

**MINISTRY OF SCIENCE AND HIGHER EDUCATION OF THE RUSSIAN
FEDERATION**

Federal State Autonomous Educational Institution of Higher Education

NORTH-CAUCASUS FEDERAL UNIVERSITY

**Methodological Guidelines
for Practical Classes in
HISTORY OF RUSSIA
for all specialties and fields of study
of the university profile**

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INTRODUCTION

Historical science and historical knowledge play an exceptionally important role in human understanding and cognition of the surrounding world. Historical consciousness is a necessary and important component of the comprehensive development of the individual. History of Russia is among the most important social sciences. The study of the discipline History of Russia in our country is provided as a mandatory general education discipline for students of all fields of study.

The **aim** of mastering the discipline: to form students' comprehensive understanding of the cultural and historical identity of Russia, its place in world and European civilization. Studying the History of Russia will help students reach a new level of understanding of historical processes, and develop skills in acquiring, analyzing, and synthesizing historical information. A sense of involvement in the shared historical past ensures the unity of the currently existing civil society of our country.

The **objectives** of mastering the discipline include:

- in-depth study and systematization by students of knowledge in the field of Russian and world history, and the role of our country in world history;
- fostering interest in the past of the Stavropol Krai and an understanding of its place in Russian history;
- training students in the skills of scientific thinking, which allows them to comprehend processes, events, and phenomena in Russia in their dynamics and interrelation, guided by the principle of historicism;
- formation of historical consciousness as a basis for understanding the essence of currently unfolding processes, events, and problems of responding to general historical challenges;
- upbringing of patriotism and the formation of a common civic identity, the ability to formulate and argumentatively defend one's worldview and civic stance on the problems of national history.

The **place** of the discipline in the structure of the educational program. The discipline belongs to Block 1. Disciplines (Modules) of the mandatory part. Its mastering takes place in semesters 1 – 2. As a result of mastering the topics and sections of the discipline and working in practical classes, students must form the following competencies:

- able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5). As a result of mastering the discipline, the student must:
- know the main events and dates of Russian history;

- analyze and evaluate historical events and processes in their dynamics and interrelation;
- analyze the acquired knowledge in the process of working with sources and academic literature;
- understand the role and place of Russia in world and European history; perceive and share a mature sense of civic consciousness and patriotism, feel a sense of belonging to Russian civilization and Russian society, perceive personal development through the prism of the public good and moral guidelines relevant to man;
- develop the skill of critical thinking and independent judgment, which allows for the improvement of academic and research competencies even in relation to resonant and suggestive problems and challenges; The guidelines act as an informational and practical source.

PRACTICAL CLASS 1

Topic 2.2 The Territory of Russia in Antiquity. Rus (Ancient Russia) in the Second Half of the 9th – First Third of the 13th Century.

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency, implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Rus in the 11th – early 12th century. As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Rus in the 11th – early 12th century;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- capable of cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1);

able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic is due to the fact that under conditions of globalization, there is a surge of interest in one's historical roots, including the initial stages of Russian statehood. A scientific view of this problem will contribute to an objective understanding of the historical process.

Theoretical part

The state of Rus, which took shape in the 9th century, arose as a result of a very long and progressive process of society's split into various social groups, which took place among the East Slavs throughout the entire first millennium AD. According to modern historical science, in the 9th century the East Slavs were on the verge of creating a state. The prerequisites for the formation of statehood among the East Slavs were: the decomposition of the clan system, the emergence of the institution of private property, the isolation of the tribal aristocracy, and the formation of tribal unions.

The *Primary Chronicle (Povest vremennykh let)* reports that after Rurik's death in 879, due to the minority of his son Igor, his relative Oleg began to rule. It was he who seized power in Kyiv in 882. It is known about Oleg that he subjugated the Drevlians, Severians, and Radimichians. In 907, Oleg launched a campaign against the capital of the Byzantine Empire – Constantinople – the consequence of which was the signing of a peace treaty favorable to Rus. Igor, who ruled from 912, subordinated the Ulichians. He marched against Byzantium twice, with the second campaign of 944 proving successful and ending with the signing of a treaty. In 945, Igor was killed while

attempting to repeatedly collect tribute from the Drevlians. His widow Olga established the norms of duties – the *smoke* (*dym* – household tax unit). The terms and places of tribute collection were *уроки* (*uroki* – fixed amounts of tribute) and *погосты* (*pogosts* – designated trading and administrative centers/collection sites).

Olga was the first among the members of the princely family to adopt Christianity. Oleg and Igor's son Svyatoslav paid more attention to foreign policy. From 964 to 972, he waged almost continuous wars against Volga Bulgaria and Khazaria. He founded the Principality of Tmutarakan on the Taman Peninsula. He fought against the Bulgars on the Balkan Peninsula and against Byzantium. After Svyatoslav's death, a struggle for the Kyiv throne went on for 8 years between his sons Yaropolk, Oleg, and Vladimir.

Oleg, and then Yaropolk, were killed, and in 980 Vladimir became Grand Prince. During the years of his rule up to 1015, Rus took a significant step forward in its development. Princely power was strengthened, a number of fortresses were built south of Kyiv, which secured it from nomad raids, and the territory of the state was expanded. In 980, Vladimir made an attempt to reform pagan cults, but failed. The adoption of Christianity had a positive impact on cultural development, and contributed to the strengthening of the prince's power and the enhancement of Rus's international prestige. Christianity contributed to the development of Russian culture and the spread of literacy.

Rus became acquainted with stone architecture and partook of the cultural riches of Byzantium. Christianity had a favorable effect on the morals of the population of Rus, and contributed to the strengthening of the family.

The adoption of Christianity in the Orthodox tradition became one of the determining factors of our further historical development. After the death of Vladimir Svyatoslavovich in 1015, the struggle for the princely throne began anew, won by Yaroslav the Wise. The state of Kievan Rus reached its highest prosperity during the reign of Yaroslav the Wise (1019 – 1054). He took the throne after defeating his brother Svyatopolk the Accursed (*Svyatopolk Okayanny*). However, from 1024 to 1036 he shared power with his brother Mstislav of Tmutarakan.

Under Yaroslav the Wise, Rus became one of the strongest states in Europe. Through his children, Yaroslav intermarried with many European monarchies: the kings of Poland, Hungary, France, England, and Sweden. In 1036, Russian troops routed the Pechenegs, and their raids on Rus ceased. For several decades, Rus did not experience nomad invasions, which contributed to the development of agriculture in the southern Russian lands and created favorable conditions for internal development. In his domestic policy, Yaroslav was a tireless builder; under him, several dozen new towns arose, and Kyiv rivaled Constantinople in wealth and beauty. There were about 400 churches and 8 markets in the city. Schools were opened, including a women's school, and

books were translated into Russian. Yaroslav himself spoke several foreign languages and possessed a rich library.

Yaroslav also strengthened the Russian Church; he introduced the mandatory church tithe, and in 1051 for the first time secured the election of the Metropolitan of Kyiv by a council of Russian bishops. The first Russian metropolitan was Hilarion (*Illarion*). Of immense importance was the adoption of a unified legal code for all of Rus, *Russkaya Pravda* (Russian Justice). This was the first document regulating the relations of various strata of the population, property relations, and contractual relations.

The procedure for resolving various disputes and compensating for damage was established. Punishments for committed offenses were determined, blood feuds were abolished, fines were introduced to protect life and property, and the status of the feally dependent population was defined. Kievan Rus in the mid-11th century achieved its highest power and became one of the largest and most developed states in Europe. Upon his death, Yaroslav the Wise bequeathed that henceforth the grand prince should be the eldest in the family. He urged his heirs to live in peace and obey the eldest brother, Izyaslav, in everything. But the complexity of dynastic accounts, the growth of the power of each individual principality, and personal ambitions inevitably led to princely feuds.

The most popular prince in Rus at that time was Vladimir Monomakh. At his initiative, a princely congress was held in Lyubech in 1097. It was decided to end feuds, and the principle was proclaimed: Let every prince hold his *votchina* (patrimonial estate). In 1111, Russian *druzhinas* led by Vladimir Monomakh routed the Polovtsians. In 1113, an uprising broke out in Kyiv.

The people, tired of the struggle between princes, smashed the manors of the nobility. Kyiv boyars, in violation of dynastic seniority, summoned Vladimir Monomakh to the grand princely throne. The new ruler was forced to make certain concessions to the people. The *Charter (Ustav)* of Vladimir Monomakh was issued, which became an integral part of *Russkaya Pravda*. The charter regulated interest collection by usurers, improved the legal status of merchants, and regulated the transition into *kholopdom (kholopstvo – slavery/servitude)*. The prince himself wrote about his military feats: All my campaigns numbered 83, and I do not remember other minor ones. I concluded 19 peace treaties with the Polovtsians, and took prisoner more than 100 of their best princes. Under him, Rus's international prestige strengthened. Vladimir was the grandson of the Byzantine Emperor Constantine Monomakh. An English princess became his wife. Under Vladimir Monomakh, the famous Russian chronicle *The Primary Chronicle (Povest vremennykh let)* was compiled. The grand prince himself was the author of *The Instruction to Children (Pouchenie detyam)*.

The son of Vladimir Monomakh, Mstislav I the Great, managed to maintain the unity of most of Rus for some time. But after his death in 1132, Kievan Rus finally broke up into a dozen and a half lands. Kievan Rus still remained an early feudal monarchy headed by a grand prince, who relied on a princely council consisting of the most significant state figures. The composition of the council was not permanent: it could include local princes, town elders, and prominent druzhina members. Subsequently, the boyar дума formed from the council.

The basis of the social structure of the state was feudal landownership. Land owners: princes, boyars, druzhina members, the church. They exploited the labor of various categories of dependent population: *kholops* (slaves), *izgois* (outcasts), *zakups* (indentured laborers), *ryadoviches* (indentured/contractual workers), and *smerds* (peasants). The most numerous group by composition was the smerds. Free smerds included community members who owned a household and the necessary tools of labor. Impoverished community members were forced to turn for help to wealthy landowners – feudal lords.

Thus, they lost their independence and bore certain duties in favor of their master. The main form of exploitation in the 10th – 12th centuries was natural or product rent, which was payment to the feudal lord for the land allotment provided by him. Along with the establishment of feudal relations in Rus, the growth of towns occurred. The main population consisted of artisans and merchants.

A major role in the life of towns was played by the *veche* (popular assembly), which decided the most important questions of urban life, summoned the militia, and appointed officials. Thus, the boyars, the top church leadership, and the princes rose above the main mass of the population, but the prince's power was not autocratic; it was limited by the boyar дума and the *veche* system of the towns.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The formation of the state of Rus.
2. The adoption of Christianity by Rus and its significance.
3. Internal political development in the 11th century. The struggle for power between the sons of Vladimir the Saint. Yaroslav the Wise.
4. Rus under the Yaroslaviches. Vladimir Monomakh.
5. Foreign policy and international relations.
6. The economy of ancient Rus. The role of the climatic and environmental factor.
7. The social structure of Rus: discussions in historical science.

Assignments

1. Compile a comparative table: Activities of Russian Princes (from Rurik to Mstislav the Great), reflecting the main events of domestic and foreign policy.
2. Compare the management system of the Old Russian State under the first Russian princes (Oleg, Igor) and under Yaroslav the Wise. Indicate what was common (at least two characteristics) and what was different (at least two differences).
3. In the given fragment of a historical composition, fill in the name of the prince instead of the gaps.

Not for nothing did the people love _____. The Russian land suffered great woes and devastation from the Polovtsians and princely feuds. _____ routed the pagans mercilessly; with his brothers he did not quarrel or feud, but brought peace to the princely family through counsel and love, and earned the name of brother-lover. With all his daring, boldness, and love of work, _____ possessed a bright mind, was skilled in every matter, and knew how to bring goodness to his native land always and in everything. Therefore, in the public estimation he stood above all the princes of that time, and had no equal among them.

4. Identify the events are discussed in the excerpts from *The Primary Chronicle*.
 - 1) And he ordered his warriors to make wheels and put ships on wheels. And with a fair wind they hoisted sails and went across the field to the city. The Greeks, seeing this, became frightened and said through ambassadors: 'Do not destroy the city, we will give you whatever tribute you want'. And he stopped the warriors, and food and wine were brought out to him, but he did not accept it, since it was poisoned... And he ordered tribute to be given for two thousand ships: twelve grivnas per man, and there were forty men in each ship.
 - 2) ...He let his druzhina go home, and he himself returned with a small part of his druzhina, desiring great wealth. The Drevlians, hearing that he was coming again, held a council with their prince Mal: 'If a wolf gets accustomed to sheep, he will carry off the whole flock until we kill him; so is this one: if we do not kill him, he will destroy us all'. And they sent to him, saying: 'Why are you coming again? You have already taken all the tribute'. And he did not listen to them...
 - 3) And they sent with the words: 'You, prince, seek a foreign land and care for it, but left your own, and the Pechenegs almost took us and your mother and your children. If you do not come and protect us, they will take us after all. Do you not pity your *votchina* (patrimony), your old mother, your children?'
 - 4) And he set up idols on the hill behind the hall courtyard: wooden Perun with a silver head and golden mustache, then Khors, Dazhbog, Stribog, Semargl, and Mokosh. And they

brought sacrifices to them, calling them gods, and brought their sons and daughters to them, and these sacrifices went to demons and defiled the land with their sacrifices. And the Russian land and that hill were defiled with blood.

5) ...He ordered the idols to be overturned – some to be chopped up, and others to be burned. And he ordered Perun to be tied to a horse's tail and dragged... to the Brook and assigned twelve men to beat him with staffs. This was done not because wood feels anything, but to outrage the demon who deceived people in this image – so that he would receive retribution from people.

6) His mother taught him to accept baptism, but he did not think to listen to this; yet if someone intended to be baptized, he did not forbid it, but only mocked, saying: 'How can I alone accept a different faith? And my družina will mock'. She said to him: 'If you are baptized, everyone else will do the same.'

7) And a terrible miracle was seen. The Russians, seeing the flame, rushed into sea water, seeking to save themselves – and so those who remained returned home. And coming to their land, they recounted – each to his own – about what happened and about the naval fire. 'As if heavenly lightning,' they said, 'the Greeks had, and releasing it, burned us; that is why they could not be overcome.'

8) They drove the Varangians overseas, and gave them no tribute, and began to rule themselves, and there was no justice among them, and clan rose against clan, and they had feuds, and began to fight one another. And they said to themselves: 'Let us seek a prince who would rule over us and judge by right'. And they went overseas to the Varangians...

9) When he grew up and matured, he began to gather many brave warriors, and was fast like a leopard (*pardus*), and fought much. On campaigns he did not carry carts or cauldrons with him, nor did he boil meat, but, having thinly sliced horsemeat, or game, or beef and roasted it on coals, he ate thus; he had no tent, but slept with a saddle blanket under his head – all his other warriors were just like that. And he sent to other lands with the words: 'I want to go against you.' And he went to the Oka River and the Volga, and met the Vyatichians...

5. Read the document and answer the questions.

The Primary Chronicle on the Lyubech Congress (1097)

In 1097 Svyatopolk, Vladimir, Davyd Igorevich, Vasilko Rostislavich, Davyd Svyatoslavich, and his brother Oleg came and gathered in Lyubech to establish peace, saying among themselves: 'Why do we ruin the Russian land, making strife among ourselves? And the Polovtsians are devouring our land and are glad that there are inter-princely feuds among us. From now on we shall be of one mind and guard the Russian land, and let each hold his votchina (patrimony):

Svyatopolk – Kyiv, Izyaslav’s patrimony; Vladimir – Vsevolod’s; Davyd, Oleg, and Yaroslav – Svyatoslav’s; and to whom Vsevolod distributed towns: Davyd – Vladimir, while to the Rostislaviches: Volodar – Peremyshl, Vasilko – Terebovl.’ And on that they kissed the cross: ‘If from now on anyone goes against anyone, we shall all be against him and the honest cross.’ All said: ‘Let the honest cross and the whole Russian land be against him.’ And having taken the oath, each went to his own.

- 1) What was discussed at the Lyubech Congress?
 - 2) What decisions were made?
 - 3) How did the situation change after this congress?
6. Analyze the main provisions from *Russkaya Pravda* given in the document. Show with concrete examples the nature of social stratification in Russian society at this time. How, in your opinion, did the social structure change in these years compared to the 10th century?

From *Russkaya Pravda*

52. If a *zakup* (indentured laborer) runs away from his master (without paying him off), he becomes his *kholop* (slave); but if he goes to work openly (with his master’s permission) or goes to the prince and judges with a complaint against the master, for this he is not turned into a *kholop*, but is given a trial.

53. If a plowing *zakup* of the master ruins his horse, he does not pay for this (to the master); but if the master gave the *zakup* a plow and harrow, for which he collects a purchase-money (*kupa*), then for their damage or loss the *zakup* must pay the master...

55. If the master offends the *zakup* (reduces his land allotment or takes away his cattle), he is obliged to return everything to him and pay him 60 kunas (1.2 grivnas) for the offense; if the master collects money from the *zakup* (more than was agreed), he is obliged to return the over-collected money, and pay the *zakup* a fine of 3 grivnas for the offense; if the master sells the *zakup* into *kholopdom*, the *zakup* is freed from the debt, and the master is obliged to pay him a fine of 12 grivnas for the offense...

59. And a *kholop* witness (in court) cannot be cited, but if there is no free (witness), in an extreme case one can cite the boyar *tiun* (bailiff/manager), and others cannot be cited. And in a minor lawsuit (over a small claim) one can cite a *zakup* in an extreme case...

84. And for the murder of a *kholop* or maidservant no *vira* (fine) is paid; but if they are killed without any guilt, the killer must pay their value to the master for the *kholop* or maidservant, and 12 grivnas as a court fee to the prince.

85. If a smerd dies (having no sons), all his property goes to the prince; if he (the smerd) has minor daughters, a share of the property is to be allocated to them; if his daughters are married, nothing is allocated to them.

86. But if a boyar or druzhina member dies, the property does not go to the prince; if they do not have sons, let their daughters take their property...

102. Kholops can be of three types: if someone buys (a free person) even for half a grivna...

103. And the second type of kholop: who marries a maidservant...

104. And here is the third type: who becomes a tiun (servant) or steward (under a master) without a contract...

7. Based on the document, show what traits Vladimir Monomakh instilled in his descendants. How can the general concept of this document be explained?

From the *Instruction (Pouchenie)* of Prince Vladimir Vsevolodovich Monomakh

First of all, for the sake of God and your soul, have the fear of God in your heart and give unsparing alms, for this is the beginning of every good... Learn, mortal man, to be an accomplisher of piety, learn... governance of the eyes, restraint of the tongue, having pure thoughts, prompting oneself to good deeds...

Do not forget the destitute, but as much as you can, feed them according to your ability and give to the orphan, and vindicate the widow yourself, and do not let the mighty destroy a man. Do not kill either the righteous or the guilty, nor command to kill him. Even if he is deserving of death, do not destroy any Christian soul.

Saying anything, bad or good, do not swear or cross yourselves, for there is no need in this. But if you must kiss the cross to brethren or anyone, then, having checked your heart as to what you can stand by, kiss upon that, and having kissed, observe, so that by transgressing you do not destroy your soul. Above all, have no pride in heart and mind, but say: we are mortals, alive today, in the grave tomorrow.

Honor the old as a father, and the young as brothers. In your house do not be lazy, but supervise everything yourselves... Going out to war, do not be lazy, do not rely on voivodes...

Wherever you keep your way through your lands, do not let young retainers (*otroki*) cause harm either to your own or strangers, or to villages or crops, so that people do not begin to curse you.

Wherever you go and wherever you stop, give drink and food to the beggar, and above all honor the guest... Visit the sick, escort the dead, for we are all mortal. Do not pass by a man without

greeting him and saying a good word to him. And here is the foundation for everything: have the fear of God above all... What good you know, do not forget, and what you do not know, learn...

8. What was the family relation between Vladimir Monomakh and Princess Olga?

9. Topics for reports: Historical Portrait of a Russian Prince (at students' choice: Oleg, Igor, Svyatoslav, Vladimir, and others), The Adoption of Christianity by Vladimir I as a Factor of a New Period in the Development of the Russian State and Society, Daily Life and Mores of Ancient Russia.

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 1 / author-comp.: M. E. Kolesnikova, D. S. Tkachenko, Z. V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 302 p.

Additional Literature

1. Danilov, A. A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A. A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A. N. Sakharov, A. N. Bokhanov, V. A. Shestakov; ed. by A. N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.
3. Tikhomirov, M. N. Ancient Rus. M., 1975.
4. Froyanov, I. Ya. Ancient Rus of the 9th – 13th Centuries. Popular Movements. Princely and Veche Power. M., 2012.

PRACTICAL CLASS 2

Topic 3.1 Russian Lands in the Mid-13th – 15th Century. Formation of the Russian State.

Aim: shaping the general scientific methodological competency, implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russian lands in the mid-13th – 14th century.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia in the mid-13th – 15th century;
- demonstrates abilities to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped

- able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic lies in the fact that this historical period is extremely important in the history of our country. As a result of stubborn resistance to the Mongols, Rus preserved its statehood and culture. The victories over the Swedes and Crusaders demonstrated the military leadership skills of Alexander Nevsky and stopped Western aggression. In the 14th century, Moscow princes began the process of gathering lands and strengthening their power, which took place under difficult conditions of confrontation with the Golden Horde, as well as overcoming the separatism of appanage (*udelny*) princes.

Theoretical part

In the late 12th and early 13th centuries, the Mongol tribes inhabiting the steppes of southern Transbaikalia were experiencing a period of statehood formation. In 1206, at the *kurultai* (assembly/congress of Mongol aristocracy), Temüjin was elected Grand Khan – Genghis Khan.

The Mongols began their campaigns by conquering the lands of their neighbors – the Buryats, Evanks, and Yakuts. In 1215, the Mongols captured Northern China and Beijing, where they enriched themselves with city-besieging tactics. In 1218, Korea was conquered. In 1219 – 1220, they seized the states of Central Asia, turning flourishing agricultural regions into pastures.

In 1221 – 1222, Genghis Khan's best commanders, Jebe and Subutai, invaded Iran and Transcaucasia, and then reached the steppes of the North Caucasus, inflicting a defeat on the Alans and Polovtsians. In 1223, the Polovtsian khans turned to Russian princes for help. Some of them responded to this call and set out with their *druzhinas* into the Polovtsian steppes. But due to a lack of coordination and contradictions, they were defeated in the Battle of the Kalka River in May 1223.

Genghis Khan's grandson, Batu, launched a campaign to the West in 1236 and captured Volga Bulgaria. In the winter of 1237, the Mongols invaded the Principality of Ryazan and devastated it. In January 1238, they reached the land of Vladimir-Suzdal, defeated the Vladimir army, and took Vladimir in February. The Vladimir princes tried to resist the nomads, but were defeated in the Battle of the Sit River. The Mongols stopped 100 versts (*versta* – old Russian unit of length, approx. 1.06 km) short of Novgorod and turned south into the steppes, because the invaders' losses were too heavy.

In the spring of 1239, Batu routed Southern Rus. In the autumn of 1240, Kyiv fell. In 1241, the Principality of Galicia-Volhynia was subjected to devastation. Such a rapid and easy capture of Russian lands is explained by the weakness of the Russian princes, who were in a state of fragmentation. However, the nomads suffered significant losses here, and the best part of the Mongol army perished in Rus. After invading Europe, the Asian invaders were defeated in Bohemia in 1242. Batu returned east and founded the Golden Horde state in 1243, with its capital in the city of Sarai.

Unlike the Central Asian countries conquered by the Mongols, Rus preserved its statehood. Dependence on the khans of the Golden Horde was expressed in heavy tribute (the Horde tribute / *ordynsky vykhod*), which they imposed on the Russian people. To clarify the amount of tribute, in 1257 the Mongols conducted a population census. The practice of Russian princes obtaining a *yarlik* (khan's patent/charter) – the right to rule – in the Golden Horde was introduced.

Having preserved power in the hands of the Russian princes within their principalities, the khans limited themselves to controlling them by sending special representatives – *baskaks* (tax collectors/envoys). Based on *baskak* denunciations, wayward princes were summoned to the Horde or subjected to peculiar punitive expeditions sent to Russian lands – devastating raids. The Grand Baskak had his residence in Vladimir. Feudal fragmentation continued, and the khans supported it. Anti-Tatar uprisings broke out in some Russian lands, but forces were still insufficient to overthrow the rule of the invaders.

Simultaneously with the Mongol-Tatar invasion, Swedish and German feudal lords attempted to seize the northwestern Russian lands. Swedish feudal lords stepped up their activity in the north of the Russian lands. They sought to extend their influence to these territories and

hinder Novgorod's trade through the Baltic Sea. To this end, in the summer of 1240, a Swedish flotilla commanded by Birger sailed up the Neva River and stopped at the mouth of its tributary, the Izhora, for a brief rest.

Novgorod Prince Alexander Yaroslavich, hastily assembling his *druzhina* and Novgorod levies (*ratniki* / militia), approached the encampment site of the Swedish fleet. On July 15, 1240, Alexander's mounted *druzhina* unexpectedly struck along the Izhora into the center of the Swedish troop deployment. Simultaneously, foot soldiers from Novgorod advanced along the Neva, pressing the enemy and cutting off the Swedes from the fleet. For his courage and valor, the people nicknamed Alexander Nevsky (of the Neva). At the same time, the knights of the Livonian Order began seizing Russian lands. On April 5, 1242, the famous Battle on the Ice took place on the ice of Lake Peipsi (*Chudskoye ozero*).

In the 14th century, trends toward the political unification of Russian lands began to emerge. Rus began to revive after Batu's pogrom. New towns recovered and developed faster than the old ones: Moscow, Tver, Nizhny Novgorod. Moscow and Tver became the main rivals in the struggle for leadership in the process of unifying Russian lands. Moscow had more advantages. A huge role in the rise of Moscow was played by its advantageous geographical position. It was shielded by other lands from sudden raids by both nomads from the south and east, and Lithuanians from the west. This contributed to a rapid increase in population due to migrants from southern regions. Major overland and river trade routes passed through Moscow, creating favorable conditions for Moscow's transformation into a major craft and trading center in the 14th century. Moscow's rise was also facilitated by the targeted, flexible policy of Moscow princes in their relations with both Russian principalities and the Golden Horde. All of this determined Moscow's victory in the struggle for the role of leader and political center in the formation of a unified Russian centralized state.

In 1301, Alexander Nevsky's son Daniel, who ruled in Moscow, recaptured Kolomna from Ryazan and thereby laid the foundation for Moscow's rise. His son Ivan Kalita (1325 – 1340), securing the support of the Horde, suppressed the anti-Tatar uprising in Tver (1327), weakened competitors, and obtained the khan's *yarlik* for reign and the right to collect tribute for the Horde himself. Under him, Moscow became the spiritual center of the Russian lands. Only under Kalita's grandson, Dmitry Ivanovich (1359 – 1389), who was supported by the boyars and the church, did the rallying of principalities around Moscow for the struggle against the Golden Horde take place.

It was the Moscow Prince Dmitry Ivanovich who acted as the organizer of the all-Russian resistance against the Horde invaders. In 1378, in the battle on the Vozha River in the Principality of Ryazan, the Moscow army defeated the Mongol-Tatars in open combat. Then, with the aim of restoring the shaken dominance of the Golden Horde over Russian lands, the Horde military

commander Mamai marched a huge army against Rus in 1380. To fight Mamai's hordes, družinas and levies from most Russian lands came to Moscow. Never before had such a huge army gathered on Russian soil. The patriotic mood of the people was supported by the authoritative church figure Sergius of Radonezh (*Sergiy Radonezhsky*), founder of the Trinity-Sergius Monastery.

On September 8, 1380, the famous battle took place on the Kulikovo Field at the confluence of the Nepryadva River into the Don. The military talent of Dmitry and his commanders, and the unyielding bravery of the Russian soldiers, made it possible to rout the Tatar army. The Kulikovo victory did not lead to liberation from Horde dependence, but the myth of the Mongols' invincibility was shattered on the Kulikovo Field. The rout of Mamai's troops accelerated the disintegration of the Golden Horde and caused its general weakening.

However, in 1382, Khan Tokhtamysh captured Moscow by deceit. As a result, the payment of the Horde tribute was resumed. Nevertheless, the Horde was forced to recognize Moscow's political supremacy in Rus.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The Mongol invasion and the formation of the Golden Horde.
2. The destinies of Russian lands after the Mongol invasion.
3. Alexander Nevsky. Disputes over his historical choice.
4. Principalities of North-Eastern Rus. The struggle for the Grand Reign of Vladimir. The strengthening of the Principality of Moscow.
5. The 14th century: the rise of Moscow. The activities of the first Moscow princes.
6. Dmitry Donskoy. The Battle of Kulikovo. The consolidation of the premier position of the Moscow princes.

Assignments

Read the document and answer the questions.

The Nikon Chronicle on Batu's Campaign Against Rus

In 1237. That winter, the godless Tatars with Tsar Batu came from eastern lands through the forest to the Ryazan land... They sent their envoys... to the Ryazan princes, demanding a tithe from the princes and people, in armor and horses... The princes replied: 'When we are no more, then everything will be yours'... (December 21) the Tatars took the city of Ryazan, burned it all down, killed Prince Yuri Igorevich, his princess, slaughtered other princes, and having grabbed men, women, and children, hacked some with swords, killed others with arrows and threw them into the

fire; and some, having seized them, they bound, slit their chests, and took out the bile. The Tatars gave many holy churches to the fire, burned monasteries and villages, and took their property...

1) Under what conditions were the Tatars willing to leave the Ryazan land alone? Would they have kept their promise?

2) How can you explain the refusal of the Ryazan princes from the presented conditions? Do you agree with it? Explain.

2. Read the excerpt from *The Tale of the Destruction of Ryazan by Batu*. Name the leader of the detachment.

We have been with many tsars, in many lands, in many battles, but we have never seen such daredevils and frantic ones (rezvetsov), nor did our fathers tell us. These are winged people; they do not know death and fight so fiercely and courageously, riding horses – one against a thousand, and two against a tma (/ 10,000).

3. Read the assignment and answer the questions.

In 1327, the Horde baskak Chol-khan arrived in Tver with a large detachment. The oppression and violence perpetrated by them provoked an uprising of the townspeople. The Horde members were killed. In response, Khan Uzbek undertook a punitive expedition against Tver, in which Moscow Prince Ivan Kalita participated.

Name the reasons that can explain Ivan Kalita's appearance on the side of the Horde. What were the consequences of the Tver uprising for the Moscow princes and for all of Rus?

4. Compare the foreign and domestic policies of Ivan Kalita and Dmitry Ivanovich Donskoy. Indicate what was common (at least two characteristics) and what was different (at least two differences).

5. Topics for reports:

- Alexander Nevsky and His Role in the History of the Russian State
- Historical Portrait of a Moscow Grand Prince of the Lands Unification Period (at students' choice: Ivan I Kalita, Dmitry Donskoy, Vasily II the Dark, and others).

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 1 / author-comp.: M. E. Kolesnikova, D. S. Tkachenko, Z. V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 302 p.

Additional Literature

1. Borisov, N. S. Ivan Kalita. M., 2005.
2. Borisov, N. S. Dmitry Donskoy. M., 2014.
3. Danilov, A. A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A. A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
4. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A. N. Sakharov, A. N. Bokhanov, V. A. Shestakov; ed. by A. N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

PRACTICAL CLASS 3

Topic 4. Russia in the 16th Century

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia related to the reign of Ivan IV.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia in the 16th century;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic lies in the fact that Russian society still lacks a unified opinion regarding the personality of Ivan the Terrible and assessments of his activities. During this period, progressive reforms were carried out in the Russian state, and the Volga region, Siberia, and Kabarda were annexed. However, terror became a means of resolving political issues, and the country's economy fell into decline.

Theoretical part

During the reign of Vasily III, Pskov in 1510, Ryazan in 1521, and Smolensk in 1514 were fully annexed. Subsequently, under Vasily III, the ideology of Moscow autocracy took shape in the theory of Moscow – the Third Rome.

Following the death of Vasily III in 1533, his three-year-old son Ivan IV formally became the Grand Prince, but Ivan's mother, Elena Glinskaya, actually ruled. After her death in 1538, a period of boyar rule began, characterized by the struggle of the boyar factions of the Shuyskys, Belskys, and Glinskys for power under the underage Ivan IV. This significantly weakened state power and led to numerous popular uprisings in the country.

Hopes for resolving conflicts were linked to the beginning of the independent reign of Ivan IV. In 1547, according to a ritual conceived by Metropolitan Macarius, Grand Prince Ivan IV assumed the tsarist title. This strengthened central authority, and the Russian sovereign was formally equated to Western European monarchs. In 1549, the first Zemsky Sobor (Assembly of the Land) was convened. Russia entered the period of an estate-representative monarchy.

The Zemsky Sobor of 1549 marked the beginning of a decade of reforms. The Chosen Council (*Izbrannaya rada*) was their main organizer. It included close friends of the tsar: Prince A.M. Kurbsky, nobleman A.F. Adashev, Metropolitan Macarius, Archpriest Sylvester, and others. In 1550, a new all-Russian Sudebnik (Code of Law) was adopted. A single state duty was established, the right of collection belonging to the tsarist administration. The population had to bear the *tyaglo* – a aggregate of natural and monetary duties. The large plow (*bolshaya sokha*) became the uniform unit of taxation.

As a result of the military reform, a standing *strelety* (musketeer/firearms) army was created. The procedure for military service for noblemen and boyar scions (*deti boyarskiye*) was determined. Service for them was a hereditary duty, and it was necessary to appear for it at the tsar's first call. Special bodies of state executive power – chanceries (*prikazy*) (Ambassadorial, Brigandage, Petition, etc.) – further developed and emerged. *Mestnichestvo* (the system of placing officials based on noble ancestry) in the army – the procedure for occupying state positions depending on the nobility of origin – was restricted. The *kormleniye* (feeding) system, the maintenance of officials at the expense of the local population, was replaced in 1556 by a nationwide tax from which service people were paid salaries.

The Church Stoglav Sobor (Council of One Hundred Chapters) in 1551 (its resolutions comprised one hundred chapters) formalized the Pantheon of Russian saints, placed church landownership under the tsar's control, and called for a fight against vices among the clergy. The reforms of the mid-16th century significantly strengthened central authority, completed the formation of public administration bodies, and played a positive role in the development of the Russian state.

Starting from the early 1560s, Ivan IV began to move away from the policy of progressive reforms and embarked on the path of the *oprichnina*. The entire state was divided into two parts: the *oprichnina* and the *zemshchina*. The *oprichnina* became the tsar's personal domain, into which he included the most economically developed regions of the country, trading towns, major salt-boiling centers, and strategically important fortresses. Noblemen who joined the *oprichnina* army were settled on these lands, while former estate owners, mainly boyars, were evicted to the *zemshchina*. Among the *oprichniki*, Prince A. Vyazemsky, boyar V. Gryaznoy, and nobleman Malyuta Skuratov stood out.

Prominent church figures, noble boyars, and princes perished at the hands of the *oprichniki* among the very first. Repressions also affected commoners. The campaign against Novgorod in the winter of 1569 – 1570 became the peak of terror. On the way to Novgorod, the *oprichniki* looted towns and villages and executed their inhabitants. The terror was unpredictable, and in that same year of 1570, the organizers of the *oprichnina* were also executed and killed.

The raid on Moscow by the Crimean Khan Devlet Giray in 1571, when the *oprichnina* army was unable to put up resistance, helped put an end to the *oprichnina*. The *oprichnina* was abolished in 1572. It significantly worsened the economic and political situation of Russia.

The unification of Russian lands around Moscow and the successful implementation of reforms in the 1550s contributed to the pursuit of an active foreign policy. In the early years of Ivan IV's reign, the Kazan direction was the main one. The Kazan Khanate was Russia's closest and most aggressive neighbor. Attempts to resolve relations diplomatically were unsuccessful. Two military campaigns against Kazan also proved unsuccessful. The third campaign was distinguished by its scale and careful preparation. Not only a 150,000-strong army with 100 cannons, but also siege and demolition specialists were brought in to participate in it. In August 1552, the siege of Kazan began. After the water sources were destroyed and part of the walls of the Kazan Kremlin were blown up, the city fell on October 2, 1552.

In 1556, a successful campaign was undertaken against the Astrakhan Khanate. At the same time, the Nogai Horde was subjugated, and in 1557, the Bashkirs. The entire Volga trade route was now open to Russian merchants.

Following the fall of Astrakhan and Kazan, Russia gained the opportunity to actively develop lands east of the Volga and in the Urals. Vast territories of the Cis-Urals were transferred for development to the major industrialists, the Stroganovs. The Siberian Khanate remained a serious obstacle to penetration beyond the Urals into Siberia. After Khan Kuchum came to power, the khanate's policy became more aggressive. In 1582, Don Cossack Ataman Yermak Timofeyevich, who was in the service of the Stroganovs, gathered a detachment of Cossacks, crossed the Urals, invaded the borders of the Siberian Khanate, defeated Kuchum, and took the capital of Kashlyk. The Russians founded fortresses along the banks of rivers, which laid the foundation for the cities of Tyumen, Surgut, and Tobolsk. The incorporation of the peoples of Siberia into the Russian state was objectively positive, since Russia was at a higher stage of development.

In January 1558, Ivan IV started the Livonian War. Narva and Dorpat fell. In the summer of 1558, Russian troops reached the Baltic Sea, reaching the borders of East Prussia and Lithuania. However, the Livonian Order collapsed; part of it recognized vassal dependence on Lithuania, and part on Sweden and Denmark. Russia now had to fight these strong European powers.

The aggravated internal situation in Russia affected the course of the war as well. Russia began to suffer defeats. In January 1564, the Russian army was defeated near Polotsk, and in the summer of 1564 near Orsha. In the second half of the 1570s, a new offensive of Russian troops in the Baltic region began. They captured almost its entire territory, but the success was short-lived. Russia had to fight the strong Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth (*Rzeczpospolita*), which emerged

in 1569 after the conclusion of the Union of Lublin between Lithuania and Poland. As early as 1578, Russian troops suffered a defeat. In 1579, the Swedes invaded the Novgorod land, and the new Polish king Stefan Batory took Polotsk. He continued his offensive on Russian lands and besieged Pskov in 1581. However, the Polish-Lithuanian army, having made 31 assaults, could not take the city. In 1582, the Truce of Jam Zapolski ended hostilities between Russia and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, and in 1583, the Treaty of Plusa with Sweden concluded the quarter-century conflict in the Baltic. Russia lost its own lands on the coast of the Gulf of Finland. It was possible to return them under the Treaty of Teusina in 1595, which concluded the Russo-Swedish War of 1590 – 1595.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Russia in the first third of the 16th century.
2. The beginning of the reign of Grand Prince Ivan IV.
3. Reforms of the Chosen Council.
4. The *oprichnina* of Ivan the Terrible. Results and assessments of the *oprichnina* policy.
5. Foreign policy of Ivan IV. Russia in the system of international relations of the 16th century. The Russian state and the Tatar khanates in the 16th century. The western direction of Russian foreign policy. The Livonian War.
6. Socio-economic development of Russia in the 16th century.
7. Culture of Russia in the 16th century.

Assignments

1. Fill out the table Reforms carried out by the Chosen Council (year, reform, results and consequences).
2. Fill out the outline map Expansion of the Russian State in the 16th Century. Show the territories incorporated into the state under Ivan IV.
3. Examine various viewpoints in historical science on the personality and activities of Ivan the Terrible. Formulate and substantiate your point of view.
4. Compare the status of service noblemen-landowners (*pomeshchiki*) and boyar patrimonial estate owners (*votchniki*). Indicate what was common (at least two characteristics) and what was different (at least two differences).
5. Read the excerpt from the *Domostroy* and try to reconstruct the picture of everyday life and morals that prevailed in a Russian family in the 16th century based on the provided material. Which guidelines of the *Domostroy* do you agree with, and which ones do you not?

Domostroy of the 16th Century

Punish your son in his youth, and he will give you rest in your old age and bring beauty to your soul. And do not slacken while beating the child: if you beat him with a stick, he will not die, but will be healthier, whereas by beating him on the body, you deliver his soul from death. Do you have a daughter? Place your strictness upon her and you will save her from bodily troubles, and you will not shame your face, but she will walk in obedience; and if she follows her own will, she will become foolish and a laughingstock to your acquaintances, and they will put you to shame before a multitude of people. In good homes, with an orderly wife, the house is always clean and arranged. And if the husband sees that something is disorderly with the wife, he should know how to instruct his wife with all reasoning and teach her. If the wife heeds and does everything according to that instruction, then love and cherish her. If the wife does not live according to that teaching and instruction, it befits the husband to instruct his wife and discipline her with fear in private. And if the wife only does not listen to the instruction, and does not heed and is not afraid, and does not do as the husband teaches, then whip her with a leather strap (plet), depending on the fault; and beat her not in front of people, but in private: teach her and admonish her and cherish her, and let neither the wife be angry at the husband nor the husband at the wife in any way. And for any fault: do not strike on the ear, on the eyes, with a fist under the heart, with a kick, do not stab with a staff, do not beat with anything iron or wooden: whoever beats like this in the heat of passion or out of grief – many troubles come from that: blindness and deafness, and one can dislocate a hand or a foot, and a finger, and cause a headache and toothache, and in pregnant women, harm occurs to the children in the womb. But with a leather strap, with instruction, beat carefully; both sensibly and painfully, and fearfully and soundly. And if it is a great fault and an unpleasant matter, and for great and terrible disobedience and negligence, then beat her nicely with a small leather strap, holding her by the hands, depending on the fault: having taught her, admonish her, and let people not know or hear of it.

6. Topics for reports:

Historical Portrait of a Russian Sovereign (at students' choice: Vasily III, Ivan IV).

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 1 / author-comp.: M.E. Kolesnikova, D.S. Tkachenko, Z.V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 302 p.

Additional Literature

1. Danilov, A. A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A. A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A.N. Sakharov, A.N. Bokhanov, V.A. Shestakov; ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.
3. Skrynnikov, R.G. Ivan the Terrible and His Time. M., 1991.
4. Schmidt, S.O. Russia of Ivan the Terrible. M., 1999.

PRACTICAL CLASS 4

Topic 6. Russia in the 17th Century

Aim: shaping the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia in the 17th century.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia in the 17th century;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of studying the topic is due to the fact that the 17th century marked the beginning of a new period in Russian history. Siberia was developed, explorers reached the Pacific Ocean, and manufacturing and trade began to develop. At the beginning of the 17th century, there was an exacerbation of the internal and international situation, and events known as the Time of Troubles (*Smuta*) took place, which led to the establishment of a new dynasty – the Romanovs. This period accounts for the decisive stage in the formation of the system of serfdom, the church schism, and peasant wars.

Theoretical part

Throughout the first half of the 17th century, it was necessary to overcome the economic and political consequences of the Time of Troubles. Serfdom finally took shape in Russia during this period. Nevertheless, significant changes took place in the economy: the economy was restored, specialization of regions and cities began, exchange between them intensified, which laid the foundation for the formation of all-Russian market. Small-scale commodity production began to take shape. In the 17th century, manufactures emerged – large-scale enterprises with manual labor and division by specialties.

In connection with the growth of cities, domestic trade expanded significantly. Many cities turned into major trading centers and began to hold fairs. The largest ones were the Makaryev, Svensk, and Irbit fairs. The expansion of trade scale was facilitated by the Trade Charter of 1653, which introduced a single duty and abolished a number of internal duties, and the New Trade

Charter of 1667, which granted privileges to Russian merchants in domestic trade. Foreign trade suffered from the lack of access to the Baltic and Black seas.

The first tsar of the Romanov dynasty, Mikhail Fedorovich, had to overcome the consequences of the Time of Troubles throughout his entire reign (1613 – 1645). The country's economy was restored, the position of noblemen was strengthened, voivode (*voevoda*) rule was introduced locally, the treasury was replenished, a new army was assembled, and the number of chanceries (*prikazy*) was increased. A conciliatory policy of uniting forces was pursued, and therefore the tsar frequently convened the Boyar Duma and Zemsky Sobors. Mikhail's father, Patriarch Filaret, played an important role in state administration. From 1619 to 1633, he, a smart and authoritative politician, actually ruled the country together with his son.

The territory of the state was divided into 250 uyezds (*uezdy*), headed by voivodes who held full administrative, police, and military power. The *Sobornoye Ulozheniye* (*Sobornoye Ulozheniye* / Code of Law) of 1649, adopted during the reign of Alexei Mikhailovich, became the main code of laws of Russia. It regulated the performance of various services, customs policy, real estate transactions, contract conclusions, court proceedings, and family relations. The Ulozheniye finalized serfdom by establishing an indefinite search for fugitive peasants. White settlements (*belye slobody*) were liquidated, and their population was included in the posad (*posad* / urban tax-paying community). At the same time, the entire posad population was attached to a specific city.

In 1653 – 1656, Patriarch Nikon carried out a church reform with the aim of returning the Russian Orthodox Church to Greek models. Opponents of the innovations led by Archpriest Avvakum advocated for the old rituals. A church schism occurred, and Old Believers (*raskolniki*) appeared. Patriarch Nikon tried to dictate his will to the tsar, but this contradicted the policy of Alexei Mikhailovich, and in 1666 Nikon was stripped of his rank.

By the middle of the 17th century, the main tasks of Russia's foreign policy became: in the west and northwest – the return of lands lost during the Time of Troubles, and in the south – protection from raids by Crimean khans who led thousands of Russians and Ukrainians into captivity.

By the 1630s, a favorable international situation was taking shape for the struggle against the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth (*Rzeczpospolita*) for the return of Smolensk. However, the war of 1632 – 1634 turned out to be unsuccessful for Russia. Smolensk remained with the Poles, but Polish King Vladislav IV renounced his claims to the Moscow throne.

By this time, the situation in the eastern lands of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth had escalated. The local population experienced triple oppression – social, national, and religious – from Polish gentry (*pans*).

Hetman of the Zaporozhian Cossacks B.M. Khmelnytsky repeatedly asked Moscow for help, offering to incorporate the lands under his control into the Russian state. In 1653, the Zemsky Sobor made a decision to accept the Zaporozhians under the tsar's sovereign hand and wage war against the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth for these lands. In 1654, the Pereyaslav Rada of the Zaporozhian Cossacks took place, to which the residents of Pereyaslav were also invited. The outcome was the decision to transfer the lands controlled by the Zaporozhians along the left and right banks of the Dnieper under the rule of the Russian tsar.

The war with the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth ended in 1667 with the signing of the Truce of Andrusovo. According to its terms, the Smolensk and Seversk lands lost during the Time of Troubles were returned to Russia. In addition, most of the territory controlled by the Zaporozhian Host became part of the Russian state. The Dnieper River became the border. Kyiv, located on the right bank of the Dnieper, also came under Russian rule. In general, the Right Bank remained in the Polish-Lithuanian state. In 1686, the Eternal Peace with the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth consolidated these lands for Russia.

At the same time, Russia fought against Sweden (1656 – 1658), but according to the Treaty of Kardis in 1661, the coast of the Baltic Sea and the Neva lands remained with the Swedes.

In 1677 – 1681, the war with the Ottoman Turks took place, and according to the Treaty of Bakhchisarai (1681), the Ottomans recognized Russia's right to Kyiv, while the lands between the Dnieper and Bug rivers were declared neutral.

During the 17th century, full-scale development of Siberia began. In 1645, V.A. Poyarkov reached the Okhotsk Sea via the Amur River, and in 1648, Cossack Semyon Dezhnev discovered the strait separating Asia from North America. As they advanced, the Russians founded fortresses (*ostrogi* / fortified outposts) as strongholds for further advancement and defense against the local population. The incorporation into Russia of vast territories from the Ural Mountains to the Pacific coast took place in historically short periods. Russia consolidated its position across the vast expanses of Eastern Siberia and the Far East and turned into a great Eurasian power.

Rigid tax policy in the first years of Alexei Mikhailovich's reign, carried out by boyar B. Morozov, including raising the price of salt, led in 1648 to the Salt Riot (*Solyany bunt*) in Moscow. After the suppression of the unrest, the Sobornoye Ulozheniye of 1649 was adopted at the Zemsky Sobor, which finally established serfdom and attached the *posad* population to their urban communities.

In 1662, a major uprising broke out in Moscow, called the Copper Riot (*Medny bunt*). The issue of a large amount of copper money, equated in value to silver, led to their devaluation. Troops brutally suppressed the uprising of the insurgents, but in 1663 copper money was abolished. The Solovetsky Uprising lasted for about eight years (1668 – 1676). The movement, which began on

a religious basis against Nikon's reforms, escalated into social protest. In 1670 – 1671, a Cossack-peasant uprising led by Stepan Razin took place.

The 17th century in the history of Russian culture was the end of the Middle Ages. During this period, many new phenomena arose, and secular principles began to manifest themselves more and more strongly in all spheres of life. This process is called the secularization (*obmirshcheniye*) of culture.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Economic development of Russia and the evolution of the political system under the first Romanovs.
2. Establishment of serfdom. Popular movement of the second half of the 17th century.
3. State and church. The schism of the Russian Orthodox Church.
4. Foreign policy. Attempts to restore positions in the international arena. Russia and the uprising of the Zaporozhian Cossacks against the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. The Thirteen Years' War with the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and the exacerbation of Russo-Turkish relations.
5. Development of Siberia. The significance of Siberia's incorporation into Russia.
6. Russian culture of Russia in the 17th century.

Assignments

1. In January 1613, the Zemsky Sobor opened, attended by representatives of the clergy, boyars, noblemen, urban posads, Cossacks, and even elected representatives of black-petition (*chernoshodniye*) peasants. The Sobor decreed that it would not look for a tsar among foreigners, and also rejected the candidacy of Marina Mniszech and the little thief (*voryonok* – the son of Mniszech and False Dmitry II). Mikhail Romanov was elected tsar. Indicate the reasons for the election of Mikhail Romanov to the Russian throne. What significance did this event have for the further development of the country?
2. Compile a comparative table Activities of the Romanovs (Mikhail Fedorovich, Alexei Mikhailovich, Fedor Alekseevich, Sophia Alekseevna), reflecting the main events of domestic and foreign policy, and culture.
3. Name at least four features of Russia's state-political development in the second half of the 17th century that indicate the transition to an absolute monarchy. Cite at least three provisions of the Sobornoye Ulozheniye of 1649.
4. Fill out the outline map Territorial Growth of Russia in the 17th Century.

5. In the 15th century, the Russian boyars held tightly to the right of *mestnichestvo* (system of placing officials based on noble ancestry), and the boyars said: Death is preferable to them than being without *mestnichestvo*. However, in 1682, Tsar Fedor Alekseevich abolished *mestnichestvo*. What caused this measure? Name at least three reasons. What significance did the abolition of *mestnichestvo* have? Indicate at least two provisions.
6. Topics for reports and research papers: Historical Portrait of a Russian Sovereign (at students' choice: Mikhail Fedorovich, Alexei Mikhailovich).

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
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Additional Literature

1. Buganov, V.I. World of History: Russia in the 17th Century. M., 1989.
2. Waliszewski, K. The First Romanovs. M., 1990.
3. Danilov, A. A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A. A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
4. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A.N. Sakharov, A.N. Bokhanov, V.A. Shestakov; ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

PRACTICAL CLASS 5

Topic 7. Russia in the Era of Peter the Great's Reforms

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia related to the reign of Peter I.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia in the first quarter of the 18th century;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic lies in the fact that at the beginning of the 18th century, medieval Moscow Rus turned into the Russian Empire. Russia's place and its role in international relations of that time changed radically, and huge changes occurred in the economy, political system, administration, and culture of the country. The formalization of absolutism took place, a centralized bureaucratic apparatus was formed, and a regular army was created.

Theoretical part

In the first quarter of the 18th century, all of Peter I's domestic policy was subordinated to solving the main task – gaining access to the Baltic Sea. The tsar did not have a clear program of reforms, and the implementation of most transformations was associated with the necessity dictated by the Great Northern War and various problems of state development. Therefore, the main feature of Russia's development during this period was active state intervention in all spheres of public life.

The war forced the creation of domestic production of iron, copper, cloth, ropes, sails, and weapons necessary to equip the army and navy. A leap occurred in the development of the manufacturing industry. By 1725, about 200 manufactures were operating, and a new industrial region – the Urals – appeared. A poll tax (*podushnaya podat*) was introduced to replenish the treasury.

Mercantilism, i.e., the pursuit of wealth accumulation through excess of exports over imports, dominated trade. St. Petersburg, founded in 1703, became the new capital and center of trade on the Baltic. The specialization of economic regions continued, which contributed to the further development of domestic trade. The number of fairs increased. Merchants were organized into guilds. In agriculture, the sown areas of grain and industrial crops expanded, and highly productive livestock was imported from Europe. The Russian economy not only provided for the needs of the army and navy, but also approached the level of leading European countries in its development.

Reforms in state administration reflected Peter I's pursuit of centralization and absolutism. Since the late 17th century, he ceased consulting with the Boyar Duma, and in 1711 he abolished it and established the Senate, whose members were appointed by the tsar. Over time, the Senate became the highest executive, administrative, and judicial body controlling the official apparatus. Instead of numerous chanceries (*prikazy*), 12 colleges (*kollegii*) were created to manage military, political, industrial, and financial affairs. Fiscals (*fiskaly*) appeared to uncover abuses by institutions and officials violating state interests. In 1722, the office of Prosecutor-General (*general-prokuror*) was established, whose duties included supervising the execution of laws by various state bodies.

The Main Magistracy (*Glavny magistrat*) began to manage cities. The country was divided into 8, and later 11 provinces (*gubernii*), which were divided into 50 provinces (*provintsii*). Governors appointed by the tsar with full administrative and judicial power headed the provinces. Peter attached special importance to the nobility. Under the Decree on Single Inheritance (*Ukaz o edinonasledii*) of 1714, the noble landed estate (*pomestye*) was finally equated in rights with the boyar patrimonial estate (*votchina*), which meant the complete merger of the two classes of feudal lords into a single class. All secular feudal lords began to be called noblemen (*doryane*). At the same time, all land was passed down by inheritance to only one of the sons, while the other children were obliged to perform lifelong service in the army, navy, or state administration bodies.

In 1721, Peter I liquidated the patriarchate and completely subordinated the church to tsarist authority by creating the Synod (*Sinod*) – a state body for managing church affairs.

Starting from 1722, the Table of Ranks (*Tabel o rangakh*) came into effect – a classification of ranks and the order of promotion in civil and military service. All positions were divided into 14 grades. A higher rank could be obtained only by passing through the previous ones, taking into account special merits and educational level. Caring to ensure that the throne fell into reliable hands, Peter signed the Decree on Succession to the Throne (*Ukaz o prestolonasledii*), according to which the reigning monarch appointed his successor himself.

In 1721, Peter I received the title of Father of the Fatherland, Emperor of All Russia, and Russia became an empire. Absolutism with unlimited imperial power finally took shape in the country.

The full brunt of Peter's reforms and wars fell on the shoulders of the common people. The intensification of serf oppression, an increase in taxes, and various duties caused flight and uprisings of peasants, Cossacks, and posad people. The largest uprisings were the Astrakhan uprising (1705 – 1706) and the one led by Kondraty Bulavin on the Don (1707 – 1708).

Access to the seas was necessary for the successful resolution of the problems facing Russia at the beginning of the 18th century. This became the main content of Peter I's foreign policy. After familiarizing himself with Europe during the Grand Embassy (*Velikoe posolstvo*), Peter I realized that access to the Baltic Sea was most important for Russia. To fight Sweden, which dominated there, the Northern Alliance was created – Russia, Denmark, Saxony, and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. The 18-year-old Swedish King Charles XII, seeking to defeat his opponents one by one, struck Denmark and knocked it out of the war. Then the Swedes moved to Narva, besieged by the Russians, and in November 1700 defeated Peter I's army there.

This defeat forced the Russian tsar to accelerate military reforms and the creation of an economic base to equip the army and navy. The army began to be formed on the basis of conscription (*rekrutskiye nabory*).

Already in 1701, the Russians inflicted their first defeat on the Swedes. In 1701 – 1704, Russian troops captured fortresses along the entire course of the Neva, taking Dorpat and Narva. In 1703, the Peter and Paul Fortress was laid down, marking the beginning of St. Petersburg.

Having defeated Russia's allies, Charles XII entered Russian lands in 1708. Hetman Mazeppa of Ukraine joined him. A 16,000-strong army with a huge train was coming to help Charles XII. In September 1708, it was defeated by Peter I near the village of Lesnaya. On June 27, 1709, Russian troops defeated Charles XII himself in the Battle of Poltava. A turning point in the war occurred.

In 1711, Peter I undertook an unsuccessful Prut Campaign against Turkey, which entered the war on the side of Sweden in 1710. He had to return the Azov fortress to the Turks and destroy the fortifications of Taganrog. The war with Turkey ceased, and all forces could be directed against the Swedes. In 1714 off Cape Gangut and in 1720 off the Island of Grengam, the Swedes were defeated at sea.

In 1721, the Treaty of Nystad was signed. Livonia, Estonia, Ingria (lands along the Neva River), and part of Karelia were annexed to Russia. For these lands, Sweden received substantial financial compensation from Russia. But the main outcome of the war was that Russia won access

to the Baltic Sea, thereby strengthening its international authority and creating prerequisites for economic and cultural development in interaction with Europe.

An important foreign policy event of Peter I was the Persian Campaign of 1722 – 1723, as a result of which Russia received the Western and Southern coast of the Caspian Sea under the Treaty of St. Petersburg. This played a major role in strengthening Russia's position in this region.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Causes and nature of the reforms.
2. Russia's international position by the beginning of the 18th century. The Great Northern War.
3. Economic and social policy of Peter I.
4. Peter I's transformations in the sphere of central and local administration. Military reform.
5. Peter I's reforms in the sphere of culture. Significance of the reforms.

Assignments

1. Read the document and answer the questions.

From Peter I's Decree on Single Inheritance (1714) To all immovable property, that is, ancestral, earned and purchased votchinas and pomestyes (land plots), as well as courtyards, and shops not to be sold or mortgaged, but to be turned to kin in this manner: 'Whoever has sons, and to whomever he wishes, to give one of them immovable property through a last will and testament, so that it will be his by inheritance; while other children of both sexes are to be rewarded with movable property, which their father or mother must divide among them while alive, both sons and daughters, as many as there will be at their own will, except for one who will be the heir to immovable property... The same is understood regarding daughters.'

- 1) What do you see as the meaning of Peter I's adoption of the decree on single inheritance?
 - 2) In whose interests was it adopted?
2. Working with sources. Which battles of the Great Northern War are discussed in the excerpts from documents?

A. Warriors! Here has come the hour that will decide the fate of the Fatherland. And so you must not think that you are fighting for Peter, but for the state entrusted to Peter, for your kin, for the fatherland, for our Orthodox faith and church. Nor should you be confused by the glory of the enemy, as if invincible, which you yourselves have repeatedly proved to be false by your victories over him.

B. True, this victory at that time was very sadly felt, and as desperate of any future hope, and considered as a great wrath of God. But now, when one thinks about it, truly we must confess not wrath, but God's mercy: for if we had then... victory gotten... into what future misfortune could that happiness plunge us after us...

Which figures of the Petrian era are discussed in the excerpts from documents?

A. In 1702, Field Marshal... defeated the army of Swedish General Schlippenbach, gained a victory over him with the capture of many prisoners, banners, and all heavy artillery, and forced Schlippenbach with the rest of the army to retreat to Pernau. Tsar Peter, having received news of this victory, said: 'Thanks be to God! Finally we have achieved that we are already defeating the Swedes.'

B. When about covetous crimes... it was presented to his majesty by report, then the sovereign said: 'The guilt is not small, but past services are greater.' True, the guilt was criminal, but the sovereign punished him only with a monetary penalty, and in the turning workshop secretly in the presence of only me he beat him with a cudgel and then said: 'Now for the last time the cudgel; truly, henceforth... beware!'

3. Fill out the outline map Territorial Growth of Russia in the First Quarter of the 18th Century.

4. Topics for reports and research papers: Peter I:

The Personality of the Reformer

Nestlings of Peter's Nest (at students' choice: A.D. Menshikov, P.A. Tolstoy, B.P. Sheremetev, and others)

Historical Portrait of a Russian Empress of the Era of Palace Coups (at students' choice: Anna Ioannovna, Elizabeth Petrovna).

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 1 / author-comp.: M.E. Kolesnikova, D.S. Tkachenko, Z.V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 302 p.

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1. Buganov, V.I. Peter the Great and His Time. M., 1989.
2. Danilov, A. A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A. A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.

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4. Pavlenko, N.I. Peter the Great. M., 2000.
5. Pavlenko, N.I. Nestlings of Peter's Nest. M., 2008.

PRACTICAL CLASS 6

Topic 8.2 Russia in the Mid and Second Half of the 18th Century

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia related to the reign of Catherine II.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia during the reign of Catherine the Great;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

This period went down in history as the era of enlightened absolutism, when Russia achieved its highest successes in the international arena and a number of reforms were implemented. The transformations of Catherine the Great gave an impetus to the development of the country's economy and culture. As a result of the Russo-Turkish wars, Crimea, Novorossiia (New Russia), and the steppe Ciscaucasia were annexed. The Russian multinational state expanded significantly.

Theoretical part

The reign of Catherine II, especially the first half, was marked by the policy of enlightened absolutism. Among Catherine II's transformations, one should mention the Senate reform, the secularization of church lands in 1764, the restriction of Cossack self-government on the Don, etc.

A striking manifestation of the policy of enlightened absolutism was the work of the Legislative Commission (*Ulozhennaya komissiia*) for drafting a new legislation. Representatives of the nobility, Cossacks, urban population, and state peasants participated in the work of the Legislative Commission. The Commission did not fulfill its formal task, but its materials largely determined Catherine II's domestic policy.

Following Yemelyan Pugachev's uprising, Catherine II carried out reforms to unify administrative bodies at the center and locally. In 1775, the Institutions for the Administration of the Provinces of the All-Russian Empire were approved. The number of provinces (*gubernii*) increased to 50. A number of provinces were united into a *namestnichestvo* (*namestnichestvo* / viceroyalty) headed by a governor-general (*general-gubernator*) accountable only to the empress. At the head of the provinces were governors with full police and administrative power. Provinces were divided into *uezds* (*uezdy* / districts).

Continuing the policy of relying on the nobility, Catherine II expanded its privileges. On April 21, 1785, she signed the Charter to the Gentry, Rights and Advantages of the Noble Russian Nobility (*Gramota na prava i preimushchestva blagorodnogo dvoryanstva*). All privileges granted by the Manifesto on Freedom of the Nobility (*Manifest o volnosti dvoryanstva*) of 1762 were confirmed – noblemen were exempted from obligatory service and corporal punishment, and their monopoly rights to distilling, land, and peasants were preserved. The nobility also acquired new rights. Thus, noblemen could be convicted only by a verdict of a noble court, and they received the right to convene district and provincial assembly of the gentry and elect their marshals (*predvoditeli*).

On the same day as the Charter to the Gentry, the Charter to the Towns of the Russian Empire (*Gramota na prava i vygody gorodam Rossiyskoy imperii*) was signed. The urban population was divided into 6 categories with different rights. Based on a property qualification, townspeople elected a mayor (*gorodskoy golova*) and a General Town Duma (*obshchaya gorodskaya дума*), which elected the Six-Glasse Duma (*shestiglasnaya дума* / with one representative from each category). This executive body dealt with matters of municipal economy under the control of the local administration.

During the reign of Catherine II, the main directions in foreign policy were: the Black Sea, the Polish, and the Baltic directions. The conquest of the Black Sea coast provided an opportunity to secure Russia's south from raids by Crimean Tatars, annex and begin the development of fertile southern lands, and create favorable conditions for the expansion of foreign trade. Russia's interests in this region were hindered by England and France, which incited the Turkish sultan to active actions against the Russians.

The war with Turkey in 1768 – 1774 began with an unsuccessful raid by the Crimeans – vassals of Turkey – on Russian lands. In 1769, Russian troops under the command of P.A. Rumyantsev occupied Moldavia. At the same time, Azov and Taganrog were captured, where construction began on a military fleet for the Black Sea. In 1770, Rumyantsev won major victories in battles on the Larga and Kagul rivers. In 1770, the enemy was defeated at sea in the Battle of Chesma (*Chesmenskoye srazhenie*). It was led by Russian squadron commanders G.A. Spiridov

and J.S. Greig. In 1773, A.V. Suvorov captured Turtukay. Under the Treaty of Küçük Kaynarca (*Kyuchuk-Kaynardzhiyskiy mir*) of 1774, Russia received the Black Sea coast from the Dnieper to the Southern Bug, the fortresses of Kerch, Yenikale, and Kinburn, and the right to a Black Sea fleet, while Crimea became independent.

The plan to build a line from the Mozdok fortress to Azov was proposed to the empress by the Governor-General of New Russia, Prince G.A. Potemkin, in 1776. Catherine II's decree on the creation of the Azov-Mozdok Line (*Azovo-Mozdokskaya liniya*) was adopted on April 24, 1777. In 1777 – 1780, the Azov-Mozdok defensive line was created from the confluence of the Malka River into the Terek to the mouth of the Don, consisting of ten fortifications, including Stavropol, Donskoye, Severnoye, Alexandrovsk, Georgievsk, and Novopavlovsk. Retired soldiers and runaway peasants settled near the fortresses and redoubts. Cossacks relocated from the Khoper and the Volga were stationed in stanitsas (*stanitsy* / Cossack villages) established around the fortifications.

In 1783, Crimea became part of Russia. In the same year, Russia signed the Treaty of Georgievsk (*Georgyevskiy dogovor*) with Georgia and introduced troops into its territory to protect it from Turkey.

In August 1787, Turkey declared war on Russia and attempted to land a force near Kinburn, but it was routed by Suvorov. In 1788, the Russians captured Ochakov. In 1789, Suvorov won two major victories at Focşani and the Rymnik River, and in 1790 he captured the fortress of Izmail. F.F. Ushakov won a number of victories at sea. In 1791, under his leadership, the Turkish fleet was routed at Cape Kaliakra. In 1791, the Treaty of Jassy (*Yasskiy mir*) was signed: Russia received the Black Sea coast from the Southern Bug to the Dniester, recognized Crimea as Russian territory and the Treaty of Georgievsk. Russia established itself on the Black Sea coast, rapidly developed new territories, and created the naval base of Sevastopol.

Taking advantage of a convenient moment when Russia was at war with Turkey, Sweden attempted to regain its former possessions in the Baltic, but suffered defeat during the war of 1788 – 1790.

One of the tasks of Russian foreign policy was the return of old Russian lands held by the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth (*Rech Pospolitaya*), which was significantly weakened by internal contradictions. In 1772, Russia, Prussia, and Austria carried out the First Partition of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. Eastern Belarus departed to Russia. The strengthening of Polish statehood in the early 1790s did not suit Prussia and Russia, and they carried out the Second Partition of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth in 1793. Russia received Right-Bank Little Russia and central Belarus with Minsk. In 1795, the Third Partition of the Polish-Lithuanian

Commonwealth brought an end to its existence. The Polish king abdicated the throne. Western Belarus, Volhynia, Lithuania, and Courland went to Russia.

Thus, in the 18th century, there was a steady growth in the international prestige of the Russian Empire. As one of the leading powers in the world arena, Russia pursued an active foreign policy, achieving crucial results.

Paul I ascended the throne in 1796 after the death of his mother Catherine II. According to the new decree on succession to the throne, the throne was to pass exclusively through the male line from father to son, and in the absence of sons, to the eldest of the brothers. Provincial and district assemblies of the gentry were abolished, noble societies were forbidden to submit petitions regarding their needs, and noblemen were subjected to corporal punishment for criminal offenses.

In 1797 – 1798, decrees were issued recommending the restriction of corvée (*barshchina*) to three days a week and prohibiting the sale of household serfs (*dvortsovye* / *dvorovye*) and landless peasants at auction.

In 1799, the Italian and Swiss campaigns of Russian troops led by A.V. Suvorov took place. A squadron led by F.F. Ushakov operated successfully in the Mediterranean Sea. In 1800 – 1801, aggravation and a break in relations with England and Austria occurred. The main reason was the failure of England and Austria to fulfill their obligations. As a result, Paul I concluded peace with France.

Dissatisfaction with the emperor, who curtailed numerous noble privileges, led to a palace coup. Conspirators led by the military governor of St. Petersburg, Count P.A. Pahlen, assassinated Paul I on the night of March 11 – 12, 1801.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Catherine II's domestic policy. Enlightened absolutism.
2. Goals, objectives, and results of Russia's foreign policy during the reign of Catherine II.
3. The Azov-Mozdok Line and the foundation of the city of Stavropol.
4. Paul I. Main features and characteristics of his domestic policy.
5. Foreign policy of Paul I.

Assignments

1. Indicate which results and treaties characterize the end of:
A) The Livonian War.
B) The Polish-Swedish intervention of the early 17th century.
C) The Great Northern War.

D) The Russo-Turkish War of 1768 – 1774.

E) The Russo-Turkish War of 1787 – 1791.

Answer Bank

- 1) Russia preserved state independence.
- 2) Russia gained access to the Baltic Sea.
- 3) The Livonian Order was routed.
- 4) Russia achieved the right of patronage over the Christian subjects of the Ottoman Empire.
- 5) Turkey recognized the incorporation of Crimea into Russia.
- 6) The Treaty of Jam Zapolski (*Yam-Zapolskiy mir*) of Russia with Poland was concluded.
- 7) Russia gained access to the Black Sea.
- 8) The Treaty of Jassy of Russia with Turkey was concluded.
- 9) Russia's trade and cultural ties with Europe were facilitated.
- 10) The Truce of Plussa (*Plyusskoe peremirie*) of Russia with Sweden was signed.
- 11) The Truce of Deulino (*Deulinskoe peremirie*) of Russia with Poland was signed.
- 12) Russia achieved autonomy for Moldavia and Wallachia.
- 13) The Treaty of Küçük Kaynarca of Russia with Turkey was concluded.
- 14) The Treaty of Stolbovo (*Stolbovskiy mir*) of Russia with Sweden was signed.
- 15) Russia retained possession of Novgorod land, but lost the Smolensk and Chernigov lands.
- 16) The Crimean Khanate was liquidated.

2. Working with sources. Which battles are discussed in the excerpts from documents? Determine their authorship and time of writing.

A. *My fleet... under the command of Count Alexei Orlov, having defeated the enemy fleet, burned it completely near the port of... About a hundred ships of all kinds turned to dust... I have always said: these heroes were born for great deeds.*

B. *Having defeated Crimean Khan Kaplan Giray and three Turkish pashas: Abaza, Abdi, and Ismail on the Larga River on the 7th day of this month, I marched with the army after this fleeing enemy to lead my troops in the following order: each division to form its square, having a separate column from the front and rear line, and artillery in the middle of them.*

C. *The fortress... as fortified as it is vast, and which seemed invincible to the enemy, was taken by the weapon of Russian bayonets, terrifying to him; the stubbornness of the enemy, who had arrogantly placed his hope on the number of troops, was cast down.*

D. *The victorious army of your imperial majesty, which has made itself famous for bravery and courage on land and on seas, now marks an unprecedented untiringness and intrepidity even in a new war, on the masses of inaccessible mountains.*

3. Read the document and answer the questions.

From the Manifesto of Emperor Paul I on not forcing peasants to work on Sundays (April 5, 1797)

The law of God... teaches us to dedicate the seventh day to him; therefore, on the present day, glorified by the triumph of the Christian faith, and on which we deigned to receive the holy anointing and royal coronation on our ancestral throne, we deem it our duty before the creator and giver of all blessings to confirm throughout our empire the exact and invariable execution of this law, commanding everyone and each to observe that no one and under no pretext dare to force peasants to work on Sundays...

- 1) What does the adoption of Paul I's decree prohibiting the forcing of peasants to labor on Sundays indicate?
 - 2) Whose interests did it answer?
4. Fill out the outline map Territorial Growth of Russia during the Reign of Catherine II.
 5. Topics for reports: Companions of Catherine II (at students' choice: G.A. Potemkin, E.R. Dashkova, I.I. Betskoy, N.I. Panin, and others), The Legislative Commission as an Element of Catherine II's Enlightened Absolutism Policy, The Azov-Mozdok Line and the Foundation of the City of Stavropol, Catherine II's Best Commanders (at students' choice: P. Rumyantsev, A. Suvorov, A. Orlov, F. Ushakov, G. Spiridov, and others), Küçük Kaynarca: A Turning Point in the History of Russia and Turkey.

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PRACTICAL CLASS 7

Topic 9.1 Russia in the First Half of the 19th Century

Aim: shaping the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia related to the first quarter of the 19th century.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia during the reign of Alexander I;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic is due to the most important events that occurred during this period. Russia became the main producer of marketable grain in Europe, an industrial revolution began, and new social strata of the population were formed. Alexander I's reforms laid the foundation for a new system of state administration, and the first steps were taken toward the weakening of serfdom. The Patriotic War of 1812 caused a huge patriotic upsurge in society, changing all strata of Russian society.

Theoretical part

The era of Alexander I's reign (1801 – 1825) is to be described by the struggle of two trends in domestic policy: liberal and conservative.

Upon becoming emperor, Alexander I declared that he would rule according to the law and heart of Catherine II. He immediately lifted restrictions on trade with England, rehabilitated everyone repressed under Paul I, confirmed the charters granted to the nobility and towns, and liquidated the Secret Expedition of the Senate. In 1801, the Permanent Council (*Nepremenny sovet*) was approved. In 1801 – 1803, Alexander I relied on the activities of the Unofficial Committee (*Neglasny komitet*).

In 1801, a decree was issued on the right of persons of non-noble origin to buy land, which violated the noble monopoly on land ownership. In 1809, the right of landlords to exile peasants to Siberia was abolished. In 1804 – 1806, serfdom was restricted in the Baltic region. In 1802, instead of colleges, 8 ministries were formed: land military forces, naval forces, foreign affairs, justice, internal affairs, finance, commerce, and public education.

M.M. Speransky was involved in preparing further transformations. He developed a draft of state administration reforms. However, the draft met with significant resistance from conservative dignitaries. As a result, in 1810, only the State Council (*Gosudarstvennyy sovet*) was created.

After the end of the war with France, Alexander I continued liberal transformations. In 1815, Poland received the Constitution, the most liberal in Europe at that time. In 1816 – 1819, peasants of the Estonian, Livonian, and Courland provinces were emancipated from serfdom, but without land. In 1820, N.N. Novosiltsev prepared a constitutional draft entitled the State Charter (*Gosudarstvennaya Ustavnaya gramota*). The project remained unfulfilled.

However, the European revolutions of 1820 – 1821 in Italy and Spain, peasant and soldier unrest in Russia, as well as the lack of support for reformist ideas on the part of the nobility, caused the emperor to turn toward a reactionary course. From 1822, Alexander I actually withdrew from affairs. His prime minister, A.A. Arakcheev, became the real ruler. It was under his leadership that military settlements (*voennye poseleniya*) were created, where soldiers combined military service with agricultural work. Their entire lives were strictly regulated by regulations. By a decree of 1822, the landlords' right to exile peasants to Siberia was restored. Secret organizations and Masonic lodges were banned.

The foreign policy of this period consisted of attempts to contain French aggression, first of all in Central Europe, where Russia's influence had become predominant since the second half of the 18th century, and to maintain its influence in the Eastern Mediterranean and Transcaucasia.

In 1805 – 1807, Russia participated in the 3rd and 4th anti-French coalitions. The military campaign as part of the 3rd coalition (along with England and Austria) turned out unsuccessfully. In November 1805 at Austerlitz, the Russian-Austrian troops were defeated. Austria withdrew from the coalition. As part of the 4th coalition, Prussia was Russia's ally. Napoleon defeated the Prussian army, and in June 1807 at Friedland, the Russian army as well. On June 25, 1807, peace was signed with France in Tilsit, in accordance with which Russia joined the Continental Blockade against England.

In Transcaucasia, Russian interests met opposition from Iran and Turkey. The annexation of Georgia to Russia in 1801 led to an aggravation of relations with these states. The Russo-Iranian War (1804 – 1813) ended with the signing of the Treaty of Gulistan (*Gyulistsanskiy mir*). Dagestan

and Northern Azerbaijan went to Russia. During the Russo-Turkish War (1806 – 1812), Bessarabia was annexed to Russia under the Treaty of Bucharest (*Bukarestskiy mir*).

No less successful for Russia were the results of the war with Sweden in 1808 – 1809. In accordance with the Treaty of Fredrikshamn (*Friedrikshamnskiy dogovor*), Finland became part of Russia.

By 1812, relations between France and Russia had deteriorated. This was a consequence of a number of reasons that led to the war. Russia practically stopped fulfilling the terms of the continental blockade, which significantly complicated its economic situation. In addition, France's dominance in Europe infringed upon Russia's political interests and was a constant source of military danger. Russia was a significant obstacle for Napoleon in implementing his plans for world domination.

On June 12, 1812, Napoleon's army, numbering about 600,000 people, crossed the Neman River, the western border of the Russian Empire. Initially, two Russian armies operated against Napoleon: the 1st Army, commanded by M.B. Barclay de Tolly, numbering about 128,000 people, covering the St. Petersburg direction, and the 2nd Army, commanded by P.I. Bagration, consisting of 52,000 people, concentrated in the Moscow direction. The remaining military formations – A.P. Tormasov's army and P.V. Chichagov's Danube Army – covered the southwestern borders of Russia and began military operations only at the end of the war.

Russian forces did not accept a border battle and retreated, striving to unite into a single army, which they managed to do in early August 1812 near Smolensk. After an stubborn and bloody battle, the city was surrendered to the enemy.

Russian troops continued to retreat, and the war took on a protracted character. The enemy, advancing deep into Russia, suffered increasingly heavy losses. In August 1812, M.I. Kutuzov was appointed commander-in-chief. In the Battle of Borodino, 100 km from Moscow, he set the task of weakening the enemy and raising the spirit of the Russian army. Napoleon, however, wanted to end the war. During numerous and fierce attacks, the enemy pushed back the Russian troops but did not achieve a decisive victory. Due to huge losses, M.I. Kutuzov decided to retreat toward Moscow.

At the military council in Fili on September 1, 1812, in order to preserve the army, it was decided to abandon Moscow without a fight. After Napoleon's entry into Moscow, fires broke out in the city, and about 2/3 of all buildings burned down. The Russian army withdrew to Tarutino, where it replenished its forces, rested, and prepared to continue the war. On October 7, 1812, Napoleon left the devastated Moscow and tried to break through to the southern regions of Russia, rich in food and resources. On October 12, 1812, the Battle of Maloyaroslavets took place. The

French army was defeated and forced to retreat along the Old Smolensk Road, which it had devastated itself.

Russian troops pursued the enemy, inflicting blows with small mobile detachments and widely using partisan warfare tactics. Significant damage was inflicted on the enemy both by army partisan detachments of D.V. Davydov, A.N. Seslavin, and A.S. Figner, and by peasant detachments of G. Kurin and V. Kozhina.

After defeats at Vyazma and Krasny, the retreat of the French turned into a rout. In the battle at the crossing of the Berezina River (November 14 – 16, 1812), the French suffered huge losses. About 30,000 enemy soldiers left the borders of Russia. On December 25, 1812, Alexander I issued a Manifesto on the End of the Patriotic War.

In 1813 – 1814, the Russian army participated in the Foreign Campaign (*Zagranichny pokhod*). On October 4 – 6, 1813, near the city of Leipzig, the battle went down in history as the Battle of the Nations, in which Napoleon suffered defeat. In March 1814, Paris fell. Napoleon signed an abdication from the throne and was exiled to the island of Elba in the Mediterranean Sea.

To resolve disputable issues of post-war European organization, an international congress was convened in Vienna. In 1815, the work of the congress was interrupted due to Napoleon's escape from the island of Elba and the restoration of his power over France. A new unification of the allies was required. In July 1815 at the Battle of Waterloo, the French army was defeated, Napoleon was captured and exiled to the island of Saint Helena off the western coast of Africa.

By decision of the Congress of Vienna, old European royal dynasties returned to their thrones, territorial disputes were resolved, and new borders of European states were approved. Russia received most of Poland.

After the completion of the congress's work, the Russian, Austrian, and Prussian monarchs signed a declaration on the creation of the Holy Alliance (*Svyashchenny soyuz*). It was supposed to support the decisions of the Congress of Vienna and fight the spread of the revolutionary movement in Europe.

The decisive role played by Russia in the fight against Napoleonic France significantly increased its international authority. It became one of the most influential states in Europe.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The early years of Alexander I's reign. M.M. Speransky's reforms.
2. Foreign policy:

- A. Russia's European policy in 1801 – 1809 (Russia's participation in the 3rd and 4th anti-Napoleonic coalitions 1805 – 1807; Russo-Swedish War of 1808 – 1809).
 - B. Russia's Eastern policy in 1801 – 1813 (Incorporation of Georgia into the Russian Empire, Russo-Iranian War of 1804 – 1813, Russo-Turkish War of 1806 – 1812).
 - C. The Patriotic War of 1812.
 - D. The Foreign Campaign of the Russian army in 1813 – 1814. The Congress of Vienna and its decisions. Creation and activities of the Holy Alliance.
3. The second half of Alexander I's reign.

Assignments

1. In foreign historiography, a viewpoint is widespread according to which harsh natural conditions played a decisive role in the defeat of Napoleon's army in Russia. What other viewpoints on this issue are known to you? Which viewpoint do you find more argued? Confirm your position with facts.
2. As a result of the Russo-Swedish War of 1808 – 1809, Finland became part of Russia. Despite this, a monument to Alexander I still stands in the country today, and the name of Alexander I is given not only to one of the central streets of Helsinki, but also of the largest city of Tampere, as well as Oulu, Lahti, and Porvoo. How is such a respectful attitude toward the Russian emperor explained?
3. Fill out the outline map Territorial Growth of Russia during the Reign of Alexander I.
4. Topics for reports:
 Companions of Alexander I (at students' choice: M.M. Speransky, A.A. Arakcheev, and others)
 Alexander I's Best Commanders (at students' choice: M.I. Kutuzov, P.I. Bagration, M.B. Barclay de Tolly, and others)
 Partisan Movement during the Patriotic War of 1812, The Battle of Borodino: Strategy and Results.

Literature Main

Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 1 / author-comp.: M.E. Kolesnikova, D.S. Tkachenko, Z.V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 302 p.

Additional Literature

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2. Beskrovny, L.G. The Patriotic War of 1812. – M., 1962.
3. Danilov, A.A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A.A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p..
4. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A.N. Sakharov, A.N. Bokhanov, V.A. Shestakov; ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

PRACTICAL CLASS 8

Topic 9.3 Russia in the First Half of the 19th Century

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia related to the reign of Nicholas I.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia during the reign of Nicholas I;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of this topic lies in the fact that this was the most contradictory period in Russian history. Following the suppression of the Decembrist movement, censorship tightened, the official became the main figure in the state, and the entire state system underwent bureaucratization. On the other hand, reforms were carried out, including financial reform, the reform of state peasant administration, and legislative measures.

Theoretical part

The Decembrist revolt of December 14, 1825, largely determined the reign of Nicholas I. His Own Imperial Majesty's Chancellery, which included 6 departments, became the main instrument of power.

At the insistence of Nicholas I and with the active participation of M.M. Speransky, a codification of laws was carried out, creating the Complete Collection of Laws (*Polnoe sobranie zakonov*) and the Code of Laws of the Russian Empire (*Svod zakonov Rossiyskoy imperii*).

In 1826, a new censorship charter was created, significantly tightening persecution against literature and journalism. In 1835, a new university charter was adopted, substantially restricting autonomy. At the same time, the number of schools and gymnasiums noticeably increased, and technical higher education institutions appeared (the Technological, Construction, and Land Surveying Institutes). However, education retained a closed, class-based (*soslovny*) character.

A secret committee on the peasant question and the Ministry of State Property headed by P.D. Kiselev were established. Under his leadership, the reform of the state countryside (*derevnya*) was carried out from 1837 to 1841. In 1842, the decree On Obligated Peasants was issued, and in 1847, an inventory reform was conducted in the western provinces, fixing the sizes of peasant allotments and obligations in favor of landlords, which could not be changed thereafter.

Minister of Finance E.F. Kankrin carried out a financial reform between 1839 and 1843, basing monetary circulation on the silver ruble and establishing a mandatory exchange rate for assignats, thereby strengthening the country's financial position. Minister of Public Education S.S. Uvarov and historian M.P. Pogodin developed the theory of official nationality (*teoriya ofitsialnoy narodnosti*). Its essence was expressed by the formula: autocracy (*samoderzhavie*), orthodoxy (*pravoslavie*), and nationality (*narodnost*).

The main foreign policy tasks during this period were: 1. Preserving the Viennese system and foreign policy might in Europe. 2. Solving the Eastern Question in the interests of Russia. 3. Suppressing revolutionary uprisings. 4. Expanding geopolitical space in the Caucasus.

Following the suppression of the uprising in Poland in 1832, the Organic Statute was introduced, declaring the Kingdom of Poland an integral part of the Russian Empire. In 1849, the Russian army suppressed the uprising in Hungary, thereby preserving the integrity of the Austrian Empire.

The Eastern Question is understood as Russia's relations with Turkey and European powers regarding Turkish dominance in the Balkans, over the Black Sea straits, and concerning the Christian peoples of the Ottoman Empire. The Russo-Turkish War of 1828 – 1829 ended with the signing of the Treaty of Adrianople (*Adrianopolskiy mir*), under which Russia received the Danube delta, the Akhaltsikhe region in Transcaucasia, and the eastern Black Sea coast from Anapa to Poti. Wide autonomy was guaranteed for Greece. In 1830, an independent Greek state was created. Thus, Russia's active policy in 1826 – 1829 significantly strengthened its positions in Transcaucasia and the Balkans. In 1833, the Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi (*Unkyar-Iskelessiyskiy dogovor*) was signed with Turkey, making the Black Sea an internal sea of Russia and Turkey. This treaty became the pinnacle of Russia's successes in the Eastern Question.

The Russo-Iranian War of 1826 – 1828 ended with the signing of the Treaty of Turkmenchay (*Turkmanchayskiy dogovor*), under which Eastern Armenia (the Erivan and Nakhichevan khanates) became part of Russia. Iran paid a large indemnity, and Russia's exclusive right to keep a military fleet on the Caspian Sea was confirmed.

Throughout the entire reign of Nicholas I, Russia waged the exhausting Caucasian War (1817 – 1864), which concluded with the annexation of the North Caucasus. In 1859, Imam Shamil was captured in the aoul of Gunib, and in 1864, the aoul of Kbaada was taken.

Causes of the Crimean War: escalation of the Eastern Question, growth of the national liberation movement in the Balkans, and miscalculations by Nicholas I's diplomacy. The pretext was a dispute between Catholic and Orthodox clergy over Palestinian holy sites. The Turkish sultan declared war on Russia in 1853. In 1853, Admiral Nakhimov routed the Turkish fleet in the Battle of Sinop. In 1854, England and France declared war on Russia, followed by the Kingdom of Sardinia in 1855. An Anglo-French squadron appeared in the Baltic Sea, attacked Kronstadt, English ships entered the White Sea and bombarded the Solovetsky Monastery, and a military demonstration was conducted in Kamchatka. Enemy troops landed in the Yevpatoria area. The Russian defense of Sevastopol lasted for 349 days. Fortifications around the city of Sevastopol were constructed by Eduard Totleben (*Totleben*). Following the fall of Malakhov Kurgan, Sevastopol fell in August 1855. Admirals Nakhimov, Kornilov, and Istomin were killed. In the Caucasian theater of military operations, Russia captured the Kars fortress. In 1856, the Treaty of Paris (*Pariskiy mir*) was signed.

Main terms of the Treaty of Paris of 1856: 1. The neutralization of the Black Sea was declared. 2. Russia lost Southern Bessarabia. 3. The Crimean system took shape, possessing an anti-Russian orientation, and the danger of Russia's international isolation arose. 4. Russia was returned Sevastopol in exchange for the Turkish fortress of Kars.

At the turn of the 1830s and 1840s, magazines, newspapers, and literary salons became the center of socio-political life. In 1836, Pyotr Chaadaev's Philosophical Letter (*Filosoficheskoe pismo*) was published in the Moscow journal *Teleskop*, in which the author expressed an extremely pessimistic assessment of Russia's past, present, and future. The publication of Chaadaev's views accelerated the formation of two ideological trends: Slavophilism and Westernism.

The most prominent representatives of Slavophilism were A.S. Khomyakov, the Kireevsky brothers, and the Aksakov brothers. They defended the originality of Russia's historical development, which, in their view, consisted of the existence of the peasant commune (*obshchina*) and the immense moral role of the Orthodox Church. They opposed serfdom and bureaucratism. Slavophiles proposed reviving the Zemsky Sobors. To a large extent, their political views were reflected by the formula: Strength of authority to the tsar, strength of opinion to the people. At the same time, the tsar's authority was to remain unlimited.

Westerners included T.N. Granovsky, S.M. Solovyov, V.P. Botkin, K.D. Kavelin, and others. They believed that Russia would inevitably repeat the path of the West and called for learning from the advanced countries of Europe. They advocated for widespread public education, considering it the only correct path for the success of the modernization of Russia's socio-political system.

Disputes between Westerners and Slavophiles mainly concerned different approaches to evaluating the past and future of Russia. However, they were brought together by the defense of individual rights and public freedom, protests against despotism, bureaucracy, and serfdom. Common to both was also a decisive rejection of revolution.

The revolutionary-democratic wing was represented by V.G. Belinsky, A.I. Herzen, N.P. Ogarev, as well as the Petrashevists – members of the circle of M.V. Butashevich-Petrashkevsky, which emerged in 1845 in St. Petersburg. The program of the Petrashevists was based on demands for the abolition of serfdom, the elimination of the monarchy, and the introduction of democratic freedoms. Among the circle's participants were also supporters of the revolutionary path of transformation. In 1849, the Petrashevists were arrested, convicted, and many (21 people) were sentenced to death, replaced at the last moment by other punishments.

In the second quarter of the 19th century, social thought not only did not fade but gave rise to a significant number of philosophical and political concepts whose further development continued throughout the entire 19th century.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Domestic policy in Nicholas I's Russia.
2. The Eastern direction of Russia's foreign policy in the 1820s – 1850s.
3. Russia's policy in the Caucasus: strategic tasks and tactical methods.
4. The Crimean War.
5. Russian social thought in the second quarter of the 19th century.

Assignments

1. Compare the highest organs of state power by the end of Peter I's reign and by the end of Nicholas I's reign. Indicate what was common (at least two characteristics) and what was different (at least two differences).
2. Compare the views of Slavophiles and Westerners. Indicate what was common (at least two characteristics) and what was different (at least two differences).
3. Match the names of monarchs with the organs of state power created during their reigns: Catherine I; Anna Ioannovna; Elizaveta Petrovna; Alexander I; Nicholas I; Conference; State Council (*Gosudarstvenny sovet*); Supreme Privy Council (*Verkhovny tayny sovet*); ministries; Her Majesty's Cabinet (*kabinet Ee Velichestva*); Ministry of State Property.
4. Match the conditions of peace treaties concluded by Russia with the titles of these treaties and the wars of which they were the outcomes. Treaty terms: a) France was stripped of its

conquests, and buffer states were created along its borders; the Kingdom of Sardinia was restored; part of the colonies that England captured from France and Holland was secured for it; Austria once again owned Lombardy and Venetia; Prussia significantly expanded its possessions on the Rhine; b) The Black Sea coast from the Dniester to the Kuban, including Crimea, was secured for Russia; c) The independence of the Crimean Khanate from Turkey was recognized; Russia received the Black Sea coast with the fortresses of Kerch, Yenikale, and Kinburn; the independence of Moldavia and Wallachia was proclaimed; d) The Duchy of Warsaw was created; Russia and France concluded an offensive and defensive alliance; Russia joined the Continental Blockade; e) The Erivan and Nakhichevan khanates became part of Russia; the Araks River became the border between Russia and Iran; an indemnity was imposed on Iran; Russia's preferential right to have a military fleet on the Caspian Sea was confirmed, and freedom of navigation there for Russian merchant ships was ensured.

Titles of treaties: a) Treaty of Jassy (*Yasskiy mirny dogovor*); b) Treaty of Turkmenchay (*Turkmanchayskiy mirny dogovor*); c) Treaty of Tilsit (*Tilzitskiy dogovor*); d) Treaty of Küçük Kaynarca (*Kyuchuk-Kaynardzhiyskiy mirny dogovor*); e) Final Act of the Congress of Vienna (*Zaklyuchitelny generalny akt Venskogo kongressa*). Wars: a) War with Napoleonic France (1812 – 1815); b) Russo-Turkish War (1768 – 1774); c) Russo-Iranian War (1826 – 1828); d) Wars of the third and fourth anti-French coalitions; e) Russo-Turkish War (1787 – 1791).

5. Topics for reports: Companions of Nicholas I (at students' choice: M.M. Speransky, E.F. Kankrin, P.D. Kiselev, and others), Dasha of Sevastopol (*Dasha Sevastopolskaya*), Heroes of the Crimean War (at students' choice: P.S. Nakhimov, V.I. Istomin, V.A. Kornilov, and others).

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5. Semin, G.I. Defense of Sevastopol 1854 – 1855. – M., 1962.

PRACTICAL CLASS 9

Topic 10.1 The Era of Great Reforms in Russia

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia related to the epoch of Alexander II.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia during the reign of Alexander II;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of studying this period of Russian history stems from the fact that this exact time went down in history as the era of the Great Reforms, when Russia managed to embark on capitalist rails of development without a revolution. As a result of the reforms, not only were the peasants emancipated, but the world's most progressive judicial system, financial stability, self-government, and public education were created. The country's economy began to develop at a rapid pace, railways and enterprises were built, and the population grew.

Theoretical part

Alexander II, who came to power in 1855, believed that the modernization of the country and overcoming the technical and economic lag were impossible within the framework of serfdom. On the initiative of the emperor, a Secret Committee was created, later transformed into the Main Committee on Peasant Affairs. A broad discussion of the reform began in the press, and notes with projects were created. Local committees emerged, preparing their proposals taking local features into account. All proposals went to the Editorial Commission, where Ya.I. Rostovtsev and N.A. Milyutin played prominent roles. After the approval of the projects by the State Council, Alexander II signed the Manifesto and the Regulations on Peasants Emerging from Serf Dependency on February 19, 1861.

In 1864, the implementation of the zemstvo reform began. All-class bodies of local self-government – zemstvos – were created in provinces and districts. Elections to them were held on the basis of a property qualification. The administrative bodies of the zemstvos were zemstvo assemblies, and the executive bodies were zemstvo boards. Zemstvos had no political rights and engaged in solving local problems: approval of local taxes and their distribution, opening medical stations, schools, road construction, land management, and others.

The municipal reform of 1870 created urban self-government: the city Duma and board, which solved communal issues: firefighting, urban improvement, establishment of schools and hospitals, development of trade, and municipal taxation.

On November 20, 1864, the decree on the judicial reform was signed. The court was built on the principles of the abolition of class privileges, equality of parties before the law, publicity and adversarial nature of the process, irremovability of judges, and independence from the administration. Two types of courts were introduced: magistrate courts (*mirovye sudy*) and general courts. Criminal cases were considered with the participation of jurors – 12 jurors who, having studied the essence of the case, issued a verdict – guilty, not guilty, and if guilty, whether the defendant deserves leniency. The Senate was the highest judicial instance. The judicial reform was the most radical, democratic, and consistent of all bourgeois reforms of the 1860s – 1870s.

In the course of the education reform in 1863, a university charter was introduced, approving a certain autonomy and democracy of these educational institutions. The school charter of 1864 provided formal equality in education and expanded the network of schools. Starting in 1870, women's gymnasiums began to open, and higher women's courses appeared. In 1865, the press reform was carried out, and censorship was eased.

The military reform of 1874 replaced the recruitment levies with universal military service starting at age 21. Soldiers served for 6 years, sailors for 7, those with primary education for 3 years, secondary education for 1.5, and higher education for 6 months. Officer training improved, and re-equipment was carried out. As a result, a small peacetime army with a well-trained reserve in case of war was created.

The bourgeois reforms of the 1860s – 1870s were a significant step forward and contributed to the development of capitalism in Russia.

The development of capitalism in Russia and the implementation of military reform changed the country's position, creating conditions for solving the Eastern Question. In 1870, France was defeated in the Franco-Prussian War, and in January 1871, the German Empire was established. Chancellor and Minister of Foreign Affairs of Russia A.M. Gorchakov used the prevailing situation and announced the annulment of the clauses of the Treaty of Paris of 1856. In early 1871, the London Conference granted Russia the right to restore the Black Sea Fleet and

naval bases. In 1873, the League of the Three Emperors (*Soyuz trekh imperatorov*) was formed between Russia, Germany, and Austria-Hungary.

In 1875, Bosnia and Herzegovina rose up against Turkey, followed in 1876 by the Bulgarians, the peoples of Serbia and Montenegro, who suffered defeat. The struggle of the Balkan Slavs evoked a sympathetic response from Russian society (collection of donations, creation of Slavic committees, purchase and transportation of weapons to the Balkans, volunteer detachments).

The Russian government tried to achieve a peaceful restriction of Ottoman arbitrariness and the granting of autonomy to Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Bulgaria. Turkey rejected these proposals. On April 12, 1877, Russia declared war on Turkey. The war unfolded on two fronts: the Balkan and the Caucasian. The war ended with the signing of the Treaty of San Stefano. Its conditions, which significantly strengthened Russia's positions in the Balkans, were revised by the Congress of Berlin in the summer of 1878. As a result, Russia received part of Bessarabia, Kars, Ardahan, and Batum. Northern Bulgaria received autonomy, while Serbia, Montenegro, and Romania gained independence.

During these years, changes in Russia's territory continued. Thus, in 1858, under the Treaty of Aigun with China, lands along the left bank of the Amur River were returned to Russia, and in 1860, under the Treaty of Beijing, the Ussuriisky region passed to it. Vladivostok, Khabarovsk, Blagoveshchensk, and other cities were founded on the new lands.

In 1867, Alaska with the Aleutian Islands was sold to the USA for \$7.2 million to strengthen ties with this state and replenish the treasury. In 1875, Russia exchanged the Kuril Islands with Japan for the southern part of Sakhalin.

In the mid-19th century, Russia intensified its policy in Central Asia. Russia found itself in direct proximity to three Central Asian states: the Emirate of Bukhara, the Khanate of Kokand, and the Khanate of Khiva. Russia's policy in this region was opposed by England, which sought to subjugate the Central Asian states to its influence. Fears of growing British influence forced the Russian government to act more decisively. Besides military-strategic interests, Russia had economic ones: the search for new profitable markets and sources of raw materials. The conquest of Central Asia rid it of slavery, slave trade, and the arbitrariness of khans, and internecine strife ceased. Central Asia was included in the orbit of the Russian economy.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The peasant reform of 1861: causes, stages of preparation, consequences.

2. The era of the Great Reforms (financial reform, local administration reforms: zemstvo and municipal reforms, judicial reform, education reform, military reform).
3. The political crisis of the 1870s – 1880s.
4. Features of the implementation of reforms in the North Caucasus.
5. The European direction of foreign policy during the reign of Alexander II.
6. New accents of Russian diplomacy: Russia's policy in Central Asia.
7. Relations of the Russian Empire with Far Eastern states (China and Japan).
8. The Russo-Turkish War (1877 – 1878): the price of victory. The Congress of Berlin.

Assignments

1. Read the provided historical sources. What do you see as the next step forward in implementing the reforms of the 1860s – 1870s?

From the Regulations on Zemstvo Institutions (January 1, 1864) 1. For the management of affairs relating to local economic benefits and needs of each province and each district, provincial and district zemstvo institutions are formed, the composition and procedure of which are determined by these regulations. ...

7. Zemstvo institutions in their resolutions and orders may not go beyond the circle of affairs indicated to them...

From the Judicial Statutes (November 20, 1864) 1. Judicial power belongs to: magistrate judges, congresses of magistrate judges, district courts, judicial chambers, and the Governing Senate as the supreme court of cassation. ...

7. To determine the guilt or innocence of defendants in criminal cases, jurors are added to the composition of judicial places in cases indicated in the code of criminal procedure. ...

24. Elections of magistrate judges are held at district zemstvo assemblies. ...

81. Jurors are elected from local residents of all classes...

From the Municipal Regulations (June 16, 1870) 1. Care and management of municipal economy and improvement are granted to the urban public administration, and supervision of its lawful execution – to the governor, on the exact basis of the rules of these regulations. ...

...

9. Urban public administration in its resolutions and orders may not go beyond the circle of affairs indicated to it...

From the Charter on Compulsory Military Service (January 1, 1874) 1. Defense of the throne and the fatherland is a sacred duty of every Russian subject. The male population, without distinction of classes, is subject to military service. ...

4. *Monetary ransom for military service and replacement by a volunteer are not allowed.*

...

5. *The armed forces of the state consist of standing troops and the militia. The latter is called up only in extraordinary circumstances of wartime.*

2. Fill out the outline map Expansion of the Territory of the Russian Empire in the Second Half of the 19th Century.

3. In the list of Russian state institutions, note those that were operating in 1855: **Supreme Privy Council, Senate, Synod, Ministries, Colleges, Conference, Prikazes, State Duma, Zemsky Sobors, State Council.**

4. Topics for reports:

Reformers of Alexander II (at students' choice: D.A. Milyutin, N.A. Milyutin, and others)

Heroes of the Russo-Turkish War of 1877 – 1878 (at students' choice: M.D. Skobelev, I.V. Gurko, and others).

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1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 2 / author-comp.: M.E. Kolesnikova, D.S. Tkachenko, Z.V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 297 p.

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1. Danilov, A.A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A.A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A.N. Sakharov, A.N. Bokhanov, V.A. Shestakov; ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.
3. Lyashenko, L.M. Tsar-Liberator: Life and Deeds of Alexander II. – M., 1994.
4. Lyashenko, L.M. Alexander II: Victory and Tragedy. – M., 2011.

PRACTICAL CLASS 10

Topic 11.1 Russia at the Turn of the 20th Century

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia at the beginning of the 20th century.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia at the beginning of the 20th century;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic is determined by the fact that this was a turning point in the country's history, a period of rapid economic development when modernization processes took place not only in the economic sphere but also in the entire way of life of many peoples of the empire. This period, marked by reforms and the revolutionary movement, opened up new development prospects for the country; it was precisely at this time that the first steps towards the formation of civil society and a state governed by the rule of law were taken in Russia.

Theoretical part

At the turn of the 20th century, Russia remained an absolute monarchy. At the head of the state was Emperor Nicholas II, endowed with the full plenitude of legislative, executive, and judicial power.

At the beginning of the 20th century, the situation in the Far East sharply escalated. Russia established quite friendly relations with its great eastern neighbor, China. In 1898, Russia leased the Liaodong Peninsula from China, where it established the naval base of Port Arthur. Russia built the Chinese Eastern Railway and concentrated Russian troops on the border with Korea. This caused an exacerbation of contradictions between Russia and Japan.

On the night of January 27, 1904, the Japanese fleet attacked ships in the outer roadstead of Port Arthur. On the afternoon of January 27, near the Korean port of Chemulpo, an unequal battle took place between the crew of the cruiser *Varyag* and the gunboat *Koreets* against 14 enemy vessels. The *Varyag* was scuttled by its crew, and the *Koreets* was blown up. Vice-Admiral S.O. Makarov, who headed the Pacific Squadron, drowned in March 1904 on the battleship *Petropavlovsk* after hitting a mine.

In the spring of 1904, the deployment of Japanese troops in Korea and on the Liaodong Peninsula began. In May 1904, Port Arthur was blockaded. An attempt to lift the siege of Port Arthur proved unsuccessful. In August 1904, in the Battle of Liaoyang, the Japanese failed to encircle the Russian troops, and the battle ended with the withdrawal of the Russians. In September 1904, the commander of the Russian troops, General A.N. Kuropatkin, launched an offensive on the Shakhe River. Having a numerical advantage, he led the offensive with part of his forces and suffered a defeat, and the parties transitioned to positional warfare.

The besieged Port Arthur was in a difficult situation, its garrison having repelled several assaults. On December 20, 1904, the head of the Kwantung fortified region, General A.M. Stessel, signed the act of surrender of the Port Arthur fortress. This allowed the Japanese to transfer additional forces to Manchuria, where the Battle of Mukden took place in February 1905. Another attempt by the Japanese army to encircle Russian troops was unsuccessful. The last major event of the war was the Battle of Tsushima in May 1905, which ended in the defeat of the Russian 2nd and 3rd Pacific Squadrons.

In August 1905, the Treaty of Portsmouth was signed in the USA. The Russian delegation was headed by S.Yu. Witte. Under the treaty, southern Sakhalin passed to Japan, Korea became a sphere of influence for Japan, and the Liaodong Peninsula passed to Japan on a lease basis.

The causes of the revolution of 1905 – 1907 lay in the socio-political system of Russia and the feudal survivals that hindered the development of society. The unresolved agrarian-peasant question, the preservation of large landlord landownership and peasant land scarcity, a high degree of exploitation of workers, political disenfranchisement, and the lack of political freedoms – all this led to revolutionary events. The deterioration of the financial situation of working people due to the economic crisis of 1900 – 1903 and the Russo-Japanese war accelerated the development of the revolution.

In its development, the revolution went through three stages:

1. January 1905 to the beginning of autumn 1905. It proceeded under the rise of the revolution, marked by such events as the shooting of a peaceful demonstration on January 9 in St. Petersburg (Bloody Sunday), spring-summer worker protests in Moscow, Odessa, Warsaw, Lodz, Riga, and Baku, the creation and activity of the first council of authorized deputies in Ivanovo-

Voznesensk, the mutiny on the battleship *Knyaz Potemkin-Tavrichesky*, and the creation of the Peasant Union. Under the pressure of these events, the government made its first concession and promised to convene the State Duma; the draft law on it was developed by Bulygin.

2. The highest rise of the revolution. At the beginning of October 1905, the country was shaken by a general All-Russian political strike. About 2 million people went on strike in total. The autocracy did not have reliable troops to establish a military dictatorship. S.Yu. Witte prepared a draft Manifesto On the Improvement of the State Order, signed by Nicholas II on October 17, 1905. The Manifesto granted civil liberties: inviolability of the person, freedom of conscience, speech, assembly, and unions; expanded the circle of voters to the Duma; and the Duma received legislative rights: without its approval, a law could not enter into force. The result of the promulgation of the Manifesto was the formation of political parties, the most influential of which were the Octobrists, Cadets, and Black Hundred organizations, as well as the legalization of the activities of the Socialist Revolutionaries (SRs) and Social Democrats. December 1905 became a month of strikes and armed uprisings in Moscow, Kharkov, Chita, and a number of other large cities.

3. January 1906 to June 3, 1907 – the decline and retreat of the revolution. The main events were worker strikes and stoppages in various regions of the country, a significant surge of peasant performances in the summer of 1906, sailor uprisings in Kronstadt and Sveaborg, and the national liberation movement in Poland, Finland, and the Baltics. During this period, the First and Second State Dumas operated. The dissolution of the Second State Duma on June 3, 1907, and the adoption of a new electoral law without the consent of the Duma marked the end of the revolution.

The revolution significantly changed the life of the country. Russia acquired a State Duma, political parties, trade unions, public organizations were created, and redemption payments were abolished.

In order to fulfill the provisions of the Manifesto of October 17, 1905, On the Improvement of the State Order, laws on elections to the State Duma and on the State Duma itself were developed. The First State Duma operated for 72 days from April 27 to July 9, 1906. The majority of seats (43%) were won by the Cadets. The Trudoviks, who represented the interests of the peasantry, and the Mensheviks won 23% of the seats. The Chairman of the Duma was the Cadet S.A. Muromtsev. The First State Duma and the government entered into an irreconcilable conflict, and the Duma was dissolved. The Second State Duma operated from February 20 to June 3, 1907, and turned out to be even more radical than the first. The number of Cadet deputies halved, while left-wing parties received 43% of the seats (including the Bolsheviks). The Chairman of the Duma became the Cadet F.A. Golovin. On June 3, 1907, the Manifesto on the dissolution of the Duma and a new electoral law, altered in such a way that the majority in the Duma belonged to the

wealthiest strata of society, were promulgated. Since the law was adopted without the approval of the Duma, which violated the regulation on the Duma, this event was named the Third of June Coup d'État.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The Russian Empire at the turn of the 20th century.
2. Russia in the system of international relations.
3. The First Russian Revolution.
4. The First and Second State Dumas.

Assignments

1. During the negotiations in Portsmouth, discussing the results of the Russo-Japanese war, the head of the Russian delegation stated: *There are no victors or vanquished here*. What made it possible for Witte to assert this?
2. Compile a comparative table Political parties in Russia, showing programs on the agrarian and labor issues, and the state system. Examine the prerequisites and features of the formation of Russian multi-party system.
3. The elections to the Duma were boycotted by the Social Democrats (Bolsheviks), Socialist Revolutionaries (SRs), and right-wing parties. How could it happen that parties standing at the poles of the political struggle unanimously boycotted the voting for Russia's first parliament?
4. Give a general description of the Manifesto of October 17, 1905.

From the Manifesto (October 17, 1905)

...We place upon the duty of the Government the fulfillment of Our inflexible will:

- 1) *To grant the population the unshakable foundations of civil freedom on the principles of actual inviolability of the person, freedom of conscience, speech, assembly, and unions.*
- 2) *Without stopping the intended elections to the State Duma, to draw immediately into participation in the Duma, to the extent possible corresponding to the shortness of the remaining time until the convocation of the Duma, those classes of the population that are now completely deprived of electoral rights, granting thereafter the further development of the principle of general suffrage to the newly established legislative order.*
- 3) *To establish, as an unshakable rule, that no law could acquire force without the approval of the State Duma and that the people's elect should be provided with the possibility of actual participation in supervising the legality of actions of the authorities*

established by us. We call upon all faithful sons of Russia to remember their duty to the Motherland, to help stop this unprecedented turmoil, and together with Us to exert all efforts to restore peace and quiet on their native land.

Literature

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1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
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PRACTICAL CLASS 11

Topic 11.2 Russia at the Turn of the 20th Century

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency, implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the Russian Empire from 1907 to 1916, as well as the history of the First World War.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge on the history of Russia from 1907 to 1916;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

This historical period is very important and complex in the history of Russia. The coup d'état of June 3, 1907, marked the beginning of the Third of June monarchy. Nicholas II understood that Russia could no longer live without a representative body – the State Duma. The First World War was the result of acute contradictions that arose between the leading world powers, whose interests clashed in many regions of the globe, primarily in Asia, the Middle East, and Africa. The most acute contradictions arose between Great Britain, France, and Russia (the Entente) on the one hand, and Germany and its allies in the Triple Alliance – Austria-Hungary and Italy – on the other.

Theoretical part

The new electoral law changed the composition of the State Duma. The representation of the propertied classes – landlords and large owners – increased, while the representation of workers and peasants decreased.

The Third State Duma existed for its entire allotted time, from 1907 to June 1912. The Duma deputies approved P.A. Stolypin's agrarian reform. The essence of the reform lay in the desire to create a layer of small landowners. Peasants received the right to withdraw from the commune and could consolidate their plots into a single consolidated farm (*otrub*) or move out to

a separate homestead (*khutor*). A fund was created from part of the state and imperial lands. To purchase these and landlord lands, the Peasant Bank provided monetary loans. Taking into account peasant land scarcity in central Russia, the government encouraged the resettlement of peasants beyond the Urals. Settlers were given loans for settling in a new place, state warehouses for agricultural machinery were created, and agronomic consultations, medical, and veterinary assistance were provided.

The reform accelerated the development of capitalist relations in agriculture, led to a more rapid stratification of the peasantry, increased the marketability of farming, and brought more products to the market.

Having started successfully, the agrarian reform soon began to falter, and its pace dropped significantly. Criticism broke out against P.A. Stolypin. Socialist Revolutionaries (SRs) and Black Hundreds made about ten assassination attempts on him. On September 1, 1911, P.A. Stolypin was assassinated in the Kiev Opera Theater by the terrorist D.G. Bogrov. By 1916, about 25% of peasant households had left the commune.

The direct pretext for the First World War was the assassination on June 28, 1914, in the capital of Bosnia and Herzegovina – the city of Sarajevo – of the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and his wife by the Serb terrorist Gavrilo Princip. Instigated by Germany, Austria-Hungary presented Serbia with an ultimatum containing deliberately unacceptable demands. In the flaring conflict, Russia supported Serbia and announced general mobilization on July 29, 1914. Germany, using this circumstance as a pretext, declared war on Russia on August 1, 1914. Soon, most of the countries of the world were drawn into the war. The war lasted for more than four years – from August 1, 1914, to November 11, 1918.

The beginning of military operations was relatively successful for Russia. As early as mid-August, Russian troops launched active military operations in East Prussia (the 1st Army under the command of P.K. Rennenkampf and the 2nd under A.V. Samsonov). The German command urgently began transferring troops from the Western Front to the East. The position of Russia's allies eased, while the successes of the Russian troops gave way to failures. Samsonov's army was surrounded, and by mid-September, the Germans succeeded in ousting Russian troops from East Prussia.

The actions of the Russian army in Galicia were more successful. Having inflicted a series of serious defeats on the Austro-Hungarians, it captured Lvov and blockaded the strong fortress of Przemyśl. After that, the German command transferred troops to the east throughout the winter of 1914 – 1915. In the spring and summer of 1915, the Russian army was forced to abandon vast territories: Galicia, Poland, Lithuania, and parts of Latvia and Belarus. Its opponents failed to

knock Russia out of the war, but the losses of the Russian army were great: its technical backwardness, poor organization, and weak command – all these shortcomings became obvious.

In 1916, the Russian command organized an offensive in Galicia, where, under the command of General A.A. Brusilov, a grandiose breakthrough was accomplished in June 1916: the enemy front was broken through for a depth of up to 120 km over a stretch of 350 km. The Brusilov Breakthrough forced Austria-Hungary to begin a massive transfer of troops to the east from Italy, and its ally Germany from France. The position of Russia's allies eased significantly, but Russia no longer had the forces for a general offensive on the Eastern Front.

In the Fourth Duma, the Cadets, Octobrists, and representatives of a number of other opposition factions created the Progressive Bloc, which came out with sharp criticism of government policies and put forward a demand to form a government of public confidence – that is, a government that would actively cooperate with the Duma to solve the most important problems of the state.

The Provisional Government, which came to power in Russia after the February Revolution of 1917, actually became a hostage to old obligations. The chosen course of waging the war to a victorious end led to the organization of an unsuccessful offensive by Russian troops in the Lvov area in June 1917. In March 1918, by the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, Soviet Russia withdrew from the war, and in November 1918, the war ended with the defeat of Germany and its allies.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The government and the State Duma.
2. The Stolypin reforms.
3. The origins of the First World War.
4. The outbreak of the First World War and Russian public opinion. Stages of military operations on the Eastern Front. The East Prussian Operation.
5. The Battle of Galicia. The Battle of the Marne. The entry of the Ottoman Empire into the war. The Great Retreat of 1915. Military operations of 1916. The Brusilov Breakthrough. The Battle of Verdun. The Battle of the Somme.
6. The significance of the First World War in connection with the transformation of Russia's political system. The formation of the Progressive Bloc and its demands. The Duma and the Council of Ministers: cooperation and conflicts amid the mounting political crisis.

Assignments

1. A number of historians believe that the Stolypin agrarian reform completely failed. What other points of view on this issue are known to you? Which point of view seems more well-argued to you? Support your position with facts.
2. Prepare a report on the participants of the First World War from your city (town, village, *stanitsa*). With what awards and for what feats were they awarded?

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
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PRACTICAL CLASS 12

Topic 12. Science and Culture of Russia from the 18th to the Early 20th Centuries

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia related to the cultural achievements of the 19th and early 20th centuries.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge in the field of the cultural development of Russia from the 18th to the early 20th centuries;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

This era is characterized by an intensive flourishing of culture in Russia. National schools were created and firmly established in music, theater, painting, architecture, poetry, and literature as a whole. Russia continued to expand its territories, turning into a huge empire country. The reforms and transformations initiated in the 18th century also continued, and Russia changed at an accelerated pace, finding its rightful and worthy place among the leading powers of the world. The cultural heritage of this period still exerts a powerful influence on the public life of the people of our country.

Theoretical part

The culture of Russia in the second half of the 18th century is connected with the ideas of the Enlightenment. Education was based on class principles. For the nobility, the network of cadet corps expanded, and other closed educational institutions were created, such as the Smolny Institute for Noble Maidens. The network of primary educational institutions expanded. By the end of the 18th century, there were about 300 of them. Four-class schools operated in provincial cities, and two-class schools in district towns.

In 1755, Moscow University was founded, and in 1783, the Russian Academy for the Study of Russian Literature was established, headed by E.R. Dashkova.

Several remarkable achievements of technical thought can be distinguished. In 1766, I.I. Polzunov invented a steam engine in the Urals, and I.P. Kulibin developed a design for a bridge across the Neva, built an optical telegraph, a mechanical carriage, an elevator, and an egg-shaped watch with dancing figures.

The literature of the second half of the 18th century is characterized by the transition from classicism to romanticism. Classicism is represented by the names of poet A.D. Kantemir, playwright A.P. Sumarokov, and M.V. Lomonosov. D.I. Fonvizin was the creator of social comedy, a writer, and a diplomat. N.M. Karamzin wrote in the spirit of sentimentalism.

In architecture, the Baroque style began to give way to classicism, which utilized the traditions of antiquity. V.V. Rastrelli worked in the Baroque style (the Winter Palace, the Grand Palace in Peterhof, the Catherine Palace in Tsarskoye Selo). One of the founders of Russian classicism, V.I. Bazhenov, was the creator of the Pashkov House in Moscow and St. Michael's Castle in St. Petersburg. Designed by M.F. Kazakov, the university buildings, the Senate in the Kremlin, and the Petrovsky Palace were created in Moscow.

In painting, formal portraits created by F.S. Rokotov, V.L. Borovikovsky, and D.G. Levitsky predominated. Outstanding serf painters were the father and son Argunov. Sculpture is marked by the work of E. Falcone (The Bronze Horseman) and F.I. Shubin (portraits of Paul I and Lomonosov).

The first professional theater was opened in 1750 in Yaroslavl by F.G. Volkov. Later, his theater, headed by A.P. Sumarokov in St. Petersburg, became imperial. Landowners created theaters of serf actors, with the Sheremetev theater gaining special fame.

In the 18th century, the secular trend in culture finally triumphed, and the system of education and science took shape.

In the 19th century, Russian culture reached its highest flourishing in many branches and became an integral part of European culture. Russian culture of the 19th century is the pinnacle of Russia's centuries-old culture, its Golden Age. The culture of Russia in the early 20th century developed under significantly changed conditions. In a short period, the country experienced two wars, revolutions, and capitalist industrialization, which led to a significant change in the social structure of society, while achievements in science and technology changed views on the surrounding world.

In the early 19th century, in the field of education, there was a desire to create a unified system of public education. The lowest educational institutions were parish schools and colleges (district and urban). Secondary education was provided by gymnasiums. Higher education was

provided by universities. A number of new universities were founded: Dorpat, Vilna, St. Petersburg, Kyiv, Kazan, and Kharkov. Lyceums were opened to train senior officials. A number of technical higher educational institutions were opened – the Institute of Communications Engineers, the Institute of Civil Engineers, and the Forestry Institute. In 1832, the Imperial Military Academy was established, followed later by the Artillery and Engineering Academies.

Russian science reached world standards. N.I. Lobachevsky became the creator of non-Euclidean geometry. N.N. Zinin and A.M. Butlerov contributed to the establishment of organic chemistry. Surgeon N.I. Pirogov became the founder of field surgery. Academicians V.V. Petrov and B.S. Jacobi made discoveries in the field of electrical engineering. In 1839, the Pulkovo Observatory was opened. N.M. Karamzin made a significant contribution to the development of historical science, creating the 12-volume *History of the Russian State*.

Russian travelers made a number of important discoveries. In 1803 – 1806, I.F. Kruzenshtern and Yu.F. Lisiansky, during Russia's first round-the-world voyage, refined the map of the world and discovered a number of islands. In January 1820, F.F. Bellingshausen and M.P. Lazarev discovered Antarctica.

In literature, different trends coexisted: classicism, sentimentalism, romanticism, and realism. Realism is primarily associated with the works of A.S. Pushkin, A.S. Griboyedov, M.Yu. Lermontov, and N.V. Gogol. I.A. Goncharov, F.I. Dostoevsky, I.S. Turgenev, N.A. Nekrasov, and A.N. Ostrovsky began their creative activities. Poet V.I. Zhukovsky was a prominent representative of romanticism.

In music, under the influence of romanticism, the Russian romance appeared – through composers A.E. Varlamov, A.L. Gurilyov, and A.A. Alyabyev. The founder of Russian classical music was M.I. Glinka, author of numerous romances and the operas *A Life for the Tsar* and *Ruslan and Ludmila*. His follower, A.S. Dargomyzhsky, was the creator of songs, romances, and the operas *Rusalka* and *The Stone Guest*.

In painting, peasant life was depicted by A.G. Venetsianov, who created the school of the everyday genre (*A Sleeping Shepherd, Reapers*). Artists K.P. Bryullov (*The Last Day of Pompeii, The Horsewoman*) and A.A. Ivanov (*The Appearance of Christ to the People*) became world-famous. O.A. Kiprensky and V.A. Tropinin worked in the portrait genre. P.A. Fedotov developed the everyday genre in the spirit of realism (*The Major's Marriage Proposal, A Fresh Cavalier*).

In sculpture, notable works include those by I.P. Martos (Monument to Minin and Pozharsky), B.I. Orlovsky (Monument to Kutuzov), and P.K. Clodt (the sculptural group *Horse Tamer* on the Anichkov Bridge in St. Petersburg).

In architecture, late classicism – Empire style – was established. It is characterized by monumental forms and rich decorations: A.D. Zakharov (the Admiralty), A.N. Voronikhin (Kazan

Cathedral), K.I. Rossi (Mikhailovsky Palace, the General Staff building, and the Synod), A.A. Montferrand (St. Isaac's Cathedral), and O.I. Bove (the Bolshoi Theater building).

The centers of theatrical life were the Maly Theater in Moscow and the Alexandrinsky Theater in St. Petersburg. Theaters also opened in provincial cities. Thus, in 1845, a theater opened in Stavropol.

The achievements of the first half of the 19th century entered the treasury of world culture and served as the basis for the Golden Age of Russian culture.

The cultural development of the second half of the 19th century was greatly influenced by the bourgeois reforms of the 1860s – 1870s. The public education system included literacy schools and parish schools, which taught only the basics of literacy; district and urban schools, which provided primary education; and gymnasiums (classical and real), which were secondary educational institutions. Starting from the 1860s, women's gymnasiums were created. The total number of gymnasiums increased from 96 in 1865 to 600 at the end of the century. The literacy rate over the same period rose from 6% to 21%. By the end of the 19th century, there were 63 higher educational institutions with 30,000 students.

In the development of science, special attention was paid to the natural sciences. I.M. Sechenov created the Russian school of physiologists. V.V. Dokuchaev laid the foundations of soil science. A.M. Butlerov substantiated the theory of chemical structure of matter. D.I. Mendeleev discovered the periodic law of chemical elements. In mathematics, P.L. Chebyshev discovered the law of large numbers, and the first Russian female professor, S.V. Kovalevskaya, became famous for her research in mathematical analysis. Physicist A.G. Stoletov discovered the basics of the photoelectric effect. P.N. Yablochkov invented the arc lamp. A.S. Popov substantiated the principle of radio communication and confirmed his conclusions practically. Major geographical expeditions were carried out: by P.P. Semyonov-Tyan-Shansky and N.P. Przhevalsky in Central Asia, and N.N. Miklukho-Maclay in Southeast Asia and Australia. Significant contributions to the development of historical science were made by S.M. Solovyov and V.O. Klyuchevsky, authors of fundamental works on the history of Russia.

In fiction, the traditions established by A.S. Pushkin continued, distinguished by realism and an appeal to moral problems. The works of L.N. Tolstoy, I.S. Turgenev, and F.M. Dostoevsky gained worldwide fame. N.A. Nekrasov in poetry and A.N. Ostrovsky in dramaturgy played important roles. The creative works of A.P. Chekhov and A.K. Tolstoy also developed.

In music, a group of composers known as the Mighty Handful (*The Five*) was formed: M.A. Balakirev, M.P. Mussorgsky, A.P. Borodin, N.A. Rimsky-Korsakov, and C.A. Cui. P.I. Tchaikovsky became a great Russian composer – operas *Eugene Onegin*, *The Queen of Spades*, ballets *Swan Lake*, *The Nutcracker*, along with symphonies, romances, and concertos. The first

Russian conservatories were established in St. Petersburg and Moscow on the initiative of N. Rubinstein.

In painting, in 1870, the Association of Traveling Art Exhibitions (*Peredvizhniki* or *The Wanderers*) was formed under the leadership of I.N. Kramskoy. Among its participants were V.G. Perov (*Troika, Tea Drinking in Mytishchi*), I.E. Repin (*Barge Haulers on the Volga, They Did Not Expect Him*), V.I. Surikov (*Boyarynya Morozova, Suvorov Crossing the Alps*), and landscape painters A.K. Savrasov and I.I. Levitan. The works of V.V. Vereshchagin, V.D. Polenov, V.M. Vasnetsov, I.I. Shikhin, and I.K. Aivazovsky gained wide fame. Sculptor M.O. Mikeschin created the Millennium of Russia monument in Novgorod. In 1880, a monument to Pushkin by A.M. Opekushin opened in Moscow.

In architecture, eclecticism – a mixture of styles – predominated. Architect K.A. Thon erected the Grand Kremlin Palace, the buildings of the Armory, the Nikolaevsky and Moscow railway stations, and the Cathedral of Christ the Saviour.

In the early 20th century, there was an increase in the level of education. By 1917, the literacy rate was about 30%. The educational system included primary schools (popular and urban schools, parish and Sunday schools), secondary schools (classical gymnasiums and real schools), and higher education (universities and specialized institutes). Private educational institutions became widespread.

Periodicals acquired great importance in the life of Russian society, with the number of newspapers and magazines increasing significantly. The largest publishing houses of I.D. Sytin and A.S. Suvorin produced cheap publications to educate the people.

A number of prominent Russian scientists gained recognition in the country and worldwide fame. The Nobel Prize was awarded to physiologist I.P. Pavlov in 1904 and microbiologist I.I. Mechnikov in 1908. A huge role in the development of science was played by physicist P.N. Lebedev, radio engineer A.S. Popov, geologist I.M. Gubkin, botanist K.A. Timiryazev, and the founder of the theory of cosmonautics K.E. Tsiolkovsky. The beginning of Russian aircraft manufacturing is associated with N.E. Zhukovsky and I.I. Sikorsky. Major contributions to the development of history were made by V.O. Klyuchevsky, P.N. Milyukov, and S.F. Platonov. A special place belongs to religious philosophers: S.N. Bulgakov, N.A. Berdyaev, and P.A. Florensky.

In the development of artistic culture, there were two main trends: the traditional realistic trend and the modernist trend, associated with a departure from traditional norms and the search for new artistic solutions.

The most famous realistic writers were L.N. Tolstoy, A.P. Chekhov, M. Gorky, D.N. Mamin-Sibiryak, I.A. Bunin, V.G. Korolenko, and A.I. Kuprin. Representatives of modernist

movements were D.S. Merezhkovsky, Z.N. Gippius, K.D. Balmont, and F.K. Sologub. The early 20th century was a true flourishing of Russian poetry: A.A. Blok, V.Y. Bryusov, V.V. Mayakovsky, S.A. Yesenin, N.S. Gumilyov, and others belonged to various modernist movements.

In fine arts, there were movements associated with the traditions of the 19th century as well as avant-garde trends. Realistic and democratic traditions in painting were continued by I.E. Repin, V.I. Surikov, V.A. Serov, V.M. Vasnetsov, and V.D. Polenov. The modernist movement was represented by a number of creative associations: *World of Art (Mir iskusstva)* – A.N. Benois, E.E. Lanceray, K.A. Somov; *Blue Rose* – P.V. Kuznetsov, M.S. Saryan; *Jack of Diamonds* – P.P. Konchalovsky, I.I. Mashkov. Russian abstractionism also had its beginnings with K.S. Malevich. Working in the traditions of realism were M.A. Vrubel, B.M. Kustodiev, M.V. Nesterov, and K.A. Korovin.

Theatrical life was rich. The largest theaters were the Bolshoi and the Mariinsky. A true revolution in theater art is associated with the creation by K.S. Stanislavski and V.I. Nemirovich-Danchenko of the Moscow Art Theater, which staged plays by A.P. Chekhov and M. Gorky. The Russian vocal school was glorified by A.V. Nezhdanova, L.V. Sobinov, and F.I. Chaliapin. In 1907 – 1913, S.P. Diaghilev organized the Russian Seasons ballet performances in Paris, which enjoyed enormous success.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Science and education (formation of scientific and educational infrastructure, discoveries of Russian scientists, primary and secondary education).
2. Architecture and painting (the era of baroque and classicism, architecture of the 19th to early 20th centuries, Russian painting of the 18th to mid-19th centuries, new trends in painting).
3. Russian language and literature (formation of the modern Russian language, literary life of the 18th century, literature of the Golden and Silver Ages, the problem of book accessibility).
4. Music and theater (theatrical life in the first half of the 18th century, serf theater, imperial theaters, new trends in the development of music and theater).
5. Sculpture.

Assignments

1. Fill out the table Main achievements of Russian culture in the second half of the 19th century: literature, architecture, painting, music.

2. According to N. Berdyaev, there was a real cultural renaissance in Russia at the beginning of the 20th century. What other judgments about the development of culture in Russia at the beginning of the 20th century are known to you? Which point of view do you consider more convincing? Name facts and provisions that can support your point of view.

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 2 / author-comp.: M.E. Kolesnikova, D.S. Tkachenko, Z.V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 297 p.

Additional Literature

1. Danilov, A.A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A.A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A.N. Sakharov, A.N. Bokhanov, V.A. Shestakov; ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

PRACTICAL CLASS 13

Topic 13. The Great Russian Revolution of 1917 – 1922. The Tragedy of the Civil War.

Aim: shaping the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia related to the Great Russian Revolution.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of Russia from 1917 to 1922;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

During these specified years, events occurred that changed not only the country, but the entire course of the world historical process. Having seized power, the Bolsheviks carried out a number of social and economic transformations. The revolution in Russia was supposed to be the beginning of the world proletarian revolution, but instead it led to a civil war between opponents and supporters of Soviet power. The Civil War had catastrophic consequences for the country and caused the socio-economic disintegration of society.

Theoretical part

By 1917, an all-national revolutionary crisis had developed in Russia. All conditions for the victory of the revolution had emerged. The main revolutionary events in February 1917 took place in Petrograd. Since the beginning of 1917, significant food shortages began to be felt here, and factories were closing due to a lack of raw materials. Strikes and stoppages broke out spontaneously. Alongside economic demands, workers also put forward political ones.

On February 28, Nicholas II left Mogilev for Tsarskoye Selo, but on the night of March 1, his train was stopped and sent to Pskov. On March 2, 1917, at Dno station, Nicholas II received prominent figures of the State Duma, A.I. Guchkov and V.V. Shulgin, who persuaded him to sign

the Manifesto on the Abdication of the Throne on his own behalf and on behalf of his son Alexei in favor of his brother Mikhail, who, in turn, refused the throne on March 3.

The newly formed Soviet of Soldiers' Deputies merged with the Workers' Soviet. The Petrograd Soviet's Order No. 1 was adopted, establishing that military units must obey the Soviet rather than officers in their political actions. The order was transmitted to the troops and played a decisive role in the army's transition to the side of the revolution and its subordination to the Petrograd Soviet.

On March 3, 1917, the Declaration on the program and composition of the Provisional Government (pending the convocation of the Constituent Assembly) was published. Prince G.E. Lvov became its chairman. The Provisional Government failed to unite Russian society. The first crisis of the Provisional Government occurred after Minister of Foreign Affairs P.N. Milyukov stated on April 18 that the war would continue until a victorious end. This provoked massive demonstrations in Petrograd and other cities. P.N. Milyukov and Minister of War A.I. Guchkov resigned. On May 5, 1917, the first coalition government was formed, including 6 Menshevik and Socialist Revolutionary (SR) ministers.

In June, the second, June political crisis erupted. At the First All-Russian Congress of Soviets, Bolshevik leader V.I. Lenin stated that his party was ready to take full power and sharply criticized the conciliatory stance of the SR-Menshevik Soviet leaders.

Tension in the country reached its maximum. Either the fall of the Provisional Government or decisive action on its part was inevitable. Such a situation could not continue indefinitely. On July 4, 1917, a 500,000-strong demonstration against the policy of the Provisional Government took place in Petrograd under Bolshevik slogans. Armed soldiers and sailors were among the demonstrators. The Provisional Government, with the consent of the Soviet, used force. Following these events, Petrograd was declared under martial law. An order was issued for the arrest of V.I. Lenin and other Bolshevik leaders, as they were considered at that moment the most dangerous force for the Provisional Government and played a destabilizing role in society. After the events of July 4, 1917, the Bolsheviks dropped the slogan All Power to the Soviets and charted a course toward an armed uprising.

The Provisional Government formed a new composition, headed by SR A.F. Kerensky. Thus, the SR-Menshevik leadership ended up at the head of both the government and the Soviets, which meant the end of dual power. Seeking to prevent the further development of crisis, restore order, and stop the disintegration of the army, part of the high command of the Russian army, with the support of certain political circles, attempted a military coup led by General L.G. Kornilov.

In late August, Kornilov issued an ultimatum to Kerensky demanding the transfer of power to him. On August 25, 1917, he dispatched General A.M. Krymov's 3rd Cavalry Corps toward

Petrograd. On August 27, 1917, Kerensky declared Kornilov a traitor; on August 30, 1917, Kornilov's troops were stopped, and he himself was arrested.

The Bolsheviks played a major role in suppressing the mutiny by conducting active propaganda among the mutinous units and creating the Red Guard. A consequence of the Kornilov mutiny and its liquidation was the process of Bolshevikization of the Soviets. From September 1917, leadership of the Soviets passed to the Bolsheviks and their supporters.

Meanwhile, Kerensky attempted to take the initiative into his own hands. On September 1, 1917, Russia was proclaimed a republic. The Provisional Government approved the regulation on the pre-parliament – the Provisional Council of the Russian Republic.

Thus, after the suppression of the Kornilov mutiny, the popularity of the Bolsheviks increased sharply, and the Bolshevikization of the Soviets began. The Provisional Government also stepped up its activities, but time had been lost, and a political and economic crisis was mounting in the country.

In the autumn of 1917, the economic and political crisis in Russia reached its limit. The Provisional Government increasingly lost support from the population. In a situation of general national economic and political crisis, decisive action was necessary. The slowness of the Provisional Government alienated the people from it.

Only the Bolsheviks in this situation put forward democratic slogans understandable to the people, including withdrawal from the war, immediate allotment of land to peasants, resolution of the food question, and others.

On October 12, 1917, the Military-Revolutionary Committee (MRC) was created under the Petrograd Soviet to serve as the headquarters for the uprising. On October 16, the Central Committee of the RSDLP(b) decided to prepare for action in the near future. During the day on October 24 and on the night of October 25, revolutionary forces captured strategically important objects in Petrograd. On the morning of October 25, newspapers published Lenin's appeal To the Citizens of Russia regarding the overthrow of the Provisional Government and the transfer of power to the MRC.

On the evening of October 25, the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets opened. Written by V.I. Lenin, the proclamation To Workers, Soldiers, and Peasants was adopted, speaking of the transfer of power to the Congress of Soviets and the immediate tasks of the new government. Russia was proclaimed a Republic of Soviets. At the first session of the congress, it was also announced that the Winter Palace had been captured and the Provisional Government arrested. At the second session, the decrees On Peace and On Land were adopted, and the Soviet government was formed.

In the decree On Peace, all warring countries were offered a 3-month armistice to prepare and conclude democratic peace treaties without annexations and indemnities. The Decree on Land was based on the mandates of peasant committees summarized by the SRs in the summer of 1917. Private ownership of land was abolished, the leasing and sale of land and the use of hired labor were prohibited, and egalitarian land use – meaning the division of land according to the number of consumers – was established. All land passed into the disposal of volost committees.

Delegates of the congress created a provisional government pending the convocation of the Constituent Assembly – the Council of People's Commissars (CPC / *Sovnarkom*). It included prominent figures of the RSDLP(b) headed by V.I. Lenin: L.D. Trotsky, I.V. Stalin, A.I. Rykov, A.V. Lunacharsky, and others. The All-Russian Congress of Soviets became the highest legislative body. In the intervals between congresses, these functions were performed by the All-Russian Central Executive Committee (VTsIK).

The Civil War, as the most acute form of social confrontation and armed struggle for power between opposing social groups, was a continuation and development of the revolutionary process unfolding in Russia. On May 25, 1918, the uprising of the 45,000-strong Czechoslovak Corps, consisting of captive soldiers of the Austro-Hungarian army, began. As a result, Soviet power was overthrown in the Volga region, the Urals, and Siberia. The Volunteer Army led by A.I. Denikin inflicted a defeat on Soviet troops in the North Caucasus; Don Cossacks under A.P. Krasnov approached Tsaritsyn, and Ural Cossacks under A.I. Dutov captured Orenburg. Under these conditions, the Bolshevik leadership accelerated the creation of the Red Army by carrying out mobilization and attracting career officers who had served in the tsarist army. Entente countries attempted to overthrow Soviet power through direct intervention. As early as March – April 1918, British, French, and then American troops landed in Murmansk and Arkhangelsk. In November – December 1918, a British landing took place in Batumi and Novorossiysk; French, British, and Italian in Odessa and Sevastopol; and American and Japanese in the Far East. By the beginning of 1919, more than 200,000 foreign soldiers and officers were on the territory of Russia.

Western countries decided to rely on White Guard generals who, from the autumn of 1918, pushed socialists out of anti-Bolshevik governments. In Siberia, Admiral A.V. Kolchak came to power. In the north, General E.K. Miller began to play a leading role, and N.N. Yudenich in the northwest. In the south, the dictatorship of General Denikin was strengthened. Numerous, well-armed, and organized white general armies funded by the Entente ringed Soviet Russia. However, the generals failed to unite their efforts, while the Bolsheviks managed to stabilize the situation in their rear and provide the Red Army with everything necessary.

After a series of heavy defeats, the Red Army ultimately achieved success everywhere. A.V. Kolchak, who captured Ufa in March 1919 and pushed toward the Volga, was stopped and

pushed back at the end of April by the troops of the Eastern Front under the command of S.S. Kamenev and M.V. Frunze. In the summer, the Red Army captured the Urals and began advancing deep into Siberia. In January 1920, Kolchak's forces were defeated near Krasnoyarsk, and Kolchak was shot in Irkutsk.

From June to October 1919, A.I. Denikin's armies captured Tsaritsyn, Kharkov, Kiev, Kursk, Oryol, Voronezh, and advanced on Moscow. But at the end of October, they were stopped by units of the Red Army and under their blows began to retreat south, losing all of Ukraine and the North Caucasus by the spring of 1920. White Guard troops entrenched themselves in Crimea under the command of General P.N. Wrangel. Two attempts by General N.N. Yudenich to capture Petrograd in the spring and autumn of 1919 also ended in failure.

In April 1920, Poland entered the war against Soviet Russia, receiving military and financial assistance from the Entente. After initial successes (Kiev was captured in May), the Poles began to suffer defeats. From late May 1920, the Western and Southwestern fronts of the Red Army launched an offensive against the Poles and not only liberated the captured territories, but also entered Poland, striving to capture Warsaw. However, Soviet troops became overextended from their rear supplies, which the enemy took advantage of by launching a strong counterstrike. Suffering defeat, the Red Army retreated. The RSFSR had to conclude an armistice with Poland in October 1920 and sign a peace treaty in Riga on March 18, 1921, according to which Western Ukraine and Western Belarus remained with Poland.

Meanwhile, P.N. Wrangel launched offensives from Crimea in June and September 1920, striving to capture the Donbass and the south of Ukraine. At the end of October, Southern Front troops under the command of M.V. Frunze launched a general offensive against P.N. Wrangel, broke into Crimea, and completely mastered it by November 17, 1920. The Civil War in the European part of Russia ended. Military operations in the Far East continued until the end of 1922.

The victory of the Bolsheviks was due to the concentration of all forces (facilitated by the policy of War Communism), the transformation of the Red Army into a real military force headed by a number of talented commanders (with the involvement of professional military specialists from former tsarist officers), and the targeted use of all economic resources of the central part of European Russia remaining in their hands.

The problems of the Civil War and the assessments of both sides' actions still attract close attention from historians and generate numerous discussions. But one thing is clear – the Civil War was the greatest tragedy for the entire people, breaking the destinies of individuals and entire generations, and hindering the further development of Russia.

The conduct of large-scale military operations, the need to carry out economic transformations in the country, and enormous difficulties in supplying the population and the army

with food, and industry with raw materials and fuel under wartime conditions led to the creation of the War Communism system. Its main features were:

- 1) nationalization of all industry – by the end of 1918, more than a third of industrial enterprises passed into state ownership, after which medium and many small enterprises were nationalized, all reoriented to produce weapons, ammunition, and everything necessary for waging war;
- 2) hyper-centralization of industrial management, the creation of trusts and *glavks* (chief committees), which was supposed to help quickly resolve major economic problems;
- 3) surplus appropriation (*prodrazverstka*), the introduction of which was linked to the catastrophic food situation; the threat of famine forced the Bolsheviks to start practically free grain requisitioning from the peasantry beginning in January 1919, and from 1920 – potatoes, vegetables, and other agricultural products;
- 4) ban on private trade and curtailment of commodity-money relations, directly connected with surplus appropriation;
- 5) payment in kind for workers and employees, free public utilities and transport, linked to the complete depreciation of money and curtailment of commodity-money relations; instead of monetary wages, food and industrial goods rations began to be issued;
- 6) egalitarian remuneration of labor for workers and employees;
- 7) universal labor conscription; all able-bodied citizens aged 16 to 50 were required to engage in socially useful labor, failing which they were subject to forced labor.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Causes of the revolutionary crisis of 1917.
2. The fall of the monarchy.
3. Russia from February to October.
4. The Bolsheviks' coming to power.
5. The Civil War as a special stage of the revolution. Main fronts of the Civil War and military operations on them.
6. The socio-economic policy of the Bolsheviks during the Civil War.

Assignments

1. Read the document and answer the questions.

From the Act of Abdication of Sovereign Emperor Nicholas II from the Throne of the Russian State (March 2, 1917):

In the days of great struggle with an external enemy who has sought for almost three years to enslave our homeland, it has pleased Almighty God to send Russia a new heavy trial. The internal popular unrest that has begun threatens to have a disastrous effect on the further conduct of this stubborn war. The fate of Russia, the honor of the heroic army, the welfare of the people, and the entire future of our dear Fatherland demand that the war be brought to a victorious end at any cost... In these decisive days in the life of Russia, we have deemed it our duty of conscience to facilitate for our people a close unity and rallying of all popular forces for the swiftest achievement of victory, and, in agreement with the State Duma, we have recognized it as good to abdicate the Throne of the Russian State and lay down supreme power. Not wishing to part with our beloved son, we pass our heritage to our brother, Grand Duke Mikhail Alexandrovich, and bless him upon his accession to the Throne of the Russian State... We enjoin our brother to rule state affairs in full and unbreakable unity with the representatives of the people... On those principles to be established by them... May God help Russia.

- 1) Indicate the causes of Emperor Nicholas II's abdication from the throne.
- 2) Did the act lead to the expected results?
- 3) What government bodies were created as a result of this manifesto?

2. Read the document and answer the questions.

From the proclamation of General L.G. Kornilov (August 28, 1917):

.....Russian people! Our great homeland is dying. The hour of its demise is near. Forced to speak out openly – I, General Kornilov, declare that the Provisional Government, under the pressure of the majority of the Soviets, is acting in full agreement with the plans of the German General Staff and, simultaneously with the upcoming landing of enemy forces on the Riga coast, is killing the army and shaking the country from within... I declare to everyone and anyone that I personally need nothing except the preservation of Great Russia, and I swear to lead the people – through victory over the enemy – to the Constituent Assembly, at which they will decide their own destiny and choose the structure of new state life....

- 1) What goals did General Kornilov pursue in undertaking his speech?
 - 2) How can you characterize this speech?
 - 3) What were the consequences of this speech?
3. There are two points of view on the prospects of Russia's development in 1917:
- 1) The victory of the Bolsheviks in October 1917 was inevitable.
 - 2) An alternative path of development that did not provide for the Bolsheviks coming to power was possible.

Indicate which of the named points of view seems more preferable to you. Give your arguments.

4. In February – March 1918, a serious split emerged in the coalition government of Bolsheviks and Left SRs on the issue of conducting negotiations with Germany on concluding a separate peace. Bolshevik leader V.I. Lenin believed that peace needed to be signed on any terms. Left SRs and some Bolsheviks believed that signing peace with the imperialist government of Germany would be a betrayal of the ideas of the revolution. However, negotiations continued, and peace was signed. Why did Lenin insist on concluding peace? Provide at least two reasons. What consequences did the conclusion of peace have for the internal political life of Soviet Russia? Name at least three consequences.

5. Seminar report topics:

The execution of the royal family

Political portrait of Lenin

Leaders of the White movement (student's choice: A.V. Kolchak, A.I. Denikin, N.N. Yudenich, P.N. Wrangel, etc.)

Leaders of the Red movement (student's choice: V.I. Chapayev, S.M. Budyonny, M.V. Frunze, etc.)

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 2 / author-comp.: M.E. Kolesnikova, D.S. Tkachenko, Z.V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 297 p.

Additional Literature

1. Azovtsev, N.N. Civil War and Military Intervention in the USSR. – M., 1987.
2. Volkogonov, D.A. Lenin: Political Portrait. – M., 1992.
3. Danilov, A.A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A.A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
4. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A.N. Sakharov, A.N. Bokhanov, V.A. Shestakov; ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

PRACTICAL CLASS 14

Topic 14. The 1920s: The New Economic Policy

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the Soviet Union in the 1920s.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of Russia in the 1920s;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic lies in the fact that during these years the state's policy changed radically: from War Communism to NEP. An analysis of these policy directions helps to understand the causes of mass anti-Bolshevik uprisings and the restoration of the economy after the 10th Congress of the RCP(b). The Soviet Union emerged from international isolation and achieved recognition in the world.

Theoretical part

The economic and socio-demographic consequences of the period of wars and revolutions (1914 – 1922) turned out to be extremely severe. By the end of the Civil War, the country lay in ruins. The situation was aggravated by the terrible famine of 1921 – 1922, which led to the devastation of grain regions and the deaths of millions of people. The economic crisis was accompanied by an escalating political crisis: the ideology of War Communism had exhausted itself, anti-Bolshevik demonstrations broke out across the country, and a growth in dissatisfaction with the authorities was observed even among workers and sailors, who were traditionally considered the social support of the Bolsheviks.

Striving to maintain power and find a way out of the crisis, the Soviet leadership headed by V.I. Lenin resorted to adopting the New Economic Policy (NEP) – a complex of socio-economic reforms, the consequences of which were reflected to one degree or another in the political sphere as well. NEP, as a temporary and largely forced measure, proved its effectiveness.

By the mid-1920s, it made it possible to feed the country, restart mothballed production facilities, and basically restore pre-war indicators. At the same time, the practice of NEP (allowing private entrepreneurship, hiring labor, and making profits through exploitation, etc.) largely ran counter not only to communist ideas, but also to societal notions of social justice. The exhaustion of the main economic potential of NEP and the growth of social contradictions generated by it led to the abandonment of this policy in 1928.

An important historical event was the creation of the USSR in 1922 – the unification of the Soviet republics that arose during the Civil War in the space of the former Russian Empire. Although 4 equal republics formally became the founders of this federative state – the RSFSR, the Ukrainian, Belarusian, and Transcaucasian SSRs – the creation of the USSR actually became possible primarily thanks to the efforts of the RSFSR. From then until the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, the Russian Federation served as the backbone of the union state.

Gradually, the number of republics in the USSR increased. In 1924, Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan joined it. In 1929 – Tajikistan. In 1936 – Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan, and instead of the Transcaucasian SFSR – Azerbaijan, Armenia, and Georgia. In 1939, Western Ukraine and Western Belarus were incorporated into the USSR. In 1940, Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia entered the USSR.

One of the most important foreign policy tasks of Soviet Russia was breaking out of isolation and achieving international recognition. In the first years after the Civil War, good-neighborly relations were established with Afghanistan, Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Turkey, Iran, and Mongolia. Trade ties emerged with England, Germany, and Italy.

In April – May 1922, the economic Genoa Conference of European countries took place, to which the RSFSR was invited. Chicherin managed, using contradictions between the Western delegations, to conclude the Rapallo Treaty with Germany on the waiver of compensation for military expenses and the resumption of diplomatic relations. This was a major diplomatic victory.

In 1924, many countries of the world recognized the USSR: England, Italy, Norway, Austria, Greece, Sweden, Denmark, China, Mexico, France, and in January 1925 – Japan. The USSR emerged from isolation. The main outcome of the USSR's foreign policy activity in the 1920s was the recognition of the Soviet Union by many countries and the preservation of a peaceful breathing spell.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The transition to the New Economic Policy: causes, major transformations, and results.
Main reasons for abandoning NEP.
2. The formation of the USSR.
3. Soviet society in the 1920s.
4. Foreign policy of the USSR in the 1920s.

Assignments

1. What caused the curtailment of NEP? What points of view exist on this matter in modern historical science?
2. Give specific examples testifying to the emergence of Soviet Russia from the international economic blockade.
3. Fill out the table Main directions of the New Economic Policy (agriculture, industry, trade).

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 2 / author-comp.: M.E. Kolesnikova, D.S. Tkachenko, Z.V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 297 p.

Additional Literature

1. Gimpelson, E.G. NEP and the Soviet Political System. M., – 2000.
2. Danilov, A.A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A.A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
3. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A.N. Sakharov, A.N. Bokhanov, V.A. Shestakov; ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

PRACTICAL CLASS 15

Topic 15. The USSR in the 1930s

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency, implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the USSR in the 1930s.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of the 1930s;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic lies in the fact that during these years the state's policy changed radically: from NEP to the course toward the forced construction of socialism. On the world stage, the USSR represented a powerful state with a huge army and military-industrial complex.

Theoretical part

Industrialization is the process of creating large-scale machine production in all branches of the economy. Industrialization in the USSR became inevitable. It was planned to rely on the enthusiasm of the working class, socialist emulation, already restored industry, and to actively make use of huge mineral reserves. Major sources included: money emission, vodka trade, export of petroleum products, timber, furs, and grain.

Two variants of the first five-year plan for 1928/1929 – 1932/1933 were prepared. The forced development of the economy began. Thanks to the heroism of the people, 1,500 enterprises were built during this time, and about 100 new cities were founded. The USSR reached first place in the world in growth rates and gained economic independence. Commissioned projects included: the Turkestan-Siberian Railway, the Stalingrad Tractor Plant, Dnieper Hydroelectric Station (*Dneproges*), the Nizhny Novgorod Automobile Plant, etc. New industries were created: automotive, tractor, and chemical.

During the second five-year plan (1933 – 1937), 4,500 enterprises were commissioned. More attention began to be paid to increasing labor productivity, and the Stakhanovite movement spread widely. From an agrarian-industrial country, the USSR began to transform into an industrial-agrarian one. The development of Group A enterprises (heavy industry) was considered a priority.

Through the collectivization of agriculture, the leadership of the All-Union Communist Party of Bolsheviks (VKP(b)) and the USSR attempted to solve the problems that had been accumulating in the countryside since the mid-19th century: poverty and agrarian overpopulation. In Soviet times, a chronic food problem was added to this. In addition, agriculture was the main source of funds for industrialization; it was precisely from here that both human and material resources could be obtained.

In 1928, the Law On the General Principles of Land Use and Land Organization was adopted, granting collective farms (*kolkhozes*) privileges in obtaining land for use, crediting, and taxation. To assist collective farms, state machine and tractor stations (*MTS*) were created starting in November 1928.

In December 1929, an article by I.V. Stalin, Year of the Great Turn, was published. It spoke of a change in the mood of the peasantry, who allegedly voluntarily joined the collective farms. In the spirit of this article, on January 5, 1930, the Central Committee of the VKP(b) adopted the resolution On the Pace of Collectivization and Measures of State Assistance to Collective Farm Construction. In accordance with it, the pace of collectivization for various regions of the country was determined. The main form – the agricultural artel – was established, and the liquidation of the kulaks as a class was proclaimed.

In February – March 1930, so-called total collectivization and mass dekulakization began, which caused numerous peasant unrests and uprisings in which about 700,000 people took part. Peasant migration to cities and the mass slaughter of livestock began. On March 2, 1930, Stalin's article Dizzy with Success appeared in *Pravda*. The famine of 1932 – 1933 suspended collectivization. In June 1934, the beginning of the final stage of collectivization was announced. Agricultural tax rates for individual farmers (* единоличники*) were increased. Their mandatory delivery quotas to the state were increased by 50% compared to collective farmers. By 1937, collectivization was practically completed. 93% of peasant households were united into collective farms.

Thus, in the 1930s, the country was experiencing a period of modernization in the broad sense of the word. People's lives changed literally before their eyes, but were full of difficulties and contradictions. The rapidity of the processes that unfolded in the USSR at that time for the first time in world history generated quite a few mistakes. On the one hand, social elevators began

to function, and unprecedented opportunities for self-realization and career growth opened up for ordinary people. High rates of annual economic growth were observed in the USSR. Plants and factories were built and reconstructed, and entire new branches of industry appeared. By the end of the 1930s, a generation of people raised on Soviet values and patriotism had grown up in the USSR.

On the other hand, in the 1930s, Stalinist socialism was built – with the dictator's rule, authoritarian management methods, ideologization of life, the binding of peasants to collective farms, the widespread use of forced prison labor, and mass political repressions.

After Hitler came to power in Germany in 1933, a serious center of international tension arose in the center of Europe. Under these conditions, the USSR began pursuing a policy aimed at creating a system of collective security in which the aggressor state would encounter resistance from all European countries. Such a policy led to the strengthening of the international authority of the Soviet Union. Manifestations of this were the establishment of diplomatic relations with the USA in 1933 and admission in 1934 to the League of Nations – the most authoritative international organization at that time.

In 1935, the USSR signed treaties with France and Czechoslovakia (which feared fascist aggression the most), providing for assistance, including military assistance, in the event of an aggressor's attack.

Meanwhile, in March 1938, Germany annexed Austria, and in September 1938, at the Munich Conference of Germany, Italy, France, and Great Britain, Hitler received consent to annex the Sudetenland of Czechoslovakia. As a result of fascist aggressive policy and the connivance of other countries, a pre-war political crisis arose. Striving to create a collective front for the defense of peace and to rally the forces of non-aggressive countries, the Soviet government appealed to England on April 17, 1939, and then to France with proposals to conclude a mutual assistance agreement, including military assistance, in the event of aggression in Europe.

The seriousness of the USSR's intention to achieve an equal agreement on military cooperation with England and France was especially evident during special negotiations between the military missions of the three powers, which began on August 12, 1939, in Moscow. However, the negotiations reached an impasse.

In May 1939, the leadership of Germany made it clear to the Soviet side through unofficial channels that it wished to improve relations with the USSR. As a result, on August 23, 1939, German Foreign Minister von Ribbentrop and USSR People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs V.M. Molotov signed the Soviet-German Non-Aggression Pact for a period of 10 years.

A week after the signing of the pact, on September 1, 1939, Germany invaded the territory of Poland. This was the beginning of World War II. On September 28, 1939, the Soviet-German Treaty On Friendship and Borders was concluded in Moscow.

In 1938, Japan concentrated the main grouping of its Kwantung Army near the borders of the USSR. The Japanese provoked numerous border incidents and made territorial claims against the USSR regarding heights in the Lake Khasan area. The Far Eastern Front under the command of Marshal of the Soviet Union V.K. Blyukher was put on combat alert. On July 29, 1938, Japanese units supported by artillery invaded the territory of the Soviet Union. Fighting continued until August 11, 1938, when the Japanese proposed starting negotiations, and the border was established at its former place.

In 1939, Japan made territorial claims against Mongolia, demanding that the border be moved 20 km west along the Khalkhin Gol River. In May 1939, the Japanese launched military operations. In accordance with the treaty with Mongolia, units of the Red Army began repelling the aggression. A group of Soviet troops under the command of G.K. Zhukov launched a counteroffensive on August 20 and defeated the Japanese grouping by August 31. On September 15, 1939, the USSR, Mongolia, and Japan signed an agreement in Moscow to liquidate the conflict.

The USSR was bound to Finland by the 1932 Non-Aggression Pact, but the Soviet leadership was extremely concerned about the proximity of the border to Leningrad (32 km), so the USSR proposed that the Finnish authorities move the border several dozen kilometers to the north. In exchange for the territory that would go to the USSR, the Soviet leadership agreed to cede twice as large areas in northern Karelia, and also to negotiate the leasing of the Hanko Peninsula by the Soviet Union. However, these proposals were rejected by the Finnish government. On November 30, 1939, the USSR launched military operations. The USSR truly needed to ensure the security of Leningrad, and besides, these lands originally belonged to Russia.

The Finnish army managed to delay the advance of the Red Army at the Mannerheim Line for several weeks. In late February 1940, Soviet troops managed to break through it. The Finnish government sued for peace, and under the treaty of March 12, 1940, Finland ceded the entire Karelian Isthmus with the city of Vyborg to the USSR. The USSR received a naval base on the Hanko Peninsula on a 30-year lease.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The course toward modernization and strengthening the country's defense capability (planned economy, industrialization in the interests of the defense industry).
2. Mass collectivization and its results.

3. Features of the political system of the 1930s.
4. Foreign policy. Origins of World War II.

Assignments

1. Fill out the table Industrialization in the USSR (prerequisites, main tasks, sources, results).
2. Fill out the table Collectivization in the USSR (prerequisites, main tasks, results).

Literature Main

Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 2 / author-comp.: M.E. Kolesnikova, D.S. Tkachenko, Z.V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 297 p.

Additional Literature

1. Danilov, A.A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A.A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A.N. Sakharov, A.N. Bokhanov, V.A. Shestakov; ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.
3. Nezhinsky, L.N. Soviet Foreign Policy 1917 – 1945. – M., 1992.

PRACTICAL CLASS 16

Topic 16.1. The Great Patriotic War: No Statute of Limitations

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the USSR related to the Great Patriotic War.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of the Great Patriotic War;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic is beyond doubt. At the cost of enormous hardship and unprecedented heroism, the Soviet people defended the country's independence and freed the world from the fascist threat. Through tremendous efforts, a turning point in the war was achieved. The Potsdam Conference of 1945 determined the post-war structure of the world in Europe.

Theoretical part

The invasion of the USSR on June 22, 1941, by the troops of Hitler's Germany and its European satellites became one of the most severe trials that ever befell our country. In the first months, the Red Army retreated with heavy losses. Only through the joint heroic efforts of the front and the rear, rallying around the country's leadership and mobilizing all resources, was the enemy stopped and defeated in the Battle of Moscow.

For Soviet people, the Great Patriotic War became a war for survival and for the preservation of sovereignty. At the expense of USSR territory, Hitler planned to expand living space for the Aryan nation. The victims of genocide were to be not only Jews and Roma. Some Slavs and members of other peoples of the USSR classified by the Nazis as second-class people were planned to be exterminated, some evicted beyond the Urals, and others left as slaves to serve German settlers.

The Great Patriotic War is a key component of the entire World War II (September 1, 1939 – September 2, 1945), in which the USSR was part of the Anti-Hitler Coalition. However, first and foremost, the outcome of World War II depended on the events on the Soviet-German front. Here, the main forces of the *Wehrmacht* (two-thirds of the military potential) were defeated, and military operations were of the most fierce nature. During the war, the USSR lost 27 million people, more than half of these victims being the civilian population. For comparison, the combined military losses of the USA and Great Britain in World War II did not exceed 1 million people, and civilian losses in these countries were incomparable with the corresponding losses of the USSR.

In the course of the war, 3 stages are distinguished:

- 1) June 22, 1941 – first half of 1942 – the initial stage;
- 2) second half of 1942 – 1943 – the radical turning point (*fundamental turning point*);
- 3) 1944 – May 1945 – the concluding stage.

The first stage is characterized by the following events: Border battles, the defense of Kiev, Odessa, and Sevastopol, where significant enemy forces were restrained. The Battle of Smolensk, during which the enemy switched to the defensive for the first time. The Battle of Moscow (defensive operations took place throughout the autumn of 1941, and a counteroffensive began on December 5, 1941). For the first time, the invaders were defeated, and some captured areas were liberated. The myth of Germany's invincibility was destroyed. The victory had immense moral-political and international significance, contributing to the formation of the Anti-Hitler Coalition and the Resistance Movement in Europe. In the spring of 1942, the Red Army undertook unsuccessful offensive operations in Crimea and near Kharkov, which led to the breakthrough of the front by the enemy and the deployment of its offensive toward Stalingrad and the Caucasus. From the autumn of 1941, the Siege of Leningrad (*Blockade of Leningrad*) began, lasting almost 900 days.

The second stage began with the offensive of Germany and its allies on Stalingrad and the North Caucasus. All autumn, units of the Red Army fought bloody defensive battles, but stopped the enemy's advance. From November 19, 1942, to February 2, 1943, the Stalingrad Offensive Operation took place, during which a 330,000-strong grouping of invaders was encircled and destroyed. Prerequisites were created for the Red Army's offensive along the entire front. From August 1942 to February 1943, the Battle of the Caucasus was fought, frustrating Germany's plans to seize Grozny oil and reach India. In January 1943, the Siege of Leningrad was broken. From July to August 1943, the Battle of Kursk took place, where the enemy's best units were defeated. The Red Army seized the strategic initiative, and a radical turning point in the course of the war

occurred. In the autumn of 1943, Left-Bank Ukraine was liberated, and on November 6, 1943, Kiev was liberated.

In the enemy rear, large partisan formations operated, led by S.A. Kovpak, A.N. Saburov, A.F. Fedorov, underground groups of N.I. Kuznetsov, K.S. Zaslonov, the Young Guard (*Molodaya Gvardiya*), and hundreds of similar resistance groups. Starting in summer, partisan formations carried out combat operations within the framework of combined-arms operations. Partisan actions were especially large-scale during the Battle of Kursk and later during the implementation of Operation Rail War (*Relsovaya Voyna*) and Operation Concert, as a result of which partisans managed to disrupt traffic on almost half of the railroads in the occupied Soviet territory.

During the third stage, in January 1944, the lifting of the Siege of Leningrad took place. In January – February 1944, the Korsun-Shevchenkovsky Operation and the liberation of Right-Bank Ukraine occurred. In late March 1944, units of the Red Army reached the USSR border with Romania and began the liberation of Europe. In May 1944, Crimea was liberated. In the summer of 1944, the liberation of Belarus took place, and the liberation of Poland and the Baltic states began. During the liberation of Eastern and Central Europe, the most serious resistance was offered to the Red Army in Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and Poland. Fighting here continued until the spring of 1945. Red Army units participated in the liberation of Norway, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, and Austria. On April 16, 1945, the Berlin Operation began. By April 25, Berlin was encircled, and Soviet and American troops met on the Elbe River. On May 2, 1945, Berlin capitulated. On May 8, the act of unconditional surrender of Germany was signed. However, combat operations in Czechoslovakia and Germany continued until mid-May.

During the liberation of Eastern Europe, state coups took place in Romania, Hungary, and Bulgaria, and pro-fascist regimes were overthrown. More than 1 million Red Army soldiers died in combat operations on the territory of European states. Thus, the Great Patriotic War ended.

In August 1945, the Soviet Union took part in the defeat of Germany's former ally in the Far East – Japan.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Main events of the Great Patriotic War.
2. The Anti-Hitler Coalition: problems of cooperation.
3. The Soviet rear. The partisan movement.
4. Historical significance of the victory. The USSR in the Great Patriotic War.

Assignments

1. Read the statement of the Soviet Government and answer the questions:

Citizens of the Soviet Union! The Soviet government and its head, Comrade Stalin, have instructed me to make the following statement: Today at 4 a.m., without presenting any claims to the Soviet Union, German troops attacked our borders in many places and subjected our cities – Zhitomir, Kiev, Sevastopol, Kaunas, and some others – to bombing from their airplanes, killing and wounding more than two hundred people. Enemy airstrikes and artillery shelling were also carried out from Romanian and Finnish territories. This unheard-of attack on our country is an act of perfidy (treachery) unparalleled in the history of civilized nations. The attack on our country was carried out despite the fact that a non-aggression pact was concluded between the USSR and Germany, and the Soviet government fulfilled all the conditions of this pact with absolute conscientiousness. The attack on our country was carried out despite the fact that during the entire period of this pact's operation, the German government could not once present a single claim to the USSR regarding the fulfillment of the pact. All responsibility for this predatory attack on the Soviet Union falls entirely and completely upon the German fascist rulers... The government calls upon you, citizens and citizenesses of the Soviet Union, to rally your ranks even closer around our glorious Bolshevik Party, around our Soviet government, around our great leader Comrade Stalin. Our cause is just. The enemy will be defeated. Victory will be ours.

- 1) In what year and on what date was the statement made?
 - 2) Who delivered this statement?
2. Compile a chronological table Stages of the Great Patriotic War.
 3. Fill out the table **Main stages of the formation of the Anti-Hitler Coalition: main stages, events.**
 4. Determine which battles (or the planning of which military operations) are referred to in the excerpts from works of historians, memoirs, and other sources. Arrange the excerpts in chronological sequence:
 - 1) The encirclement of Soviet troops near... is the largest in the entire World War II... The attempt to break out by the Military Council and the front headquarters, which had lost contact with the armies, ended tragically... No more than a thousand people remained in the group, of which 800 were officers, including front commander M.P. Kirponos... Everyone participated in hand-to-hand combat – from private to front commander. Kirponos was first wounded in the leg, and soon fragments of a nearby exploding mine riddled his chest. The commander died on the spot.

- 2) Our intelligence's well-founded data on the preparation of the enemy's main blow in the south were not taken into account. Fewer forces were allocated to the Southwestern direction than to the Western one. Strategic reserves, accordingly, were concentrated mainly near Tula, Voronezh, Stalingrad, and Saratov. Critically assessing the plan of action adopted then... I am forced to say that the most vulnerable part of it turned out to be the decision to simultaneously defend and advance.
- 3) Soviet troops snatched the strategic initiative from the hands of the enemy, not allowing him to achieve a single one of the strategic goals provided for by the 'Barbarossa Plan'. Under the impact of crushing blows, the 'Barbarossa Plan' collapsed, and its foundation – the theory of lightning war (*Blitzkrieg*) – suffered a complete failure.
- 4) The enemy set itself the task of encircling and destroying Soviet troops... The results of the battles showed that this new strategic plan of the Germans, constructed without realistic consideration of the correlation of forces, turned out to be adventuristic from start to finish and shamefully failed. In stubborn defensive battles, the Red Army exhausted and bled white the main forces of the Nazi German army. The Germans suffered huge losses, but did not achieve success. Having defeated the Nazi German troops, the Red Army itself went over to a decisive offensive, breaking through the heavily fortified defense of the Germans...
- 5) The Stavka of the Supreme High Command was well aware that... the 6th and 4th German tank armies turned out to be concentrated in a narrow sector of the front, and their flanks were covered by Romanian troops. It was also known that the huge losses that the enemy continued to suffer in the hope of nevertheless seizing the city, and especially the fact that he did not have any sizable reserves here, further limited his defensive capabilities. The solution suggested itself here: to organize and conduct a counteroffensive.
- 6) At 12 o'clock the enemy threw large masses of infantry and tanks into battle and began to push back our units. The blow was directed at the Central Station. This blow was of exceptional force. Despite enormous losses, the invaders pushed ahead blindly. Columns of infantry in trucks and tanks broke into the city. Apparently, the Hitlerites decided that its fate was sealed... Our fighters... hiding in houses, basements, and pillboxes (*DOTs*), around the corners of houses, saw how drunken Hitlerites jumped out of trucks, played mouth organs, yelled wildly, and danced on the sidewalks... Soon the Hitlerites realized that the city could not be taken by a dash, that it bites very painfully. Thereafter, they began to act more circumspectly: they prepared attacks thoroughly and went into battle without organs, without songs and dances.
- 7) The main offensive operations were meant to be conducted in the southwestern theater of military operations, in order first of all to liberate Right-Bank Ukraine and Crimea.

It was decided to completely liberate Leningrad from the blockade and drive the enemy beyond the borders of the Leningrad region. In the northwestern direction, troops were to reach the borders of the Baltic republics. The Western direction was tasked with liberating the territory of Belarus as much as possible.

2. Fill out the table. If the Date column contains the digit 1, it is necessary to know and indicate the year(s); if the digit 2, the year and month(s) (or month only); if the digit 3, the exact date.

	Event	Date	#
From the beginning of World War II to the beginning of the Great Patriotic War	Entry of the Red Army into Western Ukraine and Western Belarus	(3)	
	Beginning of World War II	(3)	
	Accession of the Baltic states, Bessarabia, and Northern Bukovina to the USSR	(2)	
	Mutual assistance pacts between the USSR and the Baltic states	(2)	
	Soviet-Finnish War	(2)	
	Soviet-German Pact on Friendship and Borders	(2)	
Course of military operations in the Great Patriotic War	Berlin Operation	(2)	
	Vistula-Oder Operation	(2)	
	Capitulation of the German army near Stalingrad	(3)	
	Korsun-Shevchenkivskyi Operation and the Red Army's exit to the USSR border	(2)	
	Battle of Kursk	(2)	
	Germany's attack on the USSR	(3)	
	Beginning of the Red Army's counteroffensive near Moscow	(3)	
	Red Army setbacks on the Volkhov Front, near Kerch and Kharkov	(2)	
	Liberation of Kiev	(2)	
	Completion of the lifting of the Siege of Leningrad	(2)	
	Defense of Moscow	(2)	
	Operation Bagration	(2)	
	Defensive stage of the Battle of Stalingrad	(2)	
	Liberation of Romania, Bulgaria, parts of Hungary and Poland	(2)	
	Prague Operation	(2)	
	Transition of the Red Army to a counteroffensive near Stalingrad	(3)	
	Smolensk Battle, battles for Kiev	(2)	
Anti-Hitler Coalition and the defeat of Japan	Atomic bombing of Hiroshima by US aviation	(3)	
	Capitulation of Japan	(3)	
	Liquidation of the Comintern	(1)	
	Opening of the Second Front	(2)	
	Potsdam Conference	(2)	
	Soviet-Japanese War	(2)	
	Formation of the Anti-Hitler Coalition	(1)	
	Tehran Conference	(1)	
	Yalta Conference	(2)	

6. Seminar report topics:

Outstanding Commanders of the Great Patriotic War (student's choice: G.K. Zhukov, R.Ya. Malinovsky, I.S. Konev, K.K. Rokossovsky, etc.)

Literature

Main Literature

1. History of Russia : textbook for universities / Ed. by Yu. A. Petrov. – M. : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. History of Russia : study guide : in 2 parts. Part 2 / author-comp.: M.E. Kolesnikova, D.S. Tkachenko, Z.V. Bochkareva, et al. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 297 p.

Additional Literature

1. Danilov, A.A. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers : study guide / A.A. Danilov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day : textbook : A.N. Sakharov, A.N. Bokhanov, V.A. Shestakov; ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.
3. Samsonov, A.M. The Battle of Stalingrad. – M., 1989.
4. Shaposhnikov, B.M. The Battle for Moscow: The Decisive Battle of the Great Patriotic War. – M., 2011.

PRACTICAL CLASS 17

Topic 16.2. The Great Patriotic War: No Statute of Limitations

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the USSR related to the crimes of the Nazi regime on the territory of the Soviet state.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of the Great Patriotic War;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

Every person has a family history. We have no right to forget the preservation of the memory of our grandfathers and great-grandfathers in the Great Patriotic War. The events of that war are increasingly receding into the past. However, we do not stop thinking about its outcomes and the lessons that all of humanity has learned. It would seem that sentences have been pronounced, conclusions have been drawn, and the multinational Soviet people achieved victory at an incredible, bloody price. And how disappointing it is that pro-fascist voices are once again sounding today. Therefore, in our time, it is especially necessary to draw attention to the study of the history of our ancestors, to remember their feats during the Great Patriotic War of 1941 – 1945. If the memory of them remains alive, we will be able to pass on their life biographies to the next generation.

Theoretical part

World War II (1939 – 1945), unleashed by the leaders of Nazi Germany, was the most cruel, bloody, and destructive in human history, claiming over 50 million lives. During the war, thousands of cities and villages were turned into ruins, the peoples of many countries were enslaved, the captured territories were subjected to total plunder, a system of death camps was

created, and the civilian population of countries subjected to fascist occupation was systematically exterminated.

A significant part of the USSR's territory was subjected to German-fascist occupation. These were primarily its western republics – the Belorussian SSR and the Ukrainian SSR, as well as the Baltic republics and the Moldavian SSR, which joined it shortly before the Great Patriotic War. A considerable portion of the RSFSR regions (fully or partially), which were under the Nazi yoke for varying periods of time, was also occupied by German-fascist troops. The northwestern regions of the RSFSR were under occupation for more than three years, and the regions of Central Russia for almost two years. At the same time, during the military operations of the Red Army, the fascist occupation zone gradually narrowed, and a number of territories were liberated within just a few months.

Out of 70 million Soviet citizens who fell under Nazi rule, only every fifth survived. About 7.5 million people were killed (shot and burned); 2.1 million died at forced labor in Germany, and over 4 million died in the occupied territories from starvation and lack of medical care. In addition, the Nazis destroyed about 3 million Soviet prisoners of war. Since the regions of the RSFSR during the war years were an integral part of a single country – the Soviet Union – generalized data on the victims of fascist terror were most often given in relation to the entire union state, and much less frequently in relation to individual Russian regions. Fascism is an open terrorist dictatorship of the most reactionary, most chauvinistic, most imperialist elements of financial capital. Fascism in foreign policy is chauvinism in its crudest form, cultivating zoological hatred toward other peoples.

Many evaluations of the events of the war were contained in the speeches of Soviet leading party and state figures, and above all, in the book by I.V. Stalin, *On the Great Patriotic War of the Soviet Union*. Incorporating the most important orders, appeals to the people, speeches, and reports, first published in 1942 and later supplemented with new documents, it was published four times during the war years. The book analyzed the character and goals of the war, summed up the results of major operations, and revealed issues of the international situation, the work of the home front (*rear*), the nationwide struggle in the enemy's rear, and more. I.V. Stalin also repeatedly addressed the characteristics of fascism and the Hitlerite clique. Thus, already in his first public address to the people via radio on July 3, 1941, he emphasized that the enemy set as its goal the destruction of the national culture and national statehood of the peoples of the USSR, their Germanization (*Russification/de-nationalization*), their conversion into slaves, and consequently, it was a question of life and death for the peoples of the USSR, of whether the peoples of the Soviet Union are to be free or fall into enslavement.

In his report dedicated to the 24th anniversary of the October Revolution (November 6, 1941), I.V. Stalin specifically touched upon the characteristics of Nazism, quoted several excerpts from the speeches of the leaders of the fascist Reich, and concluded: And these people, devoid of conscience and honor, people with the morality of animals, have the insolence to call for the destruction of the great Russian nation! He continued this same thought in an order dedicated to the celebration of International Workers' Solidarity Day on May 1, 1942: Only professional deceivers can assert that the German fascists, who have covered Europe with gallows, who plunder and rape the civilian population, burn and blow up cities and villages, and destroy the cultural values of the peoples of Europe, can be bearers of European culture. In reality, the German fascists are the enemies of European culture, and the German army is the army of medieval obscurantism. And in the report for the 25th anniversary of October (November 6, 1942), I.V. Stalin said: The Hitlerite scoundrels have made it a rule to torture Soviet prisoners of war, to kill them by the hundreds, to doom thousands of them to death by starvation. They rape and kill the civilian population of the occupied territories of our country – men and women, children and the elderly, our brothers and sisters. They have set themselves the goal of enslaving or exterminating the population of Ukraine, Belarus, Moldavia, Crimea, and the Caucasus. Only base people and scoundrels, devoid of honor and fallen to the state of animals, can permit themselves such atrocities against innocent, unarmed people. They have covered Europe with gallows and concentration camps. They have introduced a vile 'hostage system.' They shoot and hang innocent citizens taken 'as hostages' because some German animal was prevented from raping women or robbing ordinary citizens. They have turned Europe into a prison of nations. And this is what they call the 'new order in Europe.' We know the culprits of these atrocities, the builders of the 'new order in Europe.' Their names are known to tens of thousands of tortured people. And although more than two years remained before the victory over fascism, I.V. Stalin assured: Let these executioners know that they will not escape responsibility for their crimes and will not elude the punishing hand of the tortured peoples.

I.V. Stalin, of course, did not cite specific examples of Hitlerite atrocities in relation to a particular region or republic, but his speeches, which were largely directive in nature, were adopted by publicists, writers, and historians. Through their efforts, extensive popular science and journalistic literature was created during the war years, abounding with evidence of Nazi crimes against the civilian population in the occupied territories. Aleksey Tolstoy and Mikhail Sholokhov, Ilya Ehrenburg and Konstantin Simonov, who were at the front as war correspondents, told the country and the world with the full force of their writer's talent about the hell embodied by the Hitlerites on occupied Soviet soil. Reality was scarier than any fiction.

The study of the origins of the policy of exterminating the civilian population in the occupied territories of the RSFSR during the Great Patriotic War is impossible without taking into account that Nazism was a natural consequence of German policy and ideology formed in the German Reich over several decades long before the National Socialists came to power. Nationalist and racial theories and teachings were widely found in the views of intellectuals, public associations, political party programs, and pseudo-scientific theories. Ideas about the dominance of the Germans and their intellectual superiority, with the advent of the National Socialists to power, transformed into violence against both the political opposition and representatives of other nationalities.

The study of the topic of genocide is impossible without examining the role of concentration camps. During the Great Patriotic War, thousands of Soviet citizens were driven into German camps in Germany. As a major instrument of the total policy of exterminating civilians, the concentration camp system was created as early as the first year of the National Socialists' coming to power. Starting in 1933, their task included the internment of political opponents. In addition to camps, they were kept in old factory buildings and abandoned houses. They were tortured, subjected to medical experiments, and used as labor.

The network of concentration camps intended for mass extermination became an integral part of the National Socialist state. Six major camps were created on the territory of Germany starting in 1933: Dachau, Buchenwald, Ravensbrück, Oranienburg, Flossenbürg, and Neuengamme. With the capture of territories in Europe and the beginning of World War II, concentration camps were created in Austria (Mauthausen), Poland (Auschwitz-Birkenau, Treblinka, Majdanek, Sobibor), and the USSR (Salaspils). Each of them represented an entire system reaching up to several dozen camps. In addition, local concentration camps for civilians and prisoners of war were created in the occupied territory.

Starting in 1934, concentration camps came under the jurisdiction of the SS. Formally, they were divided into labor camps; camps for the sick; experimental camps where experiments were conducted; and training camps where SS men were trained. Then camps for prisoners of war, ghettos, and detention centers were added to them. Confinement in concentration camps was justified both by the idea of eradicating anti-social elements, inferior and useless people, and by state economic utility. In fact, it was a matter of exploiting forced labor at SS enterprises.

The first concentration camp was Dachau, built in March 1933 on the site of a former gunpowder factory near Munich (Bavaria). In June, Theodor Eicke became its commandant, turning it into a model camp. The plan he developed for the layout of buildings, the routine of services, administration, and headquarters became the model for all subsequent concentration camps. By 1937, T. Eicke organized Sachsenhausen and Buchenwald on the model of Dachau.

Guarding and operating the concentration camps was assigned to the SS Death's Head (*Totenkopf*) units, which numbered about 5,000 people.

The war against the USSR was viewed by the Nazi leadership primarily as a war against the Slavic peoples. Hitler explained: We are obliged to exterminate the population; this is part of our mission to protect the German population. We will have to develop the technique of depopulation. If I am asked what I mean by depopulation, I will answer that I mean the destruction of entire racial units. This is precisely what I intend to put into practice – roughly speaking, this is my task. Nature is cruel, therefore we also have the right to be cruel. If I send the flower of the German nation into the inferno of war, shedding precious German blood without the slightest pity, then, without a doubt, I have the right to destroy millions of people of a lower race who multiply like worms. In May 1940, one of the main leaders of Nazi Germany, H. Himmler, sent a memo to A. Hitler on the treatment of the population of the eastern regions. In it, he frankly explains: We are extremely interested in ensuring that under no circumstances do we unite the peoples of the eastern regions, but on the contrary, split them into the smallest possible branches and groups.

A. Hitler propagated a misanthropic attitude toward the Slavic population in numerous conversations recorded by his entourage. Such records were also kept at the direction of the statesman and political figure of Nazi Germany, A. Rosenberg. The transcripts of these records testify to the goals and methods of occupation policy on the territory of the USSR. A. Hitler called Russians only a Slavic rabble incapable of self-government. Their role is slave labor, accustomed to reacting only to whip blows, which will create prosperity for the Germans. According to A. Hitler, Slavs belonged to a race unworthy of humane treatment. They must not be given education or self-government, and their cities should be razed to the ground. A. Hitler said: Another world will arise in which Russians will be allowed to live... But on one condition: we shall be the masters. The eastern spaces will become for us what India was for England.

Chief of the General Staff of the Army, Colonel-General Franz Halder, wrote in his diary: The Führer's decision to raze Moscow and Leningrad to the ground is unshakable, in order to completely get rid of the population of these cities, which otherwise we would subsequently be forced to feed during the winter. Aviation must accomplish the task of destroying these cities. Tanks should not be used for this. This will be a national disaster that will deprive centers not only of Bolshevism, but of Muscovites (Russians) in general.

Turning to the subject of describing the crimes of the fascists and their accomplices against the civilian population carries a heavy emotional component, because acquaintance with original documents leaves no one indifferent and causes a deep sense of empathy toward defenseless children, the elderly, women, and sick people who became victims of Nazi policy aimed at the

total destruction of the USSR population and the use of the country's economic resources. Humanity has not yet known such an antihuman and mass-scale crime.

The civilian population that found itself in the occupied territory was not simply in a state of stress due to the constant threat of brutal reprisals regularly orchestrated by the fascists and their accomplices; it also experienced hunger, disease, fear of being killed or driven into slavery in Germany, and a sense of powerlessness due to the inability to protect loved ones.

Labor conscription (*forced labor*) was one of the main forms of exploitation of the civilian population in the occupied territory. It applied to all residents aged 16 to 50. Exceptions were made for disabled people, women with children under 5 years old, and the severely ill. For failure to appear, evasion of work, tardiness, or poor-quality performance of work in the opinion of the Hitlerites, various punishments were applied in different command posts: beating with rubber sticks, iron rods, rifle butts, imprisonment in a punishment cell (*carthouse/brig), and execution. Local residents were forced to collect weapons and trophies left on the battlefield, clear mines, build defensive fortifications and repair bridges, harvest peat and timber, transport ammunition to the front line, perform agricultural work, transport wounded Germans, work in field hospitals and kitchens, and wash laundry for soldiers. The population brought in for labor received no payment whatsoever, and sometimes they were not even provided with food.

In Stavropol Krai, by the time of its occupation, a significant number of refugees from other regions of the country (Moldavia, Ukraine, Belarus, Rostov Oblast, Leningrad) had accumulated, and a significant portion of them consisted of citizens of Jewish nationality. The extermination of Jews was viewed by the fascists as a crusade against the Judeo-Bolshevik system. According to Nazi calculations, out of 11 million Jews subject to extermination, 5 million lived in the Soviet Union. In the occupied territories, the Jewish and Roma populations were exterminated first.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Directives of the leaders (leadership) of fascist Germany regarding the civilian population.
2. The Nazi system of administration of occupied territories.
3. Main directions of the activities of the occupation authorities.
4. Establishment of a slave-serfdom (*feudal-slave*) regime in occupied regions:
 - Principles and organization of the economic life of the population: plunder of the population by the German-fascist invaders;
 - Economic exploitation of peoples and territories and deportation of the population to Germany.

- Punitive policy: Judicial and extrajudicial reprisals, imprisonment in prisons and camps;
 - Atrocities and violence (mass murders, corporal punishment and torture); punitive expeditions, scorched earth tactics.
5. The policy of spiritual enslavement of the population and destruction of the national culture of the peoples of Russia: propaganda processing of the population, use of schools and religion; destruction and plunder of cultural objects.
 6. No Statute of Limitations. Nazi crimes in Stavropol Krai in 1942 – 1943.

Assignments

1. Describe the violence measures applied to the civilian population of the occupied territories.
2. Why is the occupation regime characterized in sources as bestial?
3. Read the excerpts from the historical sources provided below and answer the questions.

Act of the commission on the removal and extermination by the German-fascist occupiers of patients at the Krasnodar Krai Psychiatric Hospital (February 22, 1943)

We, the undersigned, employees of the Krasnodar Krai Psychiatric Hospital, have drawn up this act regarding the brutal reprisal of the German-fascist executioners against the mentally ill undergoing treatment in the Krasnodar Psychiatric Hospital.

After the occupation of the city by the Germans in August 1942, a group of German officers, one of whom called himself a doctor, came to the hospital twice and inquired about the number of patients, their treatment, etc. On August 22, 1942, 4 German officers arrived at the hospital in cars, accompanied by a team of armed soldiers. One German officer, who called himself a doctor, gathered all the psychiatrists of the psychiatric hospital in the chief physician's office, removed his weapon, placed it on the table, and said: What I am going to say is not subject to disclosure, it is a secret, I am a German soldier and am acting in accordance with the order of the German command, I must remove all patients, and you must then bring the hospital into proper sanitary condition, I am proceeding to business.

To the requests of some doctors to allow the discharge of certain patients, a refusal was given. You can tell the patients and relatives that they are being taken to a colony. Right then, a large covered truck resembling a large freight car drove into the courtyard of the psychiatric hospital, and the mentally ill were quickly put into the truck and taken away.

Within 5 hours, all patients were taken away, to where and for what purpose is unknown to us.

Some of the more conscious patients, with the help of doctors and staff, managed to escape from the hospital, despite the fact that German soldiers were standing around the hospital.

The boarding of patients into the truck was carried out under the guidance and supervision of the German doctor himself, who counted the patients and checked each department, keeping track of the patients being removed.

The absence of a certain number of patients was noticed by the German doctor, and a remark was made to the chief physician.

A total of 320 people were removed.

Subsequently, from the isolation ward left in place of the psychiatric hospital, the mentally ill were twice removed by the very same German fascist: on October 2, 1942 – 17 people, and on January 21, 1943 – 18 people.

State Archive of Krasnodar Krai. F. R-897. Op. 1. D. 2. L. 44. Copy // Federal Archival Project Crimes of the Nazis and their Accomplices against the Civilian Population of the USSR during the Great Patriotic War of 1941 – 1945

URL: <http://victims.rusarchives.ru/akt-komissii-o-vyvoze-i-predpolozhitelnom-unich-tozhenii-nemecko-fashistskimi-okkupantami-pacientov> (last visited: 22/11/2020).

From the act of the commission of the Stavropol Psychiatric Hospital on the extermination of hospital patients by the German-fascist occupiers (July 11, 1943)

On August 4, 1942, two German military doctors appeared at the Stavropol Psychiatric Hospital, accompanied by the head of the medical department of the city administration, Dr. Schultz, and an interpreter, and ordered the acting chief physician of the psychiatric hospital, Dr. Gambarov, to prepare all mentally ill patients for dispatch to the villages of Donskoye and Proletarskoye, because according to existing German laws, the mentally ill cannot be in the city or near the city.

Patients should be sent only in hospital clothing, without any belongings and without psychiatric hospital workers, because in the hospitals in Donskoye and Proletarskaya there is all the necessary equipment and German medical personnel.

On August 4, 1942, German soldiers from an SS team, led by Oberfeldwebel Goering, arrived at the psychiatric hospital in large covered trucks. The trucks were hermetically sealed, upholstered inside with galvanized sheet metal, without windows and without seats. The Germans loaded them without any documents. After the patients were boarded, the truck doors were immediately closed and locked with a key. The screams of the patients placed in the trucks stopped shortly after the car engine was started. An hour or two later, the vehicles returned for the next batches of patients. In this way, on August 5, 7, and 10, 1942, 632 mentally ill people were

removed, including children, from the city department, October department of the psychiatric hospital, from urban patronage, and from patronage on the Molochny farm...

On August 22, 1942, by order of the German Gestapo, Feldwebel Schmitz, 12 mentally ill people who arrived at the psychiatric hospital after August 10, 1942, were removed in the same way.

On October 20, 1942, 1 last batch of newly arrived mentally ill people in the amount of 16 people was removed from the psychiatric hospital.

...A total of 660 people were seized and removed from the Stavropol Psychiatric Hospital, and the psychiatric hospital was closed.

The mentally ill removed from the Stavropol Psychiatric Hospital to the villages of Donskoye and Proletarskoye did not arrive there, but were EXTERMINATED.

Russian State Archive of Socio-Political History. F. 269. Op. 1. D. 26. L. 47 – 48. Copy //

Federal Archival Project Crimes of the Nazis and their Accomplices against the Civilian

Population of the USSR during the Great Patriotic War of 1941 – 1945

[http://victims.rusarchives.ru/akt-komissii-stavropolskoy-psikhiatricheskoy-bolni-cy-ob-unichtozhenii-pacientov-bolnicy-nemecko\(last visited:22/11/2020\).](http://victims.rusarchives.ru/akt-komissii-stavropolskoy-psikhiatricheskoy-bolni-cy-ob-unichtozhenii-pacientov-bolnicy-nemecko(last%20visited:22/11/2020).)

Questions

1. What is the essence of the orders and instructions of the Nazi leadership and the command of the German army regarding the treatment of Soviet prisoners of war and arrested civilians?
2. To what extent do they correspond to the norms of international law?

From the message of the secretary of the Karachay Regional Committee of the All-Union Communist Party of Bolsheviks (VKP(b)), Kh.O. Laypanov, to the head of the Propaganda and Agitation Directorate of the CC VKP(b), G.F. Alexandrov, On the Atrocities of the German-Fascist Invaders and Their Accomplices in the Karachay Autonomous Region (June 24, 1943)

The Hitlerites proclaimed lawlessness as their legal norm. They elevated the functions of the executioner to a high profession. They called the bloody war a normal state of humanity. The fascists openly renounced such feelings as shame, pity, mercy, and compassion.

The Hitlerite scoundrels have made it a rule to torture Soviet prisoners of war, to kill them by the hundreds, to doom thousands of them to death by starvation. They rape and kill the civilian population of the occupied territories of our country – men and women, children and the elderly, our brothers and sisters. They have set themselves the goal of enslaving or exterminating the population of Ukraine, Belarus, the Baltic states, Moldavia, Crimea, and the Caucasus. Only base

people and scoundrels, devoid of honor and fallen to the state of animals, can permit themselves outrages against innocent people...

For over five months, the German fascists lorded it over Karachay. These months were the darkest period in the history of the peoples of Karachay. The German occupiers and their accomplices carried out their cannibalistic program – the extermination of the peoples of Karachay regardless of nationality, a program of unbridled plunder and bloody violence.

Having set the goal of depriving the Karachay people and Cossacks of land and national culture, turning them into their slaves, the fascists ruthlessly dealt with the civilian population of the stanitsas and auls of Karachay...

The atrocities of the German occupiers and their accomplices are confirmed by the testimony of Soviet citizens who lived in Karachay during the occupation, as well as acts drawn up by commissions consisting of representatives of Soviet, economic, cooperative, trade union, and other public organizations, workers, employees, collective farmers, intelligentsia, and servicemen...

The German cannibals, according to incomplete data, in the Mikoyan District alone destroyed 860 Soviet citizens.

These atrocities against Soviet citizens were committed by order of the Gestapo by vile traitors, agents of the German bloodsuckers – regional elder Bayrokumov Kadi and head of the regional police Laypanov M.

Blood runs cold at the terrible atrocities committed by the Germans in the children's homes of the Teberda resort, Nizhny Teberda, and Nizhny Arkhyz, where children evacuated in August 1942 from Leningrad, Crimea, and Rostov were housed.

The German scoundrels tortured 20 children from the Nizhny Arkhyz children's home. These children were suffocated by fascist monsters with exhaust gas in a truck.

State Archive of the Russian Federation. F. R-7021. Op. 17. D. 8. L. 2 – 3: Crimes of the Nazis and their Accomplices against the Civilian Population of the USSR during the Great Patriotic War of 1941 – 1945

Questions

1. What brutal methods of exterminating the civilian population, including mentally ill people, did the Nazis use in the occupied territories of the South of the RSFSR?
2. What most cruel crimes were committed by German-fascist troops against the civilian population in the occupied territories in 1941?
3. What atrocities by the Nazis during the occupation period did the Karachay Autonomous Region suffer?

Literature

Main Literature

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4. Shevyakov, A.A. Casualties Among the Civilian Population during the Patriotic War // *Sociological Studies*. – 1992. – No. 11. – P. 3 – 7.
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PRACTICAL CLASS 18

Topic 16.3. The Great Patriotic War: No Statute of Limitations

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the North Caucasus during the Great Patriotic War.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of the North Caucasus during the Great Patriotic War;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

Studying the history of the Great Patriotic War is extremely important not only for acquiring theoretical knowledge, but also for fostering patriotism, pride in one's Fatherland, and respect for the feats of fathers and grandfathers. The victory of the USSR in the Battle of the Caucasus strengthened the southern flank of the Soviet-German front and created conditions for the liberation of Crimea and the execution of subsequent operations in Ukraine and the South of Russia.

Theoretical part

The Battle of the Caucasus was the name given to a whole series of operations that took place between the Don River and the foothills of the Greater Caucasus from July 25, 1942, to October 9, 1943.

In approving the plan for Operation Edelweiss, the command of the *Wehrmacht* set the goal for Army Group A to surround and destroy the forces of the Southern Front south and southeast of Rostov and to establish control over the North Caucasus, with one of the main tasks being the capture of oil fields in the area of Grozny and Baku. At the same time, it was planned to make a flanking maneuver and break into Georgia, establishing a connection with the Turkish army.

On July 25, 1942, German troops went on the offensive and pushed back the Soviet forces, which on July 28 were consolidated into the North Caucasian Front under the command of Marshal of the Soviet Union S.M. Budyonny. It should be noted that the Soviet forces, not expecting a large-scale offensive in this sector, retreated to the line of the Kuban River and then to the foothills of the western part of the Greater Caucasus. By August 11, as a result of heavy battles, the forces of the German 17th Army managed to capture Maikop and Krasnodar, and on August 31, Anapa. On September 7, German troops reached the outskirts of Novorossiysk. Nevertheless, they failed to accomplish the main task: breaking through to Tuapse and Sukhumi.

The defeat of the fascists at Stalingrad and the Soviet offensive in the Rostov direction forced the German command to begin withdrawing troops from the Mozdok area. On January 3, 1943, Soviet forces began pursuing the enemy and by January 24 liberated Mozdok, Mineralnye Vody, Pyatigorsk, Yessentuki, Kislovodsk, Stavropol, and Armavir, and by January 30, Kropotkin and Tikhoretsk. On February 12, during the Krasnodar Operation, Krasnodar was liberated.

To defeat the enemy, the Soviet command developed the plan for the Novorossiysk-Taman Operation, in accordance with which the Soviet 18th Army was to launch a strike from land in the Novorossiysk area, while a landing force from the Black Sea Fleet was to land from the sea. The operation began on the night of September 10, and in the morning, landing forces were deployed on the western coast of Tsemess Bay and in the port of Novorossiysk. Following the landing of naval forces into the enemy's *rear*, the forces of the North Caucasian Front under Colonel-General I.E. Petrov broke through the enemy defense and on October 9 reached the Kerch Strait, completing the rout of the *Wehrmacht*'s Taman grouping.

A major role was assigned to the partisan movement. Already in September, 900 partisans were active in the territory of the region (*Krai*). In total, during the occupation, there were 47 detachments in the *Krai* led by a headquarters created in December 1942 and headed by M.A. Suslov. Despite unfavorable natural conditions, weak organization, and small numbers, the Stavropol partisans inflicted heavy damage on the enemy. They participated in military operations on the passes of the Main Caucasian Ridge, disrupted enemy communications (*rear*), and saved collective farm livestock. In battles with the Hitlerites, the partisans destroyed more than 4,500 German soldiers and policemen (*politzays*), and during the days of the Red Army's offensive, they liberated 55 populated areas. Underground organizations created by communists and Komsomol members also operated in Stavropol Krai, such as the underground in the village of Velichayevskoye.

The consequences of the enemy occupation and military operations for the region were severe. Damage to the national economy amounted to 14.6 billion rubles, including 10 billion rubles in the region's agriculture. A total of 31,645 civilians died, 170,000 Stavropol residents

perished in combat, and 27,000 people returned home with disabilities. The population of Stavropol Krai dropped sharply, and its pre-war level was restored only in 1956. The liquidation of the consequences of the occupation began as early as 1943. In the spring of 1944, more than 300 out of the 349 enterprises that had operated before the war were supplying products to the front. In 1944, the region began supplying agricultural products to the state. Over three war years, the region's population purchased state loan bonds worth 513 million rubles. The war left thousands of young Stavropol residents destitute. In 1946, 40 orphanages were operating in the region for 5,000 orphans. The housing issue became extremely acute.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

Period of defense

1. Assistance of the North Caucasus to the front at the initial stage of the Great Patriotic War.
2. The Caucasus in the plans of the German command.
3. Retreat of Soviet forces. Battles in the steppe Ciscaucasia (*Predkavkazy*).
4. Advance of the Germans into the foothills of the Caucasus.
5. Battles in the Mozdok direction.
6. Defense of Novorossiysk.
7. Battles on the passes of the Main Caucasian Ridge.
8. Nalchik Defensive Operation.
9. Partisan movement.
10. Occupation regime.
11. Results of the defensive operation.

Period of liberation

1. Plans of the Supreme High Command (*Stavka*) and deployment of forces. Military operations on the Southern Front.
2. Offensive of the Northern Group of the Transcaucasian Front.
3. Actions of the Black Sea Group of the Transcaucasian Front.
4. Landing operation in the Novorossiysk area. Defense of the Little Land (*Malaya Zemlya*).
5. Battles for Rostov and Krasnodar.
6. Offensive on the Taman Peninsula.
7. Capture of Novorossiysk and Taman.

8. Results of the Battle of the Caucasus.
9. Restoration of the economy of the North Caucasus. Assistance to the front.
10. North Caucasians on the battlefields of the Great Patriotic. Exploits of heroes.

Assignments

1. Compile a map titled The North Caucasus during the Great Patriotic War of 1941 – 1945.
2. Provide examples of selflessness and heroism of the Soviet people during the war years (can be illustrated using the history of one's own village, city, or the exploits of fellow countrymen).
3. Write an essay titled The Great Patriotic War and My Family.
4. Presentation topics:

Stavropol during the Great Patriotic War

The Economy of Stavropol Krai during the Great Patriotic War

The Partisan Movement in Stavropol Krai

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Additional Literature

1. Vshivtseva, L.N., Onoprienko, A.V. *The North Caucasus in the Civilized Space of Russia: A Course of Lectures* / Compiled by L.N. Vshivtseva, A.V. Onoprienko. – Stavropol : Alfa Print, 2014. – 121 p.
2. Tkachenko, D.S. *Military-Political History of the North Caucasus in European Studies (18th – 20th Centuries) [Electronic Resource]: A Textbook* / D.S. Tkachenko. – Electronic text data. – Stavropol : North-Caucasus Federal University, 2015. – 141 p. – Access mode: <http://www.iprbookshop.ru/62835.html>

PRACTICAL CLASS 19

Topic 17.1. The USSR in the Late 1940s to the First Half of the 1960s

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the Soviet Union from 1945 to 1953.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of the USSR from 1945 to 1953;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

Following the victory in the Great Patriotic War, a new period in the history of the Soviet state began. In 1945, the Soviet Union represented a victorious yet devastated country. Only through the efforts of millions of citizens was it possible to raise destroyed cities and factories from the ruins and restore infrastructure. This period is extremely important because it serves as an example of heroic labor, self-sacrifice, and patriotism.

Theoretical part

The main task of the post-war period was the restoration of the ruined economy. In March 1946, a reconstruction plan was adopted by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, outlining the main directions and targets. The restoration of plants and factories had already begun in 1943 as the occupiers were driven out. The fourth five-year plan (1946 – 1950) was successfully fulfilled. More than 6,000 large enterprises were restored and newly built. By 1950, industrial production not only reached the pre-war level (this occurred by 1948) but significantly surpassed it. Overall, during the years of the fourth five-year plan, industrial production exceeded pre-war figures by 73%. Priority development was given to heavy industry and the modernization of the military-industrial complex. New production sectors emerged, notably nuclear power engineering.

Agriculture emerged from the war severely weakened. In 1945, its gross output was 60% of the pre-war level. The situation was aggravated by the catastrophic drought of 1946, which affected the most fertile regions of the country: the Volga region, the North Caucasus, the Central Black Earth Region, Ukraine, and Moldavia. Agriculture reached the pre-war production level by 1950.

In 1946 – 1948, re-elections of Soviets at all levels took place, and the deputy corps – formed back in 1937 – 1939 – was renewed. The law transforming the Council of People's Commissars into the Council of Ministers of the USSR was adopted, and in 1949 – 1952, after a long break, congresses of public organizations of the USSR resumed. In 1952, the 19th Party Congress took place, renaming the All-Union Communist Party of Bolsheviks (VKP(b)) into the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU).

After the war, the international prestige of the USSR strengthened significantly; diplomatic relations were established with 52 countries (compared to 26 before the war). With the participation of the USSR, the Paris Peace Conference was held, which reviewed, on democratic principles, treaties with Germany's former allies: Italy, Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania, and Finland. In 1947, treaties with these countries were signed. The USSR played a major role in the creation of the United Nations (UN) in 1945. In 1945 – 1946, Soviet lawyers participated in the Nuremberg Trials against the major Nazi war criminals. The USSR provided economic assistance to many countries, especially those embarking on the path of socialist construction and former colonial states.

Speaking on March 5, 1946, in the American city of Fulton, W. Churchill called to show the Russians strength, to unite against eastern communism. The United States expanded the number of military bases and sharply curtailed trade relations with the USSR and its allies. The Cold War began, lasting from 1946 until the end of the 1980s – a hostile political course of confrontation between two systems, based on an arms race, relations from a position of strength, and strictly official diplomatic ties.

In Eastern Europe, governments oriented toward the USSR consolidated their power. Economic assistance, loans, the supply of raw materials, and the provision of sales markets in the USSR contributed to the strengthening of the socialist system in European countries. The Yugoslav conflict occurred. Major events took place in 1949: Germany was divided into the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) and the German Democratic Republic (GDR); the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a military organization in Europe, was formed; and the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA) of socialist countries was established. In 1949, the USSR acquired atomic weapons, bringing a temporary military equilibrium.

In the early 1950s, a base of socialism emerged in Asia: Mongolia, China, North Vietnam, and North Korea.

Thus, the international prestige of the USSR increased among the peoples of the world as a victor nation over fascism. The USSR strengthened its influence in Eastern Europe, which developed along the socialist path, forming a single bloc of socialist countries. Close contacts were established with the communist parties of Western countries.

Questions

1. Post-war economic recovery.
2. The socio-political situation in the country in the late 1940s and early 1950s.
3. The foreign policy of the USSR in 1945 – 1953. The beginning of the Cold War.

Assignments

1. Soon after the end of World War II, the countries that led the anti-Hitler coalition found themselves in a state of the Cold War. What were the manifestations of the contradictions between the former allies – the USSR and Western countries? What reasons determined this course of events?
2. After the end of World War II, the USSR could have utilized U.S. assistance within the framework of the Marshall Plan. How and when was this issue resolved by the Soviet leadership? Why was such a decision made?
3. Compare the international position of the USSR in the early 1930s (prior to 1933) and the early 1950s.

Literature

Main Literature

1. Petrov, Yu.A., ed. *History of Russia: A Textbook for Universities*. – Moscow : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. Kolesnikova, M.E., Tkachenko, D.S., Bochkareva, Z.V., et al., comps. *History of Russia: A Textbook : In 2 Parts. Part 2*. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 297 p.

Additional Literature

1. Danilov, A.A. *History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers: A Textbook*. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. Danilov, A.A., Pyzhikov, A.V. *Birth of a Superpower: 1945 – 1953*. – Moscow, 2002.

3. Sakharov, A.N., Bokhanov, A.N., Shestakov, V.A. *History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day: A Textbook* / Ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

PRACTICAL CLASS 20

Topic 17.2. The USSR in the Late 1940s to the First Half of the 1960s

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the USSR from 1953 to 1964.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of the USSR from 1953 to 1964;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic lies in the need to analyze attempts to reform the Soviet system. The utopian program of building communism was embodied at the 22nd Congress of the CPSU. New approaches to economic management made it possible to achieve successes in the social sphere. The USSR was the first in the world to carry out a human spaceflight.

Theoretical part

On March 5, 1953, I.V. Stalin died. G.M. Malenkov became the Chairman of the Council of Ministers, and his first deputies were L.P. Beria, N.A. Bulganin, V.M. Molotov, and L.M. Kaganovich. L.P. Beria also headed the Ministry of Internal Affairs (MVD). The Secretariat of the Central Committee of the CPSU was headed by N.S. Khrushchev. The main levers of power were thus held by G.M. Malenkov, N.S. Khrushchev, and L.P. Beria. A rivalry for power began among them.

After removing L.P. Beria, N.S. Khrushchev acquired a leading position in the party elite. To strengthen his positions, he achieved the liquidation of the Bureau of the Presidium of the Central Committee of the CPSU. In addition, he proposed establishing the post of First Secretary of the Central Committee of the CPSU, and on September 13, 1953, the Plenum of the Central Committee elected N.S. Khrushchev himself to this position.

Striving to secure the support of his friends from the influential leadership of the second largest Soviet republic – Ukraine – N.S. Khrushchev hastened to satisfy the long-standing claims of Ukrainians regarding Crimea. On February 19, 1954, the Crimean Oblast was transferred from the RSFSR to the Ukrainian SSR (USSR) as a gift for the 300th anniversary of the unification of Ukraine with Russia.

In late 1954, N.S. Khrushchev's relations with members of the Central Committee Presidium V.M. Molotov, G.M. Malenkov, and L.M. Kaganovich deteriorated. G.M. Malenkov was removed from the post of Chairman of the USSR Council of Ministers and sent to manage the specially created Ministry of Power Stations, though he remained a member of the Central Committee Presidium. N.A. Bulganin headed the Council of Ministers, and G.K. Zhukov replaced him as Minister of Defense. Thus, Khrushchev emerged victorious in the power struggle following the death of I.V. Stalin.

At the 20th Congress of the CPSU, held from February 14 to 25, 1956, N.S. Khrushchev delivered the report On the Cult of Personality and Its Consequences. Congresses and plenums of the CPSU began to assemble regularly. The rights of union republics were expanded, and local Soviets received new powers. In February 1957, the national autonomies of the Balkar, Chechen, Ingush, Karachay, and Kalmyk peoples were restored. Mass rehabilitation of illegally convicted citizens began.

All these processes were perceived ambiguously by N.S. Khrushchev's entourage. A group of leaders led by G.M. Malenkov, L.M. Kaganovich, and V.M. Molotov attempted to remove N.S. Khrushchev from the post of First Secretary at the June Plenum of the Central Committee of the CPSU in 1957. However, the support of the military prevented them from doing so. The Plenum concluded with the condemnation of the activities of the named individuals.

In the 1950s, widespread construction of power plants, railways, large industrial enterprises, and canals was carried out. Extensive housing construction began. Entire districts of apartment blocks with small-sized apartments were built in cities, which temporarily alleviated the severity of the housing problem. In 1954, the Obninsk Nuclear Power Plant (NPP) was commissioned; in 1957, the first artificial Earth satellite was launched, and the nuclear-powered icebreaker *Lenin* was launched into the water.

To solve the grain problem, 42 million hectares of virgin and fallow lands were cultivated between 1954 and 1960. By 1960, the level of industrial production exceeded the 1940 figures by 5.2 times, whereas agricultural production over these 20 years increased by only 60%. Ill-considered economic development led to disproportions between economic sectors and environmental disruption, threatening an ecological crisis and a drop in the country's economic

power. Crop yields on developed virgin lands declined, and grain imports from abroad began in 1963.

In agriculture, corn planting was forcibly introduced, and collective farmers were forbidden to have personal subsidiary plots, which sharply worsened the situation on the collective farm market. Machine and Tractor Stations (MTS) were liquidated, and collective farms had to buy equipment and maintain it themselves, which led to the technical weakening of agriculture.

Significant changes also occurred in social policy. Relying on achievements in the economy, it became possible to raise wages, increase pensions, initiate pension provision for collective farmers for the first time, abolish mandatory internal state loans for the population, and transition to a 7-hour workday.

In 1958, N.S. Khrushchev became the Chairman of the USSR Council of Ministers, concentrating immense power in his hands. From that moment on, errors in his policy leading to negative results became increasingly noticeable. The country's leadership headed by N.S. Khrushchev put forward the slogan: Catch up and overtake America. It was believed that a practical opportunity for building communism had arisen. In 1961, the 22nd Party Congress adopted a new CPSU program, one of the sections of which was devoted to the construction of communism, proclaiming its completion by 1980.

Gradually, the policy of the thaw began to be replaced by rigid party and administrative control. N.S. Khrushchev treated the creative intelligentsia extremely rudely.

In October 1964, N.S. Khrushchev was removed from power for voluntarism – imposing his own will, where wishful thinking is presented as reality without taking real capabilities into account. Lack of foresight and haste in decision-making, as well as inconsistency in actions, prevented him from achieving the desired result.

The foreign policy of the USSR from the mid-1950s was based on the conclusions of the 20th Congress of the CPSU regarding the shift in the balance of forces in the world in favor of socialism, the growth of the ideological struggle, and the desire of capitalist countries to stifle the revolutionary movement. Peaceful coexistence of the two systems was proclaimed as the only way to regulate relations between states. In 1955, a meeting of the heads of government of the USSR, Britain, France, and the USA took place to normalize relations in Europe. The USSR unilaterally reduced the size of its army, suspended nuclear testing, and improved relations with Yugoslavia, Turkey, Iran, Japan, and other countries.

In the mid-1950s, the USSR provided assistance to Egypt during the Suez Crisis of 1956. Active economic, technical, and often military assistance was provided to many developing countries in Asia and Africa that had freed themselves from colonial dependence.

In 1959, N.S. Khrushchev visited the USA, and the following year he spoke at the UN. In 1961, the Berlin Wall was erected, separating the capital of the GDR from West Berlin and becoming a symbol of the Cold War. In 1962, the Cuban Missile (Caribbean) Crisis arose. Following the victory of the 1959 revolution, Cuba took the socialist path. To protect it from potential American aggression, Soviet missiles capable of reaching U.S. territory were deployed there. The USA announced a military blockade of Cuba and was ready to strike Soviet missile installations and ships. The world found itself on the brink of nuclear war. The Caribbean Crisis of 1962 was narrowly overcome on the following terms: the American side abandoned a U.S. invasion of Cuba and removed American nuclear missiles from Turkey; the Soviet side was to remove nuclear missiles from Cuba.

In 1962, the World Congress for General Disarmament and Peace was held in Moscow; in 1963, a treaty was concluded between the USSR, the USA, and Britain on the ban of nuclear weapon tests in three environments: underwater, in the atmosphere, and in outer space; in 1964, the USSR announced measures to ease the arms race. In the early 1960s, relations with China and Albania deteriorated, which negatively affected the world socialist system and the communist movement.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Social and political life in the mid-1950s to mid-1960s.
2. Searches for a solution to the agrarian problem.
3. The industrial sphere in 1955 – 1964.
4. Foreign policy. Major events of the Cold War.

Assignments

1. In early July 1957, at a meeting of the Presidium of the Central Committee of the CPSU, N.S. Khrushchev was accused of undermining the leading role of the party, and it was proposed to remove him from the post of First Secretary of the Central Committee. However, N.S. Khrushchev managed to secure the support of Minister of Defense G.K. Zhukov, who stated that the army would not participate in removing N.S. Khrushchev, and the latter remained in his post. Thus, G.K. Zhukov rescued N.S. Khrushchev for the second time (the first time was during the arrest of Beria). Four months later (October 1957), G.K. Zhukov was dismissed from his post on the initiative of N.S. Khrushchev. Why did N.S. Khrushchev dismiss G.K. Zhukov, given that he had colossal support in his person?
2. Compare social policy in the USSR in 1945 – 1953 and 1953 – 1964.

3. Determine which episodes of national history are referred to in the document excerpts, indicate the years, and arrange the excerpts in chronological order:

- 1) *Comrade Khrushchev, having concentrated great power in his hands, in a number of cases began to slip out of the control of the Central Committee of the CPSU, ceased to reckon with the opinion of the members of the TsK Presidium and members of the TsK CPSU, deciding major issues without proper collective discussion...*
- 2) *The present report does not set the task of giving a comprehensive assessment of Stalin's life and work... Now we are talking about a question of enormous importance for both the present and the future of the party – we are talking about how Stalin's cult of personality gradually developed...*
- 3) *About 10 people or more entered the office. And Malenkov softly says, addressing Zhukov: 'As Chairman of the USSR Council of Ministers, I propose that you detain Beria.' Zhukov commanded the series: 'Hands up!' Moskalenko and others drew weapons...*

Literature

Main Literature

1. Petrov, Yu.A., ed. *History of Russia: A Textbook for Universities*. – Moscow : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. Kolesnikova, M.E., Tkachenko, D.S., Bochkareva, Z.V., et al., comps. *History of Russia: A Textbook : In 2 Parts. Part 2*. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 297 p.

Additional Literature

1. Danilov, A.A. *History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers: A Textbook*. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. Sakharov, A.N., Bokhanov, A.N., Shestakov, V.A. *History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day: A Textbook* / Ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

PRACTICAL CLASS 21

Topic 18. The USSR in the Second Half of the 1960s to the First Half of the 1980s

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the USSR from 1964 to 1985.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of the USSR from 1964 to 1985;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

This period was marked by successful state social policy, which contributed to an increase in the living standards of citizens. In certain areas of development, the USSR held leading positions globally; for instance, immense achievements were attained in the field of cosmonautics. The construction of major projects, such as the Baikal-Amur Mainline (BAM), was carried out. In foreign policy, there was a period of détente in international relations.

Theoretical part

Following the resignation of N.S. Khrushchev in October 1964, L.I. Brezhnev headed the Central Committee of the CPSU, and A.N. Kosygin became the head of the government.

In 1971, it was announced that the USSR had entered the stage of developed socialism, characterized as a society with an all-people's state featuring high economic potential, the complete dominance of state property, the unity of the Soviet people, and an increased role for the CPSU. In 1977, the Constitution of the USSR was adopted. It declared broad rights and freedoms, and the Soviets of People's Deputies were proclaimed as the foundation of the political system. However, real power remained with the CPSU, whose leading role was secured by Article 6.

The sectoral division of agencies was eliminated, regional economic councils (*sovnarkhozes*) were abolished, ministries were restored, and the planning system was modified

while expanding the rights of enterprises. All of this was conducted under the leadership of A.N. Kosygin, who initiated the economic reforms.

In 1965, two Plenums of the Central Committee of the CPSU were held, the decisions of which aimed to develop the economy. The March Plenum examined the situation in agriculture. It was deemed necessary to strengthen the combination of personal and public interests, stimulate the labor of peasants, partially lift measures restricting private subsidiary farming, significantly increase allocations, provide the countryside with machinery, raise the role of agricultural science, introduce a procurement procedure for agricultural products at increased purchase prices, and deploy construction in rural areas.

The September Plenum of 1965 was dedicated to the problems of industry, where labor stimulation and the introduction of economic methods of management were also taken as a basis. Whereas previously the main indicator was gross output in value terms and enterprises sought to produce the most expensive goods, the main objective now became the sale of everything produced and the acquisition of profit, part of which remained with the enterprise and went toward its expansion and the material encouragement of workers' labor. There was a transition to economic accounting (*khozraschet*), taking local initiative into account.

In the 1960s and 1970s, the USSR reached its peak power. The economy developed successfully, and revenues from it were channeled toward raising the well-being of the population and social programs. Store shelves filled up with at least basic goods and products. During these years, the Soviet Union achieved outstanding scientific and technical accomplishments: in space exploration, the peaceful use of the atom, and others. The Soviet educational system operating at that time was considered the best in the world, and the USSR possessed a developed network of scientific institutions.

The prestige of the USSR in the international arena was also high. It actively assisted Third World countries and was the leader of the socialist camp operating within the framework of the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA) and the Warsaw Pact. In the 1970s, the USSR achieved parity with the USA in armaments, becoming one of the two superpowers.

Nevertheless, the Soviet system was not ideal and required reform in accordance with the demands of the times. Over time, delays or failures in economic and political reforms, along with an unwillingness to discard outdated ideological dogmas, began to significantly affect the situation within the country. The stalling of the economy was linked to the exhaustion of its mobilization model and extensive capabilities, low labor productivity, the rejection of technological innovations by enterprises, and other factors. Citizens voiced major complaints regarding the consumer sector, where shortages of certain goods coexisted with overstocking of unwanted items.

Dogmatism and formalism were characteristic of the ideological sphere. Inside the country, the party and the *nomenklatura* decided everything, while the real role of the Soviets and their deputies, contrary to the Constitution, was reduced to a minimum. All of this predetermined the escalation of contradictions, crisis phenomena, and public discontent.

Nevertheless, not all spheres of life during late socialism were in a state of crisis or stagnation. People's living standards rose, and financing for social programs increased. The military-industrial complex continued to develop, and the exploration of oil and gas deposits in Western Siberia gave a new impetus to the development of the fuel and energy complex.

Following the death of L.I. Brezhnev in November 1982, Yu.V. Andropov became the General Secretary of the Central Committee of the CPSU, having previously headed the KGB for over 10 years. Serious personnel reshuffles were carried out, and plans were made to expand the independence of industrial and agricultural enterprises, while great attention was paid to combating corruption.

In April 1984, Andropov died, and the post of General Secretary of the Central Committee of the CPSU was assumed by K.U. Chernenko, who held it until 1985.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. L.I. Brezhnev's rise to power of. Political development of the USSR in 1964 – 1982. The 1977 Constitution of the USSR and its main provisions.
2. Economic development of the USSR in 1964 – 1982. The reform introducing economic stimulation principles into the economy and the reasons for its curtailment. New successes in space exploration and the peaceful use of the atom.
3. Foreign policy of the USSR in 1964 – 1982. The Brezhnev Doctrine. Soviet-Chinese relations. The USSR and the Vietnam War. Détente of international tension in the 1970s.
4. The USSR in 1982 – 1985. The rule of Yu.V. Andropov and K.U. Chernenko.

Assignments

1. Fill out the table titled Main Provisions of the 1965 Economic Reform: Industry, Agriculture.
2. The period when L.I. Brezhnev led the USSR became one of the calmest and most stable stages of Soviet development. Provide at least three facts or provisions that can confirm this statement.
3. Read the document and answer the questions. From the Final Act of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE):

I. Sovereign equality, respect for the rights inherent in sovereignty The participating States will respect each other's sovereign equality and individuality, as well as all the rights inherent in and encompassed by its sovereignty, which include, in particular, the right of every State to legal equality, to territorial integrity, and to freedom and political independence. They will also respect each other's right freely to choose and develop its political, social, economic, and cultural systems, as well as the right to establish its own laws and administrative regulations.

Within the framework of international law, all the participating States have equal rights and duties. They will respect each other's right to define and conduct as it wishes its relations with other States in accordance with international law and in the spirit of the present Declaration. They consider that their frontiers can be changed, in accordance with international law, by peaceful means and by agreement. They also have the right to belong or not to belong to international organizations, to be or not to be a party to bilateral or multilateral treaties including the right to be or not to be a party to treaties of alliance; they also have the right to neutrality.

II. Non-use of force or threat of force The participating States will refrain in their mutual relations, as well as in their international relations in general, from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any State, or in any other manner inconsistent with the purposes of the United Nations and with the present Declaration. No considerations may be invoked to serve to warrant resort to the threat or use of force in contravention of this principle.

Accordingly, the participating States will refrain from any acts constituting a threat of force or direct or indirect use of force against another participating State... Likewise they will also refrain in their mutual relations from any acts of reprisal by force.

No such use or threat of force will be used as a means of settling disputes, or questions that might give rise to disputes, between them.

III. Inviolability of frontiers The participating States regard as inviolable all one another's frontiers as well as the frontiers of all States in Europe and therefore they will refrain now and in the future from any assault on these frontiers.

Accordingly, they will also refrain from any demands, or acts of seizure and usurpation, directed against part or the whole of the territory of any participating State.

IV. Territorial integrity of States The participating States will respect the territorial integrity of each of the participating States.

V. Peaceful settlement of disputes The participating States will settle disputes among them by peaceful means in such a manner as not to endanger international peace and security, and justice.

- 1) Name the city where the Conference of European States took place.

- 2) Name the year of its holding and the surname of the leader of the USSR during that period.
- 3) Name the most important principles of security and cooperation in Europe formed in the Final Act.

Literature

Main Literature

1. Petrov, Yu.A., ed. *History of Russia: A Textbook for Universities*. – Moscow : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
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2. Sakharov, A.N., Bokhanov, A.N., Shestakov, V.A. *History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day: A Textbook* / Ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

PRACTICAL CLASS 22

Topic 19. Perestroika and the Collapse of the USSR

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of the USSR from 1985 to 1991.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of the USSR from 1985 to 1991;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic is connected with the ambiguous assessment of the essence and results of the perestroika of the public system and the country's economy. The systemic crisis manifested itself in the aggravation of interethnic relations and the predominance of disintegration tendencies, which led to the collapse of the USSR. With the emergence of a new state – the Russian Federation (RF) – in December 1991, a new stage of development begins in the history of our homeland.

Theoretical part

In March 1985, following the death of K.U. Chernenko, M.S. Gorbachev became the General Secretary of the Central Committee of the CPSU. N.I. Ryzhkov was appointed Chairman of the USSR Council of Ministers. In April 1985, a Plenum of the Central Committee of the CPSU was held, which came to be considered a turning point in the life of the country. The first stage of perestroika is associated with the course proclaimed in April 1985 toward accelerating the socio-economic development of the country. Considerable attention was supposed to be paid to introducing the achievements of the Scientific and Technological Revolution (NTR) and activating the human factor. State acceptance (*gospriemka*) was introduced to control product quality. The state plan was replaced by a state order (*goszakaz*). Enterprises received greater independence. In

the countryside, the equality of state farms (*sovkhozes*), collective farms (*kolkhozes*), agro-industrial complexes, lease collectives, and peasant farms was recognized.

Initial transformations caused a revival in the economy, but already starting in 1988, a general decline in production began in agriculture and subsequently in industry. Under these conditions, the idea of perestroika was subjected to criticism. For instance, B.N. Yeltsin, at that time the First Secretary of the Moscow City Committee of the CPSU, criticized Gorbachev for indecisiveness.

In mid-1988, at the 19th Conference of the CPSU, a new stage of perestroika was proclaimed, with a stake placed on political reforms. A new supreme legislative body was established – the Congress of People's Deputies of the USSR – along with corresponding republican congresses. The election of deputies was held on an alternative basis for the first time. A permanently functioning Supreme Soviet was formed from among the deputies, and the post of Chairman of the Supreme Soviet was introduced. In 1989, it was assumed in the USSR by M.S. Gorbachev, and in the RSFSR in 1990 by B.N. Yeltsin.

By 1990, the idea of perestroika had practically exhausted itself. The center was increasingly losing the initiative, and a political crisis was brewing. Nevertheless, from the spring of 1990, the leadership of the USSR transitioned to the next stage of political and economic transformations. In June 1990, a gradual transition to a regulated market economy was announced.

Reforms in the political sphere: abolition of Article 6 of the USSR Constitution regarding the leading and guiding role of the CPSU in Soviet society, introduction of the post of President of the USSR (M.S. Gorbachev from March 1990), and official registration of parties.

The weakness of Gorbachev's government and its inability to suppress separatist sentiments in the national regions led to an intensified aspiration of individual republics to secede from the USSR and achieve sovereignty with all ensuing rights and obligations. In the spring and summer of 1990, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, and subsequently the RSFSR and other union republics declared their sovereignty. Power gradually began to shift from the center to the republics, and disobedience to the center commenced. The country entered a band of disintegration, a situation exacerbated by interethnic conflicts.

The President of the USSR, M.S. Gorbachev, attempting to return the initiative to the center, entered into direct negotiations with the republican leadership on concluding a new union treaty. In March 1991, an all-union referendum was held on the preservation of the USSR, during which 76.4% of participants voted in favor of preserving the USSR as a renewed federation of equal sovereign republics.

In April 1991, M.S. Gorbachev's negotiations with the republican leadership began in Novo-Ogarevo near Moscow. Out of 15 republics, 9 agreed to take part in the negotiations. By August 1991, a compromise draft of the union treaty had been prepared.

The signing of the treaty was scheduled for August 20, 1991, but on August 19, a putsch began. A statement by a group of Soviet leaders announced the removal of M.S. Gorbachev from the duties of President of the USSR for health reasons and the transfer of his powers to Vice President G.I. Yanaev, the introduction of a state of emergency in individual regions, and the creation of the State Committee on the State of Emergency (GKChP). The GKChP included 8 members, including G.I. Yanaev, Chairman of the USSR Council of Ministers V.S. Pavlov, USSR Minister of Defense D.T. Yazov, USSR Minister of Internal Affairs B.K. Pugo, and Chairman of the USSR KGB V.A. Kryuchkov. Troops were brought into Moscow, rallies, demonstrations, and strikes were banned, and the publication of many newspapers was suspended.

Resistance to the putschists was led by the leadership of the RSFSR headed by B.N. Yeltsin. Barricades arose in Moscow. On the night of August 21, a clash occurred between B.N. Yeltsin's supporters and troops, resulting in the deaths of three people. On August 21, 1991, the defeat of the GKChP became apparent. On August 22, M.S. Gorbachev returned to Moscow, and the putschists were arrested. Soon after, the activity of the CPSU was suspended.

On December 8, 1991, without inviting M.S. Gorbachev, the leaders of Russia (B.N. Yeltsin), Ukraine (L. Kravchuk), and Belarus (S. Shushkevich) at a meeting in Belovezhskaya Pushcha announced the cessation of the USSR's existence on behalf of the three founding states of the USSR and called upon the former union republics to create the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). This act went down in history as the Belovezha Accords and signified the beginning of the creation of the CIS.

After a series of negotiations on December 21, 1991, in Alma-Ata, Azerbaijan, Armenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, and others joined the CIS. On December 25, 1991, USSR President M.S. Gorbachev resigned. The Soviet Union ceased to exist.

In the international arena during the period of perestroika, Gorbachev initiated new political thinking, calling for an end to the confrontation in the Cold War. Demonstrating goodwill, he sometimes made unilateral concessions. Gorbachev facilitated the reunification of Germany, the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Europe, and other measures. This made him popular among ordinary people in the West. However, the leaders of those countries viewed Gorbachev's position primarily as a manifestation of weakness and an opportunity to use the situation in their own interests. The USSR was declared the loser in the Cold War.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The beginning of the policy of perestroika. 1985 – 1986.
2. The period of radical perestroika. 1987 – 1989.
3. The crisis of the policy of perestroika. 1990 – 1991.
4. The foreign policy of the USSR during the perestroika period.
5. The collapse of the USSR.

Assignments

1. Show on the map the countries of Central and Southeastern Europe where the Velvet Revolutions took place.
2. Read the excerpt from the historical source and answer the questions. From the Alma-Ata Declaration of the Heads of Independent States:

Independent States –

The Republic of Azerbaijan, the Republic of Armenia, the Republic of Belarus, the Republic of Kazakhstan, the Republic of Kyrgyzstan, the Republic of Moldova, the Russian Federation (RSFSR), the Republic of Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, the Republic of Uzbekistan and Ukraine,

Striving to build democratic States governed by the rule of law, relations between which will develop on the basis of mutual recognition and respect for State sovereignty...;

Recognizing and respecting each other's territorial integrity and the inviolability of existing borders;

Being committed to the goals and principles of the Agreement on the Establishment of the Commonwealth of Independent States, declare the following:

The interaction of the members of the Commonwealth will be carried out on the principle of equality ... in accordance with the procedure determined by agreements between the members of the Commonwealth, which is neither a state nor a supranational entity...

The commitment to cooperation in the formation and development of a common economic space, pan-European and Eurasian markets is confirmed.

With the formation of the Commonwealth of Independent States, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics ceases to exist.

- 1) Indicate the year and month when the declaration was adopted.
- 2) Name the president of Russia at that time.
- 3) Name the title of the period that ended with the signing of the declaration.

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PRACTICAL CLASS 23

Topic 20. Russia in the 1990s

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia in the 1990s.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of Russia in the 1990s;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The relevance of the topic is connected with the ambiguous assessment of the essence and results of the perestroika of the public system and the country's economy. The systemic crisis manifested itself in the aggravation of interethnic relations and the predominance of disintegration tendencies, which led to the collapse of the USSR. With the emergence of a new state – the Russian Federation (RF) – in December 1991, a new stage of development begins in the history of our homeland: radical economic and political reforms are carried out, and a new Constitution of 1993 is adopted. The country, just as at the beginning of the 20th century, faces the problem of choosing its historical path of development.

Theoretical part

Following the dissolution of the USSR, the question arose regarding the choice of Russia's development model under new conditions. It was necessary to ensure the transition from a planned-distributive economy to an economy based on market relations and private property. The main components of the early 1990s reforms were price liberalization and the introduction of free trade, alongside the privatization of state property. The reforms caused hyperinflation, unemployment, criminalization, and a sharp drop in living standards. Yeltsin's reforms led not to economic recovery, but to an even deeper crisis compared to the perestroika period.

Great criticism was drawn by the loans-for-shares auctions conducted in the mid-1990s, as a result of which a circle of businessmen close to power were able to acquire for a pittance the most profitable oil and gas, mining, and processing enterprises created by the labor of several generations of Soviet people. A group of wealthy oligarchs formed in Russia who controlled the mass media and laid claim to political influence.

The collapse of the USSR did not stop separatist aspirations within Russia itself, which worsened as the economic situation deteriorated. In the 1990s, Chechnya became a haven for international terrorism and crime, where Russian laws did not operate. This served as the basis for conducting several military operations to normalize life and restore constitutional order.

As disappointment in market reforms grew in 1992, opposition sentiments increased, including within the walls of the Supreme Soviet of the RSFSR. The situation led to a split within the Russian political elite, which escalated in 1993 into a state of acute crisis. The fierce struggle between the president and the opposition led to a tragedy – the armed confrontation in Moscow in the autumn of 1993 and the shelling of the White House by Yeltsin's order. The political crisis was finally resolved in connection with the adoption of the Constitution of the Russian Federation at the end of 1993. It significantly strengthened presidential powers and changed the country's political system. Nevertheless, the political and economic situation in Russia remained unstable until the end of the 1990s.

Following the collapse of the USSR, a fundamentally new situation took shape in the international arena. The revision of the post-war world order was linked to the formation of a unipolar world, marked by the military-political dominance of the USA and NATO. Russia became the legal successor of the USSR on the international stage. It succeeded in preserving the permanent seat on the UN Security Council previously held by the USSR and achieved the transfer of the entire Soviet nuclear potential to its territory.

During the negotiations on German reunification in 1990, USSR President M.S. Gorbachev was promised that NATO would not expand eastward beyond the borders of a united Germany. However, these oral promises were not formalized into international agreements, giving Western leaders grounds to pretend they never existed.

The primary goal of the U.S. leadership was to turn Russia into a country following the course of American policy. However, by the mid-1990s, doubts about partnership relations intensified in Russian society. In 1999, relations between Russia and the West noticeably deteriorated due to the U.S. and NATO bombings of Yugoslavia.

Overall, Russia entered the 21st century weakened in economic and military terms, burdened with a heavy load of internal problems requiring resolution.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. The beginning of economic reforms.
2. The crisis of 1993 and the formation of the political system.
3. Russian society during the period of reforms.
4. Foreign policy of the Russian Federation.

Assignments

1. List and show on the map:
 - 1) countries that were members of the CIS;
 - 2) NATO countries near the borders of the Russian Federation.
2. Determine which events are associated with the documents (or leaders' speeches) from which the excerpts are taken. Determine the time of adoption of the documents (speeches) and arrange them in chronological order:
 - 1) *In connection with the gross violation by the President of the Russian Federation... of the Constitution of the Russian Federation – Russia... the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation decrees: ... the powers of the President of the Russian Federation... are terminated.*
 - 2) *To carry out... the transition principally to the application of free (market) prices and tariffs, taking shape under the influence of supply and demand, for production and technical products, consumer goods, works, and services. State purchases of agricultural products shall also be carried out at free (market) prices.*
 - 3) *Russian planes strike and will continue to strike in Chechnya exclusively at terrorist bases, and this will continue wherever the terrorists are located. ...We will pursue terrorists everywhere. At the airport – at the airport. So, you must excuse me, if we catch them in the outhouse, we'll waste them in the shithouse, eventually. That's it, the question is closed definitively.*
 - 4) *I have heard many times: 'Yeltsin will hold onto power by any means, he will never give it up.' This is a lie. The point is different. I have always said that I will not step back from the Constitution even a step. That дума elections must take place within constitutional timeframes. That is how it happened. And just as much I wanted presidential elections to be held on time... This was very important for Russia. We are creating a crucial precedent of civilized, voluntary transfer of power, power from one president of Russia to another, newly elected.*

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PRACTICAL CLASS 24

Topic 21. The Cultural Space of Russia in the 20th and Early 21st Centuries

Aim: shaping the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the cultural space in the 20th and early 21st centuries.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of culture in the 20th and early 21st centuries;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

The most important factor that determined the development of culture in the 20th and early 21st centuries was the acceleration of scientific and technological progress. In all areas of human activity, the sphere of application of mental labor expanded, and the need for qualified personnel increased, which entailed a rise in the educational level of the population.

Theoretical part

The Soviet government faced crucial tasks, such as: the elimination of illiteracy, the creation of a public education system, the training of personnel for a new intelligentsia and the ideological re-education of the old one, the creation of necessary conditions for the development of literature, art, and the humanities, and the utilization of scientific achievements for socialist transformations. The ultimate goal was the creation of a proletarian culture.

In the 1920s, innovative social and cultural-educational reforms were carried out in the USSR, many of which were subsequently adopted in other countries. Active campaigns were waged against juvenile homelessness and illiteracy, successes were outlined in the protection of motherhood and childhood, and in ensuring equal rights for women. At the same time, the course toward creating a new man was accompanied by the struggle against religion and the closure of places of worship.

A massive undertaking for Russia was the elimination of the illiteracy of the adult population (about 70%). By the end of the 1920s, a state system of public education had been created. During the 1st Five-Year Plan, mandatory four-year education was introduced, and during the 2nd, seven-year education. By 1926, literacy reached 51.5%, and by 1939, 89%. Dozens of new universities opened across the country, and technical schools and workers' faculties (*rabfaks*) began to be created, where working youth received general secondary education and prepared for admission to higher education institutions.

The main scientific center was the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, whose branches began to be established in the capitals of the union republics starting in 1932, and hundreds of research institutes emerged to conduct scientific developments across diverse fields of knowledge.

A major role in the development of science was played by: Arctic explorers O.Yu. Schmidt and I.D. Papanin, chemist S.V. Lebedev, geologist I.M. Gubkin, biologist N.I. Vavilov, physicists A.F. Ioffe, P.L. Kapitsa, I.V. Kurchatov, geochemist V.I. Vernadsky, and aircraft designers A.N. Tupolev and O.K. Antonov.

In the second half of the 1930s, the process of politicization and ideologization of Soviet science sharply intensified. In August 1934, the 1st All-Union Congress of Writers took place. The method of socialist realism began to be implanted in literature and art. Prominent writers included A.N. Tolstoy, M.A. Sholokhov, A.A. Fadeev, and A.M. Gorky. Great importance was attached to cinema. Films about the revolution – such as *Lenin in October*, the trilogy about Maxim, and the Civil War film *Chapaev* – as well as comedies like *Volga-Volga* and *Circus*, enjoyed special popularity. Revolutionary themes gradually began to predominate in the work of artists. Through various creative unions, the state directed and controlled all activities of the creative intelligentsia in the desired direction.

Following the Great Patriotic War, cultural hubs – educational institutions, theaters, museums, and others – were restored. Labor training was introduced in schools, and a transition was made to compulsory eight-year education (1958). The system of evening and correspondence education expanded significantly. Institutes preferentially admitted those who came from production. New universities and technical schools were opened.

There were significant achievements in science. In 1956, the Joint Institute for Nuclear Research was opened, headed by I.V. Kurchatov. In 1957, the creation of the Siberian Branch of the Academy of Sciences began in Novosibirsk. A number of domestic physicists were awarded the Nobel Prize: N.N. Semyonov, I.E. Tamm, I.M. Frank, P.A. Cherenkov, A.M. Prokhorov, N.G. Basov, and L.D. Landau.

In 1949, the USSR became a possessor of atomic weapons, and later – thanks to A.D. Sakharov and other scientists – the hydrogen bomb (1953). In 1968 (noted as 1956 in text context

adjustments), A.N. Tupolev created the supersonic aircraft Tu-144. Practical cosmonautics was led by S.P. Korolev. In 1957, the first artificial Earth satellite was launched, and on April 12, 1961, Yu.A. Gagarin made the first space flight; in the same year, V.G. Titov flew, in 1963 the first female cosmonaut V.V. Tereshkova flew, and in 1965 A.A. Leonov performed the first spacewalk. Television entered daily life, and automation was introduced. The USSR entered the ranks of countries driving the scientific and technological revolution, though it could not maintain priority.

In literature, alongside the war theme, the features of modern life were increasingly explored, and new names appeared: F. Abramov, D. Granin, V. Tendryakov, V. Dudintsev, V. Shukshin, and others. In 1965, M. Sholokhov became a Nobel Prize laureate. A. Tvardovsky headed the journal *Novy Mir*. New magazines appeared: *Moskva*, *Yunost*, *Inostranskaya Literatura*, and others. Cinematography, theater, musical art, and painting developed successfully. Worldwide art festivals and competitions began to be held in the USSR. New creative unions were created: the USSR Union of Cinematographers, the RSFSR Union of Writers, and the RSFSR Union of Artists. There emerged their own bards – B. Okudzhava, V. Vysotsky – and an entire constellation of sixties poets (*shestidesyatniki*) – R. Rozhdestvensky, E. Yevtushenko, A. Voznesensky, B. Akhmadulina.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, a transition to universal secondary education was carried out, dozens of new universities and institutes were opened (by 1980 – over 850 higher education institutions), and the USSR occupied a leading global position in the number of specialists with higher education.

Notable phenomena of musical life included works by A. Petrov, G. Sviridov, and A. Khachaturian. Songs by A. Pakhmutova, R. Pauls, D. Tukhmanov, and others were popular.

A feature of contemporary Russian culture is the diversity of manifestations of creative initiatives in all areas of public life.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. General characteristics of culture (the influence of scientific and technological progress on culture, international cultural ties, the culture of the Russian Abroad, changes in cultural management in the late 20th and early 21st centuries).
2. Literature (literary life in Soviet Russia in the 1920s, the creation of the Union of Soviet Writers of the USSR, literary policy and literary life in the post-war period, new trends in literary life of the late 20th and early 21st centuries).

3. Fine arts (artistic movements in the fine arts of the 1920s, the creation of the Union of Soviet Artists and new trends in artistic life during the Thaw, official and alternative art, main features of the artistic life of contemporary Russia).
4. Theater (theater in the early post-revolutionary years: search for paths, theater groups and repertoire of the 1930s – 1940s, new trends in theatrical life: from the Thaw to the present).
5. Music (musical life in the early post-revolutionary years, the fight against formalism and correction of errors, musical life in the second half of the 20th and early 21st centuries: stylistic and genre diversity).
6. Cinema art (overcoming the consequences of the Civil War in the film industry, creating a management system for the film industry and distribution, achievements of Soviet cinema in the 1930s, from few-film production (*malokartinye*) to the Thaw, cinematography at the sunset of the Soviet era and during the transition to the market).
7. Architecture (search for a new style: innovators and traditionalists, architectural projects and their implementation in the 1930s – 1950s, from standard housing construction to postmodernism).

Assignments

1. Name at least two goals of the cultural revolution of the 1930s in the USSR and indicate at least three of its results.
2. Characterize the development of science and technology in the USSR from 1954 to 1964.
3. Compare the main features of cultural development in the USSR between 1945 – 1953 and 1953 – 1964.
4. Presentation topics.
 - Development of culture and art of the USSR in the post-war period
 - Stalin's Skyscrapers
 - From the Stalinist Empire to functional architecture
 - Culture during the Great Patriotic War
 - Painting – from harsh style to Impressionism
 - Exhibition 30 years of the Moscow Art Museum and the defeat of the second Russian avant-garde
 - Formation of national schools of painting in the Union Republics
 - Creation of large memorials complexes perpetuating the memory of the Great Patriotic War
 - The construction of the Ostankino TV Tower and Olympic facilities in Moscow
 - The phenomenon of the author's song. The works of O.G. Mityaev, Yu.I. Vizbor, B.S. Okudzhava, V.S. Vysotsky et al.

- Vocal and instrumental ensembles. Russian rock. Rock clubs and rock festivals. Rock operas
- Soviet cinema of the post-war period
- Awards of Soviet films at foreign film festivals
- The Heyday of Soviet animation. World recognition of Soviet animation
- Development of television. Serial TV movies and TV series
- TV program Time.

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PRACTICAL CLASS 25

Topic 22. The Russian Federation and the Modern World

Aim: formation of the general scientific methodological competency (competency), implying knowledge of modern conceptual approaches to the study of issues concerning the history of Russia at the beginning of the 21st century.

As a result of studying the topic, the student:

- analyzes the main stages of Russia's historical development;
- possesses knowledge of the history of Russia at the beginning of the 21st century;
- demonstrates the ability to work with sources on the history of Russia;
- is capable of performing cognitive activity.

Competencies shaped:

- Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks (UC-1).
- Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts (UC-5).

Rationale

In 2000, Russia entered a new prolonged period of its history, which led to noticeable changes both within the country and in the international arena. It was possible to strengthen the vertical of power and the integrity of the country, as well as to increase the efficiency of public administration. The beginning was laid by President V.V. Putin. At the present stage, a multipolar world is being formed. Since the beginning of the 21st century, Russia has sought to pursue an independent foreign policy.

Theoretical part

On December 31, 1999, RF President B.N. Yeltsin announced his resignation. On March 26, 2000, in early elections, V.V. Putin was elected President of the RF. He was re-elected as President of the RF in 2004, 2012, 2018, and 2024. In 2008 – 2012, under President D.A. Medvedev, V.V. Putin headed the government of the Russian Federation.

In the early years of his presidency, V.V. Putin focused his attention on strengthening the state. In May 2000, an administrative reform began. Seven large districts were created: Central, Southern, Northwestern, Volga, Siberian, and Far Eastern, which included 89 regions. Regional laws were brought into compliance with all-Russian ones, and non-compliant norms were canceled. An end was put to oligarchic clans interfering in politics. The fight against international

terrorism was successfully waged. The establishment of peace in Chechnya contributed to the stabilization of the situation not only in the North Caucasus, but in Russia as a whole. In 2003, a referendum was held in the Chechen Republic on the adoption of a Constitution recognizing Chechnya as an integral part of the Russian Federation.

The government stimulated economic development and the growth of citizens' well-being. Starting January 1, 2006, the implementation of four priority national projects began in Russia: Health, Affordable and Comfortable Housing for Russian Citizens, Education, and Development of the Agro-Industrial Complex (AIC). Special attention is paid by the state to young families. Starting in 2007, after the birth of a second child, families are presented with a certificate for maternity (family) capital (the Birth Certificates program). In 2008, the country's leadership announced that the birth rate had begun to exceed the mortality rate.

Great concern was caused by the complication of the international situation, the refusal of the USA and NATO to recognize Russia's national interests, and the course pursued by the American leadership toward building a unipolar world.

Of particular danger to Russia was the eastward expansion of NATO and its military infrastructure. In 1999, Hungary, Poland, and the Czech Republic became members of NATO. In 2004, Bulgaria, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, and the countries bordering Russia – Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia – entered the alliance. After Ukraine and Georgia submitted official applications for NATO membership in 2008, it became clear that their admission to the alliance was a matter of time. Russia's repeated proposals to hold negotiations during which its national interests would be taken into account, as well as warnings about the presence of red lines whose violation would force Russia to take retaliatory measures, were ignored. In addition, the USA and its allies withdrew from basic agreements with Russia on the limitation and reduction of armaments that had restrained the world from global conflict for decades. These included: the refusal of NATO countries to ratify the updated 1999 Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe, the U.S. withdrawal from the Anti-Ballistic Missile (ABM) Treaty in 2002, the Open Skies Treaty in 2018, and the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty in 2019.

In 2008, the armed forces of Georgia, trained and encouraged by NATO, carried out a military provocation in South Ossetia, attacking the Russian peacekeeping contingent stationed there and subsequently the city of Tskhinval. Russia defended South Ossetia and, despite Western protests, recognized its independence. The independence of another former Georgian autonomy, Abkhazia, was also recognized.

In 2014, following an unconstitutional coup in Kyiv, residents of the Crimean Peninsula voted for its incorporation into the RF (on March 16, 2014, a referendum was held on the peninsula, by decision of which 96.7% of voters favored reunification with Russia). March 18,

when the corresponding treaty was signed, became the holiday of the Day of the Reunification of Crimea with Russia. Another hotbed of tension near Russian borders arose in connection with the military actions of the Kyiv regime against the Donetsk and Luhansk People's Republics proclaimed in 2014. The 2014 – 2015 Minsk Agreements, concluded with Russia's active participation for the peaceful resolution of this conflict, were torpedoed by the Kyiv regime. The situation in Ukraine, whose leadership turned it into an anti-Russia and prepared with NATO's help for the return of Crimea and Donbas, led to the inevitability of Russia conducting a special military operation in 2022.

Questions and Assignments

Questions

1. Main trends, problems, and contradictions of world history at the beginning of the 21st century.
2. Political development of Russia at the beginning of the 21st century.
3. Economic development of the country at the beginning of the 21st century.
4. Foreign policy of the Russian Federation at the beginning of the 21st century.
5. Foreign policy events of 2014 – 2022. The Special Military Operation (SMO).

Assignments

1. Expand the abbreviations: CSTO, EurAsEC, SCO, BRICS, CPRF, LDPR (ОДКБ, ЕврАзЭС, ШОС, БРИКС, КПРФ, ЛДПР).
2. List and show on the map:
 - 1) CSTO, SCO, BRICS countries;
 - 2) NATO countries near the borders of the RF.
3. Read the theses from the report of the leader of Russia and answer the questions:
 - *For the modern world, a unipolar model is not only unacceptable, but also generally impossible.*
 - *Russia is a country with a history of more than a thousand years, and practically always it has enjoyed the privilege of conducting an independent foreign policy.*
 - *We see a growing disregard for the fundamental principles of international law.*
 - *I think it is obvious: the process of NATO expansion has nothing to do with the modernization of the alliance itself or with ensuring security in Europe. On the contrary, it is a seriously provoking factor that lowers the level of mutual trust.*
 - *I am convinced that the only mechanism for decision-making on the use of military force as a last resort can only be the UN Charter.*

- *We cannot fail to be alarmed by plans to deploy elements of the missile defense system in Europe.*

- a. Who is the author of this report?
 - b. In what year and where did the leader of our country deliver this report?
 - c. What is the danger of a unipolar world, according to the author? Why is such a world impossible in modern conditions?
 - d. What was the attitude of Western countries toward this speech?
4. Presentation topics.

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1. Petrov, Yu.A., ed. *History of Russia: A Textbook for Universities*. – Moscow : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
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1. Danilov, A.A. *History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers: A Textbook*. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. Sakharov, A.N., Bokhanov, A.N., Shestakov, V.A. *History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day: A Textbook / Ed. by A.N. Sakharov*. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.
3. Firsov, S.L. *History of Russia: A Textbook for Universities*. – 2nd ed., rev. and supp. – Moscow : Yurayt Publishing House, 2023. – 380 p.
4. Kramarenko, R.A. *National History: A Textbook for Universities*. – 2nd ed., rev. and supp. – Moscow : Yurayt Publishing House, 2023. – 199 p.
5. Semennikova, L.I., et al. *History of Russia in 2 Parts. Part 2. 20th – Early 21st Century: A Textbook for Universities / Ed. by L.I. Semennikova*. – 7th ed., rev. and supp. – Moscow : Yurayt Publishing House, 2023. – 328 p.
6. Kovnir, V.N. *Economic History of Russia in 2 Parts. Part 2. From 1917 to the Beginning of the 21st Century: A Textbook for Universities*. – 2nd ed., rev. and supp. – Moscow : Yurayt Publishing House, 2023. – 156 p.
7. Sidorov, A.V., et al. *History of Russia in 2 Parts. Part 2. XX – Early 21st Century: A Textbook for Universities / Ed. by A.V. Sidorov*. – 2nd ed., rev. and supp. – Moscow : Yurayt Publishing House, 2023. – 237 p. URL: <https://urait.ru/bcode/512616> (last visited: 13/03/2023).

**MINISTRY OF SCIENCE AND HIGHER EDUCATION OF THE RUSSIAN
FEDERATION**

**Federal State Autonomous Educational Institution of Higher Education
NORTH-CAUCASUS FEDERAL UNIVERSITY**

**Methodological Guidelines
for Students' Independent Work in
HISTORY OF RUSSIA
for all specialties and fields of study of the university profile**

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Introduction

Independent student work (ISW) represents one of the significant forms of the educational process, which contributes to the formation of a creative personality of a specialist capable of self-development, self-education, and innovative activity.

Independent student work promotes the development of the ability to learn, fosters in the student the capacity for self-development, creative application of acquired knowledge, and adaptation to professional activity in the modern world.

Independent student work is an activity associated with cultivating the mindset of a future professional, any type of class that creates conditions for the emergence of independent thought and cognitive activity. It is the aggregate of all independent activity of students both in the classroom and outside it, in contact with the instructor and in their absence.

Independent work is implemented:

- Directly in the process of classroom sessions – in lectures, practical classes, and seminars.
- In contact with the teacher outside of schedule hours – during consultations on academic issues, in the course of creative contacts, during the clearance of academic debts, when completing individual assignments, etc.
- In the library, at home, in the dormitory, or at the department when a student performs academic and creative tasks.

Students' independent work can be carried out both in the classroom and outside it, usually being predominantly extracurricular student activity. For the active mastery of knowledge during classroom work, not only an understanding of the educational material is necessary, but also its creative perception.

Aims, Objectives, and Competencies

The aims of mastering the History of Russia discipline include: to shape students' comprehensive understanding of the cultural and historical identity of Russia and its place in world and European civilization. The academic course History of Russia is designed to help students acquire systematic knowledge of the basic patterns and features of the world-historical process with an emphasis on studying the history of Russia. The study of the discipline History of Russia is designed to help students reach a new level of understanding of historical processes, and to develop their skills in obtaining, analyzing, and synthesizing historical information.

The process of studying the discipline is aimed at forming: students' interest in developing skills for obtaining, analyzing, and synthesizing historical information, as well as forming a civic stance.

Objectives of ISW

- Enhancing and consolidating knowledge on the History of Russia.

- Activating the cognitive activity of students.
- Developing historical thinking and interest in the subject.
- Providing assistance to students in preparing for practical classes.
- Analyzing and commenting on archival documents.
- Working on monographs and scientific articles, extracting necessary material from these sources, and making brief excerpts.
- Conducting a scientific, argumentative dialogue, mastering the culture of debate and the basics of oratory.
- Comparing different points of view with the choice of the optimal one, finding non-standard solutions, defending one's point of view, and arguing one's position.

Competencies

Independent work in the discipline History of Russia is aimed at forming the following competencies:

Code	Definition
UC-1	Able to search, critically analyze, and synthesize information, and apply a systematic approach to solve assigned tasks
UC-5	Able to perceive the intercultural diversity of society in socio-historical, ethnic, and philosophical contexts

Procedure for Completing Independent Work by Full-Time Students

Codes of competencies & Indicators	Type of Students' Activity	Means & Technology for Assessment	Hours, incl.		
			SIW	Face-to-face with the teacher	Total
Semester 1					
ID-1 UC-1 ID-2 UC-1 ID-3 UC-1 ID-1 UC-5 ID-2 UC-5 ID-3 UC-5	Independent study of sources and literature for topics Nos. 1 – 10.1	Interview, individual talk, reports	12	2	14
ID-1 UC-1 ID-2 UC-1 ID-3 UC-1 ID-1 UC-5 ID-2 UC-5 ID-3 UC-5	Preparation for the round table on topics Nos. 4, 7	Interview	3.5	0.5	4
Total for Semester 1			15.5	2.5	18

Semester 2					
ID-1 UC-1 ID-2 UC-1 ID-3 UC-1 ID-1 UC-5 ID-2 UC-5 ID-3 UC-5	Preparation for the round table on topics Nos. 13, 16.1	Interview	2.5	0,5	3
ID-1 UC-1 ID-2 UC-1 ID-3 UC-1 ID-1 UC-5 ID-2 UC-5 ID-3 UC-5	Independent study of sources and literature for topics Nos. 11.1 – 22	Interview, individual survey, reports	4.5	0,5	5
Total for Semester 2			7	1	8
Total for Semesters 1 and 2			22.5	3.5	26

Main Forms of Independent Work and Knowledge Control

- **Reference outline of a topic (Oporny konspekt)** – a written text that briefly and consistently sets out the content of the main source of information. To outline means to bring information gleaned from the original into a certain order, based on the systematization of what was read or heard.
- **Project** – a form of control aimed at checking the student's information and communication competencies.
- **Seminar-discussion** – a form of educational activity that allows students to be included in the discussion of a controversial issue or problem and assesses their ability to argue their own point of view.
- **Colloquium** – a means of controlling the mastery of educational material of a topic, section, or sections of the discipline, organized as an academic class in the form of an interview between the instructor and the student.
- **Interview (Sobesedovanie)** – a control tool organized as a special conversation between the instructor and the student on topics related to the discipline being studied, designed to determine the scope of the student's knowledge on a specific section, topic, problem, etc.

Current control is carried out during individual and group consultations, interviews, and in the process of analysis and self-analysis of independent work.

Guidelines for Presenting and Formatting the Results of Independent Work

A **reference outline of a topic** is an expanded, visual construction of the topic containing rules, formulas, definitions, graphs, unit designations, and keywords arranged in a specific way. An **outline** (from Latin *conspectus* – review) is a written text in which the content of the main source of information is briefly and consistently set out. The manner of writing an outline is

generally close to the style of the primary source. If compiled correctly, it should reflect the logic and semantic connection of the recorded information.

Types of Outlines

- **Plan-outline (Plan-konspekt)** – created on the basis of a pre-composed plan, consisting of numbered sections with headings and subheadings, where each heading is expanded with short text. Ideal for urgent preparation for a public speech or seminar.
- **Schematic plan** – all points of the plan are presented as interrogative sentences that need to be answered, with short notes (2 – 3 sentences) under each question point.
- **Textual outline** – denser than others, composed of excerpts and quotes directly from the source. Best suited for studying science or literature where author quotes are crucial.
- **Thematic outline** – highlights a specific issue using multiple sources rather than just one.
- **Free outline** – contains a mix of excerpts, quotes, a plan, and numerous theses for those who know how to use multiple working methods simultaneously.
- **Technique for Outline Compilation**
- Review the material to identify text features, its character, and complexity.
- Reread and carefully analyze the text to separate major points from minor ones.
- Highlight main thoughts (theses) either as exact quotes or in your own words.

Basic Rules for Lecture Outlining

- Do not start writing down material from the instructor's very first words; listen to the thought to the end and understand it first.
- Begin writing when the instructor finishes explaining one thought and moves on to comment on it.
- Visually highlight individual parts in the outline: titles, subheadings, and conclusions, using underlining or color. Indent paragraphs and use numbering. Enclose definitions, formulas, and rules in frames.
- Use established symbols and conventional signs (e.g., arrows =>, exclamation/question marks, PS, NB).
- Develop a consistent personal system of abbreviations (e.g., using a capital letter P for work) to save time. Avoid complex or overly long reasonings and stick to narrative sentences.

Evaluation of Assignments

When checking assignments, the following are evaluated:

- Mastery of the material.

- Ability to clearly and logically express thoughts and approach core topic questions creatively.
- Independence of thought.

A Project is a type of control aimed at checking the student's information & communication competencies.

A **creative project** is an independent research work in which the author reveals the essence of the researched problem, provides various points of view, and presents their own views.

Structure of the Project

- **Introduction:** statement of the problem, justification of relevance, determination of goals and objectives.
- **First Part (Literature Review):** degree of problem development in socio-humanitarian knowledge and conclusions on research gaps.
- **Second Part (Research):** original research and justification of personal points of view on the analyzed problem.
- **Conclusion:** findings made by the student.
- **List of References:** at least five sources.

The volume of the work is 1 printed sheet (24 pages of typewritten text). Project defense time is 10 minutes, with 5 minutes for discussion, accompanied by a multimedia presentation.

Assessment Criteria for Projects

- Compliance of content with the project topic.
- Compliance with structure and volume requirements.
- Independence of execution.
- Validity, clarity, and conciseness of the response.
- Level of mastery, correct use of information, and scientific/independent presentation.

Seminars, Colloquiums, and Interviews

- **Seminar-discussion:** an educational activity for discussing controversial issues and evaluating students' argumentation skills.
- **Colloquium:** a mid-semester intermediate control form (from Latin *colloquium* – conversation) organized as a structured dialogue between instructor and student to activate and assess knowledge.

- **Interview (Sobesedovanie):** an individual conversation with each student on proposed questions to exercise current topic control, verify source-handling skills, and check out-of-class reading mastery.

Assessment Criteria for Students' Independent Work

Assessment criteria are developed in accordance with Federal State Educational Standards (FSSES HE) requirements. Tasks are evaluated on a scale of **excellent**, **good**, **satisfactory**, and **unsatisfactory**.

- **Excellent:** complete and well-founded answers are offered to all task questions; ability to apply theoretical knowledge in analyzing real-world events is demonstrated; deep and creative mastery of primary and secondary literature; material is presented argumentatively and logically.
- **Good:** full, sufficiently deep, and justified answers are provided; solid practical skills shown; deep knowledge of primary literature with minor gaps in secondary literature; answers are mostly concise though minor logical sequence flaws may occur.
- **Satisfactory:** mostly correct answers given to all task questions, but without proper depth and justification; practical skills are insufficiently strong; gaps in primary literature knowledge; answers are wordy and lack clear logical sequence.
- **Unsatisfactory:** conditions for a satisfactory grade are not met; the student has failed to master the core subject content and shows weak knowledge of recommended literature.

List of Recommended Literature

Main Literature

1. Petrov, Yu.A., ed. *History of Russia: A Textbook for Universities*. – Moscow : Nauka, 2024. – 521 p.
2. Kolesnikova, M.E., Tkachenko, D.S., Bochkareva, Z.V., et al., comps. *History of Russia: A Textbook : In 2 Parts. Part 1*. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 302 p.
3. Kolesnikova, M.E., Tkachenko, D.S., Bochkareva, Z.V., et al., comps. *History of Russia: A Textbook : In 2 Parts. Part 2*. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2024. – 297 p.

Additional Literature

1. Danilov, A.A. *History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day in Questions and Answers: A Textbook*. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2017. – 320 p.
2. Sakharov, A.N., Bokhanov, A.N., Shestakov, V.A. *History of Russia from Ancient Times to the Present Day: A Textbook* / Ed. by A.N. Sakharov. – Moscow : Prospekt, 2014. – 768 p.

Educational and Methodological Support

1. History: Educational and Methodological Manual / Comps. M.E. Kolesnikova, T.A. Nevskaya, L.P. Ermolenko, Zvereva. – Stavropol : NCFU Publishing House, 2021. – 100 p.
2. Guidelines for Students on the Organization and Implementation of Independent Work in the Discipline History of Russia. – Stavropol : NCFU, 2025. (electronic version)

Internet Resources

1. <http://elibrary.ru> – Scientific Electronic Library
2. <https://www.hist.msu.ru/ER/index.html> – Electronic Resources Library of the History Faculty at Lomonosov Moscow State University
3. <http://www.hrono.ru> – Hronos
4. <http://biblioclub.ru> – University Library Online
5. <http://medievalrus.csu.ru> – Medieval Rus
6. <http://www.drevnyaya.ru> – Ancient Rus. Questions of Medieval Studies