

all members of the Romanoff family, because they were allied to the house of Rurik, and troubled his dreams of sovereignty. The head of this house was compelled to become a monk; his son, however, was destined to ascend the throne. A famine broke out in 1601, which Boris was unsparing in his efforts to allay. In the midst of all this suffering a rumour spread that Dmitri, the youngest son of Ivan the Terrible, was not dead.

One day in the year 1603 Prince Adam Wisniowiecki, of Bragin in Lithuania, happening to be very angry with a servant, struck him and used an insulting epithet. The young man, with tears in his eyes, said, "If you knew who I am, you would not treat me so nor call me by that name." "Who then are you, and whence do you come?" replied the astonished prince. "I am the prince Dmitri, son of Ivan Vasilievich." He then recounted a well-concocted tale of his miraculous escape from the assassin whom Boris had employed. This was his physician, who feigned compliance with the usurper's designs, but only to frustrate them. On the night appointed for the murder, the man, whose name was Simon, put the son of a serf into his young master's bed (who was accordingly killed), and immediately fled with Dmitri from Uglich. He was then committed to the care of a loyal gentleman, who thought it better for the sake of protection that he should enter a monastery. This gentleman and the physician were dead, but in confirmation of his story the false Dmitri exhibited a seal, bearing the arms and name of the prince, and a golden cross set with jewels which he said was the baptismal gift of his godfather, Prince Ivan Mstislavski. Wisniowiecki believed his tale. There were also other supposed signs.¹ The Polish nobles thronged around the young man, whose manners, as we read in the case of Perkin Warbeck, seemed to bear out his pretensions. Meanwhile Dmitri remained in Poland, enjoying all the lavish attentions of the Polish nobility. Boris was soon made acquainted with his appearance on the scene, and offered the brothers Wisniowiecki money and lands if they would surrender the impostor to him. Without, however, replying to these overtures, they removed him into the interior of Poland, and he was received with royal honours by George Mniszek, the palatine of Sandomir. Here he is said to have entered into a secret understanding with the Jesuits to bring over Russia to the Latin faith, on condition of being supported by the papal nuncio.² The pretender privately abjured the Greek faith, and signed a contract of marriage with Marina, the youngest daughter of Mniszek, by which he settled upon her the towns of Novgorod and Pskoff, and engaged to pay her father a million of florins as soon as he had ascended the throne. Afterwards he executed another treaty ceding Smolensk and the surrounding territory to Mniszek and

¹ The present writer doubts the genuineness of this claimant; many authors, however, some of them contemporaries, were convinced that he was the real son of Ivan, and among these the first place must be assigned to the French mercenary captain Margeret, whose intimate relations with the man point him out as a valuable authority. This clever adventurer had entered the Russian service in the time of Boris Godunoff, and was a witness of the whole struggle. At first he led the troops of the latter against Dmitri, but when the pretender had established his authority he accepted a post in his service. He has given us an interesting portrait of Dmitri, of whom he speaks very favourably, in his work on Russia published at Paris in 1669.

² According to some authors, the whole plot had been concocted by the Jesuits for this purpose. For the contrary view, however, see *Rome et Démétrius d'après des documents nouveaux avec pièces justificatives et facsimile*, by Père Pierling, S. J., Paris, 1878. Gerard Müller tells us that the pretender "conversed in Latin and Polish with fluency;" if this had been the case his knowledge of the former would be easily explained by his Jesuitical training. Margeret, however, denies it altogether. "Il est très certain qu'il ne parloit nullement Latin, j'en puis témoigner, moins le scavoit-il lire et écrire" (p. 163).

the king of Poland. These proceedings were not likely to recommend him to his Russian subjects. For the present they were concealed, and Dmitri publicly professed the Greek ritual. Soon after this Sigismund of Poland saluted him as czar of Moscow, and assigned him a pension of 40,000 florins. All this time Boris affected to regard the pretender with contempt, and issued a manifesto setting forth that his real name was Grishka (or Gregory) Otrepieff, a renegade monk. Whether this individual was really the man who personated Dmitri, the son of Ivan, cannot be known for certain; but it seems very probable. Karamzin has adopted this view. Boris soon issued a proclamation against him, calling him an apostate monk, who wished to introduce the Latin heresy into Russia, and to build Romish churches in the Orthodox land. Dmitri entered that country on the 31st of October 1604, and marched on Moravsk in Tchernigoff. He met with uninterrupted success, large numbers joining his expedition, and the authorities of the chief towns on his route offering him bread and salt till he came to Novgorod Severski on the 23d of November. This well-fortified place was defended by Basmanoff, a veteran captain, with five hundred streltzi. On the arrival of the pretender he was summoned to capitulate, but, standing on the ramparts with a lighted match, he replied: "The grand-prince and czar is at Moscow; as for your Dmitri he is a robber, who shall be impaled, along with his accomplices." After three months the invaders abandoned the siege, but they had the good fortune soon afterwards to seize a large sum of money which Boris was sending to some of the towns. Shortly after this the important fortresses of Putivl, Sievsk, and Voronezh surrendered to Dmitri. Boris was too ill to go in person against the impostor; he, however, raised an army of fifty thousand men. A great battle took place near Novgorod, and the supporters of the czar would have suffered a most ignominious defeat had it not been for Basmanoff. This captain was recalled to Moscow and loaded with honours by Boris, who, from motives not very evident, unless he had begun to have suspicions of his fidelity, detained him in the city, and committed the care of the new army which he had formed to Shuiski, who was probably only half-hearted in his cause. A great battle took place on the 2d of January 1605, on the plain of Dobrinichi, not far from Orel; here Dmitri was defeated, chiefly through the bravery of the foreign legion. He would have been captured had it not been for the fidelity of his Cossack infantry—for at this time the Cossacks were subject to Poland—who were killed to a man, and probably not a fugitive would have reached Sievsk had not Shuiski acted with duplicity. Meanwhile, the pretender rode as fast as his horse would carry him to Putivl, a strong town on the frontier, from which he could easily beat a retreat into Poland. The followers of Boris remained at Dobrinichi, putting to death their prisoners. The conduct of Shuiski showed with what apathy he viewed the cause of his master; he soon drew off his troops into winter quarters, alleging that nothing more could be done that season, and also wasted time before Kromi, an insignificant place. Meanwhile Dmitri corrupted some of the chief generals of Boris. An attempt to poison him soon afterwards failed, and the pretender sent a message to Boris, recommending him to descend from the throne which he had usurped. But the days of the latter were numbered. On the 13th of April 1605 he presided as usual at the council-board, and received some distinguished foreigners. A grand banquet was given, but suddenly after dinner he was seized with illness; blood burst from his nose, ears, and mouth, and in the brief period before his death, according to the Russian custom, the dress of a monk was thrust upon him, and he was

consecrated under the name of *Bogolep* ("acceptable to God"). He expired in the fifty-third year of his age, after a reign of six years. Whether he committed suicide or was poisoned cannot now be ascertained; his death could hardly have been natural. Boris was a man of great energy of character, with views singularly in advance of his age. In some respects he anticipated the plans of Peter the Great; thus he caused several young Russians to be sent abroad to be educated, some of whom came to England. By a ukaze, however, binding the peasant to the soil, he began the system which reduced him by degrees to a condition of abject serfdom.

Boris had left a sufficient number of partisans at Moscow to proclaim his son Feodor, a youth of sixteen, and all classes took the oath of allegiance to him. Shuiski and Mstislavski returned to Moscow to assist the young czar in the government. Basmanoff was sent to take the command of the army, but, probably feeling the cause of Feodor to be desperate, on the 7th of May he proclaimed Dmitri. He was now ordered to march on the capital. Feodor, however, and his adherents still held the Kremlin with a large garrison. Accordingly it was resolved to make an attempt on Krasnoe Selo, a large town near Moscow, where many wealthy merchants resided. This was easily taken, whereupon many of its citizens marched to Moscow, and convoking the people called upon them to acknowledge Dmitri as their sovereign. Feodor and his mother were murdered, and buried in a cemetery outside the city walls, whither also the remains of Boris were carried, for they were not allowed sepulture among the tombs of the czars. Petreius, the Swedish envoy, who has left us an interesting account of these times, tells us that the rumour was circulated that these unhappy people had poisoned themselves, but he himself saw their bodies, and the marks on their necks of the cords with which they had been strangled. According to some authorities, Xenia, the daughter of Boris, described as beautiful by the old Russian chronicler Kubasoff, was forced to retire into a convent, but Petreius declares that she was compelled to become the mistress of the conqueror. The usurper now hearing that every obstacle was removed, marched upon the capital, which he entered on June 20, 1605. We have not space to detail the splendours of his retinue, nor the ceremonies and feastings which attended his arrival. He acted at first with prudence and conciliation towards his new subjects, and even promised to pay the debts of his father Ivan. He received his mother with transports of joy; she professed to identify him, although she afterwards denied that he was her son. She was probably, however, glad enough to get out of the convent into which she had been thrust by Boris. But Dmitri soon gave offence on account of his neglect of Russian etiquette and superstitious observances. It was plain that he held the Greek Orthodox religion very cheap, and his subjects could see that he had a propensity for the Latin heresy. In the following year Marina Mniszek, his bride, made her appearance in Moscow, and the marriage took place on the 18th of May. It was followed by continued banquets. But a rebellion broke out on the 29th, at the head of which was Vasilii Shuiski, whom Dmitri had spared when about to be executed. The czar, hearing a noise in the night, and finding himself surrounded by enemies, opened a window 30 feet from the ground, leapt down, and broke his leg. He was soon afterwards found and killed. Basmanoff was slain while attempting to defend his master. The corpse of the impostor was afterwards burned. Marina was not killed, although there was a great massacre of the Poles in every quarter of Moscow; she and the ladies of her suite were kept as prisoners. Thus ended this remarkable

episode of Russian history. The whole period has been aptly termed by the national historians "the Period of Troubles" (*Smutnoye Vremya*).

The boiars, on being convoked after the murder of Dmitri, elected Vasilii Ivanovich Shuiski for their sovereign, but he found himself in every way disadvantageously situated, without an army and without money. He was, moreover, troubled by an announcement which gained credence among the people that Dmitri was not really dead. To put an end to these rumours, Shuiski entirely changing his policy, and contradicting his previous assertions, sent to Uglich for the body of the unfortunate prince, and caused him to be canonized. Two subsequent impostors, who gave themselves out to be Dmitri, were taken and executed. To complete the misfortunes of Russia, the country was invaded by the Poles in 1609, who laid siege to Smolensk. Shuiski was defeated at Klushino (a village situated to the north-east of Moscow), was taken prisoner, and was set free, to become a monk,—a favourite way of treating troublesome persons in Russia. He was afterwards delivered over to Sigismund, who kept him in prison during the rest of his life. The crown was finally offered to Ladislaus, the son of Sigismund, who in reality for two years was sovereign of Russia, and caused money to be coined in his name at Moscow. Everything seemed to portend the ruin of the country, when it was saved by the bravery of Minin, the butcher of Nijni-Novgorod, who roused the citizens to arms by his patriotic appeal, and was joined by Prince Pozharski. The latter took the command of the army; the administrative department was handed over to the former. The brave prince succeeded in driving the Poles from Russia. In 1612 the boiars resolved to elect a new czar, but they did not actually meet till 1613, and many debates ensued. The sufferings of the country had been great; a considerable part of the city of Moscow (with the exception of the Kremlin and the churches built of stone) was laid in ashes. The treasury was plundered, and its contents sent to Poland. Among other things Olearius, the traveller of the 17th century, quaintly adds, "the Russians lost the horn of a unicorn of great value, set with precious stones," which was also carried off to Poland; and he tells us that even up to his time the Muscovites bitterly regretted that they had been robbed of it. Princes Mstislavski and Pozharski refused the crown, and finally the name of Michael Romanoff, a youth of sixteen, was put forward as a candidate, chiefly on account of the virtues of his father Philarete. The Romanoffs were connected on the female side with the house of Rurik, Anastasia Romanova having been the first wife of Ivan the Terrible. Before being allowed to ascend the throne, the youthful sovereign, according to some authors, took a constitutional oath. The condition of the country all this time was most critical; large portions of its territory were in the hands of the Swedes and Poles, and the villages were plundered by wandering bands of Cossacks. Ladislaus the son of Sigismund had not yet renounced the title of czar; in 1617 he appeared with an invading army under the walls of Moscow, but was repulsed, and on December 1, 1618, consented to abandon his claims, and conclude an armistice for fourteen years. In 1617 a treaty had been made at Stolbovo, a town near Lake Ladoga, by which the Russians had been compelled to give up a large portion of their territory to the Swedes. Philarete, the father of Michael, who had been for some time imprisoned at Warsaw, was now allowed to return; he entered Moscow in 1619, and was elected patriarch, an office which had been vacant since the death of Hermogenes. Michael associated his father with himself in his power; all ukazes

Michael Romanoff

were published in their joint names; the patriarch held a separate court, and always sat at the right hand of the sovereign. The patriarchate was suppressed in 1721 by Peter the Great, who had formed the idea of making himself head of the church from what he saw in England and other Protestant countries. The reign of Michael was not very eventful; he employed it wisely in ameliorating the condition of the country, which had recently suffered so much, and in improving the condition of his army. Foreigners began to visit the country in great numbers, and Russia was gradually opening itself to Western civilization. Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden induced the czar to sign a treaty offensive and defensive, and a Swedish ambassador appeared at the Russian court. The sufferings which had been inflicted upon them by the Poles made the Russians eager to join an alliance which was directed against the Roman Catholic religion. In 1629 a French ambassador appeared at Moscow. Dutch and German artisans were taken into the Russian service to assist in the iron-foundries, with special view to the manufacture of cannon. The country swarmed with English merchants who had obtained valuable privileges. Scottish adventurers were to be met with in the Russian army in great numbers. We find them as early as the reign of Ivan the Terrible, to judge from Horsey's *Diary*. The false Demetrius, like Louis XI, had a Scottish guard. In Russian documents we find the names of Carmichaels, Hamiltons (frequently in the corrupted Russified form of Khomutoff), Bruces, Gordons, and Dalziels. From Scottish settlers in Russia sprang the celebrated poet Lermontoff, the first two syllables of whose name fully show his Caledonian origin.

The following are the leading events of the reign of Alexis, who succeeded to the throne on the death of his father Michael in 1645. (1) First comes his codification of the Russian laws (called *Uloshenie*), which was based on the preceding codes of Ivans III. and IV. By the order of the czar, a commission of ecclesiastical and lay members was appointed to examine the existing laws, and make any necessary additions, or to adapt to present needs any which had become obsolete. The work was chiefly carried on by Princes Odoievski and Volkonski, with the assistance of two secretaries. They were engaged over it two months and a half, and the original code is still preserved in the Oruzhennia Palata at Moscow. Ustrialoff boasts that, by recognizing the equality of all men in the eyes of the law, it anticipated a principle which was not generally acknowledged in western Europe till the 18th century. This doctrine, however, may be considered as only a natural consequence of autocracy. We are told that Alexis allowed access to all petitioners, and at his favourite village of Kolomenskoe, opposite his bed-room window, was placed a tin box; as soon as the czar rose and appeared at the window the suppliants came forward with their complaints, and, making an obeisance, placed them in the box, which was afterwards taken to him. (2) The second great event of his reign was the incorporation of the Ukraine and country of the Cossacks with Russia. For a description of the causes of this war, see POLAND. (3) By the treaty of Andruszowo the Russians gained Smolensk, Tchernigoff, and finally Kieff, the Dnieper being the new boundary, and thus the towns which had been taken by the Lithuanians and annexed to Poland by the treaty of Lublin (1569) became Russian again. The only other events of the reign of Alexis of any importance are the great riot at Moscow, on account of the depreciation of the coinage in 1648, and the rebellion of Stenka Razin, a Cossack. The riot is fully described in the interesting letter of an eyewitness which is preserved in the Ashmolean Collection at Oxford. Razin devastated the country round the Volga, and continued his

depredations for three years. Alexis, however, captured him, and pardoned him on condition of his taking the oath of allegiance. He soon, however, broke out into rebellion again, and proclaimed himself the enemy of the nobles, and the restorer of the liberty of the people. By various artifices he succeeded in alluring two hundred thousand men to his standard. Astrakhan was surrendered to him, and he ruled from Nijni-Novgorod to Kazan. He was, however, like Pugatcheff in the reign of Catherine II, a vulgar robber and nothing more. His atrocities disgusted the more respectable of his adherents; his forces were gradually dispersed, and in 1671 he was taken to Moscow and executed. The czar Alexis died in 1676 in his forty-eighth year. One of the most eminent men of his reign was Ordin-Nastchokin, who negotiated the peace of Andruszowo. Alexis was a man of broad views, and made many efforts to raise Russia to the level of a European power, by sending competent men as ambassadors to foreign parts, and developing the trade of the country. In these respects he resembled Boris Godunoff. Altogether his reign was one of distinct progress for Russia.

He was succeeded by his eldest son Feodor, by his first wife Maria Miloslavskaia. Feodor (1676-1682) was a prince of weak health, and his reign was uneventful. A notable occurrence was the destruction of the *rozriadnie knigi*, or books of pedigrees. According to the *miestnichestvo* no man could take any office which was inferior to any which his ancestors had held, or could be subordinate to any man who reckoned fewer ancestors than himself. Feodor, however, finding to what interminable quarrels these pedigrees gave rise, both at court and in the camp, hit upon a bold plan, said to have been suggested by his minister Vasilii Golitzin. He caused all the families to deliver their pedigrees into court that they might be examined, under pretext of ridding them of any errors which might have crept in. The nobles were convoked; and the czar, assisted by the clergy, caused their books to be burned before their eyes.

On the death of Feodor, there seemed every probability that the empire would fall into a complete state of anarchy. The czar Alexis had been twice married: his first wife Maria Miloslavskaia bore him two sons, Feodor and Ivan, and several daughters; his second, Natalia Narishkina, was the mother of Peter and a daughter Natalia. The court was rent by the rival factions of the Miloslavskis and the Narishkins. Ivan was even more infirm than Feodor and the Narishkins strove to bring it about that he should be set aside and Peter should be elected. Sophia, however, the daughter of Alexis by his first wife, was a woman of singular energy of character, the more remarkable on account of the little attention paid to the education of women in Russia and the cloistered and spiritless lives they were compelled to lead. According to some accounts she was a woman altogether wanting in personal attractions. Perry, however, the engineer employed by Peter the Great, speaks of her as good-looking. But the position of the women of the imperial family was even worse than that of the generality; they were not allowed to marry subjects, and in consequence the majority of them led a life of enforced celibacy. Sophia was the favourite daughter of her father, and was assiduous in her attentions to him during his last illness. One of her brothers being an imbecile and the other a child, she hoped to wield the sceptre. She fomented a revolt of the streltzi, and, instigated by her harangues, they murdered some of the family and partisans of the Narishkins. Not content with slaying one of the czarina's brothers at the beginning of the rebellion, they afterwards dragged another from his hiding-place and cut him to pieces.

The result of all these disturbances was that Ivan and

Peter were declared joint-sovereigns, and Sophia was to be regent during their minority. She appointed Vasilii Golitzin to be commander-in-chief of the forces. He marched against the Mongols of the Crimea, but owing to the length of the journey and sufferings of the troops was able to effect but little. In 1689 Peter married Eudokia Lopukhina; but the union was by no means a happy one. Two sons were born to Peter, Alexander and Alexis; the first lived six months only, the latter survived to make a sad figure in Russian history. Next we have another revolt of the streltzi, said to have been instigated by Sophia and Golitzin. It is even alleged that the object of this conspiracy was to put Peter to death. His cause, however, prevailed, and the rebels were punished with great severity. Golitzin's life was spared, but all his property was taken from him. Sophia was now permanently incarcerated in a convent under the name of Susanna, where she remained till her death fifteen years afterwards, at the age of forty-six. Thus from 1689 dates the actual rule of Peter. His brother Ivan, infirm both in body and mind, had but little share in the government; his faculties both of sight and speech are said to have been very imperfect. He took a wife, however, and had three daughters, concerning one of whom, at least, we have much more to hear. Ivan led a retired life, and died in 1696 at the age of thirty.

Want of space compels us to deal here only with the leading facts of the reign of Peter the Great (1689-1725); for more minute details the reader must consult the special article (vol. xviii. p. 698). The great object of the new czar was to give Russia ports in some other direction than the White Sea, constantly blocked with ice. He had already trained an army which was officered by foreigners in his pay. The Turks were the first objects of his attack. At first he was unsuccessful in his attempt to get possession of Azoff at the mouth of the Don,—partly on account of the treason of the Dutch engineer Jansen, who, in consequence of some slight put upon him, went over to the enemy. In 1696, however, he took the fort and soon afterwards made his triumphant entry into Moscow. In the following year Peter, accompanied by Lefort and Generals Golovin and Vosnitzin, set out on his travels. For some time he worked at the docks of Saardam in Holland, and then he went to England, where he remained three months. The story of his stay at Deptford is too well known to need description here. He left England, taking with him a great number of ingenious men, who were appointed to teach the arts to the barbarous Russians. He was getting ready to go to Venice when he heard of the great revolt of the streltzi. Before his arrival their insurrection had been quelled by Gordon and others, and many of them lay in prison awaiting the sentences to be given by Peter. When he reached Moscow, a series of terrible executions took place, which have been described with only too much accuracy by some eyewitnesses, the chief being Korb, the secretary of the German embassy. In 1706 broke out the revolt of the Cossacks of the Don, and in 1709 that of Mazeppa, the hetman of the Little-Russian Cossacks, who eagerly joined Charles XII. in his struggle with Peter. As early as 1700 the Russian czar had carried on war with this last of the vikings, as he had been called. In that year Charles defeated Peter at the battle of Narva, but the latter, although humbled, was not disheartened. He gathered all his strength for another encounter. In the following year Sheremetreff defeated the Swedish general Schlippenbach in Livonia, and again in 1702. The great object of Peter was to gain possession of the Neva; this he attained, but the Russian arms were disgraced by many cruelties and robberies in the unfortunate Baltic provinces, which had already suffered so much in the wars of Ivan the Terrible.

Charles XII. now abandoned his attacks on the Polish king and invaded Russia. "I will treat with the czar at Moscow," he said. Peter replied, "My brother Charles wishes to play the part of Alexander, but he will not find me Darius." At Lesna the Swedish general Löwenhaupt fought a desperate battle with the Russians, in which, although nominally victorious, his losses were terrible. On June 15 (N.S.) was fought the battle of Poltava, which resulted in the complete defeat of Charles. He had brought it on by his recklessness, and, it may be added, complete ignorance of his duties as a general.

With the fall of Mazeppa and the coalition of the Little Russians in aid of Charles fell also the independence of the Cossacks and their *sech* or republic. They now became entirely dependent upon the Muscovite czar. The hetmanship, which had long been a mere empty title, lasted till the year 1789. In 1712 Peter married Martha Skavronska, a Livonian or Lithuanian peasant who had been taken prisoner at the siege of Marienburg in 1702. But little is known of her previous history; she received the name of Catherine on being baptized as a member of the Greek Church. Peter had previously divorced his wife Eudokia, who was distasteful to him on account of her sympathies with the conservative party in Russia. He now set about his great plan of civilizing the country on the model of the nations of the West. In this he was assisted by many foreigners in his pay. He abolished the patriarchate, probably from dislike of its great power, based nobility entirely upon service either civil or military, and divided the merchants into guilds, but left serfdom still existing in Russia, or perhaps we may say with truth even augmented it, by doing away with the privileges which the *odnodvortzi* and *polovniki* had and confounding all in a common category of serfdom. His attempt to introduce primogeniture into Russia did not succeed. He put an end to the Oriental seclusion of women and the Oriental dress of men; for the beard and long caftan were substituted the cleanly-shaved face and the dress in vogue in the West. He abolished also the *pravozhe* or public flagellation of defaulting debtors. The army was completely remodelled on the European system. During the exile of Charles XII. at Bender Peter drove Stanislaus Leszczyński out of Poland, and Augustus II. re-entered Warsaw. Peter conquered Esthonia and Livonia. He was not able to annex Courland, which was a feudatory of Poland, but he negotiated a marriage between the duke and his niece Anna, daughter of the late czar Ivan, who was afterwards empress. A foolish expedition undertaken against Turkey was not successful. Peter found himself but ill-supported by the inhabitants through whose territory he marched, and was compelled to sign the treaty of the Pruth in 1711, whereby he gave back Azoff, one of his most valuable conquests, to the Turks. The story of his having been rescued by the dexterity of Catherine seems to lack confirmation; under any circumstances, he shortly afterwards acknowledged her as his wife. In May 1713 Peter gained some fresh victories over the Swedes. In 1717 he made another European tour, visiting, among other places, Paris. On this occasion he was accompanied by his wife; concerning both strange stories were told, but perhaps we must be cautious how we receive too credulously, as Carlyle has done, the malicious gossip of the margravine of Baireuth. In 1721, by the treaty of Nystad with Sweden, Peter was left master of Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, and part of Finland. He had begun building St Petersburg, "the window by which Russia looks" at Europe, as early as 1703.

In 1722 we find Peter descending the Volga from Nijni to Astrakhan, and gaining some important points on that river. Previous to this had occurred the sad death

of his son Alexis, in which it must be said with sorrow Peter seemed lost to all the feelings of a father. Alexis had undoubtedly given him great cause for dislike by identifying himself in every way with the retrogressive party. The unfortunate young man probably died under the infliction of torture. In 1721 Peter promulgated the celebrated ukaze (afterwards abrogated by Paul) that the sovereign had the right of naming his successor. On January 28, 1725, the great reformer was dead. An attempt to estimate his character has been made in the separate article assigned to him.

On the death of Peter the country was divided into two factions. The old reactionary party, the Golitzins, Dolgorukis, and others, were eager to proclaim Peter the son of Alexis, but those who had identified themselves with the reforms of the late sovereign were anxious that Catherine his widow, who had been crowned empress, should succeed. Menshikoff, the favourite of the late czar, who is said when a boy to have sold cakes in the streets of Moscow, became all-powerful at this period, and the reforms of Peter continued to be carried out. Catherine died in 1727; she appears to have been an indolent, good-natured woman, with but little capacity for government, and accordingly, throughout her short reign, was entirely controlled by others. She designated as her successor Peter the son of Alexis, and, in default of Peter and his issue, Anna, who had married the duke of Holstein, and Elizabeth, her daughters. The regency was exercised by a council consisting of the two daughters, the duke of Holstein, Menshikoff, and seven or eight of the chief dignitaries of the empire. Menshikoff was still all-important; he had obtained from Catherine her consent to a marriage between his daughter and the youthful czar. But his authority was gradually undermined by the Dolgorukis. The favourite of Peter the Great was first banished to his estates, and afterwards to Berezoff in Siberia, where he died in 1729. The Dolgorukis were now in the ascendancy, and the czar was betrothed to Natalia, one of that family. He showed every inclination to undo his grandfather's work, and the court was removed to Moscow. Soon afterwards, however, in January 1730, the young prince died of small-pox. His last words as he lay on his death-bed were, "Get ready the sledge; I want to go to my sister,"—alluding to the Princess Natalia, the other child of Alexis, who had died three years previously. The only foreign event of importance in this reign was the attempt of Maurice of Saxony to get possession of Courland, by marrying the duchess Anna, then a widow. She consented to the union, and the states of the province elected him, but Menshikoff sent a body of troops who forced him to quit it. On the death of Peter at the age of fifteen, various claimants of the throne were put forward. The great czar had left two daughters, Elizabeth, and Anna, duchess of Holstein, who had a son, afterwards Peter III. Two daughters were also surviving of his eldest brother Ivan, Anna, the duchess of Courland, and Catherine, duchess of Mecklenburg. Alexis Dolgoruki even had an idea of claiming the crown for his daughter, because she had been betrothed to the young emperor. This proposal, however, was treated with derision, and the High Secret Council resolved to call to the throne Anna of Courland, thinking that, as she was so much more remote by birth than the daughters of Peter, she would more willingly submit to their terms. In fact, they had prepared for her signature something like the *pacta conventa* of Poland. The following were the terms:—(1) the High Council was always to be composed of eight members, to be renewed by co-option, and the czarina must consult it on state affairs; (2) without its consent she could neither make peace nor declare war, could not impose any tax,

alienate any crown lands, or appoint to any office above that of a colonel; (3) she could not cause to be condemned or executed any member of the nobility, nor confiscate the goods of any noble before he had a regular trial; (4) she could not marry nor choose a successor without the consent of the council. In case she broke any of these stipulations she was to forfeit the crown (see Rambaud, p. 425). Anna assented to these terms and made her entry into Moscow, which was now to be the capital. But the empress was soon informed how universally unpopular these *pacta conventa* were, which in reality put Russia into the hands of a few powerful families, chiefly the Dolgorukis and Golitzins. She accordingly convened her supporters, and publicly tore the document to pieces, and thus ended the last attempt to give Russia a constitution. The new empress was a cold, repulsive woman, whose temper had been soured by indignities endured in her youth; she took vengeance upon her opponents, and threw herself almost entirely into the hands of German advisers, especially Biren, a Courlander of low origin. This is the period called by the Russians the *Bironovstchina*. The country was now thoroughly exploited by the Germans; some of the leading Russians were executed, and others banished to Siberia. Among the former was the able minister Volinski, beheaded with two others in 1740. He had fallen under the wrath of the implacable Biren. One of the most important enactments of this reign was the abolition of the right of primogeniture introduced by Peter the Great, which had never been popular in the country. On the crown of Poland falling vacant in 1733, an attempt was again made to place Stanislaus Leszczyński on the throne, but it failed through the opposition of Russia, and Stanislaus escaped with difficulty from Dantzic. Upon this followed a war with Turkey, which lasted four years (1735–1739), in conjunction with Austria. This was not very successful, but the Russian generals gained possession of a few towns, and were indignant when the Austrians signed the treaty of Belgrade with the Turks (1739), and the campaign came to an end. In 1740 the empress Anna died; she had reigned exactly ten years. She left the crown to Ivan, the son of her niece Anna, daughter of her sister Catherine, duchess of Mecklenburg. During the minority of this child Biren was to be regent. By a *revolution de palais*, however, the German adventurer was hurled from power and sent to Pelim in Siberia. But matters did not rest here; taking advantage of the general unpopularity of the German faction, the partisans of Elizabeth, the daughter of Peter the Great, were resolved to work their overthrow, and place her upon the throne. They consisted of Alexander and Peter Shuvaloff, Michael Vorontzoff, Razumovski, Schwarz, and a French surgeon named Lestocq. Elizabeth ingratiated herself into the favour of the soldiers, by whom the name of Peter the Great was still so much cherished. Anna Leopoldovna, as she was called, her husband Anthony Ulrich, the infant emperor, Munich, Ostermann, and the whole German faction were arrested in the night, and Elizabeth ascended the throne. Ivan VI. was imprisoned in the fortress of Schlüsselburg; Anna, with her husband and children, was banished to Kholmogorî near Archangel, where she died in 1746. Ostermann was banished to Berezoff, and Munich to Pelim; they had both been previously sentenced to death. Biren and his family were now recalled and allowed to live at Yaroslavl. Elizabeth Petrovna (1741–1762) inaugurated the return of Russian influence in opposition to the Germans, from whom the country had suffered so much during the reign of Anna. The people were weary of them, yet they were, as we shall see, to have one German emperor more. On ascending the throne she summoned to her court the son of her sister

Anna and the duke of Holstein, who took the name of Peter Feodorovich on assuming the Greek religion, and was declared heir to the throne. In 1744 he married the Princess Sophia of Anhalt-Zerbst, who by her baptism in the Orthodox Church became Catherine. Thus the line of descent was secured to the direct heirs of Peter the Great. In 1743, the armies of Elizabeth having gained some victories over the Swedes, the treaty of Åbo was signed, by which Russia acquired the southern part of Finland, as far as the river Kiumen. The next event of importance is the war between Russia and Frederick the Great (1756–1762). In 1757 Apraksin crossed the frontier with 85,000 Russians, occupied Eastern Prussia, and defeated Lewald at Gross-Jägersdorf; but, instead of taking advantage of the victory, he soon afterwards retired behind the Niemen, having been tampered with by the grand-duchess Catherine and the chancellor Bestuzheff-Riumin. In 1758 Fermor, the Russian general, was completely defeated by Frederick at Zorndorf, but he was allowed to retreat without molestation. In 1759 Salikoff beat the Prussians at Paltzig, and in the same year Frederick was obliged to submit to a greater defeat at Künersdorf, where he lost eight thousand men and one hundred and seventy-two cannon. It was on the loss of this battle that he meditated committing suicide. In 1760 the Russians entered Berlin, where they committed great havoc and destruction. "We have to do," said Frederick, "with barbarians, who are digging the grave of humanity." In the following year they took Pomerania. The cause of Frederick seemed on the verge of ruin; he was saved by the death of Elizabeth in December 1761. The empress was an idle, superstitious woman of lax morals, who was greatly under the influence of favourites. Since the reign of Peter I. no successor had appeared worthy of him. Still Russia made more progress under Elizabeth than it had made under Anna. In 1755 the university of Moscow, the oldest in the country, was founded through the influence of Ivan Shuvaloff. Literature made great advances, as will be seen below.

Elizabeth was succeeded by her nephew Peter, son of her sister Anna and Charles Frederick, duke of Holstein-Gottorp. He was suspected of German leanings, but his first measures made him very popular. In February 1762 he published an ukaze by which the nobility were freed from the necessity of entering upon any state employment, and he abolished the secret chancery. On the other hand he acted in some matters injudiciously, and offended the prejudices of the Russians, as the false Demetrius had done a century and a half previously. He ridiculed some of the ceremonies of the Orthodox Church, and showed a fondness for the Lutheran. He introduced many German tactics into the army, and evinced a great preference for his German corps of Holsteiners. His personal habits were very coarse: he was constantly seen drunk. Moreover he sent out of the country many of the talented Frenchmen who had during the reign of Elizabeth been helping Russia to get rid of her barbarism. Frederick II. of Prussia, who was at his lowest depths after the battle of Künersdorf, now saw to his delight a complete change in the Russian policy. Peter was an ardent admirer of the Prussian sovereign; in order to ensure peace, Frederick would have ceded Eastern Prussia; but Peter dreamed of nothing of the kind; he restored all the Russian conquests and formed an alliance with him, offensive and defensive. He lived very unhappily with his wife Catherine, and meditated divorcing her and imprisoning her for the rest of her life in a convent. The condition in which she passed her time may be seen from her memoirs, first published by Herzen, the authenticity of which there seems to be no reason to doubt. She, however, quietly waited her time, and a conspiracy was concocted in which she was assisted by the

Orloffs, Potemkin, the princess Dashkoff, and others (see PETER III.). Leaving her residence at Peterhof, Catherine boldly put herself at the head of twenty thousand men. The miserable emperor abdicated without a struggle, and was soon afterwards secretly assassinated at Ropcha, near St Petersburg. Many of the details of this catastrophe are given in the interesting memoirs of the Princess Dashkoff, which were published by an English lady, Mrs W. Bradford, in 1840, having been taken down from her dictation. Thus had a German woman, by adroitly flattering the prejudices of the Russians, succeeded in making herself head of this vast empire. Two years afterwards Ivan VI., who is said to have become an idiot from his long confinement at Schlüsselburg, was murdered by his guards on account of the attempt of a certain Lieutenant Mirovich to set him free. Whether Mirovich was incited to this adventure by secret promises of the Government, so that there might be an excuse for the murder of Ivan, has never been clearly shown. He expiated his crime by public execution, and is said to have expected a reprieve till the last moment.

The Seven Years' War was now over, and the next great European complications were to be concerned with the partition of Poland, throughout the struggles of which country the Russians were constantly interfering; but for a fuller discussion of this subject the reader must be referred to the article POLAND. In 1767 Turkey, urged on by France, declared war against Russia; the object was to aid the Poles by creating a diversion. The Russian general Golitzin attacked the grand vizier, took the town of Khotin (1769), and in the following year Rumantzoff defeated the khan of the Crimea, the Turkish feudatory and ally, and in 1770 won the great victory of Kagul. In 1771 Dolgoruki overran the Crimea, and Alexis Orloff defeated the Turks in a naval engagement at Chesme, on the coast of Asia Minor. In their naval expeditions the Russians were at this time greatly assisted by the number of Englishmen in their service. In 1774 was signed the peace of Kutchuk-Kainardji, whereby the sultan acknowledged the independence of the Mongols of the Crimea. The Russians thus detached this province from the sultan's dominions, and after exercising a kind of protectorate over it added it to their own. He also ceded Azoff on the Don, Kinburn at the mouth of the Dniester, and all the fortified places of the Crimea. The Greeks, who had been induced to rise, were abandoned to the vengeance of the Turks.

In 1771 the plague broke out at Moscow, and many of the inhabitants perished. The archbishop Ambrose was massacred in a popular tumult, while endeavouring to carry out some measures which were necessary for the preservation of the public health. Soon afterwards occurred the rebellion of Pugatcheff, a Cossack of the Don, who declared himself to be the emperor Peter III. The czar, he alleged, had escaped from the hands of his would-be murderers, and would soon regain his throne. A large band of disaffected peasants and Raskolniks gathered round him, and he was joined by many of the Mongol races, who were inimical to the Russian rule. At first the generals sent against him were defeated. The rebel's path was everywhere marked with bloodshed and pillage; he even got possession of several towns, including Kazan. Had he been something more than a vulgar assassin he might have made Catherine tremble on her throne, but his cruelties estranged his more moderate followers. He was afterwards beaten by Bibikoff and others, and finally surrendered by his accomplices to Suwaroff. He was taken to Moscow in an iron cage and there publicly executed in 1775, together with four of his principal followers. In the same year the empress put an end to the republic, as it was called, of the Zaporogian Cossacks. A great codification of the laws took place under Catherine, which may be