

ATLAS OF UKRAINIAN HISTORY

Eugene Tiutko
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Cartographic Design – Eugene Tiutko



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Chicago, IL.

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Ukraine (Ukraina) is the second largest country in Europe in terms of size with a population of 52,000,000. Capital: Kyiv.

Ukraine is located north of the Black Sea, west from the Carpathian Mountains, east to the Don and north to the Desna Rivers.

Featuring 38 colour maps, each map shows the history of Ukrainian people. The text shows short historical reference to each map, which makes it easy to learn the history of the old nation - Ukrainians from the IX century until the proclamation of Ukrainian Independence in 1991.

Atlas of Ukrainian History:

At the end of VIII century Varangians (Swedish Vikings) came from Scandinavia to the northeastern territories of Europe, conquering Baltic and Finnish tribes and later in the beginning of the IX century Slovenes. They developed a strong state with the capital of Novhorod on the Lake Ilmen. Ca. 860 they came south to Kyiv on the Dnipro River and brought to Ukrainian land the name and began to form the Kyivan State Rus' (Old Ukraine). The indigenous population adopted this as the name of their nation and territory.

From that time begins the growth of the Ukrainian State Rus' until the Mongol invasions in the XIII century. After 1340 Ukrainian land was divided between Lithuania, Poland and Muscovy (Russia). From that time Ukraine did not have independent Statehood for long periods of history. When the communist revolution started in Russia in 1917, Ukrainian people proclaimed an independent Ukrainian state with its own government. After three years of war in 1921, Communist Russia (Soviet Union) occupied most of the territory of Ukraine, West Ukraine Poland, Carpathian Ukraine (Rus') Czechoslovakia and Bukovyna Rumania. After the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991 Ukraine proclaimed again her independence.

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Atlas of Ukrainian History

This atlas is published by Eugene Tiutko with the cooperation of Myroslav Semchyshyn, Ph.D., John Peter Maher Ph.D., Ruta Wytanovych-Halibey, M.A., Anna Prohny, M.A. and Anna Holovatyj, M.A. to commemorate Ukrainian Independence 24.VIII. 1991

*For memory to my brothers
Ostap and Vsevolod, who died in
the World War II in the struggle
for freedom of their country.*

**TO COMMEMORATE
UKRAINIAN INDEPENDENCE
24. VIII. 1991**

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Publisher's Preface

The Historical Atlas of Ukraine is intended to present the historical development of Ukraine and her people from the earliest times to the development of Rus'-Ukraine and on to the present day.

The two major elements of the historical process, which determine the political, cultural, religious and economic development of a nation are time and space. We are utilizing the method of historical cartography to show the development of ukrainian nationhood through the ages. Ukraine has not had independent statehood for long periods of history and there has not been an opportunity to publish a genuine national summary showing a complete picture of historical events in Ukraine.

This is the first historical atlas of Ukraine in English, which provides a picture of the historical progression of the Ukrainian people through the study of Ukrainian history. The maps presented here depict the origins of Ukrainian statehood in Kyivan-Rus"-Ukraine (the Royal Period of the Princes), an era which Ukraine's northern neighbor Russia has appropriated as its own, despite the fact, that at that period of time, the Muscovite State (from which Russia developed) did not exist as a separate entity, but was one of the tribes under the banner of the Trident and Cross of the Kyivan-Rus"-Ukraine Empire.

This atlas has 38 color maps encompassing various periods of Ukrainian history: ancient archeology, Scythian and Sarmatian periods, the Barbarian invasions—the great migrations of peoples, the Khazar state, the Royal Period of Ukrainian statehood—Kyivan-Rus", the Mongol invasions, the Halych-Volynian state, the Lithuanian-Ukrainian state, the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, the Ukrainian Cossack (Kozak) state, the Haydamak uprisings, Ukraine in the 19th century, the rebirth of Ukrainian statehood in the 20th century, the Ukrainian independent state in 1991 and Ukrainians in Asia.

Each map includes explanatory notes and a short summary of the historical events for each time period. Cartographic design and all maps have been produced by the initiator of this historical atlas, Eugene Tiutko, with the cooperation of Myroslav Semchyshyn, Ph.D., John Peter Maher, Ph.D., Ruta Wytanovych Halibey, M.A., Anna Prohny, M.A., and Anna Holovatyj, M.A.

The spelling of historical names used on the maps and in the text follow the conventions found in "History of Ukraine" by Prof. Mykhailo Hrushevskyi; the names of cities, based on maps published by the Ukrainian State in 1918 and in accordance with accepted usage in the western Ukrainian territories prior to World War II, based on "Atlas Ukrainy i Sumezhnykh Kraiv" by Volodymyr Kubiyovych, Ph.D. in 1937.

At this point I would like to extend my sincere thanks to all the people, who have contributed to the publication of this first English language edition of "Atlas of Ukrainian

History.” For the preparation and editing of the historical text, which accompanies the maps, I thank Myroslav Semchyshyn , Ph.D. John Peter Maher, Ph.D. (Prof. at Northern Illinois University), Ruta Wytanovych-Halibey, M.A. Anna Prohny, M.A. and Anna Holovatyj, M.A. Their hard work and dedication to this project is greatly appreciated.

Eugene Tiutko

NOTE ON TRANSLITERATION:

In the system of transliteration from the Ukrainian I have tried to do as in other atlases in English: Caucasus, not Kavkaz, Carpatian Mts., not Karpaty, Warsaw, not Warszawa, Moscow, not Moskva. Towns on the Ukrainian territory are in general given their Ukrainian transliteration. Also the spelling is the same in the index. The Russian towns on Russian territory are in Russian spelling. The same applies to Polish, Hungarian and other countries.

But on the ethnographic territory of Ukrainian people the names of the towns, who originally were in the time between IX-XIII cen. in Kyivan-Rus' in Ukrainian spelling, stay in Ukrainian transliteration: Lviv, not Lwów, or Lemberg, or Lvov, Peremyshl, not Przemyśl, Kholm, not Chelm; Halych, not Galich, Kyiv, not Kiev, Chernyhiv, not Chernigov and so on.....The same procedure is followed in the index.

Foreword

Geography is an historical discipline, something that was brought home with a vengeance in Europe after the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989, when map makers drafted and published innumerable new maps.

A good model for understanding historical geography is provided by the history of books. Before the printing press, every copy of every book was hand-written; and before the age of throw-away material, the pages of skin and papyrus on which these old books were written was exceedingly durable. It not seldom happened that an old text was scrubbed off such a sheet and a new text inscribed upon it. But in the course of years, chemical traces of the old inks, embedded deep in the fibers and not totally removed, became visible again. Greek philologists termed such documents “palimpsests,” for they were “scraped again.”

The Ukrainian people and land, to take a metaphor from the study of ancient books, present us with a “palimpsest”: many nations have left their imprint on Ukrainian culture, language and land. This is not merely of antiquarian interest, but poses the first practical modern problem for geographers, not for Ukrainians alone, but for nearly everyone interested in the subject. What name of names shall we use in discussing this country? It helps to look at case studies involving other countries.

The powerful Chinese have told the world to say “Beijing.” instead of “Peking” or “Peiping.” The small nation of the Finns will call their capital “Helsinki” when they speak Finnish, “Helsingfors” when they use the other language of the land, Swedish. They expect foreigners to know little or nothing of their land or language, so Finns tolerate either variety.

At various times Ukrainians have been dominated by Poland and Russia and by Austria-Hungary. Even here we must exercise caution: the Austria or Russia of 1914 are light years distant from the Austria or Russia of 1500 or the 1990s. There is understandable confusion and even resentment therefore, when foreigners, who usually have little knowledge of the country, use a non-Ukrainian geographical name. Ukrainians, therefore, ought to be tolerant enough to accept defensible and traditional variation. But to correct the unacceptable error one must all the more have exact standards. And non Ukrainians, certainly historians and geographers, need to know what name and what language is appropriate and exact on a case by case basis.

Now that the Iron Curtain is down maybe you will drive from “Vienna,” the Italian name of “Wien,” to Ukraine. Let us say you would like to visit “Bratislava” in Slovakia (Slowakei) on your way. The older road signs in Austria (Österreich) pointed to Pressburg. But in case you drive from Budapest, the signs for “Bratislava” read “Pozsony.” Be prepared.

In Western Ukraine you reach the beautiful city of – how shall we call it? – Lviv, Lwów, or Lvov, or Lemberg? A native of the town may have been born an Austro-Hungarian subject in “Lemberg” before 1918, which is what the Austrian officials called it. After 1918 our Austro-Hungarian subject became a citizen of Poland, whose officials issued documents citing his domicile as “Lwów.” Although he never left home, after World War II this person was then a resident of “Lviv” in the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic. But our citizen’s father always said this, even in the days of Royal and Imperial Austrian occupation. Officialdom in the Soviet era generally insisted on reintroducing the Russian name “Lvov,” just as the British use the name “Londonderry,” while the Irish insist on the Gaelic name “Derry.” Since 1991 our man has lived in the independent Republic of Ukraine, capital Kyiv. If pronounced in eastern Ukrainian fashion Kyiv it will sound to the Anglo ear something like “kayiv” – or in western pronunciation “Kaye-eev.” The only name the foreigner usually knows is “kee-ev,” which he will accent on the second syllable. He won’t know that this is a bad pronunciation of the Russian name, which for that matter is really pronounced “Kee-if,” accent on the first syllable.

The Slavic nations emerging from the Soviet Union have a common genesis. They are East Slavs. Their history and geography, to invoke another analogy, is like archeology. Archeologists dig from the top, from the here and now, down, backward into the past, like peeling an onion. The outer skins of two of our onions are the names “Ukraine” and “Russia.” These terms suggest to the novice that the Ukraine is an appendage to Russia, which was indeed its political fate since the ascendancy of Muscovy until independence was attained in 1991 and abortively between the World Wars.

But the ethnogenesis of Ukrainians and Russians is the mirror image of the relations of the past 400 years. Muscovy’s roots lie in a colony of East Slavs who migrated north and east from Kievan Rus’ into Baltic (Lithuanian) and Finno-Ugric territory. Though in recent centuries Ukraine was “Little Russia” to the Muscovite, historically the relation was the opposite, somewhat like the development of tiny English America of 1600-1700 into a giant, that came to dwarf mother England. The language we call “Russian”, though it has preempted the name once common to all East Slavs, historically viewed is a dialect of the language that in Kyiv has come to be called “Ukrainian.” If likewise the language we today call “Russian” has preempted the name once common to all East Slavs, it has developed from the speech of those emigrants from Kyivan (Kievan) Rus’. The language as it evolved in Old Rus” is now known as “Ukrainian.” The common ancestor of this and modern “Russian”, together with Belorussian, was spoken along the Dnipro (Dnieper) from Novhorod in the north, south to Kyiv (Kiev) Novhorod and beyond. This language is called, perilously for the naive, “Old Russian”. It could as well,

just as inaccurately, be called “Old Ukrainian”. But scholars with a sense of humor and history will understand each other when they say, with double anachronism, “Russian is a Ukrainian dialect.” The least misleading term would be “Old East Slavic.”

The subsequent history of Slavic Easterners and Westerners is what sets the descendants of the East Slavs apart. After centuries of bondage under the Mongol Tatars, the received wisdom is that Muscovy’s heirs are doomed to absolutism. They, on the other hand, feel that the Westerners, in the 16th and 17th centuries under the impact of the Jesuit-led Counter-Reformation, spearheaded by Catholic Lithuania and Poland, have slipped their Slavic, Orthodox moorings.

And when the power of Poland ebbed, Muscovy expanded. And Russia’s self defense against resumed German “Drang nach Osten” (“drive to the East”), Ukrainians- and Poles-were caught in the middle. (Compare “England’s difficulty, Ireland’s advantage”.)

Territorially modern Ukraine is not coterminous with Kievan Rus’, the Old East Slavic ancestral homeland, and “Ukraina” is not the name that the ancestors of the nation called their land.

Furthermore, it was practice in early Europe to specify ethnicity, and only imply territory. In the documents of Kyivan (Kievan) Rus’, for example, what in modern English stylistics is termed “the journey from Scandinavia to Greece” was really worded “road from the Vikings to the Greeks.”

A millennium ago Christianity, i.e. Byzantine Christianity, was adopted, really imposed, at Kyiv (Kiev). The faith was accepted two centuries later in a minor Kyivan Rus’ colony deep in Finnish and Baltic territory. This settlement took its name from the river on whose banks it stood, the Moskva, English Moscow.

Modern Moscow’s roots thus lie in a colony of East Slavs who migrated north and east from Kyivan Rus’ into territory of Balts and Finns. Though the recent Ukraine was “Little Russia” to the recent Muscovite, the proper historical relation is the opposite, somewhat like the development of English America of the 1600s and 1700s into a giant dwarfing mother England. It would clarify matters to re-designate Russia as “New Russia” and Ukraine as “Old Rus’.”

Older than Ukraine/Ukraina is the Old Rus’/Old Ukrainian name Rus’, in the Cyrillic alphabet Русь, or Рорсь. This term is not met in East Slavic books until A.D. 911 and 944.

The name “Rus’” is not to be equated with the name “Russia”. Yet the relation between the two is real, but complex and confusing for the layman.

Byzantine Greeks referred to the Scandinavian northmen, who on their borders were usually Swedes, as “i Ros” (“the Rus”). Finns still call the Swedes “Routsi”. In the ninth century these Swedish Vikings seized Novhorod (Novgorod) and then Kyiv (Kiev).

The Vikings, also known as Varangians, were a factor all over northern Europe, from the Volga to the west of Ireland. There it was Norwegians who settled, traded, warred and blended with the indigenous people; in France it was Danes, and along the great river routes of the East Slavs it was Swedes that infiltrated. Loan words and personal names attest to this chapter of history. Oleh and Olha are from Scandinavian Helge and Helga. Ihor is from Ingvar. The dynasty that ruled in Muscovy until the Romanovs counted their descent from the Norseman Riuryk. Though the Norse presence is well attested, it is by no means the case, that without them an East Slav state would not have developed. Within a few generations the Norsemen, just as they became Norman French and Irish in the West, in the East became Slavs.

Earlier yet, in Greek and Latin texts, the East Slavs were termed Antes. In Classical and Hellenistic, Iron Age, times the lands of today’s south Ukraine were inhabited by Cimmerians, probably of Thracian language, this nation separating the Slavs from direct contact with ancient Greek culture. In the southern steppes the Scythians (700-300B.C.) or Scyths and the Sarmatians (300 B. C.-200A.D.) held sway. These two were of Iranian language, and traces of the Scythian word for “river”, “don” (Sanskrit “dhanu”) can be found in several hydronyms on Ukrainian territory: Don, Dnepr, Dnieper, Dnestr, Dniester. Transcribed into English the Ukrainian forms are: Din or Don, Dnipro and Dnister. Dunai has the same intermediary source as German Donau.

Farther north in the Slavic heartland, that is, in west and central west Ukraine and southeast Poland, there are no Iranian hydronyms to be found. Slavic river names predominate. This indicates, that the homeland of the Slavs on the eve of their expansion in the age of migrations was in this Ukrainian-Polish region, north of the Carpathians. Regions south of here, as the hydronyms attest, were won from Persian and Turkish rule in recent centuries.

Indo-Europeans = Kurgan peoples. Slavs are a branch of the great Indo-European language family that extends from Iceland and Ireland in the West to Bengal on the Indian subcontinent. Ukraine is the “center of gravity” for this language family. The term “Indo-European” belongs to comparative linguistics and “Kurhan Culture” to archeology. Students of the question of the Indo-European homeland are compelled to know Ukrainian geography, since this was the marshalling region of the Indo-Europeans, or Kurhan peoples.

Maria Gimbutas (+1994) demonstrated in the late 1950s that the development of

culture across Indo-European Europe from the present time back to ca. 2,500 B.C. was continuous and evolutionary, but that a horizon of destruction in the archeological record of the indigenous Europeans in the mid-third millennium could only be explained through the irruption of a warlike people from the Pontic steppe, from today's Ukraine and Russia, into southern, central, northern, and western Europe. Gimbutas names this culture after the characteristic funerary architecture, a stone or earthen barrow built over the resting place of the deceased chieftain: the East Slavic word for a barrow, or tumulus, in Ukrainian is kurhan; more frequently used in the West is Russian, kurgan.

After twenty years of further excavation, Gimbutas revised her hypothesis of a single Kurhan invasion, realizing that there had been four waves of Kurhan invaders, a thousand years apart, each over-running their kinsmen who had preceded them generations before. Here we depart from the reverse chronology of excavation to a chronology of "earlier to later".

The first wave (4400-4200 B.C.), which Gimbutas labeled "Kurhan 1," is seen earliest along the lower course of the rivers Don and Volga, and eastward. Pushing west, this wave reached the territory of the Dnipro-Donets culture and eventually overwhelmed it.

But the Kurhan peoples were stopped when they later reached the great culture names after the find sites Cucuteni in Rumania and Trypillia in the Ukraine (in Russian Tripolye). This culture held the first Kurhan wave at bay for about a thousand years. Their pottery and decorative art is beautiful, as compared to that of the Kurhan invaders. Gimbutas' name for the pre-Indoeuropeans of the lands from the Aegean and Balkans to Ukraine, was "Old Europe". She placed the floreat of Old Europe between 6500 BC and 3500 BC. The Cucuteni-Trypillia culture arrived in Rumania and Ukraine around 6000 B.C. from the Balkans. Its bearers may have been of Semitic language. Many Ukrainians, complementing their anti-Russian sentiments, look for their proper forebears to the Trypillis culture, which probably in any case amalgamated with the second Kurhan wave, which flowed from 3400 to 2500 B.C. Slavic language in any case does not stem from Trypillia, but from the Indo-Europeans. And it was through this region, as noted, that Indo-Europeans migrated on their way to western, i.e. Celtic Europe. It appears that the Maikop culture brought ruin to Trypillia.

Other elements of Kurhan Wave 2 (3400-2500 B.C.) migrated from the Pontic region south into the Balkans to the Aegean, others into Italy, where in both cases they encountered a long settled population from whom the newcomers learned the cultivation of the olive and the grape. Victor Hehn (18 -) wrote, that Homer's warriors had northern habits: they ate bread and butter and drank beer, while later Greece from classical times to the present prefers olive oil and wine of the pre-Indo-European Mediterranean.

Kurhan Wave 3, or “Battle Ax people”, deriving from the Globular Amphora culture, give us the ancestors of the northwestern European peoples, also passed through Ukrainian-Polish territory on their way to the northwest. The “Mycenaean” type of “battle ax” is found in the Ukraine as well as in the Aegean.

Kurhan Wave 4. It was in this epoch, that the Iranian river names were established, and Indo-Aryans--Scythians, Sarmatians, Ossetians--developed in the Pontic steppe. These are regions, which were won from Persian and Turkish rule in recent centuries.

Farther north, where there are no Iranian river names, lies the Slavic heartland, where Slavic river names predominate, in west and central west Ukraine and southeast Poland, which indicates that the homeland of the Slavs on the eve of their expansion in the age of migrations was in this region, north of the Carpathians. It was from here, that East Slavs settled the valleys of the great rivers to the East, in formerly Scythian-Sarmatian territory.

In our introduction we have provided historical, prehistoric, archaeological and linguistic evidence to illuminate the development of Ukraine as presented in the maps and texts of this atlas.

John Peter Maher, Ph.D.

THE FALL OF THE SOVIET UNION

The fall of the Soviet Empire and the rise of the new country Ukraine which announced her independence, on August 24, 1991 basically has changed the socio-economic map of Europe. In terms of size, Ukraine is the second largest in Europe, and in terms of population, the largest European country, having a vast agricultural and industrial potential, has turned the world's attention and recognition of her great potential in the galaxy of the post communist countries. Over 150 world countries have recognized the newly risen, sovereign country, Ukraine. Ukraine has established diplomatic relations with 120 other countries and has become a full-fledged member of all basic international political, economical and cultural organizations.

The announcement of Ukraine's independence, who was under the communistic regime for 75 years, must be viewed as a phenomenal historical feat, because this fact is the culmination of the strides of her people for the rebirth of the country, starting with roots that date as far back as one thousand years ago.

The task of the HISTORICAL ATLAS OF UKRAINE, is to familiarize all those, who are interested in the most important phases of her history and her people. Ukraine is one of Europe's most prominent nations. For 300 years, Ukraine was one of the entities and building blocks of the Russian Empire. Under this domination, the Russian Empire instituted in Ukraine all forms of russification and colonial exploitations, similar to her own, czarist political scheme. The red communistic Moscow, aimed the annihilation of Ukraine under the false pretenses and slogans of internationalism and brotherhood, and subdued all feelings and dreams of self rule through the practices of ethnocide and linguicide of the Ukrainian people.

The tragedies of the history of Ukrainian people and individual phases of history, such as the knight period, the cossack and hetman nations periods and, more recently, struggles for national recognition (1917-1921), are all pictured in 38 chapters of text, addendums to maps and graphical presentations of the historical changes and happenings as the Ukrainian people lived, suffered, sometimes weakened, but never fell defeated.

On August 24, 1991 the Ukrainian people started a new chapter of their history, the rebirth of their nation, which will have a new and more significant meaning for its history in the future and for the history of the central eastern Europe. It will also be significant for those nations that have freed themselves from communist domination and are striving for their free and independent growth. Ukraine's presence in this region, will have a far-reaching meaning for them as well.

Myroslaw Semchyshyn PH.D.

“Ukraine”-“Rus”-“Russia”

“Ukraine” was the ancient name of the territory occupied by the Ukrainian tribes, which inhabited the territorial expanse from the Carpathian Mountains at the Sian River on the west, to the Don River on the east and from the Black Sea north to the Desna River. In ancient times, Ukraine was known as Cimmeria, Scythia, Sarmatia and as a Union of the Antes tribes, the ancestors of the Ukrainian nation. Definite information about the origin of the name “Ukraine” does not exist.

Already in the XII century, the name “Ukraine” appeared in Ukrainian chronicles to denote the Ukrainian lands, indicating that this name existed even earlier. The Ukrainian tribes of that period did not use one name, that encompassed them all, as no formal unified state existed.

In the beginning of the IX century in Eastern Europe the name “Routsi” or “Rus” emerges, brought from Scandinavia by the Normans or Varangians, who captured Novhorod and in the middle of the IX century later Kyiv. The Varangians Askold and Dyr established the first Ukrainian state, Rus’ and the indigenous population adopted this as the name of their nation and territory. “Routsi” or “Rus” is a Finnish term, which is used to the present day to denote the Swedes.

The Ukrainian people are a Slavic people of Indo-European origin. Russia evolved from the Muscovite state, which at that time did not exist as a state. Muscovites (Russians) were Finno-Ugric tribes, mixed with some Slavic tribes known as Vyatichians (Vyatichi) and later with Mongol-Tatar additions. The name “Rus” is not a synonym for Russia, as the country to the northeast of Ukraine is known today, and which was known as Muscovy prior to 1709, when, after the battle of Poltava, the Muscovite tsar Peter I changed the old name “Muscovy” to “Russia” (“Rossia”) and adopted the history of Kyivan-Rus’(old Ukraine) as Russian history. Russia should be recognized in world history as developing from Muscovy with no relation to Kyivan-Rus’. Rus’-Ukraine exists from the middle of the IX century as Kyivan-Rus’ with the glorious history of the Grand Dukes (Princes)—Oleh, Svyatoslav the Conqueror, Volodymyr the Great. Yaroslav the Wise and Volodymyr Monomakh—who, for approximately 300 years, ruled over the territory from the Carpathian Mountains in the west to the Don River in the east.

The name “Rus” was used to denote the country and people throughout the centuries. Only afterwards, in the middle of the XVII century, when Muscovy appropriated for itself the history of Ukraine of the period of the Great Princes (kniazi)-known as Kyivan-Rus’-was the name “Ukraine” (“Ukraina” in Ukrainian) used to differentiate the

country, people and the newly created state of the Cossack-Hetmanate.

When the power of the Hetmanate weakened, the name of “Rus” (Rusian, Ruskyi) was again used. In the XIX century, when the Ukrainian state awoke to new cultural, national and political life, it found it difficult to retrieve the historical name of “Rus’,” and thus returned to using “Ukraine,” “Ukrainian.” To the present day, “Ukraine” remains the name of the land, people and state.

Rus’-Ukraine accepted Christianity in 988 through the Ruler of Kyivan-Rus’ Grand Duke Volodymyr the Great, grandson of Ukraine’s Ruler Grand Duchess St.Olha. Muscovy accepted Christianity two hundred years later, in the XII century and, as such, Russia has no right to adopt the Millennium of Christianity in Ukraine as part of its history.

National Emblem

The national emblem of Ukraine, the Trident (Tryzub), has an ancient history. The trident symbol has been discovered in ancient Scythian excavations and burial mounds. In the time of Grand Duke Volodymyr the Great, Kyivan-Rus’ used the Trident as a national symbol without the cross. After Ukraine’s conversion to Christianity in 988, the cross was added to the trident and carved on the coinage of this period. The Trident with the cross was used also as the national emblem and seal of the Cossack (Kozak) era in the middle of the XVI and XVIII centuries. The same official emblem and seal was used again in the time of the Hetmanate government of Hetman Pavlo Skoropadskyi(1918). Afterwards, the national emblem was used in its original form, without the cross on its middle spar.

The national flag of Ukraine is formed of horizontal bands of blue and yellow. The blue color symbolizes the blue skies of Ukraine; the lower yellow stripe represents the wheat fields of Ukraine.

The national anthem-”Shche ne vmerla Ukraina...”(Ukraine has not yet perished) was composed by Mykhailo Verbytskyi, to lyrics written by Pavlo Chubynskyi.

Eugene Tiutko

MAPS

1. ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES OF THE STONE AGE (280,000 - 1,500 B.C.)

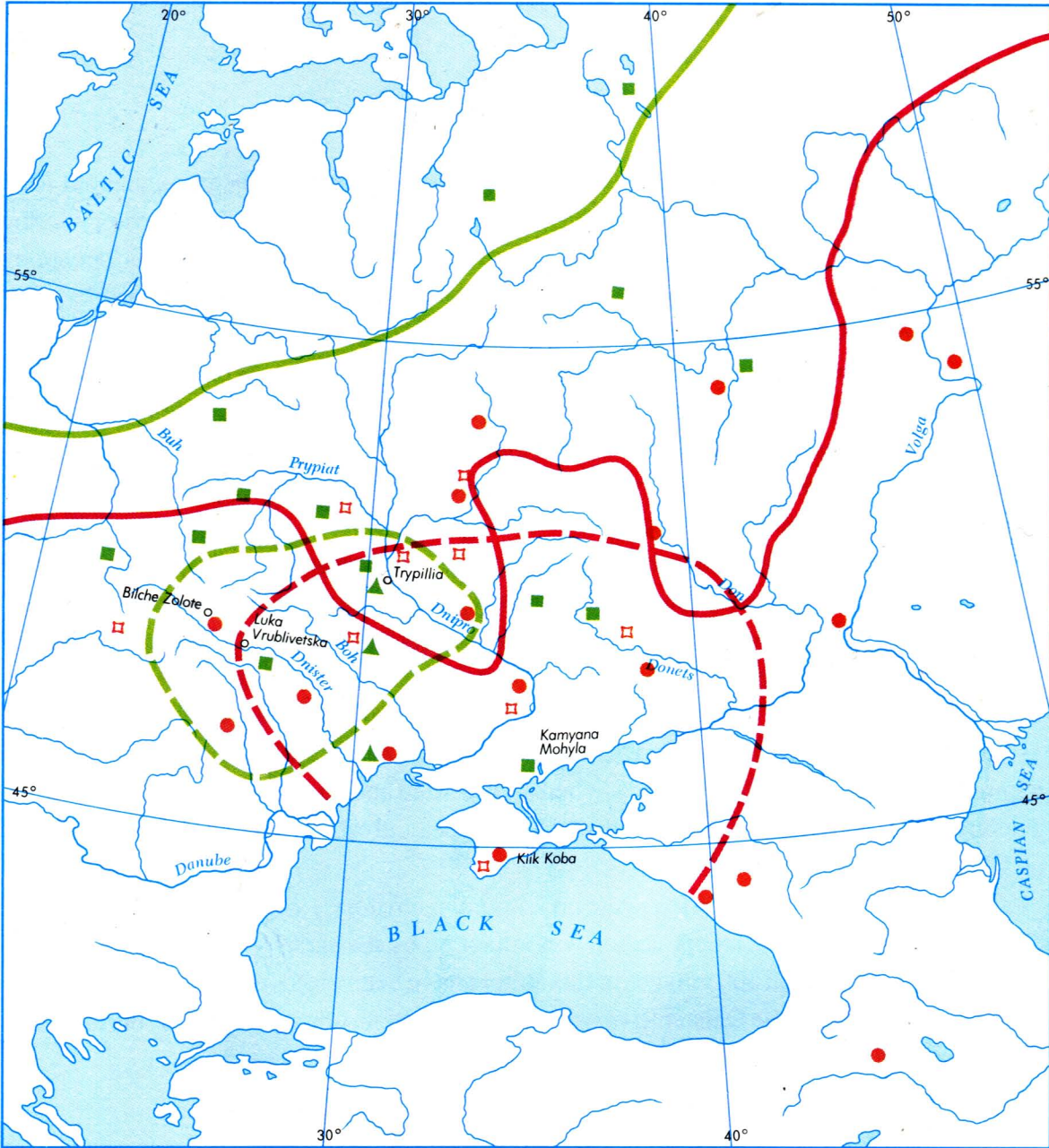
The first archaeological records of human life on the territory of Ukraine date back to the Paleolithic Era or Stone Age, from approximately 280,000 B.C. until 1,500 B.C. when metal objects began to appear.

The earliest inhabitants were hunters and gatherers who fashioned tools from charcoal, flint and stone. Artifacts from this period have been found in the Podillia, Volyn and Kharkiv regions, Southern Crimea and along the areas of the Dnipro rapids and the Donets and Kuban Rivers.

In the Neolithic or New Stone Age (6,000 - 2,000 B.C.), man learned to keep cattle and cultivate the soil. He began to live in villages and developed a tribal social structure. One earliest and most extensively researched was the site discovered near the village of Trypillia in the Kyiv region. Artifacts recovered from this site include pottery and dishes embellished with flowing spiral designs. Similar sites of this Trypillian culture were found along the Dnister, Buh and Prut Rivers. Ukrainian culture has its roots in this Trypillian culture.

Towards the end of the Neolithic Era, the first metal implements (copper, brass, and later iron) appeared along the coast of the Black Sea and the trade routes along the Dnipro River. Many are preserved in graves of the "coffin box" culture (so called because the graves were made of stone plates) in the upper Boh and Horyn Rivers.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES OF THE STONE AGE (280.000-1.500 B.C.)



- Southern limit of Dnipro glaciation (220.000-110.000 B.C.)
- Southern limit of Würm glaciation (50.000-20.000 B.C.)
- - - - - Approximate limits of Trypillian culture (III-II mil. B.C.)
- - - - - Approximate limits of Cimmerian culture (XI-VIII cen. B.C.)
- Artifacts of lower palaeolithic period (200.000-15.000 B.C.)
- Artifacts of upper palaeolithic period (40.000-8.000 B.C.)
- Artifacts of neolithic period (15.000-3.000 B.C.)
- ▲ Main areas of Trypillian culture settlements



2. BRONZE AND EARLY IRON AGES IN UKRAINE (1,800 - 500 B.C.)

The Bronze Age in Ukraine lasted nearly one thousand years, beginning about 1800 B. C and ending approximately 800 B.C. Several cultures existed on Ukrainian territory during this period. Trypillian culture dominated right-bank Ukraine, although it was becoming affected by foreign influences. The North Caucasian and Colchis cultures have been identified in the Kuban and western Transcaucasus regions. The “pit”, “catacomb” and “timber-frame” cultures have been discovered in the steppe and forest steppe areas east of the Dnipro River. The “burial field” culture, an indigenous agrarian group inhabiting the Kyiv region and forest-steppe area of Ukraine, derived its name from their habit of burying their dead in level graves, without the characteristic mounds indicating a gravesite. This culture appeared about 1,500 B.C. and lasted into the Middle Ages.

This period is characterized by migrations of the pastoralists westward across the steppes in search of open pastureland. The Cimmerians, the first nomadic horsemen, appeared on Ukrainian territory about 1,500 B.C. They are the first inhabitants of Ukraine recorded in written history. The Greek writer, Homer, in “The Odyssey,” refers to the north shore of the Black Sea as “the land of the Cimmerians” and Assyrian written sources call the Kerch Strait — “the Cimmerian Bosphorus.” In the 7th Century B.C., the Scythian onslaught forced the Cimmerians to retreat south to Crimea, where they settled and adopted the name “Tavrians.” The Scythians settled in the steppes north of the Black Sea and established the first political state on Ukrainian territory.

At the beginning of the Iron Age on Ukrainian territory — approximately in the 5th Century B.C. — the forest steppe region was inhabited by the agrarian people of the “burial field” culture. More than 500 villages of this culture have been discovered, predominantly in the Kyiv region and on the Dnister River in the area of Luka Vrublivetska. This “burial field” culture existed well into the Middle Ages.

BRONZE AND EARLY IRON AGES IN UKRAINE (1800 B.C.-500 B.C.)



	Limits of pit and catacomb burial culture		Cimmerian artifacts 1200-800 B.C.
	Limits of "Burial field" culture		Artifacts of Pre-scythian and Scythian periods (VIII-III cen. B.C.)
	Limits of corded-ware culture		Sarmatian burial mounds (I cen. B.C.)
	Culture of Prypiat towns (VI-IX cen. A.D.)		Artifacts of Alans (VI-IX cen. A.D.)
	North caucasian culture		Location of discovered artifacts in the Ante's land (V-VII cen. A.D.)
	Colchis culture		
	Desna-Dnipro culture		

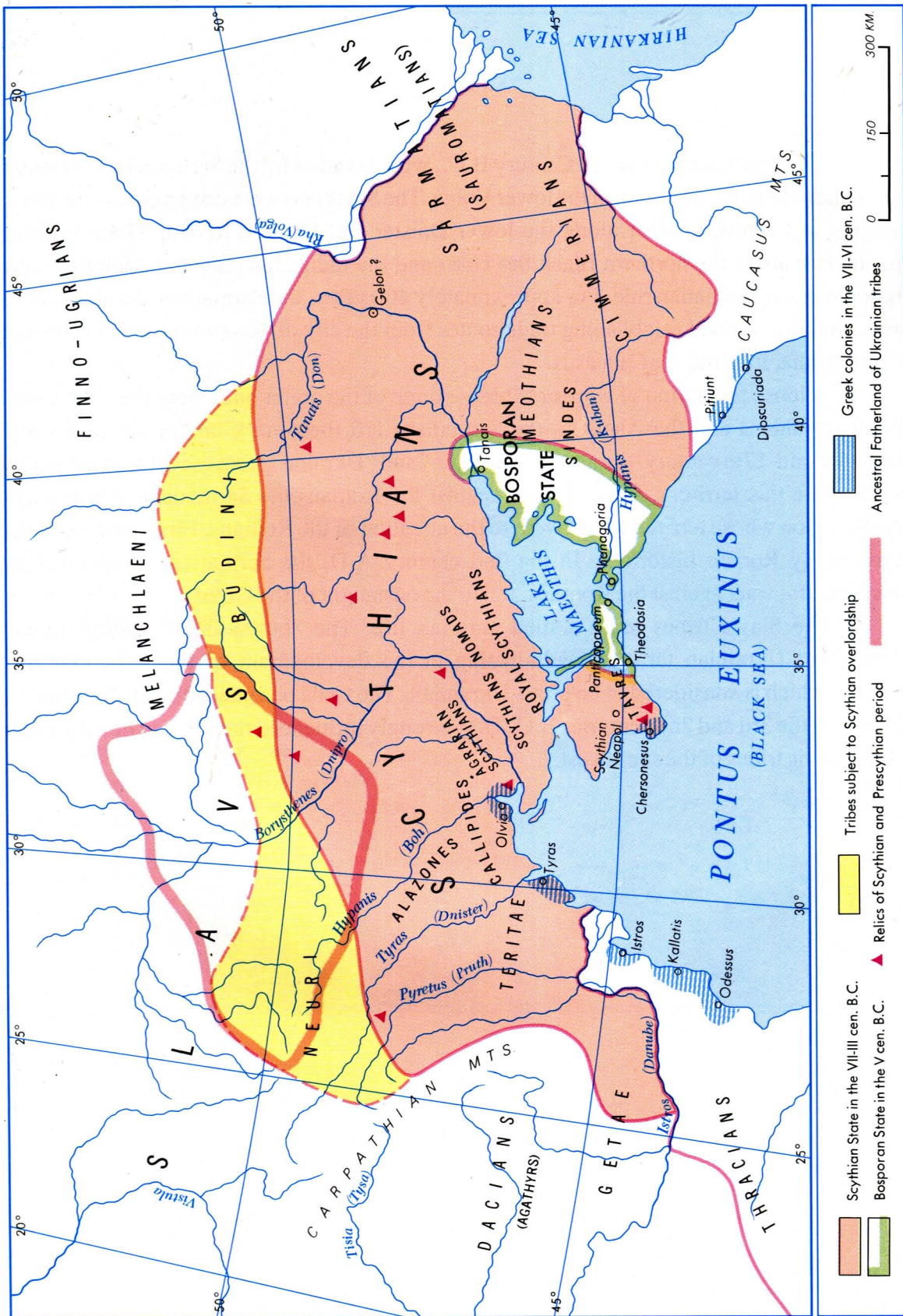
3. SCYTHIA IN THE VII - III CEN. B.C.

The Greek historian Herodotus (484-425 B.C.) visited Ukrainian territory, occupied by the Scythians, in the 5th century B.C. and provided written descriptions of the population, territory and socio-political structure.

The Scythians were Iranian nomads who drove out the Cimmerians and occupied the steppe and forest-steppe regions on the northern shore of the Black Sea. They had a structured state organization based on tribal alliances, each tribe having its own defined territory. Power was held by the Lord (or Royal) Scythians, armed warriors who occupied the area north of the Sea of Azov, living a nomadic life. The other main Scythian tribes shown on the map are: the Nomad Scythians living to the northwest; the Tyrites on the lower Dnister River; the Callipides along the lower Boh River; the Alazones along the middle Boh; the Agrarian Scythians on the right bank of the Dniro River; the Neuri to the northwest; the Budini in the middle Don and Donets Rivers; the Melanchlaeni to the north. The Agrarian Scythians and the Neuri were quite likely the indigenous population of Ukraine, while the Melanchlaeni were remnants of Finnish tribes.

Control over the tribes was maintained by a strong army organization. The Scythian state grew and prospered from war booty and trade with the Greek colonies of the Bosphorus State — an alliance of Greek cities along the Kerch Strait. Important Greek cities were: Panticapaeum in Crimea on the Kerch Peninsula, Phanagoria on the Taman Peninsula and Tanais in the Don Delta. These cities were situated along the major trade routes which made them both rich and powerful. Other Greek cities along the trade routes were: Chersonesus and Theodosia on the Crimean coast; Olvia at the mouth of the Boh River; Tyras at the mouth of the Dnister River; Istros, Kallatis, Odessus, Pitiunt and Dioscuriada on the Black Sea coast.

SCYTHIA IN THE VII-III CEN. B.C.



4. SARMATIA IN THE III CEN. B.C. - II CEN. A.D.

The Scythians, in the 3rd Century B.C., were invaded by the Sarmatians, an Iranian nomadic tribe from the region of the lower Volga. The Scythians were driven out — one group settling in Crimea, another along the lower Dnister and Danube Rivers. The remaining population along the northern Black Sea coast and the indigenous Slavic population were brought under Sarmatian rule. For approximately 400 years, the Sarmatians dominated this area, making war and establishing trade routes from the city of Tanais on the Don River to China, India, Iran and the Caucasus.

A loose federation of warrior tribes — three of the major ones were the Yazygians, the Roxolanians and the Alans — the Sarmatians left their mark on Ukrainian history. Until the mid-17th century, the names “Sarmatia” and “Ukraine” were used interchangeably to describe this territory. In their wars against the Romans, the Sarmatians also brought the Slavs, on whose territory they lived, to the attention of the Romans. First mention of the Slavs is by Roman historians. In the 2nd century A.D. the Sarmatians, weakened by unsuccessful wars against the Romans, fell to the onslaught of the Goths.

The Slavic tribes led a settled agrarian life. The “burial field” culture spread throughout Ukrainian territory, culminating in the development of the “Cherniakhiv” culture, which is considered to be proto-Ukrainian. The Celts occupied almost all of central Europe in the 3rd and 2nd centuries B.C. They strongly influenced the cultural development of the Slavic tribes of the southwest.

SARMATIA IN THE III CEN. B.C.- II CEN. A.D.



5. EUROPE ABOUT 400 A.D. AND BARBARIAN INVASIONS

The map of Europe changed greatly in the 4th Century. It was a time of great migrations of peoples and tribes. The Western Roman Empire collapsed under pressure from various Barbarian groups and the Celts vanished from Eastern Europe.

Any tribal group living outside the Roman Empire was called “barbarian” by the Romans. The Sassandides, successors to the Parthians, Picts and Scots of the northwest, and the various Germanic groups — Anglo-Saxons, Franks, Alamanni, Lombards, Burgundians and Goths — began a series of invasions beginning in 375 and lasting about 200 years. The Germanic groups invaded Roman territory, devastated many regions and, by the 6th Century, established several Germanic states.

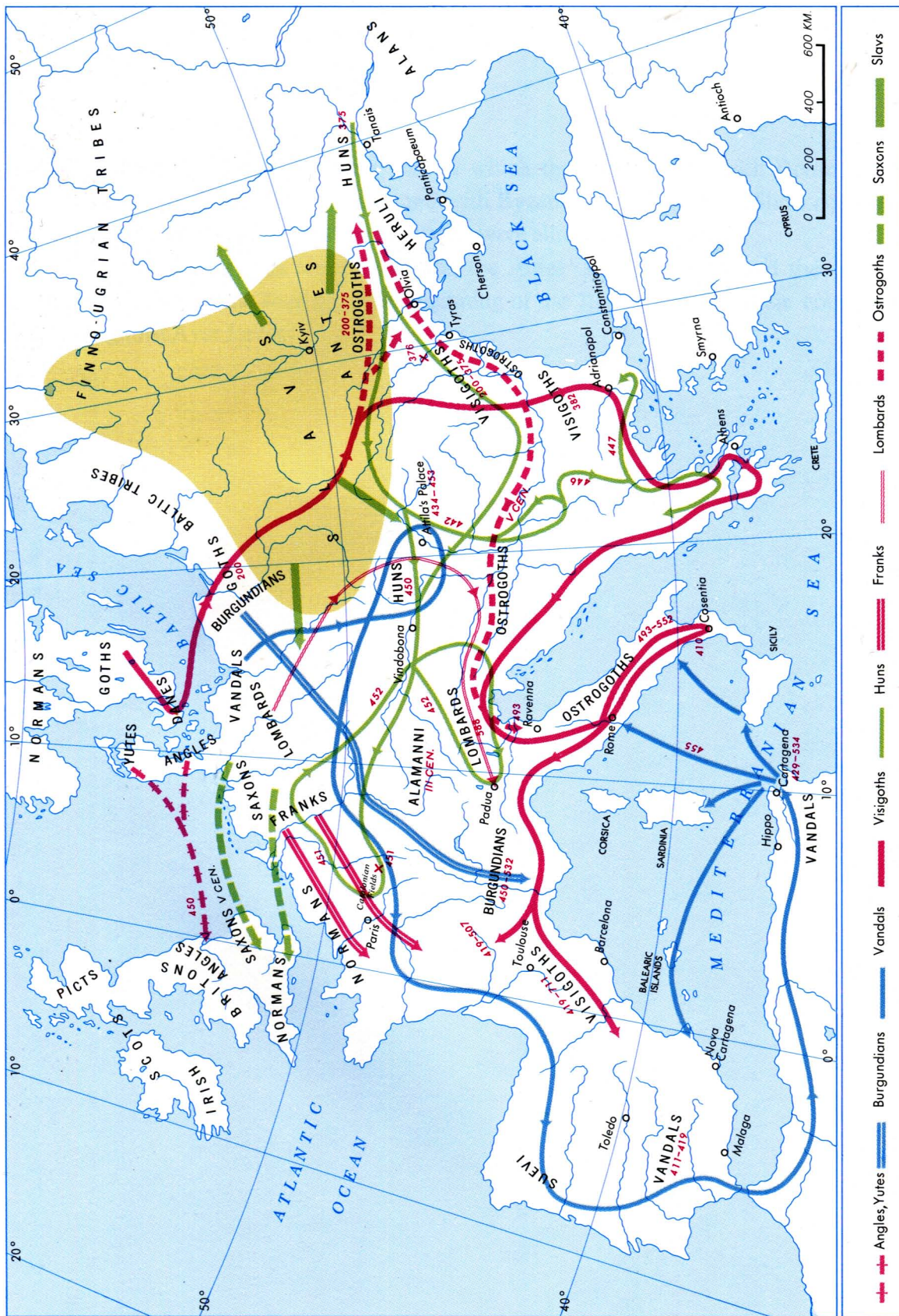
Three groups — the Goths, the Huns and the Antes — affected political and ethnographic changes on Ukrainian territory. The Goths, at the beginning of the 3rd Century A.D., migrated to southern Ukraine, defeating the Sarmatians and settling west of the Dnipro River. The Ostrogoths settled between the Dnister and Dnipro Rivers, the Visigoths settled west of the Dnister River and the Heruli occupied the steppes along the lower Don River. In the mid-4th Century the Ostrogoths, Visigoths and Heruli united their territory into one state, which fell to the Huns in 375-376 A.D.

Appearing in the area east of the Volga in the early 4th Century A.D., the Mongol-Turkic nomadic horde called the Huns crossed the Volga and defeated the Ostrogoths (375) and the Visigoths (376). They established the capital of their Empire in the Pannonian Lowlands (present day Hungary). During the reign of Attila (434-453), the Huns amassed great power and threatened all of Europe. Defeated in the “Battle of Nations” on the Catalonian Fields of France (451), the Huns retreated to Pannonia. With the death of Attila, the Hun Empire collapsed and the Huns retreated east of the Sea of Azov.

The Antes, considered to be ancestors of the East Slavs or proto-Ukrainians (Rus’), appear during the 4th Century. They were already highly organized as evidenced by their battles against the Goths and their ability to form alliances with the Huns. Once the Huns had vanished, the Slavs continued colonization of the Pannonian Lowlands and Balkan Peninsula. Until the 6th Century the Antes controlled the territory to the west from the mouth of the Dnister River, along the Black Sea coast to the shores of the Sea of Azov, east to the Don River and north to the mouth of the Prypiat and upper Desna Rivers.

The name of the proto-Ukrainian tribe “Antes” is of foreign, non-Slavic origin and quite likely the Antes did not use this name for themselves. Probably they were called “Antes” by their eastern Turko-Finnish neighbors and this name found its way into Byzantine and Goth chronicles and histories of the day. The Antes fought many

EUROPE ABOUT 400 A.D. AND THE BARBARIAN INVASIONS



battles against the Goths, including one in which they were allied with Rome against the Goths in 537. In 602 the Antes united with Byzantium against those Slavs occupying the area along the Danube (Dunai) River, who were allied with the Avars.

Exhausted by wars with the Avars, the Antes' state fell apart and they are last mentioned in Byzantine sources at the beginning of the 7th Century for their courageous defense against Avar forces.

6. EUROPE AND THE HUNS IN THE IV-VI CEN. A.D.

The Huns were a savage and numerous horde, descended from the Ural-Altai Mongols and were called “God’s scourge” of Europe. They came from Mongolia and settled near the Volga River. Around 370 they attacked the Alans near the Sea of Azov and on the left bank of the Don River. Moving further onto Ukrainian territory, they attacked the Ostrogoths, devastated the countryside and brutally murdered all who defied them. They were of such frightening appearance that people fled when they saw them.

The Ostrogoth king Vinitar died in battle with the Huns and the rest of the Goths fled to the area along the shores of the Black Sea. Later, the Huns moved towards the Danube River area where they organized a state ruled by Attila which extended to the Rhine River. With the death of Attila in 453, the Hun state fell apart.

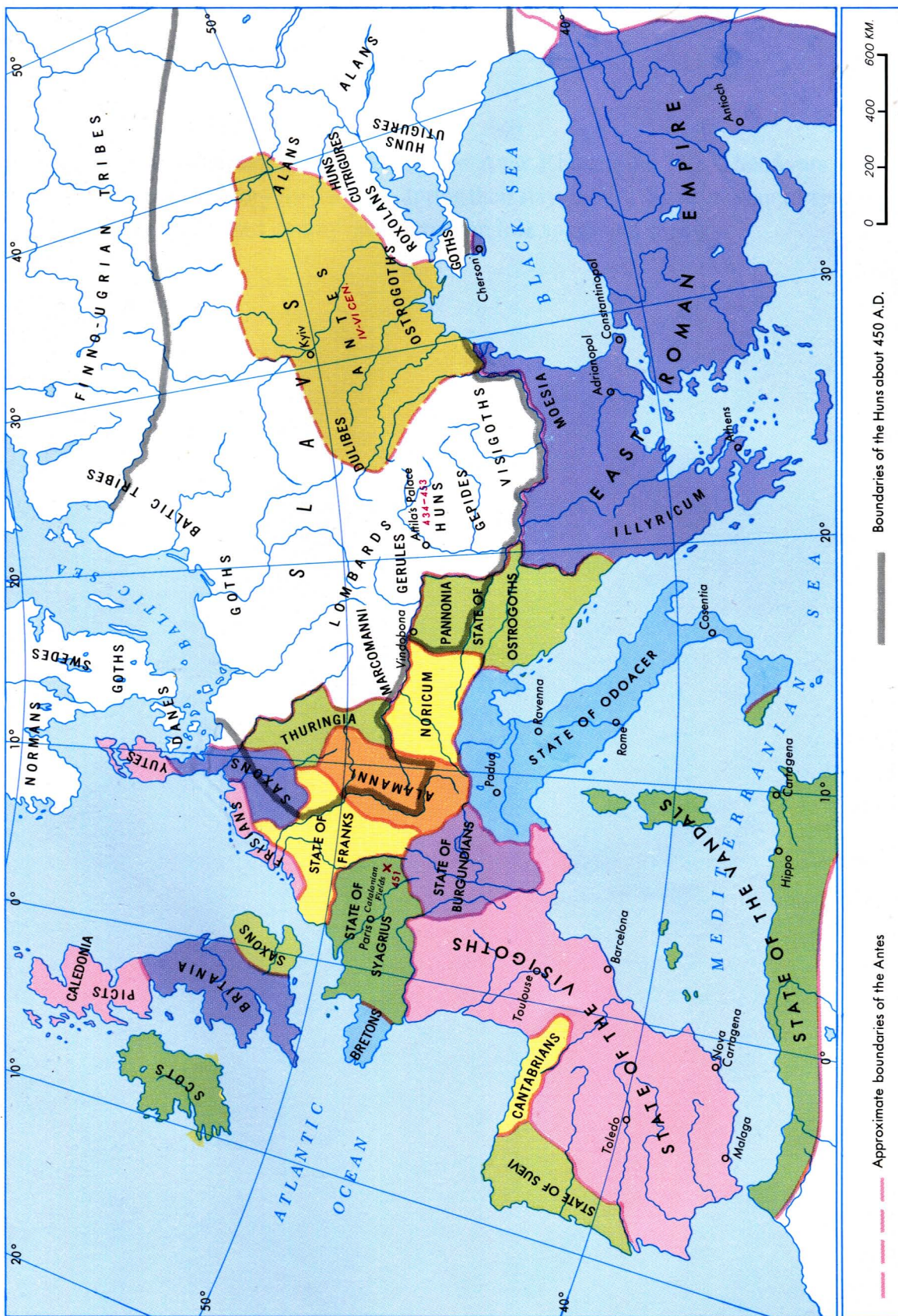
With the collapse of their empire the Hun hordes scattered to the steppes along the Sea of Azov. Their allies, the Alans, moved to the foothills of the Caucasus. The Slavs occupied most of the territories of Eastern and Central Europe (present day Ukraine, Belarus, Poland, Czechia, Slovakia and parts of Russia). The Antes, ancestors of the Ukrainian nation, occupied the territory of present day Ukraine. The Gepides occupied the Pannonian plain and a group of Goths settled in the Crimean Peninsula.

The Western Roman Empire had collapsed; only the Eastern Roman Empire (Byzantium) with the remnants of the Black Sea colonies still existed. Northern Europe from the Baltic Sea to the Ural Mountains was inhabited by Finnish tribes. Between the Finns and the Slavs, on the Baltic Sea, were the Balts — ancestors of Lithuania and Latvia.

Germanic states occupied a large part of Central and Western Europe; the largest of them were: the Ostrogoth State of Odoacer in Italy, the Visigoth State in Spain, the Vandal State in North Africa, the Burgundian State and the Suevi State. The settlements of the Lombards, Franks, Alamani and Thuringians lay to the west. The Normans occupied the western Scandinavian Peninsula. To the east were the Swedes, known as Varangians or Vikings. The Danes occupied the southern areas of the Scandinavian Peninsula and the Danish islands. The Irish, an ancient Celtic group, inhabited Ireland. A succession of Britons, Angles, Saxons, Picts and Normans ruled over Britain.

In the mid 6th century, battling their way through the hordes in the steppes along the Caspian Sea, the Turkish-Mongol tribes, related to the Huns and Bulgars, the Avars, or Obryns, made their way onto Ukrainian territory. They were a fierce and cruel people. Defeating the Antes, threatening Byzantium and devastating the Gepides, they settled on their lands located in the mid Danube (Dunai) basin in 568, where they organized their state. They threatened neighboring tribes until the 8th century when the Frankish king

EUROPE AND THE HUNS IN THE IV-VI CEN. A.D.



Karl the Great (Charlemagne) smashed the Avar Khanate in 796. The Avars did not stay on Ukrainian territory for long but, during their stay, they ravaged the countryside. Even their name “Obry” found its way into Ukrainian folk songs and sayings.

7. THE KHAZAR KHANATE AND UKRAINIAN TRIBES IN THE VII CEN.

Near the end of the 5th century the Bulgars, a Turkic horde, appeared in Europe and settled in the region of the Sea of Azov. Under pressure from the Finno-Turkish tribe known as Khazars, who came to the Volga steppes in the 7th century and organized their State in this region, the Bulgars were forced to move. One part of the Bulgars, the White Bulgars, moved north along the Volga River and set up the Volga State (present day Kazan) with their capital of Bulgar. The Black Bulgars moved southwest through the Ukrainian steppes around 680 to the lower Danube and settled in the former Roman province of Moesia, defeating the local Slavic tribes and establishing the Bulgar Kingdom. After several generations they were completely assimilated with the Slavic tribes.

As the Bulgar horde moved from the region of the Don River to the west, the Finno-Turkish Khazars occupied the area and, in the 7th century, established their state, known as the Khazar Khanate. They were allies of Byzantium in battles against the Persians and, possibly as early as the mid 5th century under the name of “Akacires,” fought with Byzantium against the Huns.

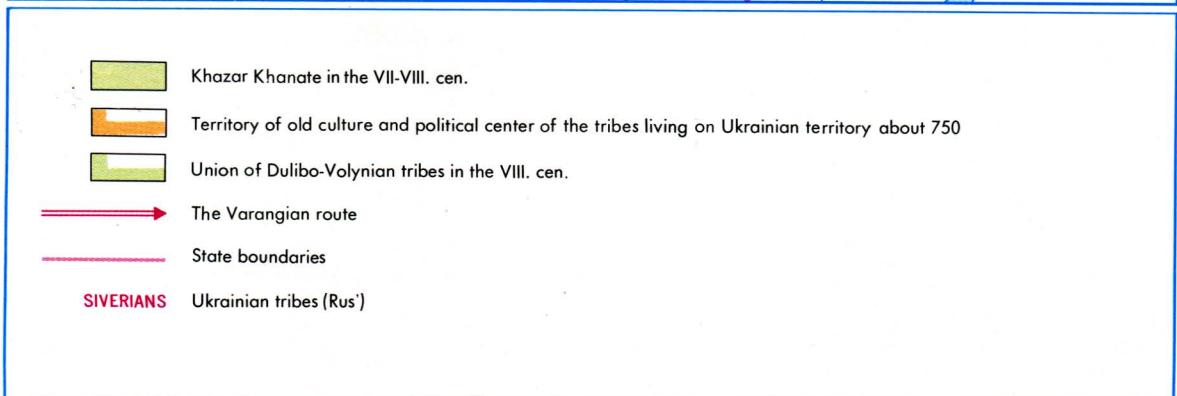
By the end of the 6th century the Khazars had conquered the rest of the Bulgars along the Don River, seized the Caspian Sea coast and, in Transcaucasia, fought a long battle with the Arabs. At the beginning of the 8th century the Khazars occupied Crimea and their rule stretched far to the north, to the East Slavic-Ukrainian tribes (the Polianians and Siverians) in the Dnipro River area.

The Khazar capital of Itil was located at the mouth of the Volga River. On the Don River they built the fortress of Sarkel (Bila Vezha) as a defense against their western neighbors. The Khazar Khanate was a strong military and commercial state. From their strategic location, the Khazars controlled the trade routes along the Volga and Don Rivers and the Caspian and Azov Seas. They were also in a position to control the overland routes from western Europe to Persia, India and the Far East. Later the Khazar Khanate extended its control over the water route along the Dnipro River.

The Khazar State served as a buffer against the encroachment of Asian hordes. As long as this peaceful state prevailed, Ukrainian tribes had the time and opportunity to organize their state. This began with the arrival of the Varangians Askold and Dyr, who came to the Ukrainian lands from Scandinavia.

The Pechenegs moved into the eastern part of the Khazar lands and, at the end of the 9th Century, appeared on the Ukrainian steppes. A new power had arisen along the Dnipro River — Kyivan Rus'-Ukraine. The Khazar State fell under the onslaught of the Kyivan Prince Svyatoslav in 966.

KHAZAR KHANATE AND UKRAINIAN TRIBES IN THE VII CEN.



8. SETTLEMENT OF SLAVIC TRIBES IN THE VII-IX CEN.

The territory of the present Ukrainian nation already had permanent Slavic settlements during this period. Each of the tribes had its own territory, its own ruler (knyaz or prince), army and socio-economic structure. In the 9th century the various Slavic tribes began to develop into nations according to their common linguistic and cultural traditions. The Ukrainians, with a common culture dating back to Trypillian times (6th-4th millennia B.C.), were among the first to develop a national structure.

The eastern Slavs inhabited the basins of the Dnipro and Dnister Rivers, and the upper reaches of the Neman, Dvina and Volga Rivers. The Slavic tribes who would comprise the Ukrainian nation trace their roots to the Polianians (Poliany) who occupied the middle sections of the Dnipro River; Siverians (Siveriany) in the Desna basin; Derevlians (Derevliany) who lived in the forest zone west of the Polianians; Dulibians (Duliby) in Halych; Volynians (Volyniany) in Volyn; Buzhanians (Buzhany) in the Buh region. The Ulychians (Ulychi) settled in the Boh basin; the Tyvertians (Tyvertsi), in the Dnister region; the White Croats (Bili Khorvaty) in the Ukrainian Carpathian Mountains.






The ancestors of the Belarus' nation were the Drehoviches who occupied Polissia; the Polochanians, Krivichians and Radimichians, who occupied the area north of the Ukrainian tribes. The Vyatichians settled to the northwest of the Siverians among the Finnish tribes (later to become Muscovy). The Slovenes occupied the area by Lake Ilmen and ultimately developed into the Republic of Novhorod.

The Baltic Slavs settled by the Baltic Sea. Western Slavs inhabited the Vistula basin west of Ukraine and the Baltic Sea. They would develop into the Polish nation. The territory of the Moravians (present day Czechs and Slovaks) occupied the most extensive area in the western Slavic lands, from the Alps in the west to Transylvania in the east. The Magyars temporarily occupied the area of the Black Sea steppes in the 9th century during their migration towards today's Hungary.

The eastern section between the Caspian and Azov Seas was occupied during this period by the Khazar Khanate, until it was destroyed in 966.

SETTLEMENT OF SLAVIC TRIBES IN THE VII-IX CEN.



	Eastern Slavs and Finno-Slavic tribes
	Western Slavs
	Southern Slavs
	POLIANIANS Ukrainian tribes (Rus')
	State boundaries in the half of the IX cen.

0 150 300 450 600 KM.

9. RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE IX CEN. (882-912)

A new phase of development — the formation of a state based on dynastic succession — begins during this period. Kyiv, strategically located midway down the Dnipro River, would become the center of this new state. Since the 9th Century, this state was known as "Kyivan-Rus'" or "Rus'-Ukraine." At the peak of its development, Kievan-Rus' included the territory of present day Ukraine, Belarus, the Republic of Novhorod and the Finnish territories that would later form Muscovy (from which Russia would develop).

The derivation of the name Rus' is subject to debate. Some historians theorize that it comes from the Finnish name for the Swedes ("Routsi"); others that it comes from the name of a river, Ros, in the area of Kyiv.

As previous maps have shown, the ancestors of the Ukrainian nation, the Slavic tribes inhabiting the territory of Ukraine, already had a highly developed political, economic and social structure. As early as the 7th-8th centuries the Polianians (Poliany), who inhabited the area where Kyiv would arise, had formed a strong tribal confederation and maintained trade relations with Byzantium. Later the Slavic tribes formed alliances to battle the Goths, Avars and Khazars, as well as banding together for raiding expeditions on the Greek cities in Constantinopol, the Crimea and Asia Minor.

The Varangians (Vikings) contributed extensively to the development of the Kyivan-Rus' State. By the 9th century they had established a dynasty in Novhorod. The Varangians came from Scandinavia to the northeastern territories of Europe at the end of the 8th century. First they conquered the Baltic tribes, establishing a route through the rivers and their tributaries which flowed into the Baltic Sea, such as the Neman, Dvina and Neva Rivers. This made it convenient for Varangian ships to make their way deep into the countryside, in fact to the Black Sea via the Dnipro River and to the Caspian Sea via the Volga River. Conquering the Finnish tribes in the northern territories, the Varangians descended into Slovene (Slavic) lands in the area of Lake Ilmen. In time the Varangians settled in these lands and built cities which became centers of trade and commerce. Later they developed a strong state with its capital in Novhorod on Lake Ilmen.

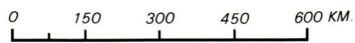
The first Prince in Novhorod was Riuryk. During his reign the Varangians continued to conquer Slavic territories south of Novhorod, along both banks of the Dnipro River.

Two of Riuryk's commanders, Askold and Dyr, came to Kyiv about 860 and began forming the Kyivan State (Rus'). Before the arrival of Askold and Dyr, according to legend, Kyiv was ruled by three brothers, Kyi, Shchek and Khoryv, who had founded the city and named it in honor of the eldest brother. This was during the time of the Khazar State and the Polianian and Siverian tribes, ancestors of the Ukrainians, paid tribute to the

RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE IX CEN. (882-912)



- Kyivan Rus' in the time of Askold & Dyr about 860
- Kyivan Rus' in the time of Oleh 882-912
- Cherven Horody (Cherven Towns) independent principalities till 981
- Campaigns of Askold & Dyr to Constantinopol in 860 and Oleh in 907
- Khazar Khanate
- State boundaries in the second half of the IX cen.



Khazars until the arrival of Askold and Dyr. During the the reign of Askold and Dyr in Kyiv, the Varangians were identified in Byzantine writings as Rus'.

Askold and Dyr ruled the Kyivan State together from their capital of Kyiv in the Polianian, Siverian, Derevlian and Radimichian lands. Historical records of the time indicate that the Kyivan State was fairly well formed and militarily strong. In 860 Askold and Dyr set out with 200 ships towards the Byzantine capital of Constantinopol, arriving on June 18 of that year. Their campaign was unsuccessful when a strong storm arose on the Black Sea. Askold and Dyr also launched campaigns against the Pechenegs in which they emerged victorious.

In 879, with the death of Riuryk, Oleh ruled as regent for Riuryk's young son, Ihor. Oleh's aim was to gain control of the trade routes from the Baltic to the Black Sea, known as the "road from the Varangians to the Greeks." He began by conquering territories along both banks of the Dnipro River, capturing first Smolensk and Liubech, then Kyiv in 882, killing Askold and Dyr and declaring himself ruler of Kyivan Rus'. Kyiv, due to its central location, became his capital. In each territory he conquered Oleh deposed the local tribal ruler and placed a loyal Varangian governor in his place. These governors, later princes, and their Varangian retinues quickly became assimilated with the Slavic population.

Oleh continued his conquests to include the territory of the Derevlians (Derevliany) in 883, the Siverians (Siveryany) in 884, the Radimichians (Radimichi) in 885 and the Belorussian tribes, expanding his kingdom from the Baltic Sea to the mid Dnipro River. In 907 he set out on a successful expedition against Constantinopol, in which he gained a commercial treaty protecting the rights and privileges of Rus' traders. A second treaty, which has been preserved, was concluded in 911. Upon his death in 912, Oleh was succeeded by Ihor who began the Riurykovych dynasty in Rus'-Ukraine.

10. RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE X CEN. (912-972)

Kyivan-Rus' continued to grow during the reigns of Ihor, his wife, Olha and son, Svyatoslav the Conquerer.

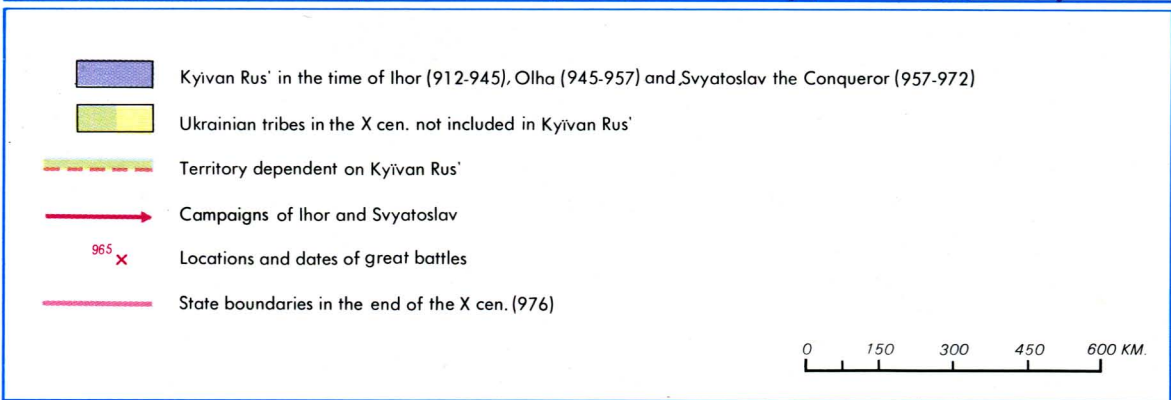
Ihor (912-945) began his reign by reasserting control over his rebellious subjects, the Derevlans (Derevliany), who refused to pay tribute. He continued the expansion of the Kyivan State by annexing the territories of the Ulychians (Ulychi), the Tyvertsians (Tyvertsi) and the Taman Peninsula. In 942 Ihor sailed into Constantinopol intending to force the Greeks to abide by Oleh's 911 trade agreement, but was forced to retreat and, as a result, the trade agreement he signed in 944 was less advantageous. In 944 Ihor launched a large-scale successful expedition against the Muslim cities on the Caspian Sea, returning to Kyiv with his booty. The Derevlans rebelled again, ambushing Ihor while he was traveling with a small retinue and killing him.

After the death of her husband, Olha (945-957) reigned as regent during the minority of their son Svyatoslav. She began by avenging the death of her husband and bringing the Derevlans back under Kyivan control. Realizing that the reason for Ihor's death was the arbitrary method used to collect tribute from the Slavic tribes, Olha set about reforming the collection process by designating specific amounts of tribute and regular periods of collection from clearly established areas. In foreign affairs, Olha favored diplomacy over war, negotiating trade agreements with the Byzantine Empire and the German Kingdom. On one of her visits to Constantinopol, Olha converted to Christianity (957), the first member of the royal family to do so.

During the reign of Svyatoslav the Conquerer (962-972) the territory of Rus'-Ukraine was greatly expanded. In 964 he subjugated the Vyatichians (Vyatychi), an East Slavic tribe on the Oka River, then proceeded down the Volga River to defeat the Volga Bulgars. In 966 Svyatoslav attacked and crushed the Khazars, effectively eliminating the Khazar threat. Unfortunately, in so doing, Svyatoslav also removed the barrier that had kept other Asian nomadic tribes from penetrating into the region. With the Khazar barrier gone, the Ukrainian steppe was invaded by successive waves of Pechenegs (Patzinaks), Torks, Polovtsi (Cumans) and Mongol-Tatars.

With Eastern Europe under control, Svyatoslav directed his attention to the Balkans, mounting a large expedition into Bulgaria in 968 and having conquered the wealthy cities along the Danube, set up his base of operations in Pereyaslavets in the Danube delta. During Svyatoslav's reign Kyivan Rus' was an empire and Svyatoslav used the title of emperor. The threat of a Pecheneg attack on Kyiv forced him to return, but after repelling the Pechenegs, he divided the territory among his sons — Yaropolk, Oleh and Volodymyr — and returned

RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE X CEN. (912-972)



to Pereyaslavets. At this point, Svyatoslav controlled territories from the Volga to the Danube. The Byzantine Empire, threatened by Svyatoslav's aggressive expansion, attacked his forces, and after a long and bloody battle, finally forced Svyatoslav to retreat. Svyatoslav never made it back to Kyiv. His remaining forces were ambushed by Pechenegs and Svyatoslav was killed in 972.

11. RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE X AND XI CEN. (980-1054)

Kyivan Rus' flourished politically, economically and culturally during the reigns of Volodymyr the Great and Yaroslav the Wise. It bordered on the west with Poland and Hungary, with the Baltic tribes on the northwest, with the Finnish tribes in the north and stretched to the Black Sea in the south. It was a time of expansion territorially to the west, of heightened contact and influence from Byzantium and of forming and cementing relationships with Europe.

After Svyatoslav's death, his sons fought each other to gain control of the Kyivan throne, with the youngest, Volodymyr the Great (980-1015), emerging victorious. His main objectives were to secure his territorial borders and expand westward to control the lucrative trade routes there. Beginning in 981, Volodymyr subjugated the Volynians (Volyniany), Dulibians (Duliby), Tyvertsians (Tyvertsi) and White Croats (Bili Khorvaty), extending his domain to the borders of Poland and Hungary. He led expeditions against the Baltic Yatvyags, the Vyatichians (Vyatichi) and the Volga Bulgars to secure the northern borders. Volodymyr built fortified towns south of Kyiv, along the Dnipro River and its tributaries as a buffer against attacks from the nomadic Pechenegs (Patzinaks) inhabiting the southeastern steppes.

Volodymyr's most notable achievement, and the one with the most far-reaching consequences for the development of Ukraine, was the acceptance of Eastern Orthodox Christianity as the state religion in 988. In 987, in return for helping the Byzantine emperors Basil and Constantine suppress a rebellion, Volodymyr demanded the hand of their sister, Anna, in marriage. The emperors agreed if Volodymyr would accept Christianity. At his baptism, Volodymyr assumed the title of Emperor and, with his marriage to Anna, Byzantium recognized his right to the title by sending him a crown and other symbols of power. Volodymyr proceeded to extend Christianity throughout his realm, building churches and monasteries and providing for their financial support. Byzantine Christianity brought with it the influence of Byzantine culture and learning. The Cyrillic alphabet was adopted. Education flourished. Written historical records began.

Not only did the nation benefit spiritually and culturally, but politically as well. Volodymyr developed closer relationships with Byzantium and the other Christian nations of Europe through diplomatic contact and dynastic ties. This alignment with the Christian West, rather than the Muslim East, would influence Ukraine throughout its history.

The Ukrainian State under Volodymyr the Great was the one of the largest in Europe (over 800,000 sq. km.). It included lands settled by Ukrainian, Muscovite, Belorussian and Finnish tribes. And during the time of the greatest growth of the Rus' Ukrainian State,

RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE X AND XI CEN.(980-1054)



Volodymyr died unexpectedly in 1015. After Volodymyr's death internecine warfare broke out between his sons Svyatopolk, prince of Turiv, Yaroslav of Novhorod and Borys, who had been named to succeed Volodymyr on the Kyivan throne.

At the same time the Pechenegs appeared, threatening southeastern Ukraine. Svyatopolk (called the Accursed) killed his brother Borys and seized the Kyivan throne. He also killed his brothers Hlib (prince of Murom) and Svyatoslav (who ruled the Drehoviches). Yaroslav, seeing Svyatopolk's fratricide, attacked him and in the Spring of 1016 at Liubech on the Dnipro River, along with his Varangian allies, defeated Svyatopolk. Svyatopolk, with his Pecheneg horde allies, fled and sought refuge with his brother-in-law, the Polish King Boleslaw. In the Spring of 1018 Svyatopolk, with the Boleslaw's help, occupied Kyiv. On the way back to Poland, Boleslaw occupied the Cherven Horody (Cherven Towns).

Yaroslav moved from Novhorod in the winter of 1019 and successfully recaptured Kyiv, defeating Svyatopolk, who fled to the west and all trace of him is lost. With his brother Mstyslav the Brave, who ruled Tmutorokan, Yaroslav concluded a peace treaty dividing the Ukrainian lands between them. Yaroslav ascended the Kyivan throne. In 1031, with the death of the Polish king Boleslaw, Yaroslav recaptured the Cherven Horody. The same year, Yaroslav founded the city of Yaroslav on the Sian River, during his northern campaign in which he defeated the Finnish tribe Chud and also established the city of Yuriiv (Dorpat). In 1034 he defeated the Pechenegs near Kyiv. In 1036, when Mstyslav the Brave died without heirs, Yaroslav became sovereign of the entire Kyivan-Rus' state.

Yaroslav the Wise (1018-1054), upon gaining control of the Kyivan throne, continued the policies begun by his father, securing his northern borders by defeating the Yatvyags and the Finnish Chuds.

Education and religion flourished. The first Ukrainian Metropolitan Illarion was appointed in 1051 (previous Patriarchs had been Greek or Bulgarian). Monasteries, schools, hospitals and libraries were established throughout the realm. Yaroslav also established a uniform legal system for his realm, codifying old and new laws into one system known as the "Ruška Pravda." During his reign he built the great Cathedral of St. Sophia in Kyiv and, to commemorate the victory over the Pechenegs, he built the "Golden Gates." He maintained close foreign relations with the monarchs of Europe including linking Rus'-Ukraine dynastically through marriages of his children to Byzantine, German, French, Polish, Hungarian and Norwegian royalty.

During his long and beneficial reign, he earned the nickname "the Wise". He died in 1054 leaving a great State which he divided among his sons.

12. RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE XI AND XII CEN. (1113-1125)

Territorially Kyivan Rus', in the 11th century, was the largest nation in Europe, extending from the Baltic to the Black Sea and from the Sian River to the Caspian and Volga steppes. To the west, it bordered on Poland and Hungary. To the north were the Baltic and Finnish tribes. To the east lay the reorganized Volga Bulgar State, the Asiatic nomads occupying the Volga and Caspian steppes and the Yazyges and Kasogians in the Caucasus region. The Black Sea formed the southern boundary, with the Turkic Polovtsi (Cumans) hordes occupying the southeastern steppes.

Kyivan-Rus' consisted of administrative provinces, each governed by a son of Yaroslav, and answerable to the Kyivan throne. Yaroslav, before his death, had set up a seniority system to this distribution of land and power. As a vacancy occurred in Kyiv, each son would move up one step in the system, thus each would have a chance to rule in Kyiv. In this manner, Yaroslav hoped to avoid the internecine struggles which usually followed the death of the Kyivan ruler. With Yaroslav's death, his eldest son, Iziaslav, ascended to the Kyivan throne, but faced increased rebellion from the other princes and was forced to abdicate. Prince Vsevolod of Pereyaslav (1078-1093) was able to maintain control for a time. Iziaslav's son, Svyatopolk (1093-1113), ruled in Kyiv after Vsevolod's death, dealing not only with the rebelliousness of the other princes, but with an invasion by the Polovtsi.

In 1097 the leading princes met in Lubech, near Kyiv, to try to solve the problem of dynastic succession without success. One of the organizers of this conference was Volodymyr Monomakh. Immensely popular, Volodymyr Monomakh was able to unite the other princes and mobilize the Ukrainian people to fight the Polovtsi. The campaigns of 1103, 1107 and 1111 were the most successful.

Volodymyr Monomakh (1113-1125) ascended the throne of Kyiv after the death of Svyatopolk. He succeeded in uniting Ukraine once more under direct Kyivan rule. Peace and harmony reigned; education and the arts flourished; prosperity returned. Volodymyr Monomakh restored order and eased social tensions by formulating laws, which dealt with the rights and obligations of each social class. His son, Mstyslav (1125-1132), was the last ruler able to maintain authority over Kyivan-Rus'. With his death, the unity of the state disintegrated, replaced by independent principalities, each with its own dynastic succession.

RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE XI AND XII CEN. (1113-1125)

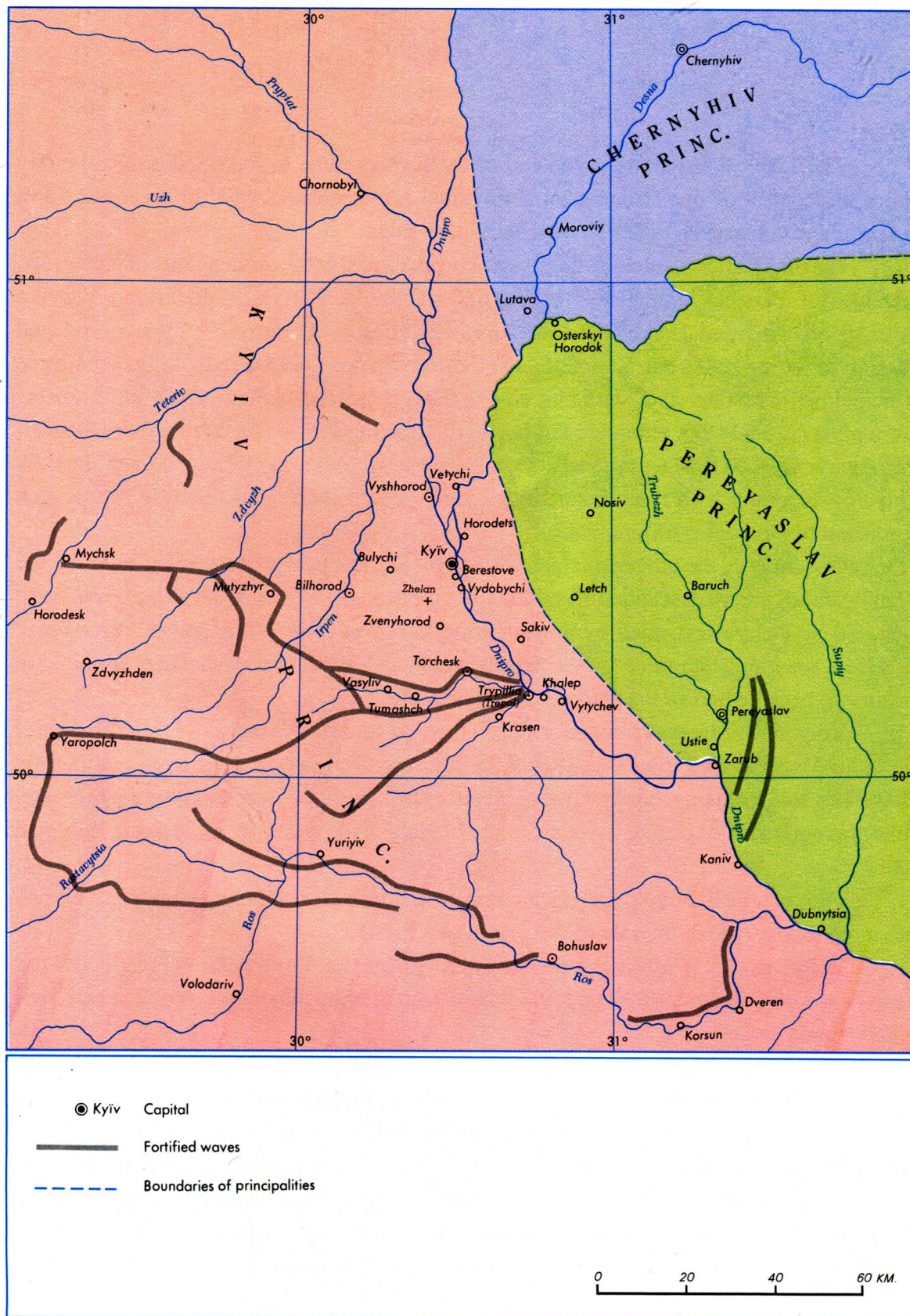


13. REGIONS OF KYIV IN THE XI-XIII CEN.

Throughout much of its history, Ukraine faced the onslaught of nomadic invasion from the southeastern steppes. Volodymyr the Great (980-1015) built fortified towns along the Dnipro River and its tributaries — the Stuhna, Irpen, Trubezh, Sula and Desna Rivers — to hold back invasions by the Pechenegs (Patzinaks). Yaroslav the Wise (1018-1054) extended the line of fortified towns into the steppe, to the Ros River, founding the city of Yuriiv.

Defeated by Yaroslav the Wise in 1036, the Pechenegs disappeared from the Ukrainian steppes. But the threat of nomadic invasion did not diminish. The Polovtsi (Cumans) invaded Ukraine and, although routed by Volodymyr Monomakh in 1111, remained a threat well into the 13th century. In 1224 the Mongol hordes swept through a Ukraine weakened by internecine battles for control of the Kyivan throne.

REGIONS OF KYIV IN THE XI-XIII CEN.



14. RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE SECOND HALF OF THE XII CEN.

The 12th century marked the end of the Kyivan State as a unified political entity under the control of one strong ruler. Individual principalities began to secede to form independent states, each under its own hereditary ruler.

Halych (Galicia), ruled by the Rostyslavych dynasty (the descendents of Rostyslav, grandson of Yaroslav the Wise) was the first to secede. Riuryk, Volodar and Vasylko Rostyslavych divided Halych into three principalities — Peremyshl, Zvenyhorod and Terebovlia — in 1084, but Volodar's son, Volodymyrko (1124-1153), united the three principalities into one state with the city of Halych as the capitol. His son, Yaroslav Osmomysl (1153-1187), extended the boundaries of the principality to the lower Dnister. Volodymyr (1187-1198) was the last of the Rostyslavych dynasty to rule Halych. In 1199 Halych was united with the principality of Volyn under its ruler, Roman Mystyslavych (grandson of Volodymyr Monomakh).

One by one, the other principalities began to break away. Chernyhiv, ruled by the Olehovychi dynasty (descended from Oleh, a grandson of Yaroslav the Wise), was next; followed by Pereyaslav, ruled by the descendents of Vsevolod Yaroslavych. Turiv-Pinsk became a separate state ruled by the Iziaslavych and Yaroslavych dynasties. In the 13th century, it became part of the Halych-Volynian State.

Volyn, in 1146, was divided between the two sons of Iziaslav II — the Volodymyr region to Mstyslav and the Lutsk region to Yaroslav. The two regions were reunited by Mstyslav's son, Roman, who extended his territory to include the Berestechko, Yaroslav and Pohoryn regions, later adding the principality of Halych to form a united Halych-Volynian State.

The principality of Novhorod, a prosperous international trading center, developed into a republic in which the role of the prince was limited.

Volodymyr-Suzdal, in the northeast, ruled by the Yurievychi (descended from Yuriy, a son of Volodymyr Monomakh), would later develop into the Muscovite State from which Russia arose.

During the 12th century Ukraine faced constant attacks from the Polovtsi (Cumans) hordes, which occupied the southeastern steppes. The princes mounted individual and joint campaigns against the Polovtsi throughout this period. Volodymyr Monomakh, Yaroslav Osmomysl of Halych and Roman of Volyn achieved major victories, but never fully removed the Polovtsi. Many strikes against the Polovtsi met with defeat, the most famous being the 1185 campaign by Ihor Svyatoslavych of Novhorod-Siverskyi. It is commemorated in a great epic poem entitled "The Lay of Ihor's Campaign."

RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE SECOND HALF OF THE XII CEN.



15. RUS'-UKRAINE DURING THE MONGOL INVASIONS IN THE XIII CEN.

In the 13th century, two new states arose in Europe, which would affect Ukrainian history in the future — the Teutonic Knights and the Dukedom of Lithuania. To the northeast, the Volga Bulgars expanded along the Kama and Volga Rivers. The Italian city-state of Genoa controlled the southern coast of Crimea. The Polovtsi (Cumans) occupied the Black Sea steppes until displaced by the Mongol hordes in 1240.

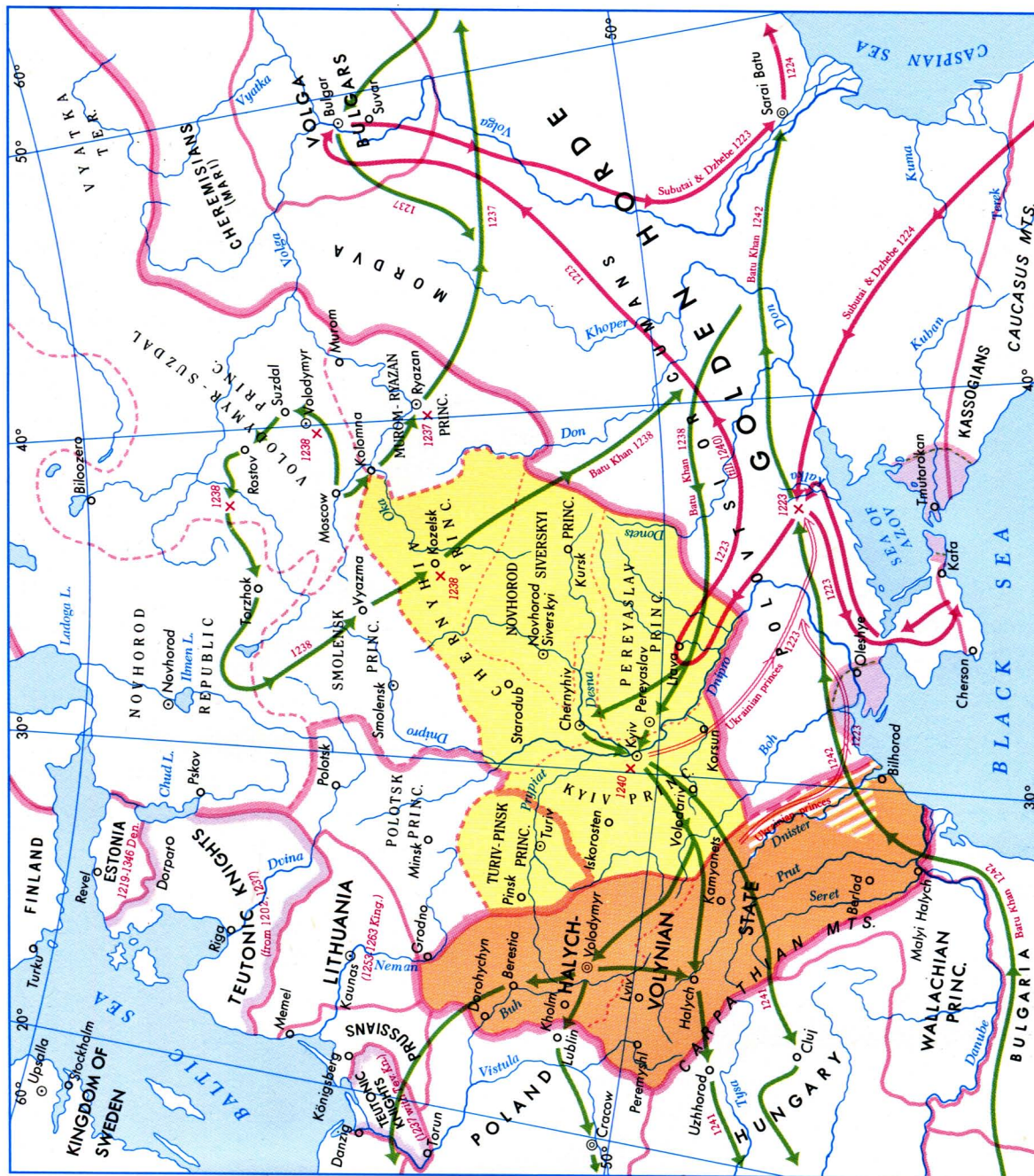
The independent principalities, which arose from Kyivan-Rus', can be divided ethnographically into three groups. Of the ethnically Ukrainian principalities, the Halych-Volynian state was geographically the largest and politically the most influential, affecting the other principalities of Kyiv, Chernyhiv, Turiv-Pinsk and Pereyaslav. The Polotsk principality encompassed the Belorussian lands, including the cities of Novhorodok, Polotsk and Minsk. Volodymyr-Suzdal, Smolensk, Murom-Ryazan and Vyatka principalities later became Muscovite (Russian) ethnographic territory. The Novhorod Republic controlled the remaining territory of Kyivan Rus'.

The Mongol hordes came from the steppes north of China. Khan Temujin (better known as Genghis Khan) organized the Mongol tribes into a brutally effective military unit, which conquered China, Central Asia and the Caucasus before moving into southeastern Europe in the 13th century. The first invasion began in 1223. They moved into the southeastern steppes, threatening the Polovtsi (Cumans), who asked for help from the Ukrainian princes. The combined armies of Mstyslav Romanovych (Kyiv), Danylo Romanovych (Volyn) and Mstyslav Udatnyi (Halych), along with the Polovtsi, met the invading Mongols on the Kalka River north of the Sea of Azov in the spring of 1224. Nine thousand troops and 6 princes died in the bloody battle, which lasted for three days and ended in Mongol victory. The Mongols continued their assault into Pereyaslav and the Volga Bulgar State before returning home to Asia.

The Mongols began their second invasion in 1236 led by Batu Khan, grandson of Genghis Khan, subjugating the Volga Bulgars and the Muscovite principalities of Murom-Ryazan and Volodymyr-Suzdal in 1236-1238. They then proceeded south, plundering and destroying the principalities of Chernyhiv, Novhorod-Siverskyi and Pereyaslav. In 1240, the Mongols crossed the Dnipro River and laid siege to Kyiv. After a long and bloody battle, Kyiv fell and the Mongols continued on to Volodymyr-Volynskyi.

At this point the Mongols divided into two groups. Under Khan Batu, the main force attacked Halych and moved on to Hungary. The second group, under Khan Buchek, advanced southward along the Carpathian Mountains, through Transylvania and rejoined the main force in Hungary, remaining there until 1242. On the return trip towards their

RUS'-UKRAINE DURING THE MONGOL INVASIONS IN THE XIII CEN.



	Ukrainian principalities in the middle of the XIII cen.
	Halych-Volynian State in the XIII cen.
	Boundaries of the countries dependent from Golden Horde
	First campaign of the Mongols in 1223
	Second campaign of the Mongols in 1238-1242
	Campaign of Ukrainian princes against the Mongols in 1223
	Ukrainian territory lost in the XIII and beginning of the XIII cen.
	State boundaries in the middle of the XIII cen.



homeland in the east, the Mongols established their state (called Golden Horde) on the lower Volga River, with Sarai-Batu as its capital. The rulers of the defeated states were forced to pay homage to the Golden Horde and recognize Batu Khan as their overlord.

16. HALYCH-VOLYNIAN KINGDOM IN THE XIII AND XIV CEN.

The principalities of Halych (Galicia) and Volyn were united for the first time under Prince Roman Mstyslavych in 1199. He successfully defended the Halych-Volynian state against attacks from the Baltic tribes to the north and the Polovtsi (Cumans) to the south. He died in 1205, leaving two young sons, Danylo and Vasylko.

The powerful Halych boyars (wealthy and influential landowners) refused to recognize Roman's minor sons as successors to the throne. Instead, they invited the three sons of the Chernyhiv prince, Ihor Svyatoslavych, to rule in Halych. The rulers refused to share power with the boyars and a bloody struggle took place, ending with the expulsion of the Ihorevychi rulers. Poland and Hungary, taking advantage of the situation, invaded Halych in 1214, proclaiming the young Hungarian Prince Kalman as King of Halych.

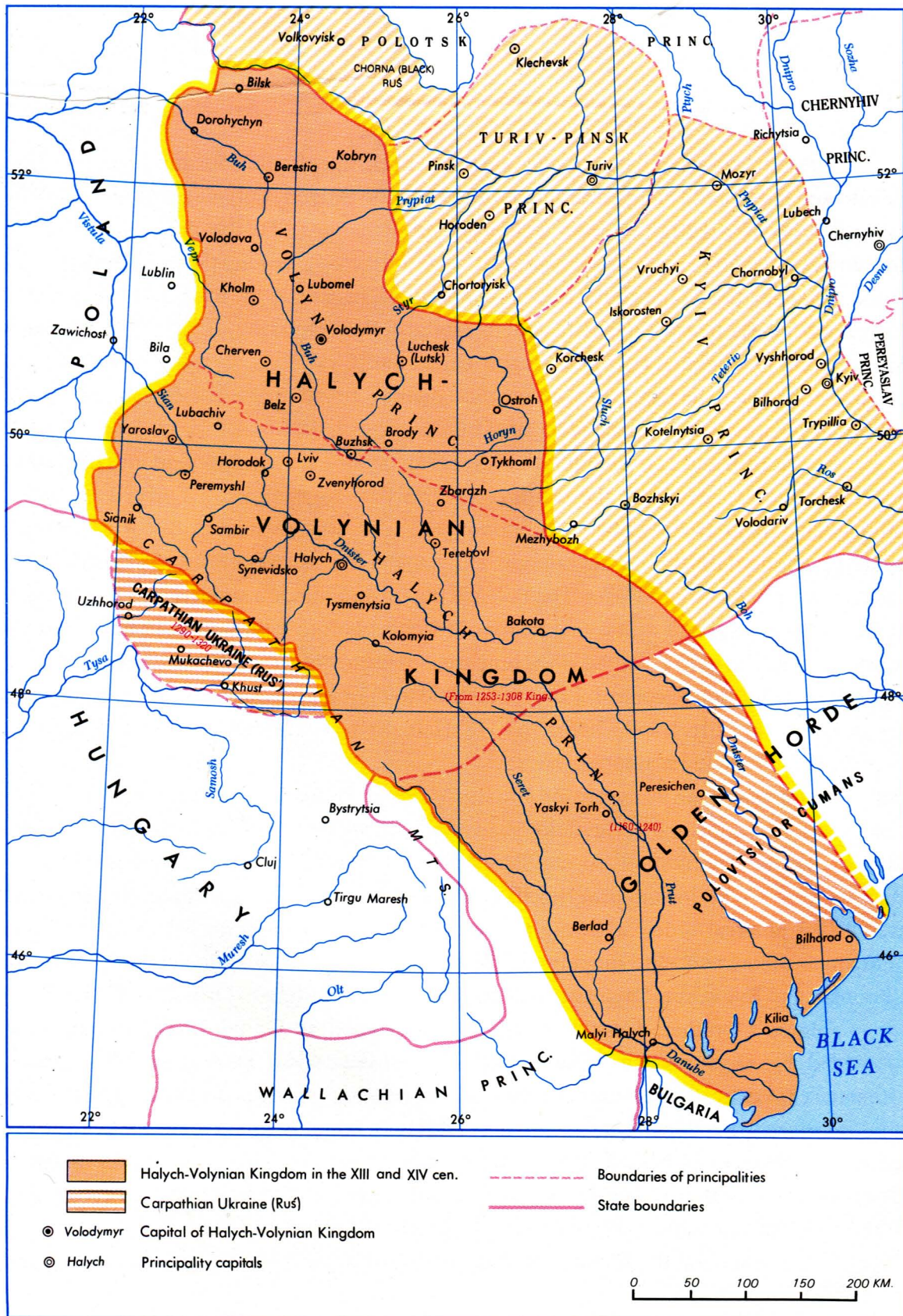
Danylo Romanovych (son of Roman) regained the Volyn throne in 1221. He then set out to regain the throne of Halych. In 1235, aided by the Novhorod Prince Mstyslav Udatnyi, he succeeded in removing the Hungarians from Halych, but the Hungarians and Poles remained a threat until 1245 when Danylo finally defeated them near the city of Yaroslav.

Finally, Danylo had succeeded in reclaiming his father's realm. He remained in Halych while his younger brother, Vasylko, ruled in Volyn. Although divided between the two brothers, the principality of Halych-Volyn, politically and administratively, functioned as a single entity, with Danylo effectively at the helm.

Like the other princes, Danylo was forced to pay homage to and accept the overlordship of the Golden Horde. Unhappy with the situation, Danylo approached Pope Innocent IV, offering to place his realm under the jurisdiction of Rome, in return for papal aid in mounting a crusade against the Mongols. In 1253 Danylo was crowned king in Dorohychyn by a papal representative and the Halych-Volynian Kingdom came into existence. The Mongols, learning of Danylo's political maneuverings, attacked and forced him to destroy all his fortifications.

After the death of Danylo in 1264, his son Lev (1264-1301) ascended the throne. Maintaining stability at home, Lev embroiled himself in the politics of western Europe, at one point aspiring to the Polish throne. He was succeeded by his son Yuriy, whose two sons, Andriy and Lev were the last of the Romanovych dynasty to rule the Halych-Volynian State. In 1323 a Polish cousin of the Romanovychi, Boleslaw of Mazowia, ascended the throne. He took the name of Yuriy and converted to Orthodox Christianity, ruling until 1340.

HALYCH-VOLYNIAN KINGDOM IN THE XIII AND XIV CEN.



17. LITHUANIA AND RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE XIV AND XV CEN.

Eastern Europe underwent massive political changes in the 14th and 15th centuries. Poland and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania absorbed the Halych-Volynian Kingdom and the other independent Ukrainian and Belorussian principalities. To the northeast, a strong Muscovite state developed. In the southeast were the remnants of the Golden Horde — the Kazan Khanate, the Nohai Horde and the Astrakhan Khanate. In the early 15th century, the Crimean Khanate, a new Tatar state with its capital at Bakhchysaray, appeared on the Black Sea. A wide, uninhabited stretch of steppe, called the “Dyki Polia” ("Wild Fields"), acted as a buffer between the Ukrainian settlements and the Tatar nomads. The Byzantine Empire collapsed and a new threat to the security of Europe arose in the form of the Ottoman Empire.

In the 14th and 15th century, the Ukrainian lands were incorporated into the Polish and Lithuanian states. With the death of the Halych-Volynian king Yuriy II in 1340, Lithuanian Grand Duke Lubart Gediminovych, who was related to the Romanovych dynasty, inherited the throne. He brought Volyn under his direct control and placed Halych under his viceroy, Dmytro Detko. The Polish King Casimir made a sudden attack on Halych in 1340, plundering and destroying many of its cities before returning to Poland with his booty. He returned in 1349, allied with Hungary, hoping to bring the rich territories of Halych and Volyn under Polish control. Lubart was able to maintain control of Volyn, but Poland gained control of Halych and Kholm. In 1378 Halych was annexed by Hungary. Nine years later, in 1387, Poland recaptured Halych.









Lithuania began its expansion into Rus'-Ukraine during the reign of Gedimin (1316-1341) with the acquisition of the Belorussian principalities of Turiv-Pinsk and Berestia. The principalities of Chernyiv, Kyiv and Pereyaslav and the Podillia region were acquired by Olgerd (1362-1377). In administering its newly acquired territories, Lithuania relied on the established political order, allowing the nobility to keep its position intact. In fact, the Lithuanian dukes and elite quickly assimilated with their Slavic subjects, adopting the Ukrainian and Belorussian languages and customs and converting to Orthodox Christianity.

Olgerd's brother, Kestutis (1377-1382), reigned as Grand Duke of Lithuania, succeeded by Olgerd's son Jagiello (Yahaylo) (1382-1434). During Jagiello's reign, Lithuania experienced major political, cultural and religious changes. In 1385, as a condition to his marriage to the Polish Queen Jadwiga (Yadviga), Jagiello signed a pact agreeing to the union of Lithuania and Poland and the introduction of Roman Catholicism into Lithuania. This pact met with fierce opposition from both sides and Jagiello was forced to abdicate as Grand Duke of Lithuania in favor of Vitovt Kestutovych (1387-1430).

Vitovt annulled the union with Poland. Vitovt's plans to expand into the former

LITHUANIA AND RUS'-UKRAINE IN THE XIV AND XV CEN.



	Ukrainian land after fall of Halych-Volynian Kingdom 1340		Location and dates of great battles
	Lithuania in the XIV - XV cen.		State boundaries ca 1450
	Muscovite Principality in 1300, 1462		
	Ottoman Emirate 1299-1326		
	Ottoman State ca 1355		
	Ottoman State in 1451		

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Ukrainian territories held by the Tatars met with defeat — the Tatars routed his army in a battle by the Vorskla River in 1399. Shortly thereafter, the Order of the Teutonic Knights declared war on Lithuania. As a condition for Jagiello's assistance against the Knights, Vitovt agreed to re-establish the union with Poland.

Jagiello's brother Svydryhaylo (1430-1452) attempted to break the union with Poland but, defeated in battle in 1435, he abdicated the Lithuanian throne, remaining to rule in Volyn. The union was renewed by Vitovt's brother Sigismund (1435-1440) and Polish influence remained dominant in Lithuania, especially during the reign of Casimir (1440-1492), who was both Grand Duke of Lithuania and King of Poland.

18. ZAPOROZHIAN SICH (1550-1775)

Towards the end of the XV century the first references to Cossacks (Kozaks) on the Ukrainian frontier appear. "Kozak" is a Turkic word meaning "free, independent person", as opposed to a serf, who was bound to a master. The word referred to men engaged in warfare and robbery and, in the mind of the people, developed in a manner parallel to the English Robin Hood, across a spectrum of meanings: handsome, bold, young, knightly, defender of the fatherland. This new class of Cossacks drew its members from runaway serfs. Organized along democratic principles into small, tight-knit groups to defend themselves against Tatar bands and for cooperation in hunting and fishing expeditions, the Cossacks moved into the steppes south of the lower tributaries of the Dnipro rapids—the prairie area known as "Wild Fields." Their elected leader was known by the Tatar titles, "hetman" or "otaman."

One of the first to organize the Cossacks was Ostap Dashkevych (1515-1535), the elder (starosta) of the port town of Cherkasy on the Dnipro River. Learning the Tatar methods of warfare, he operated along the Ukrainian-Tatar border. Dashkevych and his Cossack band raided in the Crimea and, in 1532, he distinguished himself in a victory over the Tatars in defense of the city of Cherkasy.

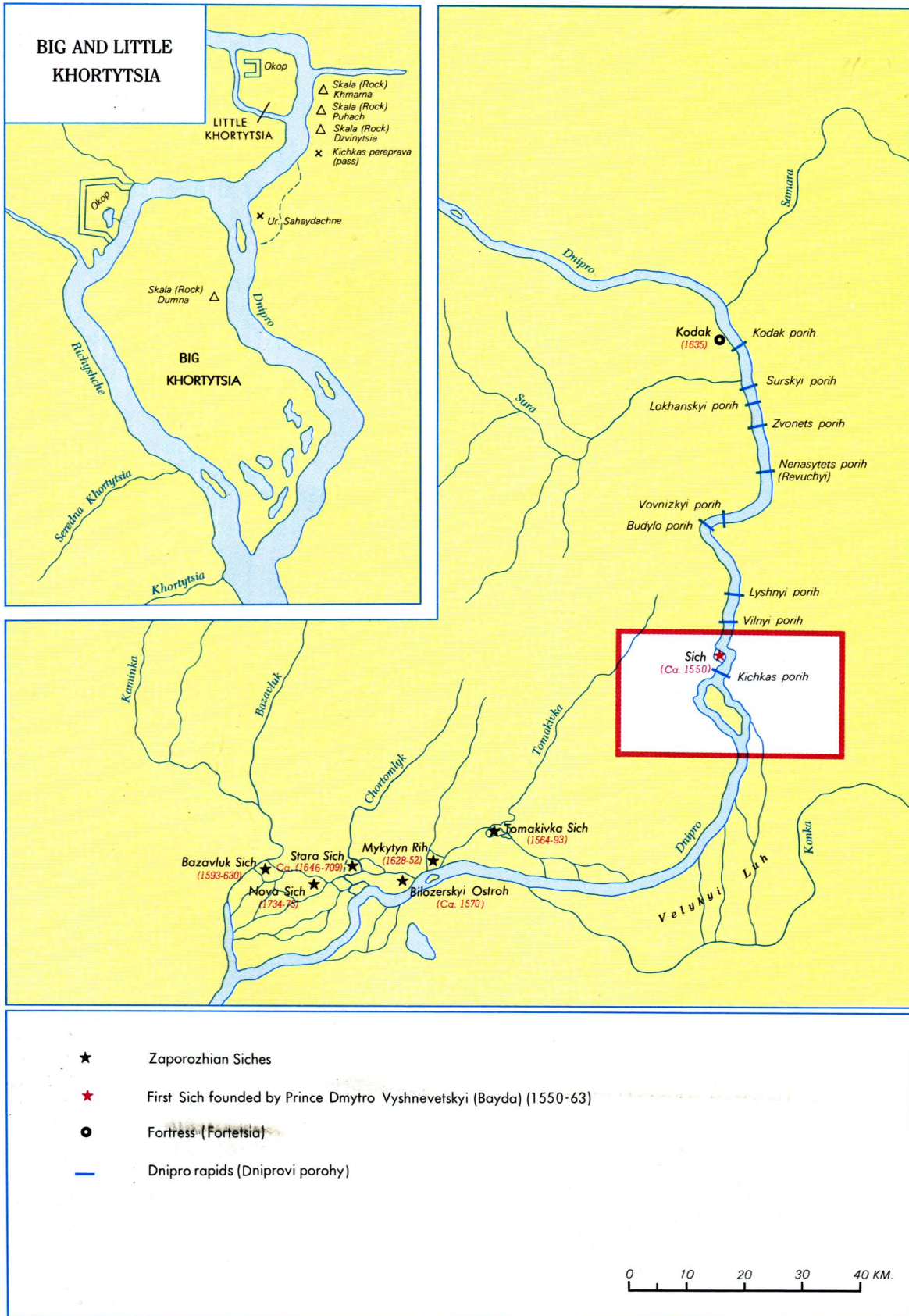
Cossack Prince Dmytro Bayda Vyshnevetskyi was the first to build, about 1550, a Cossack fortress, called in Ukrainian *Sich*. This was on the island of Little Khortytsia, whose steep banks rendered it eminently defensible. It was located downstream of the Dnipro rapids and as river rapids in Ukrainian are termed *porohy*, *porih* in Ukrainian—the region beyond the rapids is termed with the prepositional phrase *za porohamy* and the parasynthetic substantive *zaporozhe*. Hence we have the name of the area proverbial in Ukrainian history, the *Zaporozhian Sich*, the fort "beyond the rapids."

Later in 1558 the Little Khortytsia Sich was destroyed by the Tatars. Captured by the Turks in a struggle for the throne of Moldavia 1563 "Bayda" Vyshnevetskyi met a hero's death and has been immortalized in national song.

After the death of Vyshnevetskyi, the Cossacks, around 1564, located their Sich on the island of Tomakivka. In 1593, during the absence from the island of the majority of the Cossack forces, the Tatars destroyed the Sich at Tomakivka. In the same year, the Cossacks relocated their fort to the island of Bazavluk and from there, in 1628, to Mykityn Rih (Mykyta's Corner).

About 1646 the Zaporozhian Cossacks established their Sich on the Chortomlyk River. From the Chortomlyk Sich, known as "Stara Sich" ("old fort"), a major offensive against Poland was launched in 1648 by Hetman Bohdan Khmelnytskyi, who emerged victorious and established an independent Ukrainian Cossack state. This Sich was destroyed by the Muscovites after the battle of Poltava, which brought an end to Swedish

ZAPOROZHIAN SICH (1550-1775)



power in the East and began Sweden's long neutrality, lasting to the present day.

Under Hetman Danylo Apostol the Zaporozhian Cossacks created a new Sich, in 1733, on the Pidpilna River. This Sich was destroyed by Moscow in 1775, during the reign of Catherine the Great.

The glory of the Cossacks, their battles immortalized in folk song and verse, will not be forgotten, nor the fame of the first builder of the Zaporozhian Sich, Dmytro "Bayda" Vyshnevetskyi.

19. UKRAINE AFTER THE UNION OF LUBLIN (1569)

The beginnings of the Zaporozhian Sich were described in the previous map. Erich Lasota, an envoy sent to the Cossacks by the German King Rudolph II in 1594, provides first hand information on life in the Sich. He arrived on June 9, 1594 and remained until July 9, 1594. He observed the life, customs and traditions of the Sich and, upon returning home, wrote about his exotic journey to the Cossack Sich. Lasota had brought 8000 gold ducats to give to the Cossacks, but was unable to convince them to participate in further campaigns against the Turks.

In 1593 the Papal envoy Komulovych tried to enter the Sich, bringing 1200 gold ducats as a downpayment for their participation in the Turkish campaigns. But he was not successful.

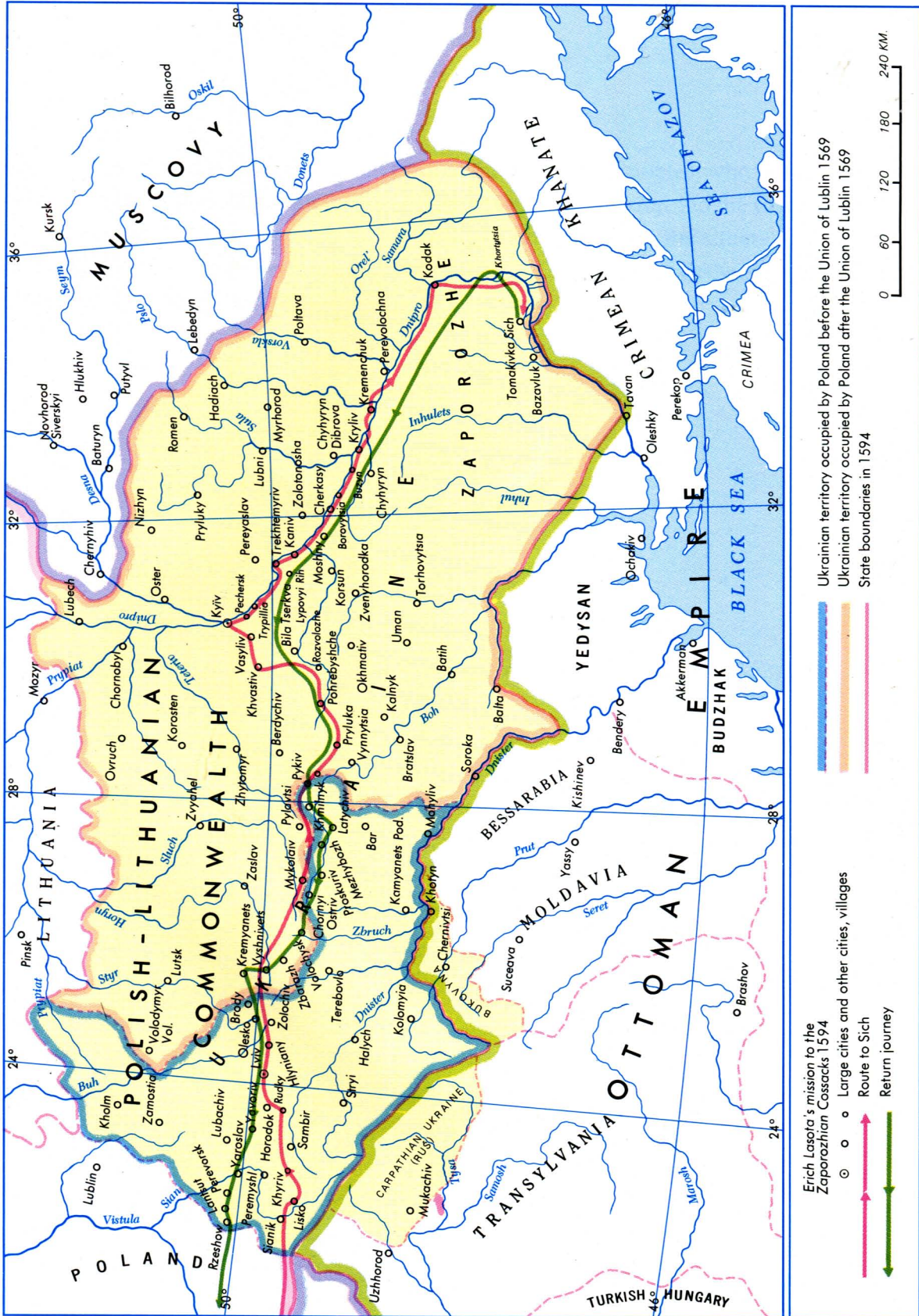
In 1569 Poland and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania signed the Union of Lublin, forming the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. By the terms of this treaty the two countries would share a common elected monarch, parliament, currency and foreign policy. They would each retain control of their local administration, army, treasury and judiciary. Under a separate agreement, over the objections of the Ukrainian representatives, Lithuania would retain two of its Ukrainian provinces — Berestia and Pidliassia (Pidlissia), giving Poland jurisdiction over the rest — the regions of Volyn, Kyiv and Podillia.

Poland's acquisition of these new, fertile and wide-open territories had a profound effect on the national and economic life of the Ukrainians. It opened the door to large-scale colonization and economic exploitation. Polish, German and Jewish settlers moved in. In addition, Europe needed large supplies of agricultural products to feed its growing population and the Ukrainian lands had a great deal of land suitable for agriculture. As a result, Polish landlords expanded their estates on the Ukrainian territories, disenfranchised the peasants and forced them to work as serfs. This led to widespread resentment and resistance, many peasants escaping into the southeastern frontier, forming or joining Cossack bands.

The Ukrainian nobility, in order to keep its privileges and estates, was increasingly coerced into adopting the Polish language, culture and the Catholic religion.

With the influx of Roman Catholic clergy, following on the heels of Polish settlers, the Ukrainian Orthodox Church underwent relentless persecution. To stop this persecution and hoping to achieve equal legal rights, four bishops of the Ukrainian Orthodox Church secretly negotiated the Union of Berestia (Brest) (1596) with the Pope. Under the terms of this treaty, the Ukrainian Orthodox Church would recognize the authority of the Pope as head of the Church and in matters of dogma. In return, it would maintain its own liturgy, traditions, church administration and married clergy. The news of this treaty caused a great

UKRAINE AFTER THE UNION OF LUBLIN (1569)



Erich Lasota's mission to the Zaporozhian Cossacks 1594

- ○ Large cities and other cities, villages
- Route to Sich
- ← Return journey

- █ Ukrainian territory occupied by Poland before the Union of Lublin 1569
- █ Ukrainian territory occupied by Poland after the Union of Lublin 1569
- █ State boundaries in 1594



outcry among the Ukrainian masses and within the ranks of the nobles, who were still loyal to the Orthodox faith. Although the bishops recanted their decision and the Cossacks were instrumental in officially restoring the Orthodox Church in 1620, the situation created an atmosphere of animosity between the Uniate (Greek Catholic) and Orthodox Ukrainians, which exists to the present day.

20. COSSACK UPRISINGS OF S. NALYVAIKO (1594-1596)

By the end of the 16th century, the Zaporozhian Sich was fairly well organized and the Cossack Order kept increasing in number. Those desiring to find glory in military campaigns against the Tatars and Turks, and peasants escaping oppression by Polish landowners, fled to the Sich where the authority of the Polish gentry did not extend. The animosity between Cossacks and the Polish gentry became more and more intense.

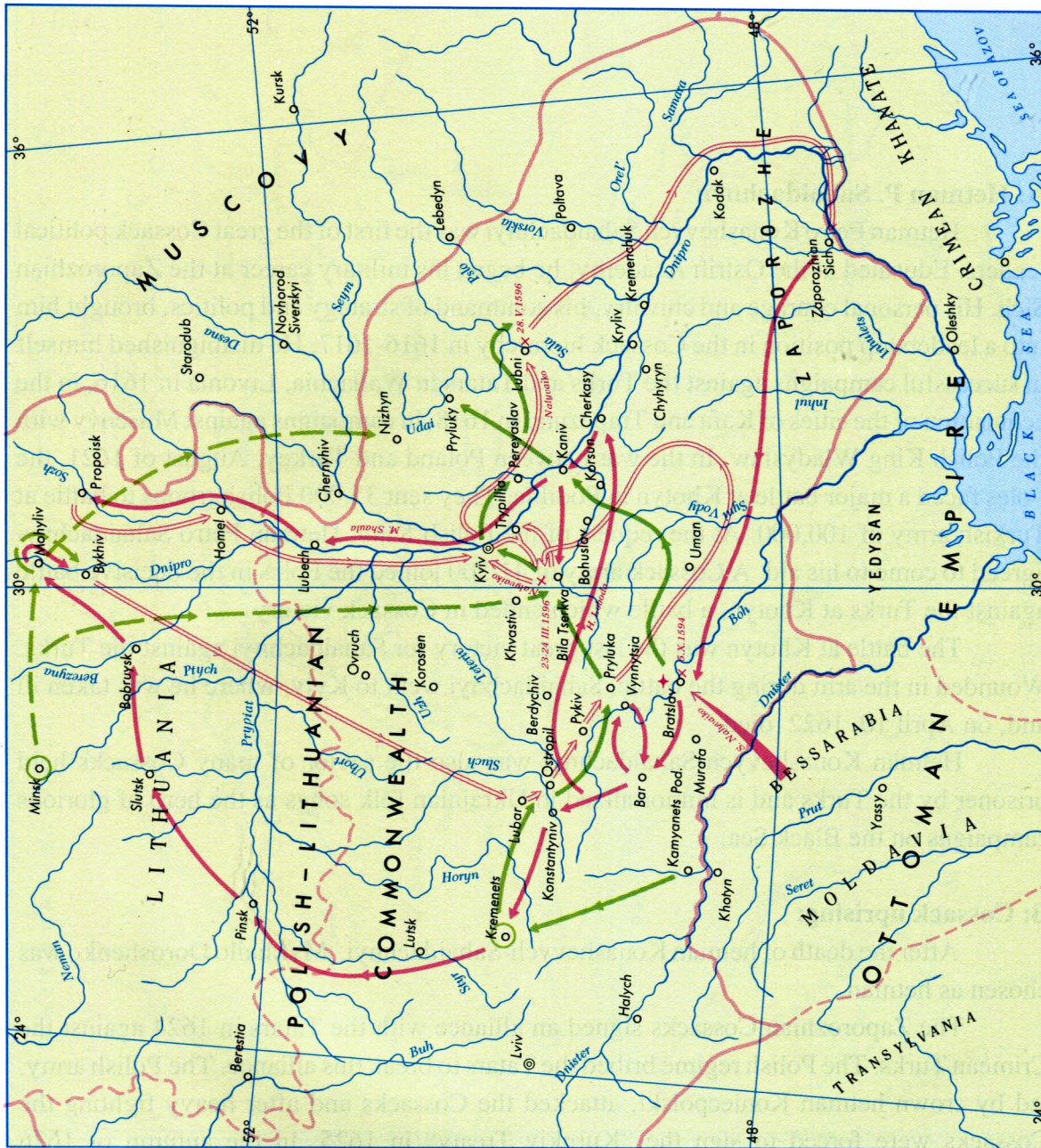
One of the early leaders of the Cossack rebellions against the arbitrary rule of the Poles was Krystof Kosynskiy, a Ukrainian nobleman from Pidliassia (Pidlissia). In 1590, along with several registered Cossack otamans, he received a land grant in the Kyiv region from the Polish king as a reward for his services. The “starosta” (elder) of Bila Tserkva, Ivan Ostrowski, would not allow Kosynskiy to take possession of this property, instead taking it for himself. In 1591, Kosynskiy organized a rebel army and attacked Ostrowski’s estates. Other peasant uprisings ignited in 1592 in Volyn and Podillia. The Polish gentry mobilized their forces and defeated the rebels in 1593. Kosynskiy’s Cossack forces retreated to the Sich. A second rebellion occurred later that same year, and Kosynskiy was killed in battle with the Poles.

After Kosynskiy’s death, leadership of the rebels was assumed by Severyn Nalyvaiko. Along with Hryhoriy Loboda, in 1594, Nalyvaiko marched on Moldavia with a force of approximately 12,000 Cossacks to do battle with the Turks. At Soroka on the Dnister River, they defeated the Moldavian ruler.

The Polish gentry, fearing Nalyvaiko’s rebellious activities, sent the militia to stop him. Nalyvaiko’s forces routed the militia and seized Bratslav. In the autumn of 1595, Nalyvaiko marched on Hungary, Volyn and Belorus’. The Polish regime feared losing these areas of Ukraine and raised an army, commanded by crown hetman Stanislaw Zolkiewski, to stop him.

Several courageous battles with Zolkiewski’s forces followed. Then came the decisive battle at the Solonytsia River, which ended with Zolkiewski’s victory and capture of the Cossack leaders. Nalyvaiko was taken to Warsaw, where he was tortured, sentenced to death and executed. Thus ended Nalyvaiko’s unsuccessful rebellion.

COSSACK UPRISING OF S. NALYVAIKO (1594-1596)



	Return of S. Nalyvaiko from Moldavia
	Direction of Cossack army in 1594-95
	Activity of Insurgent army in December 1595-1596
	Direction of Cossack army 1595-96
	Conquest of Bratslav by S. Nalyvaiko
	Movement of the Polish army
	Movement of the Lithuanian army
	Concentration of the Polish army
	Battle sites and dates
	State boundaries in 1569

21. COSSACK UPRISING OF T. FEDOROVYCH (T. TRIASYLO) (1630-1631)

A: Hetman P. Sahaidachnyi:

Hetman Petro Konashevych Sahaidachnyi was the first of the great Cossack political leaders. Educated at the Ostrih Academy, he began his military career at the Zaporozhian Sich. His personal courage and chivalry, his command of strategy and politics, brought him into a leadership position in the Cossack hierarchy in 1616-1617. He distinguished himself in successful campaigns against the Turks and Tatars in Wallachia, Livonia in 1616, in the acquisition of the cities of Kafa and Trapezund in 1618, in campaigns against Muscovy with the Polish King Wladyslaw. In the war between Poland and Turkey, August of 1621, the Poles faced a major battle at Khotyn in Podillia. They sent 35,000 Polish troops to battle at Turkish army of 100,000. At the request of the Polish King, Hetman Petro Sahaidachnyi agreed to come to his aid. A Cossack army of 41,500 joined the Poles in the decisive battle against the Turks at Khotyn, a battle which ended in Cossack victory.

The battle at Khotyn was the last great victory for Sahaidachnyi against the Turks. Wounded in the arm during the battle, Sahaidachnyi went to Kyiv, where he was taken ill and, on April 10, 1622 died.

Hetman Konashevych-Sahaidachnyi was also the savior of many Cossacks held prisoner by the Turks and is immortalized in Ukrainian folk songs as the hero of glorious campaigns on the Black Sea.

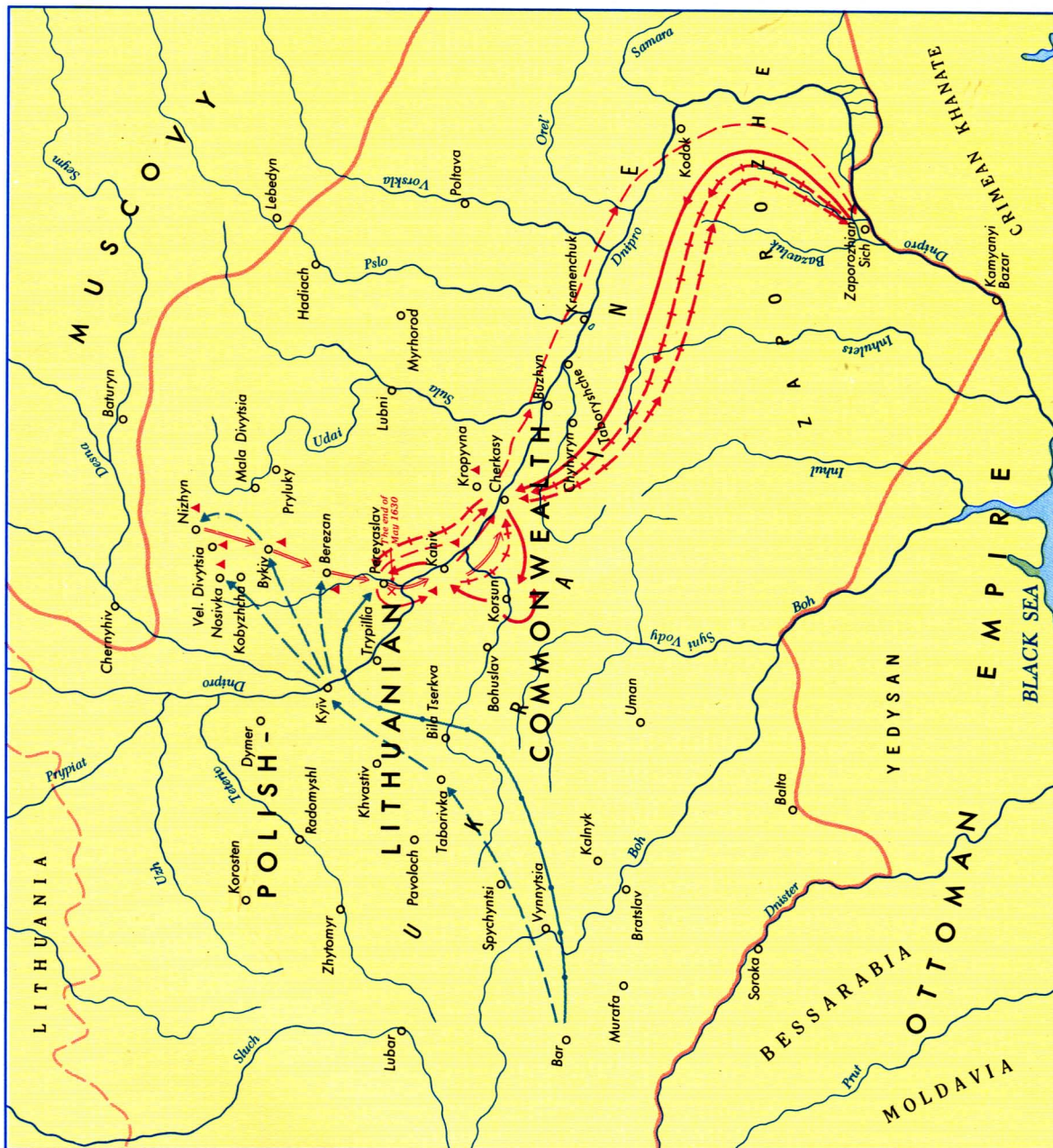
B: Cossack uprising:

After the death of hetman Konashevych-Sahaidachnyi, Mykhailo Doroshenko was chosen as hetman.

The Zaporozhian Cossacks signed an alliance with the Tatars in 1624 against the Crimean Turks. The Polish regime bribed the Tatars to break this alliance. The Polish army, led by crown hetman Koniecpolski, attacked the Cossacks and after heavy fighting the Cossacks were forced to sign the "Kurukiv Treaty" in 1625. In the autumn of 1626 Doroshenko distinguished himself by defeating the great Tatar horde at Bila Tserkva. In the spring of 1628 he again marched on the Crimea, where he fell in battle.

After the death of Doroshenko, the Ukrainian Orthodox Church became engaged in a difficult struggle with the Uniates (Greek Catholics). The Cossacks of Zaporozhe defended Orthodoxy. The registered Cossacks submitted to the authority of the Polish army at Korsun. The Cossacks of the Zaporozhian Sich, led by Taras Fedorovych -Triasylo, attacked Korsun. Again Ukraine burned with the fire of a new rebellion. In 1630 Polish crown hetman Koniecpolski attacked the Cossack rebels and his campaign ended with the utter defeat of

COSSACK UPRISING OF T. FEDOROVYCH (T. TRIASYLO)(1630-1631)



Cossack uprising in 1630-31

- Direction of insurgents movement led by T. Fedorovych in March-April 1630 and their retreat to Zaporozhian Sich
- Campaign of Zaporozhian Cossacks led by T. Fedorovych in 1631
- Direction of insurgents to Cherkasy to join Zaporozhian Cossacks
- Areas of uprisings
- Direction of the Polish army movement in 1630
- Direction of the Polish army movement in 1631
- Battle sites and dates
- State boundaries in 1630



the Polish forces at the Alta River, known from “The History of Rus’”, and made famous by Taras Shevchenko in his poem “Tarasova Nich” (Taras’ Night). Koniiecpolski signed a peace treaty with the Cossacks in Pereyaslav, but this compromise agreement satisfied neither side and the Pereyaslav Treaty remained just a scrap of paper which neither side took seriously.

Zaporozhe considered itself a free Cossack republic. In accordance with the treaty, Taras Fedorovych-Triasylo was replaced as hetman by Tymish Orendarenko. In the ensuing wars with Muscovy and the Ottoman Empire, the Cossacks fought alongside the Poles, believing that, by aiding the Poles, they would gain concessions for themselves. But, after the wars, Poland returned to its anti-Cossack policies. In order to prohibit the Cossacks from freely navigating the Dnipro River to the Black Sea, the Poles built the Kodak fortress. Realizing that Kodak was a threat to their freedom, hetman Ivan Sulyma staged a daring attack and succeeded in destroying the fortress. In retaliation, Polish hetman Koniiecpolski’s army attacked Ukraine. Sulyma and his officers were tortured and executed in Warsaw. These deaths did not deter the Cossacks, and again a new rebellion was brewing.

22. COSSACK UPRISING OF P. PAVLUK AND Y. OSTRIANYN (1637-1638)

The oppression of Ukrainian peasants by the Polish gentry steadily increased. Leadership of the rebel Cossacks was assumed by Pavlo But (nicknamed "Pavluk"). He was chosen hetman of the Zaporozhian Cossacks. The registered Cossacks at that time were governed by a legation appointed by the Polish king and headed by Adam Kysil.

The registered Cossacks lived predominantly in small towns and villages, making their livelihood in farming, fishing and hunting. They considered themselves free men and maintained their own self-government. But this did not last long. In 1637 Pavluk began a propaganda campaign among the registered Cossacks, calling for rebellion against the Polish gentry, who were attempting to tighten their control over the Cossacks and force them into serfdom. Discontent within the ranks of the registered Cossacks increased.

Pavluk and his Cossacks raided the registered Cossack camp in Korsun, capturing some of the Cossacks and their officers. Propaganda spread throughout the countryside, calling for rebellion against the "traitors," who had handed over their comrades to Zolkiewski. This campaign was successful. The Cossacks arrested registered hetman Kononenko and his officers and brought them to the Sich, where they were tried, sentenced to death and executed.

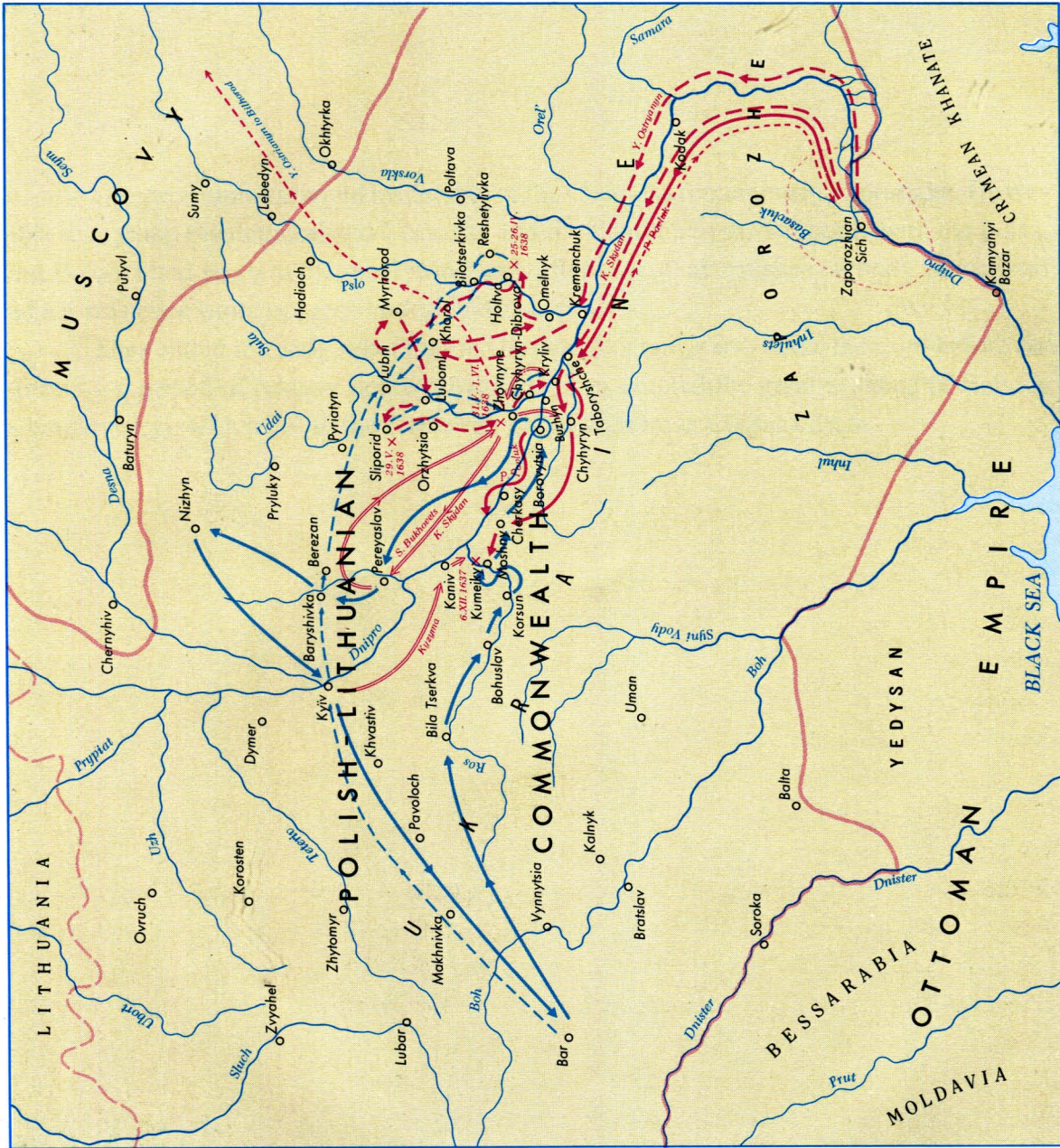
Thus began Pavluk's rebellion, flowing like lava through Ukraine. Peasants fled from their Polish landlords and either joined the Cossacks or formed their own rebel bands. In the towns and villages, pogroms were instituted against the Polish gentry and the Jews, who had exploited the unfortunate Ukrainian serfs.

In 1637 Potocki's army met with Pavluk's rebels in battle and Pavluk was forced to retreat to Borovytsia. During the next battle, Pavluk and several other officers were taken prisoner, transported to Warsaw and executed.

But the rebellion did not end yet. Peasants still came to the Sich in great numbers, fleeing Polish oppression. The Poles sent registered hetman Karaimovych, but he was unable to accomplish anything because the majority of his Cossacks crossed over and joined the Zaporozhian Cossacks.

In the spring, Yakiv Ostrianyn marched with the Zaporozhian Cossacks from the Left Bank. At the bridge at Holtva they encountered the Polish army, which encircled them. Ostrianyn expected reinforcements coming from Chernyhiv with Skydan and from Kyiv with other colonels, but unfortunately they never arrived. Ostrianyn's army stood alone at Lubni and had to retreat. He again engaged Potocki's forces at Sliporid, but was unsuccessful. At Zhovnyne, he lost another battle and, with a handful of Cossacks, Ostrianyn crossed the border of Muscovy and settled in the Sloboda region.

COSSACK UPRISING OF P. PAVLUK AND I. OSTRIANYN (1637-1638)



Cossack uprising in 1637-38

- Companions of insurgent army led by P. Pavluk (Red arrow)
- Routes of other insurgent armies (Red arrow)
- Routes of insurgent army led by Y. Ostrianyn (Blue arrow)
- Retreat of insurgents (Dashed red arrow)
- Concentration of insurgents (Red dashed oval)
- Companions of the Polish army led by M. Potocki 1637 (Blue arrow)
- Companions of the Polish army led by S. Potocki, M. Potocki and J. Wiszniewiecki 1638 (Blue arrow)
- The stage of insurgent army under P. Pavluk in Borovytsia 10-14.XII.1637 (Blue circle)
- Battle sites and dates (Red 'X')
- State boundaries in 1630 (Dashed line)

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Dmytro Hunia assumed leadership of the Cossacks remaining in Zaporozhe. He was able to regroup the demoralized Cossacks and fire them up to further battle with the Poles. But Potocki laid seige to the rebel camp and, after several skirmishes, a treaty was signed which was even more oppressive for the Cossacks.

Thus ended the early rebellions in Ukraine. For ten years — like the calm before the storm — a period of relative peace prevailed. Then erupted the great uprising of Bohdan Khmelnytskyi, which led to the formation of the Ukrainian Cossack State.

23. UKRAINIAN COSSACK STATE OF HETMAN BOHDAN KHMELNYTSKYI (1648-1657)

The struggle for freedom from Polish rule began with Hetman Bohdan Khmelnytskyi and the Zaporozhian Cossacks in 1647, spread rapidly throughout Ukraine, and culminated in the formation of an independent Ukrainian Cossack Republic.

With his election as Hetman in 1647, Bohdan Khmelnytskyi began his struggle to liberate Ukraine. The Zaporozhian and registered Cossacks, allied with the Crimean Khanate, declared war on Poland. Khmelnytskyi's forces defeated advance units of the Polish army, led by Stefan Potocki, at the Zhovti Vody River on May 16, 1648 and proceeded to meet the main Polish army, under crown hetmans Mikolaj Potocki and Marcin Kalinowski, defeating them on May 25, 1648 at Korsun. Khmelnytskyi proceeded to Bila Tserkva hoping to negotiate an early settlement of the war with the Poles. But the Poles raised a new army, which Khmelnytskyi defeated near Pyliavtsi on September 23, 1648. After the victory near Pyliavtsi, Khmelnytskyi set out with his army to Lviv, managing to capture only the "High Castle" outside the city walls, collected ransom and set out towards Zamost. Learning that King Wladyslaw had died, Khmelnytskyi withdrew hoping to negotiate a settlement with the new king, Jan Kasimir.

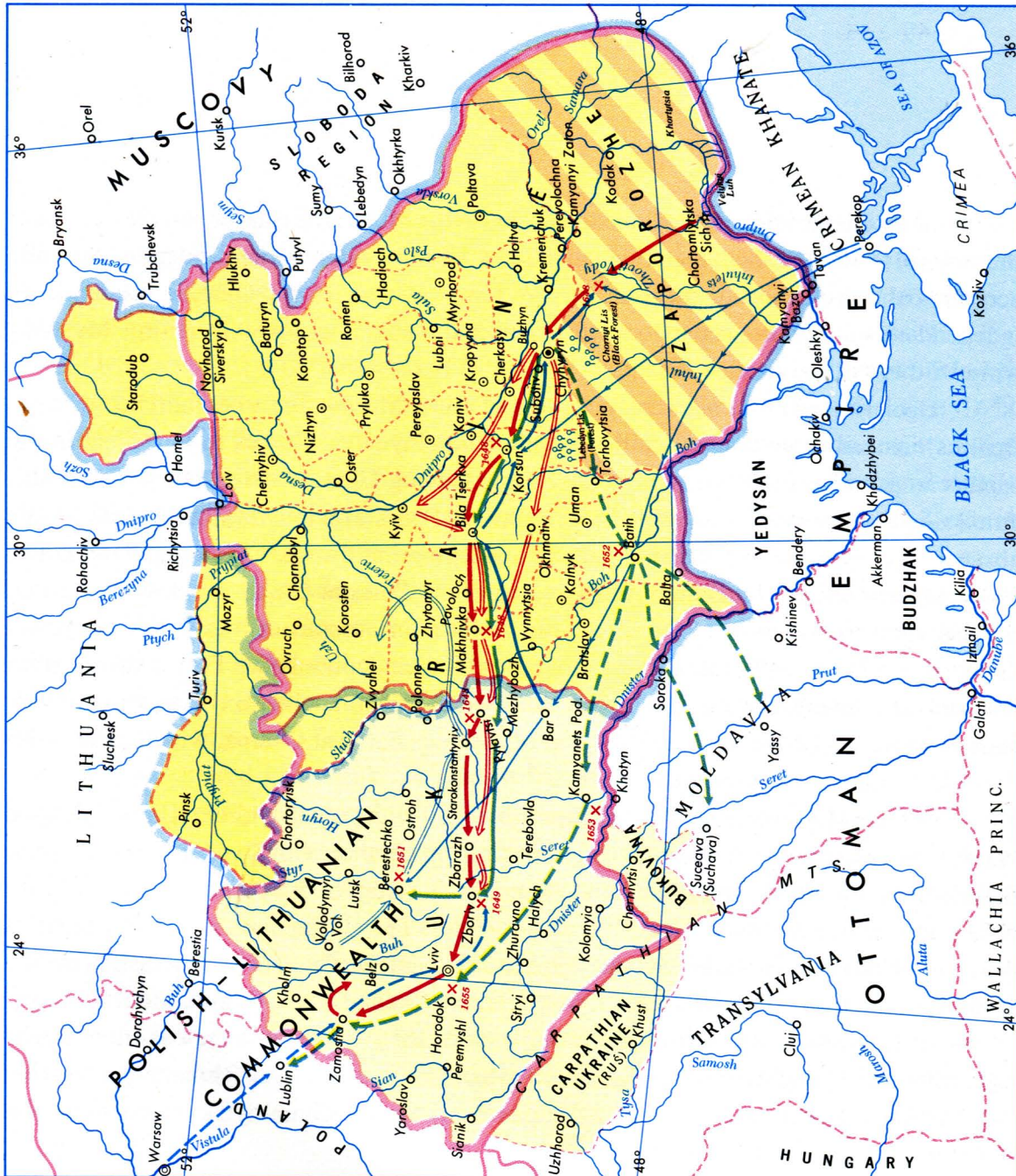
While negotiations continued, Khmelnytskyi entered Kyiv in triumph in 1649. He then marched against the Polish forces in Halychyna (Galicia), reaching Zbarazh in July of 1649 and laying siege to Prince Jarema Wiszniewiecki's forces there. King Jan Casimir came to Wiszniewiecki's aid, but Khmelnytskyi's forces, allied with the Tatars, surrounded his army near Zboriv. The King bribed the Tatars, who forced Khmelnytskyi to negotiate an armistice. The Poles renounced their claim to the provinces of Kyiv, Chernyhiv and Bratslav, which would form a Cossack state with an army of 40,000 men.

The Cossack State, officially called the "Zaporozhian Host," with Chyhyryn as its capital, was governed by an elected council which held all legislative power. The hetman was the head of state, assisted by a staff of senior officers. The Zaporozhian Sich would be an autonomous unit within the Republic, with its own administration and elected otaman.

In the relative calm of 1650, Khmelnytskyi concerned himself with diplomacy, hoping to secure international alliances and arrange for a hereditary hetmanate. Hostilities resumed in 1651 with the Polish attack in the region of Bratslav. The Cossack and Polish armies met for a decisive battle at Berestechko, where Poland was victorious, when the treacherous Tatars captured Khmelnytskyi and left the battlefield.

Returning from captivity in 1652, Khmelnytskyi resumed the struggle for liberation. At Zhvanets, on the Dnister River, Cossack and Tatar forces surrounded the Polish army, but again the Tatars betrayed Khmelnytskyi and the Poles were saved from defeat. Hoping

UKRAINIAN COSSACK STATE OF HETMAN BOHDAN KHMELNYTSKYI (1648-1657)



<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Capital of Ukraine ○ Regimental cities ■ Ukrainian State in 1649-1657 ■ Territory of Zaporozhe ■ Territory annexed to Ukraine ■ Ukrainian territory occupied by Poland till 1648 ■ State boundaries in 1649 	<p>Campaigns of Bohdan Khmelnytskyi:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → First campaign 1648 → Second campaign 1649 → Third campaign 1650, 1651 → Fourth campaign 1652, 1653 → Activities of Crimean tatars allied to Bohdan Khmelnytskyi 1648-1651 	<p>Activities of Polish army in Ukraine:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → 1648 → 1648-1649 → 1650, 1651 	<p>0 60 120 180 KM</p>
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to find more reliable allies, Khmelnytskyi turned to the Muscovite tsar for assistance. Under the terms of the Pereyaslav Treaty, signed in 1654, Ukraine would remain independent while accepting the protection of the tsar. By the terms of this treaty, Ukraine remained an independent state with a separate government and a standing army. In return, Muscovy would aid in the war against Poland.

Declaring war on Poland in the spring of 1654, Muscovite forces marched through Belorus' instead of entering Ukraine, forcing Khmelnytskyi's forces to join them in the capture of Smolensk, Minsk and Vilnius, while leaving Ukraine defenseless. The Polish army, allied with the Tatars, attacked the Bratslav and Podillia regions during Khmelnytskyi's absence, laying waste to the countryside and slaughtering the Ukrainian population. The Ukrainian armies, led by Bohun, finally stopped the Poles at Uman in January of 1655, forcing them to withdraw. Returning from Belorus in autumn of 1655, Khmelnytskyi defeated the Poles in Podillia, then moved on Galicia, routing the Polish forces from Horodok and laying siege to Lviv. Khmelnytskyi marched against the Tatars, who were coming to aid the Poles, meeting them in a disastrous battle at Ozerna, which ended with the defeat of the Ukrainian army.

In 1656 Muscovy negotiated a peace agreement with Poland without Khmelnytskyi's knowledge or participation. He was forced to form an alliance with Sweden, Transylvania, Brandenburg, Moldavia and Lithuania to free Ukraine from both Poland and Muscovy. In 1657 this coalition met with great military successes. The Ukrainian army, under General Anton Zhdanovych, captured Galicia, Peremyshl, Zamost, Cracow and Berestia (Brest). Then the tide turned. The Austrian Emperor came to Poland's aid, Denmark declared war on Sweden, and the Poles, led by Stefan Czarnecki, marched against the coalition. Faced with formidable odds and undermined by Musovite propoganda, Zhdanovych's army mutinied and returned to Ukraine. Ailing and broken in spirit, Khmelnytskyi died on August 6, 1657.

Hetman Khmelnytskyi had been in poor health for a number of years and, feeling that his life was ending, he prevailed on the officers to elect his young son, Yuriy, as his successor. In April of 1657 Yuriy was named as hetman at the general meeting and Khmelnytskyi placed the young hetman under the protection of his general deputy, Ivan Vyhovskyi. After Bohdan Khmelnytskyi's death, it was decided that Yuriy was too young and inexperienced and Ivan Vyhovskyi was named hetman. As Khmelnytskyi's general deputy, Vyhovskyi had shown himself to be energetic and efficient, handling all matters ably, including the office of vice-hetman.

Ivan Vyhovskyi was against the Pereyaslav treaty, but was not yet ready to break with Moscow. He wanted Ukraine to be independent. In October, 1657 Vyhovskyi signed a treaty with Sweden in Korsun, and in 1657-59 with the Tatars. Finally, he decided to oppose Moscow openly. On July 8, 1659 he fought the Muscovite army near Konotop achieving a huge victory and leaving thousands of Muscovite troops dead on the battlefield. Breaking the treaty with Moscow, Vyhovskyi concluded an agreement with Poland (Hadiach, 1658). But Moscow used this opportunity to advantage, fueling the growing resentment in Right Bank Ukraine against union with Poland. As insurrection and uprisings developed in Right Bank Ukraine (1664), Poland accused Vyhovskyi of being responsible and broke the agreement. Vyhovskyi was arrested and sentenced to death.

After Vyhovskyi's death Yuriy Khmelnytskyi was again elected hetman. In 1663 the Cossacks in Right Bank Ukraine elected Pavlo Teteria as their hetman. Two years later, Petro Doroshenko was elected as hetman, serving from 1665-1676. After the Andrusiv treaty (1667) between Moscow and Poland, Doroshenko signed a treaty with Turkey in 1668. With the help of the Turks and Tatars, Doroshenko cleared the Polish troops out of Right Bank Ukraine and entered Left Bank Ukraine, where Ivan Briukhovetskyi was now hetman. Briukhovetskyi was ousted from office and sentenced to death for his collaboration with Moscow, which resulted in bringing Ukraine increasingly under Muscovite control. Doroshenko was elected in his place and once again Ukraine was united under one hetman.

On October 16, 1672 Turkey and Poland signed the Buchach treaty. Doroshenko was extremely upset by the actions of the Turks. His plans for an independent Ukraine under one hetman were shattered. On the advice of Ivan Sirko, leader of the Zaporozhian Cossacks (Koshovyi), Doroshenko abdicated as hetman and turned over the office to Ivan Samiylovych, who had been elected hetman of Left Bank Ukraine in 1676. Doroshenko died November 19, 1698.

24. UKRAINE IN THE TIME OF HETMAN IVAN MAZEPA (1687-1709)

Ivan Samiylovych was hetman of Left Bank Ukraine (1676-1687). His term of office was marked by peace and prosperity. He accepted Moscow's actions within Ukraine including dissolving the autonomy of the Ukrainian church, making him unpopular with the Ukrainian Cossacks. On information provided by the Cossack council, on July 22, 1687 Hetman I. Samiylovych was arrested and sent to Moscow. From there, he and his son were exiled to Siberia. Three days later general deputy Ivan Mazepa was chosen as hetman.

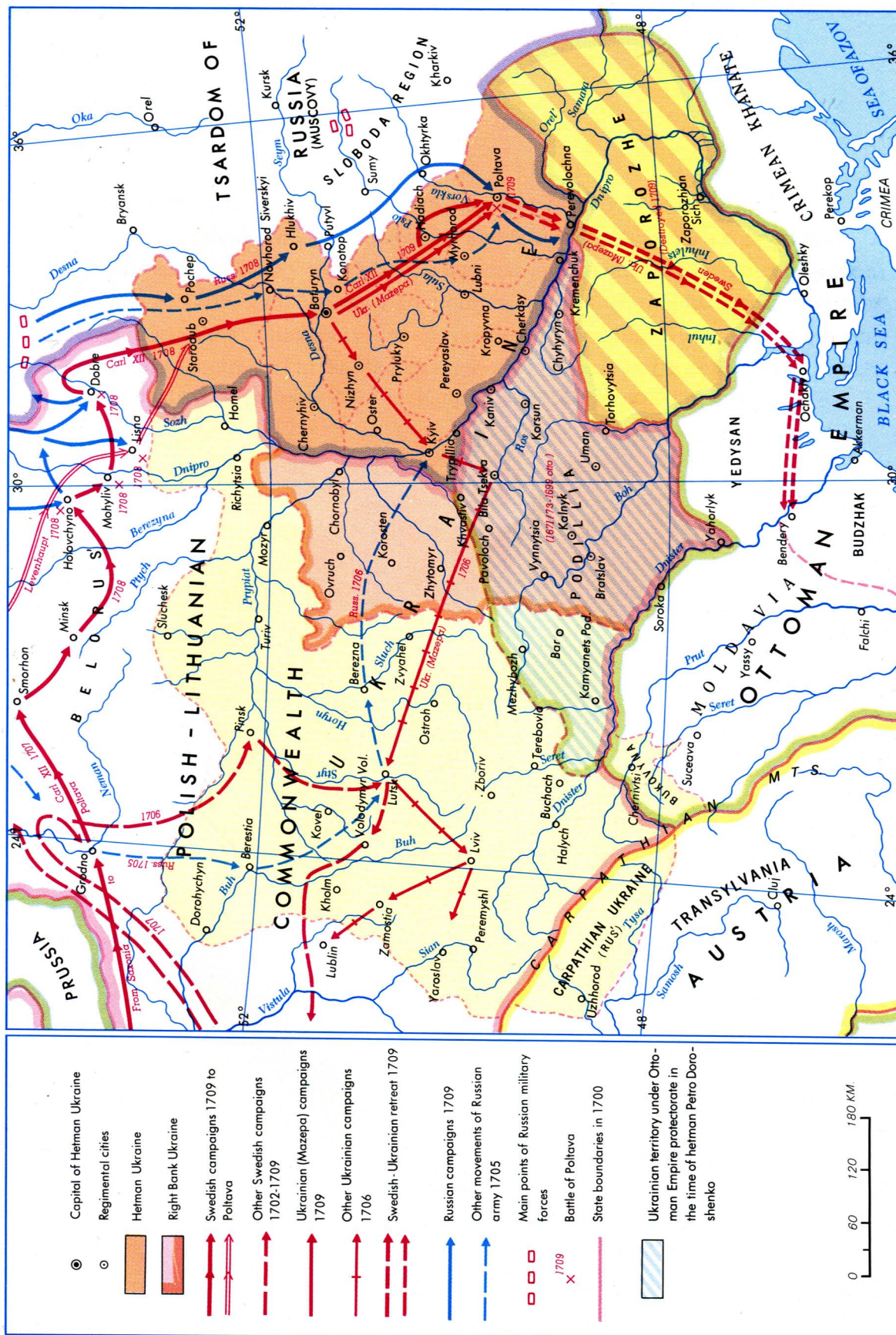
Hetman Ivan Mazepa (1687-1709) was a born diplomat, with an aristocratic nature. He studied at the Kyiv Academy and the Jesuit College in Warsaw. He traveled extensively through western Europe in the service of the Polish king. He was able to maintain good relations with the Muscovite tsar, while at the same time stimulating cultural and economic development in Ukraine. He improved government administration, built churches, established schools, and supported education, the arts and the Orthodox Church.

But his primary goal was to free Ukraine from Muscovite rule. Weakened by the struggle for independence from Poland and participation in Moscow's Crimean campaigns, it was obvious that Ukraine would need to seek foreign alliances to achieve independence. The opportunity arose in 1700 when Russian Tsar Peter I, seeking access to the Baltic Sea, formed a coalition with Poland, Saxony and Denmark against Sweden. The Swedish King Charles (Karl) XII forced Denmark to capitulate and then defeated the Muscovite army at Narva. Invading Poland, Charles conquered Lithuania, the Baltic Coast, Mazovia and part of Poland, including the cities of Warsaw and Cracow. Tsar Peter sent Muscovite and Cossack forces to aid the Polish King August. Charles XII continued his conquest of Poland, annexing Saxony and forcing August II to abdicate the Polish throne. Then he turned his attention to Muscovy. He occupied Belarus, defeated the Muscovite army at Holovchyne, captured Mohyliv and started towards Moscow.

At the same time, a Cossack uprising broke out in Right Bank Ukraine, led by Semen Paliy. Hetman Mazepa put down the rebellion, in the process reuniting Right Bank Ukraine and occupying Galicia and Volyn. Charles's victories raised the hope in Ukraine, that an alliance with Sweden would free Ukraine from Muscovite rule. Mazepa initiated secret negotiations with Sweden. With the major portion of the Ukrainian army stationed outside of Ukraine, while Muscovite garrisons were stationed in major Ukrainian cities, Mazepa could not act openly. But Charles was not able to capture the cities of Smolensk and Briansk on the road to Moscow and was forced to return south to winter in Ukraine.

This action caught Mazepa unprepared, without enough forces at his disposal. Leaving a small force to defend Baturyn, Mazepa joined Charles with his small army of 3000

UKRAINE IN THE TIME OF HETMAN IVAN MAZEPA (1687-1709)



and called upon the Ukrainian people to rise against Moscow. Moscow acted quickly, attacking Baturyn, slaughtering the inhabitants and terrorizing Mazepa's supporters.

The armies of Muscovy and the allied Swedish and Ukrainian forces met in battle at Poltava on July 8, 1709, with Muscovy emerging victorious. During its retreat across the Dnipro River, part of the Allied army was surrounded by the Muscovites and surrendered. The rest of the army retreated to the Bender region (Moldavia) and later to Turkey, where Hetman Mazepa died on October 2, 1709. King Charles XII returned to Sweden.

25. HETMANATE AND ZAPOROZHE — HETMAN KYRYLO ROZUMOVSKYI (1750-1764)

Most of the Ukrainian territories were divided between the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, which controlled the territories of the Right Bank, and Russia, which controlled the territories of the Left Bank and the region of Kyiv.

Although the Hetmanate had been guaranteed autonomous rights by the Treaty of Pereyaslav in 1654, Moscow violated these rights from the onset. The Hetmanate sought to free itself from Moscow, forming alliances with Poland, Turkey and Sweden, all of which ended in failure. In 1722 Tsar Peter I determined to totally eliminate the Hetmanate's autonomy by creating the "Little Russian Collegium," which controlled administration and finances. In 1724 it took direct control of the Ukrainian government.

When Tsar Peter II assumed power in 1725, he abolished the "Little Russian Collegium" and permitted a new hetman to be elected according to Ukrainian democratic principles. Danylo Apostol (1727-1734) reformed the administrative and judicial systems. He encouraged commerce and economic development. When Apostol died in 1734, Russia did not allow the election of a new hetman, instead appointing a Governing Council, which answered to the Russian Viceroy.

In 1750 Empress Elizabeth reinstated the hetmanate, nominating her husband's brother, Kyrylo Rozumovskyi, as a candidate. Rozumovskyi (1750-1764) restored some autonomy to Ukraine. He concerned himself mainly with improving the school system and reforming the judiciary and army along West European lines. Rozumovskyi "resigned" in 1764, when Empress Catherine II ascended the throne. She abolished the hetman government and directly annexed Ukraine into the Russian state.

A second autonomous Ukrainian territory under Russian rule was Zaporozhe. The Zaporozhian Cossacks had established a new Sich (fort) on the Pidpilna River in 1734, based on a constitution ratified by the Russian government. Although they recognized the authority of the tsar, the Cossacks retained full internal freedom and democratic rights. As long as the Cossacks were needed to provide a buffer against Tatar attacks, Russia tolerated their autonomous status. In 1774 with the end of the Russo-Turkish war, when Russia wrested control of the Black Sea coast from Turkey, Zaporozhe had outlived its purpose. In 1775 the Russian army attacked and destroyed the Zaporozhian Sich.

HETMANATE AND ZAPOROZHE - HETMAN KYRYLO ROZUMOVSKYI (1750-1764)



● Hlukhiv	Capital of Hetman Ukraine	■ "Palanky" in Zaporozhe:	
⊙ Pereyaslav	Regimental cities	1. Boh-Hard palanka	5. Orel palanka
■	Hetman Ukraine and Zaporozhe	2. Inhul palanka	6. Samara palanka
- - -	Boundaries of Hetmanate provinces	3. Kodak palanka	7. Kalmius palanka
—	State boundaries	4. Protovchansk palanka	8. Prohnoinsk palanka

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26. HAYDAMAK UPRISINGS IN RIGHT BANK UKRAINE IN THE XVIII CEN.

Right Bank Ukraine, which for several decades had been an arena of continuous conflict between Ukrainian, Polish, Russian, Turkish and Tatar armies, suffered most of all. Hundreds of villages and towns, among them Chyhyryn, Cherkasy and Uman, were ruined, part of the population was killed, many were taken into captivity by the Tatars and a portion resettled in other districts.

Poland regained Right Bank Ukraine in 1667 and, by 1713, Polish nobles and large landowners owned most of the land in the four provinces of Volyn, Podillia, Bratslav and Kyiv. They enticed new settlers, mostly peasants, by offering obligation-free leases on the land. As time limits on these “svobody” (root meaning “freedom”, used to denote a settlement of free farmers) ran out and the landlords’ demands on the peasantry increased, the peasants became enserfed. Most of the wealth generated by rural and urban dwellers went into the pockets of these magnates. There was also religious persecution of the Orthodox.

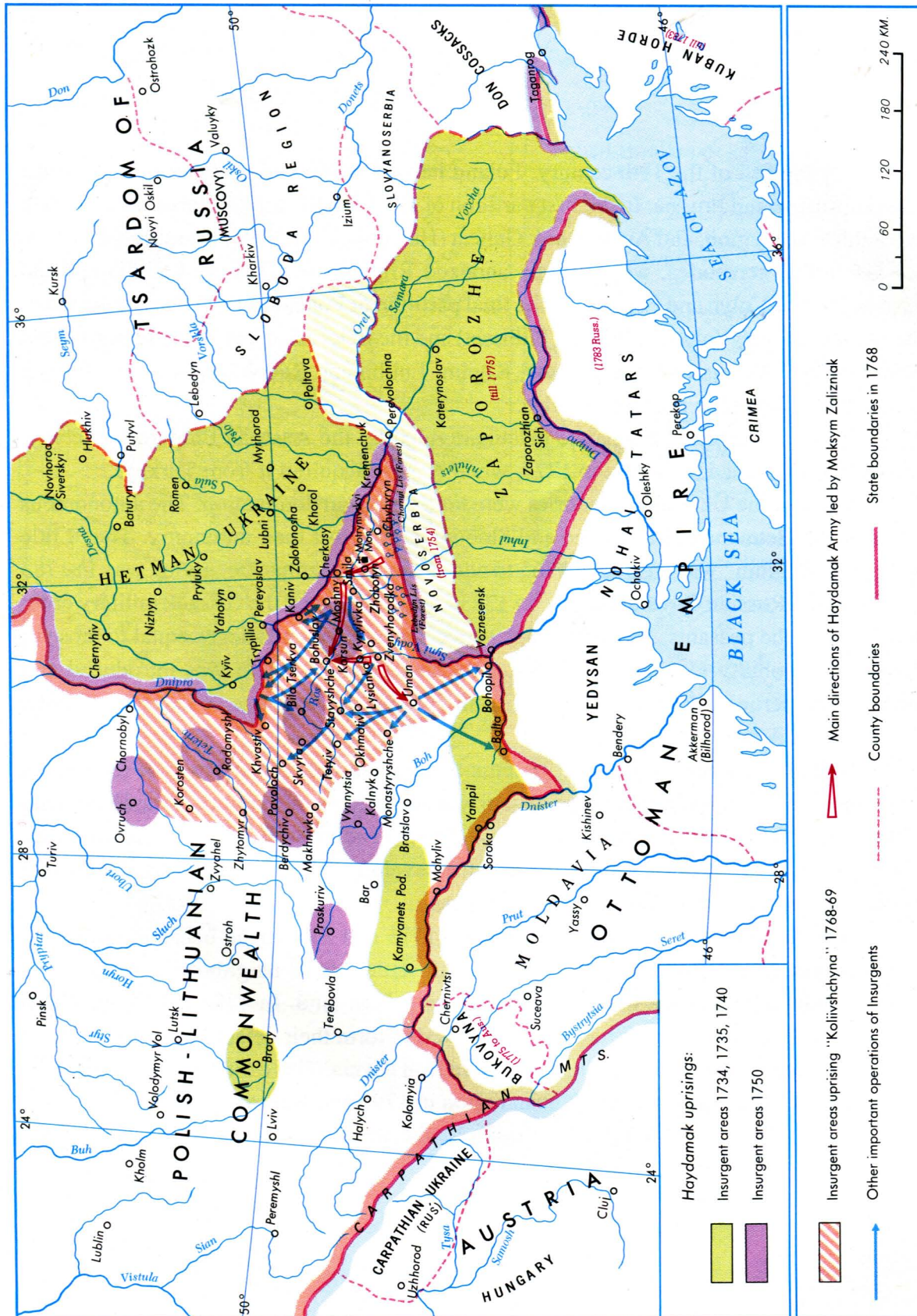
Although the oppressed peasants lacked leadership, a popular resistance against the landlords emerged. They were called “Haydamaky.” These Haydamaky were originally runaway serfs who quickly increased in number and were aided by proximity to the Zaporozhian Sich, from which they obtained professional leaders and Cossacks.

The license, cruelty and unmitigated exploitation by the Polish landowners and administration finally provoked the peasants into desperate self-defense and bloody uprisings. Widespread uprisings broke out in 1734, 1735, 1740, 1750 and 1768-69, which were put down with great difficulty and cruelty by the Poles.

The uprising of 1768, led by Maksym Zalizniak, spread rapidly northward into Volyn and Polissia. Many joined, including one Ivan Gonta, an officer in Stefan Potocki’s guards, with his entire unit. The Haydamaky took Uman and soon thereafter the provinces of Bratslav, Kyiv and parts of Podillia and Volyn.

Worried that this uprising might spread to the Left Bank, Catherine II sent her army to aid the Poles in crushing the rebellion. Nonetheless, these uprisings demonstrated the moral decline of the Polish nobility and the general weakness of the Polish state, which soon afterward ceased to exist, having been partitioned among Austria, Russia and Prussia.

HAYDAMAK UPRISINGS IN RIGHT BANK UKRAINE IN THE XVIII CEN.



27. UKRAINIAN TERRITORY IN THE XVIII CEN.

By the end of the 18th century, Poland had collapsed and was partitioned among Russia, Austria and Prussia. In the first partition of 1772, Russia took Belarus, Prussia took the Baltic coast region, and Austria took Galicia (Halychyna). In 1793, Prussia annexed the western Polish territories, while Russia annexed Right-Bank Ukraine, Podillia and the eastern parts of Volyn and Polissia. In the final partition of Poland in 1795, Russia occupied the rest of Polissia, Volyn, Pidliassia (Pidlissia) and the Belorussian and Baltic regions to the Neman River. Austria took the Cracow, Kholm, Lublin and Radom regions, and Prussia annexed the remaining Polish territories.

Galicia comprised a separate palatinate ruled by the Austrian Emperor's viceroy. Bukovyna was joined to Galicia in 1775, when Austria acquired it from Turkey.

Most of the Ukrainian territories were under Russian domination. The autonomous states of the Hetmanate, Zaporozhe and Sloboda region lost their autonomy. The "Little Russian Collegium" was created in 1765 to administer the Hetmanate, giving way in 1783 to "The Little Russian Governorship". In 1783 Russia abolished the cossack military order and enserfed the peasants. Senior cossack officers were given privileges equal to those of the Russian nobility in 1785. In 1786 the Russian judicial system was introduced and monastic properties were secularized. Russian became the language of instruction at the Kyiv Mohyla Academy in 1783.

The Sloboda region, in 1765, became the Sloboda-Ukrainian province (Slobidska Ukraine). The Russian administrative system was accepted by the nobility of the Hetmanate and Sloboda region with little resistance. Since they held administrative positions within the Russian state, they were in a position to foster the development of Ukrainian art, culture and science and preserve their national consciousness.

The Zaporozhian Sich was destroyed in 1775 and Zaporozhe became part of the Novorossiysk (New Russia) province. Ukrainian settlers from neighboring districts and refugees from Turkish rule were settled on Zaporozhian land. In 1784 the Zaporozhian Cossacks, still remaining in Ukraine, were allowed to form their detachments and settle in the uninhabited regions between the Dnister and Boh Rivers. There they organized the Boh Cossack Host. They moved to the Kuban region in 1792 and formed the Black Sea Host.

UKRAINIAN TERRITORY IN THE XVIII CEN.



28. UKRAINE AT THE END OF THE XIX AND BEGINNING OF THE XX CEN.

The Congress of Vienna ratified the division of the Ukrainian territories between Russia and Austria in 1815. Austria ruled Galicia (Halychyna), Transcarpathia and Bukovyna, while Russia maintained control over the rest of Ukraine.

Austria adopted a liberal policy towards its Ukrainian subjects, which led to increased cultural, religious and economic development. A theological seminary was established in Vienna in 1774 to train Ukrainian Catholic priests and, in 1784, a University was founded in Lviv, with a Ukrainian Studies program in philosophy and theology. Personal bondage of peasants, as well as serfdom (panshchyna), was limited (1781-82) and finally abolished in 1848. The Supreme Ruthenian (Ukrainian) Council, the first political organization in Galicia was established. The Council demanded that the Austrian government unite Galicia, Bukovyna and Transcarpathia into one autonomous Ukrainian palatinate.

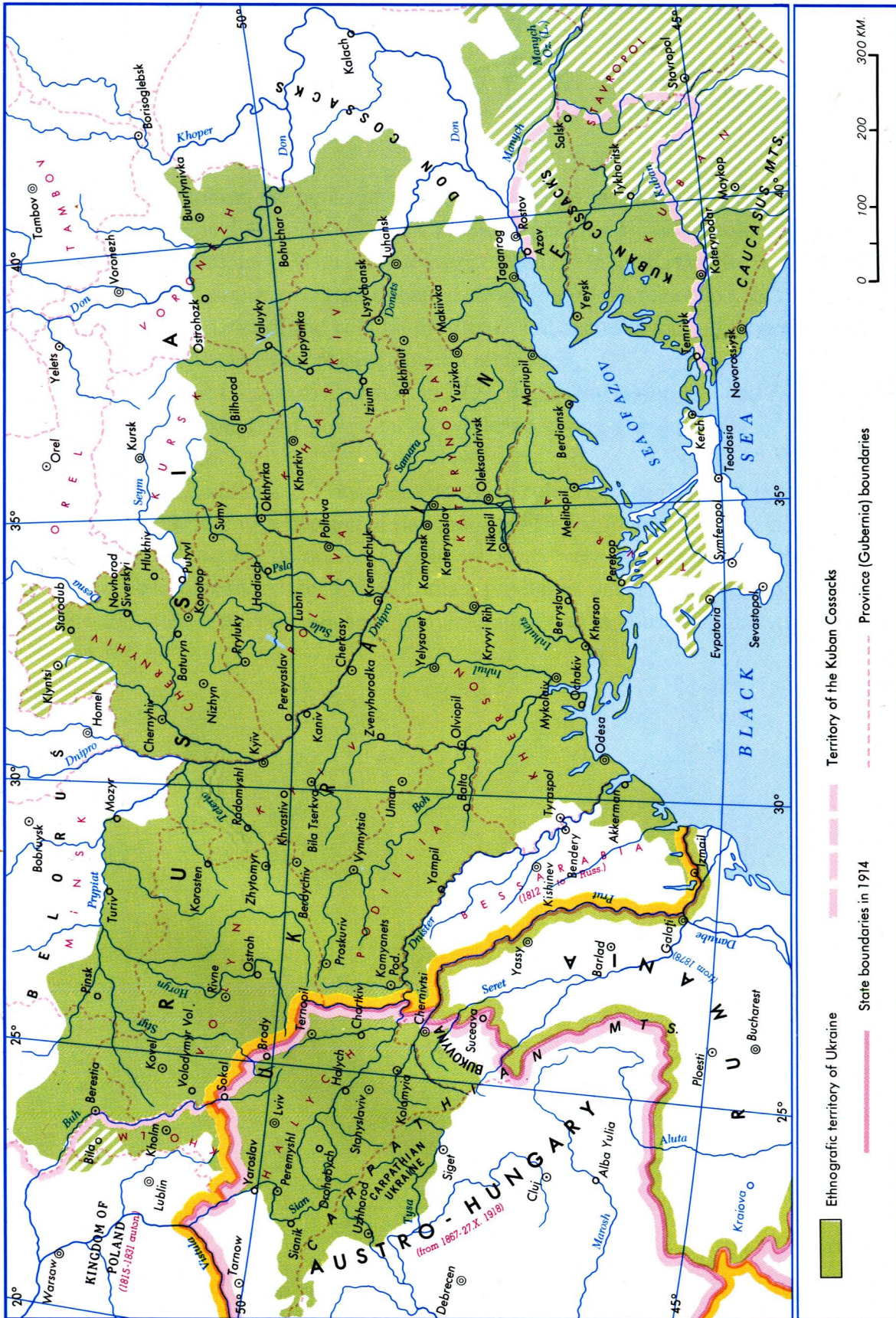
When Austria reinstated its constitution, after ten years of absolutist rule, Galicia received its own parliament and administration in Lviv. Unfortunately, representation was based on land ownership and, since most of the large landowners were Polish, the Poles became the dominant force in the administration. To make matters worse, the Poles signed a secret agreement with Austria, in which the judicial and educational systems in Galicia fell under Polish control, increasing the already tense relationship between Ukrainians and Poles.

Bukovyna, annexed by Austria in 1775, was incorporated as a district within Halych and remained so until 1849, when it became a separate palatinate. Ukrainian national revival began in the 1860s, but developed slowly, due to the aggressive activities of the Romanian minority.

Transcarpathia was annexed in 1683, after the the defeat of the Turks. In 1849, the Ukrainians demanded an autonomous region within the boundaries of Hungary. The situation changed in 1867, when Hungary became an autonomous kingdom, sharing a common monarch with Austria. Under the new constitution Hungarians received complete control over all areas of administration and Transcarpathia was reduced to a Hungarian colony.

National development was impeded in the Ukrainian territories under Russian rule. At first, the nobility of the former Hetmanate and Sloboda region, with representation in the administration, played an active part in national development. Kharkiv, Poltava and Chernyiv were the major centers of Ukrainian national life, literature and science in the first half of the 19th century. This changed after 1863, when Russia began a repressive policy, banning use of the Ukrainian language in government, education, religious and community

UKRAINE AT THE END OF THE XIX AND BEGINNING OF THE XX CEN.



activities and prohibiting the publication of Ukrainian newspapers and books.

Novorossia, in the steppe region of Ukraine, experienced massive colonization in the first half of the 19th century. With the discovery of iron ore in the Kryvyi Rih area and coal in the Donetsk basin, southern Ukraine changed from an agrarian region to a center of heavy industry. Ukrainian national and cultural life flourished due to favorable economic conditions, until Russia began its repressive policies after 1863.

Settled by the Ukrainian Cossacks in 1792, the Kuban region retained Zaporozhian customs and democratic self-government, while accepting the authority of a Russian appointed general.

The Kyiv, Podillia and Volyn regions which comprised Right-Bank Ukraine had a difficult time developing a Ukrainian national life. Under Polish rule, the nobility and townspeople had become polonized and the peasants were oppressed by serfdom. The nobility and landowners retained their former privileges under Russian rule, so Polish language and culture prevailed in state administration and in education until curtailed by Russia in 1863.

29. UKRAINE DURING WORLD WAR I (1914-1918)

Russia's declaration of war against Austria on August 1, 1914 brought Ukrainians new hope for independence. They hoped that this could be accomplished with the aid of Austria and Germany. This view is not surprising given the circumstances. Austria's rule over its Ukrainian territories of Halychyna (Galicia), Transcarpathia and Bukovyna had been very liberal, permitting the development of Ukrainian national and cultural life. Austria also promised, after the war, to grant full autonomy to the Ukrainian regions under its control. On the other hand, the Western powers seemed more concerned with preserving the Russian Empire and showed no interest in Ukrainian aspirations.

As a result, Ukraine's youth volunteered to join the Sich Riflemen (Sichovi Striltsi), an Austrian sponsored legion, to fight for Ukrainian independence. The Supreme Ukrainian Rada (Council) was established in Lviv to provide political representation in Austria. The Ukrainian Military Administration was formed to oversee voluntary military formations and the Union for the Liberation of Ukraine arose to represent political emigres from Russian occupied eastern Ukraine living in Galicia.

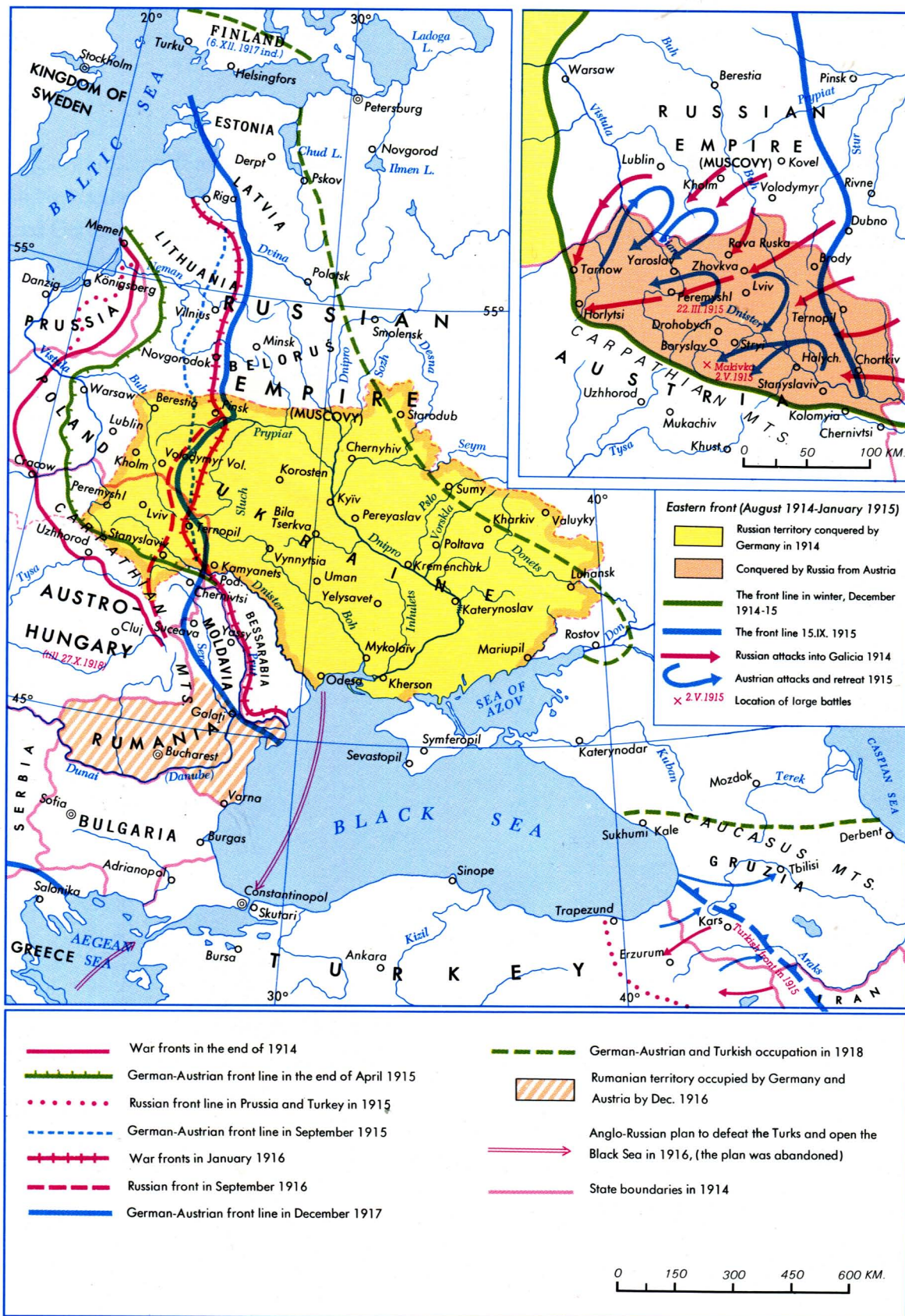
Russia advanced on Galicia in August, 1914 in two waves, one towards Lviv and Peremyshl, the other towards Ternopil, Lviv and Stryi. Russia advanced quickly, defeating the Austrian forces along the Zolota Lypa and Hnyla Lypa Rivers (August 26-28) and forcing the evacuation of Lviv (September 3). Russia defeated the main Austrian army near Horodok (September 6-12) and laid siege to Peremyshl (September 16). By October, the front had stabilized, stretching from the Austro-Rumanian border, along the Carpathian Mountains to the Dunayets River and turning north to the Malopolska plateau on the Vistula River. Only local skirmishes took place during the winter of 1914-15. The Sich Riflemen played a major part in many battles.

The Germans came to Austria's aid in the spring of 1915. By the end of April, the combined Austro-German armies broke through Russian defenses, forcing the Russians to retreat. The Sich Riflemen participated in a major battle on Makivka Mountain, breaking through Russian defenses in the Carpathian Mountains.

In 1916 Russia again mounted an offensive. For a second time, Russian occupied Bukovyna, but the German armies stopped their advancement. The Sich Riflemen held off the Russians on Lysonia Mountain near Berezhany, saving the Austrians from retreat. By mid-September 1916, the front extended along a line from Deliatyn-Berezhany-Brody-Kovel-Turia and remained there until June, 1917.

The Russian Revolution broke out in March 1917. The tsar was deposed and a Provisional Government was established. Russia, under pressure from England and France,

UKRAINE DURING WORLD WAR I (1914-1918)



began another offensive in July 1917. The front moved to the former Russo-Austrian border. In November, 1917 the Bolsheviks seized power in Russia and signed a truce with Austria and Germany. In 1917 the United States entered the war on the side of the Allies and the war ended with the complete defeat of the Central Powers.

30. UKRAINIAN STATE — CENTRAL RADA AND HETMANATE (1917-1918)

The Central Council (Rada) was established as a provisional parliament and government on March 17, 1917. Representatives from several Ukrainian political parties met and elected Professor Mykhaylo Hrushevskyi as Head. On April 19, 1917, delegates arrived from the All-Ukrainian National Congress in Kyiv, which represented various labor, education, welfare and military organizations, as well as representatives from the Russian, Jewish, Polish and other national minorities. With over 800 delegates the Central Rada was truly representative of the nation. M. Hrushevskyi was confirmed as Head and other leading positions were filled by V. Vynnychenko, Symon Petlura, Serhiy Yefremov and Mykola Porsh. The full Rada met monthly. The 40-member Lesser Rada met to conduct daily affairs. Major resolutions of the Central Rada were announced as “Universals.”

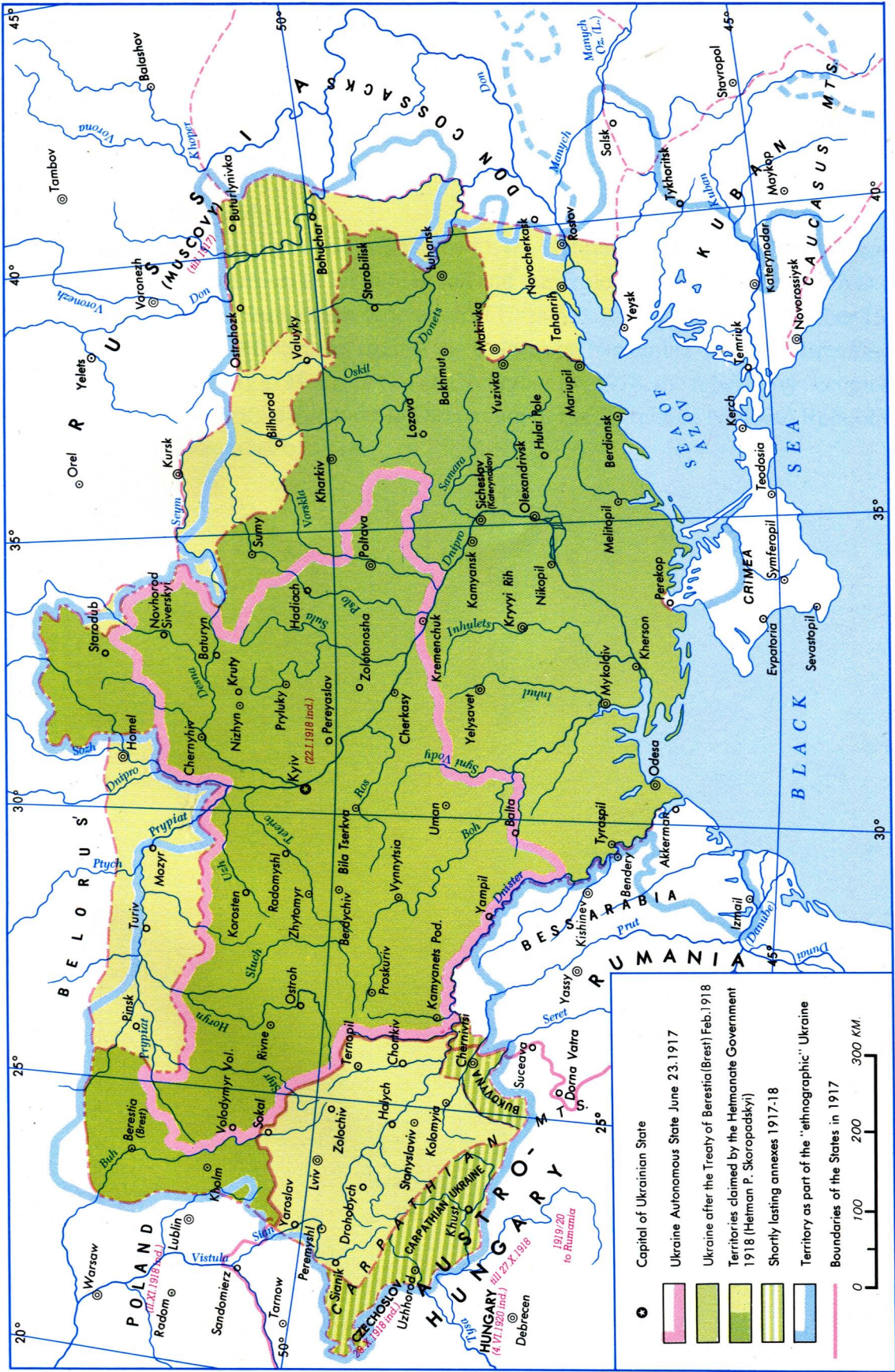
On June 23, 1917, in its First Universal, the Central Rada (a provisional Parliament) proclaimed autonomy for Ukraine. It created a General Secretariat under Vynnychenko, in order to organize self-rule. The Universal of July 16, 1917 announced that an agreement had been signed with the Provisional Government, in which it recognized autonomy of the five provinces of Ukraine: Kyiv, Volyn, Podillia, Poltava and Chernyhiv. The Universal of November 20, 1917, announced the formation of the Ukrainian National Republic (UNR) and an equal federation with a future democratic Russia. The Universal of January 22, 1918 proclaimed the Ukrainian National Republic to be a free, independent and sovereign nation.

On February 9, 1918 Ukraine signed a peace treaty with the Central Powers in Berestia (Brest). Under the terms of this treaty, Germany, Austro-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey recognized Ukrainian independence. It also prevented a German invasion of Ukraine and guaranteed assistance to Ukraine in the event of Russian invasion.

Under the treaty, Ukraine promised to provide food for Germany and Austria. When Ukraine could not ship food supplies as quickly as its allies required, the German and Austrian military began requisitioning grain and livestock on their own, bypassing official channels. This erupted into a major conflict between the Germans and the Central Rada, finally culminating in a German orchestrated coup, which brought the Hetmanate, under Pavlo Skoropadskyi into being. In April, 1918, Colonel Petro Bolbochan occupied the Crimea and re-unified it with Ukraine.

The Hetmanate lasted from April 29 to December 14, 1918. All legislative and executive powers were held by the Hetman until a new constitution could be ratified. The Hetman disregarded the laws passed by the Central Rada and reinstated tsarist laws. Skoropadskyi paid particular attention to the development of Ukrainian secondary and higher education. His plans to create a Ukrainian army were impeded, however, by the

UKRAINIAN STATE-CENTRAL RADA AND HETMANATE (1917-1918)



German military command.

Many factors provoked dissatisfaction with the Hetmanate, including the presence of German and Austrian armies on Ukrainian soil and the exploitation of the country. When Hetman Skoropadskyi announced the federation of Ukraine with Russia. On November 15, 1918, Symon Petlura led an uprising against the Hetman on November 15, 1918. Breaking through the Hetman's army at Motovylivka on December 14, 1918, the rebel army occupied Kyiv. The Hetman fled into exile and the Directorate of the Ukrainian National Republic assumed power in December of 1918.

31. WEST UKRAINIAN NATIONAL REPUBLIC (1918-1919)

On October 18, 1918 representatives of all Ukrainian political parties met in Lviv to establish the Ukrainian National Rada, with Dr. Evhen Petrushevych as the head. They enacted laws which would unite the Ukrainian territories of Galicia (Halychyna), Carpathian Ukraine (Transcarpathia), the northern part of Bukovyna and the Lemko region within Austro-Hungary into one independent state. They based the right to proclaim independence on two international acts: 1) U. S. President Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points, one of which proclaimed the right of self-determination by nations and 2) the manifesto of October 18, 1918 by Emperor Karl of Austria granting the nations of Austro-Hungary the right to self-determination.

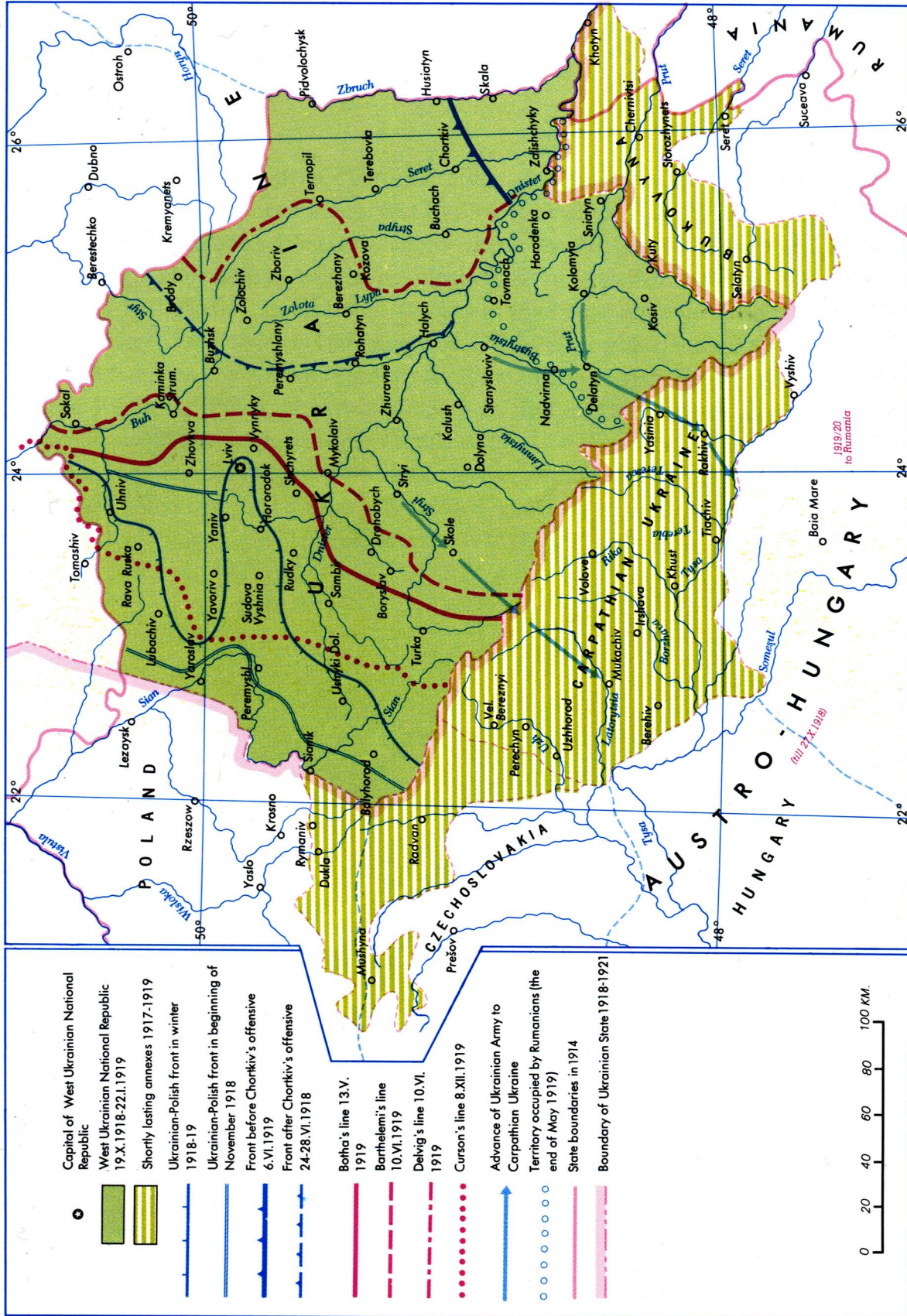
On November 1, 1918, independence was proclaimed and the new state was named the West Ukrainian National Republic (WUNR). Evhen Petrushevych was elected president. Austria, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, the Vatican and the Ukrainian National Republic recognized the new independent state.

Within days, the Polish population of Lviv, reinforced by the Polish military, rebelled. After three weeks of fighting in the streets of Lviv, the government was forced to move, first to Ternopil and afterwards to Stanyslaviv (Ivano-Frankivsk). There they organized the Ukrainian Halych Army (UHA), mobilizing over 100,000 men by spring. On January 22, 1919 the WUNR united with the Ukrainian National Republic into one Ukrainian state, retaining for a time its own administration, judiciary and army. Thereafter, it would comprise the western provinces of the Ukrainian National Republic.

The struggle against Poland's aggressive actions to annex the western Ukrainian territories took place on two fronts: military and diplomatic. In the initial confrontations, Ukrainian forces had the advantage, encircling Lviv and forcing the Poles into a defensive position. Between March and May of 1919, the tide turned. Reinforced by the Polish army and General Haller's army, formed in France of Polish prisoners of war and equipped by the French, the UHA was forced to retreat to the Zbruch River. The Ukrainians staged a counteroffensive in June, under General Oleksander Grekov. The Ukrainians attacked the Poles near the city of Chortkiv, nearly reaching Lviv. But lack of ammunition and supplies forced the Ukrainians to retreat to the Zbruch River. On July 16, 1919 the Halych forces and thousands of civilians crossed the Zbruch River into eastern Ukraine, joining forces with the Ukrainian National Army.

On the diplomatic front, the Ukrainians sent a delegation to the Paris Peace Conference (January of 1919) to seek recognition of the WUNR and help in reaching a settlement with Poland. But, as a result of Polish propaganda and a general ignorance on the

WEST UKRAINIAN NATIONAL REPUBLIC (1918-1919)



part of western leaders about East European affairs, the Paris Peace Conference supported the Poles. General Barthelemi was sent by France (February 28, 1919) to negotiate an armistice. He proposed a settlement whereby Ukrainian forces would fall back behind a line, that would give Poland Lviv and the petroleum fields of Drohobych. The WUNR refused. In April of 1919 General Louis Botha was sent to work out a settlement. He proposed line that would leave Drohobych in Ukrainian hands. The Poles rejected this settlement. General Serhiy Delvig, heading a mission sent by the Ukrainian National Republic to negotiate an armistice with the Poles, proposed a new line. The mission, sent during the initially advantageous Chortkiv offensive, was unsuccessful as the Ukrainians were forced to retreat. The Supreme Council of the Paris Peace Conference authorized the Poles to occupy Galicia up to the Zbruch River. The issue was decided on March 15, 1923, when the Council of Ambassadors recognized Polish rule over the WUNR, with a provision for local autonomy.

32. UKRAINIAN STATE — DIRECTORATE (1919-1921)

The Ukrainian National Union (Directorate) was established November 14, 1918 to organize the overthrow Hetman Skoropadskyi. It was headed by V. Vynnychenko. The other members were: Symon Petlura, F. Shvets, A. Makarenko, P. Andriyevskyi and later, when the WUNR joined the union, E. Petrushevych.

The Directorate convened the Labor Congress, a legislative body, January 22-28, 1919 in Kyiv. On January 22, 1919 in an open meeting held on the square in front of St. Sophia Church, a representatives of the people and the army met and, in the presence of representatives from foreign governments, proclaimed the union of the West Ukrainian National Republic with the Ukrainian National Republic into one sovereign Ukrainian National Republic.

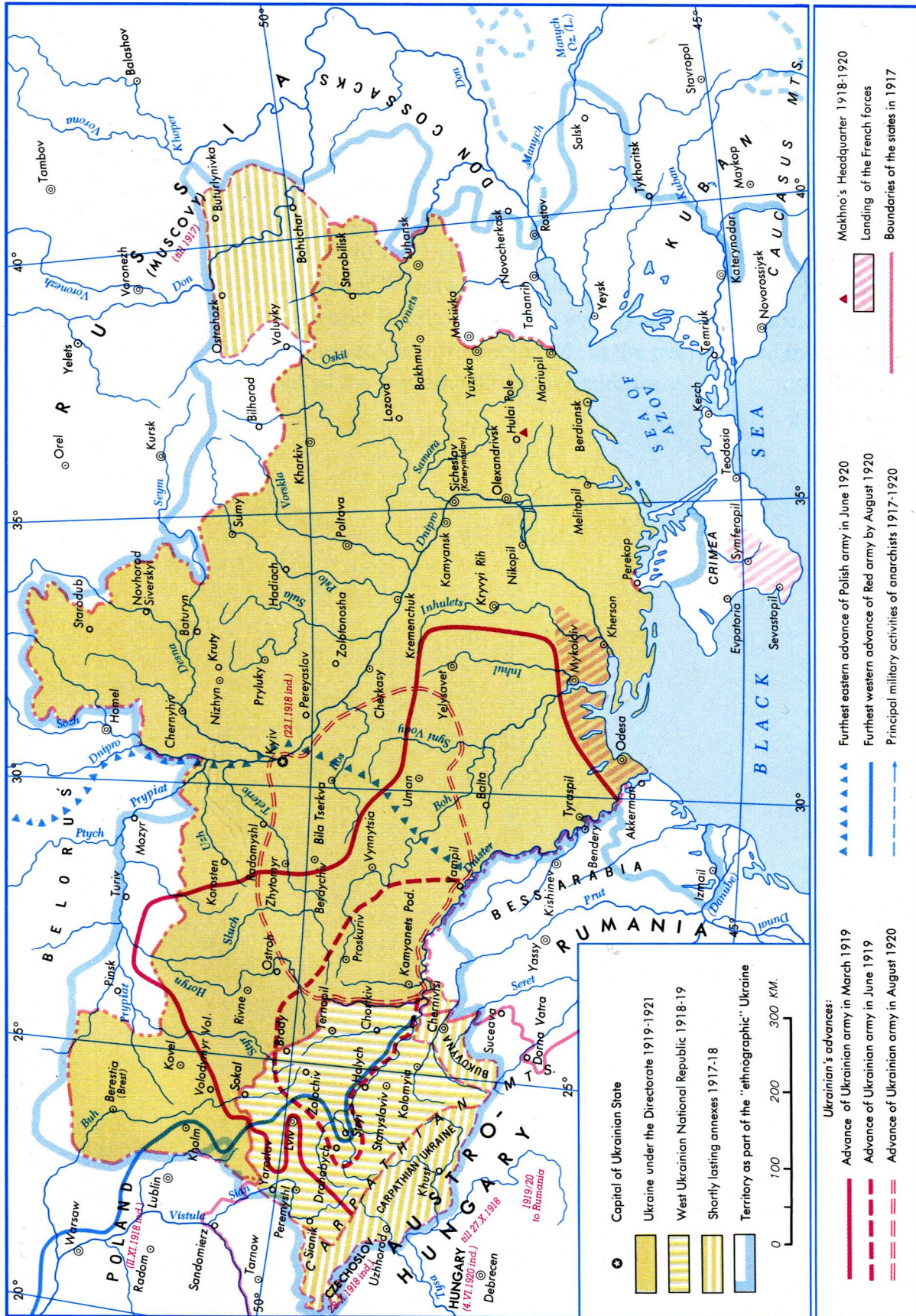
It was a time of continuous armed struggle against invasions by Russian Communists, General Denikin's White Russian army, Poland, Rumania and France. The western powers supported the reconstruction of pre-revolutionary Russia and, as a result, set up blockades and embargos against Ukraine.

In January of 1919 Russian Communists invaded Ukraine and Russian minorities staged rebellions in several cities in support of the Communists. At the same time, Denikin's White army invaded left-bank Ukraine. Ukrainian forces were unable to halt these invasions and the Ukrainian government had to abandon Kyiv, retreating to Vynnytsia, and later to Kamyanets Podilskyi. In West Ukraine the Ukrainian Halych Army (UHA) was overpowered by Polish forces, forcing it to cross the Zbruch River into eastern Ukraine.

The UHA joined the army of the Ukrainian National Republic (UNR) and the united forces initiated an offensive against the Russian Communists, allied with Denikin's White army. By August they had liberated most of right-bank Ukraine, entering Kyiv on August 31. At this point, Denikin attacked the Ukrainian forces and they were forced to retreat to the southwest. An outbreak of typhoid further weakened the Ukrainian army. Unable to obtain medical supplies due to the Allied blockades, thousands of Ukrainian soldiers died. The UHA was forced to negotiate a peace settlement with Denikin and when Denikin was defeated by the Russian Communists, the UHA was forced to join the Communist army for a time, rejoining UNR forces at the first opportunity.

Looking for allies against the Russians, the Directorate negotiated an alliance with Poland on April 22, 1920. Poland was to furnish military assistance against the Russians and agreed not to enter into any international negotiations concerning Ukraine without her participation. In return, the Directorate was to renounce its claims to the west Ukrainian territories which comprised the WUNR.

UKRAINIAN STATE-DIRECTORATE (1919-1921)



The combined Ukrainian-Polish offensive began on April 25, 1920 and was initially successful, reaching Kyiv on May 7. The Russian Communist armies launched a counteroffensive in June, forcing the allies to the Lviv-Zamost-Warsaw line. In mid-September, Polish forces routed the Russians near Warsaw and the Ukrainian army forced the Russians to retreat from Galicia. Poland and Russia ended the war by signing a truce, without Ukrainian participation. Ukrainian soldiers were interned. In the treaty signed in Riga on March 18, 1921, Poland received the western Ukrainian territories.

33. UKRAINE AFTER WORLD WAR 1 (1921-1939)

After the end of World War 1, Ukrainian national territory was divided between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), Poland, Czechoslovakia and Rumania.

The major portion of Ukrainian territory was annexed into the USSR. It encompassed about 570,000 sq. km. and a population of over 40 million. About 443,000 sq. km. of this area with a population of 29 million was incorporated as the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic on December 27, 1917. It had its own government, legislature and judiciary, while the central government in Moscow controlled defense, finances, transport, communications, economic and foreign policy. The capital of the Ukrainian SSR was originally Kharkiv. In 1934 the capital was moved to Kyiv.

The Ukrainian Communist Party controlled life in Ukraine, in turn being controlled by the Russian Communist Party. Its policies were implemented with the help of the state police, known at various times as the CHEKA, NKVD and KGB.

From 1918 to 1921 a period of War Communism prevailed, characterized by ~~CHEKA terror, destruction of opponents to Communism rule, nationalization of industry,~~ the beginnings of collectivization and economic depression. From 1922 to 1929, during the period of the New Economic Policy (NEP), there was significant growth in agriculture and relative freedom in the development of Ukrainian schools, literature, science and art. From 1929 to 1933 forced collectivization by the government took place. Collective and state agricultural farms replaced private ownership. Resistance was met with force, with thousands killed or sent to forced labor camps in Siberia. An artificial famine was created—local Communists and agents from Moscow confiscated all foodstuffs and approximately eight million people starved to death—in order to suppress further resistance. Thousands of peasants were deported to Siberia with their families to face certain death, others fled to big cities to survive. From 1934 to 1941, there was intensive development of heavy industry—mining of coal, anthracite, iron and manganese ore and production of steel and semi-finished products for military industries. In order to further suppress Ukrainian nationalism, Stalin appointed Pavel Postyshev secretary of the Ukrainian Communist Party. The All-Ukrainian Academy of Sciences was abolished, the Ukrainian Orthodox Church was liquidated, scientific and cultural institutions were closed, schools and government administration were russified and thousands of Ukrainian intellectuals and activists were killed or exiled to Siberia.

Poland acquired the Ukrainian territories of Galicia (Halychyna), the Kholm and Pidliassia (Pidlissia) regions and the western portions of Volyn and Polissia—about 122,000 sq. km. with a population of over 6.5 million. Although required under terms of the Paris Peace Conference to give Galicia autonomy and guarantee full national, cultural and economic development, Poland, instead, responded with a policy of repression and

UKRAINE AFTER WORLD WAR I (1921-1939)



persecution. The Kholm region was incorporated into the Lublin province and all Ukrainian national life was suppressed. The Pidliassia and Polissia regions were incorporated into the province of Polissia and Ukrainian national movement was repressed. Volyn became part of Poland in 1921 by the treaty of Riga. Initially Ukrainian schools, cultural and economic institutions and religious freedom for the Ukrainian Orthodox Church were allowed, but after 1930 that was curtailed. Schools had to be bilingual or Polish only. Cultural organizations were disbanded and religious and economic life was placed under police control.

Rumania occupied Bukovyna, portions of the Marmarosh region and Bessarabia. From 1918 to 1928 Bukovyna was under military control with civil rights severely restricted. Ukrainian language was not allowed in administration, schools and church. After the reinstatement of civil rights in 1929, some revival of Ukrainian culture occurred, but this was again suppressed in 1937. The same situation prevailed in Bessarabia and the Marmarosh region.

Czechoslovakia promised full autonomy to Transcarpathia and thus joined it to Czechoslovakia. The new state was named "Subcarpathian Rus'" although the Czech government did not implement full autonomy until after the Munich Pact of 1938, on the eve of World War II. Conditions for cultural and economic development were better here than for the Ukrainian territories in the USSR, Poland and Rumania.

Carpathian Ukraine (Rus') became an independent state on October 10, 1938. Immediately a military unit was created and named "Carpathian Sich." Before the establishment of the Parliament, a commission in Vienna, consisting of representatives from Germany and Italy, Ribbentrop and Count Ciano, divided the territory of Carpathian Ukraine, giving the capital Uzhhorod and the cities of Mukachiv and Berehiv to Hungary. The capital was moved to Khust and on March 15, 1939 the establishment of the Carpathian Ukrainian State was announced. Dr. Auhustyn Voloshyn was elected president.

The joy of freedom was short-lived in Carpathian Ukraine. Hungary invaded with a large, well-equipped and trained army (with the tacit approval of Germany). The Carpathian Sich army fought the Hungarians for many weeks, but finally the fledgling Ukrainian Carpathian State—Carpathian Ukraine—fell to the overwhelming force of the Hungarian army.

34. EUROPE IN WORLD WAR II AND UKRAINIAN TERRITORY (1939-45)

During World War II, Ukrainian territories experienced military campaigns related to the German-Polish and German-Russian conflicts.

On August 23, 1939 Germany and Russia signed a pact, which provided for the division of Poland and the annexation of the Baltic states by the USSR. On September 1, 1939 Germany invaded Poland. German armies occupied the western and central parts of Poland and the Soviets took Ukrainian and Belorussian territories within a matter of three weeks. The boundary between German and Soviet territories was fixed at the Sian-Solokia-Buh Rivers — the Sian region (Posiannia), the Lemko region and western Pidliassia (Pidlissia) under German control while the rest went to the Soviet Union, which incorporated the territories into the Ukrainian SSR, except for the northern part of Polissia, which was joined to the Belorussian SSR. In an agreement between the USSR and Rumania on June 28, 1940, northern Bukovyna and Bessarabia were ceded to the USSR. Northern Bukovyna and the Khotyn, Akkerman and Izmail counties of Bessarabia were incorporated into the Ukrainian SSR. The remaining portion of Bessarabia was constituted as an autonomous region within the Ukrainian SSR as the Moldavian ASSR.

On June 22, 1941 Germany attacked the Soviet Union and, between 1941 and 1942, German armies occupied the western part of the Soviet Union as far as the Caucasus region and the Grozny-Stalingrad-Orel line, which included the entire territory of Ukraine. Germany annexed Galicia (Halychyna) on August 1, 1941 to the General Government, under the name “District Galicia ” and gave northern Bukovyna, Bessarabia and the territory between the Boh and Dnister Rivers, called “Transnistria,” to Rumania, in order to secure an alliance. The German Reich placed the occupied territory of Ukraine under the control of an administrative body called “Reichcommissariat Ukraine.”

After three years of successes the tide turned against the Germans. They were defeated in the battles of Stalingrad and Kursk. Soviet armies recaptured most of Ukrainian territory east of the Dnipro River in autumn of 1943, pushed on to capture the right bank in spring of 1944, broke through the German front at Brody in July and, by October, occupied all of the west Ukrainian territories. The war ended on May 8, 1945 with Germany’s unconditional surrender.

Military campaigns and occupation by Germany and the Soviet Union had a devastating effect on Ukrainian life. Ukraine was subjected to relentless exploitation of its economic resources. In addition, hundreds of thousands of people were deported to forced labor camps in Germany. These conditions provided widespread support for the resistance movement of the Ukrainian Insurgent Army (UPA — “Ukrainska Povstanska Armia”) which began in 1942, conducting raids and disrupting German supply lines.

EUROPE IN WORLD WAR II AND UKRAINIAN TERRITORY (1939-1945)



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| The German Reich in 1933 | Germany's Axis Partners | The German Reich on 22 June 1941 the day of German invasion of Soviet Union | Reichskommissariate Ukraine |
| Germany's Peacetime Gains | Germany's Wartime Conquests | German-Soviet boundary 1939-1941 | German eastern front in Autumn 1942 |
| Neutral Countries | State boundaries in 1939 | | |



35. UKRAINIAN INSURGENT ARMY (UPA) IN WORLD WAR II (1942-48)

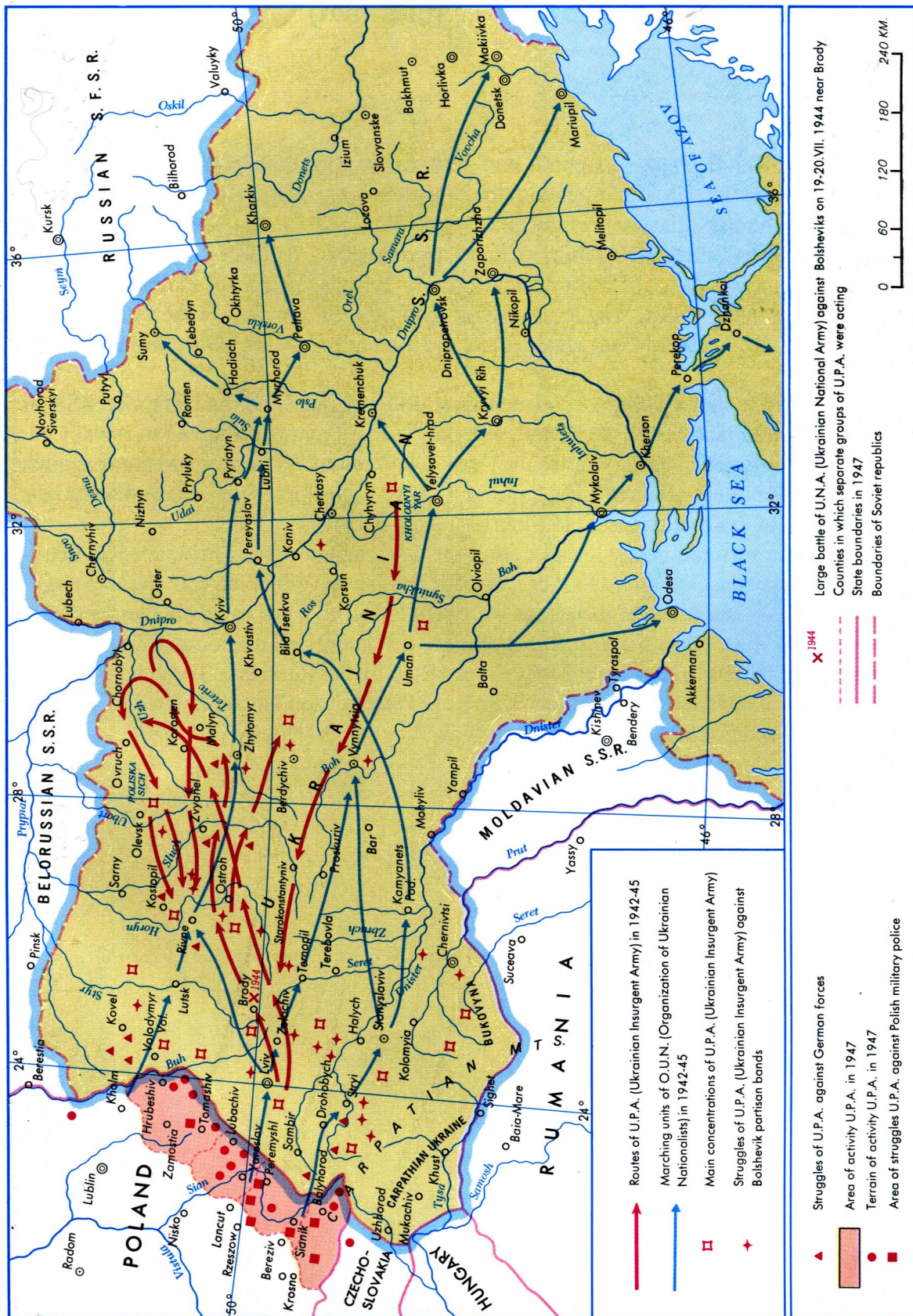
The Ukrainian Insurgent Army (UPA) arose as a resistance movement against Soviet and German oppression. After the Germans liberated Lviv from the Russians, on June 30, 1941 the OUN (Organization of Ukrainian Nationalists), led by Stepan Bandera, established a provisional National Assembly which proclaimed the restoration of Ukrainian independence and formed a government headed by Prime Minister Y. Stetsko. German Nazi forces arrested the provisional government, including Stepan Bandera, and sent them to the concentration camp at Auschwitz. This was followed by brutal repression of all aspects of Ukrainian national life. The remaining leadership of the OUN formed an underground resistance organization. The first guerilla units were organized in Volyn and Polissia at the end of 1942 as the "Polisska Sich" under the command of otaman Borovets (Bulba).

As German oppression and Soviet and Polish partisan attacks intensified in 1943, volunteers poured into the OUN underground units in the forests. OUN units and Otaman Borovets' Volyn units were organized into one unified army, under the name "Ukrainian Insurgent Army (U.P.A.)." Later, the newly-formed Ukrainian Liberation Council named Roman Shukhevych (Taras Chuprynka) Commander-in-Chief of the Ukrainian Insurgent Army (UPA).

The UPA was divided into four groups. UPA North, in Volyn and Polissia, directed its efforts against German police detachments and attacked Soviet partisan units. Their aim was to protect the Ukrainian population against robbery and forced enlistment in Soviet units. UPA South did the same in southern Ukraine. UPA South operated in the "Kholodnyi Yar" area, the Chyhyryn, Vynnytsia and Uman regions and in southern Ukraine. UPA East established itself in the northern part of the Kyiv region and in the Chernyhiv region. UPA West operated in Halychyna and Bukovyna. As the German-Russian front moved west of the Sian River, UPA West was divided into 3 groups. From 1944 on, these groups directed their main focus against Polish police and militia, the Russian NKVD (secret police) detachments, and Polish and Soviet military units. UPA West merged in January of 1944 with the Bukovyna Self-defense Army under the name West UPA. It operated mainly in the Stanyslaviv (Ivano-Frankivsk) region, Black Forest (Chorny Lis), in the Carpathian Mountains and in the forests of the Lubachiv and Kholm regions.

UPA's immediate goals were to protect the Ukrainian people from economic and physical destruction. Its long-range goal was to achieve independent Ukrainian statehood.

UKRAINIAN INSURGENT ARMY (U.P.A.) IN WORLD WAR II (1942-1948)



36. UKRAINE AFTER WORLD WAR II (1945-1991)

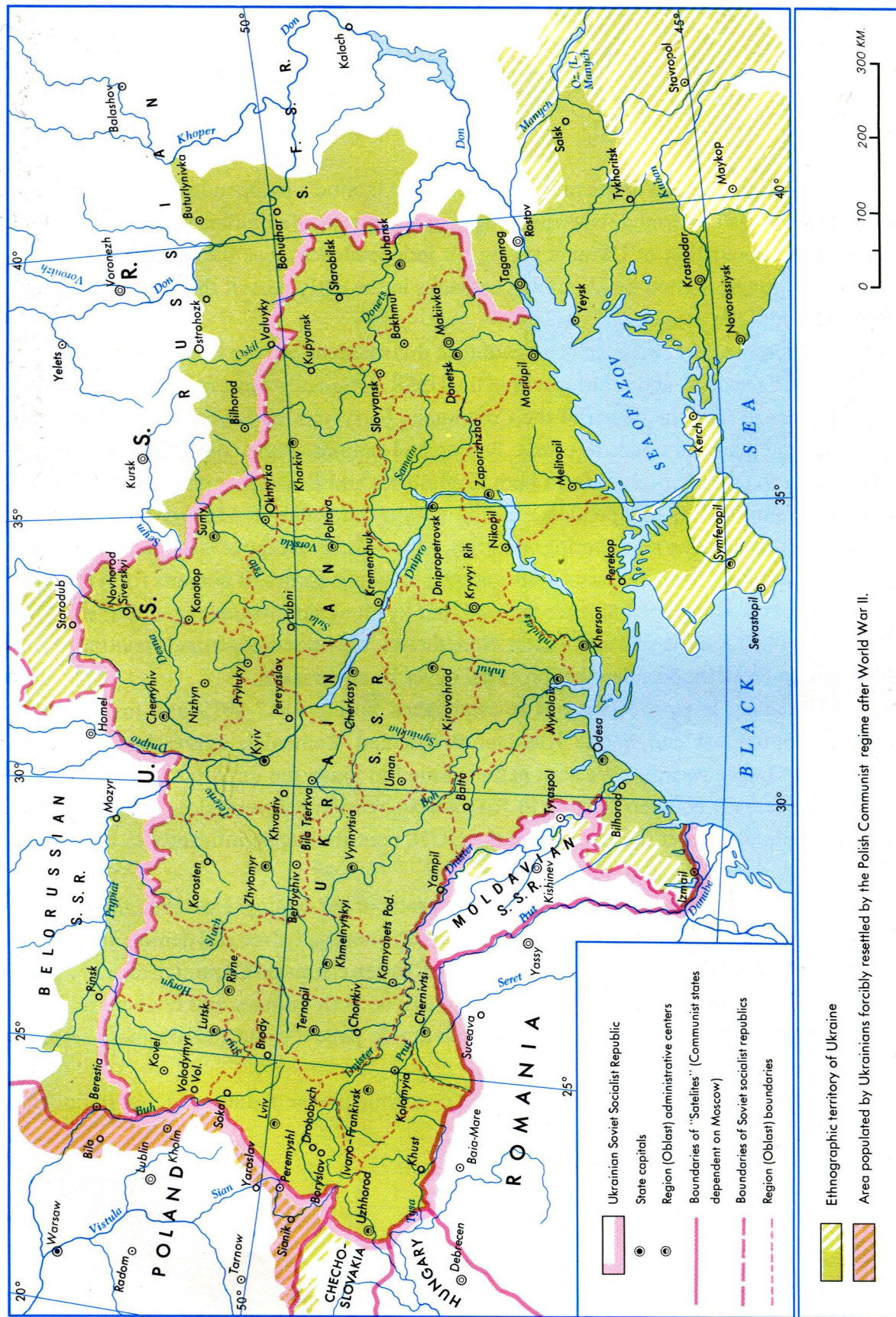
World War II changed Central and Eastern Europe, both politically and ethnographically. Most of Ukrainian ethnographic territory was within the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic. Podliassia (Podlissia), Kholm, Sian and Lemko regions were under Polish occupation. Czechoslovakia retained the Priashiv region; Romania kept the Marmorosh region and part of Bukovyna. Northern Polissia and part of Podliassia became part of the Belorussian SSR. The Russian SSR incorporated portions of the Voronizh and Kursk regions, the northern Caucasus region and the regions of the Black Sea and Sea of Azov.

Ukrainians under Polish occupation were either deported to the Ukrainian SSR or to newly acquired lands from Germany, with only a small number allowed to remain.

The territories under Soviet control underwent relentless terror campaigns against any form of Ukrainian nationalism. Cultural activity was suppressed. Many Ukrainians were forced into exile or deported to Siberia.

Ukraine suffered heavy losses during the war. Military hostilities, terrorist activities by the Russians, Germans and Poles, disease and famine took their toll. Nearly 8 million people died. Hundreds of thousands were sent to forced labor camps in Germany and thousands fled west, fearing political persecution, death and deportation to Siberia by the Soviets. After the war many were forcibly repatriated by the Russians. Those who refused to return, were transferred to camps for "Displaced Persons" and later emigrated to Western Europe, North and South America and Australia.

UKRAINE AFTER WORLD WAR II (1945-1991)



37. UKRAINE — INDEPENDENT STATE SINCE 1991

The proclamation of the reestablishment of Ukraine's independence on August 24, 1991, which was confirmed overwhelmingly in a national referendum December 1, 1991 (91% of the population of Ukraine voting for independence) was the culmination of the liberation struggle started by Ukrainian cossacks in the early part of the 17th century and continued until the present.

The immediate circumstances leading to this momentous step were M. Gorbachev's initiation of "glasnost" and reforms within the USSR. Originally these reforms were started as an attempt to save the power of the Communist Party and the Soviet Union. However, these reforms had the opposite effect. Subjugated nations within the USSR seized this opportunity to free themselves from both Communist and Russian oppression.

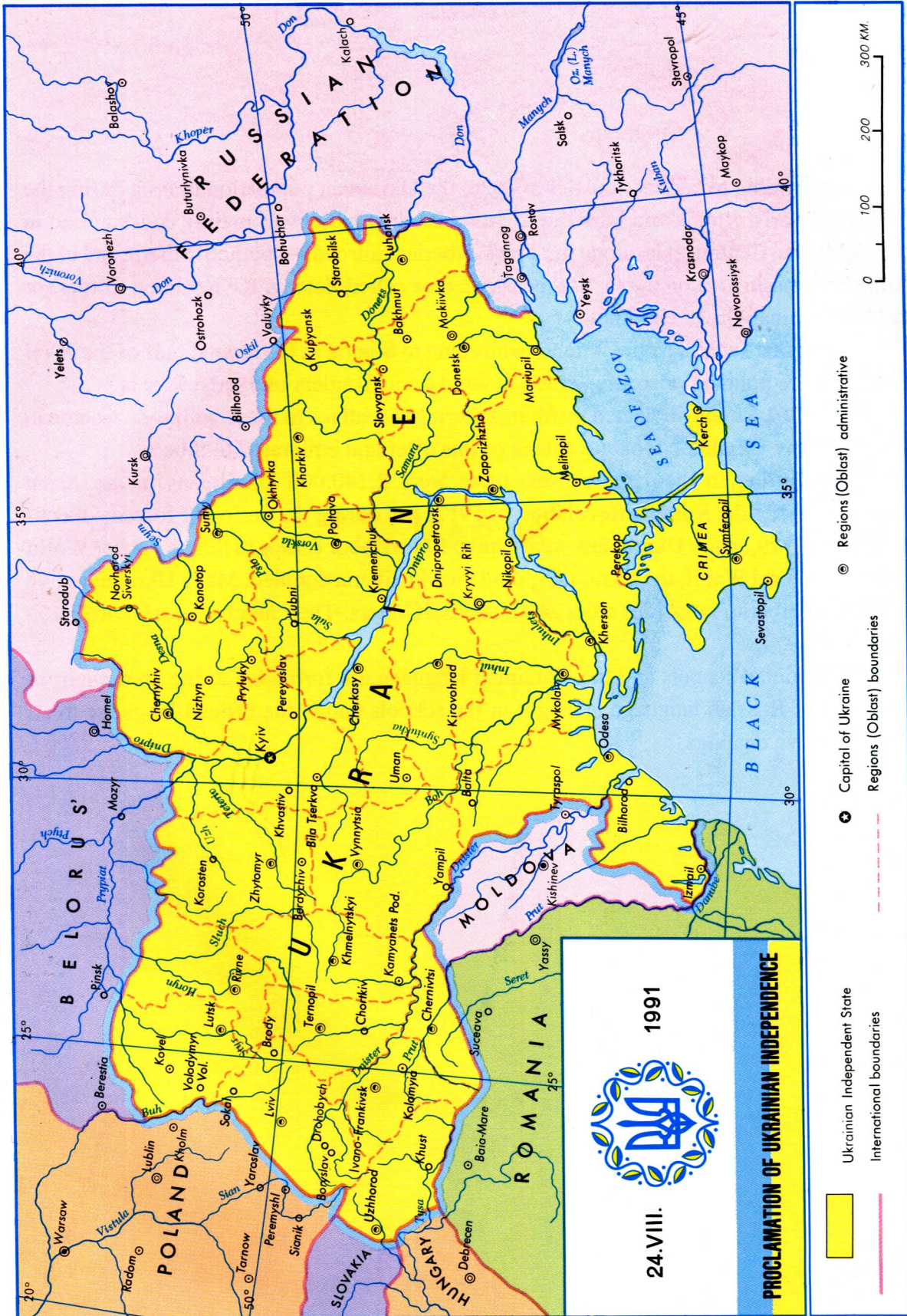
Ukraine lost its independence in the 14th century due to Mongol invasions and subsequent invasions by neighboring countries, who took advantage of Ukraine's weakened condition, resulting from incessant wars with the invading hordes of nomads from the east. Ukraine recovered its independence in 1648, but lost it again towards the end of the 17th century to Polish and Russian aggression. Nonetheless, the liberation struggle continued and the desire to be an independent nation could never be suppressed.

Ukrainian independence was re-established during 1917-1919 and lost again to Russian Communist and White Russian, Polish and Romanian aggression. A major contributing factor was that Western nations failed to grasp the importance of Ukrainian independence as a counter-balance to Russian aggression. Nevertheless, the liberation struggle continued under the auspices of the OUN, contributing significantly to the rebirth of Ukraine.

Ukraine is now once again free to be the master of her destiny. However, the struggle is not over, due to the danger posed by Russia, which nominally free and democratic, is still pursuing imperialistic policies. This is evident by Russian claims on Ukrainian territory (i.e., the Crimea, Donbas, etc.) and appropriation of assets, both military and civilian. In these difficult times, Ukrainians have exhibited remarkable patience and steadfastness and are maintaining internal peace.

Ukraine, at present the seventh largest economic power in the world, has definitely a bright future ahead.

UKRAINE INDEPENDENT STATE SINCE 1991



38. UKRAINIANS IN ASIA IN THE XIX AND XX CEN.

According to census statistics in 1926, the Ukrainian population in Asia during the period of Tsarist Russia and after the Communist Revolution was mainly concentrated in Kazakhstan in Central Asia, along the Trans-Siberian railroad in southern Siberia and in the Amur river basin area on the far east coast, an area called Zelenyi Klyn (Green Corner) or Zelena Ukraina (Green Ukraine).

The first settlers from Ukraine, who came to Siberia in the second half of the XVII century, were political prisoners, exiled to the Asiatic frontiers of Tsarist Russia.

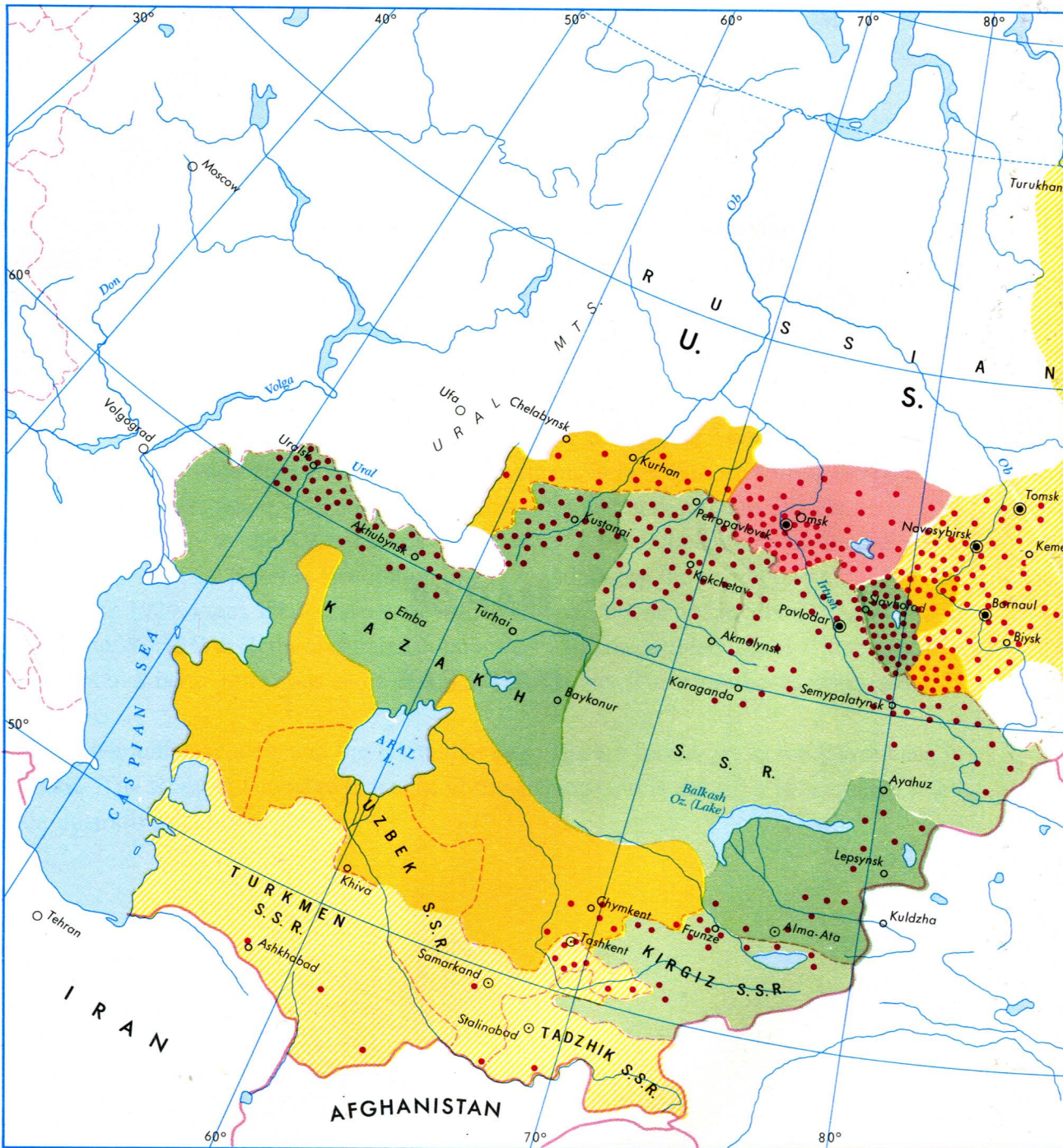
In 1861 Russia abolished serfdom, offering incentives to those willing to resettle in Siberia. Many Ukrainians took advantage of this offer and emigrated to Siberia.

According to the 1926 census, there were 2,140,000 Ukrainians in the Asian territories. After the Russian Revolution of 1917, and during the period of forced collectivization in 1929, many Ukrainians were sent to forced labor camps in Siberia. After World War I and World War II, the Ukrainian population in Siberia doubled. Many Ukrainians live throughout Siberia in various cities and industrial centers. Their number is estimated at 7-8 million.

Ukrainian schools and the Ukrainian language are forbidden to the Ukrainians in Siberia. The Russian language is taught in the schools and is the official language in all administrative dealings.

MAP 38
OVERLEAF

UKRAINIANS IN ASIA IN THE XIX AND XX CEN.



- Area where Ukrainians made up more than half of the total number of emigrants 1861-1926
- Ukrainian emigrants from Ukraine in 50% from all emigrants in 1926
- Ukrainian emigrants from Ukraine in 40% from all emigrants in 1926
- Ukrainian emigrants from Ukraine in 30% from all emigrants in 1926
- Ukrainian emigrants from Ukraine in 10-20% from all emigrants in 1926



- Each dot represents 2,000 people born in Ukraine and living east of Ural by 1926
- ⊙ Towns with large number of Ukrainian inhabitants

Ukrainian settlement in Soviet Asia in 1926 was born 2,138,000. After establishment of communist rule during collectivisation 1929 Ukrainian population doubled.



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The maps show in colour the history of the
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This is the First Edition of the Ukrainian Historical Atlas contains a history of the Ukrainian people from the IX century until the proclamation of Ukrainian Independence in 1991. The atlas includes 38 historical color maps with appropriate text. Never before has such an atlas been published, because Ukraine had no independent statehood since the fall of Kyivan Rus' (Old Ukraine) in the XIII century.

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Eugene Tiutko, author of this atlas, who has more than 25 years experience in cartography, with the cooperation of Myroslaw Semchyshyn, Ph.D., John Peter Maher, Ph.D., Professor at Northern Illinois University, Ruta Wytanovych-Halibey, M.A., Anna Prohny, M.A., and Anna Holovatyj, M.A., presents this atlas for all who appreciate the history of a nation.

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