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**INTRODUCTION TO THE HISTORY OF RUSSIA
(IX-XVIII centuries)**

Tutorial

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majoring in «Information Technologies»
(B.Sc. Programme)**

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COURSE AGENDA

Theme		Remarks	Academic process		Essays
			Regular performance control	Control tests	
Session 1.	Russian lands before 862 AD		+		
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Session 4	Mongol invasion & overlordship (yoke)		+	+	
Session 5	Rise of the Moscow State		+		
Session 6	Moscow Tsardom under Rurikids		+		
Session 7	Time of Troubles		+	+	
Session 8	Moscow State under Romanov dynasty, XVII century		+		
Session 9	Russian Empire, XVIII century		+		
Session 10	Russian Empire, XIX century		+	+	
Session 11	Crash of the Russian Empire and foundation of the Soviet Union		+		
Session 12	Soviet Union in the World War II		+		
Session 13	Cold War and Bipolar World System		+	+	
Session 14	Crash of the Soviet Union and Russian Federation in 1991-2010 AD		+		+
CONSULTATION + EXAM					

SESSION 1.

RUSSIAN LANDS BEFORE 862 AD

The Russian civilisation was born in the east of Europe – in the huge area between the Baltic Sea, the Black Sea, the Don and Dunay rivers. Remnants of these long-gone civilisation were discovered in such places as Ipatovo, Sintashta, Pazyryk and Arkaim (so called «Russian Troy»).

The first civilisations in official connection to Russia were Cimmerians, Scythians and Sarmatians. Cimmerians were a mysterious people from Ural, who attacked Babylon and Assyrian Empire in VIII-VII centuries BC. Scythians were an Irannic people and they were known to have two major goals in life: horse trade and war. The Scythians influenced the Greek culture when Greek merchants established the trade colonies in Dnepr and Phanagoria in the VIII century BC.

By the II century BC, Sarmatians captured the Scythia. Sarmatians were a group of Turkic tribes, with the Alans being the most powerful. They were recorded by the Byzantines to be «tall, handsome, and blond». They were originally nomads, but soon settled down along the Black Sea coast with the Slavs. Alans traded with the Byzantines, and they developed an artistic sense, making jewelry and other artistic crafts.

In the III century AD, the Goths from the Germanic lands conquered the Sarmatians, and settled along the Dnepr and Don rivers. The rise of the Gothic power was under the rule of king Ermenrich II.

By the IV century AD the nomadic Huns swept to the region and allied with the local opponents of the Goths - Alans, Avars and Antes. Together, they fought and defeated the Goths. After Ermenrich`s suicide the Goths left the region and went into Roman territory, finally destroying Rome. After sweeping destruction across Europe, the Huns died out or settled in the Central Europe and mixed with others tribes.

The Antes were ancient ancestors of Slavs who lived along the Donets and Bug rivers. This conglomerate of Slavonic tribes fought against the Byzantine Empire, the Avars and barbarian landlords in the Europe. Finally the Antes settled the Balkan region, with the Avars settling in Hungary.

Slavs were just one of the several Antes tribes which inhabited the Central and Eastern Europe, but step by step they became the dominant power. Somehow this name was applied later for the great number of people who settled in the area between Baltic, White, Caspian and Black seas. Relatively little is known about the Slavs because the probable absence of a written language and the remoteness of East Slavonic lands. Except for the apocryphal Book of Veles

(written in unknown script), very few native Russian documents, dating before the XI century, have been discovered. Cyrillic script was created specifically for Slavonic adoption only about 863 AD by the Byzantine monks Cyril and Methodius. The earliest facts are known from the Arabic, Persian and Byzantine chronicles.

Early medieval historians were impressed with the spirit of independence and enterprise inculcated among the Slavs from birth. Ibn Rustah, Persian historian, writes: «When a son is born, the father will go up to the newborn baby, sword in hand; throwing it down, he says; «I shall not leave you any property: you have only what you can provide with this weapon!»

Sources portray the Slavs as devout pagans. They were extremely tolerant and combined different religious streams: traditional Slavonic pantheon was added by Scandinavian and Finnish gods. The priests (wolkhves) wielded great power over the common folk. They determined what women, men, or animals had to be sacrificed, and there was no appealing their decisions.

Trade was the major source of financial income for the Slavs. The likely mainstays of their economy were river's (Volga, Dnepr, Dunay) trade routes. Russian merchants traveled down the Volga, paying duties to the Bulgars and Khazars, to the ports of Gorgan and Abaskun on the southern shore of the Caspian Sea; on occasion they traveled as far as Baghdad. For example, 20 000 Slavonic mercenaries even had occupied Syria within the Arab army. More than 228 000 Arabic coins have been recovered from over a thousand hoards in European Russia and the Baltic region. Almost 90% of these arrived in Scandinavia by way of the Volga trade route.

In accordance with the earliest major manuscript on Russian history - Primary Chronicle (written in the late XI and early XII centuries) – Slavs were divided into 12 tribal unions who settled between the Baltic Sea and the Black Sea by the IX century. These tribal unions were Polyans, Drevlyans, Severyans, Dregovichs, Radimichs, Vyatichs, Krivichs, Ulichs, Slovens, Dulebes (later known as Volhynians), White Croates, Tivertsi.

The earliest tribal centres of the East Slavs included the proto-towns of Holmgard (Novgorod), Aldeigja (Ladoga), Izborsk, Alaborg, Lyubsha, Polotsk, Gnezdovo, Sarskoe Gorodishche, Timerevo and Kiev. Slavonic area became known in Old Norse sources as «Gardarick» (land of forts) because numerous settlements. They were under the rule of a lord or lords using the ancient Turkic title «Khagan». There is much debate on the identity and ancestry of the earliest Russian rulers. They may have been Scandinavians, native Slavs or Finns, or of mixed ancestry.

The first Slavonic «khaganate» (a confederation of tribes or a cluster of city-states) may be regarded as a predecessor to the Kiev State. It flourished during the late VIII and early to mid-

IX centuries. Its population was composed of Slavonic, Finnish and Norse peoples. The earliest European reference to this khaganate comes from the Frankish Annals of St. Bertin. The Annals referred to a group of warriors, who called themselves Rhos and visited Constantinople around the 838 AD.

The location of the khaganate has been actively disputed since the early XX century. According to the different theories, the Russian khagan resided in Novgorod, Ladoga or even in Scandinavia. In contrast, a famous historian G. Vernadsky believed that the khagan had his headquarters in the eastern part of the Crimea (accordingly to the description of the ancient Persian chronicler Ibn Rustah). The version as represented by historians B. Rybakov and L. Gumilev advanced Kiev as the residence of the khagan, assuming that Askold and Dir were the only known khagans recorded by name. Led by them in the 860 AD, the Russian warriors besieged Constantinople with a fleet of 200 ships. The Byzantine army and navy were far from the capital, leaving it vulnerable to the attack. The timing of the expedition suggests that the Russians were well-aware of the internal situation in the empire thanks to the commercial and other relations that continued after the embassy of 838 AD. The Russian warriors devastated the suburbs of Constantinople before departing.

Key Words, Dates & Figures

Arkaim	<i>Ancient center of proto-Slavonic civilisation in Ural region. Usually it is known as a «Russian Troy».</i>
Cimmerians, Scythians and Sarmatians	<i>Ancient peoples from the South-East Europe, first civilisations connected to Russia.</i>
Ermenrich II	<i>The most powerful Gothic king, enemy of Antes and Huns, who was defeated and committed suicide.</i>
Antes	<i>Ancestors of Slavs, tribal union of the East Europe.</i>
Book of Veles	<i>Apocryphal manuscript on the earliest Slavonic history written in original script. Not recognised by the official history.</i>
Cyril and Methodius	<i>Byzantine monks (native Slavs) who adopted the Greek script to the Slavonic needs (Cyrillic script) and started the alphabetisation of Slavs in Crimea.</i>
wolkhves	<i>Slavonic priests, medics and spiritual leaders.</i>
Polyans, Drevlyans, Vyatichs, Slovens	<i>Main Slavonic tribes in IX – XII centuries.</i>
Gardarick	<i>Land of forts. Title of Russia in Scandinavian chronics.</i>
838 AD	<i>First Russian embassy to Constantinople.</i>
860 AD	<i>Siege of Constantinople by Russian army & fleet leaded by princes Askold and Dir.</i>

SESSION 2.

FIRST RURIKIDS AND FOUNDATION OF THE RUS' OF KIEV

In 862 AD different tribes of the East-Baltic region started a cruel war in order to establish their leadership over the lands. Referring to the Primary Chronicle, «there was no law among them, and tribe rose against tribe. Discord thus ensued among them, and they began to war one against the other. They said to themselves, «Let us seek a prince who may rule over us, and judge us according to custom». Thus they went overseas to the Varangians, to the Rus'. These particular Varangians were called Rus', just as some are called Swedes, and others Normans, and still others Goths, for they were thus named. ... The Slavs... then said to the Rus', «Our land is great and rich, but there is no order in it. Come reign as princes, rule over us». Three brothers, Rurik, Sinehus and Thruwar, with their kinfolk, volunteered. They took with them all the Rus' and came...»

Rurik (? – 879) became a prince of Novgorod with the support of the Novgorod leader Gostomysl. He tried to unit the northern territories and to establish the domination of Scandinavian warrior-elite that ruled a majority of Slavonic entities. The last Slavs tentative to restore the native ruler in Novgorod (so called rebellion of Vadim the Bold) was failed and the Slavonic leader was decapitated.

During the next 35 years the Rurik's successor Oleg (?-912) and his professional army (drouzhina) subdued the various Eastern Slavonic and Finnish tribes. Finally about 880 AD they captured Kiev, which was a main trade concurrent of Novgorod. Oleg killed Askold and Dir, lords of Kiev, and joined the South of Russia to the North. The straight of Rus' affected the relations with two neighbor states – Khazar Khaganate and Byzantine Empire, who began to consider united Rus' as the major enemy and tried to limit the development of Kiev.

In 907 AD, Oleg led a successful attack against Constantinople, and in 911 AD he signed a commercial treaty with the Byzantine Empire as an equal partner. The 3rd ruler – Igor (? – (?)945) – repeated his military & diplomatic success in 944 AD.

Igor also tried to harmonise the sovereignty affected by his external policy. He fought against separatism of several tribes and finally was killed by Drevlyans, who proclaimed their independence from central authority. The Igor's wife, Olga (890 (?) – 969 AD) became regent of the 3-years Igor's son Svyatoslav. She led a vengeance against Drevlyans and burnt down their capital Iscorosteign. After that Olga focused her attention on two points – internal affairs and religion. She improved the taxation and founded special trade factories to collect tributes (pogost). She also adopted Christianity and asked Russian elite also to convert. During this

unpopular religious reformation, her son and commander-in-chief Svyatoslav I (941 – 972 AD), adept of a traditional paganism, gained the power.

Svyatoslav's military conquests were astonishing. He abolished separatism of Slavonic and Finnish tribes, in alliance with Pechenegs he crushed two strongest neighbours of Kiev, Khazaria and the Volga [Bulgaria Kingdom](#), which collapsed soon after his raids.

When the Byzantines involved Svyatoslav at conflict against Dunai Bulgaria, they had soon to declare war to him because Russian victories and occupation of the area of Byzantine's national interests. After a bloody battle at Dorostol in 971 AD, Svyatoslav had to quit Bulgaria, because a political instability in Kiev and external menace to Russian lands. While he returned back, he was assassinated by Pecheneg's khan Kurya.

After Svyatoslav the region of [Kiev](#) dominated the Russian state for the next two centuries. The [grand prince](#) («veliky khnyaz») of Kiev controlled the lands around the city, and his theoretically subordinate relatives ruled in other cities and paid him tribute. The zenith of the state's power came during the reigns of Prince Vladimir I (Vladimir the Great, r. 980-1015) and prince Yaroslav I (the Wise; r. 1019-1054). Both rulers continued the steady expansion of Rus' of Kiev that had begun under Oleg.

The new Slavonic state prospered also because it had an abundant supply of [furs](#), slaves, [beeswax](#) and [honey](#) for export and because it controlled three main trade routes of Eastern Europe: the Volga trade route (from the Baltic Sea to the Orient), the Dnepr trade route (from the Baltic Sea to the [Black Sea](#)), and the trade route from the Khazars to the Germans.

Vladimir raised to power in Kiev after the death of his father Sviatoslav I in 972 AD and after defeating his half-brother Yaropolk in 980 AD. As prince of Kiev, Vladimir's most notable achievement was the Christianisation of Rus' of Kiev, a process that began in 988 AD.

The annals of Rus' state inform us that when Vladimir had decided to accept a new faith instead of the traditional idol-worship (paganism) of the Slavs, he sent out some of his most valued advisors and warriors as emissaries to different parts of Europe. After visiting the Roman Catholics, the [Jews](#) and the Muslims, they finally arrived in Constantinople. There, they were so astounded by the beauty of the cathedral of Hagia Sophia and the liturgical service held there, that they made up their minds there and then about the faith they would like to follow. Upon their arrival home, they convinced Vladimir that the faith of the Greeks was the best choice of all, upon which Vladimir made a journey to Constantinople and arranged a marriage between himself and princess Anna, the sister of the Byzantine emperor Basil II.

Vladimir's choice of Eastern Christianity may also have reflected his close personal ties with Constantinople, which dominated the Black Sea and hence trade on Kiev's most vital commercial route, the [Dnepr river](#). Adherence to the Eastern Orthodox Church had long-range

political, cultural, and religious consequences. From the onset the Kiev princes followed the Byzantine example and kept the Church dependent on them, even for its revenues, so that the Russian Church and state were always closely linked. As soon as Vladimir accepted Eastern Orthodoxy, Rus' of Kiev came together under a church structure and developed a Byzantine-Slavonic synthesis in culture, statecraft, and the arts. The [Byzantine](#) culture was a continuous influence on the development of Russia in its formative centuries.

Yaroslav I, known as «The Wise», also struggled for power with his brothers. Although he first established his rule over Kiev in 1019 AD, he did not have uncontested rule of the whole Rus' until 1036 AD.

Like Vladimir, Yaroslav was eager to improve relations with the rest of Europe, especially the Byzantine Empire. Rus' of Kiev played an important genealogical role in European politics as well. Yaroslav the Wise, whose stepmother belonged to the greatest dynasty to rule Byzantium, married the only legitimate daughter of the king who Christianised Sweden. His daughters became Queens of Hungary, France and Norway, his sons married the daughters of a Polish king and a Byzantine emperor (not to mention a niece of the Pope), while his granddaughters were a German Empress and (according to one theory) the Queen of Scotland. A grandson married the only daughter of the last Anglo-Saxon king of England. Actually, no other contemporary royal family was as well-connected as the [Rurikids](#).

With assistance of the 1st Slavonic metropolitan Illaryon, Yaroslav promulgated the first East Slavonic law code, «Russkaya Pravda». When most legal codes of Europe regarded torture as a preferred way of eliciting truth and often abused the death penalty, the [Russkaya Pravda](#) confined punishments to fines and did not provide for capital punishment at all. Certain inalienable rights were accorded to women, such as property and inheritance rights.

Rus' of Kiev, although sparsely populated compared to Western Europe, was not only the largest European state in terms of area but also one of the most culturally advanced. At the time when only a few European monarchs could spell their name, most children in Kiev, [Novgorod](#) and other large cities were literate. As birch bark documents attest, they exchanged love letters and prepared cheat sheets for schools. At the time when Paris was full of sewage and refuse, Novgorod boasted a sewage system and wood paving. Yaroslav the Wise built St. Sophia Cathedral in Kiev and St. Sophia Cathedral in Novgorod; patronised local clergy and monasticism; and is said to have founded a school system. Yaroslav's sons developed the great Kiev-Pechersk Lavra (monastery), which functioned in Rus' of Kiev, as an ecclesiastical academy. By the XI century Rus' could boast an economy and achievements in architecture and literature superior to those that then existed in the western part of the continent. Compared with the languages of European Christendom, the Russian language was little influenced by the Greek

and Latin of early Christian writings. This was due to the fact that Church Slavonic was used directly in [liturgy](#) instead.

The economic development of the Rus' of Kiev may be translated into demographic statistics. Around 1200 AD, Kiev had a population of 50 000 people, Novgorod and Chernigov both had around 30 000 people. By comparison, in England, where urbanisation was as advanced as anywhere in Europe, London had around 12 000 inhabitants, and England's second city, Winchester, about 5 000. On the eve of the Mongol invasion Rus' had around 300 urban centers.

The Rus' of Kiev ultimately disintegrated as a state because of in-fighting between members of the princely family that ruled it collectively and the nomadic incursions of Polovetsians.

Key words, Dates & Figures

Rurik	<i>Scandinavian konung, first ruler of Russia.</i>
862 AD	<i>Rurik's arrival to Novgorod.</i>
Gostomysl	<i>Novgorod tribal leader who invited Rurik to rule the city.</i>
Vadim the Bold	<i>Leader of Slavonic riot against Norse elite in Novgorod.</i>
Oleg	<i>Rurik's relative and successor, who captured Kiev and besieged Constantinople.</i>
drouzhina	<i>Professional mounted warriors, personal guards of Russian prince.</i>
907 AD, 911 AD, 944 AD	<i>Russo-Byzantine treaties resulting military achievements of Russian army.</i>
Igor	<i>Rurik's son and 3rd prince of Rus', assassinated by Drevlyans.</i>
Olga	<i>Igor's wife and Svyatoslav's mother, regent of Rus', adopted Christianity (most probably Catholicism).</i>
Svyatoslav I	<i>Famous warrior, who crushed Khazaria, captured Crimea and Bulgaria.</i>
Khazaria and the Volga Bulgaria Kingdom	<i>Turkic kingdoms, concurrents of Kiev State, which collapsed after campaigns of Svyatoslav.</i>
Pechenegs, Polovetsians (Cumans)	<i>Turkic nomadic tribes occupying the area between Dnepr and Black Sea coastal.</i>
veliky khnyaz	<i>Grand prince, official title of Russian ruler.</i>
Vladimir I the Great	<i>Svyatoslav's bastard, grand prince of Kiev, who christianised the Rus'.</i>
988 AD	<i>Christianisation of Rus'.</i>
Yaroslav I the Wise	<i>Vladimir's son, who gained the power after bloody civil war.</i>
Illaryon	<i>1st Slavonic metropolitan & diplomat, co-author of the Russkaya Pravda.</i>
Russkaya Pravda	<i>1st East Slavonic law code.</i>
birch bark documents	<i>Manuscripts (love letters, trade documents, orders) on wood bark.</i>
Kiev-Pechersk Lavra	<i>Monastery founded near Kiev, center of spiritual live & culture.</i>

SESSION 3.
DECLINE & POLITICAL FRAGMENTATION
OF THE RUS' OF KIEV

From origins the Russian state was not a sustainable entity. Separatism of the local tribes, uprisings, dynasty disputes were combined with the raids of nomads and wars. The strong leaders like Oleg, Vladimir or Yaroslav can keep the power basing on the military force and political efforts.

After the death of Yaroslav the Wise in 1054 AD the Rus' of Kiev was not able to maintain its position as a unique, powerful and prosperous state. As the Rurikids became more numerous, they identified themselves with regional interests rather than with the larger patrimony. The principle of the «family scale» (the oldest Rurikid rule in Kiev as a grand prince) was violated by other members of the ruling clan who can not get a supreme power within the framework of such political system. Thus, the princes fought among themselves, frequently forming alliances with outside groups such as the Cumans, Poles, and Hungarians. Finally, prince Vladimir Monomakh (r. 1113-1125 AD) initiated a summit in Lubech in 1097 AD. A new political principle «Everyone keeps his own lands! » stopped the amalgamation of disparate lands, but it started the feudal fragmentation of the Rus'.

Under Vladimir Monomakh and his son Mstislav the Great (r. 1125-1132 AD), Kiev stayed the strongest military power which formally united the Russian lands and protected them from nomadic invasions. Meanwhile the development of feudalism, trade and industry straightened the local political elites who became more independent from the central power. During the years from 1054 to 1224 AD no fewer than 64 principalities had a more or less ephemeral existence, 293 princes put forward succession claims, and their disputes led to 83 civil wars. After Mstislav's death the Polovetsians raids caused a massive influx of Slavs to the safer, heavily forested regions of the north, particularly to the area known as Zalesye. In 1204 AD the forces of the 4th Crusade sacked Constantinople and made the Dnepr trade route marginal. In 1240 AD the Mongol invaders destroyed Kiev, never to be restored as the capital of Russia.

As it declined, the Rus' of Kiev splintered into many principalities and several large regional centers: Novgorod, Vladimir-Suzdal, Smolensk, Pereyaslavl, Polotsk, Chernigov, etc. Kiev's dominance waned to the benefit of three powerful principalities - Vladimir-Suzdal in the north-east, Novgorod in the north, and Halych-Volhynia in the south-west.

Vladimir-Suzdal

In the northeast, Slavs colonised the large territory by bringing into subjection and merging with the Finno-Ugric tribes already occupying the area. The oldest centers of the

northeast were Mourom and Rostov, but they were supplanted first by Suzdal and then by the city of Vladimir, which became the capital of Vladimir-Suzdal principality. There was recorded a large wave of [migrations](#) from Kiev region northward, to escape continuing excursions of the nomads from the «Wild Steppe». As the southern lands were being depopulated, more boyars, nobles, artisans arrived to the court at Vladimir, the combined [principality](#) of Vladimir-Suzdal asserted itself as a major power in the Rus' of Kiev. Vladimir-Suzdal area became a center of agriculture, arts, culture and commerce. Its princes established numerous forts and factories (Moscow, 1147 AD; Gorodetz, 1197 AD; Nizhni Novgorod, 1221 AD) to maintain the security and trade development at the principality.

In 1169 AD prince Andrey Bogolyubsky (r. 1157-1174 AD) became the 1st grand prince of Vladimir-Suzdal. In order to confirm the new title he sacked Kiev in the same year and even installed his younger brother, who ruled briefly in Kiev while Andrey continued to rule his realm from Suzdal. Thus, political power began to drift away from Kiev in the second half of the XII century and Vladimir became the main city of Russia. In 1299 AD the Metropolitan moved from Kiev to Vladimir, and Vladimir-Suzdal also replaced Kiev as a religious center of the Russian orthodox religion.

Vladimir-Suzdal principality was a center of Russian resistance to the Mongol army.

Novgorod Republic

Novgorod always played the important role in Russian history. By economical view Novgorod Republic prospered as northern part of the Rus' of Kiev because it controlled trade routes from the Volga river to the Baltic Sea and colonised a huge northern area, which was rich in amber, furs, honey and wood.

In consequence of the military aid provided to Vladimir the Great and Yaroslav the Wise in the wars among Rurikids, Novgorod gained a partial political independence from Kiev. As the Rus' of Kiev declined, Novgorod became more independent.

The city was managed by a local oligarchy (so called «gold belts») and clerics. Major government decisions were made by a city assembly («veche»), which also elected an outside prince as the city's temporary military leader and governor. But this assembly was very easy to manipulate. From the XII century, Novgorod acquired its own archbishop, a sign of increased importance and political independence.

In the end of XIII century Novgorod (with another northern Russian city Pskov) joined to the Hanseatic League, the prosperous alliance of Baltic cities that dominated the commercial activity of the Baltic region between the XIII and the XVII century. In its political structure and mercantile activities, Novgorod resembled the north European towns more than the other principalities of the Rus' of Kiev. In 1238-1240 AD Novgorod didn't suffer from the Mongol

invasion: after a long negotiation with Batu Khan Novgorod was obliged only to pay a required tribute to Mongols.

However the Mongol's aid sometimes will help the republic in clash with the main enemy – European Crusaders. Inspired by the Pope and the prosperity of the area Teutonic, Danish & Swedish knights proclaimed the «move to the East» as the major goal of their foreign policy. In 1202-1240 AD they invaded the Baltic coastal of Novgorod and built there numerous castles such as Riga and Derpt (Tallinn). The invaders established a Livonian knight order and even tried to capture Novgorod and Pskov. Only after two bloody battles on Neva River in 1240 AD against Swedish army and on Peipus (Chudskoye) Lake (Ice Battle) in 1242 AD against Livonian order the European expansion was stopped by the prince Alexander Nevsky. However, the Livonian Knights menaced to the Novgorod and Pskov because their political goals and military power till 1412 AD (Grunewald Battle).

In the end of XV century Novgorod and Pskov were annexed by the Moscow state.

Halich-Volhynia

On the southwest, there were two centers of power – Vladimir-Volhynsky and Halich. A good climate favored to the population growth, agriculture and arts. The region also prospered because an advantageous geographical position. It had commercial relations with Lithuania, Hungary, Crimea and Byzantine Empire. As consequence, the local nobles (boyars) felt them more independent than everywhere in the Rus' of Kiev.

In the early XIII century, prince Roman Mstislavich (r. 1199-1205 AD) united the two previously separate principalities. Since that time his principality emerged as the local successor to the Rus' of Kiev. In the end of his rule prince Roman conquered Kiev and assumed the title of the grand prince of Kiev.

His son, prince Daniel (r.1238-1264 AD) crushed the boyar opposition. Most boyars were decapitated or exiled. These measures permitted to Daniel to collect lands and to establish his sovereignty over the region. He was the single Russian ruler, who proclaimed himself a king and accepted a crown from the Roman papacy, apparently doing so without breaking with Constantinople. Early in the XIV century, the patriarch of the Eastern Orthodox Church in Constantinople granted the rulers of Halych-Volhynia a metropolitan to compensate for the move of the Kiev metropolitan to Vladimir.

However, a long and unsuccessful struggle against the Mongols combined with internal opposition to the prince, and foreign intervention weakened Halych-Volhynia. With the end of the Mstislav's branch of the Rurikids in the mid-XIV century, Halych-Volhynia ceased to exist; Poland conquered Halych; Lithuania took Volhynia, including Kiev, conquered by Gediminas in 1321 AD. Lithuanian rulers then assumed the title of the monarchs of Ruthenia.

Key words, Dates & Figures

Family scale	<i>Political principle when the throne comes to the oldest member of the dynasty.</i>
Vladimir Monomakh (r. 1113-1125)	<i>Grand prince of Kiev who crushed Polovetsians and tried to restore the golden age of Kiev.</i>
Summit in Lubech, 1097 AD	<i>Extraordinary assembly of Rurikids initiated by Vladimir Monomakh in order to stop the conflicts & amalgamation of Russian lands, where the principle of family scale was declined in profit of feudalisation.</i>
Zalesye	<i>Northeast area in Vladimir-Suzdal principality, place of migrations from the south of Russia.</i>
Wild Steppe	<i>Field space in the east of Russia, flux of the nomadic excursions.</i>
Andrey Bogolyubsky (r. 1157-1174)	<i>1st grand prince of Vladimir, assassinated by a boyar opposition.</i>
Gold belts	<i>Rich merchants, local nobles & oligarchs of Novgorod.</i>
Veche	<i>City assembly, the representative political body of Novgorod Republic.</i>
Hanseatic League	<i>Prosperous alliance of Baltic cities that dominated the commercial activity of the Baltic region between the XIII and the XVII century.</i>
Move to the East	<i>Motto of the European Crusaders, mainly of the Teutonic Order and Sword Knights.</i>
Livonian Order	<i>Anti-Russian union of Teutonic & Sword Knights on the Baltic coastal established in 1237 AD.</i>
Alexander Nevsky (r.1252-1263)	<i>Prince of Novgorod, prince of Pereyslavl, grand prince of Vladimir. Legendary commander who won European Crusaders and stopped their move to the East.</i>
Battle on Neva River, 1240 AD	<i>Great victory of prince Alexander against the Swedish army. Resulting to this battle Alexander is known as Alexander Nevsky.</i>
Battle on Peipus Lake (Ice Battle), 1242 AD	<i>Decisive Alexander's victory against the Livonian Order on the ice of the lake Chudskoye (Peipus), which stopped the move to the East.</i>
Grunewald Battle, 1412 AD	<i>Final battle of joined forces of Russia, Poland and Lithuania against the Livonian order supported by European mercenaries. After defeat Livonia collapsed and was divided among neighbor states.</i>
Roman Mstislavich (r. 1199-1205)	<i>Prince who united Vladimir-Volhynsky and Halich principalities, captured Kiev.</i>
Daniel of Halych (r.1238-1264)	<i>Grand prince of Volhynia and Halich who accepted a crown and king's title from the Roman papacy, opponent of Mongols.</i>

SESSION 4.

MONGOL INVASION & OVERLORDSHIP (YOKE)

The fall of the Rus' of Kiev was accelerated by the external menace of Mongol invasion.

In 1206 AD the Mongol clans were united under the leadership of Genghis-Khan. In 1213 AD their horse archers started conquests in China, Central Asia, Siberia and Caucasus. At the Black Sea area they faced Polovetsians (Cumans).

Previously known for pillaging settlers on the frontier, the nomads now preferred peaceful co-existence with Russian lands. Their grand khan Kotyak asked Russian princes help to resist the Mongol army. As his daughter was married with the grand prince of Kiev, in response to this call, the disunited southern Russian princes joined armies and were involved into the war against Mongols on the Cumans side. Despite the allied forces were three times bigger, their troops were crushed by parts at the Kalka river in 1223 AD.

Although this defeat left the southern Russian principalities at the mercy of invaders, the Mongol forces retreated and did not reappear for 14 years, during which time the princes of Rus' went on quarreling and fighting as before, until they were startled by a new and much more formidable invading force than at Kalka.

In 1235 AD the Mongols began the campaign against the Western World in order to «reach the ultimate sea». In 1236 AD they conquered the Volga Bulgaria and subdued Mordovia. It took them a year to extinguish the resistance of local tribes and to establish a firm control over the region.

In November 1237 AD, Batu Khan sent his envoys to the court of the grand prince Yuri II of [Vladimir](#) and demanded his submission. The ambassadors were humiliated and a month later, the Mongol horse hordes besieged Ryazan. At first Russian prince considered the invasion as a regular nomadic incursion and left all Ryazan calls without answer. However, after six days of bloody battle, the city was totally annihilated, never to be restored. The last Ryazan's warriors headed by Eupatius Kolovrat catch the advancing Mongols and detained their army until to be ruined by catapults.

Alarmed by the news, Yuri II sent his sons to oppose the invaders, but they were defeated near Nizhni Novgorod. Having burnt down Kolomna and Moscow, the horde laid siege to Vladimir in February 1238. Three days later, the capital of Vladimir-Suzdal was taken and burnt to the ground. The royal family and a half of inhabitants perished in the fire, while the grand prince retreated northward. He mustered a new army. In the Battle of the Sit' river Russian regiments were totally exterminated and prince Yuri II was killed. So, in that dangerous time the

northeast and north remained without political leader and was unable to coordinate further efforts in order to resist the invasion.

Thereupon Batu Khan divided his army into smaller units, which ransacked all towns of the region - Rostov, Uglich, Yaroslavl, Kostroma, Kashin, Ksnyatin, Gorodets, Pereslavl-Zalessky, Yuriev-Polsky, Dmitrov, Volokolamsk, Tver and Torzhok. The most difficult to take was the small town of Kozelsk, whose boy-prince Basil and inhabitants resisted the Mongols for seven weeks, killing 4 000. As the story goes, at the news of the Mongol approach, the whole town of Kitezh with all its inhabitants was submerged into a lake Svetloyar near Nizhni Novgorod, where, as legend has it, it may be seen to this day. The only major cities to escape destruction were Novgorod and Pskov which had to pay required tributes to the conquerors.

In the summer of 1238 AD Batu Khan devastated the Crimea and suppressed Mordovia. In the winter of 1239 AD, he sacked Chernigov and Pereyaslav. After many days of siege, the horde stormed Kiev in December 1240 AD. Refugees from southern Rus' gravitated mostly to the northeast, in the forest region with poor soils between the northern Volga and Oka rivers.

In 1241 AD despite the fierce resistance of king Daniel of Halych, Batu Khan managed to take two of his principal cities, Halych and Vladimir-Volhynsky. Next year the Mongols invaded Hungary and Poland.

The astonishing defeats of Europeans armies in Legnizce and at the Schayot river in the April 1241 AD left the Central and Western Europe at the mercy of invaders, and there was no military force to resist them.

At the zenith of Batu's campaign in 1242 AD the grand khan of Mongolia Ogedei suddenly died and the invasion was called off because political reasons. Finally, the Mongol princes divided their vast territory into khanates and till 1480 AD Russia became vassal & ally of the western part of empire known as the Golden Horde.

The Mongol invaders came to stay on the lower Volga, where they built a capital of the Golden Horde, called Saray (Palace). Batu Khan fixed his headquarters there and represented the majesty of his sovereign the grand khan who lived with the Great Horde in the Orkhon Valley of the Amur.

The impact of the Mongol invasion on the Russian territories was uneven. Over half the population of Rus died during the Mongol raids. The advanced city culture was almost completely destroyed. Older centers such as Kiev and Vladimir never recovered from the devastation of the initial attack. The Russian entities were left as vassals rather than integrated into the central Asian empire. Only the Republic of Novgorod & Pskov remained independent. Mongols also supported the new cities of Moscow, Tver and Nizhni Novgorod to save the fragmentation and to avoid the re-integration of Russian lands.

In popular memory the period of subjection was commonly referred to as the «Tatar-Mongol yoke». This term suggests ideas of terrible oppression, but in reality these nomadic invaders from Mongolia were not such cruel, oppressive taskmasters as is generally supposed. It is very easy to exaggerate the influence and effects of this overlordship which for 240 years the Russians had to endure. In many aspects the subjection appeared to be only nominal.

At the first place, Mongols never settled in the country, and they had little direct dealing with the inhabitants. In accordance with the admonitions of Genghis to his children and grandchildren, they retained their pastoral mode of life, so that the subject races, agriculturists, and dwellers in towns, were not disturbed in their ordinary avocations.

Secondly, they were extremely tolerant in religious matters. When they first appeared in Europe, they were Shamanists, and as such they had naturally no religious fanaticism. After they adopted [other](#) religions, they remained as tolerant as before, and the first Muslim khan of the Golden Horde allowed the Russians to found a Christian bishopric in his capital. The Russian Orthodox Church even experienced a spiritual revival under the guidance of Metropolitan Alexis and Sergius of Radonezh.

Thirdly, Mongols left many of Russia's cultural elements. Russians were allowed to continue worship under the Russian Orthodox Church, and the princes continued to rule. Also, by appointing a Grand Prince the Tatars reinforced the idea among the Russians that the Grand Prince held dominion over Russia and the rest of the princes. Despite not being a political entity, the Russian people continued to be bound together by the ideology of the Russian Orthodox Church and by their cultural identity.

These represent the bright side of Tatar rule. It had its dark side also. So long as a great horde of nomads was encamped on the frontier the country was liable to be invaded by an overwhelming force of ruthless marauders. Fortunately, these invasions were not frequent but when they occurred they caused an incalculable amount of devastation and suffering. In the intervals the people had to pay a fixed tribute. At first it was collected in a rough-and-ready fashion by a swarm of Tatar tax-gatherers, by about 1259 AD it was regulated by a census of the population, and finally its collection was entrusted to the native princes, so that the people were no longer brought into direct contact with the Tatar officials.

In general, the princes were allowed considerable freedom to rule as they wished, they had to pay tribute to the Mongols of the Golden Horde, but in return they received charters authorising them to act as deputies to the khans. Tatar khans also kept in their hands the disposal of the title of grand prince, the settlement of cases of disputed succession, and the granting of commissions, for all of which there was exacted the customary oriental servility.

A significant number of Russian historians consider the oppression of Rus' by the Mongols to be the major cause of what is sometimes called «the East-West gap» - approximately 200 years of delay in introducing major social, political and economical reforms and scientific innovations comparing to Western Europe. But even they agree that the Rus' of Kiev was not a homogeneous political, cultural, or ethnic entity and that the Mongols merely accelerated fragmentation that had begun before the invasion. Historians also credit the Mongol regime with an important role in the development of Moscow state. The Mongols left their impact on the Russians in such areas as military tactics and transportation. Under Mongol occupation, Russia also developed its postal road network, census, fiscal system, and military organisation. Eastern influence remained strong well until the XVII century, when Russian rulers made a conscious effort to westernise their country.

Some modern Russian historians (most notably, the «Neo-Eurasianist» ideologist Lev Gumilev) even postulate there was no invasion at all. According to them, for example, in the mid-XIII century the Russian prince Alexander Nevsky concluded a defensive alliance with the Horde in order to repel attacks of the fanatical Teutonic Knights & Swedes, which to grab territory and convert the Russians into Roman Catholicism.

Key words, Dates & Figures

Genghis Khan	<i>Legendary Mongol leader, founder of the Mongol Empire.</i>
Battle at the Kalka river, 1223 AD	<i>Battle of Cumans & Russians vs. Mongol expeditionary corps headed by Subatay.</i>
Volga Bulgaria	<i>Trade concurrent of the grand principality of Vladimir located on the Volga river, on the east from Nizhni Novgorod.</i>
Mordovia	<i>Area on the southeast from Nizhni Novgorod, populated by Mordovians (Finno-Ugric tribes).</i>
Batu Khan	<i>Genghis Khan's grandson, commander of the campaign vs. Russian principalities & Europe, first khan of the Golden Horde.</i>
Yuri II of Vladimir	<i>Grand prince of Vladimir, killed in the battle of Sit' river, 1238 AD.</i>
Eupatius Kolovrat	<i>Legendary Ryazan's warrior who led vengeance to Mongols till his death.</i>
1237 – 1238 AD	<i>Mongol campaign against the central and northeast Russian principalities.</i>
1239 – 1241 AD	<i>Mongol campaign against the southern Russian principalities.</i>
Kitezh	<i>Apocryphal town which was submerged into a lake Svetloyar near Nizhni Novgorod at the news of the Mongol approach.</i>
battles in Legnizce and at the Schayot river,	<i>Astonishing defeats of joined European armies, which left the Europe at the mercy of Mongol invaders.</i>

1241 AD	
Golden Horde	<i>The western part of the Mongol Empire which included Siberia, Ural and Volga valley with the capital in Saray. Sovereign of Russian lands till 1480 AD.</i>
Tatar-Mongol yoke	<i>Period of the Russian subjection to Mongols, Mongol overlordship.</i>
Sergius of Radonezh	<i>Spiritual leader of Russia in XIV century.</i>
baskack	<i>Tatar tax-gatherers who collected a fixed tribute in a rough-and-ready fashion.</i>
the East-West gap of Russia	<i>Approximately 240 years of delay in introducing major social, political and economical reforms and scientific innovations comparing to Western Europe as a direct consequence of the Mongol yoke</i>
Neo-Eurasianist	<i>Scientific & ideological stream in the Russia which is based on the idea of a specific (Eurasian) Russian way of development & civilisation.</i>
Lev Gumilev	<i>Best-known historian, eurasian ideologist, specialist on oriental history & culture.</i>

SESSION 5.

RISE OF THE MOSCOW STATE

Moscow was founded in 1147 as a fortress in the principality of Vladimir. It was burnt down during the Mongol invasion of 1237-1238 AD to be rebuilt again. At the reign of grand prince Alexander Nevsky, he granted the town to his youngest son Daniel.

Under Daniel (r.1276-1304 AD), Moscow was little more than a small timber town lost in the forests of Central Russia. However he increased its role and established a new political entity - the principality of Moscow (known in the western tradition as *Moscovia*), which started to collect Russian lands. There were several factors contributing to the domination of Moscow. Firstly, the city was well-situated in the central river system of Russia and surrounded by protective forests and marshes. This factor favored trade development and migrations from southern Russia. The second factor was transformation of Moscow into the religious center of Russia in 1328 AD, when prince Ivan I Kalita (r.1325-1340 AD) managed to remove the permanent headquarters of the Russian Orthodox Church from Vladimir to Moscow. However, the main factor in the ascendancy of Moscow was the cooperation of its rulers with the Mongol overlords, who granted them the title of grand prince of Moscow (1328 AD) and made them agents for collecting tributes from the Russian principalities.

Under prince Ivan Kalita, his troops suppressed the anti-Mongol uprising in Tver in 1328 AD, the main opponent of Moscow in the region. In compensation, he was appointed the grand prince, absorbed Vladimir (final absorption happened in 1362 AD) and small semi-independent principalities around his city, removed the headquarters of Metropolitan to Moscow. During his rule, the principality achieved an impressive economic growth and started the political struggle for the leadership over the Central Russia. His sons Simeon and Ivan II jointed the principalities of Kostroma, Dmitrov and Kaluga. Moscow's leadership in Russia was now firmly based and by the middle of the fourteenth century its territory had greatly expanded through purchase, war, and marriage (i.e. prince Dmitry of Moscow married the single daughter of the prince of Nizhni Novgorod and inherited his lands).

At the same time, the power of the Mongols was declining, and the grand prince Dmitry (r.1359 – 1389 AD) felt able to openly oppose the Mongol yoke. In 1380 AD, at Kulikovo on the Don River, the Mongols were defeated, and although this hard-fought victory did not end Tatar rule of Russia (in 1382 AD Moscow was burnt down by the new Mongol khan Tokhtamysh), Moscow became a center of all Russian lands.

In the XV century, the grand princes of Moscow went on gathering Russian lands to increase the population and wealth under their rule. The most successful practitioner of this process was Ivan III the Great (r. 1462–1505 AD), who laid the foundations for a Russian national state.

At the start of his rule Ivan succeeded to control Tver. The most powerful center of resistance to the Moscow dominance, Novgorod Republic, was crushed at the battle of Shelon river in 1471 AD. Eight years later the city of Novgorod was finally annexed and Pskov was subdued by Moscow. Through the defections of some princes, border skirmishes he competed with his powerful northwestern rival, the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, for control over some of the semi-independent Upper Principalities in the upper Dnepr and Oka river basins. As a result, the grand principality of Moscow tripled in size under his rule.

In 1472 AD Ivan III refused to pay further tribute to the declining Golden Horde, now divided into several khanates and hordes. He concluded an alliance with Crimean Horde, successfully opposed to raids of the Golden Horde leader Ahmed Khan and even initiated a series of attacks that opened the way for the complete defeat of the 240-years enemy after the Great standing on Ugra river in 1480 AD. In the same year the Golden Horde was destroyed by its opponents, Ahmed Khan was assassinated. As result, Moscow rejected the Mongol yoke, but Ivan and his successors sought to protect the southern boundaries of their domain against attacks of the Crimean Tatars and other hordes. To achieve this aim, Moscow sponsored the construction of the Great Abatis Belt.

As Moscow won its sovereignty and huge conquests, it was necessary to consolidate new acquisitions not only by military force. Ivan granted manors to nobles, who were obliged to serve to him in the military & civil. Such manor system provided a basis for an emerging horse army and for a new nobility supporting Ivan III. In order to optimise the state administration he created the system of prikazes (ministries), established the Boyar Council for consulting on the most important issues and promulgated the new law code «Sudebnik» of 1497 AD.

Basically, the new law code established a universal system of the judicial bodies of the state, defined their competence and subordination, and regulated legal fees. It expanded the range of acts, considered punishable by the standards of criminal justice (e.g., sedition, sacrilege, slander). It also renewed the concept of different kinds of a crime, established the investigative nature of legal proceedings. In order to protect the feudal landownership, Sudebnik introduced certain limitations in the law of estate, increased the term of limitation of legal actions with regards to princely lands, introduced flagellation for the violation of property boundaries of princely, boyar and monastic lands - violation of peasant land boundaries entailed a fine. Sudebnik also introduced a fee (or *pozhiroye*) for peasants who wanted to leave their feudal lord, and also established a universal day (November 26) across the Russian state for peasants, who wanted to switch their masters (Yuri's Day).

Such measures permitted to Ivan III to proclaim his absolute suzerainty over all Russian princes and nobles. He considered the entire Russian territory his property. Various semi-independent princes still claimed specific territories, but Ivan III forced the lesser princes to acknowledge the grand prince of Moscow and his descendants as unquestioned rulers with control over military, judicial, and foreign affairs. The fall of Constantinople in 1453 AD and the death of the last Greek Orthodox Christian emperor contributed to a new idea of Moscow as «New Rome» and the seat of Orthodox Christianity. To confirm this inspiration, in 1472 AD Ivan III married with Sophia Palaeologus, a daughter of the last Byzantine emperor and adopted visual attributes of the Byzantine Empire – ceremonial and armories. Around 1524 AD a monk named Filofei (Philotheus of Pskov) achieved the imperial ideology of Russia in his letter to Ivan's son Vasily III, with the prophecy that the latter's tsardom will be the Third Rome. Gradually, the Russian ruler emerged as an autocratic ruler, a tsar. The first Russian grand prince to officially crown himself «Tsar» was Ivan IV.

Key words, Dates & Figures

1147 AD	<i>Foundation of Moscow.</i>
Daniel of Moscow	<i>Son of Alexander Nevsky, founder of the sovereign principality of Moscow.</i>

(r.1276-1304 AD)	
Ivan I Kalita (r.1325-1340 AD)	<i>Prince of Moscow, who suppressed the anti-Mongol uprising in Tver, became grand prince with the Mongol assistance and removed the Orthodox Metropolitan to Moscow.</i>
Dmitry (r.1359 – 1389 AD) of Don	<i>Prince of Moscow, who joined Nizhni Novgorod with a marriage and led a victory vs. Mongols at Kulikovo battle.</i>
Kulikovo battle, 1380 AD	<i>Decisive battle between joined Russian army leaded by Moscow and Golden Horde which plays a significant role in the Russian history.</i>
Ivan III the Great (r.1462–1505 AD)	<i>Grand prince of Moscow and «grand prince of all Rus'», sometimes referred to as the «gatherer of the Russian lands», he tripled the territory of his state, ended the dominance of the Golden Horde over the Rus', renovated the Moscow Kremlin, and laid the foundations of the Russian state.</i>
battle of Shelon river, 1471 AD	<i>Decisive battle between the Moscow forces under Ivan III and the army of the Novgorod Republic. Novgorod suffered a defeat and it lost the independence from Moscow.</i>
Ahmed Khan (r.1465-1481 AD)	<i>Last ruler of the Golden Horde.</i>
Great standing on Ugra river in 1480 AD	<i>Final half-year confrontation of Moscow army vs. Golden Horde which undermined the military power of the Tatars.</i>
Great Abatis Belt	<i>Chain of fortification lines, created by grand principality of Moscow and later by the Tsardom of Russia in order to protect it from the raids of the Crimean Tatars.</i>
prikaz	<i>Ministry in the administration of the Moscow state.</i>
Sudebnik, 1497 AD	<i>Collection of laws, which was introduced by Ivan III and played a big part in the centralisation of the Russian state, creation of the nationwide Russian Law and elimination of feudal division.</i>
Sophia Palaeologus	<i>Second wife of Ivan III, daughter of Thomas Palaeologus, despot of Morea, who claimed the throne of Constantinople as the brother of Constantine XI, last Byzantine emperor.</i>
Filofei (Philotheus of Pskov)	<i>Hegumen of the Yelizarov Monastery in Pskov in the XVI century. He is credited with authorship of the Third Rome prophecy.</i>

SESSION 6.

MOSCOW TSARDOM UNDER RURIKIDS

After the death of Ivan the Great, his son Vasily III (r.1505 – 1533 AD) continued the lands-gathering policies and consolidated Ivan's gains. He annexed the surviving autonomous provinces: Pskov (1510 AD), Volokolamsk (1513 AD), Ryazan (1521 AD) and Novgorod-Seversky (1522 AD). Resulting to the successful war against Lithuania, Vasily III captured the fortress of Smolensk (1514 AD). He continued to reinforce the Great Abatis Belt against Crimean Horde and even placed the pro-Russian pretender Cangali khan on the throne of Kazan in 1531-1532 AD.

In his internal policy, Vasily III was actively trying to limit immunities and privileges of boyars and nobility. Sometimes he enjoyed the support of the Church in his struggle with the feudal opposition. During his reign, the gentry's landownership increased. At the zenith of his power Vasily III suddenly died, when his oldest son Ivan was 3 years old only. On his deathbed, Vasily III transferred his powers to his wife Elena Glinskaya until Ivan was mature enough to rule the country. There is no precise information on Elena's legal status after Vasily's death. Most probably, it could be defined as regency when the boyars had to report to her.

Elena conducted a financial reform, which resulted in introduction of a unified monetary system in 1535 AD. In 1536 AD she succeeded in signing an armistice with Lithuania and neutralised Sweden. She invited settlers from Lithuania, bought Russian prisoners free and instigated measurers to protect travelers against street robbers.

Elena died in 1538 at AD. Probably she was poisoned by the boyar's clan of Shuysky, who usurped the power after her death. As soon as Ivan matured to rule, he ordered to blind and to kill the representatives of Shuysky family. Ivan IV (r. 1547 – 1584 AD) was crowned with Monomakh's Cap in the January 1547 AD as the first tsar of Russia.

The early period of his reign was fruitful for peaceful reforms and modernisation. In the sphere of state management Ivan IV promulgated a new law code (known as Sudebnik of 1550 AD), founded the council of noble proponents (known as the Chosen Council, 1547 – 1560 AD), established a public consensus-building assembly of the lands (Zemsky Sobor, 1549 AD). He introduced local self-government to rural regions, mainly in the northeast of Russia, populated by the state peasantry. However, he also restricted by law the mobility of peasants, the first step to serfdom. In domain of religion, the tsar straightened the position of the Orthodox Church with the Council of the Hundred Chapters (1551 AD), which standatised the rituals and ecclesiastical regulations of the entire religious stream. To assure the future conquests he established a standing army (the strelets regiments).

Ivan IV tried also to bridge the gap of Russia in the European trade. In 1550 AD he founded the port of Ivangorod on Baltic coastal, but because the policy of Hanseatic League, Poland and Livonia German merchant companies to deliver goods in the Baltic ports owned by Livonia. So, the expedition of Richard Chancellor, occasionally reaching the Black Sea coastal of Russia in 1551 AD was considered by the young tsar as a chance to overcome the sea trade isolation of the Moscow state. In 1555 AD Ivan granted diversified privileges to merchants of England united in the Moscow Company.

By the 1550 Ivan was carrying out the Tatar menace. He encircled Kazan with a chain of mobile forts in order to prepare the final storming. In 1552 AD he captured Kazan and its treasury. In 1556 AD he seized Astrakhan and eliminated the slave trade on Volga river. Such achievements complicated the nomadic incursions from Asia and turned Russia into a multinational empire of different confessions.

Now Ivan tried to acquire an access to the Baltic lands by annexation of the declining Livonian Order. In 1558 he started the invasion which changed the political map of Europe. Initially Ivan's army advanced with success. It occupied Livonia, but such invasion affected the interests of other Baltic states which joined their forces against Moscovia. Despite the foundation of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth in 1569 AD and the transformation of Livonia into the Duchy of Courland in 1561 AD, Polish vassal, impressive Russian victories led the tsar to reject peace proposals from his enemies. The turning point in the war happened in 1578 AD. The joint offensive of the Polish-Lithuanian and Sweden armies was added by the incursion of the Crimean Tatars, economic crisis and epidemics. Within 1578 – 1583 AD Russia had lost all captured territories and even some indigenous Russian lands in profit of its opponents. The agreement of Jam-Zapolsky (1582 AD) with Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and the same of Plyussa (1583 AD) with Sweden finished the war, but Ivan IV obliged to renounce his claims to Livonia.

Although the results of this war, tsar continued the empire-building policy with supporting the Ermak's campaign and Cossacks' raids in order to conquer Siberia in 1581-1583 AD.

One of the main reasons of Ivan's defeat in Livonian war was oprichnina. After the death of his wife Anastasia in 1560 AD, the royal personality changed. Ivan was suspecting his surroundings in treachery. He dismissed the Chosen Council and repressed most boyars and nobles. The final point was the betrayal of his friend prince Andrey Kurbsky and the boyar's plot in profit of his cousin prince Vladimir of Staritsa. In 1565 AD tsar created a special political institution of oprichnina which was organised very similarly to the church around monastic principles (with the tsar himself as abbot), enjoying the same freedom from taxes. It covered a

northeast of Russia including parts of Moscow and main central cities. Probably, Ivan IV was called the Terrible because oprichnina. In general, this system of oprichnina was a tool against the hereditary nobility of Russia and included the 6000 oprichnick`s corps under commander Malyuta Skuratov-Belsky used extreme violence against any opposition to Ivan`s rule. The oprichniks wore black cowls and carried brooms and dogs` heads at their saddle-bows. The culmination of their acts was a Massacre of Novgorod (1571 AD), when around 10 000 inhabitants were exterminated. In spite of the violence and political repressions oprichnicks were unable to resist to external invasions and even undermined the political stability and economy. In consequence of that they were disbanded in 1572 AD, but most of them kept their places in the royal administration, like Boris Godunov.

In 1581 AD Ivan IV argued to his oldest son Ivan Ivanovich, which resulted in Ivan striking his son in the head, causing his son`s accidental death. So, upon Ivan's death in 1584 AD, the ravaged tsardom was left to Feodor I.

Feodor I (r. 1584 – 1598 AD) was crowned in 1584 AD. New tsar was never considered a candidate for the Russian throne until the death of his elder brother Ivan and he took little interest in politics. His weakness and inability to rule effectively have been sometimes attributed to mental retardation. Having inherited a land devastated by the excesses of his father, Ivan the Terrible, he left the task of governing the country to his brother-in-law, Boris Godunov (Feodor married in 1580 AD Irina, sister of Boris Godunov). The most important domestic reform was the decree forbidding the peasantry to go from one landowner to another (1597 AD), thus binding them to the soil. The object of this ordinance was to secure revenue, but it led to the institution of serfdom in its most oppressive form.

During Feodor`s rule, the Russian Orthodox Church received its patriarchate, placing it on an equal footing with the ancient Eastern churches and freeing it from the influence of the Patriarch of Constantinople.

Unlike his father, Feodor had no enthusiasm in maintaining exclusive trading rights with the Kingdom of England. Feodor declared his kingdom open to all foreigners, and dismissed the English ambassador. Elizabeth I sent a new ambassador in order to demand Boris Godunov to convince the tsar to reconsider, but the negotiations failed.

Feodor`s failure to sire children (his single daughter Feodosia died in 1594 AD aged two) brought an end to the centuries-old central branch of the Rurik dynasty (although many princes of later times are descendants of Rurik as well). Termination of the dynasty was one of the main reasons of the Time of Troubles.

Key words, Dates & Figures

Vasily III (r.1505 – 1533 AD)	<i>Son of Ivan III, grand prince of all Russia who continued the land-building policy of Moscow leaders. Died from infection.</i>
Elena Glinskaya (r.1533-1538 AD)	<i>Wife of Vasily III and Ivan`s IV mother, consort of the Russian lands during Ivan`s childhood, was poisoned by boyars.</i>
Ivan IV (r. 1547 – 1584 AD) the Terrible	<i>First tsar and autocrat of Russia.</i>
Monomakh`s Cap	<i>One of the symbols of Russian autocracy, and is the oldest of the crowns currently exhibited at the Kremlin Armoury. It was the crown of all Grand Princes of Moscow and Tsars from Dmitry of Don to Peter the Great.</i>
Shuysky family	<i>Boyar family, descendants of Rurikids senior line.</i>
Sudebnik of 1550 AD	<i>Code of law promulgated by Ivan IV</i>
Chosen Council, 1547 – 1560 AD	<i>Representative body composed of the nearest tsar`s advisors which had a consulting function.</i>
Zemsky Sobor, 1549 AD	<i>First Russian parliament of the feudal Estates type in the XVI and XVII centuries. The term roughly means assembly of the land.</i>
Council of the Hundred Chapters, 1551 AD	<i>Church council held with the participation of tsar, Metropolitan Macarius, and representatives of the Boyar Duma. It was called under the government`s initiative which aspired to support the church in struggle against anti-feudal heretical movements and simultaneously to subordinate its secular authority.</i>
strelets	<i>Units of foot guardsmen in the XVI - early XVIII centuries, armed with firearms. They are also collectively known as Marksman Troops.</i>
Richard Chancellor	<i>English explorer and navigator; the first to penetrate to the White Sea and establish relations with Russia.</i>
Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth	<i>Confederation of Poland and Lithuania formed by the union of Lyublin in 1569 AD and lasted till 1795 AD, traditional concurrent of Russia.</i>
Ermak	<i>Cossacks popular leader who conquered Siberia.</i>
oprichnina	<i>Special regime of landownership establishing the direct royal governance over the northeast of Russia and in order to support the autocracy against opposition.</i>
Massacre of Novgorod (1571 AD)	<i>Attack by tsarist forces on the city of Novgorod in consequence of suspect in betrayal.</i>
Malyuta (Grigory)	<i>One of the most odious leaders of oprichnicks.</i>

Skuratov-Belsky	
Feodor I (r. 1584 – 1598 AD)	<i>Second son of Ivan the Terrible, last representative of the ruling Rurikid dynasty at the throne.</i>
Boris Godunov	<i>Future tsar, previously trusty of Ivan IV, boyar, advisor and brother-in-law of Feodor I.</i>
Livonia	<i>Lands of the declining Livonian Order which included modern Latvia and Estonia.</i>

SESSION 7. TIME OF TROUBLES

On the decline of Rurikid dynasty in 1598 AD, Boris Godunov (r.1598-1605 AD) became provisional regent till the election of new tsar. Although there were other Rurikid pretenders to throne (Shuysky, Golitsins, etc.), Boris used the support of the government administration and Patriarch Job of Moscow. At the same year, Godunov was elected by the Zemsky Sobor and solemnly crowned first non-Rurikid tsar.

During the first years of his reign, he was popular and prosperous. He needed for Russia to catch up to the intellectual progress of the West and to avoid East-West gap. He was also the first tsar to import foreign teachers on a large scale, and the first to send young Russians abroad to be educated. As he was tolerant and tried to improve the relationship with German lands, he was first to allow Lutheran churches to be built in Russia.

Boris Godunov felt the necessity of access to the Baltic Sea and attempted to obtain Livonia by diplomatic means without success. However after the Russo-Swedish War (1590–1595 AD) he even gained some towns lost by Ivan the Terrible. He thought also to establish friendly relations with the Scandinavians and to increase the dignity and stability of his own dynasty.

Unfortunately the second part of his reign was not so fruitful. During three years (1601-1603 AD) extremely cold summers wrecked crops, that led to the famine. Widespread hunger led to mass starvation; the government distributed money and foodstuffs for poor people in Moscow, but that only led to refugees flocking to the capital and increasing the economic disorganisation. The boyars used this to libel Boris accusing him in the young prince Dmitry assassination. Suspecting the probable plots, the tsar feared the possible pretenders to the throne. As consequence, he forbid the leading boyars to marry without his permission, encouraged informers and persecuted suspects on their unsupported statements.

In 1603 AD in the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth a man called himself prince Dmitry, son of Ivan IV, appeared. He announced his claims to the Russian throne, usurped by tsar Boris. Although the Polish king Sigismund III officially refused to recognize him, some powerful magnates decided to support Pseudo-Dmytry (or False Dmitry) with their own forces and money, expecting rich rewards afterward and considering him as a tool to extend their influence over Russia. The Papacy confirmed his status and provided him with ideological assistance in order to increase the hold of Roman Catholicism over the Eastern Orthodox Church.

The Russian army under commander Basmanov successfully kept the invasion of Pseudo-Dmitry out of Russian territory while Boris was alive. However Boris Godunov's reign ended in chaos. The government showed itself incapable of maintaining order. Many cities were devastated and rural regions were depopulated, great bands of armed brigands roamed the country committing all manner of atrocities, the Don Cossacks on the frontier were restless.

Boris died in April 1605 AD. His son Feodor II succeeded him and ruled for only a few months. After the death of Boris Russian troops began to defect to Pseudo-Dmitry's side and the entire Godunov's family was betrayed and murdered by the Pseudo-Dmitry proponents in July 1605 AD.

Pseudo-Dmitry I made his triumphal entry into Moscow, and he was crowned tsar Dmitry II by a new patriarch, the Greek Ignatius. At first the new tsar tried to consolidate his power. His political opponents were executed or exiled, like Patriarch Job of Moscow, who did not recognise him as the new tsar. In contrast, many of the noble families exiled by Godunov - such as the Shuysky, Golitsins and Romanovs - were granted his grace and allowed to return back to Moscow. Dmitry II planned to introduce a series of political and economical reforms. He restored Yuri's Day, the day when serfs were allowed to move to another lord, to ease the conditions of peasantry.

In foreign policies, Dmitry sought for alliance with Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and Roman Pope. He planned a war against Ottoman Empire and ordered the mass production of firearms. In his correspondence he referred to himself as «Emperor of Russia», though this title wasn't recognised at the time.

Before a year had passed the boyars, headed by the Rurikid prince Vasily Shuysky, began to plot against Dmitry, accusing him of spreading Roman Catholicism and sodomy. It was believed that Dmitry had made a concession to his Polish supporters to convert the entire Russia to Catholicism. This angered the Russian Orthodox Church, the boyars, and the population alike and increased the support of his enemies. Another factor was that Dmitry was guarded by Commonwealth forces, which still garrisoned Moscow and often engaged in various criminal acts and angered the local population. In May 1606 AD conspirators stormed the Kremlin.

Dmitry tried to flee through a window but broke his leg in the fall. One of the plotters shot him dead on the spot. The body was put on display and then cremated, the ashes reportedly shot from a cannon towards Poland. Vasily Shuysky took his place as tsar Vasily IV.

During his reign the period of civil wars and foreign intervention started. It was known as the «Time of Troubles» (1606–1613 AD). Vasily IV had a little authority and was under the Boyar’s Duma control. After the Russo-Swedish alliance, the Polish king proclaimed his son Wladislaw pretender to the Russian throne and started the intervention. The Commonwealth troops besieged Smolensk and destroyed the combined Russo-Swedish forces at the battle of Klushino in 1610 AD. The Pseudo-Dmitry II, supported by Cossack squadrons of Zarutsky, was staying near Moscow, but had no enough military force and political weight to gain the throne. The Boyar’s Duma decided to accept Wladislaw as a new tsar and enforced Shuysky to abdicate. In order to be neutralized, Shuysky was taken to a monastery, forcibly shaved as a monk.

As Wladislaw was not yet crowned tsar and the boyars quarreled among themselves, the Poles occupied Moscow in order to guarantee their conquests. They also seized Smolensk and ravaged northeast Russian cities – Kostroma, Yaroslavl, Vologda. Supporting Pseudo-Dmitry II as Polish rival, Swedes occupied Novgorod and Ivangorod. Crimean Tatars continued their raids to the south borderlands of Russia, enormous bands of brigands swarmed everywhere.

The crisis provoked the patriotic national uprising against the invasion and in autumn 1612 AD, the volunteer army from Nizhni Novgorod led by the merchant Kuzma Minin and prince Dmitry Pozharsky, expelled the foreign forces from the capital. The garrison in the Kremlin surrendered to prince Pozharsky. Russia officially celebrates the anniversary of this event 04 November as a Day of National Unity.

Finally the «Time of Troubles» provoked by the dynastic crisis resulted in the loss of much territory to the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth in the Russo-Polish war, as well as to Swedish Kingdom in the Ingrian War.

Key words, Dates & Figures

Time of Troubles, 1606-1610 AD	<i>Period of instability resulting to political crisis of central authorities, foreign intervention, social and economic disorganisation, robbery and struggle for power.</i>
Boris Godunov (r.1598-1605 AD)	<i>First non-Rurikid tsar, founder of a short-time Godunov’s dynasty.</i>
1601-1603 AD	<i>Famine in Russia.</i>
Pseudo-Dmytry I or	<i>A retired monk Grigiry Otrepiev, who adopted Catholicism and seized the</i>

Dmitry II of Russia (r.1605-1606 AD)	<i>Russian throne under the name of Dmitry II, son of Ivan IV.</i>
Vasily IV Shuysky (r.1606-1610 AD)	<i>Representative of the powerful boyar family of Shuysky, who proclaimed himself a tsar after extermination of Dmitry I and started the Time of Troubles.</i>
Boyar's Duma	<i>Advisory body, composed of 7 most powerful boyars, sometimes their activity in 1610-1612 AD is referred as the 7- Boyars' rule.</i>
battle of Klushino, 1610 AD	<i>Unsuccessful attempt of Vasily IV to stop the Poles, which resulted in his abdication.</i>
Pseudo-Dmitry II, Wladislaw IV Vasa, etc.	<i>Different pretenders to the Russian throne.</i>
prince Dmitry Pozharsky	<i>Rurikid prince & famous general, participant of the First people's volunteer army (Ryazan), military leader of the Second people's volunteer army (Nizhny Novgorod), who captured the Polish garrison of Kremlin.</i>
Kuzma Minin	<i>Merchant of Nizhny Novgorod, inspirer and organiser of the Second people's volunteer army.</i>

SESSION 8.

MOSCOW TSARDOM UNDER ROMANOV DYNASTY, XVII CENTURY

In February 1613 AD the Zemsky Sobor, composed from peasants, Cossacks and townsmen, elected to the throne the young son of Patriarch Filaret, Michael Romanov (r.1613 – 1645 AD). The first task of the new tsar was to clear the land of the robbers and invader groups infesting it and to restore peace. He engaged Polish captives and Cossacks and pacified the Central Russia. Fortunately for Moscow, its major enemies, the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and Sweden were in a bitter conflict with each other. Using their contradictions, Moscow diplomats succeeded to conclude the peace of Stolbovo (1617 AD) and the Truce of Deulino (1618 AD).

Of course, Russia lost some primordial territories, especially the access to the Baltic Sea, but it stabilised the foreign relationships for the further development. Another important result of the Truce of Deulino was the return from exile of Patriarch Filaret. As Michael effaced himself

behind his counselors, his father henceforth took over the government till his death in October 1633 AD.

Rather than risk their estates in more civil war, the great nobles cooperated with the first Romanovs, enabling them to finish the work of bureaucratic centralisation. Thus, the state required service from both the old and the new nobility, primarily in the military. In return the tsars allowed the boyars to complete the process of enserfing the peasants.

The structure of central administration was restored at the framework of prikazes (ministries), supervised by the Boyar's Duma. The central place was occupied by Razryadny Prikaz (a chancellery and a personnel department for both central and provincial administration including military command) – in home affairs and Posolsky Prikaz (Foreign Office) – on the international arena. Those offices could be pivotal in Boyar fractions struggle, so they were traditionally headed professional clerks – dyaks – appointed by tsar. The other strategic offices were Streletsky Prikaz (in charge of marksmen troops who served as Moscow garrison), Prikaz Bolshoy Kazny (Treasury), Poushkarsky Prikaz (fireweapons and canons) and [Aptekarsky Prikaz](#) (ministry of health). In general, there were around 20 prikazes of various grades of importance.

Sometimes, the governmental bodies were restricted by the Zemsky Sobor, which was convoked regularly till 1653 AD. However, when the autocracy strengthened, they had to play only the representative function. The local assemblies and self-government were also supplanted by governors (voyevoda) directly appointed by tsar.

Machael supported the peaceful stream in international affairs despite the belligerent approach of his father who even led preparations to war with the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. He managed to stabilise the country and to strengthen the Romanov dynasty.

Tsar Alexey I (r.1645 –1676 AD) acceded to the throne at the age of sixteen after his father's death. He was committed to the care of the boyar Boris Morozov, his guardian sufficiently enlightened to recognise the needs of the country. He secured a truce with [Poland](#) and carefully avoided complications with the [Ottoman Empire](#). His domestic policy was scrupulously fair and aimed at relieving the public burdens by limiting the privileges of foreign traders and abolishing a great many useless and expensive court offices. He took part in the establishing of regiments of the «foreign order» - at the European manner and trained by the European mercenaries. Aspiring to increase treasury's income, Morozov reduced salaries of state employees and introduced a high indirect salt tax. These measures caused the Salt Riot of 1648 AD. In consequence, as Boris Morozov was also accused of sorcery and [witchcraft](#), Alexey retired him and expelled to the monastery, but not for a long time.

In 1649 AD B. Morozov took active part in preparing the Sobornoye Ulozheniye, a new legal code which replaced Sudebnik of 1550 AD and was in force till 1845 AD. Previously, the

state had gradually curtailed peasants' rights to move from one landlord to another. The code consolidated Russia's slaves and free peasants into a new serf class and pronounced that class hereditary and unchangeable. Now runaway peasants became state fugitives and the power of the landlords over the peasants «attached» to their land have become almost complete. In addition, middle-class urban tradesmen and craftsmen were assessed taxes and like the serfs they were forbidden to change residence. All segments of the population were subject to military levy and to special taxes. Together the state and the noblemen placed the overwhelming burden of taxation on the peasants, whose rate was 100 times greater in the mid-XVII century than it had been a century earlier.

Under such circumstances, peasant disorders were endemic. Even the citizens of Moscow revolted against the Romanovs during the Salt Riot (1648 AD), Copper Riot (1662 AD), and the Moscow Uprising (1682 AD). However the greatest peasant uprising erupted in 1667 AD. As the free settlers of South Russia, the Cossacks, reacted against the growing centralisation of the state, serfs escaped from their landlords and joined the rebels on Don and Volga rivers. The Cossack leader Stepan (Sten'ka) Razin led his followers up the Volga river, inciting peasant uprisings and replacing local governments with Cossack rule. The tsar's army finally crushed his forces in 1670 AD; a year later Sten'ka was betrayed by his trusties and beheaded in Moscow.

After Morozov disgrace, metropolitan Nikon became a new chief minister in 1651 AD. He collected such vast power, that he could be suspected in the desire of establishing a particular national papacy. However his most important reform was the revision of the entire Russian religious system. His scheme of reform included not only service-books and ceremonies but the use of the new-fangled icons, for which he ordered a house-to-house search to be made. The country divided into opponents of Nikon (Old Believers) and the official Orthodox Church which had to accept the reforms of its Patriarch. Although Old Believers continued liturgical practices which the Russian Orthodox Church had maintained before the implementation of these reforms, Nikon's patriarchal staff descended with crushing force upon those with whom he disagreed. His soldiers and servants were charged first to gouge out the eyes of these heretical counterfeits and then carry them through the town in derision & humiliation like Archpriest Awakum (burnt in 1682 AD).

The greatest achievement of Alexey's policy was in the international sphere. In 1653 AD the weakness and disorder of Poland encouraged Alexey to attempt to annex from his rival the primordial Russian lands in Ukraine. He supported the uprising of Ukrainian Hetman Bogdan Khmel'nitsky and declared the war to the Poles. The campaign of 1654 AD was triumphant, and Lithuanian towns, including the important fortress of Smolensk, fell into the hands of the Russians. The Polish Livonia was also occupied and only the meddling of Sweden in the conflict

rescued the Commonwealth's independence. In addition, Bogdan Khmel'nitsky appealed to Alexey for protection from the Poles and brought about Russian dominance of the Cossack Hetmanate in Left-Bank [Ukraine](#). The weakened Poland agreed to sign the Treaty of Andrusovo (1667 AD) by which the conquered lands were restored to Poland, but the infinitely more important Smolensk and Kiev remained in the hands of Russia together with the whole eastern bank of the Dnepr river. This agreement was the achievement of Afanasy Ordin-Nashchokin, the first Russian chancellor and diplomat in the modern sense, who after the disgrace of Nikon became the tsar's first minister until 1670 AD, when he was superseded by the equally able Artamon Matveyev, whose beneficent influence prevailed to the end of Alexey's reign.

Feodor III (r.1676-1682 AD), the eldest son of Alexey, was showed himself at the same time as a reformer and as a man incompetent to lead armies and obliged to issue his orders from bed-chamber because from birth he had been half paralyzed by a mysterious disease. He founded the academy of sciences in the Zaikonospassky monastery, where everything not expressly forbidden by the Orthodox Church, but the most notable reform of Feodor III was the abolition of the system of «place priority» (or mestnichestvo) which had paralyzed the civil and military administration of Russia for generations. By 1682 AD all appointments to the civil and military services were to be determined by merit and the will of the sovereign, while pedigree (nobility) books were to be destroyed. Feodor in the same year and the news of his death sparked the Moscow Uprising.

As Feodor did not leave any children, a dispute arose between the Naryshkin (supported by the chief minister Matveev) and Miloslavsky (supported by Golitsins) families over who from two rest Alexey's sons (Peter or Ivan) should inherit the throne. Peter's half-brother, Ivan V, was the next for the throne, but he was chronically ill and of infirm mind. Consequently, the Boyar's Duma chose the 10-year old Peter to become tsar, his mother Natalya Naryshkina becoming regent. However the rival clan, leaded by Peter's sister Sophia, organised the Moscow uprising and murdered Peter's proponent like Matveyev. Sophia and her allies now could insist that Peter and Ivan be proclaimed joint tsars, with Ivan being acclaimed as the senior of the two. Sophia (r.1682-1689 AD) acted as regent and for seven years, she ruled as an autocrat.

Key words, Dates & Figures

Michael Romanov (r.1613 – 1645 AD)	<i>First Romanov tsar elected to the throne by a national assembly. Reigned under influence of his father Patriarch Filaret (Feodor) Romanov.</i>
peace of Stolbovo (1617 AD) and the Truce of	<i>Peace agreements with Poland and Sweden which ceased the international intervention in Russia.</i>

Deulino (1618 AD)	
Ivan Susanin	<i>Legendary peasant who guided the special Polish troop intended to kill the pretender Michael Romanov to the forests and perished with them.</i>
dyaks	<i>Professional clerks in the Moscow government.</i>
voyevoda	<i>Noble governor appointed by the tsar to replace the local self-government.</i>
Alexey I (r.1645 –1676 AD) the Calmest	<i>Son of Michael, who gained the most part of lost Russian cities from Poland and joined Ukraine to Russia.</i>
Boris Morozov	<i>Alexey`s minister who assisted in promulgation of the Sobornoye Ulozheniye.</i>
Sobornoye Ulozheniye, 1649 AD	<i>Law code which was in force till 1845AD. Its provisions established the serfdom in Russia.</i>
Salt Riot (1648 AD), Copper Riot (1662 AD), Moscow Uprising (1682 AD)	<i>People`s uprisings against central authorities which permitted to call the XVII century as the «Rebellious Century».</i>
Stepan (Sten`ka) Razin	<i>Cossack, leader of the greatest people`s uprising in the XVII century on the south and southeast of Russia.</i>
Metropolitan (Patriarch) Nikon	<i>Chief minister of Alexey I in 1651-1658 AD, inspirer of religious reformation and initiator of schism of the Russian Orthodox Church.</i>
Old Believers	<i>Schismatics, proponents of religious rituals being in force before Nikon`s reforms.</i>
Archpriest Awakum	<i>Spiritual leader of the Old Believers and Nikon`s ideological rival, murdered on fire in 1682 AD.</i>
Bogdan Khmelnitsky	<i>Hetman (commander) of Ukraine Cossacks who organised the uprising vs. Poland and appealed to Alexey for Ukraine protectorate.</i>
Treaty of Andrusovo (1667 AD)	<i>Final agreement of the Russo-Polish war, by which Russia received the Left-Bank Ukraine, Kiev and Smolensk. Start of reintegration of the Russian lands.</i>
Afanasy Ordin-Nashchokin	<i>Russian minister and brilliant diplomat, head of the Russian embassy at Andrusovo.</i>
Feodor III (r.1676-1682 AD)	<i>Alexey`s heir, prohibited the system of «place priority».</i>
Artamon Matveyev	<i>Alexey`s and Feodor`s chief minister, supported Naryshkin family in the struggle for power, murdered during the Moscow uprising of 1682 AD.</i>
Sophia Alexeyevna (r.1682-1689 AD)	<i>Organiser of the Moscow uprising, regent of Russia during Peter`s childhood.</i>

SESSION 9.

RUSSIAN EMPIRE, XVIII CENTURY

The heir of the Russian tsardom Peter I (r.1682–1725 AD) was one of the most powerful rulers of Russia who bridged the East-West gap affected the development of Russian civilisation by the Mongol yoke and Times of Troubles. Though the whole period of Peter's rule was wartime, he succeeded to combine military achievements with administrative reforms.

At the eve of his reign, Peter partially reorganised the Russian army along modern lines and tried of making Russia a maritime power. Heavily influenced by his advisors from Western Europe, Peter implemented sweeping reforms aimed at modernising Russia. He faced much opposition to these policies at home, but brutally suppressed any and all riots against his authority: the rebellions of strelets (1698 AD), Bashkirs, Astrakhan and including the greatest civil uprising of his reign, the Bulavin Cossacks Rebellion on Don river (1707-1708 AD).

The tsar understood that he sought to gain more maritime outlets as the sea trade was the main source of income at that time. His only outlet at the time was the White Sea at Arkhangelsk. The Baltic Sea was controlled by Sweden, while the Black Sea was controlled by the Ottoman Empire. Peter's primary objective became the capture of the Ottoman fort of Azov, key to the Azov Sea. In 1695-1696 AD Peter organised two Azov campaigns, built a large navy and captured Azov. As Peter could not face the Ottoman Empire alone, he traveled incognito to Europe with a large Russian delegation - the so-called «Grand Embassy» - to seek the aid of the European monarchs, but the Europeans at the time were more concerned about who would succeed the childless Spanish king Charles II than about fighting the Ottoman Sultan.

In such situation Peter decided to acquire control of the Baltic Sea by returning back the former Russian lands having lost a century before – during the Livonian war and Time of Troubles. He composed the offensive coalition of the northwest European countries (Denmark-Norway, Saxony, and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth) vs. Sweden and declared the war, called the Great Northern War (1700 – 1721 AD). In 1700 AD at the battle of Narva the bigger Russian army was suddenly surrounded and exterminated by the young Swedish king Charles XII. After the battle, the Swedes decided to concentrate their forces against their European rivals, giving Peter I chance to reorganise the Russian army and to carry out domestic reforms. He reformed the taxation, implemented a law that stipulated that no Russian man could join a monastery before the age of 50. Such measures permitted him to recruit a new army. Step-by-step, Peter invaded the Baltic coastal in Ingria and founded the port of St. Petersburg in 1703 AD. In order to underline the importance of new city he proclaimed it capital instead of Moscow (1712 AD) and ordered to realise the sea trade export and import through this Baltic port.

Meanwhile following several defeats, the Saxon and Polish king August II abdicated in 1706 AD. So, Charles XII decided to gain back the lost territories on Baltic coastal and to capture Moscow. He invaded to Russia in 1708 AD and after some strokes of tactics he besieged the fortress of Poltava in Ukraine. To the Europe delight in the summer of 1709 AD Charles suffered a decisive defeat at the battle of Poltava and had to exile in the Ottoman Empire. In Poland, with Russian support, August II was restored as King.

After the victory of Poltava Peter I attacked the Ottoman Empire and initiated the Russo-Turkish War of 1710 AD. Overestimating the support he would receive from Balkan allies, Peter was surrounded with all his army, court and staff on Pruth river. Resulting to this campaign, Russian troops could stop the war after being paid the contribution and reducing the gains of the previous Azov campaign. In return, the Sultan expelled Charles XII, but Russia was forced to guarantee safe passage to the Swedish king, who in the end traveled back to Sweden through Germany.

Returning back, Peter I continued the reforms. As the last Russian Patriarch had dead in 1700 AD and the office fell vacant, Peter had refused to name a replacement, allowing the Patriarch's Deputy to discharge the duties of the office. In 1721 AD in order to manage the Church Peter founded the Holy Synod, a council of ten clergymen, headed by a civil statesman – Senior Procurer.

In 1711 AD instead of Boyar's Duma Peter the Great created a Senate of ten trusty members. In a place of prikazes Peter established the system of 9 collegia in 1717 AD. In 1720 AD the entire territory of Russia was divided into 50 administrative districts.

In 1714 AD the tsar issued a decree on compulsory education, which dictated that all Russian children of the nobility, government clerks, and other officials, must learn basic mathematics and geometry, and should be tested on it at the end of their studies

Meanwhile Russian troops occupied most of Finland, won the Swedish fleet at Gangut (1714 AD) and Grengam (1720 AD) sea battles and menaced the capital of Sweden. Finally the Treaty of Nystad was signed in 1721 AD. By this agreement, Russia acquired Ingria, Estonia, Livonia and a substantial part of Karelia. It paid two million Riksdaler of compensation and surrendered most of Finland.

Peter I's last years were marked by further reform in Russia. He introduced new taxes to fund improvements in Saint Petersburg. He abolished the land tax and household tax, and replaced them with a capitation. The taxes on land and on households were payable only by individuals who owned property or maintained families; the new head taxes, however, were payable by serfs and paupers.

On 22 October 1721, Peter the Great was officially proclaimed Emperor of All Russia. Peter's imperial title was recognized by Augustus II of Poland, Frederick William I of Prussia and Frederick I of Sweden, but not by the other European monarchs. Several rulers feared that Peter would claim authority over them, just as the Holy Roman Emperor had once claimed suzerainty over all Christian nations.

In 1722 AD the Emperor introduced a new order of precedence, known as the Table of Ranks. Peter directed that precedence should be determined by merit and service to the Emperor.

Peter died in 1725 AD without naming a successor. The trustees of Peter supported his wife Catherine I. Really this coup was organised by prince Menchikov and other «new men». However the real power was usurped by Menshikov and other members of the Supreme Privy Council (advisory body of selected statesmen).

During the reign of Peter II, a single man-line grandson of Peter I, the Supreme Privy Council continued to struggle for power among them. All its members (except Osterman) were exiled or murdered. On the death of Peter II in 1730 AD, the new leader of the Council prince Dmitry Golitsin made Anna (daughter of Ivan V, countess of Courland) Empress. The councillors hoped that she would feel indebted to the nobles for her unexpected fortune and remain a figurehead at best, and malleable at worst. However, soon Anna Ioanovna (r.1730-1740 AD) established herself as an autocratic ruler, using her popularity with the imperial guards and retired the Supreme Council. At first she restored the security police, which she used to intimidate and terrorize those who opposed her and her policies. Having a distrust of Russian nobles, Anna kept them from powerful positions, instead giving those to Baltic Germans, especially the environment of her favorite - Ernst Johann von Biron, who gained her particular favour and had considerable influence over her policies. Biron influence was added by two other foreigners - Andrey Osterman and Burkhardt Munnich - who thoroughly identified themselves with Russia and headed department of foreign affairs and same of the army.

Anna's reign saw the beginnings of Russian territorial expansion into Central Asia and Caspian coastal. In 1736 AD Anna declared war on the Ottoman Empire. Despite the Russian victory was indecisive, it begun the systematic struggle on the part of Russia to drive to the South. Russian Empire took also an active part at the War of the Polish Succession (1733–1735 AD) on the side of Augustus III, Duc of Saxonia and restored him at the throne. After this war the Poland till its division remained under a stable influence of the Russian Empire.

In 1740 AD Anna died at the age of 47. The heir Ivan VI was only a one-year-old baby (prince-boy). As a consequence, shortly after Anna's death Elizabeth Petrovna (Peter I's legitimised daughter) succeeded to gain the power, locked Ivan VI in a dungeon and exiled his mother.

Elizabeth I (r.1741-1761 AD) restored the administrative system of her father, reconstructed Senate, and retired all Germans from top positions. In 1743 AD she concluded an advantageous peace truce with Sweden finishing the war of 1741-1743 AD.

In assistance of the count Shuvalov Elizabeth abolished the internal duties and promulgated a new Tariff and Trade Charter in 1754 AD.

The political success of Elizabeth I was attributed to her vice-chancellor and foreign minister Alexey Bestuzhev. He supported Austria and England at expenses of France and Prussia, traditional allies of Russian rivals – Sweden, Poland and Ottoman Empire. The vice-chancellor isolated Frederic II the Great (king of Prussia) by forcing him into hostile alliances. During the 7 Year's War vs. Prussia & England Russian army conquered Keningsberg, ravaged Berlin and won Prussian army at Gross-Egersdorf and Koonersdorf. As a result, Frederick II was at the last gasp. Only the death of the Russian empress in January 1762 AD snatched him from total destruction.

The new Emperor, Peter III (r.1762 AD) was a descendant of Peter the Great. During his short reign, Russia saw several minor but important economic reforms that stimulated development of capitalism and mercantilism instead of Russia's traditional social practices of subjugating peasants and townspeople and reserving leading positions for nobility. He issued an edict abolishing the practice allowing industrialists to purchase serfs as workers for their enterprises. He also forbade the importation of sugar into Russia to stimulate domestic manufacturing. Peter's major social reform was the introduction of the Liberty for Nobility, abrogating Peter the Great's policy of forcing all male members of Russian nobility to serve in the military or civil service without regard for individual preference for a particular occupation. However in the foreign policies he incurred many nobles' displeasure by withdrawing from the Seven Years' War and making peace with Prussia, in which Russia did not gain anything and even had to return back the Eastern Prussia, in spite of Russia's occupation of Berlin and virtual victory in the war. He formed an alliance with Prussia and planned to send the Russian expedition corps to fight in the profit of the Prussian king.

In summer 1762 AD the guardsmen commanded by the Guard officers Orlovs arrested Peter III and resulting to this conspiracy Peter's wife Catherine II became Russian Empress. Shortly after abdication, Peter III was founded killed.

To obtain the support of the native aristocracy, Catherine II, German princess supported the policy of Peter III aimed to grant more privileges and gifts. From Elizabeth the new Empress received a well-organised administration, developed system of taxation. Despite she shared the ideas of the Enlightenment, she continued the policy of enserfing. The distinctions between peasant rights on *votchina* and *pomestie* estates virtually disappeared in law as well as in practice

during her reign. Such policy led to the Pugachev's Rebellion that happened in 1774-1775 AD. The rebellion managed to consolidate support from various groups including the peasants, the Cossacks and Old Believers. Pugachev assumed leadership of an alternative government in the name of the assassinated Tsar Peter III and proclaimed an end to serfdom. Hardly the revolt was crushed towards the end of 1774 by the regular army. Pugachev was captured soon after and executed in Moscow in January 1775 AD.

Catherine II joined Alyaska, Camchatka, Kouryl Islands and California to Russia, tried to establish the relationship with Tokugawa Japan. She added some 518,000 km² to Russian territory at the expenses of the Ottoman Empire and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. After two Russo-Turkish Wars (1768-1774 AD and 1787-1792 AD) Catherine made Russia the dominant power in south-eastern Europe, annexing Crimea in 1783 AD and Black Sea coastal (Abkhazia, area between Dnepr and Bug rivers).

In 1764 AD Catherine subdued Poland, placing her former lover Stanislaw Poniatowsky on the Polish throne. In 1768 AD she formally became protector of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth that resulted in insurrection of the Confederation of Bar. Taking into account the weakness of the Commonwealth, Frederic II of Prussia proposed to divide Poland. The initiative was also supported by Austrian Empress Marie-Theresia. Catherine had to take a leading role in carrying out the first division of Poland. Afraid that the May Constitution of Poland (1791 AD) might lead to an insurgence and crushing the Kosciushko Uprising (1794 AD), Russia completed the partitioning of Poland, dividing all of the remaining Commonwealth territory with Prussia and Austria in 1795 AD.

After the French Revolution of 1789 AD and especially after Louis XVI decapitation, Catherine rejected many principles of the Enlightenment that she had once viewed favorably. She prohibited all diplomatic and trade relation and started the preparations to war vs. Republican France. In 1796 AD, at the height of anti-French Catherine II the Great died culminating the entire period of the Russian history.

Key words, Dates & Figures

Peter I (r.1682-1725 AD)	<i>Son of Alexey I, first Emperor of Russia who bridged the East-West gap and made Russia the European dominant power.</i>
Bulavin Rebellion	<i>Cossacks rebellion on Don river in 1707-1708 AD reacting on the Cossacks liberties ban</i>
Grand Embassy	<i>Delegation of Russian statesmen where Peter I voyaged under incognito looking for coalition the European monarch.</i>

Great Northern War, 1700 – 1721 AD	<i>Conflict between northern European countries on the dominance over the Baltica.</i>
battle of Narva, 1700 AD	<i>Astonishing defeat of Russian army by Sweden.</i>
St. Petersburg	<i>Fort post on Baltic coastal, was founded in 1703 AD and became capital in 1712 AD.</i>
battle of Poltava, 1709 AD	<i>Decisive foot battle of the Great Northern War, the Swedes failed.</i>
Pruth campaign, 1710-1711 AD	<i>Unsuccessful campaign of Peter I against Turkey where Russian army was surrounded and had to pay contribution.</i>
Gangut (1714 AD) and Grengam (1720 AD) sea battles	<i>Two main Russian victories in sea battles of the Great Northern wars.</i>
System of collegia, 1717 AD	<i>System of 9 ministries that replaced prikazes.</i>
Holy Synod	<i>The advisory body, supervising the Church.</i>
Treaty of Nystad, 1721 AD	<i>Peace agreement of the Great Northern War between Russia and Sweden.</i>
Table of Ranks, 1722 AD	<i>New order of precedence, which directed that precedence should be determined by merit and service to the Emperor.</i>
Supreme Privy Council	<i>Advisory body of selected statesmen, trustees of Peter I which supported Catherine I at the throne and tried to control her.</i>
prince Menchikov	<i>Field Marechal, president of the Supreme Privy Council.</i>
Anna Ioanovna (r.1730-1740 AD)	<i>Daughter of Ivan V, countess of Courland, Russian Empress.</i>
Ernst Johann von Biron	<i>Favorite of the Empress Anna.</i>
Elizabeth I (r.1741-1761 AD)	<i>Daughter of Peter I, Empress of Russia.</i>
7 Year's War	<i>The pan-European War (1756-1763 AD) between Prussia and England from the first side and Russia, Austria and France – from another side.</i>
Alexey Bestuzhev	<i>Diplomat and vice-chancellor of Elizabeth I.</i>
Emelyan Pugachev	<i>Leader of the peasants` uprising who assumed leadership in the name of the assassinated Tsar Peter III.</i>

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