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HISTORY

*Educational-methodical manual
for students of economic and medical specialties*



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Educational-methodical manual contains plans for the seminar (practical) lessons, questions submitted for self-study, questions for self-control, as well as topics of essays and creative work. Materials that are concentrated in this edition allow us to conduct both traditional seminars and use other forms of creative research on different historical issues such as colloquia, ‘round tables’, conferences, competitions, etc. It is designed for the use of score-rating system, which reflects all types of student work. The final form of control of the ‘History’ course is oral exam.

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INTRODUCTION

The training course "History" is an integral part of the humanitarian training of modern economists and medical workers. Transitional stages of social development, when people and countries face the problems of historical choice and historical destiny, stimulate the need to turn to the past and the development of historical consciousness of society. In these circumstances, there is an increasing need of understanding the significance of historical experience, succession of generations, of relationships between various cultures and civilizations past and present.

At the same time, history is not just a sum of knowledge about the past and new retransmissions of this information. The study of history forms analytical skills, logic of thinking, enhances intellectual potential. Skills of historical thinking and analysis allow to see more clearly the origins and originality of world processes, social phenomena, help to predict alternative options for the development of society, events and processes. Historical knowledge and historical style of thinking form the humanitarian culture and civic image of the future specialist.

The concept of studying this course is characterized by a new formulation of the subject of study, a wide range of educational and didactic tasks, new content and methodological components of teaching, research, and analytical orientation of education. The specificity of the course is a combination of different conceptual and analytical approaches (civilizational, formational, cultural); a variety of methodological tools; in a fairly broad chronological framework (the analysis of the historical process begins with the emergence of ancient civilizations and ends with modernity); in the breadth of geographical and spatial coverage of Russia; in the humanistic personal orientation of the teaching, combined with traditional and innovative educational methods and techniques.

In accordance with the requirements of the State educational standard, students should have a scientific understanding of the epochs in the history of mankind and their chronology; know the main historical facts, dates, events

and names of historical figures of Russia; be able to express and justify their position on issues relating to the value attitude to the historical past.

The workshop plans are made in accordance with the course program and offer in-depth study of the key issues of the course. They indicate the main issues of discussion, as well as recommended for self-study literature. Effective preparation for classes and their successful conduct contributes to the work of students with control questions formulated for each topic.

The word of "history" originated in Ancient Greece and means the story of the past, about the recognized. Translation of this word helps to understand the content of the subject-the science of history. Since antiquity, the system of knowledge about the past has become an independent area of human knowledge. Ancient historiography (here: a description of history, historical literature; another meaning of the term "historiography" – the science of the historical science, the history of its development) draws non-mythological historical knowledge. The emergence of modern scientific historiography takes place at the turn of the XVIII–XIX centuries and is associated with the approval of the ideas and values of the European New time, marked by large-scale changes (the spread of education, modernization of religion, breakthroughs in technology and technology, political revolutions), which led to the historization of cultural consciousness.

Now history appears as a science, a system of sciences that study the past of mankind in all its diversity and specificity. A remarkable feature of historical science is its close attention to the details, the specific event in which man, his nature and activism reveal themselves. In the words of the famous French historian Mark Block, history is the science "about people in time". History always has a human face. Behind the fractures of social development are specific people with their vital interests, losses and gains, joys, UPS and tragedies.

Comprehending historical science should remember the subject-specific, meaningful nature of the historical process. Of course, you can fill in, firmly grasp only some of the historical information, specifics. In this regard, the question arises about the selection of historical facts that it is desirable or even necessary to know. These are, first of all, support, significant for the history of

events and phenomena: the life and work of major historical figures, their social actions expressed the main trends of social development; revolution and large-scale reforms; time and content of shifts in cultural and ideological representations of people. For search of the necessary historical data it is necessary to use educational and special literature, editions of encyclopedic character.

History as a science operates with certified data, as a rule, precisely established facts. These facts are derived from historical sources. Historical sources – all the remnants, traces of past life, all the evidence of the past. Currently, there are four groups (classes) of historical sources: 1) real; 2) written; 3) graphic; 4) phonic.

The publications recommended in this manual for the preparation of seminars contain written sources – documents, materials that are extracted from archival repositories or published and prepared for educational purposes in accordance with the rules and procedures adopted in the source study. Source studies are one of the historical disciplines that develops the theory and methodology of studying and using historical sources. The use of documentary materials enriches the presentations at the seminar, making them more meaningful and convincing.

The bases of historical studies are biographies and chronology. They form the original core of facts that require interpretation and explanation. So in historical science concepts are developed theories from the angle of which the historical description is built. The essence of any concept is to find the driving forces and circumstances in which these driving forces acted. Thus, on the one hand, it is necessary to know specific facts, on the other – the historian must comprehend the totality of facts in order to identify stable cause-and-effect relationships, or laws, in the development of society.

In the world of historical thought constantly there were disputes around the question: ‘history is accurate or descriptive science?’ In the XIX century this question was developed by classical German historiography. Thinkers from Germany came to the conclusion that human actions are spontaneous, arbitrary; the case is incomprehensible. The historian always deals only with the single

and unique, so the method of historical science is individualizing, while the method of natural sciences is generalizing, law – revealing. It is clear that in this case the historical science is considered as mainly descriptive. A prominent representative of this trend Leopold von Ranke (1795-1886) considered the main task of the historian to find out ‘how it actually happened’. Such an understanding of the nature of historiography fits into positivism – a line in philosophy and science that comes from the ‘positive’, i.e. from the given, undoubted. Positivism denies the right to scientific conclusions and generalizations that can't be controlled, proved both through experience and through related logical constructions.

In the same vein reasoned neokantians (Windelband, Rickert, etc.). They recognized the possibility of deducing general laws for the facts of experience (natural sciences), and for the humanities, social sciences again set the task to catch and evaluate in their uniqueness the individual phenomena of human life and history. The method of the natural sciences they determined as homotheticity (establishing laws), the method of human cognition – ideographic, i.e. descriptive, or even ‘portrait’.

Thus, in the philosophical and historical thought of Europe, which was under the decisive influence of positivism, there was a contradiction. On the one hand, history knows society, but it cannot do it as strictly and precisely as the natural sciences study nature. On the other – according to the propping positivist views of the causal-mechanical picture of the world – in nature and in society, all phenomena are in a universal relationship, and man plays the role of a kind of wheel in this world order. Out of this contradiction in the “romantic age” of science could be proposed on the basis of the same positivist ideas.

The way to overcome this contradiction was actually outlined by the French thinker Auguste Comte (1798–1857), one of the main representatives of positivism. He and his followers opposed the division of human concepts into ‘natural’ and ‘spiritual’ beings. They demanded to ‘raise’ history to the level of natural sciences. Since history itself, according to their own understanding, could not initially cope with this task, they put forward as an antipode of history a new, ‘accurate’ science – sociology. Sociology emerged as the doctrine

of objective human life, which is considered as a set of interaction between individuals, respectively, sociology claims to create models of social processes describing society as a system. Since then, another ‘knot’ has appeared in the field of humanitarian knowledge: sociologists and historians discuss the nature, subject and correlation of their sciences.

A kind of positivism is Marxism, especially in the version of Russian-Soviet Marxism. Marxist doctrine united socialist utopias, the desire of positivism to ‘exact’ knowledge about society, Hegel's scheme of global patterns of development, transferred to the socio-economic reality. Marxism makes a claim to fundamentally foresee the future, opening the universal laws of social life. Guided by the knowledge of these laws, it is possible – from these positions approaching – to build a society of universal justice and prosperity, because there, in this kind of Kingdom of God on earth (communism), ‘naturally’ rushes historical process.

Soviet historiography was under the control of this utopian ideology, posing as science. The course of world history was presented in the form of an iron tread of socio-economic formations, from the primitive system – to the Communist ‘the day after tomorrow’. It is significant that in Soviet Marxism the role of the discoverer of the ‘exact’ and ‘strict’ laws of social development was assigned to historical materialism – the Communist analogue of sociology, and history was intended only to confirm these world laws, providing empirical material for generalizations.

In modern conditions, historians are increasingly proceeding from the fact that with all the specifics of historical development, the individual nature of each era, certain patterns are seen in history. But not in the sense of a fatal movement towards any goal, but as a tendency, impulses, interconnections that make their way. In modern historical science, as well as in world historiography as a whole, the active interaction of history and other humanities is growing, primarily linguistics, philology, psychology; the methods of these sciences in specific studies often complement each other.

Historians today tend to consider history on a broad basis, according to which in public life in different combinations and at different times with one or

another force are ‘on an equal footing’ diverse factors – cultural, technological, organizational, economic, ideological and political. Each era needs its own understanding of the history of the Motherland in close connection with world history. This history is seen as the interaction of large cultural and historical communities, united by the concept of ‘civilization’. The historical path of Russia, which is a civilizational and heterogeneous society, is often analyzed from the point of view of the impact on it of the cultural-forming centers – the West and the East.

Studying history one should understand such concepts as historical types of civilization, their characteristics, and the place of individual cultural and historical epochs in the world-historical process.

The principles of the civilizational approach allow:

- to determine the historical place of Russia in the world human community, to understand the peculiarities of its social organization and culture in comparison with the experience of different peoples;

- to give a complete picture of the historical path of the country, the causes of difficulties in its development with significant human natural resources;

- to highlight the alternatives of social development, historical ‘fork’, to reveal the struggle around the problems of choosing the path and the reasons for the victory of certain forces in certain moments of history;

- to show the historical process, first of all, as the life of an ordinary person, everyday life, to capture the impact on social life of cultural stereotypes hidden deep in historical time.

For civilizational and other new approaches to historical knowledge is characteristic of the understanding of social development as a ‘multi-layer’ socio-cultural and intellectual history. In the statement of this view of history, a prominent role was played by the scientific ‘school of annals’ that arose in the pre-war decades, the origins of which are French historians Marc Block and Lucien Fevre. They proposed the idea of historical synthesis, combining different disciplines that study a person from the point of view of his inner world, cultural traditions, everyday concerns and interests. At the end of the twentieth century there was a transformation of social history. Now it includes

not only the history of social movements and organizations, but also the history of mentality – the knowledge of the evolution of the set of conscious and unconscious attitudes of people associated with ethnic tradition.

At the end of the XX – XXI centuries in the mainstream of historical knowledge there are several areas that expand the understanding of the historical process by analyzing people's daily life, the history of ideas, the internal world of man, taking into account factors of culture in its various manifestations – the ‘new social history’, ‘new historical science’, ‘new intellectual history’, ‘cultural-intellectual history’, ‘psychohistory’, etc.

The historical consciousness of society is complex. It is not reduced to the images of history that historical science forms – the official history that dominates the official institutions and the education system. Historical knowledge also includes other components: criticism of official history (counter-history), which can replace official history under certain circumstances (for example, in former colonies; after revolutionary upheavals leading to a fundamental reassessment of values); memory generations, which is enshrined in various forms (holidays, family lore, anecdotes and stories on ‘historical themes’ and the like.); empirical history, based on the data of demography, statistics and not inclined-quite in the positivist spirit-to the independent folding of historical ‘cubes’ in the ‘figures’ – theory; finally, literature and cinema.

About this last stream of historical knowledge it is necessary to tell especially. It can have a much greater impact on public consciousness than the writings of historians, who often refute each other or become obsolete with the advent of a new method or approach. "The heritage of A. Duma, L. Tolstoy or S. Eisenstein is more significant than most of the special historical works, surviving its creators, it remains a constant factor of historical knowledge," – said Mark Ferro, French historian, belonging to the third generation of the school “annals”.

History is one of the most important forms of people's self-consciousness. As a social memory of mankind, history passes it from generation to another. Generalization and processing of the accumulated human experience is the first task of history.

We must remember that the experience of history seek to take advantage of the opposing social and political forces. They substantiate their actions by references to history that is why the constant struggle of political ideas and opinions can be traced in the interpretation of certain historical events. Meanwhile, the attitude to history as a science requires separating and distinguishing, as far as possible, facts and estimates, objective truth and ‘historical truth’.

The basis for the allocation of topics in this plan of seminars is the principle of the evolution of state and political institutions, the system of power in Rus, Russia, the USSR, finally, in the Russian Federation, which plays the role of an indicator of change in social arrangement. Such periodization – due to the special role of the state - political principle in the history of Rus/Russia – meets, in general, the socio-cultural interpretation of the historical development of the Russian community. According to this approach, history is interpreted as a change of epochs, major development bands, marked by its inherent cultural systems, mentalities, style – a kind of spiritual and ideological tuning fork of society, its ‘rulers of thoughts’.

METHODOLOGY GUIDELINES FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Methodology guidelines for teachers

The academic discipline "History" refers to the cycle of GSE – general humanitarian and socio-economic disciplines and is usually read in the 1 and 2 academic semesters, i.e. in the first year. In this regard, starting with lectures and seminars, it is necessary to pay attention to the general training of students, the level of residual knowledge of historical and social science courses, the ability to listen and take notes of the lecture, the skills of organization of independent work in preparation for seminars and workshops.

In the first lesson, the teacher explains to students the nature and mode of educational work, the general requirements and the applied score-rating system. At the same lesson it is possible to carry out micro-control of residual knowledge and level of preparation of students to consider features of educational streams and groups. If during the first classes the teacher gives general recommendations on the organization of students' work at lectures, seminars, practical classes, then in the future it makes sense to acquaint students with the content of educational, student complexes and preparatory materials for practical classes.

The course "History" includes lectures, seminars, control and verification works (written answers to questions, tests, and essays), consultations; it is also possible to write essays, creative works, colloquiums and public discussion of the results of student research. The final form of control is an oral test/exam, the questions of which the teacher introduces students at least a month before the session.

Starting a lecture, it is imperative to declare a topic, give a plan, pay attention to the relevance of the problem and its practical significance, comment on the assignment and literature.

When preparing and giving a lecture, it is necessary, firstly, to ensure that it is scientific and informational, evidence-based and reasoned, providing the necessary number of convincing facts and vivid examples:

- secondly, to contribute to the activation of the students' thinking, a clear structure, the logic of successively posed questions, the formulation of

problematic questions, and addressing discussion topics on which the lecturer should express his own position; revealing the content of topics, to focus students on the main categories, events, phenomena and processes of world and domestic history; to reveal the essence and content of scientific approaches in explaining historical events, phenomena and processes;

- thirdly, to clarify the terms used, formulate the main ideas, emphasize the conclusions, both in sections and throughout the lecture, to present the material in a clear, clear and accessible language; pay attention to the emotional presentation and contact with the audience;

- fourthly, in order to ensure intersubject communications and the educational function of the lecture, completing it, you need to leave time for questions.

In preparation for the seminar, the teacher should: firstly, clarify the plan for its implementation, secondly, draw up a plan-outline, in which to consider the main and additional issues attracted by the teacher materials, thirdly, familiarize themselves with new publications on the topic fourthly, to consider the relationship between the content of the studied issues with related disciplines and relevance to the present. Seminars are held in accordance with published seminar plans.

At the beginning of the seminar it is important to make an introduction, to reveal the significance of the topic under discussion, to determine the work schedule. It is advisable to ask the speaker clarifying and additional questions that contribute to the development of the discussion, as well as use visual materials and modern information resources.

In the end, it is necessary to summarize, evaluate the speeches, indicating positive aspects and shortcomings, put down marks in the journal, and also follow the discussion, making general conclusions on the topic, answer questions and give the next task. After each consultation and seminar, make an entry in the attendance journal, specifying the reasons for the absence of the student.

It is advisable to conduct individual and group consultations, including for students who are lagging behind in academic performance. When summing up the results of the semester rating, the following positions are taken into account:

- Attendance and creative work of students during lectures (posing problematic questions, providing interesting examples).
- Report, presentation, addition at practical exercises.
- Testing and verification results.
- Performing creative work.

At the end of lectures and practical classes, students are announced the final points for work in the semester.

Methodology guidelines for students

Lectures. During the lecture, students should focus on its content. The main provisions of the lecture, certain important facts, historical dates, names, conclusions from the issues addressed must be recorded. Inspection of the material offered by the teacher develops students' skills of independent selection and analysis of the historical information they need, the ability to more clearly and clearly record what they hear. Lectures can serve as necessary supporting material not only in the process of preparing for exams, but also in writing independent creative works of students: messages, essays, presentations, etc.

Work on seminars. The main method of preparing a student for a seminar is his independent work. The seminar is an active form of student work. Participation in the group's work at the seminar contributes to a more solid assimilation of lecture materials on the "History", a deeper understanding of the cause-effect relationships between individual phenomena of public life in the past, and an understanding of the relevance of the problems studied. The basis for the preparation for the seminar is work with lecture notes and educational literature recommended by the department. A deeper disclosure of questions is facilitated by acquaintance with additional literature recommended by the teacher on each topic of the seminar. Independent work allows students to show their individuality in the framework of the presentation at the seminar, to express a wide range of opinions on the problem being studied. The result of preparing students for seminars should be their speeches, active participation in a collective discussion of the topics under study.

Work with educational and scientific literature. In the process of studying the course, students need to pay special attention to the independent study of the recommended educational (as well as scientific and popular) literature. Independent work with textbooks, scientific and popular literature, periodicals and the Internet is the most effective method of obtaining knowledge in this subject, it can significantly enhance the process of mastering information, contributes to a deeper assimilation of the material studied, and forms students' attitude towards a specific cultural or social political issue determines their civic position. Students' work with literature is not separated from lectures and seminars, however, thoughtful reading of sources, compilation of abstracts, preparation of messages based on read materials contributes to a much deeper understanding of the problem being studied. This work also involves addressing students to reference books to understand specific terms and concepts introduced into the course, which helps to understand and consolidate the lecture material that has been taught and to prepare for seminars.

Oral report. The result of the student's independent work is a presentation with a report made in the form of an abstract at a seminar. Before writing an abstract on a selected topic, it is necessary to search and study the literature (monographs, scientific collections, textbooks, teaching and methodological aids, publications in periodicals, encyclopedias). The literature should be diverse and include at least 5 titles in the list of used literature. After studying the literature, the student proceeds to write the work. It requires a comprehensive disclosure of the main issues of the topic, to show their deep knowledge and understanding, to analyze various concepts and points of view, to express their position. The content consistently sets out the names of the abstract paragraphs, indicates the pages from which each paragraph begins. In the introduction, the essence of the problem under study is formulated, the choice of the topic is justified, its significance and relevance is determined, the purpose and objectives of the abstract are indicated and the characteristics of the literature used are given. The main part is divided into chapters and paragraphs (paragraphs and subparagraphs), which reveal the main issues of the topic. In conclusion, summarizes or gives a generalized conclusion on the topic of the abstract.

THEMES OF SEMINARS AND LECTURES

Theme № 1: History as a science

1. What is history? What is the subject of history as a science?
2. What historical sources exist?
3. What is the difference between a historical source and a historic fact?
4. What principles one needs to use when studying history?
5. What gives the study of history?
6. What approaches are used to studying of history?

Questions for self-study:

1. History and literature.
2. History and religion.
3. The main historical types of civilizations.
4. The main historical formations in the history of mankind.
5. History features.

Problems to consider:

1. What is the subject of history?
2. What are the features of the history?
3. Describe the principles of history.
4. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the formational and civilizational approaches to history?
5. Describe the main groups of historical sources.

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. History and culture.
2. History and modernity.
3. Historical source.
4. Cultural approaches to history.
5. Man in history.

Theme № 2. From Rus' to Russia: X – beginning of XVI centuries

1. Features of formation of the Russian civilization. Beginning Of Russia.
2. The Golden Horde and Russia. Rise of Moscow.
3. The formation of the Moscow centralized state.

Questions for self-study:

1. Under the influence of what factors took place the formation of a special Russian civilization?
2. What is the essence of the Norman theory of the formation of the Russian state and how convincing it seems to you?
3. What are the causes and consequences of Christianity in Russia.
4. What was the social structure of the old Russian state?
5. Consider the reasons for the feudal fragmentation and disintegration of Kievan Rus.
6. Describe the relations of Russian princedoms with Golden Horde and its Western neighbors.
7. Thanks to what factors was the rise of the Moscow Principality?
8. Follow the process of unification of Russian principalities by Moscow.

Problems to consider:

1. Name the features of the state creation at east Slavs.
2. Name the most important reforms of the antique Greece.
3. Russia – between East and West.
4. Russian land and the Golden Horde. Interference of cultures.
5. What are the reasons for the adoption of the Byzantine sample Christianity by Kievan Rus?

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. The life and customs of Ancient Russia.
2. Public relations of Kievan Rus in the mirror of Russian Truth.
3. Crafts and arts of Ancient Russia.

Materials for the lecture: The ancient history begins in the evolution of civilization in the East. For centuries the East was characterized by a high dependence on nature that has led to a high degree of centralization, the emergence of despots, and the role of religion. The civilizations of the East are ancient Egyptian, Chinese (Qin and Han), Mesopotamia. There appeared written language and world religions. The Ancient East left of Ancient Babylon, the laws of Hammurabi, from Egypt's pyramids, China the Great Wall of China and other monuments of world importance. In the East started the first contact of civilizations, typically associated with wars.

In the West in ancient times there was democracy in the form of Greek polis, the city-state. Polis was the most important social and political institute of the antique Greece. It was formed due to reforms of Solon, Cleisthenes and Pericle. The most development polis democracy received in Athens. Another model of the polis was Sparta. The names of reformers and thinkers, sculptors and dramatists of Ancient Greece are Solon, Pericles, Cleisthenes, Phidias, Aeschylus, etc. The Heyday of Ancient Greece falls to the 5th century BC. To the present day remains of the Parthenon temple, dedicated to one of the mythical goddesses Athena (built by Pericles). Greco-Persian war, war policies with each other, particularly Sparta and Athens, also form part of ancient history. Still a reflection of the high standards of political thought and practice is the tradition of the Olympic Games. A special place in the history belongs to Alexander the Great and his attempt to unite East and West in the 4th century BC, Ancient Rome, the rise of which began in the 2nd century BC, survived statehood the following periods: Tsarist, Republican, and Imperial. The creation of Empire was predetermined with the territory of the state, the increasing complexity of the national structure and is connected with the name of Julius Caesar.

But let us see and reflex about east Slavonic tribes. Then, we must discuss about the influence of climate and geography on the state and society in Russia. The low temperatures in January, short period of agricultural works, low yields in comparison with Western Europe hindered capital accumulation. Distance from the warm seas also hindered the development of capitalism. Longest

undefended border demanded a strong centralized state and large army. Frequent droughts, risk farming required to live communally, in team. Many rivers facilitated contacts between the peoples.

Kievan Rus was a medieval polity in Europe (the late 9th-beginning 12th century), when it disintegrated as a result of inner processes.

Contemporarily, the state was known as 'land of the Rus'. The name 'Kievan Rus' was coined in the 19th century in Russian historiography to refer to the period when the center was in Kiev. The early phase of the state is sometimes known as the 'Rus Khaganate', while the history of Rus proper begins in 882, when the capital was moved from Novgorod to Kiev, after Varangians (Vikings), who were called Rus, liberated this Slavic city from the Khazars' tribute. The state reached its zenith in the mid 11th century, when it encompassed territories stretching south to the Black Sea, east to the Volga, and west to the Kingdom of Poland and to the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. The reigns of Prince Vladimir (980-1015) and his son Yaroslav the Wise (1019-1054) constituted the 'Golden Age' of Kiev, which saw the introduction of Christianity and the creation of the first East Slavic written legal code, the 'Russkaya Pravda'.

Coinciding with the end of the Viking age, the state declined beginning in the late 11th and during the 12th century, disintegrating into various rival regional powers. It was further weakened by economic factors such including the collapse of Rus commercial ties to Byzantium due to the decline of Constantinople and the falling off of trade routes. It finally fell to the Mongol invasion.

In the early 9th century, the Rus, a group of Vikings from the modern-day area of Sweden, became loosely organized under the Rus Khaganate. The ruler of the Rus during their Anatolian expedition in 839 was called chaganus. In 860, the Rus invaded the Byzantine Empire, and subsequently launched several wars with the Byzantine Empire and expeditions to the Caspian Sea. The early leaders of Rus were most likely a Norse elite that ruled a majority of Slavic subjects.

According to the Primary Chronicle, the earliest chronicle of Rus, the territory of the future Kievan state was divided between Varangians and

Khazars. In the year 859 Varangians came from over the sea imposed tribute upon the Slavic tribes. Two of Riurik's boyars, Askold and Dir who were not blood-related to Riurik, asked him to go with their families to Tsargrad (Constantinople, capital of Byzantine Empire). Going down the Dnieper River they noticed settlement named Kiev which they liberated from the Khazars' tribute and settled there, eventually conquering the rest of the Polians' land.

The kingdom of the Kievan Rus was officially founded by Prince Oleg. During the next years, Oleg and his warriors subdued the various Eastern Slavic (Smolensk and Liubech) and Finnic tribes. In 882, Oleg deposed Askold and Dir subordinating Kiev directly to himself. Kiev became the capital of the state.

In 907, Oleg led an attack against Constantinople with warriors transported by ships, leaving Igor, son of Rurik. Through a treaty, Oleg managed to impose a tribute upon Greeks of no less than one million *grivna*. In 911, he signed a commercial treaty with the Byzantine Empire as an equal partner. The new Kievan state prospered because it had an abundant supply of furs, 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 Dnieper trade route from the Baltic Sea to the Black Sea, and the trade route from the Khazars to the Germans.

It is not clearly documented when the title of the Grand Duke was first introduced, but the importance of the Kiev principality was recognized after the death of Sviatoslav the Brave and the struggle between Vladimir the Great and Yaropolk I. The region of Kiev dominated the state of Kievan Rus for the next two centuries. The Grand Prince of Kiev controlled the lands around the city, and his formally subordinate relatives ruled the other cities and paid him tribute. The zenith of the state's power came during the reigns of Prince Vladimir the Great and Prince Yaroslav the Wise. Both rulers continued the steady expansion of Kievan Rus that had begun under Oleg.

Vladimir rose to power in Kiev after the death of his father Sviatoslav in 972. As Prince of Kiev, Vladimir's most notable achievement was the Christianization of Kievan Rus, a process that began in 988. The Primary Chronicle states 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 countries. The emissaries visited the Christians of the Latin Rite, the Jews and the Muslims, they finally arrived in Constantinople. They rejected Islam because, among other things, it prohibited the consumption of alcohol, and Judaism because the god of the Jews had permitted his chosen people to be deprived of their country. They found the ceremonies in the Roman church to be dull. But, at Constantinople, they were so astounded by the beauty of the cathedral of saint 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 Byzantine Rite was the best choice of all, upon which Vladimir made a journey to Constantinople and arranged to marry with Princess Anna, the sister of the Byzantine emperor, Basil II.

Vladimir's choice of Eastern Christianity have reflected his close personal ties with Constantinople, which dominated the Black Sea and hence trade on Kiev's most vital commercial route, the River Dnieper. Adherence to the Eastern Church had different political, cultural, and religious consequences. The church had a liturgy written in Cyrillic and a corpus of translations from Greek that had been produced for the Slavic peoples. The existence of this literature facilitated the conversion to Christianity of the Eastern Slavs and introduced them to rudimentary Greek philosophy, science, and historiography without the necessity of learning Greek. There were, however, some merchants who did business with Greeks that would likely have had an understanding of contemporary business Greek. In contrast, educated people in medieval Western and Central Europe learned Latin. Enjoying independence from the Roman authority and free from tenets of Latin learning, the East Slavs developed their own literature and fine arts. Following the Great Schism of 1054, the Rus church maintained communion with both Rome and Constantinople for some time, but along with most of the Eastern churches eventually split to go with the Eastern Orthodox.

Yaroslav the Wise struggled for power with his brothers. A son of Vladimir the Great, he was vice-regent of Novgorod at the time of his father's.

Although he first established his rule over Kiev in 1019, he did not have uncontested rule of all of Kievan Rus until 1036. Like Vladimir, Yaroslav was eager to improve relations with the rest of Europe, especially the Byzantine Empire. Yaroslav's granddaughter, Eupraxia the daughter of his son, Prince of Kiev, was married to Henry III, Holy Roman Emperor. Yaroslav also arranged marriages for his sister and three daughters to the kings of Poland, France, Hungary and Norway. Yaroslav promulgated the first East Slavic law code, *Russkaya Pravda*; built Saint Sophia Cathedral in Kiev and Saint Sophia Cathedral in Novgorod; patronized 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 Kievan Rus as an ecclesiastical academy.

In the centuries that followed the state's foundation, Rurik's descendants shared power over Kievan Rus. Princely succession moved from elder to younger brother and from uncle to nephew, as well as from father to son. Junior members of the dynasty usually began their official careers as rulers of a minor district, progressed to more lucrative principalities, and then competed for the coveted throne of Kiev. In the 11th century and the 12th century, the princes and their retinues, which were a mixture of Slavic and Scandinavian elites, dominated the society of Kievan Rus. Leading soldiers and officials received income and land from the princes in return for their political and military services.

The gradual disintegration of the Kievan Rus began in the 11th century, after the death of Yaroslav the Wise. The position of the Grand Prince of Kiev was weakened by the growing influence of regional clans.

Unconventional power succession system where the power was transferred not from father to son, but to the eldest member of the ruling dynasty bred constant hatred and rivalry within the royal family. Familicide was a rather common way to obtain power. That particularly could be traced during the time of Yaroslavichi rule (sons of Yaroslav the Wise) when the established rota system was skipped with establishing of Vladimir Monomakh as the Grand Prince of Kiev.

The decline of Constantinople, main trading partner of Kievan Rus, played a significant role in the decline of the Kievan Rus. The trade route from the Varangians to the Greeks, along which the goods were moving from the Black Sea (mainly Byzantine) through Eastern Europe to the Baltic, was a cornerstone of Kiev wealth and prosperity. Kiev was the main power and initiator in this relationship, once the Byzantine Empire fell into turmoil and the supplies became erratic, profits dried out, and Kiev lost its appeal.

The most prominent struggle for power was the conflict that erupted after the death of Yaroslav the Wise. The rivaling Principality of Polotsk was contesting the power of the Grand Prince by occupying Novgorod, while Rostislav Vladimirovich was fighting for the Black Sea port of Tmutarakan belonging to Chernigov. Three of Yaroslav's sons that first allied together found themselves fighting each other especially after their defeat to the Cuman forces in 1068 at the Battle of the Alta River. At the same time an uprising took place in Kiev, bringing to power Vseslav of Polotsk who supported the traditional Slavic paganism. The ruling Grand Prince Iziaslav fled to Poland asking for support and in couple of years returned to establish the order. The affairs became even more complicated by the end of the 11th century driving the state into chaos and constant warfare. On the initiative of Vladimir II Monomakh in 1097 the first federal council of Kievan Rus took place near Chernigov in the city of Liubech with the main intention to find an understanding among the fighting sides. However even though that did not really stop the fighting, it certainly cooled things off.

The last ruler to maintain some sort of united state was Mstislav the Great. After his death in 1132, the Kievan Rus fell into recession and a rapid decline, and Mstislav's successor Yaropolk II of Kiev instead of focussing on the external threat of the Cumans was embroiled in conflicts with the growing power of the Novgorod Republic. In 1169, as the Kievan Rus state was full of internal conflict, Andrei Bogolyubsky of Vladimir sacked the city of Kiev. The sack of the city fundamentally changed the perception of Kiev and was evidence of the fragmentation of the Kievan Rus. By the end of the 12th century,

the Kievan state became even further fragmented and had been divided into roughly twelve different principalities.

The Crusades brought a shift in European trade routes that accelerated the decline of Kievan Rus. In 1204 the forces of the Fourth Crusade sacked Constantinople, making the Dnieper trade route marginal. At the same time the Teutonic Knights of Northern Crusades were conquering the Baltic region and threatening the Lands of Novgorod. Concurrently with it the Kievan Rus as federation started to disintegrate into smaller principalities as the Rurik dynasty grew. The local Orthodox Christianity of Kievan Rus, while struggling to establish itself in the predominantly pagan state and losing its main base in Constantinople was on the brink of extinction. Some of the main regional centers that later have developed were Novgorod, Galich, Kiev, Ryazan, Vladimir-upon-Klyazma, Vladimir of Volyn and others.

In the north, the Republic of Novgorod prospered because it controlled trade routes from the River Volga to the Baltic Sea. As Kievan Rus declined, Novgorod became more independent. In 1136, the Novgorodians dismissed their prince Vsevolod Mstislavich, and this date is seen as traditional beginning of Novgorod Republic. The city was able to invite and dismiss a number of princes over the next two centuries, but they had no real power. A local oligarchy ruled Novgorod; major government decisions were made by a town assembly, which also elected a prince as the city's military leader. In the 12th century, Novgorod acquired its own archbishop Ilya in 1169, a sign of increased importance and political independence, while about 30 years prior to that in 1136 in Novgorod was established a republican form of government – elective monarchy. Since then Novgorod enjoyed a wide degree of autonomy although being closely associated with the Kievan Rus.

In the northeast, Slavs from the Kievan region colonized the territory that eventually became the Grand Duchy of Moscow by subjugating and merging with the Finnic tribes already occupying the area. The city of Rostov was supplanted first by Suzdal and then by the city of Vladimir, which become the capital of Vladimir-Suzdal. The combined principality of Vladimir-Suzdal asserted itself as a major power in Kievan Rus in the late 12th century. In 1169,

Prince Andrey Bogolyubskiy of Vladimir-Suzdal sacked the city of Kiev. Prince Andrey then installed his younger brother, who ruled briefly in Kiev while Andrey continued to rule his realm from Suzdal. Roman of Halych (1160-1205) also claimed primacy in Rus at the time. In 1299, in the wake of the Mongol invasion, the metropolitan moved from Kiev to the city of Vladimir and Vladimir-Suzdal.

However, a long and unsuccessful struggle against the Mongols combined with internal opposition to the prince and foreign intervention weakened Galicia-Volhynia. With the end of the Mstislavich branch of the Rurik kids in the 14th century, Galicia-Volhynia ceased to exist; Poland conquered Galich; Lithuania took Volhynia, including Kiev, conquered by Gediminas in 1321, ending the rule of Rurik kids in the city.

The state finally disintegrated under the pressure of the Mongol invasion of Rus. The state fragmented into successor principalities, tributary to the Golden Horde (the so-called Tatar Yoke). In the late 15th century Muscovite Grand Dukes began taking over former Kievan territories and claimed themselves to be the sole legal successors of the Kievan principality. On the northeastern periphery of Kievan Rus traditions were adapted in the Vladimir-Suzdal Principality. In the very north, the Novgorod and Pskov Feudal Republics carried on a separate and less autocratic version of Rus legacy into the 16th century until they were absorbed by the Grand Duchy of Moscow.

During this Kievan period the Rus experienced a period of great economic expansion. Due to the expansion of trade and its geographical proximity, Kiev became the important trade center and chief among the communes; therefore the leader of Kiev gained political "control" over the surrounding areas. This principality emerged from a coalition of traditional patriarchic family communes banded together in an effort to increase the applicable workforce and expand the productivity of the land. This union developed the first major cities in the Rus and was the first notable form of self-government. As these communes became larger, the emphasis was taken off the family holdings and placed on the territory that surrounded.

The change in political structure led to the inevitable development of the peasant class of *smerdy*. They were free peoples that found work by laboring for wages on the manors which began to develop as the *verv* began to dominate socio-political structure. The *smerdy* were initially given equality in the Kievan law code, they were theoretically equal to the prince. However in the 13th century they began to slowly lose their rights and became less equal in the eyes of the law.

The economic development of Kievan Rus may be translated into demographic statistics. Around 1200, Kiev was one of the significant cultural centres. Rus on the eve of the Mongol invasion had around 300 urban centers. Kievan Rus played an important genealogical role in European politics. Yaroslav the Wise married the only legitimate daughter of the king who Christianized Sweden. His daughters became queens of Hungary, France and Norway, his sons married the daughters of a Polish king and a Byzantine emperor while his granddaughters were a German Empress and the queen of Scotland. A grandson married the only daughter of the last Anglo-Saxon king of England. Thus the Rurikids were the most well-connected royal family of the time. The Rurik Dynasty were the ruling the Kievan Rus successor principalities of Galicia-Volhynia, Chernigov, Vladimir-Suzdal, and the Grand Duchy of Moscow.

From the 9th century, the Pecheneg nomads began an uneasy relationship with Kievan Rus. For more than two centuries they launched random raids into the lands of Rus, which sometimes escalated into full-scale wars, but there were also temporary military alliances (e.g. the 943 Byzantine campaigns by Igor). In 968, the Pechenegs attacked and then besieged the city of Kiev.

By the 11th century, however, monks were producing original works, primarily, historical chronicles, and homilies. At least one great secular work was produced as well: the epic *The Song of Igor's Campaign*, which dates from the late 12th century and describes a failed military expedition against the neighboring Polovtsy. Evidence also exists (primarily in the form of church records of suppression) of a thriving popular culture based on pre-Christian traditions gathering on harvest, marriage, birth, and death rituals. The most important aspects of Kievan culture for the development of modern

Russian culture, however, were not literary or folkloric but rather artistic and architectural.

In 1237, the Mongol invasion began. The founder of the Mongol Empire was Genghis Khan. He came to power by uniting of nomadic tribes of Northeast Asia and organized his people, army and state to prepare for invasions. Rus became the vassal of Golden Horde. This sort of relation continued more than 200 years. Fight against Golden Horde united Rus.

Until the end of the 13th century the activities of the princes were controlled by baskaks. The highest burden was the annual payment of 'exit' (*dan*) in silver. In total there were 14 types of payments and works in favor of the Horde, including the need to supply soldiers. Khan solved administrative issues, judge between princes. The recognition of the suzerainty of the Khan (the ruler) was facilitated by the fact that the Golden Horde recognized the ruling dynasty of the descendants of Rurik. Under the protection of the Khan's power was the Orthodox Church. In 1261 in the Barn (in Saray, the capital of Golden Horde) there was even a diocese. Russia became a vassal state, ulus of Genghis Khan's son Jochi.

Theme № 3. Russia in the middle of XVI-XVII centuries

1. Russia in the middle and second half of the XVI century.
2. Time of troubles.
3. Russia in the XVII century.

Questions for self-study:

1. Consider the reasons for the strengthening of civilizational isolation of feudal Russia.
2. What transformations were carried out by Ivan IV together with the Elected Rada?
3. What is the 'oprichnina'? What are its consequences?
4. Analyze the specific features of the Russian type of feudalism and class-representative monarchy.
5. Describe the process of the formation of Russian autocracy.

7. In what direction was the expansion of the borders of Russia in the second half of the XVI century?

8. Why the XVII century in Russian history is called 'Rebellious' century?

Problems to consider:

1. What is the difference between the processes of the Russia and Europe centralization?

2. What are the main stages of Moscovia formation?

3. In what consists the Ivan the Terrible's ambiguousness as the politician?

4. What factors promoted the break of Europe to New time in the 15-17th centuries?

5. Call the reasons and value of the Reformation in Europe.

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. The emergence of the Mongolian state, the conquest of Genghis Khan.

2. Russian lands on the eve of the Tatar-Mongol invasion.

3. The campaign of Batu on the Volga Bulgaria and Rus.

4. The role of the Church in strengthening the power of the first Moscow princes.

5. Moscow-Lithuania relations.

6. Culture of the Russian lands in the XIII-XIV centuries.

Materials for the lecture: The unification of Rus began at the same time, as in Europe. However, the conditions and prerequisites for the establishment of a single state in the 13th and 15th centuries were considerably different. On the domestic centralization was a reflected civilizational feature: such as the lack of chivalric culture, the reciprocity of rights and duties of lords and vassals. We will remind, that exactly from the practice of feudal contracts will grow to the Constitution. Wasn't in medieval Russia and universities, whose role was partially fulfilled monasteries. Rus had not survived the reformation. This allowed her to avoid the religious wars of Ivan the Terrible publicly condemned the massacre of St. Bartholomew for the bloodshed. However, the Rus did not survive the pack mentality. The main difference of the prerequisites

of centralization is that in the West it was the completion of the process of urban growth and trade. On the unification of Russia around Moscow in a single state was caused by the necessity of the struggle for independence, it grew out foreign policy objectives

Centralization of Russia took place against the backdrop of the struggle against the Golden Horde. Final result was that Moscow took over many features of the political culture and management of the Golden Horde. The role of the Horde in world history can be compared with the Empire of Charlemagne in Europe. The Golden Horde state is part of Russian history. On the model of the Horde, the Muscovite state was formed as the Imperia. The center of the Union was Moscow, and the merger itself is inextricably intertwined with the stages of upholding the sovereignty of Russia. Dependence on the Horde was finally formed in the 60ies of the 13th century political dependence was expressed in the approval of the Khan the right to reign, a document certifying the right-shortcut princes received in Saray.

The Mongol invasion declaimed Kievan Rus. By the time Russian political and cultural sphere recovered. In 14th century, new centre had arisen. Moscow's strength, especially relative to the other Russian principalities, continued to grow during second quarter of 13-the end of 15th centuries. The principality gained new territory and grew stronger under Dmitry Donskoi and his successors Vasiliy I and Vasiliy II , notwithstanding a long civil war during Vasiliy II (1425-1462)'s rein. He commissioned Andrey Rudlev, generally recognized as the most famous Russian icon painter.

One victim of Moscow strength was Novgorod, which contrasted to authoritarian Moscow and was an aristocratic republic. Its territory caught in the vise between Lithuania and Moscow and was badly weakened after defeat in 1456. The son of Vasiliy II, Ivan III (1462-1505). The stage had been set for Moscow to unify Russia under its control. Rein of Ivan III became a watershed in Russian history. In 1480, Ivan officially declared Russia independent of the Golden Horde. Gathering the Russian lands was almost finished. In 1478, Ivan seized Novgorod. *Veche* was abolished. Adding to insult to injury, Ivan

seized famous Novgorod's bell, famous symbol of republican way of life and removed it to Moscow.

His quarrel with Lithuania was motivated by historical memory. Lithuania had conquered a huge part of territory that formerly belonged to Kievan Rus. Ivan used diplomacy and military force against Lithuanians, especially an alliance with Crimean Tatars, another of the successor state states to the Golden Horde. To the end to be ruler the «entire state» alone Ivan enlisted every force he could muster, including historical prestige and religious authority. The slogan of his political intention: «Moscow is the Third Rome».

Since the beginning of the 16th century in Europe the Reformation began. This broad social movement in Europe which is characterized by withdrawal from Catholic Church of the considerable part of the Europe population. Russian history came along another route, and Russian church became unreformed.

Ivan IV. Ivan IV was the grand child of Ivan III, was Grand Prince of Moscow from 1533 until his death. Ivan was three years old, his father died. Ivan was proclaimed the Grand Prince of Moscow at his father's request. At first, his mother Elena Glinskaya acted as regent, but she died of what many believe to be assassination by poison, when Ivan was only eight years old. According to his own letters, Ivan, along with his younger brother Yuri, often felt neglected and offended by the mighty boyars from the Shuisky and Belsky families.

Ivan was crowned with Monomakh's Cap at the Cathedral of the Dormition at age 16. He was the first person to be crowned as 'Tsar of All the Russias', hence, claiming the ancestry of Kievan Rus. Prior to that, rulers of Muscovy were crowned as Grand Princes, although Ivan III the Great, his grandfather, styled himself 'tsar' in his correspondence.

By being crowned Tsar, Ivan was sending a message to the world and to Russia: he was now the one and only supreme ruler of the country, and his will was not to be questioned. 'The new title symbolized an assumption of powers equivalent and parallel to those held by former Byzantine Emperor and the Tatar Khan, both known in Russian sources as Tsar. The political effect was to elevate Ivan's position.' The new title not only secured the throne, but it also

granted Ivan a new dimension of power, one intimately tied to religion. He was now a 'divine' leader appointed to enact God's will,

Despite calamities of the Great Fire of 1547, the early part of Ivan's reign was one of peaceful reforms and modernization. Ivan revised the law code (known as the *sudebnik*), created army (*the streltsy*), established the *Zemsky Sobor* or assembly of the land, a public, consensus-building assembly, the council of the nobles (known as the *Chosen Council*), and confirmed the position of the Church with the Council of the Hundred Chapters, which unified the rituals and ecclesiastical regulations of the entire country. He introduced local self-government to rural regions, mainly in the northeast of Russia, populated by the state peasantry.

While Ivan IV was a minor, armies of the Kazan Khanate repeatedly raided the northeast of Russia, in the 1530s the Crimean khan formed an offensive alliance with Safa Giray of Kazan, his relative. Then Safa Giray invaded Muscovy, but was forced to withdraw to his own borders. These reverses undermined Safa Giray's authority in Kazan. A pro-Russian party, represented by Shahgali, gained enough popular support to make several attempts to take over the Kazan throne.

In 1545 Ivan IV mounted an expedition to the Volga River to show his support for pro-Russian factions. In 1551 the tsar sent his envoy to the Nogai Horde and they promised to maintain neutrality during the impending war. In 1551 the wooden fort of Sviyazhsk was transported down the Volga from Uglich all the way to Kazan. It was used as the Russian place d'armes during the decisive campaign of 1552.

On 16 June 1552 Ivan IV led Russian army towards Kazan. The last siege of the Tatar capital was commenced on 30 August. Under the supervision of Prince Alexander Gorbaty-Shuisky, the Russians used ram weapons, a battery-tower, mines, and 150 cannons. The Russians also had the advantage of efficient military engineers. The city's water supply was blocked and the walls were breached. Kazan finally fell on 2 October, its fortifications were razed, and much of the population massacred. About 60,000–100,000 Russian prisoners and slaves were released. The Tsar celebrated his victory over Kazan

by building several churches with oriental features, most famously Saint Basil's Cathedral on Red Square in Moscow. Legend has it that he was so impressed with the structure that he had the architect, Postnik Yakovlev, blinded so that he could never design anything as beautiful again. In reality, Postnik Yakovlev went on to design more churches for Ivan and Kazan's Kremlin walls in the early 1560s, as well as the chapel over St. Basil's grave that was added to St. Basil's Cathedral in 1588, several years after Ivan's death. Although more than one architect was associated with this name and constructions, it is believed that the principal architect is one and the same person.

The fall of Kazan had as its primary effect the outright annexation of the Middle Volga. The Bashkirs accepted Ivan IV's authority two years later. In 1556 Ivan annexed the Astrakhan Khanate and destroyed the largest slave market on the river Volga. These conquests complicated the migration of the aggressive nomadic hordes from Asia to Europe through Volga. As a result of the Kazan campaigns, Muscovy was transformed into the multinational and multi-faith state of Russia. In 1556, the khanate was conquered by Ivan the Terrible, who had a new fortress built on a steep hill overlooking the Volga. In 1568 the Grand Vizier Sokollu Mehmet Paşa, who was the real power in the administration of the Ottoman Empire under Sultan Selim, initiated the first encounter between the Ottoman Empire and her future northern rival. The results presaged the many disasters to come. A plan to unite the Volga and Don by a canal was detailed in Constantinople and in the summer of 1569 a large force under Kasim Paşa were sent to lay siege to Astrakhan and begin the canal works, while an Ottoman fleet besieged Azov.

Other events of this period include the introduction of the first laws restricting the mobility of the peasants, which would eventually lead to serfdom.

The 1560s brought hardships to Russia that led to dramatic change of Ivan's policies. Russia was devastated by a combination of drought and famine, Polish-Lithuanian raids, Tatar invasions and the sea-trading blockade carried out by the Swedes, Poles and the Hanseatic League. His first wife, Anastasia, died in 1560, and her death was suspected to be a poisoning. This personal tragedy deeply hurt Ivan and is thought to have affected his personality, if not

his mental health. At the same time, one of Ivan's advisors, Prince Andrei Kurbsky, defected to the Lithuanians, took command of the Lithuanian troops and devastated the Russian region of Velikiye Luki. The series of treasons made Ivan paranoically suspicious of nobility.

On December, 1564, Ivan IV departed Moscow for Aleksandrova Sloboda. From there he sent two letters in which he announced his abdication because of the alleged embezzlement and treason of the aristocracy and clergy. The boyar court was unable to rule in the absence of Ivan and feared the wrath of the Muscovite citizenry. A boyar envoy departed for Aleksandrova Sloboda to beg Ivan to return to the throne. Ivan IV agreed to return on condition of being granted absolute power. He demanded that he should be able to execute and confiscate the estates of traitors without interference from the boyar council or church. Upon this, Ivan decreed the creation of the *oprichnina* (1565).

The oprichnina consisted of a separate territory within the borders of Russia, mostly in the territory of the former Novgorod Republic in the north. Ivan held exclusive power over the oprichnina territory. The Boyar Council ruled the *zemshchina* ('land'), the second division of the state. Ivan also recruited a personal guard known as the oprichniki. They were headed by Malyuta Skuratov and enjoyed social and economic privileges under the oprichnina. They owed their allegiance and status to Ivan, not to heredity or local bonds. The first wave of persecutions targeted primarily the princely clans of Russia, notably the influential families of Suzdal. Ivan executed, exiled, or forcibly tonsured prominent members of the boyar clans on questionable accusations of conspiracy. Among those executed were the Metropolitan Philip and the prominent warlord Alexander Gorbaty-Shuisky. In 1566 Ivan extended the oprichnina to eight central districts.

This degree of oppression resulted in increasing cases of peasants fleeing which in turn led to a drop in the overall production. The price of grain increased. Conditions were worsened by the 1570 epidemics of plague that killed 600–1000 in Moscow daily. During the grim conditions of the epidemics, famine and ongoing Livonian war, Ivan grew suspicious that noblemen of the wealthy city of Novgorod were planning to defect, placing the city itself into

the control of the Lithuania. In 1570 Ivan ordered the oprichniks to raid the city. They burned Novgorod and the surrounding villages, and the city was never to regain its former prominence. Casualty figures vary greatly in different sources. The official death toll named 1,500 of Novgorod's big people (nobility) and mentioned only about the same number of smaller people. Many modern researchers estimate the number of victims to range from 2000-3000. Many survivors were deported elsewhere.

Oprichnina did not live long after the sack of Novgorod. During Russo-Crimean war, oprichniks failed to prove themselves worthy against a regular army. In 1572 Ivan abolished the oprichnina. In 1547 the agent of Ivan recruited craftsmen in Germany for work in Russia. However all these craftsmen were arrested in Lübeck at the request of Poland and Livonia. The German merchant companies ignored the new port built by Ivan on the river Narva in 1550 and continued to deliver goods in the Baltic ports owned by Livonia. Russia implied isolated from sea trade.

Ivan established very close ties with England. Russo-English relations can be traced to 1553, when Richard Chancellor sailed to the White Sea and continued overland to Moscow. Upon his return to England in 1555, the Muscovy Company was formed by himself, Sebastian Cabot, Sir Hugh Willoughby, and several London merchants. Ivan opened up the White Sea and the port of Arkhangelsk to the Company and granted the Company privileges. Ivan engaged in a long correspondence with Queen Elizabeth. While the queen focused on commerce, Ivan was more interested in a military alliance. During his troubled relations with the boyars, the tsar even asked her for a guarantee to be granted asylum in England should his rule be jeopardized.

Ivan launched an ultimately unsuccessful 24 years Livonian war of seaward expansion to the west and finding himself fighting the Swedes, Lithuanians, Poles and the Livonian Teutonic Knights. Having rejected peace proposals from his enemies, Ivan IV found himself in a difficult position by 1579. The displaced refugees fleeing the war compounded the effects of the simultaneous drought, and exacerbated war engendered epidemics, causing much loss of life. Altogether the prolonged war had nearly destroyed

the economy; oprichnina had thoroughly disrupted the government, while The Grand Principality of Lithuania had united with The Kingdom of Poland and acquired an energetic leader, Stefan Batory, who was supported by Russia's southern enemy, the Ottoman Empire (1576). Ivan's realm was now being squeezed by two of the great powers of the day.

After negotiations with Ivan failed, Batory launched a series of offensives against Muscovy in the campaign seasons of 1579–1581, trying to cut The Kingdom of Livonia from Muscovite territories. During his first offensive in 1579, he retook Polotsk. During the second, in 1580, he took Velikie Luki and he began the Siege of Pskov. Narva in Estonia was reconquered by Sweden in 1581. Muscovy recognized Polish-Lithuanian control of Livonia only in 1582. After Magnus von Lyffland, died in 1583, Poland invaded his territories in The Duchy of Courland. Except for the island of Saaremaa, Denmark was out of the Baltic by 1585.

In late years of Ivan's reign southern borders of Muscovy were disturbed by Crimean Tatars. Khan Devlet Giray of Crimea repeatedly raided the Moscow region. In 1571, Crimean and Turkish army launched a large-scale raid. Due to ongoing Livonian war, Moscow's garrison was as small as 6,000, and could not even delay the Tatar approach. Devlet devastated unprotected towns and villages around Moscow and set Moscow on fire. Historians estimate the number of casualties of the fire from 10,000 to as many 80,000 people.

To buy peace from Devlet Giray, Ivan was forced to relinquish his rights on Astrakhan in favor of Crimean Khanate (although this proposed transfer was only a diplomatic maneuver and was never actually complete). This defeat angered Ivan. Upon his orders, between 1571 and 1572 preparations were made. In addition to Zasechnaya cherta, innovative fortifications were set beyond the river Oka that defined the border.

Next year Devlet launched another raid on Moscow, now with 120,000-strong horde, equipped with cannons and reinforced by Turkish janissaries. On 26 July 1572 the horde crossed the Oka River near Serpukhov, decimated the Russian vanguard of 200 noblemen and advanced towards Moscow.

Russian army, led by Prince Mikhail Vorotynsky, was twice smaller, yet it was an experienced *streltsi* army, equipped with modern firearms. On 30 July the armies clashed near the Lopasnya River in what will be known as the Battle of Molodi, which continued for more than a week. The outcome was decisive Russian victory. The Crimean horde was defeated so thoroughly that both the Ottoman Sultan and the Crimean khan, his vassal, had to give up their ambitious plans of northward expansion into Russia.

In 1580 Yermak started his conquest of Siberia. With some 540 Cossacks he started to penetrate territories that were tributary to Kuchum. Yermak persuaded the various family-based tribes to change their loyalties and become tributaries of Russia. He also established distant forts in the newly conquered lands. The campaign was successful, and Cossacks managed to defeat Siberian army in Battle of Chuvash Cape, but Yermak was still in need for reinforcements. In 1581 Ivan beat his pregnant daughter-in-law for wearing immodest clothing, and this may have caused a miscarriage. His oldest son, also named Ivan, upon learning of this, engaged in a heated argument with his father, resulting in Ivan striking his son in the head with his pointed staff, causing his son's death.

Historic sources present disparate accounts of Ivan's complex personality: he was described as intelligent, yet given to rages and prone to episodic outbreaks of mental illness. On one such outburst Tsar beat and unpremeditatedly killed his groomed and chosen heir Ivan. This left the Tsardom to be passed to Ivan's younger son, the weak and intellectually disabled Feodor I. Ivan's legacy is complex: he was an able diplomat, a patron of arts and trade, founder of the Russia's first Print Yard in Moscow Print Yard (1553). So, the first printing press was introduced to Russia.

By expanding into Poland, the Caspian and Siberia, Ivan established a sphere of influence that lasted until the 20th century. Ivan's conquests also ignited a conflict with Turkey that would lead to successive wars. The acquisition of new territory brought about another of Ivan's lasting legacies: a relationship with Europe, especially through trade. Although the contact between Russia and Europe remained small at this time, it would later grow, facilitating the permeation of European ideals across the border. Peter the Great would later

push Russia to become a European power, and Catherine the Great would manipulate that power to make Russia a leader within the region.

Long reign of Ivan IV saw the conquest of the Khanates of Kazan, Astrakhan, and Siberia; transforming Russia into a multiethnic and multiconfessional state. Ivan managed countless changes in the progression from a medieval state to an empire and emerging regional power, and became the first ruler to be crowned as Tsar of all Russia. At the same time Ivan the Terrible is remembered for his paranoiac suspiciousness and cruel persecution of nobility.

A title alone may hold symbolic power, but Ivan's political revolution went further, in the process significantly altering Russia's political structure. The creation of the oprichnina marked something completely new, a break from the past that served to diminish the power of the boyars and create a more centralized government. It was an attempt to transform an absolutist political structure into despotism. Ivan successfully cemented autocracy and a centralized government in Russia, in the process also establishing a centralized apparatus of political control in the form of his own guard. The idea of a guard as a means of political control became so ingrained in Russian history.

Contrary to his political legacy, Ivan IV's economic legacy was disastrous and became one of the factors that led to the decline of the Rurik Dynasty and the Time of Troubles. Ivan inherited a government in debt, and in an effort to raise more revenue instituted a series of taxes. To make matters worse, successive wars drained the country both of men and resources. Muscovy from its core, where its centralized political structures depended upon a dying dynasty, to its frontiers, where its villages stood depopulated and its fields lay fallow, was on the brink of ruin.

Ivan's political revolution not only consolidated the position of Tsar, but also created a centralized government structure with ramifications extending to local government. The assumption and active propaganda of the title of Czar, sudden changes in policy during the Oprichnina contributed to the image of the Muscovite prince as a ruler accountable only to God.

Time of Troubles. Soon after the death of Ivan Time of Troubles (*smuta*) began. It was period of political crisis in Russia that followed the demise of

the Rurik dynasty (1598) and ended with the establishment of the Romanov dynasty (1613). During this period foreign intervention, peasant uprisings, and the attempts of pretenders to seize the throne threatened to destroy the state itself and caused major social and economic disruptions, particularly in the southern and central portions of the state.

The Time of Troubles was preceded by a series of events that contributed to the country's instability. In 1598 Fyodor, the last in the line of the Rurik dynasty, died; he was succeeded as tsar of Russia by his brother-in-law Boris Godunov. Boris was faced with problems of famine (1601-1603), boyar opposition, and the challenge of a Polish-supported pretender to the throne, the so-called False Dmitry, who claimed to be Dmitry, half brother of the late tsar and legitimate heir to the throne. (The real Dmitry had died in 1591). Boris was able to maintain his regime, but when he died (April 1605), a mob favoring the False Dmitry killed Boris' son and made "Dmitry" tsar.

The boyars, however, soon realized that they could not control the new tsar, and they assassinated him (May 1606), placing the powerful nobleman Vasily Shuysky on the throne. This event marked the beginning of the Time of Troubles. Although Shuysky was supported by the wealthy merchant class and the boyars, his rule was weakened by a series of revolts, the most important of which was a peasant rebellion led by the former serf Ivan Bolotnikov in the southern and eastern regions of the country. Shuysky also had to contend with many new pretenders, particularly the Second False Dmitry, who was supported by the Poles, small landholders, and peasants. Claiming to have escaped assassination in 1606 and recognized by the wife of the First False Dmitry as her husband, the new Dmitry established a camp at Tushino and besieged Moscow for two years. A group of boyars, including the Romanovs, joined him at Tushino, forming a government there that rivaled Shuysky's. While elements of 'Dmitry's' army took control of the northern Russian provinces, Shuysky bargained with Sweden (then at war with Poland) for aid. The arrival of Swedish mercenary troops caused 'Dmitry' to flee from Tushino. Some of his supporters returned to Moscow; others joined the Polish king

Sigismund III, who declared war on Muscovy in response to the Swedish intervention and led an army into Russia and defeated Shuysky's forces (June 1610).

Disappointed with Shuysky, the Muscovites deposed him; and the conservative boyars, fearing the rule of 'Dmitry', whose supporters desired radical social changes, agreed to accept the compact already made between Sigismund and the boyars who had been at Tushino, named Władysław (son of the Polish king) tsar-elect, and welcomed Polish troops into Moscow. 'Dmitry', however, was killed by his own allies (December 1610), and Sigismund, changing his mind, demanded direct personal control of Russia and continued the Polish invasion (autumn 1610).

These finally stimulated the Russians to rally and unite against the invader. The first resistance, an alliance – instigated by the patriarch Hermogen –between small landholders led by Lyapunov and some Cossacks, quickly disintegrated. But it was followed in October 1611 by a new movement, composed of landowners, Cossacks, and merchants. Prince Dmitry Pozharsky led the army, and the merchant Kuzma Minin handled the finances. The army advanced toward Moscow and, threatened by the approach of Polish reinforcements, attacked and captured the garrison (October 1612). The following year a widely representative zemsky sobor ('assembly of the land') elected a new tsar, Michael Romanov, establishing the dynasty that ruled Russia for the next three centuries.

By the time Russian political and cultural life began to recover in the 14th century, a new centre had arisen: Muscovy (Moscow). Continuity with Kiev was provided by the Orthodox Church, which had acted as a beacon of national life during the period of Tatar domination. Orthodox Church continued to play the central role in Russian culture into the 17th century. As a result, Russian cultural development in the Muscovite period was quite different from that of Western Europe, which at this time was experiencing the secularization of society and the rediscovery of the classical cultural heritage that characterized the Renaissance. The Moscow school of icon painting produced great masters, among them Dionisy and Andrey Rublyov (whose Old Testament Trinity, now in Moscow's Tretyakov Gallery, is among the most revered icons ever painted). Russian architects continued to design and build impressive churches, including

the celebrated Cathedral of St. Basil the Blessed on Moscow's Red Square, a perfect example of the confluence of Byzantine and Asiatic cultural streams that characterizes Muscovite culture.

Theme № 4. 'Middle ages epoch' in Russian and Western European history

1. The middle ages as a stage of historical process in Western Europe, in the East and in Russian lands.

2. Middle ages in Russian history

Questions for self-study:

1. The middle ages as a stage of the historical process.

2. Technologies.

3. Production relations and methods of operation.

4. Political system.

5. Ideology and social psychology.

Problems to consider:

1. What is the 'feudalism'?

2. What was the role of cities in medieval Europe?

3. Why is the struggle of the Papacy and the Emperors in the middle Ages?

4. Why the appearance of the Inquisition became possible in the middle Ages?

5. What factors promoted the break of Europe to New time in the 15-17th centuries?

6. Name the reasons and value of the Reformation in Europe.

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

Middle ages in the West.

Middle ages in the East.

Materials for the lecture: The Middle Ages is the period in the world history that began after the Antiquity and preceded the Modern history.

The historical notion of Western Europe in the medieval period includes the history of England, France Germany, and other states of Western Europe, as well as of Byzantium, the successor of the Eastern Roman Empire. The period of European history from 500 to 1000 is called the early middle Ages or the Dark Ages. It was the Migration Period; a new society was formed through the synthesis of the Roman and the barbaric world. Western Europe consisted of a number of disjointed and unsteady barbaric kingdoms that had emerged in the territory of the former Roman Empire.

The main content of the initial stage of the middle Ages is the formation of the Christian civilization. Ideology in its religious form became for the first time the dominant factor in the society. The most important process in social and economic sphere was the establishment of feudal relations with the pivot in the formation of feudal land ownership. The fief is the land which was transferred for possession on certain conditions. The most important of them was service to the seigneur, the liege lord, i.e. the person who gave the land. The person who obtained it became a vassal. According to the feudal custom, the vassal was obliged to serve to the seigneur 40 days each year: participate in combat operations of his host, defend his possessions, honor and dignity. When given the land, a vassal made an oath of loyalty to his master. This is how the feudal hierarchy ladder was created.

On its highest step was the king – the sovereign (the first seigneur), who at the same time was often the ruler only nominally, unlike the really absolute monarchies of the East. On the second step of the "feudal ladder" were the immediate vassals of the king, the major feudal lords: dukes, counts, archbishops, bishops, abbots. They were only subordinate to the king, often only formally. The next steps were the vassals of dukes, counts and bishops, i.e. barons. Their vassals were the knights. The entire ladder rested on the labor of peasants and craftsmen. The fiefdom, i.e. the complex of large land property, was divided into the owner part – the domain – and the land given for holding to peasants. The domain included the seigneur's estate (residential and service buildings), forest, meadows and the liege plough land, the area of which depended on forms of rent, as well as on the feudal economic activity. With the

establishment of fiefdom as the main social and economic organism of the feudal society the peasant community was not destroyed. The rural commune managed the communal lands usage, rent collection, and the landlord's judicial activity, thus organizing opposition of peasants to the feudal lord and introducing contractual legal principles into relationship with him, governed by a written charter. The acquired rights allowed the community to go beyond the fiefdom and present a collective complaint to state courts.

In the East, peasant community played a critical part. The community life forms limited stratification of peasantry. State ownership and subordination of a private landowner and a feudal lord to state power prevailed. The branched administrative system suppressed energy and enterprise.

In endless internecine wars, peasants reached out to the neighboring seigneur or cloister for protection. Once having found a powerful patron, a peasant had to acknowledge his dependence on him, transfer to his possession his land allotment. A dependent peasant continued to carry out economic activity on the same allotment, but for using it the lord demanded cove labor and tribute payment. Cove includes all works (cultivation of the landlord's farmland, building houses and sheds, erection of defenses, fishing, logging, etc.) of peasants in the feudal lord's household. Tribute is the payments made by peasants to the land owner in the form of food and products of their farms. The feudal power over a peasant was not reduced to only cove and tribute (land dependence), a peasant was personally subject to the feudal lord (personal dependence), the land owner judged him in his court, the peasant did not have the right to move to another place without his master's permission.

But, despite the land and personal dependence on the feudal lord, the peasant was not absolutely rightness. The seigneur could not execute him, deprive him of his allotment (if he fulfilled his obligations), sell or exchange without the land and separately from his family. The custom observed by both peasants and seigneurs was of paramount importance in medieval people's life. The scope of tribute, types and duration of corves did not change across the generations. What was once and for all established was considered reasonable and just.

The formation of feudalism was greatly influenced by a wave of invasions on Western Europe: first, Arabs in the first half of the 8th century and then Normans and nomads in the 9-10th centuries. Charles Martel stopped Arabs in 732 near Poitiers and they were not pushed out by Franks behind the Pyrenees

The Normans (or Vikings), as the participants of theft campaigns of North European origin were referred to in Western Europe (Norwegians, Danes, and Swedes) who sailed to the shores of France, England, Germany and up the rivers deep into these countries. They plundered, killed, burned, tormented, took captives into slavery, sometimes taking over entire areas. Gradually, the Normans began to entrench in certain territories. People from Southern Ural, Magyar or Hungarian nomadic cattle herders invaded Europe and reached Paris and the Atlantic Ocean.

In the early middle Ages repeated attempts were made to unite the Christian world. This idea becomes the fundamental concept for several generations of Western Europe inhabitants. The first attempt was the Charles the Great's Empire. After being crowned at Christmas of the year 800, Carl from an ordinary Frank ruler becomes the symbol of unity of German traditions, of Roman imperial past, and Christian principles. But his empire was extremely weak and in the year 843, Charles the Grate's descendants divided it between themselves into three grand parts, making the start to the history of three states – France, Germany, and Italy. The imperial idea remained attractive in Europe. After frustrating Hungarians on the Lech River in 955, nobody dared to challenge German king Otto I and he decided to be crowned by the example of Charles the Great with an imperial crown in Rome. He takes over Italy and in 962 declares himself emperor. On the political map of Europe appeared the Holy Roman Empire with the center in Germany which embodied European imperial idea until the end of the Middle Ages.

The church becomes a real political force. Several parishes combine into a episcopate, and several episcopates into an archiepiscopate. In the West, the Roman bishop naming himself "pope" gradually becomes the main of the bishops (papa's means "father" in Greek). His domination was based on the fact that it was the apostle Peter, one of Christ's closest disciples, who was considered

the first bishop of Rome. The actual basis of the popes' political power was the richest lands concentrated in their own hands and in subordinate cloisters. The parishioners had to pay in favour of the church. In the West the church was trying to take the place of the collapsing governmental authorities. The weakness of "barbaric" kingdoms and their mutual struggle resulted in appropriation by popes of administrative and political functions and their claiming the supreme authority in the affairs of the entire Christian church. In the middle of the 8th century the Papal state was created, which laid foundation to popes' temporal power. After that, popes began to claim power over the entire West based on a document falsified in the pope's office and known as 'The Donation of Constantine'. In the East, the church was a part of a well adjusted machinery of government.

The period of European history from 1000 to 1300 is referred to as the High Middle Ages. In this time, the population of Europe increased sharply, which in its turn led to dramatic changes in social, political, and other spheres of life. In this time, nation-states appear as monarchies of nobility representatives.

One of the decisive features of the epoch of middle Ages was the *crusades* organized by the Catholic Church in order to seize the Holy Sepulcher in Jerusalem from Seljuk Turks. The crusades exerted great influence on all strata of the medieval society. The period from 1096 to 1291 is considered the classical epoch of the crusades, but the attempts of their revival were being made until the end of the Middle Ages. In this period, the 1054 *Schism* occurred, which led to formation of the two main branches of the Christian church – the Roman Catholic Church in the Western Europe and the Orthodox Church in the Eastern Europe. The distinctions in interpretation of the Christian teaching, rites, church organization that had been accumulating since the 4th century caused insuperable contradictions.

The most powerful of the Roman popes was Innocent III (1198-1216) who managed to force a number of sovereigns to avow themselves vassals of the pope. Among them were the kings of England, Denmark, Poland, and Aragon. Although papacy won in the struggle for investiture, subsequently it

could not always successfully confront secular sovereigns, for example, as in an cases with Boniface VIII and French king Philip IV when the place of the popes' residence had to be changed (Babylonian Captivity of the Papacy).

During this period people declared that the church was 'spoiled', that it had distorted the Jesus' teaching and had become 'the devil's force' and the pope itself – 'the vicar of the devil'. These people spoke for equality for all believers. The church declared these people heretics and their doctrine heresy.

Excommunication was an important weapon in the struggle against the disobedient; application of interdict (interdict means prohibition in Latin), i.e. excommunication of the population of a city, region, or a whole country, where all services and rites ceased: babies were not baptized, newlyweds were not married, and funeral services were not performed.

As the threat of the heresy revival did not disappear, *the Inquisition*, i.e. special permanent commissions of the Roman Catholic Church, was created to combat heresy and afterwards sorcery (from Latin inquisition, in the legal sense meaning 'search', 'investigation'). Inquisition trial was not subject to any control; investigation was being conducted secretly using cruel, refined tortures. Denunciations and perjuries were widely used. The denunciation was imposed as a duty to believers and was generously rewarded from the convicts' property. The unrepentant were excommunicated by the Inquisition tribunal and 'relaxed', i.e. delivered to secular authorities for "just sentence", typically meaning faggoting.

Europe growth and prosperity period ended around 1300 with a number of disasters such as the Great Famine of 1315-1317, the Black death, i.e. the epidemic of plague (1347-1349) that swept off more than half of European population. The destruction of the social system led to mass disorder; it was in this time that famous peasant wars in England and France took place, such as Jacqueline (1358) and the revolt of Watt Tyler (1381). The reduction of European population was completed by the exhaustion resulting from the Mongol-Tartar invasion and the Hundred Years' War.

The wealth of towns was founded on the wealth of their citizens. The wealthiest included pawnbrokers and moneychangers who exchange

money and transferred it from one town to another took free capitals for custody and granted credits. This activity was concentrated mainly in the hands of Jews because usury was officially prohibited by Christianity for believers. Craftsmen were an important stratum of urban population. They move from custom production to the market. Craft becomes a respected activity bringing in a fair return. People of construction specialties, i.e. masons, carpenters, plasterers, were held in special honor. Architecture was the occupation for the most gifted people with high levels of vocational training. In this period crafts become more and more specialized, the range of products broadens, craft devices is being advanced but still manual. Technologies in metallurgy, cloth manufacture become more sophisticated and efficient; people in Europe wear woolens instead of fur and flax.

Some towns purchased it, others achieved it by military force: citizens organized military troops from craftsmen (who usually fought by entire shops) and mercenaries. In this struggle, kings who strove to weaken the power of major feudal lords were on the side of the citizens. Towns, in some turn, provided kings with large loan moneys and sometimes military aid as well.

A town having achieved self-government was called a commune in France and Northern Italy. Most communes paid taxes to the king and were dependent on him. But some towns managed to become completely independent states and even to extend their power to surrounding lands. For example, in Italy such states were represented by Florence, Venice, and Genoa. The authorities of independent towns were elective and were entitled to raise taxes, pay to the treasury, dispose of municipal finances at their discretion, have their own trial, coin, and even declare war and make peace. The population of communes was growing due to peasants who fled from feudal lords, and, as the proverb has it, 'the town air set a dependent person free', i.e. if a bondman who had fled from his master, lived in the town one year and one day, he became free.

The privileges and liberties obtained by Western European town created the status of a special estate for citizens; it was represented as such in bodies of estate representation at national and local levels. The political recognition of citizens facilitated cultivation in the society of the new value system where

the human rights were not defined only by its hereditary belonging to privileged estates. The towns that achieved self-government realized the principles of collective electoral power in contrast with authoritarian and hierarchical world of spiritual and secular feudal lords.

Thus wise, town showed its feudal nature in the small character of production and trade as the center of crafts and trade; in its estate and corporation character of property (craft workshops and guilds of merchants); in involvement in feudal rent in its liege or centralized (state taxes) form; finally, in the engagement of town into a feudal relations system (town as a collective vassal or collective seigneur). At the same time it was town that the society owed the decisive technology moves, which brought to it the initiative in transition to industrial manufacture. Finally, town brought forth special forms of culture and spiritual life which facilitated the development of experimental and rational knowledge. The universities that emerged in towns not only became the centers of scholarship, but gave rise to freethinking. The formation of the new humanism ideology and the Renaissance culture in Western Europe on the border of the middle Ages and the early modern time was indissolubly tied to the urban life and culture.

In the period of the advanced Middle Ages the monarchy of representatives of nobility emerges. The political consolidation of feudal lords (nobility and clergy) and citizens (burghers) led to formation of estate-representative institutions. In 1265, a meeting was called that consisted of the biggest barons and priests, as well as two knights from each county and two citizens from the biggest towns. Soon the parliament was divided into the House of Lords where the representatives of secular and spiritual aristocracy sit in session and the House of Commons that included representatives of chivalry and citizens. The main function of the parliament was the approval of taxes and provision of subsidies to the king. So, monarchy limited by the parliament was established in England as early as 13th century. Over time, such estate-representative assemblies arose in the majority of European states. In France – the States General, in Czechia and Poland – the Seim, in the Holy Roman Empire –

the Reichstag (German national convention) or the Land (assemblies of representatives in separate lands).

The middle Ages were the time when a culture emerged which is referred to as knightly. It is formed in the feudal environment. Having created special rules of conduct, the feudal lords strove to isolate themselves from plebeians and emphasize their difference. According to the perceptions of the chivalry, a true knight was to come from a noble family. A self-respecting knight, to confirm his noble origin, referred to a branched family tree, had family crest and motto. In rare cases, people were knighted for special military exploits.

A perfect knight was to have a lot of merits. He was to be good-looking and attractive. Therefore, special attention was given to clothes, jewelry, and constitution. Especially dress armors and horse harnesses, especially ceremonial ones, were real pieces of art. A knight had to keep loyalty to the seigneur, protect the humiliated, the weak, and the Christian faith in general. He could not afford trickery, cunning in a battle against an opponent, to refuse a fair combat. It was considered disgrace to use weapon against those lower in the social position. Avarice was also regarded as an unknighthly quality.

The knights' code was reflected in chivalric literature. The pinnacle of it is the lyric poetry of troubadours. They built the cult of the Fair Lady, at whose service a knight had to adhere to certain courtesy rules. 'Courtesy' (from court), apart from military valor, required social graces, the ability to keep up conversation, sing.

The historians disagree in determination of the upper medieval boundary. If in Russian historical science it is accepted to determine its ending by the English Civil War, Western European science usually links the end of the Middle Ages with the beginning of *the church reformation* or the *Age of Discovery*. The late Middle Ages is also referred to as the *Renaissance*.

Age of Discovery began in the end of 15th century. Portugal and Spain were the states focused on the operation of the overseas lands. Reconquista made the people of these countries freedom-loving and combative, and when it came to the end, the energy of many ambitious and rather the poor noblemen and the commoners demanded a new exit. The treasury of Spain and Portugal

was empty, but overseas there were India and China possessing the infinite treasures in the Europeans mind. Besides, in Europe the prices of east goods raised considerably in the 15th century. It was contributed: the termination of the caravan trade of Europe with China and India through Central Asia and Mongolia, owing to the disintegration of the Mongolian power; the falling of Constantinople and the Turkish gains in Western Asia and on the Balkan Peninsula in the 15th century almost completely barred the trade way to the east through Asia Minor and Syria. The third trade way to the east through the Red Sea was the monopoly of the Egyptian sultans who began to raise the extremely high fees from all transported goods in the 15th century.

The Portuguese were the first who directed there on the search of a way. The development of the navigation was promoted by the creation of sails (caravels), enough reliable for the ocean navigation, the improvement of a compass and the sea charts. Within the 15th century the Portuguese caravels mastered a sea way along the western coast of Africa, reaching more and more southern latitudes. It was found out that the coast of the Gulf of Guinea is rich with gold and an ivory. In 1471 they reached the equator. In 1488, B. Dish's expedition reached the Cape of Good Hope.

The Europeans tended to find a sea way to rich India, rounded the globe. On August 3, 1492, Christopher Columbus headed to the west on three Spanish ships. More than a month the ships floated by sea. The earth heaved in sight on October 12. It was the island of San Salvador. Columbus was convinced that he opened the whole archipelago. Soon the seamen saw the big and rich island which locals called Haiti. Columbus named it Espanola. The Spaniards had only one small ship. Columbus sailed back and arrived to Spain on March, 1493. He was sure that he sailed to the east coast of India, for this reason the Europeans began to call the residents of new lands - Indians.

Columbus made three more swimming's to the coast of the New World, having opened islands in the Caribbean Sea. He landed on the continent, but he believed that there was the next island before him. But only the Italian traveler Amerigo Vespucci proved that it was the new continent. The continent received the name America from his name.

The Spaniards were dangerous competitors for the Portuguese after Columbus's discoveries. To prevent collisions, both states signed the agreement after the long negotiations in the city of Tordesilyas in 1494. The line had been drawn from the pole to the pole and it was established that all newly opened non-Christian areas to the West from this line had to belong to the Spaniards, and to the East – to the Portuguese. The advance of the Spaniards to the west incited the Portuguese to intensify the searches of a way to India in the east. The expedition was equipped in 1497. The king appointed a sailor Vasco da Gama at the head of this expedition. Four small ships left Lisbon on June 8, 1497. In five months they rounded the coast of Africa. On March 1, 1498, the Portuguese reached Mozambique. There were the Arab settlements. In the city of M. Vasco da Gama attracted to the cooperation of the experienced Arab seaman. In one and a half months the ships landed to the coast at the city of Calicut in the west of India. Vasco da Gama signed the agreement with the local governor. In July, 1499, the squadron loaded with spices returned to Lisbon.

Since then the Portuguese began to equip the big squadrons every year. Thanks to superiority of arms they forced out the Arab merchants from the Indian Ocean and took in hand the sea trade. They occupied the islands of Socotra at an entrance to the Red Sea and Ormuz at an entrance to the Persian Gulf, having blocked ways to the Arab ships. In India Portuguese tended to possess the strong points on the coast, cruelly exploited the local population. The trade with India brought the huge incomes. Having become stronger in India, the Portuguese moved to Indonesia, China, Japan.

The idea of Earth sphericity became more and more popular. There was a hypothesis that, having rounded America from the South, it is possible to reach India too. This idea was persistently cherished by Portuguese Fernando Magellan who passed to service of Spain. In 1519 his flotilla departed from the coast of Spain. Having crossed Atlantic, Magellan went along the coasts of South America in search of the chokepoint to the 'South Sea'. The transition through the 'South Sea' to the west lasted nearly 4 months. Only on March 6, 1521, the ships reached three inhabited islands. Soon the squadron approached the group of large islands which called later Philippine. Here, having interfered

with intertribal war, Magellan died. Only one of five ships under command of Basque El-Cano came back on September 6, 1522 to Spain. But they brought on this ship so many spices that covered all expenses and they got profit.

The great geographical discoveries began with Spain and Portugal and continued by France, Holland and Britain (XV–XVII centuries) led to profound changes in economic life of Europe. Value of the Mediterranean trade and the Italian cities decreased. In the 16th century such cities as Lisbon, Seville began to play a role of the intermediaries. Antwerp became the European cash center in which the merchant and the bank firms of all countries had the offices and agents. The revolution of the prices in 16th – the beginning of the 17th centuries became other important consequence of the Great geographical discoveries. The prices for products of agricultural industry rose much above, than manufactured goods. The prices sharply increased in connection with import to Europe from the colonies of a large amount of gold and silver.

The revolution of the prices brought benefit to the land owners leasing the earth as the rent grew. The entrepreneurs fell into the best state as the salary of workers strongly decreased. The merchants didn't suffer from the increase in prices. The peasants who conducted a small-scale enterprise and the peasants paying a quitrent in products strongly lost from the revolution of the prices. The situation of most noblemen worsened as they did not conduct the economy designed for the market. In the cities the general population suffered from the revolution of the prices, as in general they existed for a salary.

The revolution of the prices led to the bigger strengthening of the entrepreneurship spirit. The big and fast revenues were yielded by trade. There were the trading companies and joint-stock companies which members bore responsibility for the activities of the company by their property. The development of trade generated also the exchanges. The commodity exchange represented the market where there was a trade in bulk of such goods as wheat, cotton, coffee, etc. At the exchange they sold and bought the documents certifying availability of items on their samples. The exchanges in Amsterdam and London were the biggest.

Also the banks were of great importance for business. For the first time their emergence was noted in the 15th century in Genoa and Barcelona. At this time they already shared on state and private. In the 17th century there were the Amsterdam and English banks. The banks performed the mediation in payments and credit. The attention of the grown rich merchants stimulated the production of goods for sale over time. It was profitable to merchant to control all process – from the production to the sale. The merchants began to invest money in production. They become owners of manufactories. The owner of the manufactory employed people who worked for him for a payment. Such enterprise is called capitalist (from the word ‘capital’ – money and other values which make profit) and the owners of this capital, the entrepreneurs are called bourgeoisie or capitalists.

In 16th century the teaching of the Catholic Church was attacked. It taught that the world and everything in it is created by God and not subject to any change. It preached the idea of the original depravity of man; the Church through its sacraments (baptism, communion, etc.) can save him. The spread of humanist ideas were undermining the Church's teaching. The people were irritated by the luxury of the clergy, which is especially manifested in the sale of indulgences. For the money, you could buy "absolution". The rulers of many countries were dissatisfied with the claims of the popes for the Supreme power. Kings, merchants, businessmen, nobles wanted to gain wealth and lands of the Church.

The beginning of the reformation was associated with the speech of the Professor of Wittenberg University in Germany by Martin Luther in 1517 with his 95 theses against indulgences. Contrary to the teachings of the Catholic Church, Luther proclaimed that the Church and the clergy are not intermediaries between God and man. It declared false the claims of the Catholic Church that she can forgive sins through the sacraments in virtue of special powers from God. The main provision in the sermon Luther says that man attains salvation not through the rites of the Church, and with the help of their faith. Source of religious truth, according to Luther, is the Holy Scripture. The role of the Church and clergy should be confined to the explanation of his texts. Worship

services should be conducted on clear to people language and not in Latin. Luther translated the Bible into German.

Raised in Germany a broad movement in support of Luther did not allow the Catholic clergy to end with his teaching. Lutheranism took many townspeople, peasants, nobles, and the rulers of several German States. Luther urged to act against papal Rome, not only with words but also with weapons. In the course of the reformation from the Catholic Church separated the various trends in Christianity, commonly called Protestantism. Protestants were first called the German rulers, signed in 1529 at the Imperial diet (Assembly of princes of the Holy Roman Empire) 'Protestatio'. They protested against the decision of the majority of the Seimas on limiting the spread of Lutheranism in Germany.

In that period in Europe the Renaissance began. It meant a connection with nature, the appeal to ancient heritage. New ideas were named humanism. They meant recognition of human right for freedom and realization of abilities. The human person in the condition of business activity should be evaluated by the criterion of the merits. The centre of the universe is not God, but the inner world of man.

Theme № 5. Russia in the XVIII century. 'Enlightened absolutism' in Russia and Europe

1. Background of the modernization of Russia. European references of internal and external policies of Peter I.
2. The political and socio-economic reforms of the first quarter of XVIII century.
3. The era of palace coups: problems of the political and socio-economic development.
4. 'Enlightened absolutism' of Catherine II and the European enlighten: general and special.

Questions for self-study:

1. Secularization of culture in the XVIII century.
2. The movement of the 'bottom' in the XVIII century.

3. Peasant war led by E. Pugachev.
4. Diplomacy and Wars of Catherine's time.

Problems to consider:

1. Is it possible to consider Peter the Great's identity charismatic? If yes, then why?
2. Name the contradictions of Peter I reforms.
3. Why can the policy of the enlightened absolutism of Catherine II be called inconsistent and demagogical?
4. How did the events and the results of French revolution affect Russia?

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. The first Russian modernization: the era of Peter I and its importance in the history of Russia.
2. Russia's foreign policy in the XVIII century.
3. Peasant question in Russia XVIII century and the war led by E. Pugachev.
4. Western European Education and Russian socio-political thought.
5. Russian culture in the XVIII century.

Materials for the lecture: In 1640–1660, in the form of opposition between the parliament and the king Charles I, behind whom there was an old nobility and Anglican Church in England, there was a bourgeois revolution. The small nobleman Oliver Cromwell was the indisputable leader. The victory was confirmed by the revolutionary act of parliament on February 24, 1646, which provided the cancellation of the royal guardianship over the earth of noblemen, the destruction of feudal dependence on the king, the liquidation of all penalties and some other feudal liabilities.

The land owners received an opportunity of the unlimited control of their lands, in this connection; they began to restrain the peasants in the rights: they fenced their sites, the drained bogs. The people began to understand that the revolution didn't equal their hopes. The army became a kernel of revolutionary forces. In this army there was a political party of *levellers*, a political group which leader was John Lilburn. In 1646 they issued the 'Remonstrations of many

thousands of citizens' where the requirements contained: the destruction of the king and House of Lords power; the transfer of power to the House of Commons; the transformation of parliament into annually elected body; the absolute freedom of conscience; the responsibility of officials.

In May, 1647, the elections to Council of army spontaneously took place. The second civil war began in the spring of 1648. After the end of this war in August the solution of the king destiny became the main political question. In parallel there was a fight in Protestant (Puritan) camp concerning the organization of church between Presbyterians and Independents. At this time Independents approached Levellers, and began to incline to the trial of the king, and the destruction of the monarchy. But it was impossible while in the parliament the majority was made by Presbyterians, and in December, 1648, they were expelled, (so-called Praydova cleaning). It was declared the creation of the Supreme tribunal for the trial of Charles I Stewart which sentenced him to death. On January 30, 1649, the king was executed, and the republic was proclaimed in the country.

In society the aspiration to establishment of an order and the strong power amplified. In 1653, Long Parliament was dismissed; Cromwell became the governor of England proclaimed by the lord protector. The protectorate mode was the military dictatorship as a form. In 1649-1650, Cromwell headed a campaign to Ireland during which the huge land possession fell into the hands of British, and the local population was enslaved. Soon Cromwell subordinated Scotland.

In 1658, Cromwell died. Instability of a political regime, the rise of national disorders forced the bourgeoisie and the nobility to think of the monarchy restoration. In 1660, the deputies expelled earlier from the parliament gathered. The son of Charles I who was proclaimed after his execution the king Charles II published the declaration in which he promised the people forgiveness for all actions in civil war. On May 26, the monarchy was established again in England. The revolutionaries and sectarians who weren't in time to disappear abroad and protesting against the new orders were executed. The Anglican Church was rehabilitated. However the government had to consider the interests

of the bourgeoisie: it encouraged trade and industry, conducted the colonial wars. The king James II (Charles II's brother) tried to restore Catholicism in the country that caused a general indignation. The leaders of opposition addressed the governor of the Netherlands William of Orange, James II's son-in-law.

In 1688 Wilhelm arrived to England with army and became the king of England. This revolution is called 'Glorious Revolution'. It represented a compromise between the landed aristocracy and the upper bourgeoisie dividing together the power. A legal registration of the constitutional monarchy gradually begins. In 1689 'Bill of Rights' was adopted, where the basic rights of the parliament were confirmed. One more document which promoted the registration of the constitutional monarchy in 1701 was the 'Act of Settlement' which established the rule of a countersigning which led to the transition of the real executive power from the king to ministers and the principle of an irremovability of judges. Also, there was a precedent of 'the responsible government', that was the cabinet which didn't enjoy support of parliament, and it couldn't remain long in power. Thus, England became constitutional monarchy. The king had to operate the country together with parliament. The electoral right remained the same – only propertied citizens possessed it. Unlike the revolution in the Netherlands, the English revolution had the European sounding and was strong incentive of the future industrial progress of the leading colonial power of New Times.

Russia in the 18 century. The beginning of Peter I's modernization may be named as some sort of revolution. Peter de facto ruled the Tsardom of Russia and later the Russian Empire from 1689 until his death in 1725. In numerous successful wars he expanded the state into a huge empire that became a major European power. He realized a cultural revolution that replaced the traditionalist and medieval social and political system with a modern, scientific, Europe-oriented system.

From an early age, Peter's education was put in the hands of several tutors, most notably Nikita Zotov, Patrick Gordon and Paul Menesius. On January 1676, Tsar Alexis died, leaving the sovereignty to Peter's elder half-brother, the weak and sickly Feodor. Throughout this period, the government was largely

run by Artamon Matveev, an enlightened friend of Alexis. Childless Feodor died in 1682. A dispute arose between the Naryshkin and Miloslavsky families over who should inherit the throne. Peter's other half-brother, Ivan, next in line for the throne was chronically ill and of infirm mind. Consequently, the Boyar Duma chose the 10-year-old Peter to become Tsar with his mother as regent. This arrangement was brought before the people of Moscow, as ancient tradition demanded, and was ratified. Sophia Alekseyevna, one of Alexis' daughters from his first marriage, led a rebellion of the Streltsy (Russia's elite military corps) in April–May 1682. In the subsequent conflict some of Peter's relatives and friends were murdered, including Matveev, and Peter witnessed some of these acts of political violence.

The Streltsy made it possible for Sophia, the Miloslavskys (the clan of Ivan) and their allies, to insist that Peter and Ivan be proclaimed joint Tsars, with Ivan being acclaimed as the senior. Sophia acted as regent during the minority of the sovereigns and exercised all power. For seven years, she ruled as an autocrat. A large hole was cut in the back of the dual-seated throne used by Ivan and Peter. Sophia would sit behind the throne and listen as Peter conversed with nobles, while feeding him information and giving him responses to questions and problems. This throne can be seen in the Kremlin museum in Moscow. Peter was not particularly concerned that others ruled in his name. He engaged in such pastimes as shipbuilding and sailing, as well as mock battles with his toy army. Peter's mother sought to force him to adopt a more conventional approach, and arranged his marriage to Eudoxia Lopukhina in 1689. The marriage was a failure, and ten years later Peter forced his wife to become a nun and thus freed himself from the union.

By the summer of 1689, Peter planned to take power from his half-sister Sophia, whose position had been weakened by two unsuccessful Crimean campaigns. When she learned of his designs, Sophia conspired with the leaders of the Streltsy, who continually aroused disorder and dissent. Peter, warned by the Streltsy, escaped in the middle of the night to the impenetrable monastery of Troitse -Sergiyeva Lavra; there he slowly gathered adherents who perceived he would win the power struggle. Sophia was eventually overthrown, with Peter I

and Ivan V continuing to act as co-tsars. Peter forced his half-sister to enter a convent, where she gave up her name and her position as a member of the royal family.

Still, Peter could not acquire actual control over Russian affairs. Power was instead exercised by his mother, Natalya Naryshkina. It was only when Nataliya died in 1694 that Peter became an independent sovereign. Formally, Ivan V remained a co-ruler with Peter, although he was ineffective. Peter became the sole ruler when Ivan died in 1696. Peter the Great had two wives; three of his children survived to adulthood. His eldest child and heir, Alexei, was suspected of being involved in a plot to overthrow the Emperor. Alexei was tried and confessed under torture during questioning conducted by a secular court. He was convicted and sentenced to be executed. The sentence could be carried out only with Peter's signed authorization, and Alexei died in prison, as Peter hesitated before making the decision.

Peter implemented sweeping reforms aimed at modernizing Russia. Heavily influenced by his advisors from Western Europe, Peter reorganized the Russian army along modern lines and dreamed of making Russia a maritime power. He faced much opposition to these policies at home, but brutally suppressed any and all rebellions against his authority: Streltsy, Bashkirs, Astrakhan, and the greatest civil uprising of his reign, the Bulavin Rebellion. Peter implemented social modernization in an absolute manner by requiring courtiers, state officials, and the military to shave their beards and adopt modern clothing styles.

To improve his nation's position on the seas, Peter sought to gain more maritime outlets. His only outlet at the time was the White Sea at Arkhangelsk. The Baltic Sea was at the time controlled by Sweden in the north, while the Black Sea was controlled by the Ottoman Empire in the south. Peter attempted to acquire control of the Black Sea; to do so he would have to expel the Tatars from the surrounding areas. As part of an agreement with Poland which ceded Kiev to Russia, Peter was forced to wage war against the Crimean Khan and against the Khan's overlord, the Ottoman Sultan. Peter's primary objective became the capture of the Ottoman fortress of Azov, near the Don River. In the

summer of 1695 Peter organized the Azov campaigns to take the fortress, but his attempts ended in failure. Peter returned to Moscow in November of that year and began building a large navy. He launched about thirty ships against the Ottomans in 1696, capturing Azov in July of that year. On 12 September 1698, Peter officially founded the first Russian Navy base, Taganrog.

Peter knew that Russia could not face the Ottoman Empire alone. In 1697 he traveled incognito to Europe with a large Russian delegation—the so-called ‘Grand Embassy – to seek the aid of the European monarchs. Peter's hopes were dashed; France was a traditional ally of the Ottoman Sultan, and Austria was eager to maintain peace in the east while conducting its own wars in the west. Peter, furthermore, had chosen the most inopportune moment; the Europeans at the time were more concerned about who would succeed the childless Spanish King Charles II than about fighting the Ottoman Sultan.

The ‘Grand Embassy’, although failing to complete the mission of creating an anti-Ottoman alliance, continued. While visiting Holland, Peter learned much about life in Western Europe. He studied shipbuilding in Zaandam (the house he lived in is now a museum, the Tsar Peter house) and Amsterdam, and later put this learning to use in helping build Russia's navy. Thanks to the mediation of Nicolaas Witsen, mayor of Amsterdam and expert on Russia, the Tsar was given the opportunity to gain practical experience in the largest shipyard in the world, belonging to the Dutch East India Company, for a period of four months. During his stay the Tsar engaged many skilled workers such as builders of locks, fortresses, shipwrights, and seamen –including Cornelis Cruys, a vice-admiral who became, under Franz Lefort, the Tsar's advisor in maritime affairs. Peter paid a visit to Frederik Ruysch, who taught him how to draw teeth and catch butterflies. Ludolf Bakhuysen, a painter of seascapes and Jan van der Heyden the inventor of the fire hose, received Peter, who was keen to learn and pass on his knowledge to his countrymen.

In England Peter met with King William III, visited Greenwich and Oxford and saw a Royal Navy Fleet Review at Deptford. He travelled to the city of Manchester to learn the techniques of city-building he would later use to great

effect at Saint Petersburg. The Embassy next went to Leipzig, Dresden, and Vienna. He spoke with August the Strong and Leopold I, Holy Roman Emperor.

Peter's visit was cut short in 1698, when he was forced to rush home by a rebellion of the Streltsy. The rebellion was, however, easily crushed before Peter returned home from England; of the Tsar's troops, only one was killed. Peter nevertheless acted ruthlessly towards the mutineers. Over 1,200 of the rebels were tortured and executed, and Peter ordered that their bodies be publicly exhibited as a warning to future conspirators. The streltsy were disbanded, and the individual they sought to put on the Throne – Peter's half-sister Sophia – was forced to become a nun.

Also Peter sought to end his unhappy marriage. He divorced Eudoxia Lopukhina. She had borne Peter three children, although only one, the Tsarevich Alexei, had survived past his childhood.

Peter's visits to the West impressed upon him the notion that European customs were in several respects superior to Russian traditions. He commanded all of his courtiers and officials to cut off their long beards – causing his Boyars, who were very fond of their beards, great upset – and wear European clothing. Boyars who sought to retain their beards were required to pay an annual beard tax of one hundred rubles. He also sought to end arranged marriages, which were the norm among the Russian nobility, because he thought such a practice was barbaric and led to domestic violence, since the partners usually resented each other. In 1699 Peter changed the date of the celebration of the New Year from 1 September to 1 January. Traditionally, the years were reckoned from the purported creation of the World, but after Peter's reforms, they were to be counted from the birth of Christ. Thus, in the year 7207 of the Old Russian calendar, Peter proclaimed that the Julian calendar was in effect and the year was 1700.

Peter made a temporary peace with the Ottoman Empire that allowed him to keep the captured fort of Azov, and turned his attention to Russian maritime supremacy. He sought to acquire control of the Baltic Sea, which had been taken by the Swedish Empire a half-century earlier. Peter declared war on Sweden,

which was at the time led by King Charles XII. Sweden was also opposed by Denmark-Norway, Saxony, and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth.

After the victorious second Azov campaign Peter began *North War* against Sweden. Russia was ill-prepared to fight the Swedes, and their first attempt at seizing the Baltic coast ended in disaster at the Battle of Narva in 1700. In the conflict, the forces of Charles XII used a blinding snowstorm to their advantage. After the battle, Charles decided to concentrate his forces against the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, which gave Peter time to reorganize the Russian army. At the end of February 1701 he met with Polish King Augustus II the Strong in Biržai, where the rulers, after several days of drinking, arranged a cannon shooting competition, won by the Polish King.

As the Poles and Lithuanians fought against the Swedes, Peter founded the city of Saint Petersburg in 1703. He forbade the building of stone edifices outside Saint Petersburg, which he intended to become Russia's capital, so that all stonemasons could participate in the construction of the new city. He also took Martha Skavronskaya as a mistress. Martha took the name Catherine, allegedly marrying Peter in secret in 1707. Peter married her officially at Saint Isaac's Cathedral in Saint Petersburg on 9 February 1712. Following several defeats, the Polish King August II abdicated in 1706. Swedish king Charles turned his attention to Russia, invading it in 1708. After crossing into Russia, Charles defeated Peter at Golovchin in July. In the Battle of Lesnaya, Charles suffered his first loss after Peter crushed a group of Swedish reinforcements marching from Riga. Deprived of this aid, Charles was forced to abandon his proposed march on Moscow.

Charles XII refused to retreat to Poland or back to Sweden, instead invading Ukraine. Peter withdrew his army southward, destroying along the way any property that could assist the Swedes. Deprived of local supplies, the Swedish army was forced to halt its advance in the winter of 1708-1709. In the summer of 1709, they resumed their efforts to capture Ukraine, culminating in the Battle of Poltava on 27 June 1709. The battle was a decisive defeat for the Swedish forces, ending Charles' campaign in Ukraine and forcing him into exile in the Ottoman Empire. In Poland, August II was restored as King.

Peter, overestimating the support he would receive from his Balkan allies, attacked the Ottoman Empire, initiating the Russo-Turkish War of 1710. Normally, the Boyar Duma would have exercised power during his absence. Peter, however, mistrusted the boyars; he instead abolished the Duma and created a Senate of ten members. Peter's campaign in the Ottoman Empire was disastrous, and in the ensuing peace treaty, Peter was forced to return the Black Sea ports he had seized in 1697. 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.

Peter's northern armies took the Swedish province of Livonia, driving the Swedes into Finland. In 1714 the Russian fleet won the Battle of Gangut. Most of Finland was occupied by the Russians. The Tsar's navy was so powerful that the Russians could penetrate Sweden. Peter also obtained the assistance of the Electorate of Hanover and the Kingdom of Prussia. Still, Charles XII refused to yield, and not until his death in battle in 1718 did peace become feasible. After the battle near Åland, Sweden made peace with all powers but Russia by 1720. *In 1721 the Treaty of Nystad* ended what became known as the Great Northern War. Russia acquired Ingria, Estonia, Livonia, and a substantial portion of Karelia. In turn, Russia paid two million Riksdaler and surrendered most of Finland. The Tsar retained some Finnish lands close to Saint Petersburg, which he had made his capital in 1712.

Peter's last years were marked by further reform in Russia. On 22 October 1721, soon after peace was made with Sweden, he was officially proclaimed Emperor of All Russia. Some proposed that he take the title Emperor of the East, but he refused. Gavriila Golovkin, the State Chancellor, was the first to add "the Great, Father of His Country, Emperor of All the Russias" to Peter's traditional title Tsar following a speech by the archbishop of Pskov in 1721.

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. In the minds of many, the word emperor connoted superiority or pre-eminence over kings. Several rulers feared that Peter would claim authority over them, just as the Holy Roman Emperor had claimed suzerainty over all

Christian nations. During Peter's reign the Russian Orthodox Church was reformed. The traditional leader of the Church was the Patriarch of Moscow. In 1700, when the office fell vacant, Peter refused to name a replacement, allowing the Patriarch's Coadjutor (or deputy) to discharge the duties of the office. In 1721 Peter followed the advice of Feofan Prokopovich and created the Holy Synod, a council of ten clergymen, to take the place of the Patriarch and Coadjutor. Peter implemented a law that stipulated that no Russian man could join a monastery before the age of 50. He felt that too many able Russian men were being wasted on clerical work when they could be joining his new and improved army. In 18th-century Russia, few people lived to over a half century; therefore very few men became monks during Peter's reign, much to the dismay of the Russian Church.

In 1722 Peter created a new order of precedence known as the Table of Ranks. Formerly, precedence had been determined by birth. To deprive the Boyars of their high positions, Peter directed that precedence should be determined by merit and service to the Emperor. The Table of Ranks continued to remain in effect until the Russian monarchy was overthrown in 1917. Peter decided that all of the children of the nobility should have some early education, especially in the areas of sciences. Therefore, on 28 February 1714, he issued a decree calling for compulsory education, which dictated that all Russian 10 to 15-year-old children of the nobility, government clerks, and lesser-ranked officials, must learn basic mathematics and geometry, and should be tested on it at the end of their studies. Peter introduced new taxes to fund improvements in Saint Petersburg. He abolished the land tax and household tax, and replaced them with a poll tax. 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.

The gradual turn of Russia toward Western Europe that began in the 17th century led to an almost total reorientation of Russian interests during the reign of Peter I. Before Peter's accession, the Russian industry as a matter of fact did not exist. Peter did all his best to make Russia match up with other European countries in area of industry. The industrialists were under the protection of

the tsar. In 1723, legislators legislated to stop industrial monopoly by Peter. Private individuals were called to replace the state in operation of the created establishments under favourable conditions. Peter wanted Petersburg to become a trading port for Russia but this was tough because all dealers preferred the Arkhangelsk port. But new capital became a trading port.

Although Peter the Great was not particularly interested in cultural questions, the influx of Western ideas, which accompanied the technology Peter found so attractive. In 1703, the first Russian newspaper was published. The paper was composed of four pages, filled with news about what was going on both in Russia and Europe.

In sphere of administration appeared Senate, colleges. On January, 1721, Peter confirmed the «special regulation» which was developed by his supporter Bishop Feofan Prokopovich. According to the new law, the church was liquidated and became a subordinate of the state financially. The Patriarchate in Russia was abolished and a special Spiritual Board (Sinod) was created for the management of the church.

Peter initiated educational and cultural reforms. In 1699, cannon – founders school was founded in Moscow Then the school of Mathematics and Navigation Sciences was opened. It became the predecessor of the Navy Academy, established in 1715 in St.Petersburg. Many education and engineering schools were later established throughout all provinces. The tsar also made members of his royalty shave their beards as done in other European countries. The weakening of the Orthodox Church led to a cultural renaissance during the reigns of his successors. In the late 1730s poets Mikhail Lomonosov and Vasily Trediakovsky carried out reforms as far-reaching as those of Peter. Adapting German syllabotonic versification to Russian, they developed the system of ‘classical’ metres that prevails in Russian poetry to this day. In the 1740s, in imitation of French Neoclassicism, Aleksandr Sumarokov wrote the first Russian stage tragedies.

In the course of the century, Russian writers assimilated all the European genres; although much of their work was derivative, the comedies of Denis Fonvizin and the powerful, solemn odes of Gavriila Derzhavin were original and

have remained part of the active Russian cultural heritage. Prose fiction made its appearance at the end of the century in the works of the sentimentalist Nikolay Karamzin, famous historian of Russian state. By the beginning of the 19th century, after a 75-year European cultural apprenticeship, Russia had developed a flexible secular literary language, had a command of modern Western literary forms, and was ready to produce fully original cultural work.

Peter's transformations in sphere of culture, way of life and customs were conducted by force. The interests of the state which was developed according to the strict monarch plan were of the main concern of Peter when performing those reforms. Progressive process of modernization took only a quarter of the century.

Catherine II. The significant turn in the history of Russia happened with the accession of Catherine the Great. It was preceded by the short period of the Peter III reign, which cancelled Secret Office, published the manifesto on the liberty of the nobility and confiscated the church lands. However, the personal qualities and the action program of Peter III doomed him to defeat. He despised the Russian traditions, and the haste of his reforms, the unpredictability of actions broke the stability. The emperor spread the Prussian beginnings in the army, contemptuously called the guard Janissars; he dared to imitate women and old dignitaries on the feasts. He intended to shut up the spouse in a cloister.

Catherine and her accomplices relied on the indignation of Peter III's anti-patriotism. The external events played the crucial role. Peter cancelled the progress of Seven years' war with Prussia (1756-1763), planned the war for regaining the duchy Schleswig from Denmark to give it subsequently to Holstein – the homeland. The grandees N. Panin, K. Razumovsky, E. Dashkova knew about the plot. The crucial role was played by brothers Orlovs; they strenuously 'played' as brawlers for masking their actions. The performance was accelerated by Passek's arrest.

Sofya Augusta Frederica, the Lutheran from Prussia, ascended to a throne as a result of the plot. She passed all court falsities, tried to adapt to any situation, released from the territorial Prussian patriotism. As the bride of future emperor Peter III, she arrived to Russia in 1744. Without having got a system

education, she differed in abilities to self-education. She was well familiar with the ideas and works of the French educators Montesquieu, Voltaire, Diderot. The theatrical, demonstration style of government was determined by such personality traits of Catherine as hypocrisy, vanity, wastefulness. Without possessing creative mind, she was able to accumulate and use the foreign ideas, to select people. Gavril Derzhavin, the native of Kazan, was the secretary of the empress. Understanding the increasing influence of public opinion, the empress showed an ostentatious piety.

Catherine represented the activity as *'the union of philosophers and the sovereign'*. Did the 'philosophical' reputation of Catherine influence her style of government? Considering as an ideal arrangement – Russia of Peter I, and the ideal governor – Peter I, she issued decrees, traveled around the country a lot. The serfdom problem was the main problem for the educated queen. Recognizing it as anti-humane and brutal, the queen understood that the time for cancellation of slavery in Russia didn't come. In Russia with its severe climatic conditions and a low surplus product to release the peasants meant to doom the state to decline (pelting of arable lands, crash of political system). The work of the peasants was unprofitable therefore the government slowed down leaving of the peasants in the industry even in non-black earth region (in Russia, before the accession of the Crimea there were not practically the black-earth lands, and the South was under the threat from the Crimean khan and Turkey).

The social policy of Catherine was pro-noble. Not without reason, her government is called 'the Golden Age of nobility'. The empress carried out 'a general land surveying' in favor of noblemen, strengthened their land rights and possession of the peasants. The large volume of the lands and the peasants turned into their possession in the form of gifts. The peasants were punished for the complaints to landowners by the penal servitude. In 1764, the church lands were confiscated for benefit of the state that corrected the budget of the empire and weakened political line items of church.

Having kept the bases of the military and feudal monarchy, Catherine softened the autocracy. She declared that irrespective of the tsar personal qualities the autocratic autocracy is the evil. The empress intended to designate

the functions of the government bodies, tried to strengthen the legality. Enlightened absolutism in which style she governed was a form of government liberalism - attempts 'not to forbid and not to order', to liberalize the legislation of Enlightened absolutism peculiar to some countries of Europe during the period, transitional to capitalism, meant the attempt to connect the autocratic and monarchic beginnings to legality. Catherine represented the empress who was encouraging the education, taking care of the people benefit.

The second half of the 18th century in Europe was marked by ideological tendency of the Enlightenment. It was the era of ideas of freedom, equality, human rights, humanism. Under the influence of the ideas of the emerging bourgeois society appeared in the USA, occurred the French revolution, the monarchs of some countries pursued a policy of enlightened absolutism. In the seventeenth century captured from the Indians the lands along the coast of the Atlantic ocean formed the 13 English colonies. Quickly developed here, farmers often found it advantageous markets. Farmers suffered from the greed merchants, buying their produce for a pittance and selling his products from England at high prices, and government policy. Meanwile, process of industrialization and series of important events followed.

The American Revolution. By 1770s, the 13 British Colonies in North America contained two and a half million people. They were prospering, and developed their own political and legal systems. As a result of the French and Indian Wars, Britain began to try to recoup the costs of those wars by instituting a series of additional taxes on the Colonists, and had left parts of their army in the colonies to help provide for their defense. The additional efforts at taxation, and the continuous presence of British troops posed a threat to American self-government. Political action in the early 1770s culminated in the Boston Tea Party in 1773, and led to all-out war in 1775. After fierce debate among the colonies, it was finally agreed to declare their independence from Britain. The American Revolution was fought to defend the right of self-government and control of colonial (internal) matters.

In 1775 in Philadelphia gathered continental Congress of representatives of the 13 colonies. July 4, 1776 Congress adopted *the Declaration of*

independence. It proclaimed the separation of the colonies from England, as well as the Republican and democratic freedoms: equality before the law, sovereignty of the people, its right to alter the form of government. The author of the Declaration was a young lawyer, Thomas Jefferson. Listing the natural rights of man, the Declaration did not mention the property. Jefferson linked the concept of 'property' with the meaning of 'work' and replaced the word 'property' with 'pursuit of happiness'. The insurgency was led by General George Washington is an experienced soldier, participated in many wars with the Indians. Under his leadership created a strong army, which initially was forced mainly to defend. At the end of August 1776 the colonist army, defending New York was almost surrounded. It managed to save, only surrendering the city. Soon, however, Washington received fresh reinforcements and the British inflicted two serious defeats. In 1777 in Saratoga British army was surrounded and surrendered. The British government appealed to the rebels in peace, promising them Amnesty and the repeal of laws that undermine the interests of the colonies. But the rebels refused to consider these proposals and demanded the recognition of the complete independence of the colonies and withdrawal of the British army and Navy. The struggle of the colonies openly supported France and Spain, entered the war with England. Russia has pursued favorable to the insurgents policy of 'armed neutrality'. In 1783 was the peace Treaty was signed, by which England recognized the independence of North American colonies.

Of the 13 colonies that became the States (States), was established first in America an independent state – United States of America. The war eliminated many feudal systems in the colonies. During and after the war, the United States were united under a weak federal government established by the Articles of Confederation. When these became unworkable, a new Constitution was written. In the spring of 1787 in Philadelphia called the constitutional Assembly elected from 13 States. The meeting adopted the Constitution of the United States. The Constitution of 1787 gave the Federal government extensive powers. The Congress, which was the highest legislative body, had the right of taxation, the right of disposal of the land Fund, the right of the maintenance

of the army and Navy, etc. the head of the Federation – President are elected not by direct vote but by the electoral College. His powers far exceeded the powers of the king of England. The Constitution became the basis for federal government, with war hero George Washington as a country's president.

The Great French revolution. In 1789 the French revolution began. It had the deep reasons. The third social category (citizens and peasants) in France was politically deprived of civil rights, though it made the majority of the country population. During the prerevolutionary period, the position of the peasants worsened. Many of them had to throw the houses and to go to the city. 1788 was harvestless. The wave of the popular uprisings captured provinces. At the same time, the acute financial crisis burst in the country. The king Louis XVI had to agree to the convocation of General states which didn't gather during 150 years. The representatives of three social categories gathered in Versailles. The deputies from nobility and clergy sought to limit the General states to the functions of an advisory body. The deputies of the third social category insisted on the expansion of the rights of the General states, trying to obtain their transformation into the Supreme legislative body.

On June 17, 1789, the meeting of the third social category, the deputies proclaimed itself the National assembly. Soon the National assembly declared itself the Constituent assembly – the highest representative and legislative body of the French people. The meeting had to develop basic laws.

The king and supporters of the absolutism protested against these decisions. The troops were pulled together in Paris and Versailles, causing a wave of indignations. On July 14, 1789, the Parisians occupied the royal prison the Bastille – a symbol of absolutism. In country towns the old authorities were abolished and the electoral municipalities were created. In France there was the wave of the demolition of the castles, the burning of the country estates, the sharing of the landowner grounds by the peasant. The Constituent assembly adopted the decree about the elimination of the feudal mode in August. The personal duties of the peasants and the church tithe were abolished. Other feudal duties were subject to repayment. On August 26, 1789, the most important document of revolution – *the Declaration of human rights and citizen* was ac-

cepted. It consisted of 17 articles. The first of them said that people are born free and remain those for the rest of the life; they are equal in the rights too. This thesis was a challenge of the absolutist idea of the king power divine origin. In the Declaration the freedom of personality, conscience, words, the right to resistance to oppression, the sacred right of private property were proclaimed.

The situation in Paris continued to remain intense, the discontent of the people increased. On October, 1789, the huge crowds of Parisians went to Versailles. They forced the king and the Constituent assembly to move to Paris. In June, 1791, the king Louis XVI tried to run abroad, but he was detained. The escape of the king was counted as treason. A serious blow was struck to the idea of monarchism. However the moderate deputies hurried to finish the work on the creation of the Constitution establishing a constitutional monarchy.

The Legislative assembly which began the work on October 1, 1791 was elected on the basis of the Constitution of 1791. The supporters of the constitutional monarchy dominated in it. Their opposition was made by Girondists. They took a stand in favor of the republic. In the Legislative assembly there was also a group of the extreme left-wing led by M. Robespierre. In 1792, the economic situation in the country sharply worsened. In Paris and some other cities there were the large actions due to the need and the hunger. The aristocrats fleeing the country created the center of the counterrevolutionary emigration in Germany. The governments of the European Empires prepared the armed intervention against France. On April 20, 1792, Louis XVI and the Legislative Assembly declared the war against Austria. The military operations began unsuccessfully for France. The defeats from Austria and Prussia caused the growth of people's movement. Thousands of volunteers went to Paris. The news about the intention of the interventionists to restore the rights of the king caused the revolt on August 10, 1792. Louis XVI was dethroned.

On August 20, 1792, the National convention gathered. It was elected for the first time on the basis of the universal vote in which only men participated. On September 21 the Convention proclaimed the republic. Before it, in France the wave of punishments of suspects passed because of an old regime. To the spring of 1793 there was again a question of the earth. In some areas the peasants

began the unauthorized occupation of lands. The convention allowed by the special decree the sale of the emigrants' lands and royal lands by the small sites.

In Convention and out of it the question of Louis XVI's punishment was also resolved. The opinions on this matter were sharply shared: most of Girondists were against the execution of the king, but Jacobins (the supporters of the radical measures uniting within Jacobin club) and the part of Girondists stood up for the execution. On January 21, 1793, Louis XVI was executed. In October of the same year the queen was executed.

Jacobins came to the power in the most difficult time for the country in June, 1793. The decree which was finally returning all communal lands to the peasants, and the decree on destruction of all feudal duties and requisitions were adopted. In two weeks Jacobins approved the new Constitution at the heart of which there were the principles of freedom, equality and people's sovereignty. The Highest legislative power belonged to the Legislative assembly elected for a period of 1 year. The Higher executive power was carried out by the Executive council consisted of 24 people.

The political situation in the country in the summer of 1793 worsened. The interventionists came, creating the threat to Paris. On July 13, Jean Paul Marat, the popular Jacobin among Parisians, was killed. The products became unavailable to the poor people, the transportation of the food to the cities was reduced, and there was not enough bread. In April, 1793, the Committee of Public Safety was created. The Committee included Robespierre and his several associates. In August the Convention according to the offer of Committee of Public Safety adopted the decree declaring the mobilization of all French. The huge army was created. However in some places the decree about the mobilization caused a discontent. In the area of Vendee in the west of France the anti-revolutionary peasant revolt began. In fight against the peasants the troops sent by Jacobins showed a cruelty. The Convention and the Committee of Public Safety began to carry out the functions which were far beyond the constitution. On September 29, 1793, the fixed prices on essential goods were instituted.

At the end of 1793, the fight between Jacobins and so-called 'furious' was developed. The last one criticized the policy of the Convention. The 'furious'

demanded the terror strengthening, especially against the speculators. They were crushed, but their many requirements, such as measures on the restraint of the speculators or the protection of the poor, found the support between the people. The left Jacobins supported them. The terror increased.

Among Jacobins there was a fight. There was a group of indulgent' which considered that the terror should be limited (Danton). On the other hand, Robespierre and his supporters wanted to hold the power at any cost. The terror gradually turned into the protection of a personal authority of Robespierre and his colleagues. Many Jacobins were executed because of disagreements with Robespierre. The strengthening of the terror incited the people against the robespierrists. The actions of Jacobins didn't improve the situation to poor people and irritated the bourgeoisie which grew rich during the revolution.

At the end of 1793-the beginning of 1794, there was the change in the war. In the winter of 1794 the main forces of the Vendean were crushed, the earth of France was liberated from the interventionists. But progressively as victories over the external enemies, the contradictions among Jacobins went deep. In the Convention the plot ripened. Talyen, Barass and others grown rich during the revolution, and also those who couldn't forgive to Robespierre the punishment of colleagues, played a major role in the plot.

9 thermidor (according to a revolutionary calendar), that is on July 27, 1794, there was a revolution. Robespierre and his associates were arrested and executed. The Convention, cleared from Jacobins, began to work. In the Convention there were the industrialists, financiers and new owners of land who grew rich as a result of the revolution. The maximum of food prices were abolished. The violent measures were adopted against the dissatisfied poor.

The Thermidorian Convention adopted the new Constitution in 1795. She liquidated the universal elective franchise. Instead of the Convention the Council of Elders and Council of five hundred were chosen. They possessed the legislative power and they chose the Directory vested with the executive power.

Since 1797 the war in protection of the French Republic turns into the war for a gain of others territories. The general Napoleon Bonaparte who conquered Italy and crushed Austria caused a stir. However England was the main enemy

of France. Aiming to undermine its colonial power, the Directory sent an expedition to India, having delivered at the head the same Napoleon Bonaparte. Bonaparte captured Egypt and led the troops to Syria. The Syrian campaign ended for French unsuccessfully. During the same period the army of the France opponents cleared Italy from the French people.

On November 9, 1799 (on Brumaire 18), Bonaparte made a military coup and captured the power. He became the first consul. The events of Brumaire 18 are considered as the end of French revolution. In 1804, Bonaparte proclaimed Emperor of France.

Theme № 6. Russian Empire in the XIX century: challenges of joining the European Community and the choice of development options

1. Major trends in world history in the XIX century: the industrial revolution and the sunset of the old order in Europe.

2. The Russian Empire in the first half of the XIX century: reform or stagnation?

3. The Russian society quest for a civilizational development: Westerners, Slavophiles, noble liberalism and revolutionary democracy.

4. Socio-economic processes and the consolidation of constitutional and parliamentary system in Europe and North America.

5. Domestic and foreign policy crisis in Russia and ways of solution in the middle of the XIX century.

6. The Great Reforms of 1860-70-ies and their impact on the socio-economic and socio-political life in Russia. The historical interweaving of reforms and counter-reforms as a reflection of the growth of various social and political forces.

Questions for self-study:

1. The foreign policy of the Russian Empire in the beginning of the XIX century and the increase of its borders to the west and south.

2. Patriotic War of 1812.

3. The suppression of the Polish uprising in 1831 and the participation of the Russian Empire in the struggle against the revolution of 1848–1849 in Europe.

Problems to consider:

1. In your opinion, was the World War I inevitable?
2. Is it possible to consider the Bolsheviks as the outcasts of the history?
3. Estimate the Lenin's role in the history.

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. The Crimean war of 1853–1856.
2. "Eastern question" in Russian foreign policy in the XIX century.
3. Development of industry and Finance in Russia in the post-reform period: successes and problems.
4. Russian education and domestic science in the second half of the XIX century.
5. Literature and art in Russia in the second half of the XIX century.

Materials for the lecture: The prerequisites of the middle of the 19th century reforms in Russia became: the powerful shocks of the victorious war with Napoleon in 1812; the movement of the Decembrists (1815–1825); the social discontent with the serfdom; the inefficiency of bureaucratic system of the public administration, the defeat of Russia in the Crimean war of 1853–1856. Alexander's reign was full of problems. He was raised by his grandmother Catherine II. The death of Catherine before she could appoint Alexander as her successor brought his father, Paul, to the throne. Some of Russia's powerful noblment began to plot Paul s assassination. He directed reforms. They resulted in grater rights for peasantry. The young tsar was determined to reform highly centralized systems of government. He placed the reforms of Empire on shoulders of M.Speransky. His intentions, as much, as victory of 1812, *decembrists' s projects* played significant role as prerequisite of Great Reforms.

One of the prerequisites bourgeois reforms was the movement of Decembrists. (1815–1825). Formed after Patriotic War, been influenced by liberal ideas, they advocated the establishment of representative democracy and abolition of economically end politically unefficient peasant serfdom in Russia.

Alexander II, the tsar-reformer, was the eldest son of Nicholas I. His early life gave little indication of his ultimate potential; until the time of his accession in 1855, aged 37, few imagined that he would be known to posterity as a leader able to implement the most challenging reforms undertaken in Russia since the reign of Peter the Great. In the period of his life as heir apparent, the intellectual atmosphere of Saint Petersburg was unfavourable to any kind of change: freedom of thought and all forms of private initiative were being suppressed vigorously. Personal and official censorship was rife; criticism of the authorities was regarded as a serious offence. Some 26 years afterward, he had the opportunity of implementing changes; he would, however, be assassinated in public by the Narodnaya Volya (People's Will) terrorist organisation.

His education as a future emperor was carried out under the supervision of the liberal romantic poet and gifted translator Vasily Zhukovsky, grasping a smattering of a great many subjects and becoming familiar with the chief modern European languages. His alleged lack of interest in military affairs detected by later historians was his reflection on the results on his own family and on the effect on the whole country of the unsavoury Crimean War. Unusually for the time, the young Alexander was taken on a six-month tour of Russia, visiting 20 provinces in the country. He also visited many prominent Western European countries. As prince, Alexander became the first Romanov heir to visit Siberia.

Alexander II succeeded to the throne upon the death of his father in 1855. The first year of his reign was devoted to the prosecution of the Crimean War and, after the fall of Sevastopol, to negotiations for peace, led by his trusted counsellor Prince Gorchakov. The country had been exhausted and humiliated by the war. Bribe-taking, theft and corruption were everywhere. Encouraged by public opinion he began a period of radical reforms, including an attempt to not depend on a landed aristocracy controlling the poor, a move to developing Russia's natural resources and to reform all branches of the administration.

The existence of serfdom was tackled boldly, taking advantage of a petition presented by the Polish landed proprietors of the Lithuanian provinces and, hoping that their relations with the serfs might be regulated in a more

satisfactory way (meaning in a way more satisfactory for the proprietors), he authorised the formation of committees 'for ameliorating the condition of the peasants', and laid down the principles on which the amelioration was to be effected.

This step was followed by one still more significant. Without consulting his ordinary advisers, Alexander ordered the Minister of the Interior to send a circular to the provincial governors of European Russia (serfdom was rare in other parts), containing a copy of the instructions forwarded to the governor-general of Lithuania, praising the supposed generous, patriotic intentions of the Lithuanian landed proprietors, and suggesting that perhaps the landed proprietors of other provinces might express a similar desire. The hint was taken: in all provinces where serfdom existed, emancipation committees were formed.

The emancipation was not merely a humanitarian question capable of being solved instantaneously by imperial ukase. It contained very complicated problems, deeply affecting the economic, social and political future of the nation. Alexander had to choose between the different measures recommended to him and decide if the serfs would become agricultural labourers dependent economically and administratively on the landlords or if the serfs would be transformed into a class of independent communal proprietors. The emperor gave his support to the latter project, and the Russian peasantry became one of the last groups of peasants in Europe to shake off serfdom. The architects of the emancipation manifesto were Alexander's brother Konstantin, Yakov Rostovtsev, and Nikolay Milyutin.

In response to the overwhelming defeat (1856) suffered by Russia in the Crimean War, and to an awareness of military advances implemented in other European countries, the Russian government re-organized the army and navy and re-armed them. The changes included universal military conscription, introduced on 1 January 1874. Now sons of all the "estates", rich and poor, had to serve in the military. Other military reforms involved setting up an army reserve and the military district system (still in use a century later), the building of strategic railways, and an emphasis on the military education of the officer

corps. Corporal punishment in the military and branding of soldiers as punishment were banned.

A new judicial administration (1864), based on the French model, introduced security of tenure. A new penal code and a greatly simplified system of civil and criminal procedure also came into operation. Reorganization of Judiciary, to include trial in open court, with judges appointed for life, a jury system and the creation of justices of the peace to deal with minor offences at local level.

Alexander's bureaucracy instituted an elaborate scheme of local self-government (zemstvo) for the rural districts (1864) and the large towns, with elective assemblies possessing a restricted right of taxation, and a new rural and municipal police under the direction of the Minister of the Interior.

In 1867 he sold Alaska to the United States for \$7 million (equivalent to roughly \$200 million in current dollars) after recognizing the great difficulty of defending it against the United Kingdom or the former British colony of Canada.

After Alexander became emperor in 1855, he maintained a generally liberal course. But he was a target for numerous assassination attempts (1866, 1879, 1880). On 1 March, 1881, members of the Narodnaya Volya (People's Will) party killed him with a bomb. The Emperor had earlier in the day signed the Loris-Melikov constitution which would have created two legislative commissions made up of indirectly elected representatives, had it not been repealed by his reactionary successor Alexander III.

Theme № 7. Russia and the world at the beginning of XX century: the inequality and contrariety of the progress

1. Global development on the threshold of the XX century: new processes and complicacy of interactions in the world community.

2. Alternatives to resolve key socio-economic and political problems of Russia in the early XX century.

3. The first Russian revolution of 1905–1907: strategy and tactics of the main social and political forces. Progress, results and consequences of the revolution.

4. The State Duma 1906–1917. The first experience of Russian parliamentarism.

5. Reforms of S. Witte and P. Stolypin – the latest attempt of evolutionary modernization of the Russian Empire, the reasons for the incompleteness of reforms.

6. The growth of contradictions in the world. Russia in World War I. The collapse of the great – power imperial ambitions, the growth of the general crisis in the country. February 1917.

Questions for self-study:

1. Russia in the international relations system of the early XX century.
2. The Russian-Japanese War of 1904–1905.
3. Features of monopoly capital in Russia in the late XIX-early XX century.
4. Formation of conservative-monarchist and liberal political parties in the period of the revolution of 1905–1907. Their programs and tactics.
5. Russian science and education in the late XIX–early XX century.
6. Russian literature and art of the late XIX–early XX century.

Problems to consider:

1. In your opinion, was the World War I inevitable?
2. Is it possible to consider the Bolsheviks as the outcasts of the history?
3. Estimate the Lenin's role in the history.

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. The output of Soviet Russia from the world war. Brest-Litovsk 3 March 1918.
2. Constituent Assembly: convocation and dissolution.
3. Socio-economic policy of the Soviet government during the civil war.
4. The doctrine of world revolution.
5. The role of the apparatus of violence in strengthening Soviet power.

Materials for the lecture: Alexander III, the son of Alexander II, was the person of conservative orientation. He was succeeded by his son Nicholas II (1894–1917). The Industrial Revolution, which began to exert a significant influence in Russia, was meanwhile creating forces that would finally overthrow the tsar. Politically, these opposition forces organized into three competing parties: The liberal elements among the industrial capitalists and nobility, who believed in peaceful social reform and a constitutional monarchy, founded the Constitutional Democratic party or kadets in 1905. Followers of the narodnik tradition established the Socialist-Revolutionary Party or esers, advocating the distribution of land among those who actually worked it – the peasants, third and more radical group founded the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party or RSDLP (1898); this party was the primary exponent of Marxism in Russia. Gathering their support from the radical intellectuals and the urban working class, they advocated complete social, economic and political revolution.

In 1903 the RSDLP split into two wings: the radical Bolsheviks, led by Lenin, and the relatively moderate Mensheviks, led by Lenin's former friend U. Martov. The Mensheviks believed that Russian socialism would grow gradually and peacefully and that the tsar's regime should be succeeded by a democratic republic in which the socialists would cooperate with the liberal bourgeois parties. The Bolsheviks, under Vladimir Lenin, advocated the formation of a small group of professional revolutionists, subject to strong party discipline, to act as the vanguard of the proletariat in order to seize power by force.

The disastrous performance of the Russian armed forces in the Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905), was a major blow to the Russian State and increased the potential for unrest. In January 1905, an incident known as 'Bloody Sunday' occurred when Father Gapon led an enormous crowd to the Winter Palace in Saint Petersburg to present a petition to the tsar. When the procession reached the palace, Cossacks opened fire on the crowd, killing hundreds. The Russian masses were so aroused over the massacre that a general strike was declared demanding a democratic republic. This marked the beginning of *the Russian Revolution of 1905–1907*. Soviets *councils of workers* –

appeared in most cities to direct revolutionary activity and guarantee the control over situation.

In October 1905, Nicholas reluctantly issued the famous October Manifesto. The October Manifesto granted civil liberties and established first parliament, national Duma (legislature). The right to vote was extended, and no law was to go into force without confirmation by the Duma. The moderate groups were satisfied; but the socialists rejected the concessions as insufficient and tried to organize new strikes. By the end of 1905, there was disunity among the reformers, and the tsar's position was strengthened for the time being.

The turmoil associated with Russia's poor military showing in Manchuria and against the Japanese navy unleashed severe civil unrest among Russia's ethnic minorities. In particular the Baltic region, Russian Poland and the Caucasus were convulsed with revolution. In effect, the government lost control of Warsaw, Riga, Baku and other major cities in 1905. While the October Manifesto did not specifically mention non-russians, it did promise basic civil rights and a legislature, the Duma. An earlier *ukaz* of 12 December 1904 had promised, among other things, 'to carry out a review of all existing decrees limiting the rights of non-Russians and natives of distant location'. It proposed 'to leave in effect only those laws demanded by fundamental state interests and the obvious needs of the Russian people'. Thus already before the October 1905 Manifesto, commissions were reviewing, for example, whether to allow teaching in Polish and whether restrictions on Jews should be mitigated.

The Duma election law was deeply undemocratic, based as it was on the Prussian model. Still, when the first Duma was convened in July 1906, among the delegates were dozens of poles, dozens of Muslims and a smattering of other non-Russians. At least a third of the Duma's delegates were 'non-Russian'. To be sure, the national question played but a small role in the quick demise of the first two Dumas, but St. Petersburg and the tsar himself were deeply suspicious of the Jewish, Armenian, polish and, Muslim deputies' loyalties to Russia. The reactionary new electoral law of June 1907, pushed through by the dynamic new Prime Minister Peter Stolypin, specifically limited representation from borderland regions. The law contained a lengthy preamble

with one sentence of prime importance for the tsar's non-Russian subjects: 'Created to strengthen the Russian State, the State Duma must also be Russian in spirit.' In the third Duma (1907–1912) the number of Polish deputies dropped to less than a third of representation in the first Duma; there remained only nine Muslims and a single Jew.

At the same time, the Russian government pressed forward with policies to turn back the liberalisation that had occurred since 1904. Polish and Ukrainian cultural organisations and schools were shut down, Muslim activists were jailed and Finnish autonomy was attacked. St Petersburg's obsession with the 'Jewish menace' came out in the open in the grotesque Beilis trial. A worker, Mendel Beilis, was accused of ritually murdering a Christian lad. The minister of justice, Shcheglovitov, worked diligently behind the scenes for a conviction, but the government's case against Beilis was so weak that the mainly peasant jury acquitted him.

While the post-1907 period is characterised by more activist pro-Russian policies, there is some reason to question whether the government would have continued along this line. Peter Stolypin, the architect of the 1907 electoral law and other Russian nationalist policies, was clearly on his way out when an assassin's bullet caught him in Kiev in September 1911. At the same time, nationalism in both cultural and political guises grew rapidly among non-Russians in the post-1907 period. Despite government harassment, private Polish and Armenian schools, Ukrainian and Yiddish newspapers, and Muslim political and cultural organizations flourished.

The World War I. In June 1914, Archduke France Ferdinand of Austria was assassinated by a Serbian nationalist Gavrilo Princip in Sarajevo, Bosnia. An escalation of threats and mobilization orders followed the incident. The World War I broke out on August 1, 1914. The war pitted Germany, Austria-Hungary and Ottoman Empire (the so-called Central Powers) against Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy and Japan (the Allied Powers). The Allies were joined after 1917 by the United States. It became the consequence of the attempts of the colonies and markets repartition. Germany gaining in strength, prepared for the war for the oil regions and the colonies of England.

By that time Russia was included into the coalition anti-German, Great Britain and France became its allies. The Entente (the union of England, France and Russia) was registered in 1907.

38 states with the population of 1, 5 billion people participated in the War. The four years of the Great War- as it was then known- saw unprecedented levels of carnage and destruction, thanks to grueling trench warfare and introduction of modern weaponry such as machine guns, tanks and chemical weapons. More than 9 million soldiers had been killed and 21 million more wounded.

At the beginning of the war the patriotic euphoria and the anti-German moods reigned in the country. There is the extract from the newspaper of that period: «A crowd of hundred thousand kneeling in front of the Winter Palace with national flags dipped in salute". At the price of the heroism in the fights in Prussia, Russia saved France from the defeat. Shliffen's plan failed, so Germany had to battle on two fronts. In the initial stage of the war the patriotic upsurge was observed in Russia. All parties except the Bolsheviks were supported by the military credits. The party passions were tensed.

The USA saw the war as European affair and chose to stay out of the conflict. But American business interests were vested in Europe and found itself having ins freedom of seas, and thus US neutral rights, challenged by both belligerents. In the end the USA found it inconvenient that its shipping was being delayed by the British navy, but deplorable that ins ships and the lives of Americans were at risk to the German submarines. The USA declared war on the Central Powers in April 1917. Within months convoys of supplies reached the Allied nations. By summer 1918 troops were in field. The American president Woodrow Wilson played a major role in peace negotiations in Paris.

Russia survived horrible tragedy of its history. Over two years since the beginning of the war, the Russian army mounted several offensives on the Eastern Front but were unable to break through German lines. Defeats on the battlefield fed the growing discontent among the bulk of Russia's population, especially the poverty-stricken workers and peasants, and its hostility towards the imperial regime.

Russia's tragedy in 1917 was the result of both inner and international problems. Displeased by the relatively few changes made by the Tsar after the Russian Revolution of 1905, Russia became a hotbed of anarchism, socialism and other 'radical' political systems. The dominant socialist party, *the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party (RSDLP)*, subscribed to Marxist ideology. Starting in 1903 a series of splits in the party between two main leaders was escalating, the Bolsheviks (meaning 'majority') led by Vladimir Lenin, and the Mensheviks (meaning minority) led by Julius Martov. Up until 1912, both groups continued to stay united under the name "RSDLP", but significant differences between Lenin and Martov thought split the party for its' final time. The need of political dominance began between the Mensheviks and the Bolsheviks. Not only did these groups fight with each other, but also had common enemies, notably, those trying to bring the Tsar back to power.

During World War I, Russia experienced famine and economic collapse. The demoralized Russian Army suffered severe military setbacks, and many soldiers deserted the front lines. Dissatisfaction with the monarchy and its policy of continuing the war grew among the Russian people. Tsar Nicholas II abdicated the throne following the February Revolution of 1917 (or March, depending on Calendar Dating Styles.), causing widespread rioting in Petrograd and other major Russian cities. The Russian Provisional Government was installed immediately following the fall of the Tsar by the Provisional Committee of the State Duma in early March 1917 and received conditional support of the Mensheviks. Led first by Prince Georgy Lvov, then Kerensky, the Provisional Government consisted mainly of the parliamentarians most recently elected to the State Duma of the Russian Empire, which had been overthrown alongside Tsar Nicholas II. The new Provisional Government maintained its commitment to the war joining the Entente which the Bolsheviks opposed. The Provisional Government also postponed the land reforms demanded by the Bolsheviks.

Following the February Revolution, the Mensheviks and Esers gained control of Russia and established a provisional government. Though this lasted only a few months until the Bolsheviks took power after the October Revolution (also called the Bolshevik Revolution).

Lenin, embodying the Bolshevik ideology, viewed alliance with the capitalist countries of Western Europe and the United States as involuntary servitude of the proletariat, who was forced to fight the imperialists' war. As seen by Lenin, Russia was reverting back to the rule of the Tsar, and it was the job of Marxist revolutionaries, who truly represented socialism and the proletariat, to oppose such counter-socialistic ideas and support socialist revolutions in other countries. The intelligentsia was dissatisfied over the slow pace of social reforms; poverty was worsening, income disparities and inequality were becoming out of control while the Provisional Government grew increasingly autocratic and inefficient. The government appeared to be on the verge of succumbing to a military junta. Deserting soldiers returned to the cities and gave their weapons to angry, and extremely hostile, socialist factory workers. The deplorable and inhumane poverty and starvation of major Russian centers produced optimum conditions for revolutionaries.

During the months of February and October 1917, the power of the Provisional Government was consistently questioned by nearly all political parties. A system of 'dual power' emerged, in which the Provisional Government held nominal power, though increasingly opposed by the Petrograd Soviet, their chief adversary, controlled by the Mensheviks and Socialist Revolutionaries (both democratic socialist parties politically to the right of the Bolsheviks). The Soviet chose not to force further changes in government due to the belief that the February Revolution was Russia's 'crowing' overthrow of the bourgeois. The Soviet also believed that the new Provisional Government would be tasked with implementing democratic reforms and paves the way for a proletarian revolution. Though the creation of a government not based on the dictatorship of the proletariat in any form, was viewed as a 'retrograde step' in Vladimir Lenin's April Theses. However, the Provisional Government still remained an overwhelmingly powerful governing body.

Failed military offensives in summer 1917 and large scale protesting and riots in major Russian cities (as advocated by Lenin in his Theses, known as the July Days) led to the deployment of troops in late August to restore order. The July Days were suppressed and blamed on the Bolsheviks, forcing Lenin into

hiding. Still, rather than use force, many of the deployed soldiers and military personnel joined the rioters, disgracing the government and military at-large. It was during this time that support for the Bolsheviks grew and another of its' leading figures, Trotsky, was elected chair of the Petrograd Soviet, which had complete control over the defenses of the city, mainly, the city's military force. On October 24, in early days of the October Revolution, the Provisional Government moved against the Bolsheviks, arresting activists and destroying pro-Communist propaganda. The Bolsheviks were able to portray this as an attack against the People's Soviet and garnered support for the Red Guard of Petrograd to take over the Provisional Government. The administrative offices and government buildings were taken with little opposition or bloodshed. The generally accepted end of this transitional revolutionary period, which will lead to the creation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) lies with the assault and capture of the poorly defended Winter Palace (the traditional home and symbol of power of the Tsar) on the evening of October 26, 1917.

The Mensheviks and the right-wing of the Socialist Revolutionaries, outraged by the abusive and coercive acts carried out by the Red Guard and Bolsheviks, fled Petrograd, leaving control in the hands of the Bolsheviks and remaining Left Socialist Revolutionaries. On October 25, 1917 the Sovnarkom (the Council of Peoples' Commissars – by the analogy with Great French Revolution) was established by the Russian Constitution of 1918 as the administrative arm of the All-Russian Congress of Soviets. By January 6, 1918 the VTsIK, supported by the Bolsheviks, ratified the dissolution of the Russian Constituent Assembly, which intended to establish the non-Bolshevik Russian Democratic Federative Republic as the permanent form of government established at its Petrograd session held January 5 and January 6, 1918.

To distinguish themselves from other socialist parties, the Bolshevik party was renamed the Russian Communist Party. Under the control of the party, all politics and attitudes that were not strictly RCP were suppressed, under the premise that the RCP represented the proletariat and all activities contrary to the party's beliefs were "counterrevolutionary" or 'anti-socialist'. During the years of 1917 to 1923, the country not only fought in World War I, but also fought the Russian Civil War against the White Army and foreign armies from

United States, United Kingdom, and France, among others. Eventually crushing all opponents, the RCP spread Soviet style rule quickly and established itself through all of Russia. Following Lenin's death in 1924, Joseph Stalin, General Secretary of the RCP, became Lenin's successor and continued as "Head of State" for the Soviet Union clear into the 1950s.

Theme № 8. Soviet Russia and the world in 1920-1930-ies

1. 'The second Russian Strife'.
2. Creation of the Soviet political and economic system.
3. Development of industrial countries in the 1920-1930's.
4. Socialist modernization option: the idea, the constituent elements, special aspects.
5. 'Versailles system' and the first attempts to form a single world space. The League of Nations.

Questions for self-study:

1. What options of overcoming the crisis were offered by democratic and totalitarian regimes?
2. What are the reasons of the establishment of the totalitarian regimes in a number of countries in Europe?
3. What are the features in the new political course of Roosevelt? Why did the United States distance itself from active involvement in the European and Far Eastern policy?
4. What was the reason for extreme aggression of fascism? Justify the organic connection between fascism and war.

Problems to consider:

1. What do you think about positive and negative results of Stalins rule?
2. Was the Soviet Union Great State?
3. Do you know the most famous achievements of soviet culture in 1920–1930-s?

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. 'The Great Depression': results and lessons.
2. The fate of social democracy in the XX century.
3. Formation of the Soviet elite.

Materials for the lecture: Joseph Stalin sought to destroy his enemies while transforming Soviet society with aggressive economic planning, in particular a sweeping collectivization of agriculture and rapid development of heavy industry. He introduced his 'Westernizer' ideals to the Soviet Union by broadly and thoroughly reforming Soviet policy; such was exemplified by a period of rapid industrialization. He also promoted a secret police and a mass mobilization party, which led to millions of deaths as a result of purges and policies of starvation to force farmers to submit.

At the 15th Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union in December 1927, Joseph Stalin attacked the left by expelling Leon Trotsky and his supporters from the party and then moving against the right by abandoning Vladimir Lenin's New Economic Policy which had been championed by Nikolai Bukharin and Alexei Rykov. Warning delegates of an impending capitalist encirclement, he insisted that survival and development could only occur by pursuing the rapid development of heavy industry (*industrialization*).

The party, under Stalin's direction, established Gosplan (the State Planning Commission). It was a state organization responsible for guiding the socialist economy towards accelerated industrialization. In April 1928 Gosplan released two drafts that began the process that would industrialize the primarily agrarian nation. This 1 700 page report became the basis of the First Five-Year Plan for National Economic Construction, or *Piatiletka*, calling for the doubling of Soviet capital stock between 1928 and 1933. Shifting from Lenin's NEP, the first Five-Year Plan established central planning as the basis of economic decision-making and the stress on rapid heavy industrialization. It began the rapid process of transforming a largely agrarian nation consisting of peasants into an industrial superpower. In effect, the initial goals were laying the foundations for future exponential economic growth.

The new economic system put forward by the first Five-Year plan involved a complicated series of planning arrangements. The first Five-Year plan focused on the mobilization of natural resources to build up the country's heavy industrial base by increasing output of coal, iron, and other vital resources. Despite many deaths this process was largely successful, and caused long-term industrial growth more rapid than any country in country's industrial base. From 1928 to 1932, peak iron output, necessary for further development of the industrial infrastructure rose from 3.3 million to 6.2 million tons per year. Coal, the integral product fueling modern economies and Stalinist industrialization, and output of iron ore successfully rose. There appeared a number of industrial complexes such as Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk, the Moscow and Gorky automobile plants, the Urals and Kramatorsk heavy machinery plants, and Kharkov, Stalingrad and Cheliabinsk tractor plants had been built or were under construction.

In real terms, the workers' standards of living tended to drop, rather than rise during the industrialization. Stalin's laws to 'tighten work discipline' made the situation worse: in 1932 central change to the RSFSR labor law code enabled firing workers who had been absent without a reason from the work place for just one day. Being fired accordingly meant losing 'the right to use ration and commodity cards' as well as the 'loss of the right to use an apartment' and even blacklisted for new employment which altogether meant a threat of starving.

Those measures, however, were not fully enforced, as managers often desperately needed to hire new workers. In contrast, the 1938 legislation, which introduced labor books, followed by major revisions of the labor law, were enforced. For example, being absent or even 20 minutes late were grounds for becoming fired; managers who failed to enforce these laws faced criminal prosecution.

Later the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, 26 June 1940 replaced the 1938 revisions with obligatory criminal penalties for quitting a job (for being late 20 minutes). Based on these figures the Soviet government declared that Five Year Industrial Production Plan had been fulfilled by 93.7% in only four years, while parts devoted to heavy-industry part were fulfilled by

108%. Stalin in December 1932 declared the plan a success to the Central Committee, since increases in the output of coal and iron would fuel future development.

During the second five-year plan (1933–1937), on the basis of the huge investment during the first plan, industry expanded extremely rapidly, and nearly reached the plan. While undoubtedly marking a massive leap in industrial capacity, the first Five Year Plan was extremely harsh on industrial workers; quotas were difficult to fulfill, requiring that miners put in 16 to 18-hour workdays. Failure to fulfill the quotas could result in treason charges. Working conditions were poor, even hazardous. Due to the allocation of resources for industry along with decreasing productivity since collectivization, a famine occurred. The use of forced labor must also not be overlooked. In the construction of the industrial complexes, inmates of labor camps were used as expendable resources. But conditions improved rapidly during the second plan.

During the period of state-guided, forced industrialization, it is claimed millions people were sentenced for alleged counter-revolutionary crimes, including sentenced to death and to labor camps. Much like with the famines, the evidence supporting these high numbers is disputed by some historians, although this is a minority view. The peak of the repressions was during the great Purge of 1937–1938, and it had the effect of greatly slowing down production in 1937.

1928 witnessed the turning of the Soviet economic policies towards collectivization. This year also marked the end of the NEP, which had allowed peasants to sell their surpluses on the open market. Food demand intensified, especially in main grain producing regions, with new, forced approaches implemented. Upon joining kolkhozes (collective farms), peasants had to give up their private plots of land and property, and the kolkhoz produce was sold to the state for a low price set by the state itself. However, the natural progress of collectivization was slow, and the November 1929 Plenum of the Central Committee decided to implement accelerated, forced collectivization.

Collectivization of agriculture was not an end in itself. It was a means to end of rapid industrialization. The goal was to build a modern industrial

base within a decade that would enable the Soviet Union to become a modern military power. Given the goals of the first Five Year Plan, the state sought increased political control of agriculture, hoping to feed the rapidly growing urban areas and to export grain, a source of foreign currency needed to import technologies necessary for heavy industrialization.

By 1936 about 90% of Soviet agriculture was collectivized. In many cases peasants bitterly opposed this process and often slaughtered their animals rather than give them to collective farms, even though the Government only wanted the grain. Kulaks, prosperous peasants, were forcibly resettled to Kazakhstan, Siberia and the Russian Far North (a large portion of the kulaks served at forced labor camps). However, just about anyone opposing collectivization was deemed a 'kulak'. The policy of liquidation of kulaks as a class, formulated by Stalin at the end of 1929, meant some executions, and much greater deportation to special settlements and sometimes to forced labor camps.

Despite the expectations, collectivization led to a drop in farming productivity, which did not regain the NEP level until pre-war period. The upheaval associated with collectivization was particularly severe in Ukraine. The number of people who died in the famines is estimated at millions. There are disputed accounts on the actual number of 'victims' as estimated by other countries. Soviet sources vary between denying the existence of the famine and estimating much smaller numbers of dead. The actual number of casualties is bitterly disputed to this day.

The State Emblem of the Soviet Union was a hammer and sickle symbolizing the alliance of the working class and the peasantry. Ears of wheat were entwined in a scarlet band with the inscription in the languages of all the 15 union republics: 'Workers of All Countries, Unite!' The grain represented Soviet agriculture. A five-pointed star, symbolizing the Soviet Union's solidarity with socialist revolutionaries on five continents, was drawn on the upper part of the Emblem.

Employment rose greatly; 3.9 million jobs per year were expected by 1923, but the number was actually an astounding 6.4 million. By 1937, the number rose yet again, to about 7.9 million, and in 1940 it was 8.3 million.

Between 1926 and 1930, the urban population increased by 30 million. Unemployment had been a problem during the time of the Tsar and even under the NEP, but it was not a major factor after the implementation of Stalin's industrialization program.

The mobilization of resources to industrialize the agrarian society created a need for labor, meaning that the unemployment went virtually to zero. Unemployment was also eliminated by fixing wages, which dropped in real terms by 50% from 1928 to 1940, thus making it financially viable for the state to employ so many workers. Several ambitious projects were begun, and they supplied raw materials not only for military weapons but also for consumer goods.

The Moscow and Gorky automobile plants produced automobiles that the public could utilize, although not necessarily afford, and the expansion of heavy plant and steel production made production of a greater number of cars possible. Car and truck production, for example, reached 200,000 in 1931.

Industrialization was combined with a rapid expansion of education at schools and in higher education. Because the industrial workers needed to be educated, the number of schools increased millions of student. In addition, 900 specialist departments and 566 institutions were built and functioning by 1933. Literacy rates increased substantially as a result, especially in the Central Asian republics.

The Soviet people also benefited from a type of social liberalization. Women were to be given an adequate, equal education, and legally had equal rights in employment. In practice, these goals were not reached, but the efforts to achieve them and the statement of theoretical equality led to improvements in socio-economic status for women. Stalinist development also contributed to advances in health care, which was a massive improvement over the health care system under the Tsars. Stalin's policies granted the Soviet people access to free health care and education. Widespread immunization programs created the first generation free from the fear of typhus and cholera. The occurrences of these diseases dropped to record-low numbers and infant mortality rates were reduced by many times, resulting in the life expectancy for both men and women

increasing by over 20 years by the mid-to-late 1950s. Many of the more extreme social and political ideas that were fashionable in the 1920s such as anarchism, internationalism, and the belief that the nuclear family was a bourgeois concept were abandoned. Schools began to teach a more nationalistic course with emphasis on Russian history and leaders, although always with Marxist underpinnings. Stalin also began to create a Lenin cult. It was during the 1930s that Soviet society assumed the basic form.

Urban women under Stalin were also the first generation of women able to give birth in a hospital with access to prenatal care. Education was another area in which there was improvement after economic development.

The generation born during Stalin's rule was the first near-universally literate generation. Engineers were sent abroad to learn industrial technology, and hundreds of foreign engineers were brought to Russia on contract. Transport links were also improved, as many new railways were built, although with forced labour, costing thousands of lives. Workers who exceeded their quotas, Stakhanovites, received many incentives for their work, although many such workers were in fact 'arranged' to succeed by receiving extreme help in their work, and then their achievements were used for propaganda.

Starting in the early 1930s, the Soviet government began an all-out war on organized religion in the country. Many churches and monasteries were closed and scores of clergymen were imprisoned or executed. The state propaganda machine vigorously promoted atheism and denounced religion as being an artifact of capitalist society. In 1937 Pope Pius XI decried the attacks on religion in the Soviet Union. By 1940, only a small number of churches remained open. It should be noted that the early anti-religious campaigns under Lenin were mostly directed at the Russian Orthodox Church, as it was a symbol of the czarist government. In the 1930s however, all faiths were targeted: minority Christian denominations, Islam, Judaism, and Buddhism.

Theme № 9. The Soviet Union during the Second World War

1. The crisis of the Versailles system and the struggle of the USSR for collective security in Europe.

2. The beginning of World War II, folding of the anti-Hitler coalition.
3. The Great Patriotic War.
4. Feat and tragedy: the peoples and countries of the world in the fight against fascism.
5. The end of the Second World War, the results and lessons of the war, the price of victory.

Questions for self-study:

1. The heroism of the Soviet people in the Great Patriotic War.
2. The role of lend-lease in the victory over fascism.
3. The talent of Soviet designers during the Great Patriotic War.
4. Levitan – the voice of war.
5. The feat of the heroes of the Tatars in the Great Patriotic War.
6. What was the reason for extreme aggression of fascism? Justify the organic connection between fascism and war.

Problems to consider:

1. Was it possible to prevent the World War II?
2. Do you know the following names: R. Zorge, A. Matrosov?
3. Do you know the following names K. Rokossovsky, the major Gavrilov, the general Safiullin, Syrtlanova and other war heroes?
4. Do you agree with the offered evaluation?
5. Name the meeting points and the decisions of ‘the Big Three’ at the conferences of the historical importance.

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. Foreign policy of the USSR in the 1930s – early 1940s.
2. The Great Patriotic war, the causes of the first failures, milestones, outcomes, lessons and the price of victory.
3. The end of World War II. Formation of a new model of international relations and structure of the world.

Materials for the lecture: After a decade of prosperity in the United States, in 1929 the collapse of stock market and banks took the nation and, by

1932, the European nations into an unparalleled depression. In a program referred to as the New Deal, President Franklin Roosevelt took socialistic steps to involve the government in relief, recovery and reform.

In 1933 Adolf Hitler, the leader of the Nazi movement (National Socialist German Worker Party), became the German Chancellor, in many respects predetermined by the discrimination conditions of the Versailles peace system. The slogans of the revenge multiplied by burdens of reparations payment, plus the world crisis of 1929 accumulated in the situation of the 'emission' of the racist ideas and the Munich agreement of the France President Daladier, the prime minister of Britain Chamberlain with Hitler and Mussolini on the delivery of Germany to the Sudetenland of Czechoslovakia (many ethnic Germans lived there). It was September, 1938. Legislators of USA by the mid 1930s were passing laws preventing any of the circumstances that seemed responsible for taking the nation into new World War. However, Franklin Roosevelt was convinced there was no way to avoid the situation. Even while the USA declared neutrality, President was joining with Great Britain to establish war aims. In December, 1941, Japan attacked Pearl Harbor. The US was caught in war.

In a two-front war and was left with the Pacific Theater as Allied Powers determined that Germany must be eliminated first.

The World War II became inevitable after a failure of attempts to create the system of the collective security in Europe. Under current conditions of the USSR, when Germany and the western 'Great Powers' signed the documents on non-aggression and after the failures in the negotiations with France and England on the collective security in Europe which began in April, 1939, the governance of the USSR agreed to the agreement signature on the non-aggression with Germany (on August 23, 1939). The pact provided the liability of the parties on the peace within 10 years. In the attempt to secure Leningrad against the possible aggression from friendly Germany and Finland in November, 1939 the USSR began the war on the displacement of border to the west.

The Great Patriotic War. On June 22, 1941 Adolf Hitler abruptly broke the non-aggression pact and invaded the Soviet Union. Soviet intelligence was

fooled by German disinformation and sent to Moscow false alarms about German invasion in April, May and beginning of June. Despite the popular myth there was no warning 'Germany will attack on 22 June without declaration of war', moreover, Soviet intelligence reported that Germany would either invade the USSR after fall of the British Empire or after an unacceptable ultimatum demanding German occupation of Ukraine during the German invasion of Britain. Like in Sino-Soviet conflict on Chinese Eastern Railway or Soviet-Japanese border conflicts Soviet troops on western border received a directive undersigned by Marshal Semyon Timoshenko and General of the Army Georgy Zhukov that ordered (as demanded by Stalin): 'do not answer to any provocations' and 'do not undertake any (offensive) actions without specific orders' – which meant that Soviet troops could open fire only on their soil and forbade counter-attack on German soil.

The Nazi invasion caught the Soviet military unprepared. In the larger sense, Stalin expected invasion but not so soon. The Army had been decimated by the Purges; time was needed for a recovery of competence. As such, mobilization did not occur and the Soviet Army was unprepared in that tactical sense, when the invasion occurred. The initial weeks of the war were a disaster, with tens of thousands of men being killed, wounded, or captured. Whole divisions disintegrated against the German onslaught.

It is said that Stalin, at first, refused to believe Nazi Germany had broken the treaty. However, new evidence shows Stalin held meetings with a variety of senior Soviet government and military figures, including Vyacheslav Molotov (People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs), Semyon Timoshenko (People's Commissar for Defense), Georgy Zhukov (Chief of Staff of the Red Army), Nikolai Kuznetsov (Commander of both North Caucasus and Baltic Military Districts), and Boris Shaposhnikov (Deputy People's Commissar for Defense). All in all, on the very first day of the attack, Stalin held meetings with over 15 individual members of the Soviet government and military apparatus. German troops reached the outskirts of Moscow in December 1941, but failed to capture it, due to staunch Soviet defence and counterattacks.

The main military events of 1942 have occurred in the south-west: the German troops advanced 500-650 km and reached the Volga, took possession of part of the passes of the Main Caucasian Ridge. November 19, 1942 began a counter-offensive of the Soviet troops, 23 November of the Stalingrad and South-Western Fronts joined the town of Kalach-on-Don and surrounded by 22 enemy divisions. At the Battle of Stalingrad in 1942-43, the Red Army inflicted a crushing defeat on the German army.

In the course of operation 'Citadel' (Kursk battle), summer of 1943 ended with a radical change in the course of World War II, and the strategic initiative is completely taken over by the Soviet command. In the autumn, 1943 Tehran Conference opened. Joseph Stalin, Winston Churchill and Franklin Roosevelt were together. The main issue of the conference was to open a second front.

During the winter campaign, 1943-1944 Red Army launched a grand offensive on the right bank of Ukraine. Soviet troops liberated the Right-Bank Ukraine, the western region, reached the state border in the south of the Soviet Union. The result of Leningrad-Novgorod offensive was the removal of the blockade of Leningrad. In June 1944, the Allies opened a second front in Normandy (France). In the summer of 1944, Soviet troops entered the territory of Poland. By the beginning of February 1945 Poland was liberated from German troops. In February 1945 Yalta Conference was held. Stalin, Churchill and Roosevelt discussed the basic principles of post-war politics.

April 1945 began the Berlin offensive operation of Soviet troops. April 25, 1945, Soviet troops at the Elbe River first met with American troops advancing from the west. Berlin garrison capitulated. After the capture of Berlin, Soviet troops carried out an operation Prague – last strategic operation in the war. At midnight on May 8 the war ended with the unconditional surrender of Germany's armed forces. The fighting lasted for 1,418 days. On June 24, Moscow hosted the Victory Parade. In July-August 1945 Potsdam Conference leaders of the USSR, the United Kingdom and the United States has reached an agreement on postwar Europe.

Due to the unwillingness of the Japanese to open a second front in Manchuria, the Soviets were able to call dozens of Red Army divisions back

from eastern Russia. These units were instrumental in turning the tide, because most of their officer corps had escaped Stalin's purges. The Soviet forces soon launched massive counter attacks along the entire German line. By 1944, the Germans had been pushed out of the Soviet Union onto the banks of the Vistula River, just east of Prussia. With Soviet Marshal Georgy Zhukov attacking from Prussia, and Marshal Konev slicing Germany in half from the south the fate of Nazi Germany was sealed. On May 2, 1945 the last German troops surrendered to the overjoyed Soviet troops in Berlin.

Certainly, the history of the citizens' feats of the USSR can be described in the form of the chronological table of victories: Moscow, Stalingrad, Kursk, Dnieper. But there was also the Siege of Leningrad, the Russian tragedy. The horrors of evacuation, the feats of intelligence officers and partisans. World War II, known as 'The Great Patriotic War' in the Soviet Union, devastated much of the USSR with about one out of every three World War II deaths being a citizen of the Soviet Union.

The scale of the losses and the memory sanctity allows to consider the Victory holidays as the main holidays of Russia.

Theme № 10. The USSR under conditions of confrontation between two world systems. 1945-1980-ies

1. Changes in the international arena after the end of World War II. The beginning of the 'cold war'.
2. 'The thaw': the first attempts at democratization of Soviet society.
3. The contradictions of socio-economic development of the country in the second half of 1960-first half 1980th years.
4. Soviet foreign policy in 1960-80-ies: between 'cold war' and 'discharge'.

Questions for self-study:

1. Describe the new processes and phenomena in the development of postwar Europe.
2. How and by what sources had restored the national economy?

3. What are the causes of scientific and technological achievements of the USSR?

Problems to consider:

1. Soviet foreign policy 1945-1985: reality, paradigms, and tasks.
2. The Helsinki principles and the modern world.
3. The reasons for the crisis in social and spiritual spheres of Soviet society.
4. The dissident movement in the USSR.

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. Soviet life in the 1950-1970s
2. The collapse of the world colonial system.
3. Arms race: the struggle for nuclear parity.

Materials for the lecture: The United States of America emerged from the World War II as the leader of the western world, and USSR emerged as the leader of the communist world. From 1945 until 1989 the two giants stayed poised to defend their ideologies in many parts of world. The conflict was known as the Cold War although it was characterized by hot spots all over the globe – Korea, Hungary, Vietnam, Afganistan just to cite the most obvious, the symbol of the line drawn between the two become the Berlin Wall, separating East and West Berlin. The collapse of that wall in 1989 became the signal that the era had ended.

In the same years of military standoffs there were spectacular accomplishments in space exploration, prompted to a great degree by sense of competition between the two camps – The U.S.A. and The Soviet Union. The technology spawned by this race changed the face of military as well as the domestic scene, The U.S.A. and a few other western countries moved into a technological age with major effects on their economy as it shifted from an industrial-based economy to a service-based one. A major product of this economic tendency was the computer, which became a business necessity and eventually a household item. Along with the computer came internet and e-mail, linking all segments of society into instantaneous communication.

History of USSR after war. After Stalin died in March 1953, he was succeeded by Nikita Khrushchev as First Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU) and Georgi Malenkov as Premier of the Soviet Union. However the central figure in the immediate post-Stalin period was the former head of the state security apparatus, Lavrentiy Beria.

Beria, despite his record as part of Stalin's terror state, initiated a period of relative liberalization, including the release of some political prisoners. The leadership also began allowing some criticism of Stalin, saying that his one-man dictatorship went against the principles laid down by Lenin. The war hysteria that characterized his last years was toned down, and government bureaucrats and factory managers were ordered to wear civilian clothing instead of military-style outfits.

However, the Politburo members disliked and feared Beria for his role under Stalin and with the support of the armed forces, had he arrested three months after Stalin's death. At the end of the year, he was shot following a show trial where he was accused of spying for the West, committing sabotage, and plotting to restore capitalism. The secret police were disarmed and reorganized into the KGB (the Committee of State's security), ensuring that they were completely under the control of the party and would never again be able to wage mass terror. In the post-Beria period, Khrushchev rapidly began to emerge as the key figure.

The new leadership declared an amnesty for some serving prison sentences for criminal offenses, announced price cuts, and relaxed the restrictions on private plots. De-Stalinization also spelled an end to the role of large-scale forced labor in the economy.

During a period of collective leadership, Khrushchev gradually rose to power. At a speech "On the Personality Cult and its Consequences" to the closed session of the Twentieth Party Congress of the CPSU, 25 February 1956, Khrushchev shocked his listeners by denouncing Stalin's dictatorial rule and cult of personality. He also attacked the crimes committed by Stalin's closest associates. Furthermore, he stated that the orthodox view of war between

the capitalist and communist worlds being inevitable was no longer true. He advocated competition with the West rather than outright hostility, stating that capitalism would decay from within and that world socialism would triumph peacefully. But, he added, if the capitalists did desire war, the Soviet Union would respond in kind.

The impact on Soviet politics was immense. The speech stripped the legitimacy of his remaining Stalinist rivals, dramatically boosting his power domestically. Afterwards, Khrushchev eased restrictions, freeing millions of political prisoners (the Gulag population declined from 13 million (1953) to 5 million (1956–57), and the vast majority of the remaining inmates were common criminals)[citation needed]. Communists around the world were as shocked and confused by his condemnation of Stalin as they had been in 1939 by the Nazi-Soviet Nonaggression Pact.

Khrushchev initiated "*The Thaw*", a complex shift in political, cultural and economic life in the Soviet Union. That included some openness and contact with other nations and new social and economic policies with more emphasis on commodity goods, allowing living standards to rise dramatically while maintaining high levels of economic growth. Censorship was relaxed as well. Some subtle critiques of the Soviet society were tolerated, and artists were not expected to produce only works which had government-approved political context. Still, artists, most of whom were proud of both the country and the Party, were careful not to get into trouble. On the other hand, he reintroduced aggressive anti-religious campaigns, closing down many houses of worship.

Such loosening of controls also caused an enormous impact on other socialist countries in Central Europe, many of which were resentful of Soviet influence in their affairs. Riots broke out in Poland in the summer of 1956, which led to reprisals from national forces there. A political convulsion soon followed, leading to the rise of Władysław Gomułka to power in October. This almost triggered a Soviet invasion when Polish Communists elected him without consulting the Kremlin in advance, but in the end, Khrushchev backed down due to Gomułka's widespread popularity in the country. Poland would still remain a member of the Warsaw Pact (established a year earlier), and in return,

the Soviet Union seldom intervened in its neighbors' domestic and external affairs. Khrushchev also began reaching out to newly independent countries in Asia and Africa, which was in sharp contrast to Stalin's Europe-centered foreign policy. And in September 1959, he became the first Soviet leader to visit the US.

In November 1956 Hungarian uprising was brutally suppressed by Soviet troops. The Hungarian uprising was a blow to Western communists; many who had formerly supported the Soviet Union began to criticize it in the wake of the Soviet suppression of the Hungarian uprising.

The following year Khrushchev defeated a concerted Stalinist attempt to recapture power, decisively defeating the so-called 'anti-Party Group'. This event also illustrated the new nature of Soviet politics – the most decisive attack on the Stalinists was delivered by defense minister Georgy Zhukov, and the implied threat to the plotters was clear; however, none of the 'anti-party group' were killed or even arrested, and Khrushchev disposed of them quite cleverly: Georgy Malenkov was sent to manage a power station in Kazakhstan, and Vyacheslav Molotov, one of the most die-hard Stalinists, was made ambassador to Mongolia and later the Soviet representative to the International Atomic Energy Agency.

Khrushchev became premier on March 27, 1958, consolidating his power – the tradition followed by all his predecessors and successors. This was the final stage in the transition from the earlier period of post-Stalin collective leadership. He was now the ultimate source of authority in the Soviet Union, but would never possess the absolute power Stalin had.

Aid to developing countries and scientific research, especially into space technology and weaponry, maintained the Soviet Union as one of the world's two major world powers. The Soviet Union launched the first ever artificial Earth satellite in history, Sputnik 1, which orbited the Earth in 1957. The Soviets also sent the first man into space, Yuri Gagarin, 12 April, 1961.

Khrushchev outmaneuvered his Stalinist rivals, but he was regarded by his political enemies – especially the emerging caste of professional technocrats – as a boorish peasant who would interrupt speakers to insult them. Incidents such as pounding his shoe on a table at the UN in 1960 and red-faced rants

against the West and intellectuals were a source of grave embarrassment to Soviet politicians.

The history of the Soviet Union from 1964 to 1982, referred to as the Brezhnev Era, covers the period of Leonid Brezhnev's rule of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). This period began with high economic growth and soaring prosperity, but ended with a much weaker Soviet Union facing social, political, and economic stagnation. The average annual income stagnated, because needed economic reforms were never fully carried out.

Nikita Khrushchev was ousted as First Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU), as well as Chairman of the Council of Ministers, on 14 October 1964 due to his failed reforms and disregard for Party and Government institutions. He was accused of *voluntarism* (unscientific policy). Brezhnev replaced Khrushchev as First Secretary and Alexei Kosygin replaced him as Chairman of the Council of Ministers. Anastas Mikoyan, and later Nikolai Podgorny, became Chairmen of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet. Together with Kirilenko as organisational secretary, and Suslov as Chief Ideologue, they made up a reinvigorated collective leadership, which contrasted in form with the autocracy that characterised Khrushchev's rule.

The collective leadership first set out to stabilize the Soviet Union and calm Soviet society, a task which they were able to accomplish. In addition, they attempted to speed up economic growth, which had slowed considerably during Khrushchev's last years as ruler. In 1965 Kosygin initiated several reforms to decentralise the Soviet economy. After initial success in creating economic growth, hard-liners within the Party halted the reforms, fearing that they would weaken the Party's prestige and power. No other radical economic reforms were carried out during the Brezhnev era, and economic growth began to stagnate in the early-to-mid-1970s. By Brezhnev's death in 1982, Soviet economic growth had, according to several historians, nearly come to a standstill.

Theme № 11. The USSR and world in the 1980–1990s. Russian Federation in the early XXI century

1. Restructuring: concept, milestones, content, results and lessons. The collapse of the USSR.
2. Russian Federation: establishment of market economy and the political system in the country.
3. The vectors of Russian foreign policy in the twenty-first century in the context of transformation of international relations.

Questions for self-study:

1. Parliamentary and presidential elections in Russia in the 1990s and early 2000s and their results.
2. Russia in regional developments in the Caucasus and Ukraine in the context of the issue of global security.
3. Western vector of the foreign policy interests of Russian diplomacy. Russia and NATO. Russia and the EU.
4. New challenges in the foreign policy of the Russian Federation. Russia and international organizations in the middle East. BRICS, and EurAsEC – new actors in international relations.
5. Globalization and antiglobalist's movement in the context of European integration.

Problems to consider:

1. Was the collapse of the USSR inevitable?
2. What was the role in the collapse of the USSR by the nationalist sector?
3. Estimate a format of personal qualities of the USSR leaders during its crash.

Topics of abstracts and creative tasks:

1. The reforms of Mikhail Gorbachev in the USSR and Deng Xiaoping in China: comparative characteristics (initial conditions, contents and targets, results, the role of personality).
2. 'Belovezhskaya agreements': causes and consequences.
3. 'Strengths' and 'weaknesses' of high energy prices.

Materials for the lecture: The stabilization policy brought about after Khrushchev's removal established a ruling gerontocracy, and political corruption became a normal phenomenon. Brezhnev, however, never initiated any large-scale anti-corruption campaigns. Due to the large military buildup of the 1960s the Soviet Union was able to consolidate itself as a superpower during Brezhnev's rule. The era ended with Brezhnev's death on 10 November 1982.

The history of the Soviet Union from 1982 through 1991 spans the period from Leonid Brezhnev's death and funeral until the dissolution of the Soviet Union. Due to the years of Soviet military buildup at the expense of domestic development, economic growth stagnated. Failed attempts at reform, a standstill economy, and the success of United States of America against the Soviet Union's forces in the war in Afghanistan led to a general feeling of discontent, especially in the Baltic republics and Eastern Europe.

The dissolution of the Soviet Union. Greater political and social freedoms, instituted by the last Soviet leader, Mikhail Gorbachev, created an atmosphere of open criticism of the communist regime. The dramatic drop of the price of oil in 1985 and 1986, and consequent lack of foreign exchange reserves in following years to purchase grain profoundly influenced actions of the Soviet leadership. N. Tikhonov, the Chairman of the Council of Ministers, was succeeded by N. Ryzhkov, and V. Kuznetsov, the acting Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, was succeeded by A. Gromyko, the former Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Several Soviet Socialist Republics began resisting central control, and increasing democratization led to a weakening of the central government. The USSR's trade gap progressively emptied the coffers of the union, leading to eventual bankruptcy. The Soviet Union finally collapsed in 1991 when Boris Yeltsin seized power in the aftermath of a failed coup that had attempted to topple reform-minded Gorbachev.

Post-soviet Russia. Although Yeltsin came to power on a wave of optimism, he never recovered his popularity after endorsing Yegor Gaidar's 'shock therapy' of ending Soviet-era price controls, drastic cuts in state spending, and an open foreign trade regime in early 1992. The reforms immediately

devastated the living standards of much of the population. In the 1990s Russia suffered an economic downturn that was, in some ways, more severe than the United States or Germany had undergone six decades earlier in the Great Depression. Hyperinflation hit the ruble, due to monetary overhang from the days of the planned economy.

Meanwhile, the profusion of small parties and their aversion to coherent alliances left the legislature chaotic. During 1993, Yeltsin's rift with the parliamentary leadership led to the September–October 1993 constitutional crisis, climaxed in October, when Yeltsin chose a radical solution to settle his dispute with parliament: he called up tanks to shell the Russian White House, blasting out his opponents. As Yeltsin was taking the unconstitutional step of dissolving the legislature, Russia came close to a serious civil conflict. Yeltsin was then free to impose the current Russian constitution with strong presidential powers, which was approved by referendum in December 1993. The cohesion of the Russian Federation was also threatened when the republic of Chechnya attempted to break away, leading to the First and Second Chechen Wars.

By the mid-1990s Russia had a system of multiparty electoral politics. But it was harder to establish a representative government because of two structural problems – the struggle between president and parliament and the anarchic party system.

Meanwhile, the central government had lost control of the localities, bureaucracy, and economic fiefdoms; tax revenues had collapsed. Still in deep depression by the mid-1990s, Russia's economy was hit further by the financial crash of 1998. After the 1998 financial crisis, Yeltsin was at the end of his political career. Just hours before the first day of 2000, Yeltsin made a surprise announcement of his resignation, leaving the government in the hands of the little-known Prime Minister Vladimir Putin, a former KGB official and head of the KGB's post-Soviet successor agency FSB. In 2000 the new acting president defeated his opponents in the presidential election on 26 March, and won a landslide 4 years later. International observers were alarmed by late 2004 moves to further tighten the presidency's control over parliament, civil society, and regional officeholders. In 2008 Dmitri Medvedev, a former Gazprom

chairman and Putin's head of staff, was elected new President of Russia. However, Putin would take back Presidency 2012.

Nevertheless, reversion to a socialist command economy seemed almost impossible, meeting widespread relief in the West. Russia ended 2006 with its eighth straight year of growth, averaging 6,7% annually since the financial crisis of 1998. Although high oil prices and a relatively cheap ruble initially drove this growth, since 2003 consumer demand and, more recently, investment have played a significant role. Russia is well ahead of most other resource-rich countries in its economic development, with a long tradition of education, science, and industry.

The vertical power amplifies after the long years of chaos and instability in the modern Russia. The armed forces and the international positions of Russia become stronger, despite the sanctions and the anti-Russian phobias. The integration of the Crimea (one theory is that, the Crimea 'is presented' to Ukraine by Khrushchev for the inner-party reasons) and the events in the east of Ukraine which inhabitants wish to have the right to speak Russian became a subject and a reason for the speculation of the anti-Russian forces.

The beginning of XXI century in the world. The 1990's for US may be termed the era of controlled restlessness. Yet even with the controlled nature, the demographic changes, racial antagonism and feminist activism broke through to the surface. Perhaps it signaled a transitional stage to a more harmonious equilibrium. In 1990 the euphoria ended with major international crisis. The collapse of what had deemed a bipolar world of good versus evil born disorientation. The war in Gulf War for US was swift, with few American casualties. Additionally the US found itself drawn into numerous countries on behalf of the rights of oppressed minorities, as it seemed. At each step there were critics and supporters abroad.

A defining moment in USA history and the world was September 11, 2011, in a brief morning the world was changed. This was and no nation more then US. This was unlike the work of a single fanatic or a group of dissidents. The event forever to be known as 9/11 was the act of unidentified terrorists with resources and connections partnered with the element of surprise, making them equal to the resources of national defenses. No more a relative sense of security.

CONCLUSION

A course of lectures in English is designed for BS and undergraduates studying the history in English. The aim of the course is to help studying history, based on the sources. The aim is also to indicate position on important phenomena and events of history as a science, which plays a fundamental role in the complex social sciences and humanities. At the same time the course may help to expand vocabulary, improve English and skills of presentation of information in English. It presents key topics on the world and Russian history in the relationship. History from antiquity to the early twentieth century is described in accordance with the problem-chronological principle.

What is the place and role of history in the modern world? History, if we interpret the simplistic narrative about the past in chronological order. Classic Russian historian, V. O. Klyuchevsky understood the history in a twofold sense: as a movement in time (ontological aspect) and how to take the story. That is, under history, you can understand the historical process and the scientific knowledge of the past, of the laws of development of public life in space and time. Unlike other human sciences, human sciences, history studies not just one side of functioning of society, and all of them together, and throughout the historical process. Functions of historical science: cognitive, political, philosophical, educational, social memory (linking the past and the future).

History originated two thousand years ago in Ancient Greece. ‘Father of history’ of the ancient Greek philosopher Herodotus and his compatriot Thucydides understood the story of art the story of the memorable events and parties. Thus, they considered the history as art and pragmatic narrative, in which there are causal relationships. Clio, one of the nine Olympic muses in the ancient Greeks appeared as patroness of the arts and Sciences, the Muse of heroic songs and the patroness of time. She was the Muse, ‘which celebrates’ or ‘giving glory’. Interestingly, the monument to N. Karamzin made in the form of bas-relief built into the monument Clio. For ancient Romans the history was *magistra vitae*-life mentor. History is the area of human activity, which is carried out in the mode choice alternatives. The history consists of mane

choices, and this is reflected in the multiplicity of its estimates. The plurality of ratings associated with the fact that the past is gone forever, and experiments to verify the versions of the impossible. History of historical science deals with the historiography.

During the period previous to civilization the primitive society dominated. To be familiar with the major periods of history, see the approach, according to which the history of human civilization on the Ancient history are in the East and the West (antiquity), Middle ages, modern times, contemporary times. Antiquity dates back to the period from the beginning of antiquity (12th century in BC, meaning before Christ), before the fall of the Roman Empire.

The Middle Ages in Europe, if you define them conditionally, stretched from V to XV centuries, this is the reign of the feudal system. New Time and means marked by the development of bourgeois society, it stretches from the 16 h century until the early twentieth century. The contemporary history begins from World War I and Russian revolutions of 1917.

The epochal events of World War I (1914–1919) and Russian revolutions of 1917, opened the modern period of history. Condition adequate reflection and reproduction of past events and processes is the choice of methodology (assessment of driving forces of history, trends of its development). In the Soviet period the dominant principle of the analysis was Marxist. Materialistic evaluation criteria of social processes were supplemented by an idealization of determinism, to the fetishization patterns in history. In the modern world the story is set in the search condition, when the progress is understood in the context of relativity, and the place of identifying laws took relativistic principles. Now the most popular in history seems to be a civilizational approach developed by the English historian A. Toynbee, the German philosopher by O. Spengler. It is based on the notion of civilization. The type of civilization (type of activity) makes you focus on such features as the commonality of fundamental principles of evolution, interdependence of historical fate, the interaction of cultures; the community of interest for the future development.

History is the integrated science studying human community, life of social groups and individual during the different eras in the interrelation of

life spheres. In the modern world history stays in the condition of search when progress is understood as rather accepted, and the place of the laws detection was taken by doubts in progress and the thesis about illegality of unambiguous estimates of the historical phenomena and processes. The national history as part of the world history studies the place of Russia in the global historical processes, the statehood stages, the logic of reforms and counter-reforms, the sources and the sense of the Russian revolution, the specifics of economy and the way of life, the key personalia. Among the key problems of the national history questions of the east Slavs ethnogenesis, the formation and the development of Kievan Rus are presented. The history of the Moscow state formation is offered for studying in a context with the history of the Golden Horde. For general history, the vector of development changes after the Great geographical discoveries, the formation of the world market, the colonial conquests and the numerous wars.

The formation of the largest colonial empire, the British, begins in the 18th century, and the 19th century is time of the classical colonialism. A modern world map is formed as a result of the numerous wars and the national liberation movements. The main tendencies of the development of Western Europe countries and the USA in the 18th –19th centuries are examined in this edition in connection with the history of Russia. The leading countries of the world finished the industrial revolutions in the 19th century. The traditional life way of the West and some East countries radically changed (modernization) at the end of 19th – the beginning of 20th centuries. The total amount of the world industrial products and the world trade increased three times in 1870-1900. The modernization processes of the Russian society gathered speed from liberal reforms of the 1860- 1870s, however they had inconsistent character and consequences.

History relies on the sources which are divided into written (chronicles, literary, documentary, publicistic texts) and oral (legends, folklore). The archaeological and architectural monuments, the film and the photographic materials, etc. play an important role in the list of historical sources. The sense of history is in its incompleteness, in the continuous choice of development

vector, ideals of a social system. Unlike the other humanitarian subjects, that are the sciences about person, history studies not only one sphere of society life, but all spheres in their complex. The functions of history:

- scientific and informative;
- educational;
- function of social memory.

The requirement of learning the past of the own country, people, humanity especially intensifies on history breaks. The knowledge of the roots helps to find the correct solution of the arisen problem during the periods of shocks.

The present schoolbook is intended for the students studying discipline ‘History’ in English. Author sees the purpose in helping to take an objective position when studying the difficult events of the world and the national history.

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3. Guides to Sources on Russian History and Historiography. – URL: <https://www.library.illinois.edu/ias/spx/slavicresearchguides/subjectresources/subsourrus/rushistbib2/>
4. Russia (topics). – URL: http://www.portalus.ru/modules/english_russia/rus_readme.php?category=4 (Russian history, topics)
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13. American Council of Teachers of Russian University of Toronto. Up to date information about Russia and the Former USSR and an illustrated history of Russia. – URL: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Council_of_Teachers_of_Russian
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2. 'Batu's capture'.
3. 'The thaw': the society and culture.
4. Alexander II – personality and reform.
5. Alexander III, K. Pobedonostsev and Russian idea.
6. Alexander the great: statesman, military leader, family man.
7. Alexei Mikhailovich 'Quietest' and 'Buntashny century'.
8. And Stalin – history assessment.
9. Arakcheev: 'without flattery betrayed'.
10. Argument of Ivan the terrible and Andrey Kurbsky.
11. Battle Of Alexander Nevsky. His image in the history of Russia.
12. Benkendorf.
13. Campaigns of Alexander the Great and formation of Hellenism.
14. Catherine The Great.
15. Christianization of Rus and its value.
16. Contradictions of de-Stalinization in Soviet Union(1953–1991).
17. Culture of Kievan Rus.
18. Development of Athenian democracy from Solon to Pericles.
19. Dissolution of the USSR: causes and consequences.
20. European and Russian 'enlightened absolutism': similarities and differences.
21. Foreign policy of the Bolsheviks for world revolution.
22. Formation of the USA
23. G. Plekhanov and V. Lenin.
24. General characteristic of the European Middle Ages.
25. General Vlasov: historical portrait.
26. Golden Horde and Russia: history and the type of relationship.
27. Government of Alexander I: from liberalism to conservatism.
28. Great sailors, explorers: H.Kolumb, F. Magellan, Vasco de Gama, A. Vespucci (at your choice).

29. Great Schism: Patriarch Nikon and protopope Avvakum.
30. Grigory Rasputin.
31. Historical events in the interpretation of modern historiography.
32. Image of Ivan IV in the historical consciousness: from reforms to oprichnina.
33. Inquisition: history of creation and activity in the countries of Europe.
34. Is there progress in History?(Essay)
35. Ivan III – ‘The Emperor of All Russia’.
36. Ivan III – the Tsar of all Russia.
37. Ivan the terrible in the public consciousness, Russian literature and art.
38. Ivan the terrible was a tyrant on the throne or ordinary medieval ruler?
(Comparative characteristics of Russian and European government).
39. Julius Caesar - the politician and military commander.
40. Kerensky, Lavr Kornilov – Russian ‘Bonapartism’.
41. L. Brezhnev, associates, heirs.
42. L. Trotsky and Trotskyism.
43. M. Speransky.
44. Mankind in the XXI th century: the global problems.
45. Modernization of Russia under Peter the Great and its contradictions
46. Muscovy and Western Europe in the middle ages: General and special.
47. National problems and conflicts (second half of 1980 – the first half of the 1990s).
48. Nicholas II and Alexandra Fedorovna.
49. Nikolas II: political portrait.
50. Nine hundred days of blockade of Leningrad.
51. P. Milyukov politician and historian.
52. P. Stolypin: ‘We need great Russia’.
53. Parliamentarism in Russia beginning of the XX century.
54. Patriotic War of 1812: features and influence on society.
55. Paul I: familiar and unfamiliar.
56. People and power in Russia. Features of fragmentation and the consequences.

57. Personality cult of Stalin and its consequences.
58. Petrova Is The Daughter (Elizabeth).
59. Police and provocateurs (the Zubatov and Gapon).
60. Prague spring and the autumn of 1968.
61. Prince Vladimir and the baptism of Rus.
62. Reformation in Europe: and its consequences.
63. Reforms in modern Russia (2000–2015).
64. Reforms of Alexander II as the beginning of bourgeois modernization of Russia.
65. Results and world value of French revolution.
66. Rus and nomads.
67. Rus and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania in the XIII–XVI centuries.
68. Rus and the Horde.
69. Rus and Varangians.
70. Russia and the East in the XIX–early XX century.
71. Russia in global politics at the turn of the centuries (XX–XXI centuries).
72. Russian Freemasonry.
73. Russian soldiers during the First world war.
74. S. Vitte: the rise and fall.
75. Sergius of Radonezh and Dmitry Donskoy.
76. Sophia Paleolog and Ivan III.
77. Soviet culture in the 1920-1930s: achievements and losses.
78. Stakhanov and the Stakhanovite movement.
79. Stepan Razin and don Cossacks.
80. The ‘cold war’: winners and losers?
81. The Byzantine Empire and Rus.
82. The Caucasian war of the XIX centuries.
83. The Cold War: origins and results.
84. The collapse of the USSR: the betrayal or the inevitability?
85. The Crimean war and foreign policy of Russia in the second half of the nineteenth century.
86. The Cuban missile crisis: USSR, Cuba, United States.

87. The Decembrists: ideas, things, people.
88. The Establishment of The Red Army.
89. The First Rurikovich.
90. The first wave of Russian emigration – a tragic destiny?
91. The formation of the Soviet Union – Federation or autonomy?
92. The Great Patriotic War: the main stages.
93. The leaders of the White movement.
94. The life and death of Andrei Bogolyubsky.
95. The main provisions and contradictions of the NEP.
96. The modern world: problems and prospects.
97. The non-aggression Pact of 23 August 1939.
98. The non-possessors and easyplane: actors and events.
99. The Nuremberg process.
100. The phenomenon of samozvanets in the time of Troubles.
101. The Reforms Of Peter I.
102. The relationship of the countries-participants of the CIS at the turn of XX – XXI centuries.
103. The Russo-Turkish war of the nineteenth century.
104. The Siberian expedition of Yermak. The Development Of Siberia, North, Far East.
105. The state and the Church XV–XVI centuries: enemies or allies?
106. The tragedy of the Afghan war.
107. The World War I in the history of Russia.
108. Time of Troubles at the beginning of the 17th century in Russia as the manifestation of cultural rupture.
109. Type of a political leader: I.V. Stalin, N.S. Khrushchev, L.I. Brezhnev, Y.V. Andropov, M.S. Gorbachev (at your choice).
110. Type of reformation as an example of S.U. Witte, P.A. Stolypin (at your choice).
111. Type of the ideal governor as an example of Yaroslav the Wise, Vladimir Monomakh (at your choice).
112. Veche in medieval Russia.

113. Westerners and Slavophiles in the XIX century and at the end of the XX century.

114. Winter (Soviet-Finnish) war.

115. XVII century in world history. Features of development of Russia and Europe.

116. Yaroslav The Wise. 'True Russian' and customary law.

117. Yemelyan Pugachev and his associates and opponents.

118. Zhukov and disputes about him.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAM:

1. Subject, principles and functions of historical science.
2. Basic approaches, methods and sources of historical science.
3. Place of the history (science) at the humanities.
4. The formation of Christian civilization: Western Europe, Byzantium, Russia.
5. The formation and development of the Old Russian state in IX–XII centuries.
6. Russian land and the Golden Horde. Duchy of Lithuania.
7. The features and the main steps of the establishment of a unified, centralized Russian state. Up rise of an autocracy.
8. Background of the modernization of Russia. European references of internal and external policies of Peter I.
9. The political and socio-economic reforms of the first quarter of XVIII century.
10. The era of palace coups: problems of the political and socio-economic development.
11. 'Enlightened absolutism' of Catherine II and the European enlightenment: general and special.
12. Forms and ways of the expansion of the Russian Empire in the XVIII century.
13. Major trends of the world history development in the XIX century: the industrial revolution and the sunset of the old order in Europe.
14. The Russian Empire in the first half of the XIX century: reform or stagnation?
15. The Russian society quest for a civilizational development: Westerners, Slavophiles, noble liberalism and revolutionary democracy.
16. Domestic and foreign culture in the first half of the nineteenth century.
17. Socio-economic processes and the consolidation of constitutional and parliamentary system in Europe and North America.
18. Domestic and foreign policy crisis in Russia and ways of solution in the middle of the XIX century.

19. The Great Reforms of 1860–1870s and their impact on the socio-economic and socio-political life in Russia. The historical interweaving of reforms and counter-reforms as a reflection of the growth of various social and political forces.

20. Global development on the threshold of the XX century: new processes and complicacy of interactions in the world community.

21. Alternatives to resolve key socio-economic and political problems of Russia in the early XX century.

22. The first Russian revolution of 1905–1907: strategy and tactics of the main social and political forces. Progress, results and consequences of the revolution.

23. The State Duma 1906–1917. The first experience of Russian parliamentarism.

24. Reforms of S. Witte and P. Stolypin – the latest attempt of evolutionary modernization of the Russian Empire, the reasons for the incompleteness of reforms.

25. Domestic and foreign culture at the beginning of the XX century.

26. The growth of contradictions in the world. Russia in World War I. The collapse of the great-power imperial ambitions, the growth of the general crisis in the country. February 1917.

27. ‘The second Russian Strife’.

28. Creation of the Soviet political and economic system.

29. Development of industrial countries in 1920–1930.

30. Socialist modernization option: the idea, the constituent elements, special aspects.

31. ‘Versailles system’ and the first attempts to form a single world space. The League of Nations.

32. The crisis of the Versailles system and the fight of the Soviet Union for collective security in Europe.

33. Start of the Second World War, creation of an anti-Hitler coalition.

34. The Great Patriotic War.

35. Heroical deeds and tragedy: the peoples and nations of the world in the fight against fascism.

36. The end of the Second World War, results and lessons of the war, the price of victory.

37. Changes on the international arena after the end of World War II. Start of the 'Cold war'.

38. "Thaw": the first attempts of the democratization of Soviet society.

39. Challenges of the socio-economic development in the second half of the 1960's – the first half of the 1980's.

40. The foreign policy of the Soviet Union in 1960–1980s: between the 'Cold war' and discharging.

41. Restructuring: plan, milestones, content, results and lessons. The collapse of the Soviet Union.

42. The Russian Federation: establishment of a market economy and political system in the country.

43. The vector of Russian foreign policy in the XXI century in the context of the transformation of international relations.

44. The culture of modern Russia and global trends in the globalization era.

SELF TEST:

- 1) The adoption of Christianity in Russia in the X century contributed to the strengthening of power of...**
 - a. Grand Duke of Kiev
 - b. Emperor of Byzantium
 - c. King of Poland
- 2) In the 13 century, the Mongol invasion of Russia led to ...**
 - a. trade development
 - b. strengthening state authority
 - c. destruction of cities
- 3) The Royal Romanov dynasty was elected to the Russian throne in...**
 - a. 1480
 - b. 1613
 - c. 1825
- 4) During the reign of Catherine II in Russia was created...**
 - a. Black sea fleet
 - b. Baltic fleet
 - c. Pacific fleet
- 5) Outstanding Russian commander of the 18 century-is ...**
 - a. A. Nevsky
 - b. A. Suvorov
 - c. K. Rokossovsky
- 6) Central Asia became part of the Russian Empire by the end...**
 - a. The 15century
 - b. The 17 century
 - c. The 19 century
- 7) In the early twentieth century, Russia was...**
 - a. commonwealth
 - b. empire
 - c. principality
- 8) As a result of the First Russian revolution in Russia appeared...**
 - a. State Duma
 - b. Academy of Sciences
 - c. Russian Orthodox Church

9) In the early twentieth century, agrarian reform in Russia carried out...

- a. I.V. Stalin
- b. P.A. Stolypin
- c. V.I. Lenin

10) In 1918 ended...

- a. Civil war
- b. World war I
- c. The great Patriotic war

11) The Soviet Union was created in...

- a. 1905
- b. 1917
- c. 1922

12) In the 1930s, the Union of peasant farms in the collective farms in the USSR was called...

- a. industrialization
- b. collectivization
- c. nationalization

13) During the great Patriotic war the Soviet army fought against the army...

- a. UK
- b. USA
- c. Germans

14) The chief designer of space rockets in the USSR was...

- a. S.P. Korolev
- b. G.K. Zhukov
- c. Zh.I. Alferov

15) In modern Russia the majority of believers are...

- a. Muslims
- b. Buddhists
- c. Christians

16) In 2014 an Agreement was signed on ...

- a. creation of the Union state Russia-Belarus
- b. entry of the Republic of Crimea into the Russian Federation
- c. formation of the CIS Customs Union

17) A well-known Russian scientist, one of the founders of Moscow University is...

- a. D.I. Mendeleev
- b. A.S. Popov
- c. M.V. Lomonosov

18) The monument "Worker and collective farm girl" by sculptor Vera Mukhina is...

- a. Moscow
- b. Rostov-on-don
- c. Ufa

19) N.S. Mikhalkov is a modern Russian...

- a. composer
- b. athlete
- c. producer

20) Day of national unity in Russia is celebrated...

- a. May 9
- b. June 12
- c. November 4

For notes

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