a character in The Brothers Karamazov (Brat'ia Karamazovy; Dostoevsky, who had consulted him during the writing of his last novel, published in 1880, had been one of this dour man's few close friends).

(adopted from: The Cambridge History of Russia, Imperial Russia, 1689-1917, vol. 2. Edited by Dominic Lieven. London School of Economics and Political Science)

### Тема 15. Тема 15. Nickolas II

## READING AND COMPREHENSION

### Nicholas II

Born 6 May 1868, Nicholas was the oldest son of Tsar Alexander III and his wife Maria Feodorovna. His parents took particular trouble over his education. Nicholas was taught by outstanding Russian academics at home, he knew several languages and had a wide knowledge of history, and he also quickly grasped military science. His father personally guided his education, which was strictly based on religion. Nicholas ascended the throne at age 26 after the unexpected death of his father in 1894. Although a well educated man, he felt unprepared for the hard task as the ruler of the Russian empire, he was not properly prepared to officiate as a monarch and was not fully introduced to top affairs of the state. Nicholas's reign was marked by tragedy from the very beginning. A national celebration to honor the formal coronation of the new tsar turned into a disaster. Overcrowding resulted in a stampede and hundreds of people were crushed to death.

Shortly after the death of his father, Nicholas married the German Princess Alix of Hesse who, after taking the Orthodox faith took the name of Alexandra Feodorovna. Their union was a rare one among royal families in that they married "for love" and Nicholas was a devoted husband throughout their life together. Alexandra bore him five children: Olga, Tatyana, Maria, Anastasia and Aleksey, the only male heir to the throne. Aleksey was diagnosed with a life threatening illness, hemophilia. In 1905 a so called 'holy man' named Grigory Rasputin was presented at the palace. He was the only one who was mysteriously able to help ease their son's pain. Despite Rasputin's well documented stories of drinking and womanizing, Alexandra absolutely believed that Rasputin was sent to the royal family by God and soon he exerted a powerful influence over the tsar and tsarina advising them on state matters.

Nicholas was a confirmed autocrat, much like his father. But he did not inherit the strong will of his father and mostly continued the work his predecessors had started which brought rapid economical and trade growth. Devoted to his wife he was influenced by Alexandra, who shared his views on government and country and truly believed that autocracy was for the good of Russia and must be preserved at all costs.

In 1904, Nicholas took his country into war with Japan. Russia's embarrassing defeat ruined the monarchy's prestige among all sectors of society, the nobility and the peasants, leading to a revolution in 1905 and to an event that became known as Bloody Sunday. Unarmed crowds demanding radical constitutional and social reforms were shot down by the tsar's army near his palace. This set off more riots and strikes throughout Russia. To ease the wave of opposition and regain support Nicholas created a parliament, the State Duma, Russia's first nationally elected representative assembly to give the people a voice. However, unrest continued and in 1914 Nicholas felt obligated to prevent a German invasion of Europe and took Russia into World War One. He personally took command of the army and left Alexandra in charge. The Russian army suffered heavy losses and was defeated, resulting in a political crisis. Soaring prices and food shortages strained relations between the government and the common people, who had come to hate the ongoing war and blamed Nicholas for it. In 1917 a strike movement against the tsar broke out and even spread to the army. Abandoned by his generals Nicholas was eventually forced to abdicate, and all the power was transferred to the Provisional Government.

Nicholas was arrested by order of the revolutionary government of Russia and was confined with his family within the royal residence at the Alexander Palace.

### **Тема 16. Тема 16. Tsarina Alexandra**

#### READING AND COMPREHENSION

##### Tsarina Alexandra

Born on 6 June 1872 in Darmstadt, Germany, Alexandra was a granddaughter of Britain's Queen Victoria and the daughter of Louis IV, the Grand Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt.

Orphaned at the age of six she married Tsar Nicholas II in 1894 and moved to Russia - a country she greatly disliked - there giving birth to four daughters before giving the Tsar a son, Alexis. Tragically her new-born son proved to suffer from hemophilia.

The Tsarina's anxious concern for her son's illness led her to embrace Rasputin, a debauched 'holy man' who proved able to stem Alexis' loss of blood (it has been suggested through hypnosis).

Already unpopular at court - where she firmly held sway over her husband - Alexandra's unswerving loyalty to Rasputin (whom she believed had been sent by God to save the Russian throne) led her to continually excuse his notorious excesses, and further damaged her reputation.

A fanatical believer in Russian Orthodoxy and a firm believer in the principles of autocratic rule, Alexandra lost no opportunity in asserting her husband's right to lead his country. She routinely dismissed her husband's political advisers, even those who were both competent and remained loyal to the Tsar.

With the Tsarina having helped to engineer the dismissal of Grand Duke Nikolai - the Tsar's uncle - from his position as Commander in Chief of the army, the Tsar subsequently announced his intention to take personal command of his armed forces.

Her husband having left for the front in August 1915, the Tsarina's conduct in determining policy became ever more arbitrary and wanting in political judgment. Vindictive and jealous, Alexandra continued to dismiss from office anyone she deemed disloyal to the Tsar, fairly or otherwise.

In an attempt to halt the seemingly endless stream of scandal emanating from the court, a group of conspirators led by Prince Felix Yusupov resolved to arrange Rasputin's murder, which consequently took place on 16 December 1916.

Nevertheless it was too late to recover any semblance of credibility let alone popularity for the monarchy, particularly given that the Tsar's ill-advised gamble in publicly associating himself so closely with the success of his army had backfired, the latter continuing to perform badly in the field.

Unfounded rumors abounded of the Tsarina's collaboration with Germany (along with Prime Minister Sturmer), further cementing Alexandra's deep unpopularity in the country.

She was nevertheless surprised by the February Revolution. She joined her family in internal exile and was eventually executed, shot to death, by the Bolsheviks on the night of 16/17 July 1918 at Yekaterinburg. She was 46.

### **Тема 17. Тема 17. Peasants and Agriculture**

#### READING AND COMPREHENSION

##### Peasants and Agriculture

Peasants in Imperial Russia adapted and altered their customs and practices again in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries to cope with further changes. The legislation of 1861 that set in motion the abolition of serfdom was followed by similar reforms for the peasants who lived on the lands of the state and the tsar's family. By the end of the century, most peasants were buying their land allotments by paying installments in 'redemption' schemes administered by the government. The state also reformed the main demands it made on the peasantry. The poll tax was phased out and replaced by taxes on sales and businesses in the 1880s. The system of military conscription was reformed in 1874. The maximum term of service was cut to seven years, and young men from all levels of society, not just the lower orders, were liable to serve. Conscripts were selected by ballot, moreover, not on the whim of local authorities. A much larger proportion of young men served in the army than before the reform. In marked contrast to the previous system, however, most conscripts came home and resumed their previous lives after a few years' service. The imperial government implemented other reforms. Elected district and provincial councils (zemstva), with peasant representatives, were set up in many provinces in the 1860s, and new local courts were established for peasants. These reforms were part of wider changes. There were improvements in transport with the construction of a national railway network, a national market developed, industrialization began to take off, and as a result there were more opportunities for wage labour in industry and commercial agriculture. Peasants became more mobile, migrating to the empire's rapidly growing cities as well as to Siberia and other farflung regions. Peasants' horizons were broadened also by the growth of formal schooling and the spread of literacy in the villages. These processes should not be seen solely as changes from outside that were disrupting a 'traditional' way of life. Russian peasants were used to adapting to changes, and in late Imperial Russia they shaped the changing world they lived in just as much as they themselves were altered. A further development in this period was rapid population growth. Between 1857 and 1917, the number of peasants inside the mid-seventeenth-century borders of Russia increased three times, a rate of natural growth that to some extent prefigured the population explosion in the developing world in the latter part of the twentieth century.

While peasants were constrained to some extent by the natural environments in which they lived, they were able to adapt to support themselves in conditions as diverse as the forests of the north and Siberia, and the steppes of the south and south-east. In their struggles to meet the burden of exploitation and support the growing population, however, peasants transformed and degraded these environments, clearing vast areas of forest and steppe grasslands, thus sowing the seeds for the far greater human impact on the environment of Russia in the 20th century.

### **Тема 18. Religions in the Russian Pre-revolution**

#### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

##### **Orthodoxy in the Russian Pre-revolution**

The revolution of 1905-1907 had a profound impact on Russian Orthodoxy. Most dramatically, it unleashed the pent-up discontent long percolating among the parish clergy, who, individually and collectively, embraced a range of liberal and even radical movements. To the horror of state officials, priests all across the empire proved receptive to the calls of the 'Liberation Movement' and used the occasion to press their own demands-for better material support, for the right of self-organization, for a reduction in 'episcopal rule' and a greater role in diocesan administration. But others took up the needs of the disprivileged. Thus the clergy of one deanship in Viatka diocese, for example, urged the State Duma (parliament) to resolve 'the agrarian question according to the wishes of the people'. And in numerous cases the local priest, whether from fear or conviction, became embroiled in the revolution itself, delivered incendiary sermons, performed requiems for fallen revolutionaries, and in sundry other ways supported his rebellious parishioners.

The First World War inspired the Church, like most of Russia, to respond with patriotic support for what would quickly prove an unmitigated military catastrophe. The Church itself mobilized substantial resources to assist in the war, converted facilities to serve as military hospitals, raised funds for the war victims and campaigned to sustain the fighting morale of the troops and the home front. In that respect, it differed little from churches of the other combatants. But the context was different: far sooner than elsewhere, the Russian Empire was swept by an intense tide of anti-war sentiment. Hence the Church's identification with the 'imperialist war' did much to create a young generation of anti-religious veterans, the future Red Army men who would be particularly hostile to the Church. But the Church itself had grievances, suffered mightily from the inflation and dislocation of war and had grown increasingly alienated from a crown irreparably besmirched by Rasputinism. Indeed, amidst the military crisis of 1915, with the country reeling from defeat, the Church suffered yet another scandal associated with Rasputin, as his protégé, the bishop of Tobolsk, conducted a hasty canonisation against the express orders of the Synod. The public resonance could hardly have been greater, and the damage to the Synod more ruinous. Little wonder that, when the autocracy appealed to the Church for support on 27 February 1917, in its critical hour, even the conservative Synod summarily refused. Russian Orthodoxy did not vanish after the Petrine reforms, but it certainly changed. Most striking was the resilience of popular faith; while the pre-revolution brought and accelerated undeniable anti-religious tendencies, the vast majority remained faithful and, indeed, demanded a greater role for the Church and for themselves in the Church. But Orthodoxy was no longer part of the infamous 'Orthodoxy, Autocracy, Nationality' trilogy of official politics; it had excised the middle term and, increasingly, identified with the people, not with a secular state that had plundered its assets and failed to protect its vital interests.

### **Тема 19. History as event. 1900-1914**

#### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

##### **History as event. 1900-1914**

The years 1900-14 are full of events marking these times as extraordinary years of change and consequence. In 1903 the great Trans-Siberian Railway was completed, symbolizing both the growth of the railroad as an engine of industrial development and the imperial reach of the state. In the same year, in direct opposition to this growing power of the state, members of the Marxist Russian Social Democratic Workers' Party created an organization designed to incite and lead democratic and social revolution in Russia - the Bolsheviks and the Mensheviks.

The year 1904 saw the start of the Russo-Japanese war, a disastrous conflict sparked by Russia's expansion into China and Korea in the face of Japan's own regional desires, further fuelled by Russian overconfidence and racist contempt for the Japanese. Then came the 'Revolution' of 1905, an unprecedented empire-wide upheaval, set in motion by the violent suppression on 9 January ('Bloody Sunday') in St Petersburg of a mass procession of workers with a petition for the tsar. These revolutionary upheavals extracted a remarkable concession from the government: Nicholas II's 'October manifesto', which for the first time in Russian history guaranteed a measure of civil liberties and a parliament (the State Duma) with legislative powers.

The years following the 1905 Revolution were marked by a succession of contradictory events. New fundamental laws in 1906 established the legislative Duma but also restricted its authority in many ways - not least of which was the complete lack of parliamentary control over the appointment or dismissal of cabinet ministers. In the early summer of 1907, the new prime minister, Petr Stolypin, seeking to defuse persistent criticism of the government by liberals and the Left in the first and second State Dumas, revised the electoral law hoping to ensure that the new Duma would be more compliant. Stolypin's 'coup', as it was dubbed, proved effective in quietening the Duma. During 1906-7, disagreeable publications were shut down by the hundreds and summary courts martial tried and sentenced hundreds of individuals accused of sedition. In the first few months, more than a thousand people were executed, inspiring grim ironic talk of 'Stolypin's necktie' - the noose. These repressions were not without reason: assassinations or attempts on the lives of tsarist officials were frequent during 1906.

Characteristically, Stolypin was able to pass designed to break up the traditional peasant commune in the hope of leading rural society away from dangerous communalism and out of what many saw as its destabilizing backwardness.

The relative stability of the years between 1907 and the start of war in 1914 were marred by unsettling events. Terrorist assassinations continued, in defiance of Stolypin's harsh repressions. A new wave of strikes broke out beginning in 1910, especially in the wake of news of the violent death of over a hundred striking workers attacked by government troops in 1912 in the Lena goldfields in Siberia. But perhaps the most ominous events of these years, which filled the daily press, took place abroad. Russians closely followed the Balkan wars of 1912 and 1913. For many, these were struggles for independence by Slavic Orthodox nations, necessarily and justly backed by Russia. But many also saw in these distant conflicts threatening signs of a much greater European war.

## **Тема 20. The First World War. 1914-1918**

### **READING AND COMPREHENSION**

#### **The First World War. 1914-1918**

The Russian Empire entered what became known as the First World War in the summer of 1914 as a Great Power on the Eurasian continent; four years later, the Russian Empire was no more. In its place was a Bolshevik rump state surrounded by a ring of hostile powers who shared some loyalty to the values of the Old Regime, or a conservative version of the Provisional Government. The notable exception to this was Menshevik-dominated Georgia in Transcaucasia, which pursued a moderate but socialist transformation of its society. Although all the Central European dynastic empires (Austria-Hungary, the Ottomans, Germany and Russia) failed to survive the suicidal war, what succeeded the Russian Empire, namely, the Soviet socialist state, was unlike any other successor regime.

Many of the origins of that Soviet state, and the civil war that did so much to shape it, can be traced to the preceding world war: new political techniques and practices, the polarisation of mass politics, the militarisation of society and a social revolution that brought to power a new set of elites determined to transform society even further while in the midst of mobilising for its own war of self-defence against domestic and foreign enemies. The war demanded unprecedented mobilisation of society and economy against formidable enemies to the west and south. The industrial mobilisation alone triggered 'a crisis in growth - a modernisation crisis in thin disguise'. But the economic crisis, with its attendant dislocations and disruptions, unfolded against the backdrop of an impressive societal recruitment; the involvement of millions of subjects in the war effort raised demands for political reform and exacerbated the crisis of the Old Regime.

The outbreak of war followed from the absence of any effective international mechanisms for resolving interstate conflicts on the European continent after the decline of the system of 'balance of power'. Faced with new threats on its western borders, Russia abandoned its traditional 19th-century royalist alliance with Germany and Austria-Hungary for a new set of relationships, the Triple Entente, with the constitutional monarchy of Great Britain and republican France, in the 1890s. The immediate casus belli was an Austrian ultimatum to Serbia after the assassination of the Habsburg heir, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, and his wife in Sarajevo on 28 June 1914; Russia and Austria-Hungary were divided over other issues of growing contention as well, particularly the fate of Austrian eastern Galicia (today's western Ukraine), where pre-war tensions involved several sensational espionage trials and fears of annexation. Influential German elites, for their part, developed plans to detach the western borderlands of the Russian Empire and reduce their eastern rival to a medium-sized and non-threatening power.

## **5. Перечень учебно-методического обеспечения для самостоятельной работы обучающихся по дисциплине (модулю)**

Самостоятельная работа обучающихся выполняется по заданию и при методическом руководстве преподавателя, но без его непосредственного участия. Самостоятельная работа подразделяется на самостоятельную работу на аудиторных занятиях и на внеаудиторную самостоятельную работу. Самостоятельная работа обучающихся включает как полностью самостоятельное освоение отдельных тем (разделов) дисциплины, так и проработку тем (разделов), осваиваемых во время аудиторной работы. Во время самостоятельной работы обучающиеся читают и конспектируют учебную, научную и справочную литературу, выполняют задания, направленные на закрепление знаний и отработку умений и навыков, готовятся к текущему и промежуточному контролю по дисциплине.

Организация самостоятельной работы обучающихся регламентируется нормативными документами, учебно-методической литературой и электронными образовательными ресурсами, включая:

Порядок организации и осуществления образовательной деятельности по образовательным программам высшего образования - программам бакалавриата, программам специалитета, программам магистратуры (утвержден приказом Министерства науки и высшего образования Российской Федерации от 6 апреля 2021 года №245)

Письмо Министерства образования Российской Федерации №14-55-99бин/15 от 27 ноября 2002 г. "Об активизации самостоятельной работы студентов высших учебных заведений"

Устав федерального государственного автономного образовательного учреждения "Казанский (Приволжский) федеральный университет"

Правила внутреннего распорядка федерального государственного автономного образовательного учреждения высшего профессионального образования "Казанский (Приволжский) федеральный университет"

Локальные нормативные акты Казанского (Приволжского) федерального университета

BBC - [bbc.com](http://bbc.com)

Science журнал - [www.sciencemag.org](http://www.sciencemag.org)

Why Research Matters - <https://www.futurelearn.com/courses/why-research-matters>

библиотека Znanium - [www.znanium.com](http://www.znanium.com)

ЭОР History of Emperial Russia - <https://edu.kpfu.ru/enrol/index.php?id=1656>

ЭОР History of Russia: Peter the Great. - <http://edu.kpfu.ru/course/view.php?id=1795>

## **6. Фонд оценочных средств по дисциплине (модулю)**

Фонд оценочных средств по дисциплине (модулю) включает оценочные материалы, направленные на проверку освоения компетенций, в том числе знаний, умений и навыков. Фонд оценочных средств включает оценочные средства текущего контроля и оценочные средства промежуточной аттестации.

В фонде оценочных средств содержится следующая информация:

- соответствие компетенций планируемому результату обучения по дисциплине (модулю);
- критерии оценивания сформированности компетенций;
- механизм формирования оценки по дисциплине (модулю);
- описание порядка применения и процедуры оценивания для каждого оценочного средства;
- критерии оценивания для каждого оценочного средства;
- содержание оценочных средств, включая требования, предъявляемые к действиям обучающихся, демонстрируемым результатам, задания различных типов.

Фонд оценочных средств по дисциплине находится в Приложении 1 к программе дисциплины (модулю).

## **7. Перечень литературы, необходимой для освоения дисциплины (модуля)**

Освоение дисциплины (модуля) предполагает изучение основной и дополнительной учебной литературы. Литература может быть доступна обучающимся в одном из двух вариантов (либо в обоих из них):

- в электронном виде - через электронные библиотечные системы на основании заключенных КФУ договоров с правообладателями;
- в печатном виде - в Научной библиотеке им. Н.И. Лобачевского. Обучающиеся получают учебную литературу на абонементе по читательским билетам в соответствии с правилами пользования Научной библиотекой.

Электронные издания доступны дистанционно из любой точки при введении обучающимся своего логина и пароля от личного кабинета в системе "Электронный университет". При использовании печатных изданий библиотечный фонд должен быть укомплектован ими из расчета не менее 0,5 экземпляра (для обучающихся по ФГОС 3++ - не менее 0,25 экземпляра) каждого из изданий основной литературы и не менее 0,25 экземпляра дополнительной литературы на каждого обучающегося из числа лиц, одновременно осваивающих данную дисциплину.

Перечень основной и дополнительной учебной литературы, необходимой для освоения дисциплины (модуля), находится в Приложении 2 к рабочей программе дисциплины. Он подлежит обновлению при изменении условий договоров КФУ с правообладателями электронных изданий и при изменении комплектования фондов Научной библиотеки КФУ.

## **8. Перечень ресурсов информационно-телекоммуникационной сети "Интернет", необходимых для освоения дисциплины (модуля)**

Russiapedia - <http://www.russiapedia.ru>

газета Newsweek - [www.newsweek.com](http://www.newsweek.com)

журнал Science - [www.sciencemag.org](http://www.sciencemag.org)

сайт Bbc - [www.bbc.com](http://www.bbc.com)

сайт издательства Oxford Headway - [www.oup.com/elt/headway](http://www.oup.com/elt/headway)



**9. Методические указания для обучающихся по освоению дисциплины (модуля)**

Вид работ	Методические рекомендации
<p>практические занятия</p>	<p>Практические занятия способствуют углубленному изучению наиболее сложных проблем изучаемой дисциплины и служат основной формой подведения итогов самостоятельной работы студентов. На практических занятиях студенты учатся грамотно грамматически и лексически излагать проблемы, свободно высказывать свои мысли и суждения, осуществлять диалогические высказывания в рамках заданной темы, а также профессионально и качественно выполнять практические задания по темам и разделам дисциплины. Все это помогает приобрести навыки и умения, необходимые современному специалисту и способствует развитию профессиональной компетентности. В качестве важного компонента обучения иностранным языкам выделяются учебные умения у студентов, необходимые для успешной учебной деятельности:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-наблюдать за тем или иным языковым явлением в иностранном языке, сравнивать и сопоставлять языковые явления в иностранном языке и родном;</li> <li>-сопоставлять, сравнивать, классифицировать, группировать, систематизировать информацию в соответствии с определенной учебной задачей;</li> <li>-обобщать полученную информацию;</li> <li>-оценивать прослушанное и прочитанное;</li> <li>-фиксировать основное содержание сообщений;</li> <li>-формулировать, устно и письменно, основную идею сообщения;</li> <li>-формулировать тезисы;</li> <li>-подготовить и представить сообщения, доклад, презентацию;</li> <li>-работать в паре, в группе, взаимодействуя друг с другом;</li> <li>-пользоваться реферативными и справочными материалами;</li> <li>-обращаться за помощью, дополнительными разъяснениями к преподавателю, другим студентам;</li> <li>-пользоваться словарями различного характера.</li> </ul> <p>С целью эффективной подготовки необходимо использовать рекомендуемые учебные пособия и материалы, а также авторитетные словари английского языка различного типа, включая как печатные, так и электронные версии.</p>
<p>самостоятельная работа</p>	<p>Самостоятельная работа позволяет сформировать у учащихся навыки самообразования и самореализации личности;</p> <p>Самостоятельная работа не нацелена на то, чтобы давать знания. Она направлена на обучение студентов правильному самостоятельному поиску этих знаний.</p> <p>Главная задача самостоятельной работы это - создание у учащихся потребности изучать и познавать.</p> <p>Самостоятельная работа должна:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Систематизировать и закрепить теоретические знания и практические умения учащихся;</li> <li>Углубить и расширить теоретические знания по английскому языку;</li> <li>Сформировать навыки использования учебной литературы на английском языке для поиска ответов на поставленную задачу;</li> <li>Развить познавательную активность студента, их творческую инициативу, организованность и ответственность;</li> <li>Выработать самостоятельность мышления, выявить способности к саморазвитию, самореализации и самосовершенствованию;</li> <li>Сформировать практические навыки и умения;</li> <li>Способствовать развитию исследовательских умений;</li> <li>Помочь выработать навыки продуктивной самостоятельной профессиональной работы на уровне общепризнанных мировых стандартов;</li> <li>Сформировать умения и навыки обобщения и выделения частного;</li> <li>Научить выделять общие признаки, сравнения этих признаков и создания обобщений на основе полученных данных;</li> <li>Научить сравнивать по общим и отличительным свойствам;</li> <li>Научить выстраивать доказательства на базе главных признаков.</li> </ul>

Вид работ	Методические рекомендации
экзамен	<p>Студент, сдающий экзамен, должен знать свои права и обязанности. Ему предоставляется право самостоятельного выбора билета. После того, как билет студентом взят, он имеет право и обязан 2-3 минуты вчитываться в содержание вопросов билета с тем, чтобы определить общее содержание вопросов и мысленно представить общее направление их полного раскрытия во время подготовки к ответу. Если для студента оказались непонятны вопросы (вопрос), он имеет право обратиться за разъяснением к преподавателю, который обязан в общих чертах объяснить экзаменуемому непонятное, не раскрывая конкретно содержание вопросов.</p> <p>Записи ответов должны быть по возможности краткими, последовательными, четкими. Лучше составить развернутый план ответов на вопросы с указанием фамилий, цифр, дат, цитат и тезисов, что организует ответ и обеспечит логическую последовательность в изложении материала. Часто студенты полностью пишут ответ и потом зачитывают этот текст дословно. Этого не следует делать, ибо, во-первых, это занимает много времени, а его на экзамене нет, во-вторых, это отрицательно влияет на впечатление от ответа, снижает возможность импровизации, включения дополнительных сведений и аргументов, которые нередко вспоминаются уже в процессе изложения материала. Ответ студента экзаменатору должен быть конкретным, содержательным и исчерпывающим. Часто студенты используют длинные подходы, прежде чем начать отвечать на конкретный вопрос, они вдаются в общие рассуждения, что не стоит делать. Студент должен знать, что многословные и малосодержательные ответы часто свидетельствуют о слабом знании предмета и стремлении уйти от конкретного материала. Непоследовательность и небрежность при ответах производят неблагоприятное впечатление.</p> <p>На экзаменах студент должен показать свои собственные знания, поэтому пользоваться чужой помощью категорически запрещается.</p> <p>Методика подготовки к сдаче зачета и экзамена одинакова и состоит из двух взаимосвязанных этапов.</p> <p>1. Регулярное посещение всех учебных занятий в течение всего семестра: лекций, семинарских занятий, консультаций и т.п., а также активное изучение рекомендованной литературы, отработка (в случае необходимости) в установленные сроки всех пропущенных учебных занятий.</p> <p>2. Непосредственная подготовка к зачету и экзамену, когда студенту нужно в короткий срок (2-4 дня) охватить весь изученный материал по предмету и успешно сдать зачет, а потом экзамен. А для того, чтобы это успешно сделать, студент, в первую очередь, должен мысленно в спокойной обстановке вспомнить весь материал, изученный за семестр, с тем, чтобы выявить разделы курса (предмета) слабо изученные или плохо понятые при первоначальном изучении с целью устранения пробелов в своих знаниях. Для успешной подготовки к экзаменам студенту необходимо составить себе своеобразный рабочий график, в котором отразился бы последовательный переход от темы к теме, от раздела к разделу. Во время подготовки к экзаменам могут появиться вопросы. Их нужно записать и получить ответ на предэкзаменационных консультациях. Причин, по которым студент мог бы не посетить консультацию, не должно быть. Ибо на этих консультациях преподаватель интересуется, как студентами изучены темы, пройденные в учебном процессе, при необходимости он разъясняет отдельные вопросы этих тем. Иногда преподаватель делает сжатый обзор важнейших тем курса, отмечает те вопросы, на которые студенты, ранее сдававшие экзамен, отвечали плохо.</p> <p>Во время подготовки к экзамену студенту необходимо просмотреть и собственные конспекты прослушанных лекций и самостоятельно проработанных тем семинарских занятий. Это позволит ему восстановить в памяти ранее изученные положения, выявить пробелы в своих знаниях и восполнить их из других источников.</p> <p>Значение предэкзаменационных консультаций очень велико. Они призваны:</p> <p>1) помочь устранить пробелы в знаниях; 2) помочь систематизировать весь ранее изученный материал; 3) информировать студентов о новейших сведениях по тому предмету, который изучен последним.</p>

**10. Перечень информационных технологий, используемых при осуществлении образовательного процесса по дисциплине (модулю), включая перечень программного обеспечения и информационных справочных систем (при необходимости)**

Перечень информационных технологий, используемых при осуществлении образовательного процесса по дисциплине (модулю), включая перечень программного обеспечения и информационных справочных систем, представлен в Приложении 3 к рабочей программе дисциплины (модуля).

**11. Описание материально-технической базы, необходимой для осуществления образовательного процесса по дисциплине (модулю)**

Материально-техническое обеспечение образовательного процесса по дисциплине (модулю) включает в себя следующие компоненты:

Помещения для самостоятельной работы обучающихся, укомплектованные специализированной мебелью (столы и стулья) и оснащенные компьютерной техникой с возможностью подключения к сети "Интернет" и обеспечением доступа в электронную информационно-образовательную среду КФУ.

Учебные аудитории для контактной работы с преподавателем, укомплектованные специализированной мебелью (столы и стулья).

Компьютер и принтер для распечатки раздаточных материалов.

Мультимедийная аудитория.

Компьютерный класс.

Лингафонный кабинет.

## **12. Средства адаптации преподавания дисциплины к потребностям обучающихся инвалидов и лиц с ограниченными возможностями здоровья**

При необходимости в образовательном процессе применяются следующие методы и технологии, облегчающие восприятие информации обучающимися инвалидами и лицами с ограниченными возможностями здоровья:

- создание текстовой версии любого нетекстового контента для его возможного преобразования в альтернативные формы, удобные для различных пользователей;
- создание контента, который можно представить в различных видах без потери данных или структуры, предусмотреть возможность масштабирования текста и изображений без потери качества, предусмотреть доступность управления контентом с клавиатуры;
- создание возможностей для обучающихся воспринимать одну и ту же информацию из разных источников - например, так, чтобы лица с нарушениями слуха получали информацию визуально, с нарушениями зрения - аудиально;
- применение программных средств, обеспечивающих возможность освоения навыков и умений, формируемых дисциплиной, за счёт альтернативных способов, в том числе виртуальных лабораторий и симуляционных технологий;
- применение дистанционных образовательных технологий для передачи информации, организации различных форм интерактивной контактной работы обучающегося с преподавателем, в том числе вебинаров, которые могут быть использованы для проведения виртуальных лекций с возможностью взаимодействия всех участников дистанционного обучения, проведения семинаров, выступления с докладами и защиты выполненных работ, проведения тренингов, организации коллективной работы;
- применение дистанционных образовательных технологий для организации форм текущего и промежуточного контроля;
- увеличение продолжительности сдачи обучающимся инвалидом или лицом с ограниченными возможностями здоровья форм промежуточной аттестации по отношению к установленной продолжительности их сдачи:
- продолжительности сдачи зачёта или экзамена, проводимого в письменной форме, - не более чем на 90 минут;
- продолжительности подготовки обучающегося к ответу на зачёте или экзамене, проводимом в устной форме, - не более чем на 20 минут;
- продолжительности выступления обучающегося при защите курсовой работы - не более чем на 15 минут.

Программа составлена в соответствии с требованиями ФГОС ВО и учебным планом по направлению 46.03.01 "История" и профилю подготовки "Отечественная история".

Приложение 2  
к рабочей программе дисциплины (модуля)  
Б1.В.ДВ.01.01 Иностранный язык в профессиональной сфере

**Перечень литературы, необходимой для освоения дисциплины (модуля)**

Направление подготовки: 46.03.01 - История  
Профиль подготовки: Отечественная история  
Квалификация выпускника: бакалавр  
Форма обучения: очное  
Язык обучения: русский  
Год начала обучения по образовательной программе: 2023

**Основная литература:**

1. Бондарчук, Г. Г. Основные различия между британским и американским английским [Электронный ресурс] : учеб. пособие. / Г. Г. Бондарчук, Е. А. Бурая. - 3-е изд., стер. - М. : ФЛИНТА, 2013. - 135 с.  
<http://znanium.com/bookread2.php?book=457835>
2. Маслова, Ж. Н. A New Highway to English. Быстрый путь к английскому [Электронный ресурс] : учеб. пособие / Ж. Н. Маслова, Л. В. Татару, Т. А. Балашова. - 2-е изд., стер. - М. : Флинта, 2012. - 142 с.  
<http://znanium.com/bookread2.php?book=455866>
3. Ерофеева, Л. А. Modern English in Conversation [Электронный ресурс] : Уч. Пособ. По современному разговорному английскому языку / Л. А. Ерофеева. - 2-е изд., стереотип. - М. : Флинта, 2011. - 340 с.  
<http://znanium.com/bookread2.php?book=406099>

**Дополнительная литература:**

1. Богатырёва, М. А. Учебник английского языка для неязыковых гуманитарных вузов. Начальный этап обучения [Электронный ресурс] : учебник / М. А. Богатырёва. - 2-е изд., стереотип. - М. : Флинта : МПС И, 2011. - 637 с.  
<http://znanium.com/bookread2.php?book=453977>
2. Комаров, А. С. Practical Grammar Exercises of English for Students. Практическая грамматика английского языка для студентов [Электронный ресурс] : сб. упражнений / А. С. Комаров. - 2-е изд. - М.: Флинта, 2012. - 256 с.  
<http://znanium.com/bookread2.php?book=455230>

*Приложение 3*  
*к рабочей программе дисциплины (модуля)*  
*Б1.В.ДВ.01.01 Иностранный язык в профессиональной сфере*

**Перечень информационных технологий, используемых для освоения дисциплины (модуля), включая перечень программного обеспечения и информационных справочных систем**

Направление подготовки: 46.03.01 - История  
Профиль подготовки: Отечественная история  
Квалификация выпускника: бакалавр  
Форма обучения: очное  
Язык обучения: русский  
Год начала обучения по образовательной программе: 2023

Освоение дисциплины (модуля) предполагает использование следующего программного обеспечения и информационно-справочных систем:

Операционная система Microsoft Windows 7 Профессиональная или Windows XP (Volume License)  
Пакет офисного программного обеспечения Microsoft Office 365 или Microsoft Office Professional plus 2010  
Браузер Mozilla Firefox  
Браузер Google Chrome  
Adobe Reader XI или Adobe Acrobat Reader DC  
Kaspersky Endpoint Security для Windows

Учебно-методическая литература для данной дисциплины имеется в наличии в электронно-библиотечной системе "ZNANIUM.COM", доступ к которой предоставлен обучающимся. ЭБС "ZNANIUM.COM" содержит произведения крупнейших российских учёных, руководителей государственных органов, преподавателей ведущих вузов страны, высококвалифицированных специалистов в различных сферах бизнеса. Фонд библиотеки сформирован с учетом всех изменений образовательных стандартов и включает учебники, учебные пособия, учебно-методические комплексы, монографии, авторефераты, диссертации, энциклопедии, словари и справочники, законодательно-нормативные документы, специальные периодические издания и издания, выпускаемые издательствами вузов. В настоящее время ЭБС ZNANIUM.COM соответствует всем требованиям федеральных государственных образовательных стандартов высшего образования (ФГОС ВО) нового поколения.