

HISTORY OF UKRAINE

Topic 1. Introduction to History of Ukraine and General Information about Ukraine



Official language: Ukrainian

Capital: Kyiv

Independence: August, 24, 1991

Location: Central-Eastern Europe, part of the East-European plain, between 44°20' and 52°20' N and 22°5' and 41°15' E.

Area: 603 700 km²

Climate: moderately continental, except for Southern Crimea, where the climate is subtropical, of the Mediterranean type. The Carpathian climate is also mild, with warm winter and rainy summer.



Average winter temperature is from -8° to -12° C (from $+17.6^{\circ}$ F to $+3^{\circ}$ F). In the Southern regions average winter temperature is 0° C ($+32^{\circ}$ F).

Average summer temperature is from $+18^{\circ}$ to $+25^{\circ}$ C (from $+64.4^{\circ}$ F to $+77^{\circ}$ F), although maximum temperature can be more than $+35^{\circ}$ C ($+95^{\circ}$ F).

Best time to visit Ukraine: summer, late spring and early autumn.

Population: 47 732 079 (25th in the world, population density – 80 p/km²)

Currency: hryvnia (letter code UAH, digital code 980)

Time zone: GMT+2 (UTC+2)

Internet top-level domain: ua

International phone code: 380

Ukraine is the second largest country in Europe in terms of area (603,700 sq. km) and fifth in Europe in terms of population (46.2 million people). The country is known as “The Breadbasket of Europe” due to its unique treasure – fertile black earth. Ukraine is a country with a thousand-year history whose roots reach back to the time of Kyivan Rus (9th century).

Ukraine borders the Russian Federation to the east and northeast, Belarus to the northwest, Poland, Slovakia and Hungary to the west, Romania and Moldova to the southwest, and the Black Sea and Sea of Azov to the south and southeast, respectively.

Ukraine is a unitary state composed of 24 oblasts (provinces), one autonomous republic (Crimea), and two cities with special status: Kiev, its capital and largest city, and Sevastopol, which houses the Russian Black Sea Fleet under a leasing agreement. Ukraine is a republic under a semi-presidential system with separate legislative, executive, and judicial branches. Since the collapse of the USSR, Ukraine continues to maintain the second largest military in Europe, after that of Russia.

The Ukrainian language is the **official language** in Ukraine. Russian is also widely spoken.

The dominant **religion** in the country is Eastern Orthodox Christianity, which has heavily influenced Ukrainian architecture, literature and music.

Topic 2. Ancient History of Ukraine

Human settlement in the territory of Ukraine dates back to at least 4500 BC, when the Neolithic Cucuteni-Trypillian Culture flourished in a wide area that included parts of modern Ukraine including Trypillia and the entire Dnieper-Dniester region.



Trypillian culture. The Trypillia culture prevailed in the forest-steppe region of Ukraine, from the upper Dniester River on the west to mid Dnipro River on the east.

Thus far about 2000 Trypillian sites have been found in Ukraine. These include settlements, burial grounds and barren grounds.

Archaeologists have been investigating this ancient civilization for more than a hundred years. They have found thousands of masterpieces of ancient art and artifacts, which help to illuminate the ancient history of this culture.

Establishing settlements on the open forest-steppe assisted the people of Trypillia to increase their population and improve their wellbeing. The known settlements were not permanent as the Trypillians periodically moved. These ancient farmers cultivated wheat, barley, peas and legumes. According to paleobotanists, these crops were pure and the fields were in use for long periods of time. Crops were harvested using sickles with silicon inserts.

Spore-pollen analyses provide us with the opportunity to describe the flora, which surrounded Trypillia settlements 6000 years ago. Plantain grew near houses and along roads; nettle around settlements. Slopes of ravines were covered with rich motley grass, red mallow, white bindweed and pinks. Cornflowers displayed their

blue color among wheat fields. Stands of willows, alder and nut-trees could be seen above steams and creeks. The oak and hornbeam woods were inhabited with bison, deer, wild boars, bears, wolves, foxes and hares.

Trypillian people cut down thousands of trees using stone and copper axes to build their dwellings. At the beginning their settlements were small, from seven to fourteen buildings, but with time cities with thousands of structures appeared. The houses had wire frame-columnar construction. The walls were made of wood or rods, and then coated with a mixture of clay and bran. This type of dwelling originated during the Trypillia epoch and exists in the forest-steppe regions of Ukraine even today.

We have found clay models of dwellings and temples made by the Trypillians. Among these are both single and double storied models. Long-term excavations have proved the existence of many-storied structures during the Trypillia epoch. Floors were made of wood and coated with clay, much like the walls. The second floor was used as living quarters, the ground floor for household purposes. The floor and the walls were painted with red and white colors and decorated with geometrical ornamental patterns to protect the inhabitants from evil spirits. Inhabited rooms were heated with open fire and stoves. There was a long clay bench along one of the inside walls to store crockery. Often there were clay mortars near the bench, with built-in stones for grinding grains into flour.

A single rounded window was located in a wall opposite to the entrance. Opposite the window there was also a rounded or cruciform clay altar. The altar was painted red and decorated with a spiral ornamental pattern. A typical Trypillian dwelling occupied an area from 60-100 up to 200-300 sq. meters. In addition to the dwellings, public buildings and temples have also been found. One of the mysteries of the Trypillia culture are the remnants of thousands of burned buildings found by archaeologists. Among the ruins can be found, tens to hundreds of vessels, statuettes of people and animals, tools, and bones of animals and, sometimes, of people. Initial

evaluation of this culture by V. Khvoika concluded that these ruins were "homes of the dead". Other archaeologists have tried to prove that these burned ruins were just normal dwellings. But modern researchers feel it makes sense to combine both of these conclusions. It is now believed that for a long period of time these structures served the people as temples, houses, and barns. But after a period of time, all structures became "houses of the dead" - shelters for the souls of ancestors. All these wonderful vessels, tools, meat of sacrificial animals became a rich offering to the spirits of their ancestors. It was necessary to burn out such houses, as well as the entire settlement, and then to move on to another location, to new fields and lands, having left the old fields to the ancestors. This custom, which is a thousand years older than the Trypillia culture, came from the old pre-civilization of the Balkans where the first farmers of Europe settled. This cycle, consecrated by a thousand year old tradition, consisted of construction of new structures and settlements every 60-80 years.

The periodic resettlement required strong community organization utilizing the collective efforts of all its members. Such activity can be compared to the construction of channels and dams in the Ancient East. This high level of organization assisted the Trypillians in establishing the first cities in Europe between 5000 and 4000 B. C. When "history began in Sumer", ruins of tens of Trypillian cities, between the Bug and Dniro rivers, were already covered with rich grasses of the Forest-Steppe.

The largest Trypillian cities existed over six thousand years ago. Their size is amazing: hundreds of hectares in area, thousands of dwellings, and a population estimated at 10,000-15,000 people. The strong fortification, which was made of hundreds of two and even three-story buildings densely attached one to the other, protected the inhabitants. The population of these cities was engaged primarily in agriculture, although there were also craftsmen such as potters, blacksmiths, and weavers.



When scientists search for roots of the people who lived on the territory of Ukraine, they look to Trypillian times. Trypillia is

the first bread, the first metal, the beginning of a new philosophy in the area that is now known as Ukraine. The creators of the Trypillia civilization made an important contribution to Ukrainian tradition as well as to the formation of European civilization.

During the Iron Age, the land was inhabited by Cimmerians, Scythians, and Sarmatians.

The **Scythians** appeared on the Black Sea coast probably around 600 BC, but came into their own as a people around 500 BC. Herodotus, the famous Greek historian reminds us of this difficult opponent to the Greeks and Persians and Medes. He writes “No Scythian woman can marry until after she has killed an enemy.” This would certainly indicate to me that this was an aggressive warlike society especially



given the fact that all they left behind were burial mounds and other scholars’ written memories of war. The Scythians left no towns or fortresses. They were nomadic, and enigmatic. They had no written language and so we rely on others, and on the findings of archeologists to learn more. If they resembled anyone, it was the Comanches.

In fact, the similarity between the Scythians and the North American Comanches is remarkable. Both nations existed for a long time but grew into a martial power within a single century. Both nations kept no permanent architecture or technology, and both occupied about the same amount of land. Both cultures bought and borrowed from the cultures they ran up against; they adored jewelry and adornment for their persons and their mounts, and both cultures bragged of women who could fight as well as men. Both cultures used the bow and arrow and both cultures' defenders claim that these skilled horsemen could fire up to 20 arrows a minute accurately whilst riding. Both the Comanches and the Scythians took scalps and made horses and horsemanship the single most important relationship they had with the world. The Comanches and the Scythians were obstacles to conquerors. The Spanish Empire never could get past the Comanches. Even when the Spanish Empire was at its peak in the 17th century, the Comanches are what kept the Dakotas and Wyoming from having Spanish names. Similarly, the early Greeks and Persians, and the Medes and Cimmerians could do little with the Scythians.

Darius almost lost 80000 men trying to stop the raids of the Scythians, trying to hit a target that could not be seen and would not stand still. It took the Americans to conquer the Comanches and it took the Macedonians led by Phillip II, or Alexander the Great's father to tame the Scythians. Essentially a giant light cavalry force, they are not compared to the Mongols for many reasons. The Mongols took huge swaths of land. The Scythians occupied a migratory route between the Black Sea and the Ukraine. The Mongols were organized into clans and had long histories and devotion to a charismatic strongman. We don't know if any of those characteristics belonged to the Scythians. Again, the comparison between the Scythians and the Comanches bears fruit.

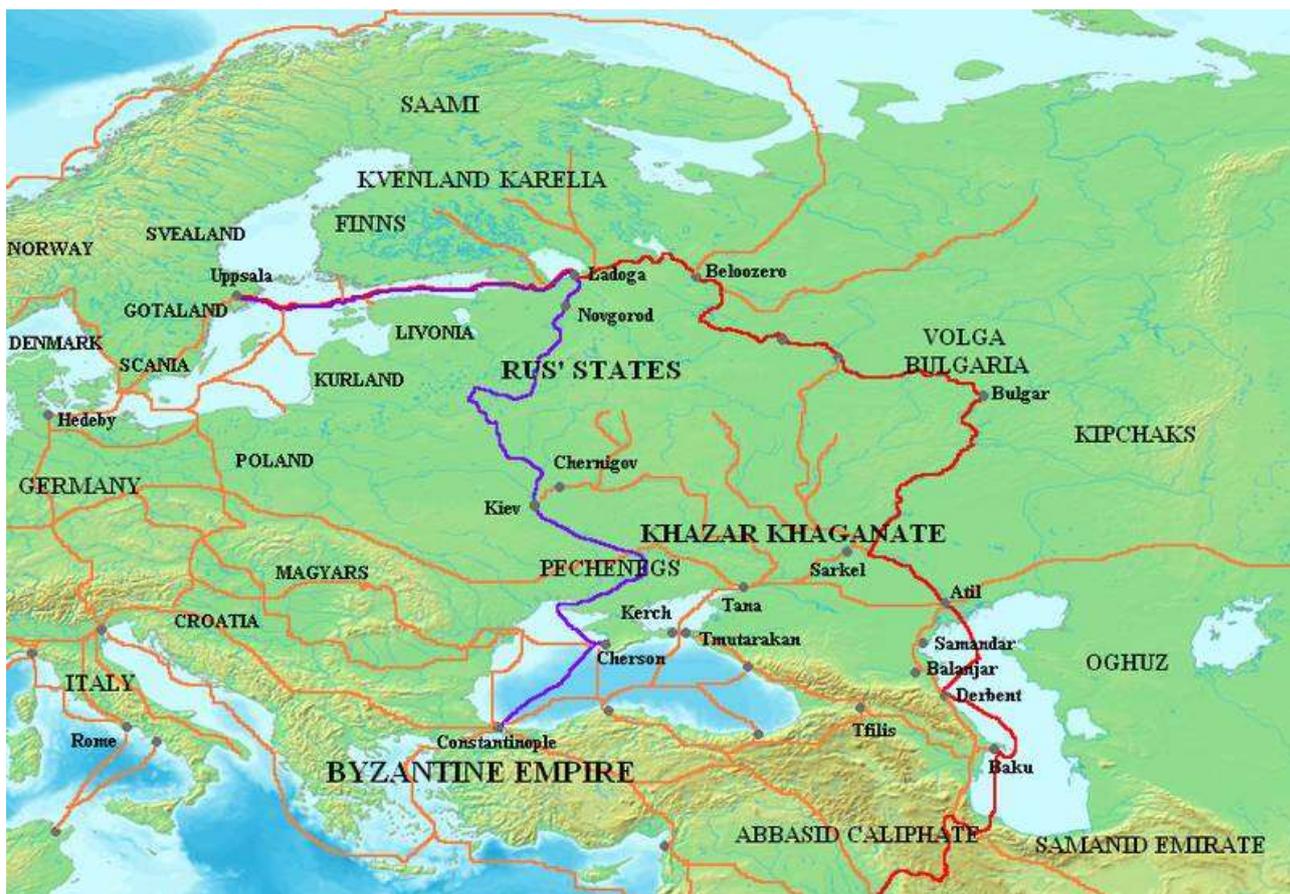
The Ukraine and the Great Plains were a perfect mirror of large areas, horse friendly, filled with game, patches of arable land and terrain easy to hide in. Early Greeks disappeared pursuing Scythians just like soldiers would travel for days in the Great Plains and get completely lost, or die of starvation or freeze to death, all the

while underestimating the harsh landscape and not knowing exactly how the ecosystem works.

Herodotus writes: “for it is in their manner of life that no one who invades their country can escape destruction. And if they want to avoid engaging an enemy then that enemy cannot by any possible means come to grips with them. A people without fortified towns, living as Scythians do, in wagons which they take with them wherever they go accustomed one and all to fight on horseback with bows and arrows, and dependent for their food not upon agriculture but upon their cattle...”

Later, Ukraine was a part of colonies of Ancient Greece, Ancient Rome, and the Byzantine Empire, such as Tyras, Olbia, and Hermonassa. The Goths stayed in the area but came under the sway of the Huns from the 370s AD.

Тopic 3. Kievan Rus (Киевская Русь)



The state existed from approximately 880 to sometime in the middle of the 13th century when it disintegrated. It is considered that the Mongol invasion of 1237–1240 greatly contributed to that effect.

Originally founded by East Slavic Tribes and Scandinavian traders (Varangians) called "Rus'" and centered in Novgorod (Velikiy Novgorod), the state later included territories stretching south to the Black Sea, east to Volga, and west to the Kingdom of Poland and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania.

In the 9th century, Kiev, a Slavic settlement that in early 9th century was paying tribute to Khazars, but was captured by the Varangians in 864, became the capital of Rus'. Rus' polity is widely considered an early predecessor of three modern East Slavic nations: Belarusians, Russians and Ukrainians.



The kingdom of the Kievan Rus' was officially founded by Prince **Oleg** (Helgu in Khazarian records) about 880.



During the next 35 years, Oleg and his warriors subdued the various Eastern Slavic (Smolensk and Liubech) and Finnic tribes.

In 882, Oleg deposed Haskold and Dyr subordinating Kiev directly to himself and choosing it as the capital city.

In 883, Oleg conquered the Drevlians imposing a fur tribute on them. By 884 he managed to subjugate the Polians, Drevlians, Severians, Vyatichs, and Radimichs while at war with the Tivertsi and the Ulichs. The latter were located in the area known among the Greek historians as the Great Scythia (lands of lower Dniester and Dnieper rivers).

In 907, Oleg led an attack against Constantinople with 80,000 warriors transported by 2,000 ships, leaving Igor in Kiev. Oleg managed to impose a tribute upon Greeks of no less than one million grivna. In 912, he signed a commercial treaty with the Byzantine Empire as an equal partner. After the death of Oleg later in 912, the Drevlians managed to break away, but were conquered again by **Igor**.



In 914, **Igor** (ruled in 913-945) concluded a peace treaty with the Pechenegs, a nomadic tribe that was passing through Rus' towards the Danube River in order to attack the Byzantine Empire.

The new Kievan state prospered because it had an abundant supply of furs, beeswax and honey for export and because it controlled three main trade routes of Eastern Europe: the Volga trade route from the Baltic Sea to the Orient, the Dnieper trade route from the Baltic Sea to the Black Sea,

and the trade route from the Khazars to the Germans (see Raffelstetten Customs Regulations).

He twice besieged Constantinople, in 941 and 944, and in spite of part of his fleet being destroyed by Greek fire, concluded with the Emperor a favourable treaty whose text is preserved in the chronicle.

In 913 and 944, the Rus plundered the Arabs in the Caspian Sea during the Caspian expeditions of the Rus, but it's not clear whether Igor had anything to do with these campaigns. Igor was killed while collecting tribute from the Drevlians in 945 (Leo the Deacon describes how Igor met his death: "They had bent down two birch trees to the prince's feet and tied them to his legs; then they let the trees straighten again, thus tearing the prince's body apart.") and avenged by his wife, Olga of Kiev. The Primary Chronicle blames his death on his own excessive greed, indicating that he was attempting to collect tribute a second time in a month. As a result, **Olga** changed the system of tribute gathering in what may be regarded as the first legal reform recorded in Eastern Europe.

Olga was a ruler of Kievan Rus as regent (945-963) for her son, Svyatoslav.



She was the first Rus ruler to convert to Christianity, either in 945 or in 957. The ceremonies of her formal reception in Constantinople were minutely described by Emperor Constantine VII in his book *De Ceremoniis*. Following her baptism she took the Christian name Elena, after the reigning Empress Helena Lekapena.

The Slavonic chronicles add apocryphal details to the account of her baptism, such as the story how she charmed and "outwitted" Constantine and how she spurned his matrimonial proposals. In truth, at the time of her baptism, Olga was an old woman, while Constantine had a wife. Olga was one of the first people of Rus to be proclaimed a saint, for her efforts to spread the Christian religion in the country. Because of her proselytizing

influence, the Orthodox Church calls St. Olga by the honorific Isapóstolos, "Equal to the Apostles". However, she failed to convert Svyatoslav, and it was left to her grandson and pupil Vladimir I to make Christianity the lasting state religion. During her son's prolonged military campaigns, she remained in charge of Kiev, residing in the castle of Vyshgorod together with her grandsons. She died soon after the city's siege by the Pechenegs in 969.

Sviatoslav (ruled in 962-972), Olga's son, was the first true ruler of Rus' who destroyed the Khazar Khaganate and united all of the Rus' principalities under the Kiev throne. Sviatoslav was the first true ruler of Kievan Rus' whose name is indisputably Slavic in origin (as opposed to his predecessors, whose names are ultimately derived from Old Norse). This name is not recorded in other medieval Slavic countries. Even in Rus', it was attested only among the members of the house of Rurik, as were the names of Sviatoslav's immediate successors: Vladimir, Yaroslav, Mstislav).

Another Prince **Yaropolk** ruled only two years in 972 – 980. He was murdered by two Varangians.

Prince **Vladimir the Great** (ruled from 980 till 1015) son of Sviatosla. His early rule is characterized by a staunch pagan reaction. Vladimir continued to expand his territories beyond his father's extensive domain. In 981, he conquered the Cherven cities (known later as Galicia) shifting his borders toward Poland; in 983, he subdued the Yatvingians, whose territories lay between Lithuania and Poland; in 985, he led a fleet along the central rivers of Kievan Rus' to conquer the Bulgars of the Kama, planting numerous fortresses and colonies on his way.



In **988** he was baptized into Orthodoxy and successfully converted Kievan Rus to Christianity. To commemorate the event, Vladimir built the first stone church of Kievan Rus', called the Church of the Tithes, where his body and the body of his new wife were to repose. Another church was built on top of the hill where pagan statues stood before. The Christianisation of Kievan Rus' firmly allied it with the Byzantine Empire. The Greek learning and book culture was adopted in Kiev and other centres of the country. Churches started to be built on the Byzantine model.

The next prince – **Sviatopolk the Accursed** (Sventopluk), son of Yaropolk I ruled from 1015 till 1019. When Vladimir died in 1015, Sviatopolk's retinue concealed his death from him due to the fact that he, being Vladimir's oldest son, could claim the Kievan throne. It didn't take long for Sviatopolk to find out about his father's demise and he seized power in Kiev almost immediately. The citizens of Kiev did not show much sympathy for Sviatopolk and, therefore, he decided to distribute presents in order to win them over. The legend says that he murdered his brothers.

Yaroslav the Wise, son of Volodymyr the Great and Rogneda of Polotsk was Prince of Rostov and Prince of Novgorod become Grand Prince of Kiev in 1019.



During his reign Kievan Rus reached the pinnacle of its' power. He regained Galicia from the Poles (who had obtained it in return for supporting Sviatopolk), crushed (1036) the Pechenegs (nomadic invaders), and suppressed rebellions by Lithuanian and Finnish tribes.

In 1043 he organized the last Russian campaign against Constantinople, in which his troops were routed. At home he encouraged learning, codified laws, erected magnificent buildings and churches, including the famous Cathedral of St. Sophia,

and founded (1039) a patriarchate in Kiev. Yaroslav was in close contact with European dynasties; his daughters were married to European princes.

Yaroslav wrote *Russkaya Pravda* – the legal code of Kievan Rus and the subsequent Rus' principalities during the times of feudal division. While it shares a number of features with contemporary Germanic codifications (e.g., the Salic law), it is also distinguished by many peculiarities, such as the absence of capital punishment. Yaroslav's sons developed the great Kiev Pechersk Lavra (monastery), which functioned in Kievan Rus' as an ecclesiastical academy.

However the most prominent struggle for power was the conflict that erupted after the death of Yaroslav the Wise.

Topic 4. Decentralization and Political Fragmentation of Kievan Rus

Kievan Rus' was not able to maintain its position as a powerful and prosperous state, in part because of the amalgamation of disparate lands under the control of a ruling clan. As the members of that clan became more numerous, they identified themselves with regional interests rather than with the larger patrimony. Thus, the princes fought among themselves, frequently forming alliances with outside groups such as the Polovtsians, Poles, and Hungarians. The Crusades brought a shift in European trade routes that accelerated the decline of Kievan Rus'. In 1204 the forces of the Fourth Crusade sacked Constantinople, making the Dnepr trade route marginal. As it declined, Kievan Rus' splintered into many principalities and several large regional centers. The inhabitants of those regional centers then evolved into three nationalities: Ukrainians in the southeast and southwest, Belorussians in the northwest, and Russians in the north and northeast.

In the north, the Republic of Novgorod prospered as part of Kievan Rus' because it controlled trade routes from the Volga River to the Baltic Sea. As Kievan Rus' declined, Novgorod became more independent. A local oligarchy ruled Novgorod; major government decisions were made by a town assembly, which also elected a prince as the city's military leader. In the twelfth century, Novgorod acquired its own archbishop, a sign of increased importance and political independence. In its political

structure and mercantile activities, Novgorod resembled the north European towns of the Hanseatic League, the prosperous alliance that dominated the commercial activity of the Baltic region between the thirteenth and seventeenth centuries, more than the other principalities of Kievan Rus'.

In the northeast, East Slavs colonized the territory that eventually became Muscovy by intermingling with the Finno-Ugric tribes already occupying the area. The city of Rostov was the oldest center of the northeast, but it was supplanted first by Suzdal' and then by the city of Vladimir. By the twelfth century, the combined principality of Vladimir-Suzdal' had become a major power in Kievan Rus'.

In 1169 Prince **Andrey Bogolyubskiy** of Vladimir-Suzdal' dealt a severe blow to the waning power of Kievan Rus' when his armies sacked the city of Kiev. Prince Andrey then installed his younger brother to rule in Kiev and continued to rule his realm from Suzdal'. Thus, political power shifted to the northeast, away from Kiev, in the second half of the twelfth century. In 1299, in the wake of the Mongol invasion, the metropolitan of the Orthodox Church moved to the city of Vladimir, and Vladimir-Suzdal' replaced Kievan Rus' as the religious center.

To the southwest, the principality of Galicia-Volhynia had highly developed trade relations with its Polish, Hungarian, and Lithuanian neighbors and emerged as another successor to Kievan Rus'. In the early thirteenth century, **Prince Roman Mstislavich** united the two previously separate principalities, conquered Kiev, and assumed the title of grand duke of Kievan Rus'. His son, Prince **Daniil** (Danylo; r. 1238-64) was the first ruler of Kievan Rus' to accept a crown from the Roman papacy, apparently doing so without breaking with Orthodoxy. Early in the fourteenth century, the patriarch of the Orthodox Church in Constantinople granted the rulers of Galicia-Volhynia a metropolitan to compensate for the move of the Kievan metropolitan to Vladimir.

A successor state to Kievan Rus' on part of the territory of today's Ukraine was the principality of Galicia-Volhynia. Previously, Vladimir the Great had established the cities of Halych and Ladomir (later Volodimer) as regional capitals for the western Ukrainian heartland. This new, more exclusively a Ukrainian predecessor

state was based upon the Dulebe, Tiverian and White Croat tribes. The state was ruled by the descendants of Yaroslav the Wise and **Vladimir Monomakh**.

For a brief period, the country was ruled by a Hungarian nobleman. Battles with the neighboring states of Poland and Lithuania also occurred, as well as internecine warfare with the independent Ruthenian principality of Chernigov to the east. The nation reached its peak with the extension of rule to neighboring Wallachia/Bessarabia, all the way to the shores of the Black Sea. During this period (around 1200–1400), each principality was independent of the other for a period of time. The state of Halych-Volynia eventually became a vassal to the Mongolian Empire, but efforts to gain European support for opposition to the Mongols continued. This period marked the first "King of Rus"; previously, the rulers of Rus' were termed, "Grand Dukes" or "Princes."

However, a long and unsuccessful struggle against the Mongols combined with internal opposition to the prince and foreign intervention to weaken Galicia-Volhynia. With the end of the Mstislavich Dynasty in the mid-fourteenth century, Galicia-Volhynia ceased to exist; Lithuania took Volhynia, and Poland annexed Galicia.

Topic 5. Ukrainian Lands in Lithuanian-Polish Times

During the 14th century, Poland and Lithuania fought wars against the Mongol invaders, and eventually most of Ukraine passed to the rule of Poland and Lithuania. More particularly, the lands of Volynia in the north and north-west passed to the rule of Lithuanian princes, while the south-west passed to the control of Poland (Galicia) and Hungary (Zakarpattya).

Most of Ukraine bordered parts of Lithuania, and some say that the name, "Ukraine" comes from the local word for "border," although the name "Ukraine" was also used centuries earlier. Lithuania took control of the state of Volynia in northern and northwestern Ukraine, including the region around Kiev (Rus'), and the rulers of Lithuania then adopted the title of ruler of Rus'. Poland took control of the region of

Galicia. Following the union between Poland and Lithuania, Poles, Germans, Armenians and Jews migrated to the region.



After the Union of Lublin in 1569 and the formation of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth (a dualist monarchy of Poland and Lithuania) Ukraine fell under Polish administration, becoming part of the Crown of the Polish Kingdom. The period immediately following the creation of the Commonwealth saw a huge revitalisation in colonisation efforts. Many new cities and villages were founded. New schools spread the ideas of the Renaissance; Polish peasants

arrived in great numbers and quickly became mixed with the local population; during this time, most of Ukrainian nobles became polonised and converted to Catholicism, and while most Russian-speaking peasants remained within the Eastern Orthodox Church, social tension rose.

Ruthenian peasants (Ukrainians and some from other nations) who fled efforts to force them into serfdom came to be known as Cossacks and earned a reputation for their fierce martial spirit. In the mid-17th century, a Cossack military quasi-state, the **Zaporozhian Sich**, was established by the Dnieper Cossacks and the Ruthenian peasants fleeing Polish serfdom. Some Cossacks were hired by the Commonwealth (became 'register Cossacks') as soldiers to protect the southeastern borders of Poland from Tatars or took part in campaigns abroad (like Petro Konashevych-Sahaidachny in the battle of Khotyn 1621). The Cossacks eventually turned for protection to Orthodox Russia, a decision which would later lead towards the downfall of the Polish-Lithuanian state, and the preservation of the Orthodox Church and in Ukraine.

Topic 6. The National Liberation War in Ukraine



The 1648 Ukrainian Cossack rebellion and war of independence (The National Liberation War), which started an era known as the **Ruin**, undermined the foundations and stability of the Commonwealth.

The National Liberation War or Khmelnytsky

Uprising – was a Cossack rebellion in Ukraine in 1648–1657 which turned into a Ukrainian war of liberation from Poland. Under the command of Hetman **Bohdan Khmelnytsky**, the Zaporozhian Cossacks allied with the Crimean Tatars, and the local peasantry, fought several battles against the armies and paramilitary forces of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth.



The result was an eradication of the control of the Polish szlachta and their Jewish intermediaries, and the end of ecclesiastical jurisdiction for the Latin Rite Catholics over the country. The Uprising has taken on a

symbolic meaning in the story of Ukraine's relationship with Russia. It resulted in the incorporation of Ukraine into the Tsardom of Muscovy at the Pereiaslav Agreement, where the Cossacks swore an oath of allegiance to the tsar.

The nascent Cossack state, the Zaporozhian Sich (Host), usually viewed as precursor of Ukraine, found itself in a three-sided military and diplomatic rivalry with the Ottoman Turks, who controlled the Tatars to the south, the Commonwealth of Poland and Lithuania, and the rising Russia to the East.

The reconstituted Ukrainian state, having recently fought a bitter war with Poland, sought a treaty of protection with Russia in 1654. This agreement was known as the **Treaty of Pereyaslav**. Commonwealth authorities then sought compromise with the Ukrainian Cossack state by signing the Treaty of Hadiach in 1658, but —

after thirteen years of incessant warfare — the agreement was later superseded by 1667 Polish-Russian **Treaty of Andrusovo**, which divided Ukrainian territory between the Commonwealth and Russia. Under Russia, the Cossacks initially retained official autonomy in the **Hetmanate**. For a time, they also maintained a semi-independent republic in Zaporozhia, and a colony on the Russian frontier in Sloboda Ukraine.

After the period of initial military successes the state-building process began. His leadership was demonstrated in all areas of state-building: in the military, administration, finance, economics, and culture. With political acumen he made the Zaporozhian Host under the leadership of its hetman the supreme power in the new Ukrainian state, and unified all the spheres of Ukrainian society under his authority. Khmelnytsky built a new government system and developed military and civilian administration.

During this time a new generation of statesmen and military leaders came to the forefront: Ivan Vyhovsky, Pavlo Teteria, Danylo Nechai and Ivan Nechai, Ivan Bohun, Hryhoriy Hulyanytsky. From Cossack polkovnyks, officers, and military commanders, a new elite within the Cossack Hetman state was born. Throughout the years, this elite preserved and maintained the autonomy of the Cossack Hetmanate in the face of Russia's attempt to curb it. But it was also instrumental in the onset of the period of **Ruin** that followed and eventually destroyed most of the achievements of the Khmelnytsky era.

The Ruin is a period of Ukrainian history from the death of hetman Bohdan Khmelnytsky in 1657 and until ascension of hetman **Ivan Mazepa** in 1687. This period is characterised by continuous strife, civil war, and foreign intervention of Ukraine's neighbours.

Topic 7. Ukraine in the 18th century

Tsarist rule over central Ukraine gradually replaced 'protection' over the subsequent decades. After the Partitions of Poland in 1772, 1793 and 1795, the extreme west of Ukraine fell under the control of the Austrians, with the rest as part of the Russian Empire. As a result of Russo-Turkish Wars the Ottoman Empire's control receded from south-central Ukraine, while the rule of Hungary over the Transcarpathian region continued. It's also a period of liquidation of Ukrainian autonomy and Ukrainian State by Russian absolutism.

In the 18th century in Ukraine there were the following revolts:

- Haidamakas
- Oprishki
- Koliyivschyna (the peasant rebellion)

The haidamakas, also haidamaky or haidamaks, were paramilitary bands in 18th-century Ukraine. The haidamak movement was formed mostly of local Cossacks and peasantry (kozaky and holota), against the Polish nobility in right-bank Ukraine. The movement was not limited to the right bank only, and occasionally deteriorated to common robbery and murder, for example in the so-called Matsapura case in the Left Bank in 1734. The equivalent to haidamaka is opryshok in Ukrainian Galicia, and hajduk in the Balkans. Hajduk is also used in Polish language. The unrest against the nobility and the Catholics led to the haidamaka rebellions (haidamachchyna). There were three major uprisings, in 1734, 1750, and the largest - usually referred to as Koliyivschyna in 1768.

The first uprising came in the war for control of the Polish Kingdom in 1734 after the death of Frederick Augustus II. Russian troops, brought to remove King Stanisław I (Leszczyński), were initially seen as liberators from Poles and an insurrection developed in Kiev, spreading to Podolia and Volhynia. After Augustus III gained the throne, the insurrection was defeated by Russian military. Small raids

by haidamakas against Polish nobility continued in the following years under the leadership of Hnat Holy.

In 1750, another uprising occurred as the haidamakas continued to receive popular sympathy. Based in the lands of the Zaporozhian Cossacks, they moved into the south of the Kiev Palatinate, generating a near-complete rebellion by Right-Bank Ukraine. Although they captured a number of towns and areas, they were eventually crushed due to lack of organization.

In 1768, led by Zaporozhian Cossack **Maksym Zalizniak** and leader of the Uman Cossack paramilitary group Ivan Gonta, the peasants were initially successful in conquering much of the Kiev and Braclaw Voivodeships, as well as large chunks of Volhynia and Podolia. In captured territories the nobility, Ukrainian Catholics, Jesuits and the Jews were murdered en masse, which led to a quick response by the Polish army. By July of the same year the revolt was suppressed with Russian military assistance, though bloody repression against the Cossacks lasted for several years.

Koliyivshchina 1768-1769 was a Ukrainian Cossack and peasant rebellion against Poland, which was responsible for the murder of noblemen (szlachta), Jews, Uniates, and Catholic priests across the part of the country west of the Dnieper river. While this rebellion may have begun to with the aim of stopping social, national, and religious oppression of Ukrainians; it rapidly became a full-fledged campaign of ethnic cleansing aimed against Poles, Jews, and non-Orthodox Ukrainians. It was simultaneous to the Confederation of Bar and a de facto civil war in Poland (Poland had during the rule of king Augustus III an internal policy of imposition of Catholicism on non-Catholic population).

When the king Stanisław August Poniatowski, under the pressure of the Russian Crown, signed the document in which Orthodox was equated in rights with Catholicism, szlachta rebelled). It is unclear whether the hostilities were started by the Catholic or Orthodox paramilitary units. The peasant rebellion quickly gained momentum and spread over the territory from the right bank of the Dnieper River to the river Syan. At Uman it led to a massacre of legendary proportions. Poles, Jews

and Uniates were herded into their churches and synagogues and killed in cold blood. In three weeks of unbridled violence the rebels slaughtered over 20,000 people.

The leaders of the uprising were Cossacks Maksym Zalizniak and Ivan Gonta. The latter was a Registered Cossack who changed sides and joined Zalizniak at Uman while being sent by Polish Count Franciszek Salezy Potocki to protect it. Gonta was in fact a sotnyk (i.e. a commander of a unit of 100 sabers) of the Uman Regiment. The rebellion was suppressed by the joint forces of Polish and Russian armies. More recent evidence suggests that the actual number victims may have been 20,000, rather than the previously claimed 200,000. The rebellion was followed by reprisals by both Polish and Russian forces, with numerous hangings, decapitations, quarterings.

Topic 8. Ukrainian Lands under the Power of Russian and Australian Empires



The position of Ukrainians in the lands subject to the Austro-Hungarian Empire in the 19th century was not less complicated than of those in the territory of Eastern

Ukraine. The population of Eastern Halychyna, Northern Bukovyna and Transcarpathia (mainly peasants) suffered from economic oppression, social oppression and from ethno-national restraints. The expansion of the force of centralized authorities to these territories provided for the stabilization of economic relations between them. This also created conditions for their gradual evolution. By the mid-19th century, the Austro-Hungarian government was influenced by the revolutionary situation in Europe in 1848 and began reforms directed at improving agrarian relations in the country. In particular, the juridical dependence of peasants on the landlords was abolished and the plots of lands were allotted to them. This created conditions for the successive transformation of the peasantry in active political force.

In April 1848, Austria acquired the status of constitutional monarchy, but the declared democratic liberties and national equality of people often remained on paper. Constitutional-parliamentary management was restored only in the 1860s with the adoption of the December 1867 constitution, which guaranteed (at least formally) the equality of nationalities and languages. Separate regions of the empire such as Halychyna (Galicia) received the right of limited authority. The measures taken by the Austrian government favored the intensification of economic life in West Ukrainian lands, and their incorporation into the world system of trade relations. The agrarian reform of 1848 opened the path for complete reorganization of the agricultural branch in the land. As a result of splitting up the peasants' farms, by the end of the 19th century, a market of hired manpower that favoured the increase of profit in agricultural production was created. Further development of the enterprise industry was observed in the West Ukrainian lands.

In the 19th century, there were certain changes in the socio-political life of the region. The activation of the enlighteners' ideas and the furthering of the ideology of romanticism, which was caused by the rise of the liberation movement on the European continent and this favoured the intense processes of national renaissance. The first cultural-educational circles appeared in Peremyshl and Lviv. Interests in the history of the land, language and folklore considerably increased at this time.

However, the decisive part in the development of the national movement at that time belonged to the socio-cultural association “Ruska triitsia”. The motives of the liberation of the region were seen on the pages of publicists’ articles, almanacs, and school textbooks.

The revolutionary events of 1848–1849 had broad resonance in the West Ukrainian lands. The first Ukrainian political organization, the Chief Rus Council, appeared in Lviv in 1848. Its program documents were filled with ideas of autonomy, democracy, and reformation in different spheres of political and intellectual life of the region. Revolutionary events enlivened the Ukrainian national liberation movement in Northern Bukovyna (a series of rebellions headed by Lukian Kobylytsia) and in Transcarpathia.

The national movement was not stopped after the revolution was suppressed. The younger generations of the intelligentsia started founding their youth organizations and communities in Lviv, Berezhany, Peremyshl, Sambir, Ternopil, and Stanislav. The whole group of outstanding political figures of Ukraine came from the milieu of these young people: Ivan Franko, Mykola Pavlyk, Ostap Terletsky. Such political parties as the Rus-Ukrainian radical party, the Ukrainian Socio-Democratic Party, the Ukrainian National Democratic Party among others appeared in the region late in the 19th century.

The development of the national liberation movement in the Western Ukrainian lands was not isolated, but was in close relations with analogous processes in the Eastern Ukraine. There occurred the intense exchange of opinions, ideas, literature, and periodicals. The people of the Ukrainian territory that were separated by boundaries still thought of themselves as one nation.

Topic 9. Revolution and Civil War in Ukraine

In the 19th century Ukraine was a rural area largely ignored by Russia and Austria. With growing urbanization and modernization, and a cultural trend toward

nationalism inspired by romanticism, a Ukrainian intelligentsia committed to national rebirth and social justice emerged.

The serf-turned-national-poet Taras Shevchenko (1814–1861) and the political theorist Mykhailo Drahomanov (1841–1895) led the growing nationalist movement.

Nationalist and socialist parties developed in the late 19th century. Austrian Galicia, which enjoyed substantial political freedom under the relatively lenient rule of the Habsburgs, became the center of the nationalist movement. The Russian government responded to nationalism by placing severe restrictions on the Ukrainian language.

Ukraine entered World War I on the side of both the Central Powers, under Austria, and the Triple Entente, under Russia. 3.5 million Ukrainians fought with the Imperial Russian Army, while 250,000 fought for the Austro-Hungarian Army.

During the war, Austro-Hungarian authorities established the Ukrainian Legion to fight against the Russian Empire. This legion was the foundation of the Ukrainian Galician Army that fought against the Bolsheviks and Poles in the post World War I period (1919–23). Those suspected of the Russophile sentiments in Austria were treated harshly. Up to 5,000 supporters of the Russian Empire from Galicia were detained and placed in Austrian internment camps in Talerhof, Styria, and in a fortress at Terezín (now in the Czech Republic).

With the collapse of the Russian and Austrian empires following World War I and the Russian Revolution of 1917, a Ukrainian national movement for self-determination reemerged.

During 1917–20, several separate Ukrainian states briefly emerged: the Ukrainian People's Republic, the **Hetmanate**, the Directorate and the pro-Bolshevik Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic (or Soviet Ukraine) successively established territories in the former Russian Empire; while the West Ukrainian People's Republic and the Hutsul Republic emerged briefly in the former Austro-Hungarian territory. In the midst of Civil War, an anarchist movement called the Black Army led by Nestor Makhno also developed in Southern Ukraine.

However, with Western Ukraine's defeat in the Polish-Ukrainian War followed by the failure of the further Polish offensive that was repelled by the Bolsheviks. According to the Peace of Riga concluded between the Soviets and Poland, western Ukraine was officially incorporated into Poland who in turn recognised the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic in March 1919, that later became a founding member of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics or the Soviet Union in December 1922.



Topic 10. Soviet Ukraine



The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was a constitutionally socialist state that existed on the territory of most of the former Russian Empire in Eurasia between 1922 and 1991. The Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic or the Ukrainian SSR was a self-proclaimed partially recognized republic formed by the members of the Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party (RSDLP) some of whom were members of the Central Rada (Volodymyr Zatonsky, Georgy Pyatakov). Eventually it became one of the founding constituent republics of the Soviet Union from its formation in 1922 to its abolition in 1991 (with the Act of Declaration of Independence of Ukraine). In 1945 shortly following the Second World War, the Ukrainian SSR became one of the founding members of the United Nations.

The capital of Ukraine was officially moved to Kharkiv which became colloquially to be known as "The First Capital"

The civil war that eventually brought the Soviet government to power devastated Ukraine. It left over 1.5 million people dead and hundreds of thousands homeless. In addition, Soviet Ukraine had to face the famine of 1921. Seeing the exhausted society, the Soviet government remained very flexible during the 1920s. Thus under the aegis of the Ukrainization policy pursued by the national Communist leadership of Mykola Skrypnyk Soviet leadership encouraged a national renaissance in literature and the arts. The Ukrainian culture and language enjoyed a revival, as Ukrainisation became a local implementation of the Soviet-wide policy of Korenisation (literally indigenisation) policy. The Bolsheviks were also committed to introducing universal health care, education and social-security benefits, as well as the right to work and housing.

Women's rights were greatly increased through new laws aimed to wipe away centuries-old inequalities. Most of these policies were sharply reversed by the early 1930s after Joseph Stalin gradually consolidated power to become the de facto communist party leader.

The communists gave a privileged position to manual labor, the largest class in the cities, where Russians dominated. The typical worker was more attached to class identity than to ethnicity. Although there were incidents of ethnic friction among workers (in addition to Ukrainians and Russians there were significant numbers of Poles, Germans, Jews, and others in the Ukrainian workforce), industrial laborers had already adopted Russian culture and language to a significant extent. Workers whose ethnicity was Ukrainian were not attracted to campaigns of Ukrainianization or de-Russification in meaningful numbers, but remained loyal members of the Soviet working class. There was no significant antagonism between workers identifying themselves as Ukrainian or Russian. Starting from the late 1920s, Ukraine was involved in the Soviet industrialisation and the republic's industrial output quadrupled during the 1930s.

The **industrialisation** had a heavy cost for the peasantry, demographically a backbone of the Ukrainian nation. To satisfy the state's need for increased food supplies and to finance industrialisation, Stalin instituted a program of collectivisation of agriculture as the state combined the peasants' lands and animals into collective farms and enforced the policies by the regular troops and secret police. Those who resisted were arrested and deported and the increased production quotas were placed on the peasantry. The **collectivisation** had a devastating effect on agricultural productivity. As the members of the collective farms were not allowed to receive any grain until sometimes unrealistic quotas were met, starvation in the Soviet Union became more common. In 1932–33, millions starved to death in a famine known as **Holodomor** or "Great Famine". Scholars are divided as to whether this famine fits the definition of genocide, but the Ukrainian parliament and other countries recognise it as such.

Topic 11. Western Ukraine between World War I and World War II



By 1921 most of Ukraine had been taken over by the Soviet Union, while Galicia and Volhynia were incorporated into independent Poland. A powerful underground Ukrainian nationalist movement rose in

Poland in the 1920s and 1930s, led by the Ukrainian Military Organization and the **Organization of Ukrainian Nationalists (OUN)**.

The Organization of Ukrainian Nationalists (OUN) is a Ukrainian political organization which as a movement originally was created in 1929 in Western Ukraine (at the time interwar Poland). The OUN accepted violence as an acceptable tool in the fight against foreign and domestic enemies of their cause as revenge for the occupation of Ukraine by Poland and Russia. The OUN's stated immediate goal was to protect the Ukrainian population from repression and exploitation by Polish governing authorities in particular; its ultimate goal was an independent and unified Ukrainian state that would include Polish, Soviet, Romanian, and Czechoslovak territories. In 1940, the OUN split into two parts, with the older more moderate members supporting Andriy Melnyk (OUN-M) while the younger and more radical members supporting Stepan Bandera (OUN-B). The latter group came to control the nationalist movement in western Ukraine including the OUN's military wing, the Ukrainian Insurgent Army (UPA), which was the major Ukrainian armed resistance movement.

The movement attracted a militant following among students and harassed the Polish authorities. Legal Ukrainian parties, the Ukrainian Catholic Church, an active press, and a business sector also flourished in Poland. Economic conditions improved in the 1920s, but the region suffered from the Great Depression in the 1930s.

Topic 12. Ukraine in World War II

World War II, or the Second World War (often abbreviated as WWII or WW2), was a global military conflict lasting from 1939 to 1945, which involved most of the world's nations, including all of the great powers: eventually forming two opposing military alliances, the Allies and the Axis. It was the most widespread war in history, with more than 100 million military personnel mobilised.

Great Patriotic War (Вели́кая Оте́чественная война́) is used in Russia and some other states of the former Soviet Union to describe the portion of World War II

from June 22, 1941, to May 9, 1945, against Nazi Germany and its allies in the Eastern Front.

Following the Invasion of Poland in September 1939, German and Soviet troops divided the territory of Poland. Thus, Eastern Galicia and Volhynia with their Ukrainian population became reunited with the rest of Ukraine. The unification that Ukraine achieved for the first time in its history was a decisive event in the history of the nation.

After France surrendered to Germany, Romania ceded Bessarabia and northern Bukovina to Soviet demands. The Ukrainian SSR incorporated northern and southern districts of Bessarabia, the northern Bukovina, and the Soviet-occupied Hertsa region. But it ceded the western part of the Moldavian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic to the newly created Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic. All these territorial gains were internationally recognized by the Paris peace treaties of 1947.

German armies invaded the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941, thereby initiating four straight years of incessant total war. The Axis allies initially advanced against desperate but unsuccessful efforts of the Red Army. In the encirclement battle of Kiev, the city was acclaimed as a "Hero City", for the fierce resistance by the Red Army and by the local population. More than 600,000 Soviet soldiers (or one quarter of the Western Front) were killed or taken captive there.

Although the wide majority of Ukrainians fought alongside the Red Army and Soviet resistance, some elements of the Ukrainian nationalist underground created an anti-Soviet nationalist formation in Galicia, the Ukrainian Insurgent Army (1942) that at times engaged the Nazi forces and continued to fight the USSR in the years after the war. Using guerilla war tactics, the insurgents targeted for assassination and terror those who they perceived as representing, or cooperating at any level with, the Soviet state. At the same time another nationalist movement fought alongside the Nazis. In total, the number of ethnic Ukrainians that fought in the ranks of the Soviet Army is estimated from 4.5 million to 7 million.

The pro-Soviet partisan guerilla resistance in Ukraine is estimated to number at 47,800 from the start of occupation to 500,000 at its peak in 1944; with about 50

percent of them being ethnic Ukrainians. Generally, the Ukrainian Insurgent Army's figures are very undependable, ranging anywhere from 15,000 to as much as 100,000 fighters.

Initially, the Germans were even received as liberators by some western Ukrainians, who had only joined the Soviet Union in 1939. However, brutal German rule in the occupied territories eventually turned its supporters against the occupation. Nazi administrators of conquered Soviet territories made little attempt to exploit the population of Ukrainian territories' dissatisfaction with Stalinist political and economic policies. Instead, the Nazis preserved the collective-farm system, systematically carried out genocidal policies against Jews, deported others to work in Germany, and began a systematic depopulation of Ukraine to prepare it for German colonisation, which included a food blockade on Kiev.

The vast majority of the fighting in World War II took place on the Eastern Front, and Nazi Germany suffered 93 percent of all casualties there. The total losses inflicted upon the Ukrainian population during the war are estimated between 5 and 8 million, including over half a million Jews killed by the Einsatzgruppen, sometimes with the help of local collaborators. Of the estimated 8.7 million Soviet troops who fell in battle against the Nazis, 1.4 million were ethnic Ukrainians. So to this day, Victory Day (9 May) is celebrated as one of ten Ukrainian national holidays.

Topic 13. Soviet Ukraine after the World War II

After World War II some amendments to the Constitution of the Ukrainian SSR were accepted, which allowed it to act as a separate subject of international law in some cases and to a certain extent, remaining a part of the Soviet Union at the same time. In particular, these amendments allowed the Ukrainian SSR to become one of founding members of the United Nations (UN) together with the Soviet Union and the Byelorussian SSR. This was part of a deal with the United States to ensure a degree of balance in the General Assembly, which, the USSR opined, was unbalanced in favor of the Western Bloc. In its capacity as a member of the UN, the

Ukrainian SSR was an elected member of the United Nations Security Council in 1948–1949 and 1984–1985.

Over the next decades, the Ukrainian republic not only surpassed pre-war levels of industry and production but also was the spearhead of Soviet power. Ukraine became the centre of Soviet arms industry and high-tech research. The republic was also turned into a Soviet military outpost in **the cold war**, a territory crowded by military bases packed with the most up-to-date weapons systems. Such an important role resulted in a major influence of the local elite.

Many members of the Soviet leadership came from Ukraine, most notably Nikita Khrushchev and Leonid Brezhnev a Soviet leader from 1964 to 1982, as well as many prominent Soviet sportsmen, scientists and artists.

In 1954, the Russian-populated oblast of Crimea was transferred from the Russian to the Ukrainian Soviet Republic. However, the relatively underdeveloped industrial branches such as coal- and iron ore mining, metallurgy, chemical and energy industry dominated the republic's economy.

Once a Cossack steppe, the southern oblasts of Dnipropetrovsk and Zaporizhzhia were turned into a highly industrialised area with rapidly increasing impact on its environment and public health. A pursuit to energy production sufficient for growing industry led to the gigantic nature-remastering: turning the Dnieper River into a regulated system of large reservoirs.

The products of the rapidly developed high-tech industry in Ukraine were largely directed for military consumption, similarly to much of the Soviet economy, and the supply and quality of consumer goods remained low compared even to the neighboring countries of the Eastern bloc. A state-regulated system of production and consumption lead to gradual decrease of quality of life and growing “shadowisation” of retail infrastructure as well as of corruption.

The town of Pripjat, Ukraine was the site of the Chernobyl disaster, which occurred on April 26, 1986 when a nuclear plant exploded. The fallout contaminated large areas of northern Ukraine and even parts of Belarus. This spurred on a local

independence movement called the Rukh that helped expedite the break-up of the Soviet Union during the late 1980s.

Topic 14. Independent Ukraine

Ukraine officially declared itself an independent state on August 24, 1991, when the communist Supreme Soviet (parliament) of Ukraine proclaimed that Ukraine will no longer follow the laws of USSR and only the laws of Ukraine, de facto declaring Ukraine's independence from the Soviet Union.

The president of Ukraine is Viktor Yanukovich. His key priorities at the post of



President of Ukraine are strengthening Ukraine as a democratic state governed by the supremacy of law, human rights and freedom of speech; improving the system of public governance, fighting corruption and shadow economy; carrying out systematic reforms in all spheres of public life; building strong national economy through efficient model of investment and innovative development of Ukraine as a powerful state; sustainable economic growth aimed at higher employment rate, increasing wages

and pensions; price and currency exchange stability; bringing in European standards of living and social benefits; radical improvement of quality and duration of life for restoring human potential of Ukraine; providing citizens with affordable housing, high-quality medical services; opening broad access of talented youth to new knowledge; contracting out the Armed Forces of Ukraine; ensuring transparency and good-neighborly relations in foreign politics, Ukraine's non-block status; Ukraine's European integration; strategic partnership with Russia, the United States and EU.

Ukrainian History: Chronological Table

9th Century

The Establishment of the Kyivan-Rus Empire

10th Century

The Establishment of the Kyivan-Rus Empire (cont.)

11th Century

Period of the decline of Kyivan Rus. Formation of new state centers on the territory of Kyivan Rus

12th Century

Formation of new state centers on the territory of Kyivan Rus (cont.)

13th Century

Era of the Halychyna-Volyn Empire

14th Century

Era of the Halychyna-Volyn Empire (cont.) Struggle for the heritage of the Halychyna-Volyn Empire.

15th Century

Era of the Principality of Lithuania.

16th Century

Era of the Principality of Lithuania (cont.). Cultural-National movements; Growth of Kozakdom

17th Century

Era of Religious Struggles, Strengthening of Kozak-dom. The Kozak-Hetman era.

18th Century

The Kozak-Hetman era. Liquidation of autonomous Ukraine. First settlements of the area around the Black Sea.

19th Century

Renaissance of National Statehood - Settlement of the steppes of Ukraine; Industrialization of Ukraine.

20th Century

Renaissance of National Statehood. Period of Soviet Ukraine.

<i>Year/Century</i>	<i>Event</i>
839	Mention of Rus' in the Bertynsky chronicles associated with the mission to Ludwig I of the Frankish kingdom.
840	Magyars and khazars attacking Kyiv.
853	Askold becomes Kyiv's Prince.
877	Novgorod's Prince Oleh annexes Kyiv, kills Askold and brings the capital of Rus' from Novgorod to Kyiv.
890	Pechenegs advancing to Black Sea steppe. Ugrians (Hungarians) move to Danube.
907-911	Prince Oleh travels to Byzantine's capital Constantinopol (Ukrainian "Czarhorod") with a big army and demands an annuity to Kyiv.
945	Prince Ihor signs a treaty with Byzantine Empire - ready to accept Orthodox Christianity.
957	Princess Olha (Ihor's wife) becomes a ruler of Kyiv.

960-972	Svyatoslav (Olha's son) becomes a Prince of Kyiv. He confrontates with Khazars, then attacks Bulgaria and fights with Byzantine Empire. At the time Svjatoslav is in the offensive on Bulgaria, Khazars attack Kyiv. He returns but gets killed in a skirmish with Pechenegs.
980	Volodymyr The Great becomes a Prince.
988	Official Christianization of Kyiv Rus'. Volodymyr accepts Orthodoxy and marries Byzantine Princess Anna.
1015	Death of Volodymyr The Great. Sons are struggling to rule the country until 1019.
1019	Yaroslav The Wise - one of Volodymyr's sons becomes a Prince.
1027	Construction of Svyata Sofia (St. Sophia) Cathedral.
1054	Death of Prince Yaroslav.
1068	Polovtsi army attack Kyiv state for the first time.
1098 - 1099	Magyars attack Halychyna.
1111	Kyiv Princes conquer Polovtsi.
1113	Volodymyr Monomakh - the last of great princes of Kyiv.
1152	Yaroslav Osmomysl becomes a Prince of Halychyna.
1155 - 1157	Suzdal (Russian) Prince Yuriy Dovgoruky (founder of Moscow) attacks Kyiv and becomes a prince for a short period of time.
1155 - 1169	Destruction of Kyiv by Andrey Bogoliubsky, the Vldimir-Suzdal prince
1187	The word Ukraine (Ukrayina) first used to describe Kyiv and Halychyna lands.
1223	Ukrainians first battle Tatars in a battle near Kalko River in treaty with Polovetz - Tatars win.
1238	Danylo Halytsky becomes a Prince of Halychyna. Next year he unites Halychyna with Kyiv.
1240	Tatars capture Kyiv.
1256	Lviv is founded by King Lev.
1320	Yuriy becomes a King of Halychyna.
1330	Yuriy marries Lithuanian Princess, daughter of Gedymin.
1360s	Lithuanian Prince Olgerd frees Kyivschyna and Podillya from Tatars. They fell under Lithuanian control.
1378	Last Halychyna King Volodyslav dies.
1387 - XVIII century	Poland rules Halychyna.
1414	Prince Fedir Koryatovych of Mukachevo.
1475 - 1774	Crimea (Krym) under Turkish (Osman) Empire's rule.
1490	First mentioning of cossacks (kozaks).
1550	Dmytro Vyshnyvetsky establishes a fortress of Zaporizhzhya (Zaporizhia).
1569	Lyublinska Uniya (Lublin Union) - All Ukrainian territory under Lithuanian rule (except Polissia and Beresteyshchyna) transfers to Poland.
1576	Foundation of Ostroh Academy - first University-like school in Eastern Europe.
1590	First Kozak uprisings (Kostynsky, Mazyvako).
1596	Union of Brest (Beresti) - beginning of religious struggles.
1608	Fall of Ostroh Academy.
1610 - 1622	Het'man Sahaydachny is a het'man (the arch) of Zaporizka Sich.
1630	Kozak uprising against Poland.
1637	Petro Mohyla establishes a Collegium in Kyiv.
1648	Beginning of liberation of Ukraine from Polish rule headed by kozak het'man Bohdan Khmelnytsky
1654	Bohdan Khmel'nytsky signs Pereyaslav treaty with Muscovy
1657	Swedish-Ukrainian coalition against Russia.
1663	Two het'mans in Ukraine. Het'man of the Left bank of Dnipro - in coalition with Russia; het'man from right bank - against Russia.
1665 - 1676	Het'man Petro Doroshenko.

1670	Establishment of Russian control under the right-bank kozaks.
1685	Kyiv Orthodox Church Metropolitan (Patriarkhat) becomes a division of Muscovite Metropolitan.
1687 - 1709	Het'man Ivan Mazepa - period of palingenecy of Kozak state.
1708	Treaty had been signed between Ukraine and Sweden.
1709	Battle in Poltava (Ukraine). Russians defeat Swedish-Ukrainian army and execute Kozak troops after the surrender of Swede army
1709	Death of Ivan Mazepa.
1710	Pylyp Orlyk becomes a het'man.
1720	Russians prohibit the use of Ukrainian language - still preferred by Ukrainians.
1722 - 1727	First het'man of Ukraine appointed by Russian Czar.
1734	Het'man Danylo Apostol's uprising on the Right Bank (Haydamaky).
1744	Construction of St. George Cathedral in Lviv.
1745	Oleksa Dovbush - legendary Ukrainian hero.
1764	Abolition of Zaporizhzhya Het'manate (Zapiriz'ka Sich).
1765	Slobodzhanschyna falls under Russian control.
1772	Russian, German and Austrian empires divide parts of Poland among themselves.(First division) Halychyna falls under Austrian control.
1775	Second division of Poland. Austria annexes Bukovyna
1775	Zaporizka Sich destroyed by Russians.
1787	Russians rebuild a village of Kodak into a city and name it after queen Ekaterina II (Katerynoslav). During Ukrainian Republic of 1917 - 1920 the city was renamed into Sicheslav ("In Honour of Sich"). In 1924 communists gave it a present name - Dnipropetrovsk (Combination of words "Dniro" (main Ukrainian river) and "Petrovskij" (The last name of major of city, a Stalinist)).
1789	Establishment of Mykolayiv (Nikolayev)
1780	End of Het'manate.
1794	Establishment of Odesa (Odessa).
1793	Transfer of lands on the Right Bank to Russia from Poland excluding Halychyna, Bukovyna, Volyn and a part of Polissya, already annexed by Austria.
1798	Ivan Kotlyarevsky publishes "Eneyida".
1831	Repnev attempts to renew kozak army.
1840	Taras Shevchenko's first publication of "Kobzar", probably the most popular book in Ukrainian.
1861	First railroad on Ukrainian territory (Peremyshl - Lviv).
1861	Abolition of slavery in Russia.
1863	Ukrainian language is officially prohibited to use by Russian government.
1890	First Ukrainian Political Party (Halytska)
1905	Annulment of restrictions on the usage of Ukrainian language in Russian empire.
1917	Revolution in Russia. Ukrainian writer and historian Mykhaylo Hrushevsky becomes the president of newly proclaimed Ukrainian state (Ukrayinska Narodna Respublika). The power of the new government is very weak, Russian czarists, communists and Germans try to conquer Ukraine again. Symon Petlyura becomes a commanders of Ukrainian armed forces. President signs a treaty with Germans, but it was annulled in 1919 in Brest, Belorussia, where Germany signed a treaty with Communist Russia. Ukrainian lands are united after Western Ukrainian Republic and Ukrainian republic unite.
1918	Austrian empire breaks up. Newly established West-Ukrainian Republic is annexed by Czechoslovakia and Romania.
1921	Formation of Soviet Socialist Republic of Ukraine.
1929	Collectivization starts. All lands that belonged to Ukrainian farmers are taken away and put into a large "kolhosps" (co-operative farms.) People, who didn't want to give their land away are arrested and murdered.
1933-1934	Artificial Famine in Ukraine, caused by Stalin's policy. At least three million people die in result.
1939-1940	Annexation of Western Ukraine by Soviet Union according to a secret treaty with Nazi Germany.

1941-1944	German occupation of Ukraine. Ukrainian Insurgent Army (UPA). SS Division "Galizien".
1943-1944	Russians return. Massive immigration to the west (England, France, Canada, USA.)
1945-1947	Discrimination and murders of Ukrainian population in Poland by Polish army and police.
1945-1955	Continued fight for liberation of Ukraine in the western regions.
1950's	Illegal anti-communist literature begins to appear.
1986	Nuclear reactor explosion in Chernobyl, Ukraine.
1980's	National movement for the liberation of Ukraine "Rukh" is formed.
1990	Human chain protests for Ukrainian independence.
1990	Ukrainian sovereignty is proclaimed.
1991	Ukrainian independence is proclaimed. Elections of Parliament (Verkhovna Rada) and the President Leonid Kravchuk.
1994	Ukraine signs an treaty with NATO
1996	Constitution is proclaimed.