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СОГЛАСОВАНО

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**ЭЛЕКТРОННЫЙ УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС
ПО УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ**

История белорусской государственности (на английском языке)

для студентов всех специальностей

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Перечень материалов

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3. Требования по оформлению реферата по учебной дисциплине «История белорусской государственности»

Пояснительная записка

Электронный учебно-методический комплекс (ЭУМК) по дисциплине «История белорусской государственности» предназначен для студентов всех специальностей Белорусского национального технического университета.

Цели ЭУМК:

1) предоставить иностранным студентам учебные материалы для подготовки к практическим занятиям и к экзамену по дисциплине «История белорусской государственности»;

2) дать знания об этапах развития белорусской государственности с целью:

- формирования способностей анализа процессов государственного строительства в разные исторические периоды,
- выявления факторов и механизмов исторических изменений,
- определения социально-политического значения исторических событий (личностей, артефактов и символов) для современной белорусской государственности,
- использования выявленных закономерностей при формировании гражданской идентичности;

3) выработать у студентов навыки осмысления событий и явлений действительности в тесной взаимосвязи прошлого и будущего для прогнозирования возможных последствий принимаемых решений;

4) сформировать у студентов обоснованной патриотической позиции, а также цельного представления о становлении белорусской государственности в IX–XXI вв. и эволюции системы государственного управления.

Особенности структурирования и подачи учебного материала

ЭУМК по учебной дисциплине «История белорусской государственности» структурирован следующим образом:

- теоретический раздел включает тексты 19 лекций по следующим темам: 1) Основные этапы развития белорусской государственности; 2) Основы государственного устройства Республики Беларусь; 3) Беларусь на стыке культур и цивилизаций;

- практический раздел включает планы семинарских занятий с вопросами к ним, темы рефератов;

- раздел контроля знаний содержит вопросы к экзамену, тестовые задания по 19 темам лекционного курса для самостоятельной проверки знаний;

- вспомогательный раздел состоит из программы дисциплины (содержание тем), списка основной и дополнительной литературы, а также рекомендаций по написанию реферата по дисциплине.

Рекомендации по организации работы с ЭУМК

Электронный учебно-методический комплекс содержит тексты лекций по трем основным темам курса: «Основные этапы развития белорусской государственности», «Основы государственного устройства Республики Беларусь», «Беларусь на стыке культур и цивилизаций». Все лекции структурированы по вопросам, имеют необходимые пояснения по предложенным темам дисциплины «История белорусской государственности», что делает возможным для студента детализировать и систематизировать полученные знания при подготовке к экзамену. ЭУМК призван способствовать более тщательной подготовке студентов к практическим занятиям, поскольку содержит план каждого семинара, тематику рефератов, исполнение которых поможет более глубоко изучить предлагаемую проблему. Во вспомогательном разделе содержится подробный перечень правил написания рефератов, навык выполнения которых максимально приблизят студентов к пониманию теоретических и практических принципов выполнения подобного вида работ. Материалы раздела контроля знаний помогут студентам оценить уровень своей подготовленности при ответе на вопросы к экзамену, а также посредством самостоятельного решения тестовых заданий, предлагаемых к каждой теме лекции.

Для удобства использования текстовой информации и быстрого перехода к нужной теме перечень материалов выполнен в форме электронного документа с гиперссылками.

Belarusian National Technical University
Faculty of Management Technologies and Humanitarization
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Acting Head of the Department

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_____ 2024

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_____ 2024

ELECTRONIC EDUCATIONAL AND METHODOLOGICAL COMPLEX
ACCORDING TO THE ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE

History of Belarusian statehood (in English)

for students of all specialties

Compiled by Andrey I. Bogdanovich

Reviewed and approved

at the meeting of the FTUG Council dated 27.05. 2024, Minutes No. 10

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Lecture 1.3. The Grand Duchy of Lithuania is a multiethnic feudal state of Eastern Europe

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Lecture 1.5. National-state construction in 1917 – 1941.

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Lecture 1.8. Stages of development of the independent Republic of Belarus

Topic 2. Fundamentals of the state structure of the Republic of Belarus

Lecture 2.1. The Constitution as the basic law of the state

Lecture 2.2. The President of the Republic of Belarus

Lecture 2.3. The Government as the highest executive authority

Lecture 2.4. Legislative and judicial branches of government

Lecture 2.5. Regions of Belarus

Lecture 2.6. Political parties and public associations

Topic 3. Belarus at the junction of cultures and civilizations

Lecture 3.1. Ethnogenesis of Belarusians and the origin of the name “Belarus”

Lecture 3.2. Peoples and Religions of Belarus

Lecture 3.3. State symbols of Belarus

Lecture 3.4. The socio-economic model of modern Belarus

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THE PRACTICAL SECTION. TOPICS OF SEMINARS CLASSES

Seminar 1. Creation of the first principality states on the territory of Belarus in the IX – XIII centuries and their place in the system of medieval international relations

Seminar 2. The Grand Duchy of Lithuania is a multiethnic feudal state of Eastern Europe

Seminar 3. Belarus as part of the Russian Empire

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KNOWLEDGE CONTROL SECTION

1. List of exam questions

2. Test tasks for the course of lectures

AUXILIARY SECTION

1. List of recommended literature for the course
2. The curriculum for the discipline “History of the Belarusian statehood”
3. Requirements for the preparation of an abstract on the academic discipline “History of the Belarusian statehood”

Explanatory_note

The electronic educational and methodological complex (EEMC) on the discipline “History of the Belarusian statehood” is intended for students of all specialties of the Belarusian National Technical University.

EEMC Goals:

- 1) provide students with educational materials to prepare for practical classes and for the exam in the discipline “History of the Belarusian statehood”;
- 2) to provide knowledge about the stages of development of the Belarusian statehood in order to:
 - formation of the ability to analyze the processes of state-building in different historical periods,
 - identification of factors and mechanisms of historical changes,
 - determining the socio-political significance of historical events (personalities, artifacts and symbols) for the modern Belarusian statehood,
 - using the identified patterns in the formation of civic identity;
- 3) to develop students’ skills of understanding events and phenomena of reality in the close relationship between the past and the future in order to predict the possible consequences of decisions made;
- 4) to form a well-founded patriotic position among students, as well as a solid understanding of the formation of the Belarusian statehood in the IX – XXI centuries and the evolution of the public administration system.

Features of structuring and presentation of educational material

The EEMC on the academic discipline “History of the Belarusian statehood” is structured as follows:

- The theoretical section includes the texts of 19 lectures on the following topics: 1) The main stages of the development of the Belarusian statehood; 2) The foundations of the state structure of the Republic of Belarus; 3) Belarus at the junction of cultures and civilizations;
- the practical section includes seminar lesson plans with questions to them, the topics of the essays;
- the knowledge control section contains exam questions, test tasks on 19 topics of the lecture course for self-examination of knowledge;
- The auxiliary section consists of the discipline program (content of topics), a list of basic and additional literature, as well as recommendations for writing an abstract on the discipline.

Recommendations for the organization of work with EEMC

The electronic educational and methodological complex contains lecture texts on three main topics of the course: “The main stages of the development of Belarusian statehood”, “Fundamentals of the state structure of the Republic of Belarus”, “Belarus at the junction of cultures and civilizations”. All lectures are structured according to the questions, have the necessary explanations on the

proposed topics of the discipline “History of the Belarusian statehood”, which makes it possible for the student to detail and systematize the knowledge gained in preparation for the exam. The EEMC is designed to facilitate more thorough preparation of students for practical classes, since it contains the plan of each seminar, the topics of the abstracts, the execution of which will help to study the proposed problem in more depth. The auxiliary section contains a detailed list of rules for writing essays, the skill of which will bring students as close as possible to understanding the theoretical and practical principles of performing this type of work. The materials of the knowledge control section will help students assess their level of preparedness when answering exam questions, as well as by independently solving test tasks offered for each topic of the lecture.

For the convenience of using text information and a quick transition to the desired topic, the list of materials is made in the form of an electronic document with hyperlinks.

THE THEORETICAL SECTION. A COURSE OF LECTURES
Topic 1. The main stages of the development of the Belarusian statehood

Lecture 1.1. Introduction to the academic discipline.

1. The characteristic features of the state as a political institution. Concepts of the origin of the State.
2. The stages of formation and development of the Belarusian statehood.
3. Sources on the history of the Belarusian statehood.

1. The characteristic features of the state as a political institution.
Concepts of the origin of the State.

The state as the main political institution

The term “state” was coined in the second half of the 16th century by Italian philosopher Nicolo Machiavelli. Before him, words such as “polis”, “principality”, “kingdom”, “republic”, “empire”, etc. were used to designate the state. By the word state, he understood any supreme power over a person. Modern political scientists understand the state as the main institution of the political system, created to organize the life of people not only to carry out the policy of the ruling classes, but also to ensure the interests of other social groups of the population.

The state consists of the legislative, executive and judicial powers. It also consists of the police, the army, and state media.

Attributes of the state. The state has the following attributes:

1. Separation of public authorities from society, the appearance of a special social group of professional managers.
2. Sovereignty, that is, supreme power in a certain territory.
3. A certain territory, i.e. the state is built on the basis of territorial and, usually, ethnic community of people.
4. Monopoly on the legal use of force, physical coercion, from restriction of freedom to the death penalty.
5. The monopoly right to issue laws and rule on the entire population.
6. The right to levy taxes and fees from the population.
7. Mandatory membership in the state, a person receives citizenship from the moment of birth.
8. The presence of a coat of arms, flag and anthem, that is, the hallmarks of the state.

The functions of the state are internal and external.

The main internal functions include:

1. Regulation of social life (conflict resolution);
2. Protection of public order;
3. Publication of laws;
4. Definition of the economic development strategy;
5. Protection of citizens’ rights and freedoms;
6. Providing social guarantees to its citizens;

7. Creating conditions for the development of science, culture, education;
8. Environmental protection activities.

External functions are aimed at ensuring the security, integrity and sovereignty of the state, protecting national interests in the international arena, international cooperation, solving global problems of human civilization, etc.

Forms of the state. The concept of “**form of state**” is divided into “**form of government**” and “**forms of state structure**”.

The **forms of government** are a monarchy or a republic.

The **forms of state structure** are a unitary state and a federation.

Monarchy (classical) is characterized by the fact that the power of the head of state – the monarch is inherited and is not considered to be derived from any other authority, body or voters. It is inevitably sacralized, because this is a condition for legitimizing the power of the monarch.

Monarchies can be absolute and parliamentary (constitutional) and dualistic.

Monarchies can be absolute, parliamentary (constitutional) and dualistic.

Absolute monarchy is characterized by the omnipotence of the head of state and the absence of a constitutional system. Initially, all states were absolute monarchies, but in our time, there are no such in the world, at least formally.

A monarchy is constitutional (parliamentary) if the monarch’s power does not extend to the sphere of legislation and is significantly limited in governance. Laws are passed by parliament, the monarch does not actually exercise the right of “veto” (in a number of countries and formally). The Government is formed on the basis of a parliamentary majority and is responsible to the Parliament. Under a parliamentary monarchy, the actual governance of the country is carried out by the Government. These are the monarchies in Belgium, Great Britain, Denmark, Spain, Luxembourg, Monaco, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden.

A dualistic monarchy is a cross between a constitutional and an absolute monarchy. Under the dualistic system, the monarch’s powers are limited in the sphere of legislation, but broad in the sphere of executive power. In addition, he retains control over the legislative power, since he is given the right of full veto over the decisions of the parliament and the right to its early dissolution (the monarchy in Saudi Arabia and a number of other Arab states).

Dictatorship. Absolute monarchy should not be confused with dictatorship. Despite the fact that dictatorship and absolute monarchy have similar features, they are still different things. Absolute monarchy exists according to the legislation of the country where it is adopted. Dictatorship arises in republics where the head of state concentrates all power in his hands, violating the laws of this republic. If absolute monarchy is the norm for the political system of the countries where it exists, then dictatorship is a consequence of a failure (anomaly) in the political system, of republics.

Republics. There are parliamentary and presidential republics.

In a parliamentary republic, the Government is formed by the Parliament, and it is responsible to the Parliament. The Parliament not only issues laws and distributes the budget, but also controls the activities of the government. The head of state appoints the government, but not at his discretion, but from among the representatives of the party that has the majority of seats in parliament. Censure by members of Parliament of ministers (that is, members of the Government) or the head of State himself entails their immediate resignation. A vote of no confidence in the Government by the Parliament entails either the resignation of the Government, or the dissolution of Parliament and the holding of early parliamentary elections. The head of state in a parliamentary republic is the chairman of the government – in different countries he is called differently Chancellor, Prime Minister, etc.

In some parliamentary republics, along with the actual head of state (Chancellor), there is the position of president. However, his powers, like those of a monarch under a parliamentary monarchy, are relatively small. The President is not directly elected by citizens, but by Parliament (Greece, etc.) or by an electoral college based on parliament (Germany, Italy, etc.).

In a presidential republic, the president has very great powers. He is both the head of state and the head of government. The post of Prime Minister is either absent or the Prime Minister does not have significant powers. The government is formed without the participation of Parliament, its members are appointed by the President. He does this either independently of parliament, or with the consent of the Senate (that is, the upper house of parliament), as, for example, in the USA. Ministers are responsible to the President. The Parliament has no right to express a vote of no confidence in the government, and the censure of ministers by the Parliament does not entail their automatic resignation. The head of state is elected independently of parliament: either by an electoral college elected by citizens (as in the USA), or by direct vote of citizens (as in France).

There is also something in between a parliamentary and a presidential republic – a **presidential-parliamentary republic**, where the powers of both parliament and the president are equal. Presidential-parliamentary republics are characteristic of a number of Latin American countries (Peru, Ecuador), it is also enshrined in the Constitution of 1993 in the Russian Federation and the constitutions of a number of CIS countries. In a presidential-parliamentary republic, the President is popularly elected, he can appoint and remove members of the government, but members of the government must have the confidence of parliament, but the president also has the right to dissolve parliament.

The forms of state structure is the political and legal status of its constituent parts and the principles of the relationship between the central (metropolitan) government and regional state bodies.

There are two main forms of government: unitary and federal.

A unitary state is a single state that is divided into administrative–territorial units that do not have political independence.

A federal State is a union state consisting of several state entities, each of which has its own competence and has its own system of legislative, executive and judicial bodies.

Previously, there was also such a form of state structure as a **confederation**. The difference between a confederation and a federation is that a federation presupposes the existence of a center authorized to make decisions on behalf of all members of the federation. The confederations did not have such a center.

Concepts of the origin of the State. There are the following concepts of state appearance: theological, patriarchal, theory of social contract, theory of conquest, Marxist-Leninist concept.

1. Theological – the state arose by the will of God.

2. Patriarchal (the author is an English scientist of the XVIII century. Robert Filmer) – the state arose as a result of the mechanical connection of clans into tribes, and tribes into large wholes, up to state entities.

3. The theory of social contract (authors Hugo Grotius, Thomas Hobbes, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Alexander Nikolaevich Radishchev) – the state is the result of a contract between a sovereign ruler and subjects.

4. The theory of conquest (authors Ludwig Gumplovich, Franz Oppenheimer, Karl Kautsky, Eugene During) – the state was an organization of winners over the defeated.

5. The Marxist-Leninist concept – the state arose as a result of the division of society into classes. According to Karl Marx and Vladimir Lenin, the state expresses the interests of the economically dominant class.

It is impossible to single out any one determining the cause of the appearance of the state. It is clear that the appearance of the state was influenced by a variety of conditions and factors.

2. Stages of formation and development of the Belarusian statehood.

The origins of the Belarusian statehood go back centuries. The first period of its formation and development was the IX – first half of the XIII century. This is the period of existence of early feudal principalities – Polotsk, Turov, partly Smolensk on the territory of Belarus.

The second period in the development of Belarusian statehood is associated with the creation and development of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania (XIII – XVI centuries) – a multi-ethnic state headed by the Baltic Slavonic dynasty and the ancient Belarusian state language. It was then that the Belarusian nationality was born.

The third period in the development of Belarusian statehood is the entry of Belarus into the Rzeczpospolita. In 1569, in Lublin, during the war between the Muscovite Kingdom and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, the Polish gentry obtained from the local nobility the signing of the union, thanks to which a new federal state Rzeczpospolita was created, in which Poland dominated. Since that moment, the processes of polonization of the Belarusian lands have been intensifying. In the

second half of the XVIII century the territory of Rzeczpospolita was divided between Russia, Prussia and Austria and this state ceased to exist.

The fourth period in the history of the Belarusian statehood is Belarus as part of the Russian Empire. Since the end of the XVIII century all Belarusian lands became part of the Russian Empire, which pursued a policy of Russification of the region, which in the conditions of the difficult social situation of the Belarusian people led to the appearance of the Belarusian national liberation movement. The Russian Empire ceased to exist as a result of the February revolution of 1917.

The fifth period in the history of Belarusian statehood began after the October Revolution of 1917 and ended in August 1991 when the USSR collapsed. It is characterized by the acceleration of the process of national-state self-determination of Belarus. Initially, the Belarusian People's Republic was created on March 25, 1918 – the Third Charter proclaimed its independence; however, this state existed in the zone of German occupation and was not recognized by the occupation authorities. By the end of 1918 The Bolshevik Belarusians obtained from the government of Soviet Russia the right to create a Belarusian Soviet Socialist Republic. It was proclaimed on January 1, 1919 (originally called the Soviet Socialist Republic of Belarus). It is with the BSSR that the development of Belarusian statehood is connected until the collapse of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in August 1991.

The sixth period in the history of the Belarusian statehood dates from August 1991 – July 1994. During this period, the Republic of Belarus was a parliamentary republic. From 1991 to 1994, there was a struggle between representatives of various ideologies, which provided for various options for the development of the Belarusian state. In this struggle, one can distinguish both supporters of the old Soviet system, a return to which was impossible, and supporters of the breakdown of the system of socialism for which society was not yet ready.

The seventh period in the history of the Belarusian statehood began in 1994 after the adoption of the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus by the Supreme Council on March 15, 1994. According to this constitution, Belarus has turned from a parliamentary republic into a presidential one. Despite the serious opposition of political forces in the conditions of economic transformation, the modern Belarusian state has not abandoned the positive experience of the Soviet years.

3. Sources on the history of the Belarusian statehood.

All sources on the history of the Belarusian statehood can be divided into several types: chronicles, memoir literature, monuments of business correspondence, legislative monuments, record keeping materials, periodicals.

Chronicles. The earliest extant chronicle is the "Tale of Bygone Years" written in Kiev in 1110. Later chronicles are The Laurentian chronicle, The Ipatiev Chronicle and The Radziwill Chronicle. There you can find the earliest information about the cities of Polotsk, Turov, Brest, Minsk, Drutsk, about the

settlement of the Eastern Slavs on the territory of Belarus, their economic activities, social system.

Chronicles related to the era of GDL. “Chronicle of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania and Zhamait” Barkulabovskaya Chronicle, Vitebsk Chronicle, Mogilev Chronicle.

Memoirs. Since the middle of the XVI century, the decline of chronicling began, due to the fact that at that time a number of new historical genres appeared, replacing the chronicles. The very first genre of historical works that supplanted chronicle writing is memoirs. Memoirs (from the French memoir – to remember) are sources based on the author’s memories of his life, historical events and contemporaries.

The first memoir on the territory of Belarus was the Historical Notes of the Novogrudok judge assistant Fyodor Mikhailovich Evlashovsky (1546 – 1619). Such memoirists as Samuel Maskevich Boguslav Matskevich, Jan Tsedrovsky, Martin Matushevich, Ilya Turchinovsky are also very famous.

Business correspondence. Business correspondence is also an important source for the study of HBS. A striking example of the business correspondence of the late GDL and early RP are the letters of Philon Kmita of Chernobyl, Orsha headman and Smolensk voivode to the King of Poland and the Grand Duke of Lithuania, as well as state officials of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. These letters (30 pieces) are official reports on the military and political situation on the eastern border of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania for 1567 – 1587.

Legislative monuments. Important sources on the history of the Belarusian statehood are Legislative monuments. The first extant collections of laws that operated on the territory of ancient Belarus was Russian Pravda (XI century). This type of sources includes the treaties of Russia with Byzantium from 907, 911 and 944.

The era of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania has left many legal acts. The most significant of them are the Statutes of 1529, 1566, 1588, the Judicial Code of Casimir IV of 1468, and the Charter of the Portage of 1557.

The most famous legal document of Rzeczpospolita in history remains the Constitution of May 3, 1791. It was a significant achievement for its time. Suffice it to say that this is the second constitution in the world (after the US Constitution) and the first in Europe. This is a rather controversial document that fully reflects the turbulent era in which it was adopted.

In the Russian Empire, purposeful and consistent work was carried out to systematize legislation. As a result, the “Complete Collection of Laws of the Russian Empire” and the “Code of Laws of the Russian Empire” were created. In addition, the emperors issued their own separate decrees, manifestos, decrees, circulars, which constantly supplemented the codes of laws. Since 1906, the State Duma and the State Council have been involved in lawmaking.

After the revolutions of 1917, there were decrees of the Soviet government, manifestos, resolutions of numerous congresses, declarations, which sometimes had the force of laws. The most important documents for the formation of

Belarusian statehood in the XX century are the Declaration of the All-Belarusian Congress of December 1917 and the Manifesto of the Temporary Workers' and Peasants' Soviet Government of Belarus, adopted on January 1, 1919.

Over time, Soviet legislation was systematized. In the history of the BSSR, four constitutions were adopted: 1919, 1927, 1937, 1978. The constitutional documents of the Soviet era also include the Declaration on State Sovereignty of the BSSR of July 27, 1990.

The modern legal system of the Republic of Belarus is based on the Constitution of March 15, 1994 with amendments and additions adopted at the republican referendums of November 24, 1996, October 17, 2004 and February 27, 2022.

Record keeping materials. Record keeping materials are also an important and necessary type of source for the discipline under study. By the XVI – XVIII centuries. include the “Lithuanian Metrics”, Seim resolutions (for example, “The Diary of the Lublin Seim of 1569”).

The epoch of the late XVIII – early XX century is represented by documents of state institutions, banks, private enterprises (example: documents of the “Committee for Western Provinces”).

Periodical printing. In the period of modern times of the history of Belarus, periodicals were of great importance. In accordance with the political position, it was divided into several groups: governmental (“Provincial Vedomosti”), conservative (“Diocesan Vedomosti”), democratic (“Minsk Litok”, “Nasha Niva”), etc.

The periodicals of the newest times are characterized by a huge variety of political spectrum and the dissemination of operational information about events in our country and abroad. The periodical press contains information about both the political, economic, social and cultural life of the population.

It is known from all these sources that Belarus has passed a long and difficult path in its development.

Lecture 1.2.

The first state formations on the territory of Belarus.

1. The Polotsk and Turov principalities are early feudal state formations on the Belarusian lands.
2. Belarusian lands during the period of feudal fragmentation.
3. The Baptisation of Rus' as a factor of civilizational choice.

1. The Polotsk and Turov principalities are early feudal state formations on the Belarusian lands.

Approximately in the VI – VIII centuries as a result of the “Great Migration of Peoples”, the Slavs, who previously lived in the south and southwest from Belarus, began moving north, settled the territory of modern Eastern Europe (Belarus, Ukraine, Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Russia, etc.) and divided into three large groups – Western (Poles Czechs Slovaks), southern (Serbs, Croats, Slovenes, Montenegrins, etc.), eastern (Belarusians Ukrainians Russians). Eastern Slavs settled on the territory of modern Belarus. The territory of Belarus was inhabited by three groups of East Slavic tribes – Dregovichi, Krivichi, Radimichi. Gradually, they began to form independent reigns.

The first state formations on the territory of Belarus are the Principalities of Polotsk and Turov.

The Polotsk Principality arose on the lands of the Krivichi. The first mention of Polotsk dates back to 862. The first chronicled knyaz is considered was Rogvolod, who ruled in Polotsk around 980. He also became the founder of the Rogvolodovich dynasty. In this time Polotsk, Novgorod and Kiev fought among themselves for the role of the center of the East Slavic lands. Knyaz Yaropolk of Kiev and Knyaz Vladimir of Novgorod wooed Rogvolod's daughter Rogneda to inherit Polotsk. Rogneda refused Vladimir, so he captured Polotsk, killed Rogvolod and his sons, and took Rogneda herself as his wife. It happened around 980. After that, Vladimir besieged Kiev, captured it and became the only knyaz in all of Kievan Rus. However, Polotsk's dependence on Kiev did not last long. Around 989, Rogneda and her son Izyaslav returned to Polotsk. Izyaslav was invited to reign in Polotsk, thus the independent Polotsk dynasty was restored. Izyaslav became known as very educated knyaz, he developed culture and Christianity.

After Izyaslav, his son Bryachislav (1001 – 1044) became knyaz. Bryachislav led an active struggle with Kiev and Novgorod. As a result of the battle on the Sudoma River in 1021, a peace was concluded between Kiev and Polotsk, according to which the cities of Vitebsk and Usvyaty retreated to the Polotsk principality.

After the death of Bryachislav, his son Vseslav, nicknamed the Magician (1044 – 1101), became knyaz. He, like his father, led an active struggle for the strengthening of the principality, for which he carried out campaigns on Novgorod and Pskov. However, the most famous battle during his reign was the battle with

Kievan knyazes Yaroslaviches (i.e. with the sons of Yaroslav the Wise) on the Nemiga River in 1067, which ended in a draw. After some time Vseslav was captured and ended up in a prison in Kiev. The knyaz did not have to sit there for long, since in 1068 The people of Kiev rebelled, freed Vseslav, elected him knyaz and put him on the Kiev throne. Vseslav was knyaz of Kiev for 7 months, and then returned to Polotsk, where he reigned until his death. He died in 1101. He had 6 sons, so the whole Polotsk Principality was divided into 6 parts. Since that time, a new period has begun in the Polotsk land – feudal fragmentation.

Another principality on the territory of Belarus is Turovskoye. It was formed on the lands of the Dregovichy. The first mention of it dates back to 980 . It, like the Principality of Polotsk, became dependent on Kiev. However, if Polotsk quickly regained its independence, then the Turov land was dependent on the Kiev knyazes for a long time. This is main peculiarity of the Turov's political system, there were two posts of tsysyatsky and posadnik. In the absence of the knyaz, tsysyatsky led the army, and the posadnik – the city civil authority. Only in 1157 . Knyaz Yuri Yaroslavich declared Turov's independence from Kiev. As a result, Turov was besieged by Kiev troops. The city withstood a 10-week siege, after which the Kiev knyaz recognized its independence. After the death of Yuri Yaroslavich in the second half of the XII century, feudal fragmentation also began in the Turov Principality – it was divided into several smaller principalities.

It was during the existence of the first state formations on the Belarusian lands that a new social system began to form, which is called feudalism.

It was at that time that a new social system began to form, which is called feudalism.

Feudalism is a relationship based on private ownership of land. The feudal lord is the owner of the land, the peasant is its user. The upper class were feudal lords, the lower class were peasants. The supreme owner of the land and the head of state was the Grand Knyaz. Boyars stood at a lower level of the social ladder, followed by vigilantes, they divided into senior and junior. According to the period of use of land, land ownership was divided into two types – patrimonial and estate. Patrimonial – when the land and all possessions were inherited. Estate – temporary, was given for military or public service only for the duration of its execution. In addition, land ownership differed by affiliation – it could belong to the knyaz boyars or the church

The lower strata of society were represented by peasants. Peasant communities were called “vervi”, and one peasant farm was called “dim” (smoke). All peasants were divided into 2 parts – free (people) and dependent (servants). The servants, in turn, are on the semi-dependent – smerds and ryadovich and completely dependent – serfs.

Knyaz and the vigilantes existed by collecting tribute from the population. Tribute is food, wax, furs, homespun cloth, etc. The process of collecting tribute was called Polyudye. The peculiarity of the economic structure of the Eastern Slavs was the simultaneous coexistence of 3 ways of life, communal, slave – owning and feudal economic systems.

At the same time, trade is also becoming increasingly important. This leads to the separation of the third social class, which exists only due to the occupation of crafts and trade, it is called burghers.

Craftspeople and merchants preferred to settle in cities because cities were the most convenient for their activities. The city was safe, as it had high walls and was usually built around the settlement where knyaz and the squad lived. It was populous, so it was a good place to sell handicrafts and merchants' goods.

Thus, the city was a commercial, cultural, religious, military, administrative center.

All the cities of the Middle Ages were arranged approximately the same. Each city consisted of the Detinets the central fortified area where the knyaz and the squad lived, the Posad – the area where craftspeople and merchants lived, the Torg – the main street of the city, which was also the city market, at the Torg there was cathedral the main church of the city.

With the spread of Christianity, the fourth strata of feudal society, the clergy, also appeared. Clergy are people who professionally organize religious events, priests of different levels. As a rule, the clergy was a privileged estate, like the feudal lords, they had huge land plots with peasants, although unlike the feudal lords, the land did not belong specifically to each priest, but to the entire institution of the church, and each priest received his part from the total income from church lands in accordance with his rank. That is, in the church, not land was distributed among the clergy, but income from land.

A feature of the East Slavic cities was the presence of a veche – a meeting of adult full-fledged citizens. The Veche is a democratic governing body of the city and the principality, which had great power, and greatly limited the power of the knyaz. The Veche could make the most important decisions in the life of the principality – invite or banish the knyaz, declare war and peace, etc.

At the same time, not only domestic, but also foreign trade is developing. Belarusian merchants traded in Byzantium, Western Europe, the Arab East, etc. The main export items were timber, furs, hemp (raw materials for making ropes). Imports – olive oil, silk fabrics, wines, spices, jewelry. Trade was carried out by waterways. The most famous of them is the way from the Varangians to the Greeks, this is the river route that connected the Baltic and Black Seas. On the territory of Belarus, it passed through the Western Dvina and the Dnieper, which were connected by voloch. A voloch is a place where they dragged ships from river to river on dry land.

2. The Belarusian lands during the period of feudal fragmentation.

In the XII century, a period called feudal fragmentation began on the lands of Belarus. This means that the former large principalities were divided into smaller parts, which were called “volosts”, “lands”, “specific principalities”. This period is also characterized by a large number of internecine wars – wars between volast lands and appanage principalities.

In the Polotsk Principality, fragmentation began at the beginning of the XII century. after the deaths of Vseslav the Magician. In Turov Principality – in the second half of the XII century, after the death of Yuri Yaroslavich.

The Principality of Polotsk was divided into 6 parts – Minsk, Polotsk, Vitebsk, Izyaslav, Logoisk, Drutsk. Initially, the most influential of them was Minsk, in which Vseslav's son Gleb became the knyaz. Gleb sought to expand the borders of his principality, which caused the discontent of the Kiev knyazes. He made assault to Slutsk, Drogichin, Smolensk lands, so the Kiev knyaz Vladimir Monomakh carried out a campaign against Gleb and in 1119 captured him, took to Kiev and put in prison where Gleb died. After that, the Principality of Minsk was no longer so influential.

After the capture of Gleb, the struggle unfolded around Polotsk. It was inherited by Vseslav's son David, but the Polochans drove him away and the Veche invited Boris to reign. The knyazes of Polotsk also continued the struggle with Kiev – first with Vladimir Monomakh, and then with his son Mstislav. Mstislav carried out several campaigns on the Polotsk land, and in 1129 he took all the Polotsk knyazes captive because they refused to take part in the campaign against Nomads and sent them into exile in Byzantium. After 10 years, only 2 of them returned. At this time, the role of the Veche in Polotsk is significantly increasing.

In the XIII century, the scattered lands of the Slavic principalities faced a new problem – an external threat from the Crusaders and Mongol-Tatars (Horde).

Crusaders are representatives of military monastic orders who carried out military campaigns in order to spread Christianity. In 1201, one of these orders (swordsmen) landed on the Baltic Sea coast and founded the fortress city of Riga. The Polotsk Principality was the first to face the crusaders, since the Polotsk knyazes at that time collected tribute from the Livs and had their fortresses in the Baltic States – Kukenois and Hercike. As soon as the Crusaders landed in the Baltic States, knyaz Vladimir of Polotsk carried out a campaign against them in 1203, on the fortresses of Ikskul and Golm, but unsuccessful. In response, the Crusaders began attacking fortresses belonging to Polotsk Kukenois and Hercika. The defense of Kukenois, led by knyaz Vyachko, lasted for a long time, but the fortress fell. As well as the Hercike led by Vsevolod.

Polotsk was forced to look for allies and found them in the face of Novgorod, which was threatened not only by the Crusaders, but also by the Swedes. At this time, the Order of the Swordsmen strengthened – it merged with the Teutonic and the Livonian was created (1237). The daughter of the knyaz of Polotsk married Alexander Nevsky and the Polotsk squads participated in the battle on the Neva River against the Swedes (1240), where the warrior Yakov-Polochanin distinguished himself, and on The Chudskoye lake against the Crusaders (1242).

Together with the Crusaders, who threatened from the north, the threat from the Mongol-Tatars arose from the south. The grandson of Genghis Khan – Batu in 1237 began a campaign of conquest against Kievan Rus. In 1240, he captured,

plundered and burned Kiev. And after that he founded his own state, which was called the Golden Horde, so the Mongol-Tatars are also called Horde. The Golden Horde imposed tribute on almost all the lands of Kievan Rus and this dependence of the lands of ancient Russia on the horde was called the Mongol-Tatar yoke. But the Belarusian lands did not pay tribute to the Horde and were not conquered by Batu or his descendants. The Tatars carried out only rare raids on the territory of Belarus. In the annals there is mention of only one such raid. It occurred in the winter of 1240 – 1241. Tatars walked through the southern cities of Belarus Brest, Pinsk, Drutsk, Slonim, Gomel.

3. The Baptisation of Rus as a factor of civilizational choice.

The adoption and spread of Christianity played an important role in the formation of statehood on our lands.

The Christian religion in Russia was preceded by paganism (from the Church Slavonic “pagans”, peoples, foreigners).

Paganism is polytheism, where each god represented either a natural phenomenon, or a type of economic activity, or human emotions. For example, Perun is the god of thunder and lightning, Veles is the god of the animal world and animal husbandry, Yarilo is the god of spring, Horse is the god of the sun, etc.

With the adoption of Christianity, significant changes have taken place in the spiritual and religious state of society. Everything pagan for Christianity has become synonymous with the diabolical and barbaric.

Unlike the Roman Empire, Christianity came to Ancient Rus from Byzantium in a ready-made form, with the Old and New Testaments, with the literature of the church fathers, with the cults of Christ and the Mother of God, with the Old Slavic language brought by the first missionaries from Byzantium. Despite the complexity of the formation of early Christianity in the Roman Empire, it nevertheless developed in the direction from the bottom to the top of society. In Slavic society, Christianity was introduced from above – from the elite to the people.

The first Orthodox church according to the Byzantine model was built in Kyiv in the 9th century. Probably around 955, the wife of the Kyiv knyaz Igor, knyazess Olga, was the first to convert to Christianity. And her grandson Vladimir Svyatoslavovich in 988 began the baptism of Rus'. The squad of knyaz drove the Kievites who came ashore into the river. When the inhabitants of Kyiv came out of the water, they received crosses and became Christians. From that time on, the old rituals were prohibited and new rituals were introduced, and places of pagan prayer were destroyed. After the destruction of paganism in Kyiv, it was necessary to defeat it in other lands. Greek and Bulgarian priests set off along the waterway from Kyiv on a mission of Christianization, and with them Dobrynya, knyaz Vladimir's uncle and his squad. Their route passed through the Principality of Polotsk to Novgorod. The first on their way was the city of Turov, where the missionaries faced resistance. The bloody baptism of the Turovites is explained by the legend about the red stones that floated down the river to the city. This event testifies to the massacre that Dobrynya brought upon the local pagans.

It is difficult to say when the first Christians appeared in the Polotsk land. According to legend, in the IX century. They've already been there. It is known that the lands of Belarus were located on the great waterway "from the Varangians to the Greeks", along which not only trade with Byzantium took place, but the Christian faith spread.

In the later chronicles about Knyaz Izyaslav Vladimirovich of Polotsk (989 – 1001), it was said that he read Christian books and was devout. It was reported about Rogneda that she spent the last years of her life in a monastery becoming a nun Anastasia.

It is not known exactly when territorial church districts – dioceses headed by a bishop – began to be created on Belarusian lands. It is believed that the Polotsk Orthodox diocese was created in 992, and the Turov diocese in 1005. In the middle of the 11th century. Polotsk St. Sophia Cathedral was built. The first mention of Polotsk Bishop Mina dates back to 1105, and in the 12th century. The first Polotsk monasteries appeared.

The adoption of Christianity in the Belarusian lands was of extremely important historical significance. It coincided in time with the establishment of statehood on our territory and, of course, had a positive impact on the course of this process.

Unlike paganism, the Christian faith in the one God Jesus Christ corresponded to the autocracy of the knyaz in the state and spiritually sanctified this power.

As a result of the adoption of Christianity, the authority of the Polotsk and Turov principalities increased significantly. Other Christian states began to consider them as equals.

The adoption of Christianity had significant socio-economic results for the Belarusian lands. Relations with Christian states, especially with Byzantium, contributed to the development of crafts and trade, primarily foreign. Church construction became widespread. The need for artisans and new types of crafts has increased significantly.

With the spread of Christianity, a class of clergy gradually formed, which consisted of the most educated and influential people. Acquaintance with Byzantine culture was a stimulus for the development of education, literature, art, and architecture. Schools were opened at churches and monasteries and books were copied. Stone construction began on Belarusian lands. Cathedrals, churches and monasteries were the most beautiful and sublime buildings. The decoration of these temples introduced believers to high art.

The morale of society also improved. With the adoption of Christianity, such manifestations of paganism as sacrifice (including human sacrifice), polygamy, blood feud, etc. disappeared.

The period under consideration was characterized by the formation of the first historical forms of statehood on the Belarusian lands. In general, state-forming processes in the X – XIII centuries on our lands were a natural phenomenon of the development of Eastern Europe. The main role in them was played by the cradle of

Belarusian statehood – the Principality of Polotsk, as well as other territories of modern Belarus, whose history of state formation is connected with Kievan Rus.

Lecture 1.3.

The Grand Duchy of Lithuania is a multi-ethnic feudal state of Eastern Europe

1. Causes and basic concepts of the occurrence of the GDL. Early history of the GDL.
2. Expansion of the territory of the GDL in the XIV–XV centuries. The unification of the Belarusian lands as part of the GDL.
3. The main directions of the foreign and domestic policy of the GDL in the late XIV – first half of the XVI centuries. The Kreva Union and the Westernization of socio-political institutions.
4. The Socio-political system of the GDL.
5. Reasons for the conclusion of the Union of Lublin in 1569. The situation of the Belarusian lands as part of Rzeczpospolita.
6. Features of the political system of Rzeczpospolita. “Gentry democracy”.
7. The political crisis of Rzeczpospolita, attempts at reforms in the second half of the XVIII century. Partitions of Rzeczpospolita.

1. Causes and basic concepts of the occurrence of the GDL. Early history of the GDL.

In the XIII century, a new state appeared on the political map of Europe – the Grand Duchy of Lithuania (the GDL). It was a multi-ethnic country, in the formation of which the East Slavic Christian population of the Belarusian lands and the Baltic heathen population of the Lithuanian lands took part.

The reasons for the formation of the GDL.

1. The need to organize defense against Crusader knights and Mongol-Tatars.
2. The need to overcome feudal fragmentation.
3. The separation of crafts from agriculture, the development of trade relations between different territories, which created the economic necessity of unification.

Among historians, there are three concepts of education the GDL.

1. *Lithuanian concept*. Its adherents believe that the formation of the GDL was the result of the internal development of the Baltic tribes. The East Slavic territories became part of the GDL by their capture by the Lithuanian **knyazes**. Therefore, the GDL is the Lithuanian state.

2. *The Belarusian concept*. Its adherents believe that GDL arose as a result of the annexation of the Baltic lands to the ancient Belarusian lands and, thus, this state can be considered Belarusian in nature.

3. A reconciling concept. In the process of its formation and until the middle of the XV century. The GDL was a Lithuanian-Belarusian state, and from the second half of the XV – XVI century. It becomes Belarusian-Lithuanian.

The process of formation the GDL began in the middle of the XIII century from the elevation of the Novogrudok Principality. This was facilitated by its remoteness from the area of the struggle against the Crusaders and Mongol-Tatars and the high level of development of agriculture, crafts and trade.

In 1235, the chronicle reports about the Lithuanian knyaz Mindovg (1235 – 1263), who, as a result of defeat in an internecine struggle, was forced to flee with the remnants of his squad from the territory of Lithuania to the Belarusian city of Novogrudok. The Veche of Novogrudok elected him its knyaz, and the Novogrudok home guard helped him regain power in Lithuania. Here in Novogrudok in 1253 the coronation of Mindovg took place. Soon the power of Mindovg spread to the eastern Lithuanian and north-western Belarusian lands with the cities of Novogrudok, Volkovysk, Slonim.

Mindovg led a successful struggle against the Crusaders, but in 1263 he was killed as a result of a conspiracy. The power was seized by one of the conspirators, the Zhemait **knyaz** Troynat (1263 – 1264). After him the GDL was ruled by the son of Mindovg Voishelk (1264 – 1267), Schwarn (1267 – 1270), Troyden (1270 – 1282), Davmont (1282 – 1285), Budikid (1285 – 1290), Budivid (1290 – 1295), These **knyazes** managed to take control of the entire Upper Ponemonye.

At the end of the XIII century, Viten (1295 – 1315) became the Grand Duke, according to the Gustyn Chronicle, "... who made himself a coat of arms and a seal for the whole principality of Lithuania – an armed knight on horseback with a sword, which is now called a Chase". Viten managed to achieve the unity of the new state, which included a significant part of the Belarusian lands, including the Polotsk and Berestey Principality.

The Crusaders tried to capture the capital, of the GDL Novogrudok. In 1314, they besieged the city, but his son-in-law, the Grodno elder David Gorodensky, came to the aid of **knyaz** Viten, and defeated the crusaders.

The Baltic-Slavic political association in the form of a federation was formed in the GDL. The core of this state was the East Slavic ("Russian") lands. The federal nature of the state is reflected in the official name of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania and Rus. The name "Russian" meant residents of the Belarusian Vitebsk, Brest, Minsk and Turov principalities, which were part of the GDL. "Lithuania" then meant the territory of the upper and middle reaches of the Neman, and "Rus" – the territory in the basin of the Western Dvina and the Dnieper. In the first half of the XV century, when the Zhemoitia – the western part of modern Lithuania was annexed to the GDL, the state received the full name "Grand Duchy of Lithuania, Russian and Zhemoitian".

2. The territorial Expansion of the GDL in the XIV – XV centuries. Unification of the Belarusian lands as the GDL's part.

Further expansion of GDL's territory in the XIV century is associated with the name of the Grand Knyaz of Lithuania Gedimin (1316 – 1341). Under Gedimin, Vitebsk and Mstislav land became part of GDL. One of the important

events of his reign was the transfer of the capital to Vilna in 1323. In addition, Gedimin was known for his religious tolerance policy.

After Gedimin, his son Yavnut (1341 – 1345) became the Grand Knyaz, who was rejected from power in 1345 and sent into exile by his brothers Olgerd and Keistut. After that, Olgerd became the Grand Knyaz.

Olgerd (1345 – 1377) actually reigned together with his brother Keistut. Olgerd was mainly engaged in internal politics and the expansion of the state to the east, Keistut ruled in Zhemoitia and was engaged in the defense of the western borders from the Crusaders. Under Olgerd, the territory of the GDL covered the entire territory of Belarus and also included Ukrainian lands and part of Moscow. For internal use, Olgerd introduced a single state language – Belarusian. During the time of Olgerd, an active foreign struggle resumed in three directions – the Crusaders, the Mongol-Tatars and Moscow. As a result of this struggle, he included a significant part of present-day Ukraine into the GDL; Kiev, Volyn, Podlaskie, and Podolsk principalities. However, the Mongol-Tatars considered these principalities their territories, so they organized a military campaign against Olgerd. Olgerd defeated the troops of three Tatar khans on the Blue Waters River in 1362 and the Ukrainian territories remained part of the GDL. After three successful campaigns against Moscow in 1368, 1370 and 1372, Olgerd managed to annex a huge part of the Moscow Principality to the GDL.

From 1377 to 1392, the Grand Knyaz of Lithuania was the son of Olgerd Jagiello. In 1385, he signed the Kreva Union with Poland, according to which Jagiello became both the Polish king and the Grand Knyaz of Lithuania. That is, the Kreva Union is the first attempt to unite the GDL and Poland into one state, which ended in failure. In exchange for the Polish crown, the Poles demanded that Jagiello baptize the entire population of Lithuania, both pagan Lithuanians and Orthodox Belarusians, according to the Catholic rite. For this purpose, in 1387, Yagailo issued a decree according to which the rights of Catholic feudal lords were significantly expanded compared to the rights of Orthodox and pagans. The population of the GDL did not like it – a civil war began against Jagiello and his supporters, after which in 1392 Vytaut, Jagiello's cousin, came to power in the GDL. In 1392, the Ostrovsky Agreement was signed, which ended the war between the supporters of Jagiello and Vytaut. By agreement, Vytaut became the Grand Knyaz of Lithuania, and Jagiello remained only the Polish king. Having become the Grand Knyaz, Vitovt cancels the Kreva Union and Jagiello's decree from 1387.

Vitovt ruled in the GDL from 1392 to 1430. He became one of the most powerful and famous Knyazes of the GDL, he pursued an active domestic and foreign policy. Under him, the GDL geographically reached the largest size and became known as the state “from sea to sea” (from the Baltic to the Black).

In 1395, he captured Smolensk and annexed it to the GDL. Smolensk at that time was considered the key to Moscow. In the same year, he intervened in the internecine war that broke out between the Tatar khans. Khan of the Golden Horde Tokhtamysh was defeated by Tamerlane's army and was forced to flee to the GDL

and ask for help from Vitovt. Vitovt received Tokhtamysh and his supporters. Tokhtamysh and Vitovt agreed that Vitovt would help Tokhtamysh regain power in the Golden Horde, and then Tokhtamysh would help Vitovt to annex Moscow and the Moscow Principality to the GDL.

The campaign of the troops of Vitovt and the Tatars, loyal to Tokhtamysh, however, was not crowned with success. In 1399, in the battle on the Vorskla River, the Allied forces of Vitovt and Tokhtamysh suffered a crushing defeat from the troops of Khan Timur Kutlug and Temnik Yedigei. Vitovt himself almost died in the battle. The defeat at Vorskla weakened Vitovt's foreign policy position. He had to abandon ambitious plans in the east. The principality of Smolensk was again lost. At the request of Poland, in 1401 the Union of Vilno-Radom was concluded, according to which the supremacy of Poland over the GDL, provided for by the Union of Krevo, was secured. And in 1413, under pressure from the Poles, the Gorodel Privilege was published. According to it, the gentry who converted to Catholicism received family coats of arms, those who remained Orthodox or pagan did not have the right to family coats of arms and could not marry those who had a coat of arms. That is, Gorodelsky privileged pushed the gentry of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania to adopt Catholicism.

However, the Union of Vilna-Radom and further rapprochement with Poland benefited the GDL. It allowed to return Smolensk in 1404 with the help of Polish troops, and also to annex the Moscow lands up to Mozhaisk (this is the Moscow suburb).

In 1409 – 1411. GDL and Poland entered into the “Great War” with the Teutonic Order. The decisive battle of this war is Grunwald (near Grunwald town). It happened in 1410. The troops of Vitovt and Jagiello won a brilliant victory. After the victory, the Teutonic Order lost its power and no longer posed a danger to the GDL.

Further, Vitovt took away South Podolia (now in Ukraine) from the Tatars and expanded his possessions in the south to the Black Sea. Vitovt's daughter Sophia was married to the Grand Knyaz of Moscow Vasily Dmitrievich in 1391. In his testament, Vasily gave his wife and sons under the protection of Vitovt. After the death of Vasily in 1427, Sophia officially transferred the Moscow principality under the rule of Vitovt, who at about the same time concluded agreements with the knyazes of Tver (1427), Ryazan (1430) and Pronsk (1430), according to which they became his vassals. The most extreme eastern acquisition of Vitovt was the Tula land, which in 1430 was transferred to him under an agreement with the Ryazan knyaz Ivan Fedorovich.

At the end of his reign in 1429 – 1430, Vitovt tried to become king, and to make the GDL a kingdom. At the congress of European monarchs in Lutsk, he received support and the GDL began to prepare for the coronation. However, the Polish nobility intervened, as it was against the coronation of Vitovt. They intercepted the crown made in the Holy Roman Empire for Vitovt on the way. The Grand Knyaz could not bear this and died in 1430.

Vitovt pursued an internal policy aimed at strengthening the state. He created his own Orthodox metropolis. He introduced voivodeships (instead of principalities), which contributed to the centralization of the state (however only Vilna and Troksky voivodeships were created). Introduced a new administrative-territorial division – the provinces were divided into districts. Vitovt began to mint his denarii money.

After the death of Vitovt under the Grand Knyazes, Svidrigaila (1430 – 1436), Sigismund (1436 – 1440), Kazimir Jagailovich (1440 – 1492), the Grand Duchy of Lithuania no longer expanded. And under Grand Knyaz Alexander Kazimirovich (1492 – 1506), the GDL began to have problems with the Grand Duchy of Moscow. The fact is that the Moscow Principality has strengthened so much that the appanage principalities that were previously conquered by Olgerd and Vitovt began to voluntarily pass under its authority. In the GDL, the influence of the Catholic Church increased with each decade and discrimination against the Orthodox gentry grew. Therefore, the Orthodox nobility in the border principalities aspired to the rule of Moscow, where the Orthodox Church dominated. On the basis of the transition the GDL's territories under the Moscow power, numerous wars were started, which lasted from 1492 to the middle of the XVI century.

3. The internal political struggle for power in the GDL in the XIV century. The Kreva Union and its consequences for the GDL.

The GDL has been repeatedly subjected to an internal political crisis. But the internal political situation became most acute in the XIV – XV centuries, which actually led to a civil war and a split of the GDL.

The first internal political crisis arose after the death of Gedim in 1341. Disagreeing with the elevation of Gedimin's middle son Yavnutiy to the Grand Ducal throne, his two brothers Olgerd and Keistut carried out a coup d'état and became co-rulers of the principality.

The second crisis arose in 1377 after the death of Olgerd. Before his death, Olgerd appointed Jagiello, the eldest son from his second marriage, as Grand Knyaz, but the eldest son of Olgerd from his first marriage, Andrei Polotsky, did not agree with this. A power struggle has begun in the GDL. Andrey Olgerdovich, Knyaz of Polotsk, relied on the support of Orthodox feudal lords, Russian neighboring principalities and advocated rapprochement with the Moscow state.

Yagailo defeats his half-brother Andrey and forces him to flee to Pskov and appoints his own brother Skirgaila in his place (Knyaz in Polotsk). Using the discord between the brothers, in 1381 the supreme power in the state was seized by the brother of Olgerd Keistut, but soon he was captured by Jagiello and strangled in the Kreva castle. In the same year, the Polochans, dissatisfied with Yagailo, raised an uprising and returned Andrei Olgerdovich to reign in Polotsk. The struggle for supreme power continued.

To strengthen his position, Jagiello concluded the Kreva Union with the Poles on August 14, 1385 in Kreva, according to which he became the Polish king and

the Grand Knyaz of Lithuania. The agreement was secured by the marriage of Jagiello with the Polish Princess Jadwiga.

The conditions under which Jagiello received the Polish crown were very strict. He was required to convert to Catholicism and convert all his brothers, boyars, and people to Catholicism; to annex to the Polish Kingdom all the lands that had been torn away from him as a result of the Lithuanian-Polish wars, to return freedom to all Polish captives. However, the troops, the legislation and the judicial system, as well as the treasury (including the monetary issue) in the GDL and Poland remained separate, and the border between the states with the collection of customs duties remained.

To implement the conditions of the Kreva Union in 1387, Yagailo issued a decree according to which the feudal lords of the Catholic faith received unlimited rights to own their estates, and were also exempt from a number of state duties. This policy caused displeasure among the pagan and Orthodox nobility the GDL. The third internal political crisis has begun. There was a socio-political movement directed against Jagiello. Andrei Polotsky, who refused to recognize the Kreva Union, again became its head. The Smolensk Principality became his allies. But the royal army led by Skirgailo defeated the Smolensk regiments, then captured Polotsk. Knyaz Andrew was captured.

The resistance of the eastern principalities against the union did not stop there. It was headed by Keystut's son Vitovt. He came up with a program to create an independent state that would oppose, on the one hand, Poland, on the other – Moscow. The struggle ended with the conclusion of an agreement between Jagiello and Vitovt on August 5, 1392 at the Ostrov estate near Lida. According to him, Jagiello remained the Polish king, and Vitovt became the Grand Knyaz of Lithuania, but pledged to be loyal to Jagiello and the Polish Crown.

But the "Russian" question in the GDL was not solved by Vitovt's coming to power. According to the agreement between the GDL and Poland of 1401 (the Vilna-Radom Union) and the Gorodelsky privilege of 1413, the Catholic nobility again rose and received broad rights, and the Orthodox nobility of the GDL fell into a discriminatory position. After the death of Vitovt in 1430, this problem became even more acute, and another internal political crisis began.

In 1430, Svidrigailo Olgerdovich became the Grand Knyaz. He canceled all agreements with Poland, began to allow large Orthodox landowners to state administration. What caused the discontent of the Catholic aristocracy, which elected its Knyaz Sigismund Keistutovich to the Knyazian throne, who restored the union with Poland. Sigismund was supported by all Lithuanian lands. Polotsk, Vitebsk, Smolensk, Seversk, Kiev lands, Volhynia and Eastern Podolia took the side of Svidrigailo. The confrontation led to the civil war of 1432 – 1436. Svidrigailo announced the creation of the Grand Duchy of Rus with its center in Polotsk. Fighting continued for several years. To defeat Svidrigailo, Sigismund promulgated in 1434 a rule according to which the economic rights of Catholics and Orthodox were equalized. The Orthodox, as well as Catholics, received the right to transfer their estates to inheritance. After the proclamation of this privilege,

part of the feudal lords moved away from Svidrigailo, after which he was defeated and fled to Kiev. But Sigismund was also killed as a result of a conspiracy in 1440. After his death, Kazimir Jagailovich became the King of Poland and at the same time the Grand Knyaz of Lithuania.

Thus, since 1385, the GDL gradually began to lose its independence, which affected the Belarusian lands under its control. The polonization of the local nobility began, the confrontation between the GDL and the Moscow state intensified, the trend that is now called the “Western vector” prevailed in the GDL. The Kreva Union was a moment of historical choice, which determined which way of development the state should move on.

4. The Socio-political system of the GDL.

Higher authorities. The Grand Duchy of Lithuania was for a long time an absolute monarchy ruled by the Grand Knyaz (Duke) or, as he was also called, The Lord. However, the absolute monarchy in the GDL was until 1492. After Alexander I Kazimirovich became the Grand Knyaz in 1492, the power of Knyaz began to be limited with The Rada. This year, he issued a decree according to which the Knyazes could no longer make a single decision without the consent of the noble lords. Even the Grand Knyaz could manage finances only with the consent of The Rada.

Therefore, we can define the state system of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania after 1492 as a class-representative monarchy, where the power of the monarch was limited first by the Rada, and later by the Sejm. The Rada consisted of persons who held the highest state positions, and Catholic bishops. These are voivodes and castellans, chancellor, subchancellor, podskarbiy (head of the state treasury), hetmans (chiefs of the army), marshals (chairmen at meetings of the Rada and the Sejm), scribes of the Grand ducal chancellery and other senior officials of the state apparatus of the GDL.

The full composition of the Rada before the reform of 1565 numbered 45 people. After 1565, when new voivodeships were created, the Rada became 65. The Rada met in full for no more than two months a year. Representatives of the Great-Grand Rada saw the Knyaz more often. The Great-Grand Rada included 5 people: the bishop of Vilna and Troky, the governor of Vilna, the governor of Troky, the castellan of Vilna, the castellan of Troky. They were the closest to the Grand Knyaz and the most influential people in the state. Often, they solved most of the state affairs for the whole Rada, because the Lords of Rada did not have the opportunity to meet in full on each issue.

Only very rich people could hold positions that allowed them to sit in the Rada. Therefore, there were only large landowners – magnates among the Lords of Rada.

At the end of the XV century, the second highest body of state administration of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, the Sejm, was finally formed. It consisted of noble lords and gentry from all lands of the GDL. At first, the gentry were invited to the Sejm in full force, which caused excessive crowding. In order to avoid this,

it was decided to send only 2 deputies from every county. They were chosen at the county Sejmiks (little Sejm), where all the gentry of a particular district gathered and instructions were developed to the ambassadors-deputies, from which they had no right to retreat. The Sejms discussed issues related to legislation and judicial activity, and the election of the Grand Knyaz.

Local government. The Grand Duchy of Lithuania was divided into voivodeships. The voivodeship was headed by a voivode. He solved all management issues in the territory of the voivodeship – economic, financial, military, judicial. His deputies were the castellan, who commanded the military forces of the voivodeship, as well as the subvoivode, who conducted the affairs of the chancellery. The mayor was responsible for the repair and strengthening of the voivodeship castle; the keys-keeper supervised the collection of taxes and the performance of duties; the forester and the huntsman supervised the forest lands; the equerry was in charge of the voivodeship stable, etc. In the counties, the power was represented by the headman. The cities in the GDL were led by voits, burmasters and city councils. The village administration was represented by tiuns, centurions, bailiffs, elders.

Courts and legislation. The highest judicial instance was the Grand Ducal Court, whose functions since 1581 began to be performed by the Main Tribunal of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. The Voivodeship Court considered the cases of the gentry and burghers of those cities that did not have Magdeburg law, as well as state peasants. Private-property and church peasants were judged by the landowners themselves in the so-called “patrimonial” court “according to the ancient custom”. In the cities that had Magdeburg law, the sentences on the cases of burghers were passed by the Voitovo-lavnichy court.

All the above-mentioned judicial instances relied in their activities on state legislation, which was mainly provided first by the judicial code of Casimir IV of 1468, and then by the Statutes of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania of 1529, 1566 and 1588.

The army. At the time of the GDL, the basis of the army was the Pospolitoe Rushenie, that is, the gentry militia. According to the legislation of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, all men who owned land were liable for military service. From his land holdings, the nobleman had to exhibit a well-armed and trained warrior: one from 8 services. 1 service – 2 peasant farms, so the landowner had to exhibit 1 warrior from every 16 peasant farms. So, whoever had more land and subjects, he fielded more soldiers. If some minor nobleman did not own peasants, then he was obliged to go to war himself. As a rule, rich landowners also went to war themselves, as it was a matter of honor, but unlike poor nobles, they went to war at the head of their own detachments. The peasants, whom the gentry took with them to the war, were exempted from all duties and taxes in favor of the nobleman and were called armored boyars. The armored boyar is a transitional form from peasant to nobleman. Later, he could earn or redeem the nobility for himself. Together with the gentry, German Swiss and Scottish mercenaries were widely used.

5. Reasons for the conclusion of the Union of Lublin in 1569. The situation of the Belarusian lands as part of Rzeczpospolita.

In 1558, the Russian tsar Ivan IV the Terrible began a war with the Livonian Order for access to the Baltic Sea. Livonia turned for help to the GDL, which agreed to take the order under its protection, but the joint efforts of the GDL and the Livonian Order were not enough, so the fighting spread to the territory of Belarus. On February 15, 1563, Russian troops captured Polotsk. There was a threat to the independence and existence of the GDL. There were not enough forces and resources to continue the war. An ally was needed. Thus, the defeat of the GDL in the Livonian War and the threat from the Russian Kingdom became the first and most important reason for the conclusion of the Union of Lublin and the formation of Rzeczpospolita.

The second reason was the interest in the union of the middle and small gentry of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, which was dissatisfied with the omnipotence of the magnates and wanted to receive the same wide rights that the gentry of Poland had. The rights of the Polish gentry were equal to those of the magnates.

The third reason was that Poland itself wanted to expand its territory at the expense of the territory of the GDL. The Grand Duchy was 3 times larger than the Polish Crown.

The fourth reason was that the Pope of Rome was interested in the union, who hoped to expand his influence in the East Slavic lands with its help, since Poland is a Slavic and Catholic state.

The fifth reason was the previous economic and cultural rapprochement between the GDL and Poland, which took place over the centuries, starting with the Union of Kreva, which was concluded in 1385.

In January 1569, the joint Sejm began its work in Lublin. The Poles sought to impose very difficult, uneven and unfair conditions for unification to the delegation of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, to which it did not agree in any way. Then the Polish side went on a show of force, capturing Podlachie and Podolia, Volhynia and Kiev region. On July 1, 1569, the delegation of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania was forced to sign a union on unification with Poland into one state – Rzeczpospolita. The supreme bodies were declared a general Sejm, which was going to Poland. The state was headed by the king, who at the same time became the Grand Duke of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. Foreign policy passed into the competence of Poland. The Poles received the right to acquire estates in the GDL, and the Lithuanians could buy estates in Poland. But the GDL retained the former administrative apparatus, legislation separate from Poland, a judicial organization, and an army.

The decisions of the Lublin Sejm did not suit a significant part of the gentry of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, especially its richest part – the magnates. But Sigismund Augustus II died childless. After his death in Rzeczpospolita began the years of “kinglessness”, during which the central government weakened, and this was used by the magnates of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania to cancel a number of

provisions of the Union of Lublin. So, for example, in 1588 the third edition of the Statute of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania was adopted, in which the Poles were forbidden to acquire land in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. In the same place, the Belarusian language was legally fixed as the state language. Contrary to the union, separate Seims continued to convene in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, and in 1673 it was already officially decided that every third Seim of Rzeczpospolita should be held in the Duchy. In 1581, a separate supreme judicial body began to operate – the Main Tribunal of the Grand Duchy.

6. Features of the political system of Rzeczpospolita. “Gentry democracy”.

With the entry of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania into Rzeczpospolita, the local system of government remained the same, but the political system changed somewhat. The king was at the head of the state. But his powers were limited by the Sejm.

The Sejm had legislative power, but deputies from the Grand Duchy of Lithuania had only a third of the seats. The Sejm was divided into two chambers: the Senate and the Ambassador’s hut. The Senate included senior government officials, magnates, and the highest clergy. Members of the Senate received seats there for life. The ambassadors from the counties entered the embassy hut; they were elected at the county sejmiks (a small Sejm). New ambassadors were elected for each new session of the Sejm.

Since the second half of the XVII century, a significant part of the Belarusian gentry adopted Catholic Christianity, began to speak Polish and consider themselves Poles. This led to the disintegration of society. Already in 1696, contrary to the Third Statute of the GDL, the Sejm in Warsaw decided that Polish would become the only official language, and this decision was supported by the Belarusian ambassadors. As a result, the Belarusian language has been preserved only in the use of the common people.

The state power within Rzeczpospolita began to gradually rot. The first sign of this decay was Henry’s Articles of 1574, King Sigismund August II died childless. It was necessary to choose a new king. The nobility chose Henry of Valois, a representative of the French royal family. He was the one chosen by the king of Rzeczpospolita.

Before assuming the throne, Henry of Valois was forced to sign the “Henry Articles” – a treaty that gave the nobility such rights that no privileged class in the world, anywhere, had. All the points of the “Henry Articles” subsequently became the laws of the country not only during the reign of Henry, but also during the reign of all subsequent kings.

Henry’s articles consisted of 9 points:

1. The principle of electability of the Monarch was permanently fixed. Every time after the death of the king, he had to be elected, and any nobleman was entitled to nominate his candidacy for the position of king.
2. The King could not impose new taxes without the consent of the Sejm.

3. Under the monarch, a permanent senate council was created, consisting of 16 resident senators, who monitored his activities and limited his power in the periods between sessions and the Sejm.

4. Every two years, the monarch had to convene the Sejm to resolve the accumulated issues.

5. The monarch is obliged to give a fourth part of the income from his personal land holdings for the maintenance of a permanent army (since this part was called “quart”, the army was called “Quaternary Army”). The Quaternary army was very small and could not do without the support of the nobility militia of Rzeczpospolita.

6. The king could not declare war or conclude peace without the consent of the Senate and, without the consent of the entire Sejm, announce the gathering of Rzeczpospolita militia.

7. The king was obliged to pay the gentry who participated in foreign campaigns as mercenaries.

8. In fact, the king had only one undisputed and unlimited right, and that was to appoint government officials at his discretion.

9. If the king refused to comply with Henry’s Articles, resolutions of the Sejm or other laws, the nobility had the right to refuse to obey the king and declare a rokosh. Rokosh is a legitimate rebellion.

Henry did not want to be king under such restrictions, in addition, according to an agreement with the nobility, he was obliged to marry Anna Jagielonka, the heir to the throne of Rzeczpospolita through the female line. The problem was that he was 23 at the time and she was 51. He postponed his marriage for several months under various pretexts, and finally he received a letter from France saying that his older brother, who was the French king, had died and now he could take his place. After that, he immediately fled back to his homeland and became king of France. About a year later, in 1576, the nobility elected Stefan Batory, the son of the governor of Transylvania (a region in Romania), as king of Rzeczpospolita, who agreed to all the conditions.

Henry of Valois was king of Rzeczpospolita for less than a year, however, the treaty signed by him – Henry’s articles later became a law that operated almost to the very sections of Rzeczpospolita and caused significant harm to this state as it deprived the king of power, bringing it one step closer to the feudal anarchy that ruined this state in the future.

The second sign of the decay of state power in Rzeczpospolita was the right of Liberum Veto (by Latin Liberum veto – free prohibition). The Liberum Veto is the principle of the parliamentary system in Rzeczpospolita, which allowed any deputy of the Sejm to stop discussing any issue in the Sejm and the work of the Sejm in general by opposing it. The mandatory “Unanimity” in decision-making in the Sejm was adopted as a law in 1589, and in 1666 it was extended to the voivodship Sejms.

At first, the gentry did not use the right of Liberum veto, but in 1652 the Ambassador of the Upitskiy county, Vladislav Sicinsky, bribed by Janusz

Radziwill, applied it for the first time. And thus created an unhealthy precedent that began to be repeated too often. From 1652 to 1764, 173 Sejms were held, 52 of them were disrupted due to the application of the Liberum veto law. Thus, after the act of Vladislav Sicinsky in Rzeczpospolita, the central government weakened even more and anarchy began. Gradually, the territory of Rzeczpospolita was divided between 20 magnate clans, in which the magnates were in fact absolute monarchs and often waged wars with each other. As a result, at the beginning of the XVIII century, neighboring states began to interfere in these wars, supporting one or another magnate group with their troops and further weakening Rzeczpospolita. Thus, all the conditions have been created for the division of Rzeczpospolita between stronger neighbors.

Thus, thanks to the Liberum veto law and Henry's Articles, the central government disappeared in the state and feudal anarchy began, which created the prerequisites for a political crisis in the second half of the XVIII century and the entry of the Belarusian lands into the Russian Empire.

7. The political crisis of Rzeczpospolita, attempts at reforms in the second half of the XVIII century. Partitions of Rzeczpospolita.

In the second half of the XVIII century, Rzeczpospolita was the weakest state in Europe, which was used by neighboring states to divide it. There were four reasons for the decline of Rzeczpospolita:

1. Throughout the existence of Rzeczpospolita, numerous wars had to be fought, from which it came out weakened.

2. There were religious and social conflicts in Rzeczpospolita, which were encouraged by neighboring states.

3. In Rzeczpospolita the central government was paralyzed. The king's power was weak due to Henry's Articles, the activities of the Sejm were paralyzed by the Liberum veto.

4. Rzeczpospolita had an outdated army organization. The main military force was the Gentry militia, which was inferior in its combat qualities to the regular armies of neighboring countries.

After the death of King August III in 1763, Stanislaw August Poniatowski became king. In 1757 – 1762, he was the ambassador of Rzeczpospolita in St. Petersburg. It was believed that during his diplomatic service he was a favorite (that is, a lover) Catherine II, then still the wife of Peter III. Therefore, the nobility of Rzeczpospolita was convinced that Poniatowski was a protege of Russia. However, after coming to power, he began to pursue an independent policy. After becoming king in 1764, he carried out reforms aimed at strengthening the state.

1. Poniatowski partially abolished the right of "liberum veto" decisions on economic issues had to be made by a simple majority of votes.

2. He forbade magnates to collect duties when transporting goods through their estates and introduced a single duty for all when transporting goods across the border of Rzeczpospolita.

3. The new king carried out monetary reform, introduced a unified system of weights and measures in the state, and carried out many other economic reforms.

All this alarmed the neighboring states, Russia, Austria and Prussia, who were interested in the weakness of Rzeczpospolita. The reason for direct interference in the internal affairs of this state was a religious issue. The Plenipotentiary Ambassador of Russia to Rzeczpospolita, Nikolai Repnin, contributed to the creation of the Slutsk Orthodox and Torun Protestant confederations. In these confederations, dissident gentry demanded that they be equalized with Catholics.

The Confederation is extraordinary Sejm, to which the gentry came armed and put forward demands to the central government, threatening to start a war with the central government if these demands were not met.

Then Repnin insisted that a Sejm be held in Rzeczpospolita, at which, firstly, dissidents were to be equalized in rights, and secondly, to cancel all progressive reforms carried out in 1764 and remove restrictions on the right of “liberum veto”. This Sejm was named Repninsky in history and it was held from October 1767 to March 1768.

The imposed principles of religious tolerance, as well as the very fact of interference in the internal affairs of Rzeczpospolita, led to the creation of the Roman Catholic Bar Confederation on February 29, 1768 and to the subsequent war in which the forces of the confederation fought against the troops of Russia, the king of Rzeczpospolita and the rebellious Orthodox population of Ukraine in 1768 – 1772 (the Bar Confederation was named after the Ukrainian city The Bar where it passed). In 1772, the confederate forces were defeated.

During the Russian-Turkish war, which took place simultaneously with the suppression of the rebellion of the Bar Confederation, Russia annexed Moldova and Wallachia (part of Romania) to its possessions. Prussia and Austria disagreed with this. Therefore, Frederick II (King of Prussia) proposed to Russia to abandon Moldova and Wallachia, and as compensation to Russia proposed the division of the territory of Rzeczpospolita between Russia, Prussia and Austria. Thus, on February 19, 1772, the Convention on the First Partition of Rzeczpospolita was signed in Vienna.

Austria annexed Galicia, Prussia – Pomerania and part of Greater Poland, Russia – Eastern Belarus and the Polish part of Livonia. The Rzeczpospolita lost an area of 3,800 square miles with a population of 4 million people.

Despite the First Partition, reforms to strengthen the state continued in the Rzeczpospolita. The culmination of these reforms was the 4-year Sejm. The longest in History from 1788 to 1791, this Sejm on May 3, 1791, declared the first constitution in Europe and the second in the world (after the United States). The Constitution was very democratic for its time, it mentioned the interests of all classes. Here are the main provisions of the constitution: 1) Executive power belonged to the government and the king; 2) the king became hereditary; 3) legislative power was vested in the Sejm; 4) the right of “Liberum veto” was abolished; 5) confederations were prohibited; 6) 20 seats in the Sejm were

provided for the bourgeois class; 7) Gentry were forbidden to change agreements with the peasants at their will; 8) A regular army was created.

Some of the gentries were dissatisfied with the constitution because it deprived them of their noble liberties. Therefore, those dissatisfied with the constitution in 1792 declared the Targovitsa Confederation in order to repeal the Constitution on May 3 (the name of the confederation comes from the name of the city of Torgovitsy in which it took place). Russia sent a 100,000-strong army to help the Targovitskaya Confederation. Then, in January 1793, Russia and Prussia implemented the second partition of Rzeczpospolita, according to which the central part of Poland was transferred to Prussia, and the central part of Belarus to Russia. The Constitution of May 3, 1791 was repealed.

In March-November 1794, an uprising led by Tadeusz Kosciuszka unfolded in the territory that had survived after the two partitions. Its goal was the restoration of the Constitution of May 3, 1791, and the restoration of Rzeczpospolita within the borders of 1772. The rebels liberated the Territory of Poland, captured Vilna, the struggle unfolded in Lithuania and Western Belarus, and the prospect of restoring Rzeczpospolita appeared. However, Catherine II was forced to conclude a very unfavorable peace with Turkey in order to transfer troops who fought against the Turks to suppress the uprising in Rzeczpospolita. 100,000 army led by Suvorov and Ferzen headed for Rzeczpospolita. By the end of 1794, Suvorov took Warsaw, and the uprising was suppressed. In 1795, the third partition of Rzeczpospolita took place between Russia, Austria and Prussia, and this state ceased to exist for 123 years. The Baltic States, Western Belarus and Western Ukraine have moved to Russia. Prussia and Austria divided the rest of Poland.

Thus, as a result of the three partitions, Rzeczpospolita ceased to exist as a state. The Belarusian lands became part of the Russian Empire.

Lecture 1.4. Belarus as part of the Russian Empire

1. The issue of statehood in the socio-political life of Belarus in the first half of the 19th century. Revolts of 1830 – 1831 and 1863 – 1864

1. The issue of statehood in the socio-political life of Belarus in the first half of the nineteenth century.

2. The uprisings of 1830 – 1831 and 1863 – 1864.

3. Western Russianism, Regionalism and the formation of the Belarusian national idea in the 19th century.

4. Narodniks and the activities of the Gaumont group.

5. Economic development of Belarusian lands as part of the Russian Empire.

6. The Revolution of 1905 – 1907 and its consequences in Belarus.

7. “Nasha Niva” and the Belarusian national idea at the beginning of the XX century. (“Nasha Niva” – Our Cornfield).

2. Western Russianism. Edgeness. Populism and the formation of the Belarusian national idea.

3. Экономическое развитие Беларуси в составе Российской империи.

4. Революционные события 1905–1907 гг. в Беларуси. «Наша Нива» и белорусская национальная идея в начале XX в.

1. The issue of statehood in the socio-political life of Belarus in the first half of the nineteenth century.

In the first half of the 19th century. The main organizational form of the social movement was secret and semi-legal societies. The first of these societies were the Freemasons. In Western Europe, Freemasonry originated as a movement of people who were looking for ways to spiritually renew humanity. In the first quarter of the 19th century, Masonic lodges were already operating in many cities of Belarus, especially after 1812, the leading centers of Freemasonry in Belarus were the small Chapter “Shrine of Tranquility”, which was located in Nesvizh and was subordinate to the Vilna Lodge “Perfect Unity”, and through it to the “Great East of Poland”. There were also Masonic lodges “Happy Liberation” in Nesvizh, “Northern Torch” in Minsk, “Friend of Humanity” in Grodno and others.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the tsarist government treated Masonic organizations positively. After the war of 1812, the government of the Russian Empire even recommended the creation of Masonic lodges, even in the army, hoping that officers, once captured, would be able to use the help of foreign friends-Masons. However, in 1822, by decree of Alexander I, all Masonic lodges in the territory of the Russian Empire were banned.

It should be noted that the war against Napoleonic France, which began after the defeat of Napoleon on the Berezina in November 1812, ended in 1814 with the capture of Paris. A peace treaty following the war was concluded at the Congress of Vienna on May 3, 1815. The Congress handed over most of ethnic Poland,

along with Warsaw, to Russia, which formed the autonomous Kingdom of Poland there. In the Kingdom of Poland, the Poles received cultural, national and political autonomy, as well as a “constitution”, according to which they could convene a Sejm to resolve a certain range of issues. They were also allowed to have a separate army, a territorial and administrative division into voivodships, and not provinces as in Russia.

After the War of 1812, secret societies of student youth and officers began to appear on the territory of Belarus. In 1817, at the University of Vilna, on the initiative of students Tomash Zan, Adam Mickiewicz, Jan Chechet and others, the secret society of Philomaths was founded. Simultaneously with them or a little later, secret and semi-legal organizations were formed at the University of Vilna and the Bialystok and Svisloch gymnasiums, at the University of Vilna. All these organizations were under the influence of the Philomaths. In 1820, a wider society of Philaretes was created, which was also subordinate to the Philomaths.

Members of the societies were engaged in improving their scientific knowledge, artistic tastes and literary creativity. They did not set as their goal the overthrow of the existing system by force of arms, but wanted to restore Rzeczpospolita through education and enlightenment of the younger generation in matters of national identity.

Simultaneously with the society of Philomaths and Philarets, the secret “Polish Patriotic Society” operated in Belarus. The Lithuanian committee of this society, headed by Mikhail Romer and Charles Prozor, aimed to revive Rzeczpospolita within the borders of 1772 through an uprising.

In the early 1820s, the ideas of Russian gentry revolutionaries, the Decembrists, spread in Belarus. This was due to the transfer from St. Petersburg to Belarus of the Guards Corps, in which many figures of the Decembrist movement served. The head of the Northern Society, Nikita Mikhailovich Muravyov, wrote the first version of the Russian constitution in Minsk in 1821. A large group of Decembrist officers served in the Bobruisk fortress: Sergei Ivanovich Muravyov-Apostol, Mikhail Pavlovich Bestuzhev-Ryumin and others. They developed a plan for the arrest of the Tsar and his retinue in Bobruisk during a review of troops in 1823. The Decembrists advocated limiting or completely eliminating the autocracy, nationalization of part of the landowners’ lands, abolition of serfdom with the allocation of land to peasants. They recognized Poland’s right to independence.

In connection with the death of Alexander I on December 14, 1825, the Decembrists of the Northern Society brought several regiments to Senate Square in St. Petersburg with the aim of carrying out a state coup. But the uprising was suppressed.

In 1825, a secret “Society of Military Friends” was created in the Lithuanian Special Corps, stationed in the Belarusian provinces. Its members were philomat Mikhail Ivanovich Rukevich, captain Konstantin Gustavovich Igelstrom, lieutenant Alexander Ivanovich Vegelin and others. It was associated with the Decembrists. On December 24, 1825, not far from Bialystok in the city of Bransk, “Military

Friends” tried to raise an uprising, which began with the refusal of the units subordinate to them to swear allegiance to the new Tsar Nicholas I. But they were not supported by other military units. The attempt at rebellion was suppressed, and Rukevich, Wegelin, Igelstrom were sentenced to 10 years of hard labor. In February 1826, a member of the Society of United Slavs, Stepan Pavlovich Trusov, tried to raise the Poltava Infantry Regiment stationed in Bobruisk in an uprising, but was immediately arrested.

After the suppression of the uprising of 1830 – 1831, the Polish emigration sought to raise an uprising again. For this purpose, emissaries of the “Young Poland”, which was created in Krakow by Joachim Lelewel, were sent to the territory of Belarus. His agent, Shimon Kanarsky, created a secret organization, the Commonwealth of the Polish People, whose influence spread to Right-bank Ukraine, Belarus and Lithuania. Secret societies that already existed here began to join the “Commonwealth”. The largest of them was the “Democratic Society”, which was established in 1836 and it operated at the Vilna Medical and Surgical Academy. At the initiative of one of the leaders of the society, Franz Savich, its charter was written. It provided for the achievement of social justice, the abolition of serfdom, and respect for all peoples. In 1838, the police uncovered the society. Shimon Konarsky was sentenced to death, Franz Savich and his assistants were made soldiers and sent into exile in the Caucasus.

In the late 1840s, the organization “Union of Free Brothers” appeared on the territory of Belarus. Its center was in Vilna, branches existed in Minsk, Grodno, Lida, Novogrudok, Oshmyany, Slonim, Kovno and other cities. The organization aimed to overthrow the autocracy and carry out democratic transformations in Russia and Poland. In 1849, when the officers of the Minsk garrison, led by Captain Alexei Gusev, refused to go to Hungary to suppress the revolution, the Union of Free Brothers was discovered. About 200 people were brought to court. Captain Gusev and his companions were sentenced to death.

Thus, the socio-political movement in Belarus during this period developed in line with the Russian and Polish revolutionary and national liberation movements. It reflects all the most important events of the socio-political life of Russia in the first half of the nineteenth century.

2. The uprisings of 1830 – 1831 and 1863 – 1864.

The uprising of 1830 – 1831 became the most important event in the socio-political life of the first half of the nineteenth century. The main goal of the uprising was the restoration of Rzeczpospolita within the borders of 1772. The reason for the uprising was the strengthening of the reactionary political course of the Russian authorities in Poland, who began to grossly violate the Constitution of the Kingdom of Poland, restrict the activities of the Sejm, arrest deputies who criticized the activities of the Russian government.

In the autumn of 1830, Nicholas I decided to send Polish troops to suppress the revolution in France. In response, an uprising broke out in Warsaw on the night of November 29 – 30, 1830. It was started by the cadets of the Cornet school, who

attacked the palace of Grand Duke Konstantin Pavlovich. The Russian army is forced to leave Warsaw. The supreme governing body of the uprising was the Provisional Government, headed by Adam Czartoryski, whose supporters relied more on the help of European countries than on their own strength. The radical trend in the uprising was led by Joachim Lelewel, who sought to overcome the gentry character of the uprising and attract representatives of all classes to it.

On December 1, 1830, the Tsar declared martial law in Poland, Western Ukraine, Belarus and Lithuania, and sent a large number of troops here. The confiscation of weapons from the population began in the cities; influential Polish landowners were placed under house arrest. However, it was not possible to prevent the uprising in Belarus.

In January-February 1831, the Vilna Central Insurgent Committee was established in Vilna to lead the uprising in Lithuania and Belarus. By the end of March and beginning of April 1831, the uprising swept Lithuania and the western counties of Grodno and Vilna provinces. At the end of May 1831, the 12 thousandth corps of General Anthony Gelgood and the detachment of General Desiderius Khlopovsky of 820 people arrived from Poland to Lithuania. They were joined by about 5,000 local rebels. And in total, the number of participants in the uprising in Belarus was about 10 thousand people. They were mostly young gentry. The peasants did not support the uprising because of the measures taken by the authorities of the Russian Empire.

On June 19, 1831, a decisive battle took place near Vilna between the combined forces of the rebels and the tsarist troops. The rebels were defeated. In early August 1831, the uprising was suppressed throughout Belarus, and in September the Russian army captured Warsaw. The consequences of the defeat of the uprising of 1830 – 1831 were as follows: 1. The Constitution, the Kingdom of Poland, the separate Polish army and the Sejm were eliminated. 2. The Russian administrative-territorial division was introduced on the ethnic territory of Poland. 3. On the territory of Lithuania, Belarus and Western Ukraine, a policy of Russification and destruction of Polish influence began to be implemented.

The uprising of 1863 – 1864 on the territory of Belarus: causes, course, results. The unfair nature of the peasant reform of 1861 (the reform concerned the abolition of serfdom) caused widespread discontent among the peasants, which political forces decided to use in their interests, which sought to restore Rzeczpospolita within the borders of 1772. It was they who started the uprising of 1863 - 1864."

Two political groups stood out among the rebel leadership: the “whites” and the “reds”. The “Whites” advocated the restoration of Rzeczpospolita within the borders of 1772 with the help of Western countries (Great Britain and France). The “Reds” spoke in favor of an independent uprising, which was supposed to win on its own, without foreign help. The Reds were divided into right and left.

The right-wing (moderate) Reds spoke out for the restoration of Rzeczpospolita, for the free allotment of peasants with small plots of land (about 4 hectares), for the construction of a republican system. The left-wing reds (radicals)

advocated the elimination of landowner land ownership and the transfer of all land to the peasants, for the construction of a fair society, for the self-determination of the peoples who were to become part of the new Rzeczpospolita. The leader of the uprising in Belarus, Konstantin Kalinovsky, belonged to the faction of the left reds. For the first time in history, he raised the issue of creating a Belarusian autonomy within Rzeczpospolita and reviving the Belarusian language. He outlined his program in seven issues of the newspaper *Muzhikskaya Pravda* (that is, the Peasant truth).

To lead the uprising in Warsaw in 1862, the Central National Committee (CNA) was established, and in Vilna the Lithuanian Provincial Committee (LPC), formally subordinate to the CNA. The chairman of the LPC since October 1862 was Konstantin Kalinovsky. The uprising began in Poland on January 23, 1863, the LPC supported it. On February 1, 1863, LPC proclaimed itself the Provisional Government of Lithuania and Belarus and unveiled its program, which provided for the transfer of land plots to peasants for free, which they used before the reform of 1861. But in March, the Central Committee, where the “whites” took over power, removed the LPC from power and replaced it with the Departments for the Leadership of the provinces of Lithuania, headed by landowner Jakub Geisstor. Kalinovsky was sent by the commissar of the uprising to the Grodno province.

In Belarus, mainly in the western provinces, detachments began to be created from among the small gentry, artisans, part of the peasants, as well as students, apprentices, and officers. There was no general plan of action. Most of the peasants, influenced by the anti-Polish propaganda of the Russian authorities, refrained from the uprising. In total, 46 rebel battles with the Russian army took place in Belarus, two thirds of them were recorded in the Grodno and Vilna regions. In June 1863, members of the Department for the Leadership of the Provinces of Lithuania were arrested, and Konstantin Kalinovsky again became the head of the uprising. He created an underground government, the Belarusian-Lithuanian Red Jond, but he failed to revive the uprising. In the autumn of 1863, the armed struggle in Belarus stopped, and in 1864 the last detachments in Poland were defeated. On March 10, 1864, Konstantin Kalinovsky was executed in Vilna. A state of emergency was declared in Belarus and Lithuania, 128 participants of the uprising were executed, 13 thousand were sent to hard labor and exile in Siberia.

The results of the uprising were ambiguous for Belarus: the only university in Belarus the Gori-Goretsky Agricultural Institute, was closed. All the reforms of the tsarist government aimed at democratizing society took place here with considerable delay. Nevertheless, the uprising also brought some benefits. The conditions for the liberation of peasants in Belarus have become much easier than in the rest of the Russian Empire, redemption payments for peasants of the Belarusian provinces have been reduced by 20%, and redemption deals have been drawn up by the end of 1863. Thus, the peasants, having received significant concessions in the purchase of their land, refrained from participating in the uprising.

3. Western Russianism, Regionalism and the formation of the Belarusian national idea in the 19th century.

Western Russianism and Regionalism. Belarus, as part of the Russian Empire, did not have an integral political status, therefore, in matters of statehood, it was guided by the Russian or Polish-Lithuanian current. Therefore, in the second half of the XIX-th century. On the territory of Belarus, two ideological movements appeared – Western Russianism and Regionalism. The essence of the ideology of Western Russianism was that its supporters believed that three East Slavic peoples – Russian, Ukrainian and Belarusian – created three branches of a single Russian ethnic group – Great Russian, Little Russian (i.e. Ukrainian) and Western Russian (i.e. Belarusian).

The ideology of Western Russianism was widespread among the Orthodox clergy, city residents and officials, and among part of the peasantry. The founder of Western Russianism is considered to be the Orthodox Metropolitan Joseph Semashko. The formation of the Western Russian historical school occurred after the uprising of 1863 – 1864, when a number of publications appeared in the press justifying “... the original Russian origin in the North-Western region and the debunking of Polish claims to Belarusian, Ukrainian and Lithuanian lands”. The initial postulate of the supporters of Western Russianism was the assertion that Belarusians and Ukrainians are not independent ethnic groups, but are a Western branch of the Russian people. Among the supporters of this ideology, two movements stood out: conservative (Xenophon Govorsky) and liberal (Mikhail Koyalovich, Anatoly Pshcholka). Representatives of the liberal movement of Western Russianism brought some benefit, as they made a significant contribution to the study of the history and culture of Belarus, among them there are the names of famous historians and ethnographers Efim Karsky, Nikolai Nikiforovsky and others.

The ideology of Regionalism enjoyed support among the local Polish-speaking nobility. Supporters of the ideology of Regionalism considered the main thing not cultural and linguistic affiliation, but awareness of their origin and their connection with such states as the Grand Duchy of Lithuania and Rzeczpospolita. The main concept of the ideology of Regionalism became the term “political nation”. Everyone who considered themselves a citizen of the region belonged to a single nation, regardless of linguistic, cultural and religious affiliation. The “political nation” of the region included Belarusians, Poles, Lithuanians, and sometimes they could include Jews, in other words, the indigenous inhabitants of Belarusian provinces, but they never included Russians, who were perceived as a hostile element, which was the result of the policy of Russification.

The main role in developing the provisions of the ideology of Regionalism was played by Roman and Constance Skirmunt, Boleslav Yalowicki. Mikhail Romer and others. Roman Skirmunt, who over time took an active part in the proclamation of the Belarusian People’s Republic, was the first to formulate the main idea of the regional ideology: all residents of the region, regardless of

ethnicity and social origin, must unite to work together for the benefit of the entire region and all its peoples.

The ideologies of Western Russianism and Regionalism expressed the views of a certain part of the population of Belarus, but they failed to become dominant. According to the results of the 1897 census, 87.4% of the region's peasants recognized Belarusian as their native language. The ideas of Western Russianism and Regionalism remained minority views, but they made a significant contribution to the process of formation of the Belarusian national idea. The activities of Western Russianists made it possible to reduce Polish cultural and religious influence in Belarus and define its ethnic boundaries. Some representatives of the Belarusian renaissance of the early twentieth century left the regional organizations.

In the second half of the XIX-th century, as a result of the further formation of the Belarusian literary language, the growth of national consciousness of the population, the Belarusian national cultural movement arose and strengthened. In the first half of the XIX century, Jan Chechot, Jan Borshchevsky, Alexander Lipinsky, Vladislav Syrokomlya, Vincent Dunin-Marcinkevich made a great contribution to it. The activities of numerous collectors and researchers of folklore, linguists, historians, ethnographers: Ivan Nosovich, Nikolai were of great importance for the awakening of national consciousness in the second half of the XIX century. Nikiforovsky, Evdokim Romanov, Efim Karsky, Mitrofan Dovnar-Zapolsky, and others.

4. Narodniks and the activities of the Gaumont group.

(Narodniks – the closest translation is “Those who are for the people”)

The Narodniks movement originated in the 70s of the nineteenth century. The Narodnik revolutionaries tried to rely on the support of the peasants in their revolutionary activities. They believed that peasant socialism should be built in the Russian Empire, for this it was necessary to overthrow the tsar, build a republic, eliminate landowner land ownership and the landowner class, and distribute all the land among peasant communities, which, according to the Narodniks, were cells of socialism. The peoples of the Russian Empire were to receive the right to self-determination. This is briefly the political program of the Narodnik revolutionaries.

The Narodnik Party consisted mainly of radical students and diverse intelligentsia. The methods of struggle of the Narodniks are either “going to the people”, that is, revolutionary agitation among the peasantry, or the organization of assassinations of government officials of various levels, generals, ministers, governors.

On March 1, 1881, a group of Narodniks revolutionaries called “People's Will” made a successful attempt on the life of Russian Emperor Alexander II. After which both “Narodnaya Volya” and many other Narodniks groups were discovered and arrested by the police. However, it was not possible to uncover all the Narodniks groups and put them in prison, therefore, even after March 1881, many of them continued the revolutionary struggle.

The Narodniks movement on the territory of Belarus, which was part of the all-Russian Narodniks movement. In 1881, a Belarusian community arose at St. Petersburg University, which united students from Belarusian provinces. On its basis, the Narodniks group “Gomon” was created. The members of the organization expressed their program goals and objectives in the illegal magazine “Gomon”, which began to be published in St. Petersburg in 1884. This group was led by Alexander Marchenko and Chaim Ratner. They declared the need to unite all Belarusian Narodnaya Volya members into the Belarusian People’s Revolutionary Party. In their program, Homonovites were the first to declare the existence of the Belarusian nation and raise the question of its national independence. They saw the future of Belarus in national-territorial autonomy as part of a democratic federal Russian state.

The Narodniks’ idea of national-territorial autonomy of Belarus as part of a democratic federal Russian state was concretized in the program of the Belarusian Socialist Community (Community – Gromada) (BSG) party, created in 1903 by brothers Ivan and Anton Lutskevichs. This program stated that the BSG, together with the proletariat of all peoples of the Russian state, would seek the overthrow of the autocracy and the destruction of capitalism. National demands boiled down to autonomy not only for Belarus, but also for the entire North-Western Territory (i.e. Belarus + Baltic countries) with the Sejm in Vilna and as part of the Russian Democratic Republic. Demands were also put forward for the development of Belarusian culture, school, language, the destruction of national oppression, equality of nations and their right to self-determination.

5. Economic development of Belarusian lands as part of the Russian Empire.

After the last partition of Rzeczpospolita (1795), the entire territory of Belarus became part of the Russian Empire. Already after the first partition of Rzeczpospolita (1772), the inclusion of Belarusian lands in the system of the all-Russian market began. Agriculture was the basis of the Russian economy. It developed within the framework of the serf system, based on the use of ineffective labor of serfs. The Rzeczpospolita also had serfdom, but it was not as cruel as in the Russian Empire, as evidenced by the flight of serfs from Russia to the territory of Belarus. Russian landownership was imposed on the annexed lands, as evidenced by the massive distribution of state peasants and lands and peasants confiscated from Polish magnates to Russian landowners, officials and officers.

For the use of the land, the peasants paid the landowner a part of the harvest – a natural rent (*dzyaklo*) or a monetary rent (*chinsh*) and performed corvee work on the landowner’s farm. Landlords could sell, buy, and donate peasants. A significant part of the peasants lived on lands belonging to the treasury. They were responsible for the benefit of the state. Their situation was not much better than that of the landlords. However, the state peasants were personally free.

At the end of the XVIII-th and the first half of the XIX-th century, agriculture in Belarus specialized in the production of grain: rye, wheat, oats and barley,

oriented to the markets of Western Europe and industrial crops: the eastern regions in the production of flax and hemp, the central and western regions in the production of sugar beet, and since the middle of the XIX-th century, potatoes, as a raw material for distilling. However, in the 1880s, grain production as a market crop became unprofitable in Belarus. The markets of Western Europe were filled with cheaper and higher-quality grain from America, which made the products of Belarusian producers uncompetitive in the European market. Agriculture in Belarus has shifted to meat and dairy farming, which in those conditions could provide high profits. In 1883 – 1900-the number of cattle in Belarus doubled.

Serfdom was a brake on the development of agriculture. In the 1840s – 50s, the government carried out a reform of state estates, called the Kiselyov reform (Minister of State Property), which somewhat improved the situation of state peasants, as well as inventory reform, which streamlined the duties of serfs. However, only the reform of 1861 leads to the liberation of the peasants, albeit on predatory terms for them.

The peculiarity of the reform of 1861 in Belarus was that its beginning coincided here with the beginning of the uprising of 1863 for the restoration of Rzeczpospolita within the borders of 1772. In order for the peasants not to join the uprising on November 2, 1863, the tsarist governments (on the initiative of Governor-General Muravyov) issued a decree that obliged landowners to reduce redemption payments by 20% and urgently conclude redemption deals with the peasants. Thus, the temporarily obligated position of the peasants was immediately eliminated. Landlords were obliged to endow landless peasants with 3 tithes of land and return to the peasants the sections made in the Minsk, Vilna and Grodno provinces. In general, despite the extremely unfair conditions of the reform, the peasants received personal freedom and society finally ended feudal slavery – the way for the development of capitalist relations was opened. After the abolition of serfdom, other bourgeois reforms were carried out: military, judicial, urban, zemstvo, censorship, etc. However, in Belarus they were held with considerable delay and in a reduced form.

The development of the economy and trade was facilitated by the improvement of communication routes. In the first half of the XIX century, canals were built that connected the rivers of the basins of the Black and Baltic Seas: Oginsky, Berezinsky, Dneprovsko-Bugsky, Augustovsky. Steamships sailed along the Dnieper, Pripyat, and the Western Dvina. This contributed to the development of domestic and foreign trade.

The first railway in Belarus appeared in 1862 – this is a section of the St. Petersburg-Warsaw railway that passed through the cities of Grodno and Porechye. In the 1860s, the Riga-Oryol railway was built. In the 1870s – Moscow-Brest and Libava-Romensk railway. In 1880, the Polesskaya railway, and in 1902, the St. Petersburg-Odessa Railway. The total length of railways in Belarus was 3,000 km. Railway construction contributed to the development of the economy of the Belarusian provinces and the growth of the urban population.

In the late XVIII-th and first half of the XIX-th century, fair trade developed in Belarus. Local fairs were held on certain days of the week in all cities and towns of Belarus. Significant shifts in the development of trade occurred in the last third of the XIX – early XX century. Fairs gradually lost their role. They were replaced by constant trade through stores. At the end of the XIX century, it accounted for 95% of the internal trade turnover of cities.

A characteristic feature of the industrial development of Belarus at the turn of the XIX – XX centuries was the creation of joint-stock companies. On the eve of the First World War, there were 34 joint-stock companies in Belarus. They owned such large enterprises in Belarus as the Vitebsk flax spinning factory Dvina, a tram and an electric station in Vitebsk, the Dobrusha paper mill, the match factories Progress-Vulkan in Pinsk and Molniya in Mozyr. However, small commodity enterprises continued to play an important role in Belarus, which in 1913 provided 50% of the gross industrial output.

As a result of the development of industry, transport, and trade in Belarus, the growth of cities accelerated. In 1913, the number of urban residents of Belarus increased 2.8 times and amounted to 983,000 people. The largest cities were Minsk, Vitebsk and Grodno. The major cities were Minsk, Gomel, Mogilev, and Bobruisk. There was a gradual transition from the division of society into estates, which was typical for the era of feudalism, to the class structure of bourgeois society.

6. The Revolution of 1905 – 1907 and its consequences in Belarus.

The State Duma in the Russian Empire and the position of deputies from the Belarusian lands.

On January 9, 1905, the famous “Bloody Sunday” took place. In St. Petersburg, by order of Nicholas II, a peaceful demonstration of workers who were carrying a petition to the tsar asking for an improvement in their situation was shot. About 500 people were killed and 3,000 injured. This event marked the beginning of the first Russian revolution of 1905 – 1907. Political demonstrations with the slogan “Down with the autocracy” took place throughout the Russian Empire. In January 1905 alone, there were more than 30 of them in Belarusian cities, and in May there were 56 with the participation of 200,000 workers. This scale of the labor movement is associated with the celebration of May 1. The proletariat was also supported by the peasantry. About 50 peasant demonstrations took place in Belarus in January, 175 in June, and by the autumn of 1905 the peasant movement had covered the entire territory of Belarus. Moreover, if the workers simply went to demonstrations and did not show up for work, then the peasants burned the lords’ estates, cut down the lords’ forests, drove cattle into the lords’ fields, and sometimes killed the lords themselves. The situation became critical when the crew of the battleship Potemkin mutinied on the Black Sea (June 14, 1905), which meant that the support of tsarism – the armed forces began to side with the revolution. In Belarus, revolutionary sentiments also began to penetrate the army.

In the summer of 1905 in Minsk, Brest, Baranovichi there were riots among the soldiers – railway workers.

In order to somehow improve the situation, on August 19, 1905, the tsar published a manifesto on the creation of an advisory State Duma without legislative powers. The people called the Duma the Bulygin Duma because the draft for it was written by a certain Bulygin. The people boycotted the Bulygin Duma, no one came to the elections, and the revolutionary movement began to gain even greater momentum and in early October grew into an All-Russian political strike. In practice, this meant that not a single industrial enterprise operated in the entire Russian Empire. During this strike, revolutionary government bodies, councils of workers' deputies, emerged at enterprises and controlled the course of the strikes. They included representatives of the parties RSDLP, BSC, PPS Socialist-Revolutionaries, and Bundists. To stop the strike on October 17, Tsar Nicholas II issues a new manifesto, according to which a new State Duma with legislative powers is created.

On October 18, 1905, a 20,000-strong rally was held in Minsk on the forecourt, at which representatives of the revolutionary parties urged not to believe the tsar, not to take part in the Duma elections, but to continue the revolutionary struggle until the complete overthrow of the autocracy. It should be noted that the people who gathered at the rally were right in many ways, because the electoral law was outrageously unfair. Deputies were elected by electors, and electors were directly elected by the people by direct vote. The electoral quotas were as follows: one elector per 2 thousand of the population from the landowner's curia, one elector per 4 thousand from the urban (bourgeois), one elector per 30 thousand from the peasant, one elector per 90 thousand from the workers.

Governor Kurlov ordered the shooting of this rally, and as a result, 100 people were killed and 300 injured. This execution went down in history under the name "Kurlovsky". The same rallies were shot in Mogilev and Vitebsk.

After the publication of the manifesto on October 17, liberal (centrist) parties took shape in the Russian Empire, these are the Union of October 17 – Octobrists and the constitutional Democratic party "Cadets". These parties stated that the revolution must be completed because it has achieved its main goals, and a parliament has already been established in Russia. The Octobrists and Cadets called for participation in the elections. The Octobrists and the Cadets had in common that they were in favor of a monarchy limited by the parliament (Duma), but there was a difference between these parties. They differed in their social background: The Octobrists are the richest entrepreneurs, owners of factories, landowners, Cadets – university professors and gymnasium teachers, officials. The Octobrists ignored the national question and were for a united and indivisible Russia, the Cadets were for presenting cultural and national autonomy to all the peoples of the Russian Empire. It should be noted that, in general, the Cadets were much more democratic than the Octobrists, since their program provided for the interests of all segments of the population of the Russian Empire, not just the rich. For example, in the program of the Cadet party there were requirements in the

interests of workers, which included the requirement of an 8-hour working day, mandatory 1 day off per week, mandatory paid leave, and the payment of old-age and disability pensions. It must be remembered that at the beginning of the twentieth century all this in the Russian Empire was not in the working legislation. For the peasants, the Cadets demanded that half of the landowner's land be nationalized and transferred to the peasants.

After October 17, radical right-wing parties appeared, which advocated an absolute, unlimited monarchy and the suppression of the revolution, in addition, the right-wing radicals of that time, without exception, propagandized anti-Semitism. They sought to convince the public that Jews were guilty of the revolution and they should, at least, be sent abroad. Radical right-wing parties not only promoted anti-Semitism in words, but also organized a number of Jewish pogroms in practice. Such parties included the Union of the Russian People, the Union of Archangel Michael, and others. The representatives of these parties were popularly called the Black Hundreds.

It should be noted that the manifesto could not completely stop the revolution. Already on November 13, the crew of the Ochakov cruiser mutinied on the Black Sea. On November 15, the crews of five more ships joined it. In December, an armed uprising began in Moscow, which was suppressed with great difficulty. It was only at the beginning of 1906 that the State Duma was elected. In the Belarusian provinces, the cadets won, who brought 29 out of 36 deputies from Belarus to the Duma.

The First Duma did not last long, it refused to approve the Stolypin agrarian reform and was dissolved. In early 1907, elections to the second State Duma took place under the new electoral law. Even revolutionary organizations took part in them, but they could not get a single representative from Belarus. In the Belarusian provinces, the Octobrists and the Black Hundreds won, who united in the ROU – Russian Border Union bloc. Despite this, the second Duma turned out to be even more revolutionary than the first, it not only did not approve Stolypin's agrarian reform, but proposed its own. After that, the Duma was immediately dissolved. This happened on June 3, because Soviet historiography calls the dissolution of the State Duma the third June coup d'état. After that, the tsarist government issued such an electoral law, according to which 50% of the seats in the Duma were assigned to landlords. The Third State Duma approved the Stolypin agrarian reform.

Stolypin's agrarian reform did not affect landowner land ownership. And according to the First and Second State Duma, landowners were obliged to share their land with the peasants.

7. “Nasha Niva” and the Belarusian national idea at the beginning of the XX century. (“Nasha Niva” – Our Cornfield).

During the years of the First Russian Revolution of 1905 – 1907, the development of the idea of Belarusian statehood was facilitated not only by the activities of the Regionalists and Western Russianists, but above all by the

activities of the Belarusian Socialist Community. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the newspaper *Nasha Dolya* (*Nasha Dolya – Our Lot*) became the first printing organ of the Belarusian Socialist Community, and since November 1906, *Nasha Niva*. (State Duma – Parliament)

After the dispersal of the II State Duma (State Duma – Parliament) on June 3, 1907, the period of establishing reaction begins. A fierce struggle began against parties that focused on illegal methods of fighting for power. In Belarus, as a result of repressions, the activities of the Bolsheviks, Mensheviks and Social Revolutionaries actually stopped completely and was resumed only in 1917. The BSG also announced the dissolution of the party, and themselves grouped around the newspaper *Nasha Niva*. It was this newspaper that became the center of the Belarusian national cultural movement in the post-revolutionary period. It was published from November 1906 to August 1915. in Vilna. The editorial staff included brothers Ivan and Anton Lutskevich, Vaclav Lastovsky, and Vaclav Ivanovsky. Since 1914, Yanka Kupala became its editor. The newspaper was published weekly in Vilna, printed in Cyrillic and Latin letters, and since the end of 1912 only in Cyrillic. It was designed mainly for the village reader and the national intelligentsia. The main place in it was given to materials that reflected the national character of Belarusians.

Nasha Niva held liberal and educational positions. The authors of the newspaper saw their primary and main task in the struggle for recognition of the existence of the Belarusian people, for their equality with other nations. The newspaper paid much attention to the theoretical justification of the right of the Belarusian people to preserve and develop their language and national culture. For many thousands of Belarusians, *Nasha Niva* became the first Belarusian newspaper they read. The newspaper had hundreds of correspondents all over Belarus. So, for 1910 it has published 666 articles and notes from 321 settlements in Belarus and from 14 outside the borders of the region. The newspaper even reached Belarusians who moved to America.

Since 1910 *Nasha Niva* published the Belarusian calendar addressed to peasants, since 1912 – the *Sokha* magazine (*Sokha – a kind of plough*), and for young people – the *Luchinka* literary magazine for children (*Luchinka – burning splinter*). *Nasha Niva*, together with the publishing house “The Sun will Look in our window”, provided the output of fiction and popular science books. The newspaper educated a number of Belarusian writers, public and political figures, scientists, among whom were Yakub Kolas and Yanka Kupala, Aloiza Pashkevich, Maxim Bogdanovich, Ales Harun, Zmitrok Byadulya.

Thus, the activities of the newspaper played an important role in the consolidation of the Belarusian nation, the development of its language and culture, and especially in the formation of the self-awareness of Belarusians. Perhaps it was this newspaper that first embraced the entire region with the concept of “Belarus”.

Lecture 1.5. Nation-state building in 1917–1941.

1. The First World War on Belarusian lands and attempts to resolve the national issue in 1918.
2. The Revolution of 1917 and the Belarusian national question.
3. Options for programs to resolve the national issue at the First All-Belarusian Congress, its results.
4. The creation of the SSRB and the Lithuanian-Belarusian SSR.
5. The war between Poland and Soviet Russia. The second proclamation of the BSSR.
6. Participation of the BSSR in the creation of the USSR. Formation of the Soviet model of statehood.
7. The policy of Belarusization in the 1920-s and its results.
8. The transformation of the BSSR into an industrial-agrarian state in the second half of the 1920s – 1930s.
9. The formation of borders and the administrative-territorial structure of the BSSR in 1919 – 1940.

1. The First World War on Belarusian lands and attempts to resolve the national issue in 1918.

On August 1, 1914, the First World War began. The reason for it was the murder of the heir to the Austrian throne, Franz Ferdinand, and his wife in Sarajevo by a Serbian high school student, Gavrilo Princip. July 28 Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Russia stood up for Serbia and on August 1 declared war on Austria-Hungary. Russia was joined by its allies England and France, and Austria-Hungary by Germany and Italy. By the end of the war, 37 states with a population of 1.5 billion people were drawn into it.

Since the beginning of the war, martial law was imposed on the entire territory of Belarus, all political activities were prohibited, and a curfew was imposed. With the outbreak of the war, a “dry law” was introduced. It was a heavy blow to the economy of Belarus; more than 600 vodka and beer manufacturing enterprises were left without work. Another reason for the economic decline was the mobilization of the army. Because of it, enterprises that did not work for the war went bankrupt, as they faced an acute shortage of workers. There was also a decline in agriculture in Belarus, because the most able-bodied men and the best horses were mobilized into the army.

In the summer of 1915, the Germans moved the fighting to the territory of Belarus. Only by October, the Russian army managed to stabilize the front along the Dvinsk – Postavy – Smorgon – Baranovichi – Pinsk line. The retreating Russian army organized the evacuation of the Belarusian population to the rear. About 1.5 million people have moved to the inner provinces of Russia.

An occupation regime has been established on the occupied territory of Belarus. The population was heavily taxed, food and fodder were requisitioned. People were sent to concentration camps for insubordination. But at the same time,

the German occupation authorities did not interfere with the activities of Belarusian national organizations. In April 1916, representatives of the Belarusian National Committee established in Vilna at the international conference of the peoples of Russia announced the right of the Belarusian people to self-determination. Belarusian national organizations are appearing in Moscow, Petrograd, and the Volga region, where hundreds of thousands of refugees from Belarus lived.

On February 23 (March 8), 1917, women demonstrated in Petrograd demanding down with war, bread and peace. They were joined by workers and soldiers. At that time, the Tsar was in Mogilev at the Headquarters of the Supreme Commander. He went to St. Petersburg to calm the people somehow, but did not get there, on March 1, Nicholas II abdicated, and a Provisional government was formed from the State Duma. In parallel with it, Councils of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies were created.

The victory of the February Revolution contributed to the activation of the national movement, the growth of the number of Belarusian national organizations of different political views. Only in 1917, three congresses of Belarusian national organizations were held, where the issue of options for the national state structure of Belarus was discussed and the Central Belarusian Rada was established.

After the victory of the October Revolution, power in the territory of Belarus passed to the Regional Executive Committee of the Western Region headed by the Bolsheviks. The Central Belarusian Rada, transformed into the Great Belarusian Rada. It did not recognize the power of the Bolsheviks and adopted a program that provided for the proclamation of the BNR and its federation with Russia. This idea was also supported by the Belarusian Regional Committee, a fraction of Belarusian deputies at the All-Russian Congress of Peasant Deputies. On their initiative, the First All-Belarusian Congress (Congress) was convened in Minsk on December 7 – 17. All strata of the Belarusian population and various political organizations were represented at it. The Council of People's Commissars of the Western Region did not interfere with the work of the congress until the congress elected the All-Belarusian Council of Peasants, Workers and Soldiers Deputies, which intended to proclaim itself the highest authority in the territory of Belarus. The Congress was instantly dispersed by the Bolsheviks from Regional Executive Committee of the Western Region.

Some deputies of the All-Belarusian Congress did not obey this decision. On December 18, 1917, they held an underground meeting, at which the Rada of the Congress was created, headed by Yazep Lesik and the Executive Committee of the Congress, headed by Jan Sereda. The Rada has decided to continue the struggle for the creation of national statehood.

On February 18, 1918, the armistice concluded with the Germans by the Bolsheviks ended. Germany has launched an offensive. On February 19, the heads of the Regional Executive Committee of the Western Region left Minsk and moved to Smolensk. On this day, the Executive Committee of the Rada of the All-Belarusian Congress took power into its own hands. On February 21, the Germans

arrived in Minsk and established their occupation regime here. On the same day, the Executive Committee of the Rada of the All-Belarusian Congress adopted the 1st Charter, in which it declared itself the provisional authority on the territory of Belarus, until the convocation of the All-Belarusian Constituent Assembly. On March 9, 1918, the Executive Committee of the Rada adopted the 2nd Charter, in which it proclaimed the creation of the Belarusian People's Republic, and on March 25 – the 3rd Charter, in which it proclaimed the independence of the BNR.

The occupation authorities then dispersed the Rada, and attempts by its leaders to gain recognition from Germany were unsuccessful. In the summer of 1918, representatives of the Rada tried to find support in Moscow, but also unsuccessfully.

Thus, the attempt to resolve the national issue in 1918 by creating the Belarusian statehood was unsuccessful.

2. The Revolution of 1917 and the Belarusian national question.

On February 23, 1917, the revolution won in Petrograd. Tsar Nicholas II abdicated the throne. From representatives of the State Duma, a Provisional Government was formed, which was to act until the convocation of the All-Russian Constituent Assembly. It represented the official government. However, along with it, revolutionary authorities are appearing in parallel – the Soviets of Workers', Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies. Thus, dual power was established in the country. Over time, the interests of the Soviets diverged more and more from the interests of the Provisional Government, eventually the Soviets seized all power during the October Revolution.

Two authorities have also appeared in Belarus. On March 4, 1917, the Minsk Council of Soldiers' and Workers' Deputies was formed, and on March 6, a public committee of representatives of various parties headed by the commissioner of the Provisional Government was appointed to the provisional governments, this committee assumed the functions of the provincial administration. The peculiarity of the political situation in Belarus was that a third force arose here – national parties and organizations that actively pursued the idea of national revival and self-determination.

Already in March 1917, 23 national parties and organizations were created. The largest among them were the BPPS, the Belarusian Party of People's Socialists and the Belarusian Christian Democracy on March 25 – 27, 1917 in Minsk. The first congress of Belarusian organizations. It elected the Belarusian National Committee (BNC), which was tasked with uniting all national forces around itself to fight for the autonomy of Belarus within the Russian Republic. Roman Skirmunt was chosen as its chairman. The BNC was instructed to hold elections to the Belarusian Regional Rada and prepare a Constitution. However, there was no unity in the BNC, it was plagued by disputes. Therefore, it was not easy to cope with the task.

On July 8 – 10, 1917, the II Congress of Belarusian organizations was held in Minsk. It revealed contradictions between the BNK and the left wing of the BSG,

which led to a split in the BNK. The Central Council of Belarusian Organizations, headed by Joseph Lesik, was elected instead of the BNC at the congress.

Despite the change of government, the socio-economic and political crisis in Russia continued to grow. The attempted offensive on the Western Front in June 1917 ended in failure. The Soviets demanded the resignation of the Provisional Government. July 4, 1917 The Provisional Government tried to take control of the situation in the country. It shot a demonstration in Petrograd, ordered the arrest of Lenin and the Bolsheviks, and made an attempt to stop the further escalation of the political crisis with repressions, but it failed to do so.

In early August 1917, the Provisional Government entered into an agreement with the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, General Kornilov, to establish a military dictatorship in the country. At the end of August, he withdrew his loyal units from the front and marched on Petrograd. However, the Soviets opposed the rebellion, they disarmed the rebels. Kornilov was arrested. After that, the Bolshevization of the Soviets began. The Bolsheviks declared the need for an armed uprising against the Provisional Government and began to prepare for it.

At that time, the Belarusian national movement continued to develop, but unity was not achieved in it. On October 8 – 10, 1917, the 2nd session of the Central Rada of Belarusian Organizations (CRBO) took place in Minsk, at which there was a split in the BSG. The Petrograd organization left the BSG, and announced the creation of the BSDLP headed by Alexander Chervyakov. It took the position of the Bolsheviks.

On the night of October 24 – 25, 1917, an armed uprising of workers and soldiers won in Petrograd. On the afternoon of October 25, the overthrow of the Provisional Government was announced. In the night of October 26, the Second all-Russian Congress of Soviets declared the Soviet government adopted the decree on peace and land, and formed a government headed by Lenin, which was called the Council of People's Commissars of the CPC.

On October 25, at noon, the news of the victory of the armed uprising came to Minsk. The Minsk Council immediately issues Order No. 1, in which it proclaims the transfer of power in the city into the hands of the council. The Soviet takes control of the post office, telegraph, telephone, radio station, railway stations, banks, etc. On October 27, at the headquarters of the Western Front, the Socialist-Revolutionaries, Bundists and Mensheviks create a "Committee for the Salvation of the Revolution" headed by Socialist-Revolutionary Kolotukhin. The committee demands that the Minsk Council transfer power in the city to them. The Council begins negotiations with the committee, and delays them. On the night of November 1 – 2, an armored train and revolutionary soldiers arrived in Minsk, the "Committee for the Salvation of the Revolution" was arrested. Soviet power was finally established in Minsk. Soviet power was established easily and peacefully throughout Belarus. The situation was more difficult in Mogilev, where the Headquarters of the supreme commander of the Russian army, General Dukhonin, was located. Therefore, revolutionary detachments from Minsk, Gomel and Petrograd were sent to Mogilev. On the night of November 19 – 20, the

Headquarters was liquidated, and General Dukhonin was arrested. Soviet power was established throughout the territory of Belarus. Soviet power was established easily and peacefully on the Western Front, where the positions of the Bolsheviks were very strong.

On November 28, 1917, the Bolsheviks created the Regional Executive Committee of the Western Region and the front of the Regional Executive Committee headed by Rogozinsky and the Council of People's Commissars of the Western Region and the Front headed by Lander.

On November 2, 1917, the Central Executive Committee of the RSFSR announced the declaration of the rights of the peoples of Russia, which proclaimed the right of every people of the Russian Empire to self-determination and the creation of their own statehood. The first to use this right were the people of Finland, Poland, the peoples of the Baltic States and Ukraine, who declared their independence.

The Great Belarusian Rada also appealed to the Regional Executive Committee of the Western Region and the Front with a proposal to convene an all-Belarusian congress to create a Belarusian state, but he refused to convene it. Then the Belarusian Regional Committee (BOK) took the initiative to create a Belarusian state into its own hands. The BOK was created in Petrograd from delegates of the All-Russian Peasant Congress. It applied to the Council of People's Commissars of the RSFSR and received permission to convene a congress and money for its holding.

On December 15, 1917, the 1st All-Belarusian Congress began its work in Minsk. On the night of December 17 – 18, the congress adopted a resolution that the only authorities in Belarus should be the Belarusian Council of Soldiers' and Workers' Deputies. Upon learning about this, the Regional Executive Committee dispersed the congress and arrested its presidium. On the morning of December 18, 1917, the delegates of the congress gathered in the afternoon at the depot of the Libavo-Romensk railway and elected the executive committee of the congress, which is charged with fighting for the creation of Belarusian statehood.

Thus, the attempt to create Belarusian statehood in 1917 was unsuccessful.

3. Options for programs to resolve the national issue at the First All-Belarusian Congress, its results.

The formation of the Belarusian statehood after the February Revolution in Russia took place in several stages. The first of them is connected with the proclamation of the BNR. The proclamation of the BNR is inextricably linked with the First All-Belarusian Congress and the decisions taken at it on the issue of Belarusian statehood. In the autumn of 1917, two main directions were clearly defined: the radical left (socialist) and the national democratic. The first was represented by the Belarusian Regional Committee, and later by the Belarusian National Commissariat, whose leaders were Dmitry Zhilunovich, Alexander Chervyakov, Evsey Kanchar, Joseph Lagun and Anatoly Ustinovich. They sought self-determination on a Soviet basis within Russia. The second was by members of

the BSG and BPNS, who united around representatives of the GBR (Alexander Burbis, Jan Sereda, Joseph Voronko, Simon Rak-Mikhailovsky, Arkady Smolich, etc.), who reacted negatively to the establishment of Soviet power in St. Petersburg and advocated the creation of a national state on a bourgeois-democratic basis.

On November 2, 1917, the Declaration of the Rights of the Peoples of Russia was proclaimed, which proclaimed the right of all peoples of Russia to state self-determination. It was immediately used by the peoples of Finland and Poland, the Baltic peoples and Ukraine, who declared their independence. On November 17, 1917, the Belarusian Regional Committee, which was against the division of Russia into a number of independent states and at the same time did not recognize the authority of the Regional Executive Committee of the Western Region in Belarus, began negotiations with the Council of People's Commissars on convening an All-Belarusian Congress, at which it planned to resolve the issue of national autonomy within Soviet Russia. The Council of People's Commissars supported the initiative and even allocated 50 thousand rubles for the congress.

After the victory of the October Revolution, a third force appeared – the Regional Executive Committee of the Western Region, headed by Nikolai Rogozinsky, Karl Lander, Alexander Myasnikov and Wilhelm Knorin, who denied the very existence of the Belarusian ethnic group, and considered the Western Region an integral part of the RSFSR.

The inconsistency of actions between the Belarusian Regional Committee and the Great Belarusian Rada led to the fact that the congress lasted from October 5 to October 17, 1917. The members of the GBR, who agreed with the BRC to convene a single congress on December 15, began to gather their delegates on December 5, 1917, when 300 delegates arrived in Minsk, 383 on December 7, etc. The delegates who arrived conducted discussions in sections! On December 4, when all the delegates of the congress arrived, the governing bodies of the congress were elected.

Jan Sereda was elected Chairman of the Congress, and Alexander Vasila and Alexander Prushinsky were his vice-chairmen. The Mandate Commission issued 167 mandates with the right of decisive vote and 750 with the right of advisory vote. Almost all regions of Belarus were represented.

The three-day discussion exposed the main divergence of fractions on the issue of state-building in Belarus, the system of government and attitudes towards Soviet Russia. The main point of disagreement was the issue of representatives of the GBR and the BRK. The first ones demanded the immediate proclamation of a Belarusian republic. The second ones considered it impossible to proclaim it in conditions when most of the territory of Belarus was occupied by the Germans.

On the night of December 17 – 18, 1917, a resolution of the congress was agreed upon, according to which the congress created a local government body from its composition in the person of the All-Belarusian Council of Peasants, Workers and Soldiers' Deputies, whose duties included the exercise of state power in the region until the convocation of the All-Belarusian Constituent Assembly. Representatives of the Regional Executive Committee, upon learning about this,

immediately dispersed the congress and arrested part of the governing bodies of the congress.

On the night of December 17 – 18, 1917, a resolution of the congress was agreed upon, according to which, from among its members, the congress created a local body of state power in the person of the All-Belarusian Council of Peasants, Workers and Soldiers' Deputies, whose responsibilities included the exercise of state power in the region until the convocation All-Belarusian Constituent Assembly. Representatives of the Regional Executive Committee, having learned about this, immediately dispersed the congress and arrested part of the leading bodies of the congress.

The dispersal of the 1st All-Belarusian Congress of the Regional Executive Committee did not put an end to attempts to create a Belarusian state, especially since the Council of People's Commissars of the RSFSR had a positive attitude towards the idea of Belarusian statehood. On January 31, 1918, the Council of People's Commissars of the RSFSR issued a decree on the creation of the Belarusian National Commissariat (BNK) headed by Dmitry Zhilunovich and Alexander Chervyakov under the People's Commissariat for Nationalities of the RSFSR. BNK was entrusted with the preparatory work for the creation of the SSRB. However, the question of its creation was postponed, since on February 18, 1918, after the breakdown of peace negotiations in Brest by Trotsky and the end of the armistice between Russia and Germany, German troops launched an offensive. The regional executive committee was evacuated to Smolensk on the same day. There was no power left in Minsk, and the Executive Committee of the 1st All-Belarusian Congress declared that it was the only legitimate power on the territory of Belarus. It was the Executive Committee of the 1st All-Belarusian Congress that attempted to create the Belarusian People's Republic in the spring of 1918.

4. The creation of the SSRB and the Lithuanian-Belarusian SSR.

The dispersal of the 1st All-Belarusian Congress by the Regional Executive Committee did not put an end to attempts to create a Belarusian state, especially since the Council of People's Commissars of the RSFSR was positive about the idea of creating a Belarusian state. On January 31, 1918, the Council of People's Commissars of the RSFSR issued a decree on the establishment of the Belarusian People's Commissariat (Belnatcom) under the People's Commissariat for Nationalities (Narkomnats) headed by Alexander Chervyakov. Belnatcom was entrusted with the preparatory work for the creation of the BSSR. However, the issue of creation was postponed because on February 18, after the breakdown of the peace talks in Brest-Litovsk and the end of the armistice between Germany and Russia, German troops launched an offensive.

Nevertheless, the work on the creation of the Belarusian state has not stopped. Belnatcom published the newspaper "Dennitsa", in July 1918 he held a congress of Belarusian refugees. The Congress appealed to the Regional Executive Committee with a proposal to rename the Western region of the RSFSR into the BSSR, but received a negative response.

On November 11, 1918, a revolution took place in Germany. The First World War is over. The Germans began withdrawing their troops from Belarus. The Soviet government announced the denunciation of the Brest Peace Treaty, and ordered the Red Army to occupy the territory of Belarus.

On December 21 – 23, 1918, a conference of the Belarusian sections of the RCP(b) was held in Moscow. It appealed to the Central Committee of the RCP(b) with a proposal to create the BSSR. On December 24, 1918, the Central Committee of the RCP(b) adopted a corresponding resolution. Having received the decisions of the Central Committee in their hands, Chervyakov and Zhilunovich leave for Smolensk, where the 6th Northwestern Conference of the RCP(b) began work. Bolsheviks from all over Belarus were represented at it, so it was renamed the First Congress of the Communist Party of Bolsheviks of Belarus (KP(b)B), who decided to create the BSSR and formed a provisional government headed by Dmitry Zhilunovich. January 1, 1919 The Provisional Government addressed the peoples of Belarus by radio with a Manifesto proclaiming the formation of the SSRB within the borders of the Smolensk, Vitebsk, Mogilev, Minsk and Grodno provinces. This day became the day of the formation of the BSSR.

On January 7, 1919, the SSRB government moved to Minsk and began preparations for the convocation of the 1st All-Belarusian Congress of Soviets. On January 16, 1919, in connection with the outbreak of war with Poland, the Central Committee of the RCP(b) decided to include the Smolensk, Vitebsk and Mogilev provinces into the RSFSR, and the BSSR as part of the Minsk and Grodno provinces was recommended to unite with the Lithuanian SSR in the Lit-Bel SSR.

The Lit-Bel SSR was needed as a buffer state between the newly recreated Poland and the RSFSR. On February 2 – 3, 1919, the All-Belarusian Congress of Soviets was held in Minsk, which adopted declarations on the independence of the SSRB, on union with the RSFSR and on unification with the Lithuanian SSR. The Constitution of the BSSR, the national coat of arms and the flag were approved.

On February 27, 1919, a joint meeting of the Central Executive Committee of the SSRB and the Lithuanian SSR took place in Vilna, at which the Lit-Bel SSR was established. But this republic did not last long. In August 1919 It was captured by the Poles. In July, Soviet Russia recognized the independence of the bourgeois Republic of Lithuania. After the liberation of the BSSR from the Poles in 1920, the BSSR was re-proclaimed within the borders of six counties of the Minsk Province.

5. The war between Poland and Soviet Russia. The second proclamation of the BSSR.

In November 1918, the Polish state of the 2nd Rzeczpospolita (Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth) was revived. Its leader, Jozef Pilsudski, announced that the 2nd RP would strive for the borders of Rzeczpospolita in 1772, and this directly concerned the interests of the Soviet state, because most of the 1st RP belonged to the RSFSR. The restored Poland received great military support from the Entente countries. Polish soldiers received brand-new self-loading rifles, machine guns, cannons in the Polish army there were tanks (at that time they had

just appeared), and combat aircraft. The army was commanded by former Russian officers of Polish origin. The newly created Polish army had high morale, Polish soldiers were willing and therefore able to fight. In other words, the 2nd RP had every chance of winning.

Already in December 1918, Poland began to implement its aggressive plans. On December 21, 1918, the Poles captured Vilna. February 9, 1919 – Brest, March 2, 1919 – Slonim and Pinsk. August 8, 1919 – Minsk. August 29, 1919 – Bobruisk.

On December 21, 1918, the BPR created the State Defense Council, headed by Vaclav Lastowski, to organize resistance to the Poles. The State Defense Council of the BPR worked ineffectively and was unable to organize resistance. At the same time, the incorrect actions of the Bolshevik government caused discontent among the population of Belarus. The Belarusian conscripts themselves were especially dissatisfied; they believed that, at the whim of the Bolsheviks, they would have to go to fight on the Far Eastern Front and leave their families without protection. Therefore, in Gomel and Rechitsa, recruits rebelled and shot all representatives of the Bolshevik government. Similar uprisings occurred in other Belarusian cities.

The Bolsheviks' underestimation of the Polish threat led to the fact that by the autumn of 1919 the Poles had seized the territory of Belarus up to the Berezina River, only there they managed to stabilize the front. The front, which ran along the Berezina River, stood there until the summer of 1920.

In the occupied territory, the Polish authorities liquidated all the authorities that had been created by the Bolsheviks and restored landowner land ownership. Anyone who openly expressed dissatisfaction with the Polish government was imprisoned in concentration camps or shot. Among the repressed were many figures of the Belarusian national movement and teachers of Belarusian schools.

The struggle against the Polish occupiers was led by the BPSR (Belarusian Party of Socialist Revolutionaries). The BPSR was the most influential party in Belarus at that time. They began to create partisan detachments, which united into a single centralized organization "People's Military Aid", which numbered 20,000 people.

The Belarusian Communist organization, led by Vsevolod Ignatovsky, also created many partisan detachments that took control of the surroundings of Minsk.

In March 1920, the Poles launched a new offensive, for this reason, the Council of People's Commissars of the RSFSR withdrew significant Red Army forces from the Eastern Front, and transferred them to the Soviet-Polish Front. On May 14, 1920, the Red Army launched a counteroffensive.

On July 31, 1920, after the liberation of Minsk, the SSRB was proclaimed for the second time. In August 1920 Brest was liberated, and the fighting was transferred to the territory of Poland. Nevertheless, the Russians, led by Tukhachevsky, managed to make their way to Warsaw for a short time, but due to the fact that Tukhachevsky did not take care of communication with the rear, the Red Army began to lack ammunition, fodder and food. In order not to be surrounded, Tukhachevsky's army began to retreat to the East. The Russians ceded

to the Poles not only the occupied Polish territories, but also the western half of Belarus. In such circumstances, the Soviet government was forced to negotiate peace, which took place in Riga on March 18, 1921. Negotiations took place between the RSFSR and Ukraine on the one hand and Poland on the other. The Belarusian delegation was not even allowed into the building where the negotiations were taking place.

As a result of these negotiations, Poland was given a part of Belarus of 113 thousand square kilometers with a population of 4 million people, only 6 counties of the Minsk province were retained for the BSSR. Vitebsk, Gomel provinces and the western counties of Smolensk province remained part of the RSFSR.

6. Participation of the BSSR in the creation of the USSR. Formation of the Soviet model of statehood.

Formation of the Soviet model of statehood. After the October Revolution, bodies of Soviet power were created – the Councils of Workers', Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies, both in the center and locally.

The Revolution legislated the establishment of the dictatorship of the proletariat in the form of Soviet power. The dictatorship of the proletariat was introduced with the aim of suppressing the bourgeoisie, destroying exploitation and building socialism. The Constitution enshrined the federal structure of the country and its name. The All-Russian Congress of Soviets was recognized as the highest authority, and in between – the Central Executive Committee elected by it. The executive power belonged to the SPK. The Constitution listed the basic rights and duties of citizens. Everyone was obliged to work (“Let no one who does not work eat”). Persons using hired labor for profit or living on unearned income, former employees of the tsarist police, priests were deprived of voting rights. Electoral advantages were secured for the workers: 5 votes of peasants were equated to one vote of a worker. The V Congress approved the flag and coat of arms of the RSFSR.

The first Constitution of Belarus was adopted on February 3, 1919 by the First All-Belarusian Congress of Soviets. The Constitution legally established the formation of the BSSR. It was small in scope: it consisted of a Declaration of the Rights of the Working and Exploited People and three sections.

It proclaimed the sovereignty of the Soviets, and created a new system of state bodies. The All-Belarusian Congress of Soviets was declared the highest authority in the BSSR, and in the period between congresses – the Central Executive Committee elected by the congress, which was simultaneously the highest legislative, administrative and controlling body. The Constitution of the BSSR of 1919 proclaimed the republic as a state of the dictatorship of the proletariat, in which all power belongs to the Soviets of Workers, Peasants and Red Army deputies. “Non-workers” were deprived of the right to vote, they were forbidden to participate and hold public mass events. Only workers and peasants (workers) had the honorable right to defend the revolution.

The functions of the government were assigned to a Large Presidium, which

was formed by the Central Executive Committee. Private ownership of land was abolished, and universal labor service was introduced. Of all the Constitutions of the BSSR, it was the most ideologized, directly asserted the dictatorship of the proletariat, and openly recognized the use of violence in order to establish a new socialist system.

The provisions of the Constitution also contained positive aspects. Thus, freedom of religious and anti-religious propaganda was proclaimed, the right of workers to public events (meetings, rallies, demonstrations, marches) was provided for, equality was consolidated regardless of race or nationality. Four languages were declared as state languages – Belarusian, Russian, Polish and Hebrew.

In 1923, the government of the BSSR raised the issue before the Central Executive Committee of the USSR of the Central Committee of the RCP(b) on the return of the eastern lands to the BSSR. In 1924. This issue was resolved positively. On December 30, 1924, in accordance with the decree of the Central Executive Committee of the RSFSR of the BSSR, 15 counties and a number of volosts of the Vitebsk, Mogilev and Smolensk provinces were transferred. As a result, the territory and population of Belarus were increased by more than 2 times. In 1926, the second consolidation of the BSSR took place. On December 18, 1926, Gomel and Rechitsa counties were transferred to the BSSR. On March 15, 1927, a new administrative division was introduced. The BSSR was divided into 8 districts.

The second Belarusian Constitution adopted the basic ideas and principles of the Constitution of the BSSR of 1919. It was adopted on April 11, 1927 by the VII All-Belarusian Congress of Soviets of Workers, Peasants and Red Army Deputies. The main reason for its adoption was the formation of the USSR (December 30, 1922) and the adoption of the first Constitution of the USSR on January 31, 1924, which was the basis for the adoption by the republics that became part of the USSR of their Basic Laws.

The Constitution of 1927 largely retained the features of the continuity of the Constitution of the BSSR of 1919. The Constitution regulated the activities of the highest authorities and management: the All-Belarusian Congress of Soviets, the Central Executive Committee, the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee, the Council of People's Commissars, as well as local authorities and management. Subsequently, only partial minor changes were made to the Constitution.

For the first time in Soviet practice, the Constitution of the BSSR of 1927 clearly separated the functions of legislative and executive bodies. The peculiarity of the Constitution of the BSSR, unlike the Constitution of the USSR, is the absence of a provision on the dictatorship of the proletariat.

7. The policy of Belarusization in the 1920-s and its results.

In the early 1920-s, the Government of the USSR began to implement a program for the formation of socialist nations. Therefore, a national and cultural revival has begun in all the Union republics. In Belarus, the process of national and cultural revival has been called Belarusization. Belarusization has affected all spheres of life in Belarus. It has gone through 3 stages in its development: 1) the

formation of the prerequisites of 1919 – 1924, 2) the real implementation of 1924 – 1928, 3) curtailment since 1929.

In July 1924, at the 2nd session of the Central Executive Committee of the BSSR, a special commission was established to carry out Belarusization, headed by Alexander Isakovich Khatskevich. Its program included: the translation of the work of party and state bodies into Belarusian, an increase in the number of Belarusians in the state apparatus, the translation of educational and cultural institutions into Belarusian, the translation of Red Army units stationed in Belarus into Belarusian. It should be noted that all the points of this program have been fulfilled.

The policy of Belarusization, which was carried out in the 1920-s, contributed to the real flourishing and rapid development of Belarusian culture. The formation of the public education system is underway, thousands of primary and secondary schools are being opened, in which all school-age children are involved in education. Numerous literacy courses are being created for adults at their place of work or residence. On October 30, 1921, the BSU was opened, the first rector of which was the famous historian Vladimir Ivanovich Picheta. In 1925, three more universities, 25 technical schools and 20 vocational schools began operating in Belarus.

The formation of Belarusian science is taking place. Its formation is associated with the name of Dmitry Fedorovich Zhilunovich. It was he who founded the Belarusian Scientific and Terminological Commission, on the basis of which the Institute of Belarusian Culture was established in 1922. On January 1, 1929, it was transformed into the Academy of Sciences of the BSSR. The famous historian and public figure Vsevolod Markovich Ignatovsky became the first president of the Academy of Sciences of the BSSR. Local history has received significant development. Local history circles and societies united thousands of people. In 1926, the first and a year later the second congress of local historians of Belarus took place in Minsk.

The Belarusian national literature has been successfully developing. Dozens of talented young writers appear next to her classics Yakub Kolas, Yanka Kupala, Tishka Gartny, Zmitrok Badulya: such as Kondrat Krapiva, Mikhas Lynkov, etc. Writers unite in creative associations “Flame”, “Molodnyak”, “Uzvyshsha”, etc.

Belarusian theatrical art was further developed in the 1920-s. In 1920, BST – 1 (Belarusian State Theater) began its work in Minsk and in 1926 BST – 2 in Vitebsk. The famous director and actor Vladislav Iosifovich Golubok created the third Belarusian traveling theater. The most famous composer of the 1920-s, who made a significant contribution to Belarusian music, was Alexander Sokolovsky.

Fine art is developing. The Vitebsk School of painting gave the world two of the most famous artists in the 20th century, Kazimir Malevich and Marc Chagall. They became the creators of such genres in the visual arts as Cubism and Suprematism. The proletarian trend in the visual arts of Belarus of that period is represented by the famous artist Mikhail Matveevich Filipovich.

Belarusian cinema is developing. In 1926, film director Yuri Viktorovich

Tarich shot the first Belarusian feature film “Forest Story” in Leningrad. And in 1929 the Belarusfilm film studio was created.

Thus, in a relatively short period of Belarusianization, the Belarusian people have created what other nations have been creating for centuries. In the 1920-s, Belarusian science, education system, literature, fine arts, cinematography, etc. were created.

8. The transformation of the BSSR into an industrial-agrarian state in the second half of the 1920s – 1930s.

After the Civil war and the Polish intervention, the economic situation in Belarus was difficult. Its peasant farms were actually destroyed during the war years. More than half of the industrial enterprises did not work, the acreage decreased by more than 30%, and the livestock population by more than half. During the war, the Bolsheviks practiced a policy of war communism that did not stimulate the development of agriculture and industry. The policy of war communism manifested itself in: 1. Prodravyorstka, when products and manufactured goods were forcibly taken away. 2. The prohibition of free trade in cities and the introduction of a card distribution system. 3. Universal labor service. People put up with this policy in the years of war. After the war, peasant uprisings against the Soviet government began.

This forced the Bolsheviks to temporarily change their political course and announce a New Economic Policy (NEP). It was proclaimed in March 1921. The Prodravyorstka was replaced by a product tax. Freedom of land use forms is allowed, as a result, the number of farms has increased. In 1925, the new Land Code of the BSSR was adopted, which gave peasants the right to rent land and hire hired workers, provided that the employer himself or his family members also work on the farm. The restoration of the economy was facilitated by cooperation in the village and the permission of private trade and private ownership of small and medium-sized enterprises in the city. Large state-owned enterprises remained state-owned, but they were transferred to self-financing. In 1924, the USSR introduced its own freely convertible currency, the golden chervonets.

All this made it possible to quickly restore both industry and agriculture. But it was a turn towards capitalism. This was not part of the plans of the Bolsheviks, who planned to build socialism. For this reason, from 1927 to 1928, the Bolsheviks curtailed the NEP. In 1925, they announced a course for accelerated industrialization and adopted the first five-year plan. In order to find funds, taxes were sharply increased, prices were raised, wages were frozen, and part of it (about a third) paid with bonds of the state loan of industrialization. Forest resources and agricultural products were selling abroad. In order to increase the export of agricultural products, forced collectivization was carried out.

Collectivization began in Belarus in 1931. It was accompanied by repressions against wealthy peasants. They were deported in masse to the northern regions of the USSR and Siberia. Collectivization led to a decrease in agricultural production, but provided the state with the opportunity to take away most of the produce from

the peasants almost free of charge and sell it abroad. Over the years of the three pre-war five-year plans, more than 1,000 new enterprises were built in Belarus and 800 old ones were reconstructed. New industries were created for Belarus: mechanical engineering, the fuel industry and the production of radio equipment. The number of workers has reached 700,000 people. The share of industry in gross output exceeded that of agriculture. Since 1935, the situation in agriculture has improved somewhat. This was due to the creation of MTS (Machine and tractor stations). This facilitated the work of collective farmers, but their income level remained extremely low. However, by the end of the 1930-s, Belarus had turned into an industrial-agrarian republic.

9. The formation of borders and the administrative-territorial structure of the BSSR in 1919 – 1940.

After the end of the Polish-Soviet war and the signing of the Riga Peace Treaty in 1921, the territory of the BSSR consisted of only 6 counties of the Minsk province. Soviet power was established here. The highest body is the Congress of Soviets of the BSSR, which was held every few years. Legislative power between congresses belonged to the Central Executive Committee. The executive power belonged to the Council of People's Commissars. The head of the country was considered to be the head of the party, who was originally Alexander Myasnikov. The party was called KP(b)B, and the All-Russian Party was called RKP(b), All-UKP(b), CPSU. In addition, a special youth organization was created – the Komsomol (Communist Youth Union).

The increase in the territory of the BSSR in 1924 and 1926. The Republic could not develop normally on the territory of six counties. After joining the USSR, the government of the BSSR began to raise before the government of the USSR the question of increasing the territory of the republic at the expense of the Belarusian territories, which at the second proclamation of the BSSR became part of the RSFSR. These appeals were heard in Moscow.

In 1924 the government of the USSR issued a decree on the transfer to the Belarusian SSR of 16 counties of Vitebsk, Gomel and Smolensk provinces, formerly part of the RSFSR, in which the majority of the population were Belarusians. As a result of this enlargement, the territory of Soviet Belarus grew by 2 times to 110 thousand km², and the population increased almost 3 times to 4.2 million people.

In 1926, the second consolidation of the BSSR took place. Its composition included Gomel and Rechitsa counties with an area of more than 15 thousand km² and a population of about 650 thousand people. This contributed to the formation of the Belarusian nation, the development of its economy and culture. In this regard, a new administrative and territorial structure has been introduced. The territory of the BSSR was divided into regions, which in turn were divided into districts, and districts into village councils.

In 1938, a new administrative-territorial division appeared. The BSSR was divided into 5 regions (Minsk, Vitebsk, Mogilev, Gomel and Polessky with the center in Mozyr).

In September 1939, the reunification of Western Belarus with the BSSR took place. In this regard, 5 more regions were created: Baranovichi region, Bialystok region, Brest region, Vileyka region and Pinsk region.

As a result of reunification with Western Belarus, the territory of the BSSR increased from 125.5 thousand km² to 225.7 thousand km². The population increased approximately twice and at the end of 1940 amounted to more than 10 million people.

On October 10, 1939, the Soviet leadership decided to transfer Vilna and the Vilna Region from Western Belarus to Lithuania in exchange for the right to deploy Soviet troops on the territory of Lithuania.

Thus, thanks to the reunification of Western and Eastern Belarus, great successes have been achieved in the development of industry and agriculture, science, education and culture.

Lecture 1.6. The Great Patriotic War is a key event in modern history.

1. Nazi Germany's attack on the USSR and defensive battles on the territory of Belarus.
2. The occupation regime and the genocide of the Belarusian people during the Great Patriotic War.
3. The formation and development of the partisan and underground movement in Belarus during the Great Patriotic War.
4. The liberation of Belarus from the Nazi invaders. The end of the Great Patriotic War.
5. The contribution of the people of Belarus to the defeat of fascism and victory in World War II.
6. The Great Patriotic War in the historical memory of Belarusians.

1. Nazi Germany's attack on the USSR and defensive battles on the territory of Belarus.

The Great Patriotic War began on June 22, 1941, when Nazi Germany treacherously attacked the USSR. The main blow to the Red Army units in Belarus was dealt in two directions: Brest and Grodno. The German Army Group Center struck at the junctions of the combat units of the 3rd and 4th as well as the 4th and 10th Soviet armies, precisely where Soviet troops could not offer serious resistance. Thus, already on the first day of the war, by the evening of June 22, 3 Soviet divisions (a division of 15 thousand people) were destroyed, and up to 70% of their personnel remained in 5 divisions. By the end of the first day of the war, the Germans advanced 50 – 60 km.

The border guards bravely fought the enemy. An example of the courage and perseverance of Soviet soldiers was the defense of the Brest Fortress, which was led by regimental commissar Fomin, Major Gavrillov and Captain Zubachev. The defense of the Brest Fortress lasted from the first day of the war until July 20, 1941. From June 26, there were battles for Minsk, in which the Germans lost several thousand soldiers killed and wounded, and 300 tanks. Nevertheless, on the evening of June 28, Soviet troops were forced to leave the Belarusian capital. The defenders of Mogilev fought bravely, holding off fascist divisions that were significantly superior in number for 23 days. Only by the end of August the enemy managed to capture Gomel and occupy Belarus.

The main reasons for the defeat of the Red Army in the summer of 1941 were:

- 1) The Wehrmacht (The German Army) had the best quality of weapons, and the entire economic potential of not only Germany, but also the whole of Europe was put on its support;
- 2) The Wehrmacht has already had 21 months of experience in waging a victorious war (10 European countries have been conquered). The fighting spirit of the soldiers was high.

3) Strategic and tactical miscalculations of the Red Army command. The Red Army was not taught to defend itself, as it was inspired by the idea of a war on foreign territory and with small losses.

4) Stalin's miscalculations related to the start date of the war.

5) Pre-war repressions against generals and officers (before the war, 3 out of 5 marshals, 600 generals, and about 70% of the entire Red Army command staff were shot on false charges).

2. The occupation regime and the genocide of the Belarusian people during the Great Patriotic War.

In August 1941, the Germans seized the entire territory of Belarus and established an occupation regime here. Its goal was the economic exploitation of Belarus, its gradual colonization and Germanization. In accordance with the Ost plan, 75% of the population of Belarus was to be evicted, and the remaining 25 were to be germanized. But it was not possible to implement this plan, as it was not possible to achieve victory over the Soviet army.

For the operational management of the territory of Belarus, the Germans divided it into parts: they included the northwestern districts of the Brest and Bialystok regions into East Prussia. The southern regions became part of the Reichskommissariat "Ukraine", the northern regions – the general district "Lithuania", most of the Vitebsk, Mogilev and Gomel regions were subordinated to the rear of Army group Center. In the remaining 1/3 of the territory of the republic, the general district "Belarus" was created, which was divided into 10 districts, headed by gebitskommissars. Councils were created in cities and districts, and with them the police from the local population. Village elders were appointed. Since September 1941, Gauleiter Wilhelm Kube has headed the civil government in the General District of Belarus. Belarusian citizens were shot without trial for the slightest crime and disobedience.

The occupation authorities returned the property confiscated by the Soviet government to the former owners. Private ownership of small enterprises, workshops, and shops was allowed.

Wilhelm Kube sought to attract Belarusian nationalists to his side. From among them, the BNS (Belarusian National Self-Help) was created on October 22. Which dealt with issues of health, public safety, education and culture. On June 22, 1943, the second UBY collaborationist organization (the Union of Belarusian Youth) was established with the aim of educating young people in the spirit of devotion to Germany.

In agriculture, the occupation administration in Belarus replaced the collective farm system with "community farms". In industry, the Germans restored the activities of those enterprises that were necessary to serve the needs of the army. The rest of the enterprises were dismantled, and their equipment and raw materials were exported to Germany. Labor was also exported to Germany, and 386 thousand civilians were exported from Belarus during the war years.

The occupation regime has brought untold troubles to Belarus. 2.2 million Belarusian citizens died during the Great Patriotic War, a significant part of whom were civilians. During the occupation, 9200 settlements were destroyed in the republic. Of these, 627 villages together with people. According to new data, more than 200 of them shared the fate of Khatyn and did not revive after the war. In addition, the Nazis established 260 concentration camps in Belarus. The camp in Trostyanets near Minsk was in third place after Auschwitz and Majdanek in terms of the number of people killed. More than 208 thousand people were destroyed in it. In addition, there were several other camps in Minsk: on Shirokaya Street (20 thousand were destroyed), in Masyukovshchina – 80 thousand, in the Minsk ghetto 100 thousand people. All this is evidence of the genocide of the Belarusian people during the Second World War.

3. The formation and development of the partisan and underground movement in Belarus during the Great Patriotic War.

The partisan movement on the territory of Belarus began literally from the first days of the war and was an important factor in achieving victory. The first detachments were created in Polesie under the command of Vasily Korzh, the “Red October” detachment under the command of Tikhon Bumazhkov and Fyodor Pavlovsky, and the detachment under the command of Minai Shmyrev (Father Minai).

On May 30, 1942, the Central Headquarters of the Partisan Movement (CHPM) was created at the Headquarters of the Supreme High Command, headed by the First Secretary of the Central Committee of the CPB Panteleimon Ponomarenko, and on September 9 of the same year they created the Belarusian Headquarters of the Partisan Movement (BHPM), headed by Pyotr Kalinin. The work of the headquarters consisted of organizing, recruiting and arming partisan detachments, and determining the tasks of the partisan movement. Partisan detachments or groups were also organized in the rear: special partisan schools were created where personnel were trained. The units that had undergone training and preparation were transferred behind the front line.

The main tactical unit of the partisan movement was a detachment – at the beginning of the war, usually several dozen people, later – up to 200 or more fighters. During the war, many detachments were united into brigades of up to several thousand people. Small arms prevailed in the armament, but many detachments and formations had mortars and machine guns, and some had artillery. People who joined partisan formations took the partisan oath, and strict military discipline was established in the detachments.

The following elements can be distinguished in the tactics of partisan actions during the Great Patriotic War: 1) Sabotage activity – destruction of the enemy’s infrastructure in any form. 2) Intelligence work. 3) Political activity and propaganda. 4) Combat assistance to the Red Army (the partisans disrupted the transfer of German troops, violated their organized withdrawal and management).

5) The destruction of enemy soldiers and officers. 6) Liquidation of collaborators and heads of the Nazi administration.

From the spring of 1942, the detachments will unite into brigades, and then territorial formations. In 1943, the number of partisans reached 120 thousand. They controlled up to 60% of the territory of Belarus. Partisan zones were created: Polotsk-Lepelskaya, Klychevskaya, etc., where Soviet power was completely restored. A guerrilla operation called the “Rail War” has entered history. The first stage of this operation took place from August 3 to September 15, 1943 during the Battle of Kursk in 1943. Only in Belarus, railway traffic was paralyzed for 15 to 30 days. Operation Concert was conducted by Soviet partisans from September 19 to the end of October 1943, and coincided with the autumn offensive of the Red Army. During Operation Bagration (June 23 – August 29, 1944), the third stage of the “rail war” occurred, during which the most important railway tracks were completely disabled, and enemy transportation along all roads was partially paralyzed.

In three years of fighting behind enemy lines, the partisans destroyed more than 500,000 Nazis, derailed 11,150 echelons, defeated 948 garrisons, destroyed about 20,000 vehicles and 1,300 tanks. About 45 thousand partisans died in the fight against the enemy.

The struggle of underground workers against the occupiers was conducted in the most difficult conditions, it required a lot of effort from underground organizations, and observance of the strictest secrecy. The underground infiltrated the institutions of the occupation apparatus, the enemy’s military units serving, railway transport, airfields, industrial and agricultural enterprises and carried out subversive work there. Underground organizations were especially active in such large industrial and political centers as Odessa, Kiev, Kharkov, Dnepropetrovsk, Minsk, Orel, Bryansk, etc. By the end of 1941 in the territory occupied by the enemy, there were 18 underground regional committees, more than 260 city and district party committees and about 300 city and district Komsomol committees. It was a force capable of conducting active military operations behind enemy lines, providing assistance to the troops of the Red Army.

The Minsk underground, which suffered heavy losses (it was defeated three times: in the autumn of 1941; in March – May 1942; and in September – October 1942), each time it was revived and continued to operate. Over 9 thousand people fought in its composition. Over 1,500 sabotages were carried out in Minsk during the occupation, including the assassination of the Commissioner General of Belarus Wilhelm Kube. For the feat of the Minsk underground workers, the city was awarded the title hero city.

The Orsha underground workers, led by Konstantin Zaslunov, also became famous. In three months, they destroyed 93 German steam locomotives, and dozens of trains derailed. Due to the threat of arrest in March 1942, Zaslunov left Orsha with a group and organized a partisan detachment, and then a brigade. On November 14, 1943, K.S. Zaslunov died in battle. In the same year, he was awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union posthumously.

Pyotr Mironovich Masherov, since 1965 the first secretary of the Central Committee of the CPB, in his youth was one of the organizers of the underground movement in the Districts of the Vitebsk region In August 1942. His underground group grew into a large partisan detachment, and then a brigade that controlled an area of 1,000 square kilometers. In August 1944, P.M. Masherov was awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

On the night of July 30, 1943, an underground Komsomol member, Fedor Krylovich, blew up a fuel train by two magnetic mines. As a result, 4 enemy echelons (including one with Tiger tanks), 31 fuel tanks and 63 wagons with shells, bombs, and mines were completely destroyed. It was one of the biggest sabotages of the Second World War.

Underground workers under the leadership of Vera Khoruzhey were active in Vitebsk, the underground workers of Gomel and Mogilev became famous for their actions. In Mogilev, more than 260 underground fighters fought against the occupiers.

The military exploits of the Obol underground fighters became widely known. Komsomol members created the Young Avengers organization at the Obol railway station. This organization was headed by Komsomol member Efrosinya Zenkova. Young underground fighters committed 21 acts of sabotage: they burned a flax mill, a sawmill, a power plant, several bridges, obtained and transferred weapons, medicines, valuable intelligence data to the partisans, distributed leaflets, Sovinformburo reports, etc. Efrosinya Zenkova and Zina Portnova were awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

Over 374 thousand partisans and 70 thousand underground fighters fought in the occupied territory of Belarus. The youth prevailed among the Belarusian patriots. Teenagers, young men and ladies, the eldest of whom was 26 years old, made up more than 54% of Belarusian partisans and underground fighters.

4. The liberation of Belarus from the Nazi invaders. The end of the Great Patriotic War.

The liberation of Belarus from the Germans began in September 1943, and on September 23, the first district center of Belarus, Komarin, was liberated. In autumn 1943 – early 1944, the Red Army liberated 2 regional centers Gomel and Mozyr, as well as twenty district centers. The offending Red Army was assisted by partisans. On the eve of liberation, they conducted the second stage of the “rail war”.

The final liberation of Belarus from the Nazis took place during Operation Bagration, which was carried out by the Red Army in June –July 1944.

Operation Bagration was carried out by troops from four fronts: 1 Baltic and 1, 2 and 3 Belarusian fronts. It began on June 23, 1944. The troops of the 1st Baltic, 1st and 2nd Belorussian fronts attacked the flanks of Army Group Center from the districts of Bobruisk, Vitebsk and Polotsk, the troops of the 2nd Belorussian Front pursued the retreating Germans. Large groups of German troops were surrounded in the area of Bobruisk and Vitebsk.

On July 3, 1944, the troops of the 1st Belorussian from the south and the 3rd Belorussian from the northeast broke into Minsk and liberated the capital of Belarus. A hundred thousand Germans got into the “cauldron” to the east of Minsk. This is how the first stage of Operation Bagration ended. During its second stage, which ended in early August 1944, the whole of Belarus was liberated and the Red Army reached the border with Germany in East Prussia. On July 28, the last Belarusian city of Brest was liberated. The partisans provided great assistance to the army during Operation Bagration. In June, they conducted the last stage of the “rail war”. In the autumn of 1944, Romania, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, partly Poland, Czechoslovakia and Hungary were liberated from fascism.

On April 22, 1945, troops under the command of Marshal Georgy Zhukov broke through the defenses held by the German army on the outskirts of the city and entered Berlin. Street battles ensued, which lasted a week. On the night of April 30 to May 1, the Reichstag was taken, and on May 2, the Reich Chancellery. On May 8, the Commander-in-Chief of the German army, Admiral Karl Dönitz, appealed to the Commander-in-Chief of the Allied forces, General Eisenhower, with a request to sign the surrender. The request was granted, and on May 8th the surrender was signed. Dissatisfied with this, Stalin demanded that the re-signing surrender. This requirement could not be ignored. On the night of May 8th to 9th, a ceremony was held to sign the complete and unconditional surrender of Germany to all the main participants of the anti-Hitler coalition. However, not all German units obeyed the order to surrender, and a large group of troops in the Sudetenland of the Czech Republic did not lay down their arms. Stalin gave the order to destroy it. Therefore, the actual fighting ended only on May 11. The Great Patriotic War is over.

The capitulation of Germany sharply worsened the military and political situation of Japan. By that time, the United States and Great Britain had superior forces at sea and in the air, in addition, their troops had already landed on the islands closest to Japan.

On August 9 – September 2, 1945, the Soviet Armed Forces took part in the defeat of the Japanese army in Manchuria, Southern Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands. The entry of the USSR into the war with Japan significantly accelerated the end of the Second World War.

The victory of the USSR and the countries of the anti-Hitler coalition over Nazi Germany and militaristic Japan in World War II had world-historical significance and had a huge impact on the entire post-war development of mankind.

5. The contribution of the people of Belarus to the defeat of fascism and victory in World War II.

1,300,000 Belarusians fought on the fronts of the Great Patriotic War: over a million residents were in the ranks of the Red Army, and 340,000 people were in the ranks of partisans and underground fighters. The names of many Belarusians are inscribed among the heroes of this war: These are the heroes of the Soviet

Union, General Lev Dovator, Pilots Alexander Horovets, who shot down 9 German planes in one battle, Boris Kovzan, who committed 4 aircraft rammings. About 400 thousand Belarusian soldiers and natives of Belarus were awarded military orders and medals of the Soviet Union, 446 soldiers were awarded the title Hero of the Soviet Union, 67 people became full cavaliers of the Order of Glory. Tank colonels Joseph Gusakovsky, Stepan Shutov and Ivan Yakubovsky, natives of the Mogilev region, were twice awarded the title Hero of the Soviet Union. Pilot Pavel Golovachev received this award twice.

More than 140 thousand partisans and underground fighters of Belarus were awarded orders and medals of the Soviet Union, and 88 of them were awarded the title Hero of the Soviet Union.

Hundreds of thousands of natives of Belarus worked in the Soviet rear: in the Volga region, the Urals, Western Siberia, and other regions of the USSR. Belarusian railway workers Elena Chukhnyuk, Afanasy Glebov, Nikolai Makarov, Ivan Pershukevich, Alexander Yankovsky were awarded the title Hero of Socialist Labor for their high performance in their work. Belarusian scientists and cultural figures made a significant contribution to the defeat of the enemy.

Many natives of Belarus participated in the European Resistance movement. At the same time, the Slovak partisan detachment of Jan Nalepka, the Germans Fritz Schenkel and Karl Linke, the Bulgarian Lilia Karastyanova, the Spaniard Jose Lopez fought against the Nazis on Belarusian land. All this testifies to the international character of the struggle against German fascism.

Perpetuation of the memory of defenders of the Fatherland and victims of wars has always been and remains an important state task in Belarus. To solve it, on December 21, 1992, as part of the Committee for the Social Protection of Military Personnel, the Department for perpetuating the memory of defenders of the Fatherland and victims of wars was established.

During its existence, the department has created and adapted to modern conditions the entire regulatory legal framework governing the work on preserving the memory of those who died during the war.

There are thousands of monuments dedicated to the war on the territory of Belarus, and many memorial complexes are known to every person who lived in the USSR. Millions of people from the Soviet Union and foreign countries visited the Brest Hero Fortress, Khatyn, Kurgan of Glory, Buinichi field.

The memory of the events of the Great Patriotic War is embodied in various forms in literature, cinema, musical works, fine arts, museums and thematic expositions. The names of the heroes of the Great Patriotic War are assigned to settlements, streets and squares, institutions, enterprises, organizations, educational institutions, military units.

6. The Great Patriotic War in the historical memory of Belarusians.

In the historical memory of Belarusians, the Great Patriotic War, on the one hand, is a symbol of sadness caused by numerous human losses, on the other hand,

it is a symbol of greatness, since as a result of the war Belarus become victorious and received international recognition.

Approaches to assessing the events and consequences of the Great Patriotic War have been repeatedly transformed in recent decades, but to a large extent remain traditional.

July 3 celebrated one of the most important holidays of our country – Independence Day, this is a reminder that patriotism, love for the Motherland, readiness to defend it are the basis of statehood, the common cause of all citizens of the Republic of Belarus.

Belarus honors the memory of those people who went through a difficult path to liberation and those who gave their lives in the fight against the Nazis, bringing the Great Victory closer, as well as the most significant events of the Great Patriotic War. This is evidenced by thousands of memorial obelisks and monuments throughout the territory of Belarus.

In 1954, a monument to the soldiers of the Red Army and partisans who died during the Second World War was erected in Minsk – the Victory Monument, crowned with the image of the Order of Victory. In 1974, the city of Minsk was awarded the honorary title of “Hero City”, and in 1985 the stele “Minsk – Hero City” was installed. Nearby is the new building of the Belarusian State Museum of the History of the Great Patriotic War, which was inaugurated on July 2, 2014. Today, the museum is the largest repository of relics of the Great Patriotic War in Belarus and one of the most important centers of civic and patriotic education.

One of the most significant memorial complexes on the territory of Belarus is the Brest Hero Fortress, commemorating the feat of its defenders in June-July 1941. Even before the opening of the memorial, the heroic defense of the fortress was reflected in the works of writers, artists and cinematographers. In 1965, the Brest Fortress was awarded the honorary title of “Hero Fortress”, and in 1971 a memorial complex was opened. The sculptural and architectural ensemble includes preserved buildings, preserved ruins, fortified ramparts and works of modern monumental art. In the center of the complex there is an eternal flame and a sculptural composition “Thirst” next to it is a memorial cemetery with the names of famous and unknown defenders of the fortress.

The memorial complex “Khatyn”, opened in 1969 in the Logoysky district of the Minsk region, bears the memory of the Belarusian villages burned by the Nazi occupiers during the Great Patriotic War. This complex is a real symbol of the tragedy of the Belarusian people, a sad page in the history of wartime. In the center of the memorial complex stands the sculpture “The Undeclared Man” – a symbol of the feat of the Belarusian people.

Many memorial complexes have been created in Belarus to perpetuate the exploits of Soviet soldiers and partisans: the Kurgan of Glory Memorial Complex is a monument located in the Smolevichi district of the Minsk region in honor of soldiers of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd Belarusian and Baltic fronts who liberated the republic in 1944; the memorial of military glory on Ludchitskaya hill in Bykhov district, opened in 1984 on the site of fierce battles for the liberation of Belarus in 1943 –

1944; memorial complex “Breakthrough”, created near the city of Ushachi in honor of the feat of the partisans of the Polotsk-Lepel partisan zone and many others.

A remarkable monument to the feat of the Belarusian people was the publication of the 146-volume historical and documentary chronicle “Memory”, which provides information about the soldiers of the Red Army who fell in the battles for Belarus, fellow countrymen who gave their lives on the war fronts, partisans, underground workers, civilians who became victims of the Nazi genocide, as well as participants in the war, those who returned to their homeland. 29 Belarusian state archives keep the memory of the war. Many works of literature, art, and cinematography are dedicated to the Great Patriotic War. Celebrations are held in honor of the significant events related to the Great Patriotic War.

Belarusians also remember the tragedy of the Jewish people on the territory of Belarus during the Great Patriotic War. Especially in recent decades, work has been carried out to perpetuate the memory of the victims of the Holocaust in Belarus. A number of monuments have been opened on the territory of the former Minsk ghetto and in other places of mass extermination of the Jewish population. In 2019 The President of Belarus and Austrian Federal Chancellor Sebastian Kurz took part in the unveiling of the monument to the victims of Nazism “Array of Names”, dedicated to the memory of 10 thousand Austrian Jews who were exterminated on the territory of the Nazi death camp in Trostenets.

Belarusians cherish their traditions and are proud of the memorial reminder of the events of the Great Patriotic War. Today, when there are fewer and fewer direct witnesses to it every year, preserving the historical memory of these events is becoming especially important.

Lecture 1.7. Restoration and post-war modernization of the BSSR

1. The BSSR is the founding country of the UN.
2. Restoration and post-war modernization in the BSSR in the second half of the 1940s – early 1950s.
3. Attempts to democratize socio-political life in the second half of the 1950s and the first half of the 1960s.
4. Increasing stagnation in the 1970s – the first half of the 1980s.
5. Socio-political processes in the BSSR at the turn of the 1980s – 90s of the twentieth century. The collapse of the USSR and its causes.

1. The BSSR is the founding country of the UN.

After the Second World War, the international status of the BSSR changed. According to the agreement adopted in 1943, the republic received the right to directly enter into diplomatic relations with other states. In 1943, the People's Commissariat of Foreign Affairs was established in Belarus. In 1946, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. On April 27, 1946, Belarus, among other countries, became the founder of the United Nations, which gave the BSSR access to the international arena. This provided the following possibilities:

1. To take international initiatives. An example of the use of this right was the fact that Belarus once offered to extradite war criminals to the countries in which they committed crimes.
2. Participate in international organizations.
3. Sign conventions. For the 1950s – 60s. Belarus has signed 160 conventions.
4. Receive humanitarian aid.

Since 1958, the permanent representation of the BSSR in the United Nations has been opened. In 1974 and 1975, Belarus was a member of the Security Council. Already in the 50s. In the twentieth century, 120 Belarusian enterprises exported their products. In 1952, the representative office of the BSSR was opened at the All-Union Chamber of Commerce, which in 1972 was transformed into the Belarusian Chamber of Commerce and Industry, which made it possible to participate in the international trade fair and hold such fairs at home, 30 such fairs were organized in the entire history of the BSSR.

In 1958, the Association of Friendship and Cultural Relations was established. With its help, the exchange of tourists was established. Contacts were also established in the field of literature. 342 works by 55 Belarusian writers have been published abroad. 500 works by foreign writers were published in the BSSR.

Thanks to the membership in the United Nations, ties have been established in the field of education. Since 1960, foreign students began studying at BNTU (then BPI). In total, 10,000 foreign students studied in the republic in 1960 – 1980.

2. Restoration and post-war modernization in the BSSR in the second half of the 1940s – early 1950s.

The Belarusian Soviet Socialist Republic celebrated Victory Day in ruins. Its economy was pushed back to the indicators of 1928. At the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences in 1945, a decision was made on the material responsibility of Germany and its allies to the countries under attack and on compensation for the damage caused. Reparations were withdrawn in three forms: 1) in the form of industrial equipment and vehicles; 2) commodity supplies of products, raw materials, consumer goods, food, etc.; 3) labor of prisoners of war and internees.

In 1946, 15 electric power stations, 13 dairy plants, 4 meat processing plants received equipment from Germany – a total of 115 Minsk enterprises. For example, the equipment of the Berlin chocolate factory was supplied to the Minsk confectionery factory “Kommunarka” and the Gomel factory “Spartak”. The bicycle factory received the equipment of the Gustav Weser company. The most significant supplies of repair equipment were also carried out to Gomselmash, all machine tool plants, the Orsha Flax Plant, the Dobrusha Paper Mill, and the Mogilev Artificial Fiber Plant.

The labor of prisoners of war from Germany, Hungary, Austria, Romania, etc. was used on the construction sites of the BSSR. In 1946, there were about 103,000 of them. The prisoners of war built and restored the buildings of the Opera and Ballet Theater, the Academy of Sciences and the housing stock in Minsk, as well as in other regional cities. In 1951, all prisoners of war, except those who were convicted by military tribunals, were sent home. In 1946 – 1947. The UN provided assistance to the BSSR in the amount of \$ 61 million, which played an important role in overcoming the post-war devastation and meeting the primary needs of the population.

The goal of the fourth five-year plan (1946 – 1950) was to exceed the pre-war level of industrial production by 16%. It provided for the accelerated renewal of peat extraction, energy and the development of mechanical engineering, the creation of new industries: automotive, tractor construction, metalworking, etc. The task was complicated by the shortage of raw materials, building materials, electricity, lack of qualified personnel and labor. Thanks to the successes in the field of mechanical engineering and metalworking, the industry of the BSSR exceeded the pre-war production level by 20%. However, the shift towards heavy industry has led to the decline of the light, food industries and the production of building materials. This affected the provision of the population with the most necessary things – clothes, shoes, kerosene, salt, matches, soap, bread, sugar, flour.

In 1947, the card system was abolished. Labor legislation was liberalized, and repressive laws of the 1938 – 1940s were repealed. The abolition of the state of emergency in the USSR made it possible to return Sunday as a day off and return regular and extraordinary vacations, as well as to cancel mandatory overtime in 1945 – 1946.

During the fifth five-year plan (1951 – 1955), 1010 new industrial enterprises were built, including about 150 large ones – bearing, watch, radiator plants and worsted mill in Minsk, sugar factory in Skidel, sewing machine factory in Orsha. In 1955, consumer goods were produced 2 times more than in 1950.

The situation in agriculture was extremely difficult, which is explained by losses during the war and a return to Stalinist principles of leadership. Profitable collective farms received increased rates of mandatory procurement of agricultural products. The remaining products were often sold below cost, and as a result, a meager wage fund was formed. Workdays simply turned into a form of control over labor conscription, since in 1946 collective farmers were given an average of 18 kopecks per workday. In 1947, 94% of collective farmers did not receive money for their work; collective farms paid their workers with potatoes and grain; they received about 200 kg per year. potatoes and the same amount of grain.

The biggest problem of the Belarusian village in the first post-war years was the shortage of tractors and horses; instead of them, cows and people were used for work.

Despite the increase in the number of livestock on collective farms, by 1950 the pre-war volume of meat and milk had not been restored. The number of electrified villages was only 4%. The development of personal plots was hampered by the tax system. The collective farmer paid a special tax for everything that was in his yard (fruit trees, beehives, each head of livestock, poultry, grown carrots or onions, etc.). Almost all profits were spent on paying taxes in kind. Nevertheless, in 1946, private farms in the BSSR provided the state with 88% of milk, 97% of eggs, 80% of animal and poultry meat.

Collectivization, interrupted by the war, continued in the western regions of Belarus. In 1946, 133 collective farms were established here. Until 1949, collectivization was carried out mainly using political propaganda and persuasion. Collective farms received tractors and other agricultural machinery, collective farmers were primarily electrified at home, and by 1949 there were already 909 collective farms. This number was considered insufficient by the authorities, and in the spring of 1949, all those who disagreed to join collective farms were heavily taxed, so already in 1952, 4,384 collective farms operated in the western regions, uniting 90% of all peasant farms.

After Stalin's death in 1953, the situation of collective farms improved due to the following measures:

1. The purchase prices for collective farm products were increased several times, all debts from collective farms and collective farmers for previous years were written off.

2. Townspeople and, first of all, students began to be sent to collective farms annually to help with harvesting.

3. For household farms of collective farmers, all natural taxes were abolished, which were replaced by a single monetary tax, which depended on the size of the household plot.

All these measures have greatly improved the financial situation of collective farms and collective farmers.

3. Attempts to democratize socio-political life in the second half of the 1950s and the first half of the 1960s.

In the USSR, from 1953 to 1964, Nikita Sergeevich Khrushchev was the first secretary of the Central Committee of the CPSU, and since 1958, the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR. In fact, he owned the fullness of state power. The period of Khrushchev's rule in the USSR received the name "thaw" or "Khrushchev thaw" in journalism.

The key event of this period was the twentieth Congress of the CPSU, at which N.S. Khrushchev made a report "On exposing the cult of Stalin's personality". It cited numerous facts about the atrocities of the Stalinist regime: massacres of party and Soviet workers, commanders of the Red Army, intellectuals and mass repressions against the population of the country. Thus, the Twentieth Congress became the starting point for the most serious reforms in the state.

In 1956. The Central Committee of the CPB, and in fact the republic was first headed by the Belarusian Kirill Trofimovich Mazurov (1956 – 1965), until the twentieth Congress of the CPSU, Belarusians were not appointed to the post of head of the CPB.

After the twentieth Congress of the CPSU, the rights of the Union republics were significantly expanded: since 1957, the independence of republican authorities in the field of law-making was introduced. They received the right to independently resolve administrative and territorial issues. As a result, 6 regions were left in Belarus instead of 11, and districts were enlarged (77 districts instead of 123).

The rehabilitation of political prisoners and partial rehabilitation of victims of mass repression (dispossessed, repressed on a national basis: Tatars, Chechens, Germans, etc.) began. In the BSSR alone, about 40 thousand people have been rehabilitated over the years. During these years, numerous public, sports and creative unions and organizations have emerged: voluntary national squads, the Society for the Protection of Nature, the protection of historical and cultural monuments, etc., Unions of Artists, journalists, etc.

During the "thaw", the rights of regional, district, city and village councils were expanded, which could now direct funds from the local budget to housing construction, the development of public utilities and the improvement of settlements. New opportunities were provided to trade unions and the Komsomol. Trade union organizations participated in the distribution of housing, sanatorium and resort vouchers, vouchers to pioneer camps, and solved many issues of the social and cultural life of enterprises.

In 1957, a law was passed on the basis of which the sectoral all-Union ministries were liquidated, and instead Councils of National Economy (Sovnarkhoz) were formed, organized according to the territorial principle. In the USSR, a single State Economic Council was created, to which 850 enterprises and construction organizations located on the territory of the republic (that is, almost all) were subordinated. This reform helped boost the development of industry and construction. In the period from 1958 to 1965, the growth of industrial production increased annually by 12 – 15%. A characteristic feature of this period was the rapid development of radio-electronic, chemical, automotive, tractor-building and

other high-tech industries in the BSSR. However, such restructuring did not pay off – it led to the decentralization of the economy and made it difficult to centrally plan. In March 1963, the process of restoring the centralized management system and the Union ministries began again.

There have been positive changes in agriculture during the period under review:

1. All tax arrears of collective farms and private farms of collective farmers were written off.

2. Since 1958, compulsory supplies of agricultural products by collective farms have been abolished; they have been replaced by public procurement, and purchase prices have been increased.

3. Machine and tractor stations were liquidated; their equipment was sold to collective farms. Thus, all means of production were concentrated in the hands of producers.

However, under Khrushchev there were also negative changes in the field of agriculture:

1. On Khrushchev's initiative, the development of virgin lands began. Which led to the decline of agriculture in the non-chernozem zone of the USSR. The best equipment and labor resources were sent to the virgin lands.

2. Khrushchev began the corn epic, demanding to grow corn even where it could not grow for climatic reasons.

3. In 1961, at the XXII Congress of the CPSU, a new party program was adopted – a course for building communism was proclaimed. Khrushchev announced that by 1980 the material and technical base of communism would be built in the USSR. Impossible plans began to descend on industrial enterprises and collective farms “from above”. Mandatory socialist competitions and the movement for communist labor began to be imposed on factories, factories, and collective farms.

Khrushchev's experiments and innovations led in 1962 to a shortage of bread and other types of food products. In this regard, mass demonstrations of workers took place in some areas of the USSR. In 1962, the USSR, in order to avoid famine, bought a large batch of grain abroad for the first time in history, since then such purchases have been carried out annually.

All these phenomena were also observed in the BSSR. However, the Central Committee of the CPB, under the leadership of K.T. Mazurov, did not always blindly follow instructions from Moscow on corn crops, on limiting personal peasant farms, on turning collective farms into state farms, and on reorganizing party and Soviet bodies. Therefore, the crisis phenomena in the economy of the republic, which manifested themselves in the USSR in 1962 – 1963, were not so acutely felt in Belarus.

Khrushchev's policy caused increasing discontent in the country, and crisis phenomena in the economy and social life increased. Khrushchev's colleagues on the Presidium of the Central Committee of the CPSU convened a Plenum of the

Central Committee in October 1964, accused N.S. Khrushchev of voluntarism and removed him from power.

Voluntarism in politics and public life: these are arbitrary decisions of the leader, ignoring objectively existing restrictions. By 1964, there were so many crisis phenomena in politics, economics, and society that Nikita Sergeevich was removed from power and sent to retirement. Another era has already begun after him.

Leonid Ilyich Brezhnev was elected the new first secretary of the Central Committee of the CPSU.

4. Increasing stagnation in the 1970s – the first half of the 1980s.

After Khrushchev's resignation, all his economic transformations were canceled. First of all, the Economic Councils were liquidated and line ministries were restored. However, the beginning of the Brezhnev era was also marked by progressive reforms. In 1965, economic reforms began under Alexei Nikolaevich Kosygin (Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR). In industry, they manifested themselves in the following way: ministries abandoned the rigid planning system: for example, under Stalin, enterprises made reports on 100 indicators, under Kosygin only 9 main ones were left. In addition, the principles of self-financing were introduced at enterprises – funds for the development of the enterprise and material incentives for workers were created from the profits of the enterprise. Therefore, the eighth five-year plan of 1966 – 1970 was called "Golden". During this five-year period, there was an increase in all indicators of industrial development, and workers' wages also increased to unprecedented levels. At the same time, enterprises became too independent, which ministerial officials did not like; for this reason, in the early 1970s, Kosygin's reforms in industry were curtailed, and centralization increased again.

The period from the 1970s to the first half of the 1980s, with the light hand of Mikhail Sergeevich Gorbachev, it was called the "era of stagnation". However, if we evaluate it objectively, it should be noted that it was during this period that the Soviet Union reached the pinnacle of its power in the international arena, moving from confrontation to peaceful coexistence and cooperation with the West. Moreover, all this happened against the backdrop of, albeit mostly extensive, economic growth, which during Brezhnev's reign grew two and a half times. In the social sphere, over the 18 Brezhnev years, the real incomes of the population of the USSR increased by more than 1.5 times, the growth of real consumption of the population increased by two and a half times, 162 million people, about half of the country's population, were provided with free housing. In 1980, the Soviet Union ranked first in Europe and second in the world in terms of industrial and agricultural production. If in 1960 the volume of industrial production of the USSR compared to the USA was 55%, then 20 years later, in 1980, it was already more than 80%.

Along with this, there were also negative phenomena. In the economy, this is, first of all: a decrease in growth rates, leading to stagnation; lack of qualitative

changes in the field of agriculture, due to which most of the foreign exchange earnings from the sale of oil and gas were spent on importing food and consumer goods. In the social sphere, insufficient provision of the population with certain types of food products (the famous “sausage” problem) has become a chronic problem; an increase in the overall commodity shortage; a steady increase in the consumption of alcoholic beverages (from 1.9 liters of pure alcohol per capita in 1952 to 14.2 liters in 1984).

The main reasons for the increase in negative phenomena were the conservative style of government that developed through the fault of Brezhnev and his “team,” which was also aggravated by the growth of the bureaucratic apparatus and the intensification of its arbitrariness. Corruption, protectionism, nepotism, veneration of rank, servility, etc. have become widespread. The population was dissatisfied with the war in Afghanistan, which began in 1979 and became unpopular among people.

Thus, the “Brezhnev era”, on the one hand, was the most favorable period in the life of the USSR, marked by an increase in the standard of living of people and the achievement of a high degree of social security, but on the other hand, stagnation increased during this period not only in the economy, but also in the socio-political life of the country.

The “Brezhnev period” in the history of the BSSR. The BSSR was an integral part of the USSR, events in it unfolded according to the same scenario.

The fact that positive trends in all areas of life in Belarus at this time prevailed over negative ones is the great merit of the First Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Belarus, Pyotr Mironovich Masherov, who actually led the republic from 1965 to 1980. In the 70s and 80s, significant progress was achieved in Belarus.

Economic reforms in the late 1960s – early 1970s, which were characterized by the expansion of economic independence of enterprises, associations and organizations, the widespread use of material incentives, and the encouragement of the development of personal subsidiary plots of collective farmers and state farm workers, brought positive results.

The work of industry has improved dramatically. New enterprises were built: the Belarusian Metallurgical Plant in Zhlobin, the Belarusian Tire Plant in Bobruisk, and an oil refinery in Mozyr. Such industrial giants as BELAZ, MTZ, MAZ were operating at full capacity. Belarusian enterprises of instrument making, radio engineering, radio-electronic industry, which produced computers, optical, electrical, control instruments, film equipment, televisions, watches, supplied their products to all regions of the USSR and abroad. The BSSR, occupying less than 1% of the union territory, having about 4% of the population of the USSR, in 1981 produced nationwide 52% of potash fertilizers, 22% of chemical fibers, 16% of meat and 7.5% of milk produced in the USSR. In agriculture, on the initiative of Pyotr Mironovich Masherov, livestock complexes and farms were created, more than a dozen large poultry farms were built, the mechanization of agricultural

work, and the melioration of wetlands were carried out. The state constantly increased purchase prices for meat, milk, and grain.

Based on the growth of the economy, the standard of living in the republic has steadily increased, in ten years the national income has increased two and a half times, and real per capita income has almost doubled.

The educational level of the population was growing. Universal secondary education has become compulsory, and a system of vocational education has been established. The number of students of secondary specialized educational institutions increased in 1985 to 160 thousand people, and the number of students of higher educational institutions – to 182 thousand.

Belarusian science has been successfully developing. Large scientific centers have been established in the fields of optics, mathematics, semiconductor spectroscopy, nuclear energy, quantum electronics, and technical cybernetics.

Thus, it was during this period that Belarus turned into an industrial republic, which was known not only in the USSR, but also far beyond its borders. It was a country with a fairly high standard of living, education and culture. There were enough problems, although the situation was not critical even at the end of the “Brezhnev era”. The growth rate decreased, but remained positive. At the same time, the deficit was growing, which purchases abroad could not cover. Dissatisfaction with the negative phenomena discussed above was growing, the crisis of the late 80s – early 90s of the twentieth century was approaching, which led the USSR to collapse.

5. Socio-political processes in the BSSR at the turn of the 1980s – 90s of the twentieth century. The collapse of the USSR and its causes.

The second half of the 1980s went down in the history of the USSR as a period of “perestroika” – attempts to carry out serious reforms and comprehensive renewal of society. By this time, the manifestations of stagnation in the socio-economic development of the country were becoming more and more obvious and threatened to develop into a national crisis. After the death of Leonid Ilyich Brezhnev in November 1982. Yuri Vladimirovich Andropov became the General Secretary of the Central Committee of the CPSU, who saw a way out of stagnation in imposing iron discipline and order, but a little over a year later he died. After him, Konstantin Ustinovich Chernenko became the head of the party and the state, who sought to return the country to the Brezhnev times. He died in March 1985. Mikhail Sergeyevich Gorbachev became his successor.

In April 1985, at the Plenum of the Central Committee of the CPSU, Mikhail Sergeyevich Gorbachev announced Perestroika. His proposed program in economics was based on the intensification of production based on the Scientific and Technical Revolution, increasing labor productivity, and introducing elements of market relations into the planned economy. At the same time, he announced the democratization of Soviet society, Glasnost and Pluralism of opinions.

Mikhail Gorbachev and his colleagues: Alexander Nikolaevich Yakovlev, Eduard Amvrosievich Shevardnadze, and others abandoned numerous dogmas of

communism in the socio-economic sphere: since 1987, enterprises and associations have been self-financing. In 1989 – 1991, the USSR law on cooperation, on property, on self-employment, on peasant farming, on lease and rental relations, on land, etc. was adopted. Due to this, different forms of ownership and business entities have emerged. All this testified to the gradual introduction of elements of a market economy.

However, the administrative-command system that developed during the years of Soviet power turned out to be impervious to change. It was this system which was the core of the so-called “braking mechanism”. The party and state leadership of Belarus demonstrated a commitment to preserving the old system and quietly opposed reforms. But it could not completely resist the changes.

The democratization of public life in Belarus began with the emergence of informal associations and interest clubs aimed at preserving and developing the Belarusian national culture: “Toloka” and “Tuteishia” “Vzglyye”, “Area”, etc. On the basis of such groups, the Belarusian national democratic movement began to form in Belarus. The Belarusian Popular Front (BPF) was the first to speak out for a deep renewal of the Belarusian reality from the standpoint of national revival. The founding Congress of the BPF was held in June 1989 in Vilnius. The adopted program “Revival for Perestroika” noted the need to ensure the real sovereignty of Belarus and give the Belarusian language the status of the state language. Simultaneously with the formation of the BPF, other public associations arose, and later political parties.

Meanwhile, it was not possible to implement the perestroika program. The main reason was Gorbachev’s lack of a clear concept and program of perestroika, as well as a team capable of implementing it. In addition, there were other reasons that actually led to the collapse of the USSR. These are: 1. An anti-alcohol company that has significantly reduced revenues to the country’s budget (in addition, alcohol prices have increased, wine and vodka production has decreased, vineyards have begun to be cut down, etc.) 2. The accident at the Chernobyl nuclear power station in 1986 and the earthquake in Armenia in 1988 caused huge additional costs aimed at overcoming their consequences. 3. The arms race (the Star Wars program imposed by the United States) and huge spending on the army (about 4 million people) and the war in Afghanistan (from 1979 to 1989). 4. Mistakes of the top leadership of the state. 5. The resistance of conservative forces in the party and society.

As a result of the Glasnost policy, the authority of the party leadership and the CPSU itself was being lost. Abuses of power, bribery, permissiveness of the actions of party apparatchiks, their benefits and privileges have become widely known. All this was accompanied by impoverishment of the population, general shortages, interruptions in the provision of certain products and goods (cigarettes, sugar, soap, washing powder, stockings, socks, etc. disappeared from sale). This forced the authorities of the BSSR already in 1988 to introduce the provision of essential goods on cards that were issued in the housing and communal services

and village councils. The card system did not help solve the shortage problems, as it did not guarantee the availability of goods in stores.

In the second half of 1990 and early 1991, the economic situation continued to deteriorate, which led to mass protests. The internal political crisis also deepened – the so-called “parade of sovereignties” began. Estonia seceded from the USSR in November 1988, Lithuania in June 1989, Georgia in May 1990, Russia on June 12, 1990, and Ukraine on July 16, 1990. On July 27, 1990 (the last of all republics) of the BSSR adopted the Declaration of State Sovereignty of the BSSR. In accordance with it, the supremacy of the laws of the BSSR was established in the republic, the transfer to the ownership of the republic of all material assets that were available on its territory was declared, etc. It should be noted that in Belarus, the Declaration of State Sovereignty was adopted, but it was not given the force of law. 8 other Union republics did the same.

To somehow save the situation, on March 17, 1991, a referendum on the destiny of the USSR was held in nine union republics. About 70 % of voters came to the referendum. Of these, 76.4% voted for the preservation of the Soviet Union, 82.7 voted for the union in Belarus, and 80% of voters came to the referendum. Based on its results, a draft Treaty on the Union of Sovereign States (USS) was agreed in June 1991 and published on August 15. Its signing was scheduled for August 20, 1991. But this agreement was not destined to see the light of day.

On August 19, 1991, 9 members of the government and the Politburo created the State Committee for the State of Emergency, carried out a coup d’etat and seized power in the state. M.S. Gorbachev was removed from power. The State Emergency Committee tried to introduce a state of emergency in the country and, relying on the army, force the republics to remain part of the USSR. However, Russian President Boris Yeltsin declared the State Emergency Committee an illegal putsch, took power in Russia into his own hands, ordered the troops to return to the barracks, and released M.S. Gorbachev and arrested the putschists.

On August 25–26, 1991, an extraordinary session of the Supreme Council of the BSSR was held in Belarus, which adopted the law “On giving the status of a constitutional law to the Declaration of the Supreme Council of the BSSR on the state sovereignty of the Belarusian Soviet Socialist Republic.” In September, a number of laws were adopted that consolidated the political and economic independence of Belarus: on a name change, new symbols, and the creation of its own security forces and army.

On December 8, 1991, the leaders of Belarus, Russia and Ukraine Stanislav Stanislavovich Shushkevich, Boris Nikolaevich Yeltsin and Leonid Makarovich Kravchuk met in Viskuli (Belovezhskaya Pushcha) and signed an Agreement on the denunciation of the Treaty on the Creation of the USSR of 1922 and the formation of the Commonwealth of Independent States. The Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus ratified this Agreement on December 10, 1991. The USSR virtually ceased to exist. On December 21, 1991, in the city of Alma-Ata, representatives of 11 former Soviet republics decided to form the Union of

Independent States (CIS). December 25, 1991 M.S. Gorbachev officially resigned from his powers as President of the USSR. The USSR ceased to exist.

Lecture 1.8. Stages of development of the independent Republic of Belarus

1. From parliamentary to presidential republic.
2. Belarus in the second half of the 90s of the twentieth century.
3. Features of socio-political development at the beginning of the 21st century. Modern achievements of the Belarusian state.
4. The main factors of the modern economic development of Belarus.

1. From parliamentary to presidential republic.

In the early 1990s. Belarus was a parliamentary republic. Executive power belonged to the Cabinet of Ministers, headed by Vecheslav Kebich, and legislative power belonged to the Supreme Council of the 12th convocation. The functions of the head of state were performed by the chairman of the Supreme Council. This position was held by Stanislav Shushkevich.

In the first half of the 1990s. The number of political parties grew rapidly. In mid-1993, there were 12 of them, as well as 7 socio-political associations. New non-governmental public associations were also actively created. Formally, their goal was not to fight for power, but in conditions of political instability they often took on the functions of political parties.

During 1991–1994 The Supreme Council had virtually absolute power in the country. He could make any decisions, but the very procedure of discussing and voting them was very delayed, which had the most negative impact on the economic situation and the mood of society. The main debates revolved around the question of what kind of republic to be: presidential or parliamentary. The opposition, led by the Belarusian Popular Front (BPF), opposed the introduction of the post of president with broad powers, which would be elected by all citizens. At the same time, the majority of parliament could not be consolidated, since it did not have a permanent leader.

As a result of open confrontation between various political groups, a political crisis arose at the end of 1993. The population increasingly expressed dissatisfaction with the state of things in the economy, poverty, and total corruption. Against the backdrop of such sentiments, a report made in October 1993 at a meeting of the Supreme Council by deputy Alexander Lukashenko, who headed the temporary commission to combat corruption, had a great public resonance. In the end, Stanislav Shushkevich was removed on January 26, 1994 by a majority vote from the post of chairman of parliament, and the Supreme Council was headed by Mieczyslaw Grib. Prime Minister Vyacheslav Kebich managed to retain power.

The transformation of the socio-political system, the emergence of new elements in it, the deep economic crisis – all these factors posed difficult tasks for the Government of the Republic and required it to apply new management methods. The Belarusian political system needed a strong center that could take responsibility for the fate of the state.

On March 15, 1994, the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus was adopted, in which our country was proclaimed a unitary democratic social and legal state. The Constitution legally enshrined the sovereignty of the republic, the achieved democratic transformations, and the rights and freedoms of citizens. According to the Constitution, the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus was the legislative body, executive power belonged to the President of the Republic of Belarus.

On March 29, 1994, the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus adopted the Law “On the Election of the President of the Republic of Belarus”. On July 10, 1994, Alexander Grigoryevich Lukashenko was elected the first President of the Republic of Belarus. Mikhail Chigir became Chairman of the Council of Ministers, and after his resignation in November 1996, the government was headed by Sergei Ling. Thus, the Republic of Belarus was transformed from parliamentary to presidential.

2. Belarus in the second half of the 90s of the twentieth century.

The Belarusian state has chosen a socially oriented market economy as a promising model. This was enshrined in the decisions of the All-Belarusian People’s Assemblies of 1996, 2001, 2006 and 2010. This choice, unlike liberal models, does not involve shock methods, which, as practice has shown, in a number of post-socialist countries cause huge economic and social losses for millions of ordinary people.

In 1996, economic growth resumed, coupled with a simultaneous decrease in inflation. In 1995 and 1996 a number of macro indicators improved: net exports of goods and services amounted to 4.8 and 3.9% of gross domestic product (GDP) respectively; budget deficit – 2.7 and 2% of GDP. Profitability increased significantly in real terms, and in 1996 it even became positive. The growth rates of wages and real cash income were also positive.

The Belarusian government has developed a set of strategic documents for the medium and long term. Among them, the core role is played by the “Main Directions of Social and Economic Development of the Republic of Belarus for 1996 – 2000,” which were approved by the All-Belarusian People’s Assembly. The main priorities were identified as: exports, housing and food. The main directions reveal the main features of the Belarusian model of a socially oriented market economy, this is a combination of a market economy with ensuring social justice and effective protection of citizens.

The idea of the social orientation of the Belarusian economy was embodied in the “National Strategy for Sustainable Development of the Republic of Belarus until 2010,” which was developed and approved by the government in 1997. During this period, a number of important programs were also developed and adopted, such as the “National Program for Attracting Investments and the Economy of the Republic of Belarus” (1996), “Import Substitution Program” (1997), “Program to Increase Exports of Products from Local Raw Materials” (1997), “Program for Solving the Problem of Non-Payments” (1997), etc.

In the second half of the 90s of the twentieth century. Belarus has become the locomotive of integration processes in the post-Soviet space. The country has joined interstate organizations that are designed to promote cooperation and cooperation in various areas: CIS, CSTO, EAEU, etc.

At the same time, two strategic partners of Belarus on the world stage have been identified – Russia and China. Relations with the Russian Federation are based on the results of the 1995 popular referendum, when the course towards integration with Russia was approved. On April 2, 1996, the community of Belarus and Russia was formed, on April 2, 1997, the Union of Belarus and Russia was formalized, and on December 8, 1999, the Treaty on the Establishment of the Union State was signed.

3. Features of socio-political development at the beginning of the 21st century. Modern achievements of the Belarusian state.

By the beginning of the 21st century a certain socio-political system has formed in the Republic of Belarus, which continues to develop. Since the beginning of the century, the ideology of the Belarusian state has been actively developed, reflecting the national-historical traditions and values of the Belarusian people, their worldview, taking into account the need to build a civil society and the rule of law.

Political parties and public associations are an element of the political system of society. The 1994 Constitution for the first time in our country enshrined the principle of political pluralism.

The Law on Political Parties, adopted on October 5, 1994, determined the principles of party building. In particular, it was said about the ban on the activities of political parties in enterprises and institutions; on the need for their state registration; about the presence of at least 500 people in their composition, etc.

In 1994, there were 34 political parties in Belarus. The largest of them were: Party of Communists of Belarus – 25 thousand people, Agrarian Party of Belarus – 12 thousand people, Belarusian Peasant Party – about 10 thousand people, Liberal Democratic Party – 6 thousand people, Belarusian Popular Front Party – 6 thousand people, etc. However, despite the significant number of political parties in the country, their influence on broad sections of society was small.

Political parties participate in the socio-political life of the country; most of them create electoral blocs and associations during election campaigns. At the same time, the rating of political parties among voters remains low. The vast majority of citizens are not familiar with their programs and are generally not interested in their activities or do not share their political views. As of 2021, 15 political parties are registered in Belarus.

In accordance with the new version of the Constitution, the unicameral Supreme Council was replaced by a bicameral National Assembly, consisting of the House of Representatives and the Council of the Republic. The term of office of parliament was four years.

The President, with the consent of the House of Representatives, could appoint the Prime Minister and his deputies, determine the structure of the government, decide to dismiss the government, and appoint local heads of executive power.

In May 2001, the 2nd All-Belarusian People's Assembly took place. It adopted the country's development program for 2001 – 2005. The presidential election campaign in 2001 was held under the slogan "For a strong and prosperous Belarus". The President's election program found a response among most of the people. 75,6% of voters voted for A.G. Lukashenko. He was re-elected to a second presidential term.

President A.G. Lukashenko initiated a republican referendum on the possibility of his participation in the next presidential elections. At the republican referendum, which took place on October 17, 2004, the restriction on the possibility of being elected President of the country for no more than two consecutive terms was lifted.

Before the next presidential election in March 2006, the III All-Belarusian People's Assembly was held. It was noted that the country had fulfilled the most important indicators of the Program for the Social and Economic Development of the Republic for 2001 – 2005. Everything that was adopted at the II All-Belarusian People's Assembly was implemented and brought to life. The III All-Belarusian People's Assembly adopted the Program of Socio-Economic Development of the Republic of Belarus for 2006 – 2010 under the motto "State for the people".

The next election of the Head of State of Belarus took place on March 19, 2006. A. G. Lukashenko was elected President. 83% of voters voted for him.

At the beginning of December 2010, the IV All-Belarusian People's Assembly took place in Minsk. It reviewed the results of the implementation of the Program of Socio-Economic Development of the Republic of Belarus for 2006 – 2010. and the main provisions of the Program of Socio-Economic Development of the Republic of Belarus for 2011 – 2015. It was noted that, despite the global financial and economic crisis, the country managed to ensure the growth of the national economy, improving the level and quality of life of people.

The next presidential elections were held on December 19, 2010. During the election campaign, A. G. Lukashenko was elected for another term. 79.6% of voters cast their votes for him.

The fifth presidential election in the Republic of Belarus was held on October 11, 2015. A total of 83.5% of voters voted for the current President of the Republic of Belarus.

At the end of June 2016, the V All-Belarusian National Assembly was held in Minsk. The resolution of the meeting noted that the implementation of the program of socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus for 2011 – 2015. It ensured the preservation of political stability, the stability of the economy and social protection of the population in the country.

The sixth presidential election in the country was held on August 9, 2020. Of the five candidates, according to the Central Election Commission, the incumbent President received the support of 80.1% of voters.

The VI All-Belarusian National Assembly was held on February 11 – 12, 2021 under the slogan “Unity. Development. Independence”. One of the topics of the meeting was the announcement of changes to the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus, amendments to which were submitted to a national referendum in 2022.

On February 27, 2022, a new constitutional referendum was held, as a result of which changes were made to the Constitution: 1) a new government body appeared in the country – the All-Belarusian People’s Assembly – which is endowed with the broadest powers; 2) the nuclear-free status of the territory of Belarus has been cancelled; The article about the neutral status of Belarus was removed.

The All-Belarusian People’s Assembly is a special form of democracy. Representatives from all regions of the republic participate in it. At this forum, the results are summed up and the strategy for the socio-economic development of Belarus for the next period is determined.

Belarus is a territory of peace and creation. Having realized its right to self-determination, the Republic of Belarus is pursuing an independent foreign policy. The geographical location of our state, on whose territory the most important transport routes between Europe and Asia converge, and the country’s difficult history, make it advisable to develop a course towards a multi-vector foreign policy and balanced constructive relations with partners in different regions of the world.

In 2011 – 2015 a large-scale renovation was carried out in the country, aimed at a qualitatively new development of Belarus, and projects for the development of an export-oriented economy were implemented. Primary attention was paid to the modernization of those industries that use local raw materials.

The effective socio-economic policy of the state has made it possible to maintain social stability and progressive development of the country in Belarus. Today, GDP per capita has increased to 17.9 thousand dollars compared to 2010, real wages have increased by 39%, the real amount of old-age pensions has increased by 37.3%, and real disposable cash income has increased by 33%. Measures to solve the housing problem have become effective. The housing supply increased from 25 m² per person in 2010 to 26.3 m² in 2015.

Improving the quality of life of the population is guaranteed by the introduction of a system of state social standards. 44 standards have been practically implemented that relate to the main areas of life. As a result, transport links, consumer and commercial services have improved, and the level of educational and medical services has increased.

The republic is implementing state programs for social assistance to veterans, single elderly people, and the disabled. A variety of assistance is provided to socially vulnerable categories of citizens who live in the most remote settlements.

4. The main factors of the modern economic development of Belarus.

Priority in Belarus is given to the development of high-tech industries while ensuring the principles of social justice and honest performance of their official duties by employees. The Belarusian economic model is aimed at achieving a high quality of life for people. Its main principles are as follows:

Building a strong and effective state, which is the guarantor of preventing the plundering of national wealth.

Ensuring equal rights for all forms of ownership, that is, creating equally favorable conditions for the development of the public and private sectors.

Implementation of rational privatization.

The deployment of broad integration processes with the CIS countries and, above all, with Russia, in the economic sphere.

Multi-vector foreign economic relations. That is, Belarusian goods and services should be present in those regions of the world where it is beneficial and meets the national interests of Belarus.

Implementation of the state social policy. That is, investing budget funds in the fields of education, health, culture, as well as providing targeted social assistance economically.

Topic 2. Fundamentals of the state structure of the Republic of Belarus.

Lecture 2.1. The Constitution is the fundamental law of the state.

1. Formation of legal traditions in Belarus. “The Rus Truth” and common law, Statutes of the GDL.
2. The legislation of the Russian Empire, Constitutional construction in the BSSR.
3. The adoption of the Constitution and the first election of the President of the Republic of Belarus.
4. Referendums of 1995, 1996, 2004, 2022 and their role in the state-political construction of Belarus.

1. Formation of legal traditions in Belarus. “The Rus Truth” and common law, Statutes of the GDL.

The legal traditions of Belarus began to take shape with the appearance of such a set of laws as “The Rus Truth”. “The Rus Truth” is the first of the systematic collections of laws of the East Slavic (“Rus”) lands of the 10th – 12th centuries that have come down to us. In the editions that have come down to us, “The Rus Truth” is a set of judicial customs. The simultaneous spread of the legal norms of the “The Rus Truth” on the territory of Belarus in the 10th – 12th centuries. can be disputed. But one cannot deny the influence of “The Rus Truth” on local customary law and later codes of law (Case Code of Casimir IV 1468, etc.).

Kievan Rus united the East Slavic lands only for a short time, the Principality of Polotsk was part of it for just over 70 years. This early feudal state united the lands where its local customary law operated.

Customary law is a set of customs, practices and beliefs that are accepted by indigenous peoples and local communities as mandatory norms of conduct. Customary law in the Early Middle Ages regulated all spheres of public life. For example, the structure and competence of state institutions, the rights and obligations of various classes, social, marital, land, judicial procedural, criminal and other legal relations. The first records of the customary law of Belarus were mentioned in the charters and treaties of Polotsk, Vitebsk and Smolensk with Riga and the Livonian Order. Interestingly, according to the Belarusian law, even being a slave, a person could independently participate in foreign trade and be responsible for debts with his own property. In this regard, it was a significant step in the field of human rights compared to the “The Rus Truth”.

The norms of customary law are also mentioned in the treaties of Polotsk and Vitebsk with Riga and the Teutonic Order, in the charters given to these lands by the Grand Knyazes of Lithuania; an analogue of such norms is found in the Statutes GDL. Significant progress in the field of human rights protection was achieved at the stage of the formation of legislation GDL. The complication of the nature of public life required ensuring the unity of law for the entire State. The first

attempt to establish the unity of legal norms in the territory of GDL, to limit the arbitrariness of judges, as well as to strengthen the protection of property was made in the Judicial Code of 1468. This important document contained some principles included even in the twentieth century in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. For example, the Judicial Code of Casimir IV (1468) proclaimed the principle of “innocence until proven otherwise”.

The judicial code of Casimir IV of 1468 in the system of development of legislation of GDL allows us to trace how national legislative norms were formed on the basis of local customary law and judicial and administrative practice. Under customary law, the general purpose of punishment was to compensate the victim for the harm caused and to suppress criminal activity. At the same time, the burden of this compensation was sometimes placed not only on the criminal's family, but also on the village or city where he lived.

Work on the preparation of the first Statute in 1529 was carried out during the first quarter of the XVI century. By 1522, a draft statute was prepared, which was approved only in 1529. The Statute was, in fact, a set of laws compiled on the basis of systematization of the norms of local customary law, decrees of state and judicial institutions and Grand Knyaz Privileys.

In 1551, to prepare the second edition of the Statute of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, a commission of 5 Catholics and 5 Orthodox was created. The text of the statute prepared by it in 1561 was approved only in March 1566. It included the Vilna Privilej of 1563, which once again proclaimed equal rights for Catholics and Orthodox Christians, and the Belsky Privilej of 1564, which guaranteed non-interference of the administration (voivode and elders) in court cases.

The desire of the nobility to revive the independence of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania after the Union of Lublin, the desire to take into account changes in the socio-economic life of the country to a greater extent predetermined the beginning of work on a new statute. By the end of 1584, it was almost completed, but since the new statute ignored the act of the Union of Lublin in 1569, Poland did not agree to approve it at the general Sejm of Rzeczpospolita. As a result, the Statute was approved by the Grand Ducal Privilej on 28.01.1588. Sigismund III Vasa had to do this in order to retain the right to the grand ducal throne.

The Third Statute of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania was in force since 1589, and after the inclusion of Belarus into the Russian Empire – in the Vitebsk and Mogilev provinces – until 1832, in the Vilna, Grodno and Minsk provinces – until 1840. The sources for the development of the Statute were: Statutes of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania in 1529 and 1566, Sejm resolutions of 1573, 1578, 1580, 1584, royal privileys, resolutions of county sejmiks. The Statute had 14 sections and 488 articles. Chapters 1 – 4 contained norms of state law and judicial system, 5 – 10 and partly 13 – marriage and family, land and civil law, 11 – 12, 14 and partly 13 – criminal law. The statute was prepared during the period when Stefan Batory (1576 – 1586) was king and grand duke, at a high level by jurists, whose work was led by Ostafiy Volovich and Lev Sapega.

The Statute of 1588 legally formalized the preservation of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania as a state; contrary to the act of the Union of Lublin, it proclaimed the idea of religious tolerance, prohibited the transfer of a free person into captivity for debts or crimes, and provided for criminal liability of a nobleman for the murder of an ordinary person. The statute was first printed in the ancient Belarusian language in 1588 in the Vilna Mamonich printing house under the patronage of Lev Sapieha, in 1614 it was published in Polish, in 1811 in Russian in St. Petersburg. He had a great influence on the process of codification of Russian law, the preparation of the Council Code of 1649. He was one of the most important sources (especially in the field of state law) of the Constitution of Rzeczpospolita of 1791. The most complete modern edition was published in 1989.

2. The legislation of the Russian Empire, Constitutional construction in the BSSR.

As you know, there was no constitution in autocratic Russia. The laws of the Russian Empire, approved by the emperor, were in force. In the legislation in force on the territory of Belarus during its stay in the Russian Empire, the following periods can be conditionally defined:

1) The end of the XVIII – 30s of the XIX century. This period was characterized by the maneuvering of the Russian government between the interests of the state and the local aristocracy. During these years, along with the norms of Russian legislation, the Statute of the CDL from 1588 was maintained here. Even an attempt was made to create a “code of local laws of the western provinces”, however, the uprising of 1830 – 1831 did not allow this work to be completed – the Statute was canceled. It should be borne in mind that only those norms of mainly family and civil law that remained after incorporation into the Russian Empire were abolished. The remaining provisions of the Statute of the CDL were abolished immediately after the incorporation of the territory of Belarus into Russia.

2) 40s XIX – early XX centuries. This period is characterized by the fact that the right to issue new laws belonged only to the tsar. The Senate, Synod, collegiums (and after the ministry and even the Cabinet of Ministers), they only had the right to contact the emperor with reports or proposals for the adoption of laws and decrees. All documents that were approved by the tsar with the words “Therefore be”, “Take note”, etc. were elevated to the rank of law. This resulted in a huge number of types of legislative acts, which often made it impossible to distinguish a legislative act from an administrative order. Therefore, historians decided to distinguish a law from an administrative order in the following way: only the “expression of the will” of the monarch, which is included in the “Complete Collection of Laws of the Russian Empire” (CCL), is considered laws. This characterizes the second period of development of legislation in the Belarusian provinces of the Russian Empire.

3) 1905 – 1917. The third period began with the Manifesto of October 17, 1905, which declared the beginning of the constitutional order, although it did not

guarantee it. But it was with this Manifesto that Russia's evolution from absolutism to a constitutional monarchy began. The Manifesto recognized the very existence of the State Duma, assigned to it some legislative powers and recognized some restrictions on the rights of the monarch. Since 1906, the right to final approval of laws remained with the tsar, but preliminary approval of laws by the State Duma and the State Council was required. Beginning in March 1917, laws were issued by the Provisional Government. They were usually signed by the minister-president. Thus, the decree of September 1 declaring Russia a republic was signed by Alexander Fedorovich Kerensky.

Thus, even after the overthrow of the Tsar, Russia did not receive its own Constitution. Constitutional construction begins after the October Revolution, when the constitutional process developed quite dynamically.

The development of constitutional construction in Belarus after October 1917 went through several stages:

1) 1917 – 1920 – the period of activity of short-term state and administrative-territorial units on the territory of Belarus. At first, the legislation of the RSFSR was in force here, and from February 1919 the Constitution of the SSRB, which was developed in a hurry, therefore, in fact, the legislation of the RSFSR continued to be in force here. During 1917 – 1920 the unoccupied territory of Belarus remained part of the Russian state, while the governing bodies of the Russian Communist Party had exclusive powers. The second announcement of the SSRB on July 31, 1920 did not change the situation. At the III Congress of the CPB (November 22 – 25, 1920), it was emphasized that “Belarus, being a Socialist Soviet Republic, is at the same time an integral part of the RSFSR.” Amendments to the Constitution of the SSRB of 1919 introduced by the Second All-Belarusian Congress of Soviets (December 1920) actually fixed its autonomous status within the RSFSR.

2) 1922 – 1991 At this stage, the constitutional legislation of the BSSR developed within the USSR. Real changes in the state and legal status of the republic occurred in 1921, when the BSSR was recognized by the world community and signed the Union Treaty of 1922. The Constitution of the USSR of 1924 secured the equal position of all republics within it and a new legislative norm: laws adopted by the republics must comply with the laws of the USSR; in case of discrepancy, the latter have preference.

The socio-economic and political changes that took place before 1927 were enshrined in the Constitution of the BSSR of 1927. It for the first time differentiated the functions of the legislative branch (Congresses of Soviets, the Central Executive Committee and its Presidium) and the executive branch (the Council of People's Commissars, created in 1920). However, subsequently, during the 1930s, this principle was not always followed.

Due to the fact that in 1936 the construction of socialism in the USSR was announced and the Constitution of the USSR was adopted, in 1937 the Constitution of the BSSR was adopted, in which instead of decrees, resolutions, orders, etc. a single concept was introduced – “law”. For documents of the

executive branch, the names “decree”, “resolution”, “order” have been retained. The Constitution proclaimed the equality of all before the law, removed restrictions on the rights of “petty-bourgeois elements,” and guaranteed broad social and personal rights of all citizens.

In 1977, a new Constitution of the USSR was adopted, which expanded the powers of the union republics. In 1978, the Constitution of the BSSR was adopted. In accordance with it, legislative powers were assigned to the Supreme Council of the BSSR; in the intervals between its sessions, decrees of the Presidium of the Supreme Council were issued. The Council of Ministers of the Republic did not have legislative functions, but in fact this period was characterized by a large number of by-laws that significantly distorted the meaning of the adopted laws, and often the latest Constitution of the BSSR.

The processes of democratization in the USSR, which affected the representative system, at the turn of the 80s – 90s XX century spread to Belarus. The result was changes and additions to the Constitution of 1978. Among them, first of all, it is necessary to note the norms that limited the powers of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR (it was deprived of the right to adopt decrees of a normative nature). In the future, the decisions of the Supreme Council of the BSSR itself became important.

Thus, constitutional construction in Belarus begins with the formation of the SSRB, goes through several stages in its development, at each of which a new Constitution of the BSSR was adopted. However, the provision regarding the supremacy of the laws of the USSR over the laws of the union republic, enshrined in the Constitution of the Soviet Union, remained unchanged. It was impossible to go beyond this situation.

3. The adoption of the Constitution and the first election of the President of the Republic of Belarus.

The most important stage in the formation and further development of the state is the drafting of the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus. The Constitution is the Basic Law of the state, defining its social and state structure, the principles of organization and activity of public authorities and management, the basic rights and obligations of citizens.

In July 1990, the Supreme Council of the BSSR established a Constitutional Commission to draft the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus. It consists of 61 deputies and 13 specialists in the field of law. The draft Constitution was essentially ready by the middle of 1991. During the preparation of the draft Constitution, about five hundred received proposals and comments were studied, of which more than a hundred were taken into account. A characteristic feature of the process of becoming a sovereign Belarus was that the independent state was proclaimed in the form of a parliamentary republic. At the same time, new States appeared – presidential republics. There was a discussion in the Supreme Council, the Constitutional Commission and the society about what the Belarusian state should be: a parliamentary republic or a presidential one?

The Constitution adopted by the Supreme Council on March 15, 1994 introduced the institution of the presidency in the republic. The Republic of Belarus was proclaimed a unitary democratic social State governed by the rule of law. A unitary state is a state whose territory does not include federal units (republics) and is divided into administrative-territorial units (regions, districts). In a democratic State, human rights are ensured, and the only source of State power is the people. The social state implements a policy aimed at creating conditions for the free and decent development of all citizens, and the social justice establishing in the society. A State governed by the rule of law is a State where the principle of separation of powers into mutually controlled legislative and executive, as well as an independent judiciary, is implemented. The principle of the rule of law is a set of generally binding rules and norms of conduct, the enforcement of laws by all State bodies and officials, the equality of all people before the law and ensuring the rights and freedoms of citizens.

According to the Constitution, the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus was the highest representative permanent and only legislative body of state power. The President of the Republic of Belarus became the head of state and executive power. The introduction of the post of President signified a new stage in the development of the Belarusian national statehood. The President was proclaimed head of state and head of the executive branch; he was given the right to form a government and control over the main state structures. The President was to be elected for five years directly by the people of the Republic of Belarus on the basis of universal, free, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot. The Supreme Council had a monopoly on the adoption of state laws. A new supreme judicial authority was introduced – the Constitutional Court, which was formed by the Supreme Council. The Constitution provided for the possibility of holding referendums to resolve the most important issues of State and public life.

The elections of the President of the Republic of Belarus were held on June 23, 1994. Six people were nominated as candidates for the post of president: Dubko Alexander Iosifovich – Chairman of the Grodno Regional Executive Committee, Kebich Vyacheslav Frantsevich – Chairman of the Council of Ministers, Lukashenko Alexander Grigorievich – deputy of the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus and Chairman of the Anti-Corruption Commission of the Supreme Council, Novikov Vasily Nikolaevich – Secretary of the Central Committee of the Party of Communists of Belarus, Poznyak Zenon Stanislavovich – deputy of the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus, The leader of the Belarusian Popular Front, and Stanislav Shushkevich, Chairman of the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus.

The main competitors in the presidential race were Prime Minister V.F. Kebich, who completely controlled the state media, relied on the state apparatus and its personnel, and deputy of the Supreme Council A. G. Lukashenko. His election program has found wide support among citizens. It focused on overcoming the economic crisis, social justice, fighting corruption, improving the standard of living of the population, and resuming ties with states that used to be

part of the USSR, primarily with Russia and Ukraine, on an equal and mutually beneficial basis. The winner of the first round of elections was A. G. Lukashenko, who won about 45% of the votes. V. F. Kebich, although he reached the second round, received only 17.4% of the voters. In the next round of elections, held on July 10, 1994, about 80% of voters voted for A. G. Lukashenko, who became the first and so far, the only President of the Republic of Belarus.

Alexander Grigoryevich Lukashenko was born on August 31, 1954 in the urban settlement of Kopys in the Orsha district of the Vitebsk region. He graduated from the Mogilev State Pedagogical Institute named after Arkady Kuleshov and the Belarusian Agricultural Academy. After serving in the Soviet Army, he was engaged in Komsomol, party, and economic work. In 1990, he was elected a deputy of the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus. On July 10, 1994, after a difficult struggle with five other candidates, he was elected President of the Republic of Belarus. In 2001, 2006, 2010, 2015 and 2020. He was re-elected President of the Republic of Belarus. The President is the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the Republic of Belarus, heads the Security Council of the Republic of Belarus.

4. Referendums of 1995, 1996, 2004, 2022 and their role in the state-political construction of Belarus.

The first referendum in the history of Belarus was held on May 14, 1995 on the initiative of President Alexander Lukashenko. According to the results of the vote, the current state symbols were adopted, which differ from the Soviet ones in some minor details, and the Russian language, along with Belarusian, was given the status of the state language. The president also received the right to early dissolution of parliament.

The second referendum was held on November 24, 1996. Of the 7 issues, 4 were initiated by the President, 3 by the Parliament. According to the official results of the referendum, two proposals of the president were supported and all proposals of the parliament were rejected.

Issues initiated by the President:

1. To postpone the Independence Day of the Republic of Belarus (Republic Day) to July 3 – the day of the liberation of Minsk from Nazi invaders in the Great Patriotic War?
2. To adopt the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus of 1994 with amendments and additions (new edition of the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus) proposed by the President of the Republic of Belarus?
3. Do you advocate the free, unrestricted purchase and sale of land?
4. Do you support the abolition of the death penalty in the Republic of Belarus?

Issues initiated by the Supreme Council:

1. To adopt the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus of 1994 with amendments and additions proposed by deputies of the Communist and agrarian fractions?

2. Do you advocate that the heads of local executive authorities should be elected directly by the residents of the respective territories?

3. Do you agree that the financing of all branches of government should be carried out publicly and only from the state budget?

As a result: The majority spoke out: 1) for postponing Independence Day to July 3; 2) adoption of amendments to the Constitution proposed by the President and significantly expanding his powers. 3) a ban on the free purchase and sale of land without restrictions; 4) against the abolition of the death penalty.

The issues proposed by the Supreme Council did not receive majority approval.

The third referendum. It was held on October 17, 2004 and combined with the parliamentary elections. One question was put to the referendum and sounded as follows: Do you allow the first President of the Republic of Belarus, A.G. Lukashenko, to participate as a candidate for President of the Republic of Belarus in the presidential elections and do you accept the first part of Article 81 of the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus in the following wording: “The President is elected for five years directly by the people of the Republic of Belarus on the basis of universal, free equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot”? That is, the part of the article that limited the president’s stay in office to two terms of 5 years was removed.

The fourth constitutional referendum. February 27, 2022. As a result of the referendum, the Constitution was amended: 1) a new government body has appeared in the country – the All-Belarusian People’s Assembly – which is endowed with the broadest powers; 2) the nuclear-free status of the territory of Belarus has been cancelled; 3) the article on the neutral status of Belarus was removed; 4) a provision was again introduced according to which the same person can be president no more than twice.

Lecture 2.2. President of the Republic of Belarus.

1. The development of the institution of the Head of state in National history.
2. Elections, functions and powers of the President of the Republic of Belarus.

1. The development of the institution of the Head of state in National history.

The principalities of Polotsk and Turov in the IX – XIII centuries can be characterized as early feudal monarchies. The Knyaz was at the head of the state. His boyars and vigilantes administered the principality, administered the court, collected tribute and duties, and organized the defense of the state. In the early period of the history of the ancient Russian principalities, the income of knyazes and their entourage was largely determined by tribute from subordinate tribes, the possibility of its export to other countries for sale. The Knyaz also granted his entourage lands. The owners of the land were called “boyars”. Later, the boyars formed the council under the knyaz – the Boyar Duma. The Boyar Duma is an advisory body consisting of representatives of the feudal aristocracy.

At the time of independence of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, the Grand Knyaz was at the head of the state, to whom the appanage knyazes were subordinated. The appanage principalities gradually became voivodeships, which were headed by voivodes – officials appointed by the Grand Knyaz. This was how the centralization of power was carried out in the GDL.

For a long time, the GDL was an absolute monarchy. Under the Grand Knyaz, there was a Rada, which included the Rada Lords, these are the highest government officials, the highest representatives of the clergy, magnates (the largest landowners). For a long time, the Rada was an advisory body to the Knyaz. However, in 1492, Grand Knyaz Alexander Jagiellonchik was forced to sign a decree according to which the Grand Knyaz could no longer make a single decision without the approval of the Rada. So, the Rada began to limit the power of the Grand Knyaz. In 1511, Grand Knyaz Sigismund I the Old issued a decree that completed the formation of the legislative body, the Sejm of GDL.

In 1569, the GDL became part of Rzeczpospolita. The King of Poland became at the same time the Grand Knyaz of the GDL. In the Kingdom of Poland, before the Union of Lublin, there was a parliamentary monarchy, the parliament in Poland was called the Sejm, it consisted of two chambers, the upper one was called the Senate, the lower one was called the Embassy Hut. After the Union of Lublin, the Rada of the GDL became part of the Senate, and the deputies of the Sejm of the GDL became part of the Embassy Hut. However, since the deputies from the GDL were represented in the Polish Sejm as an absolute minority, separate Sejms of the GDL continued to gather on the territory of the GDL in spite of the Lublin Union.

On May 20, 1573, the King of Poland and Grand Knyaz of Lithuania, Henry of Valois, was forced to sign a document that went down in history as Henry’s

Articles. This document weakened the power of the monarch so much that the king in the state became a decorative figure. Henceforth, kings were deprived of most of their rights, including the right to transfer the throne by inheritance. Of all the previous rights, the king retained only one, to appoint government officials; all other power was concentrated in the hands of the Sejm.

In 1589, in Rzeczpospolita, the Sejm adopted a resolution on the right of *Liberum Veto* – a principle of parliamentary structure that allowed any deputy to stop discussing an issue in the Sejm and the work of the Sejm in general by speaking out against it. Thus, in the Parliament of Rzeczpospolita, only those decisions for which all deputies voted unanimously acquired legal force. The *Liberum Veto* right blocked the work of the Sejm, very often Sejm meetings and even entire sessions began to be disrupted. Anarchy established in the country, which gradually led Rzeczpospolita to a political crisis, as a result of which its territory was divided between neighboring states.

As a result of three partitions of Rzeczpospolita in 1772, 1793 and 1795, the territory of Belarus went to the Russian Empire. The territory of Belarus was part of five provinces, each of which was headed by a governor appointed by the Russian emperor. Thus, during the period when the territory of Belarus became part of the Russian Empire, the Russian Emperor was the head of state on its territory.

Until 1905, the Russian Empire was an absolute monarchy. In 1905, a parliament appeared in Russia, which was called the State Duma. The State Duma had legislative powers and limited the power of the monarch, therefore, since 1905, the Russian Empire can be considered a parliamentary monarchy. Deputies from the Belarusian provinces were also represented in the State Duma, but they were in an absolute minority.

As a result of the two revolutions of 1917, the Russian Empire ceased to exist, and its entire territory plunged into the chaos of the civil war, which by the early 1920s was stopped by the Bolsheviks, seizing all power in the state. Back in 1903, when the Bolshevik Party had just appeared (in 1903, the RSDLP split into two factions of Bolsheviks and Mensheviks), the Bolsheviks wrote into their political program a clause on the right of the peoples of the Russian Empire to self-determination. After coming to power, they were forced to implement this program thesis. Therefore, four Soviet Socialist Republics were created, the BSSR, the Ukrainian SSR, the RSFSR, and the TSFSR (Transcaucasian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic), which established the USSR on December 30, 1922. Then the number of Union republics increased every year. On June 22, 1941, there were 16 of them. Since July 16, 1956, there have been 15 union republics.

The BSSR was established on January 1, 1919. The leadership of the BSSR from 1919 to 1991 was carried out by the Communist Party of Belarus (that is, the BSSR) The highest body of the Communist Party of Belarus was the Central Committee (CC), and the First Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Belarus, who was the *de facto* leader of the republic in 1920 – 1991. However, the power of the First Secretary of the Central Committee of the

Communist Party of Belarus was severely limited by the government of the Soviet Union on the one hand and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Belarus on the other hand.

After the collapse of the USSR, the BSSR gained independence and was renamed the Republic of Belarus. The Republic of Belarus was parliamentary from 1991 to 1994, therefore, it was led by the parliament, which formed the government, which was a collegial body. There was no definite pronounced leader of the country, there were several influential politicians of varying degrees of importance in parliament.

On March 15, 1994, the new Constitution of the Republic of Belarus was adopted, which turned it into a presidential republic. On July 10, 1994, the first President of the Republic of Belarus, Alexander Grigoryevich Lukashenko, was elected.

According to the current Constitution, the President of the Republic of Belarus is the Head of State, the guarantor of the Constitution, human and civil rights and freedoms. As the highest official in the state, the President is not a member of any branch of government and is in fact an authoritative arbiter in relation to other public authorities. As the head of State, the President ensures the continuity and interaction of public authorities, mediates between public authorities and, thus, has enormous opportunities for the implementation of public policy.

2. Elections, functions and powers of the President of the Republic of Belarus.

Election of the President of the Republic of Belarus. On March 15, 1994, the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus adopted the Constitution of Belarus, which introduced the institution of the presidency. The first presidential elections of Belarus were held on June 23 (first round) and July 10, 1994 (second round). Alexander Lukashenko won the second round with a score of 80.34%.

Since then, there have been 4 referendums in Belarus in 1995, 1996, 2004, 2022 during which amendments and additions were made to the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus. According to the current version of the Constitution, the President can be elected: a citizen of the Republic of Belarus by birth, at least 40 years old, who has the right to vote, who has been permanently residing in the Republic of Belarus for at least 20 years immediately before the elections, who does not have and did not previously have citizenship of a foreign state or a residence permit or other document of a foreign state granting the right to benefits and other advantages.

The President is elected for a term of five years directly by the people of the Republic of Belarus on the basis of universal, free, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot. The same person can be President for no more than two terms.

Functions of the President of the Republic of Belarus. The President is the Head of State, the guarantor of the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus, human and civil rights and freedoms. He embodies the unity of the people, guarantees the

implementation of the main directions of the domestic and foreign policy of the state, represents the Republic of Belarus in relations with other states and international organizations.

The President of the Republic of Belarus takes measures to protect the sovereignty of the Republic of Belarus, its national security and territorial integrity, ensures political and economic stability, continuity and interaction of public authorities, mediates between public authorities, acts as an arbitrator between authorities.

The President of the Republic of Belarus has inviolability, his honor and dignity are protected by law. Public insult to the President of the Republic of Belarus or slander against him entails liability established by law.

Powers of the President of the Republic of Belarus.

Powers in the field of organizing the work of Parliament and local representative bodies:

1) The President appoints regular and early elections to Parliament and local representative bodies;

2) dissolve the Chambers in the cases and in the manner provided for by the Constitution;

3) has the right to participate in the work of the Parliament and its bodies, speaks to them at any time with a speech or message;

4) addresses annual messages to the Parliament, which are heard without discussion at meetings of the Chambers of Parliament.

Powers in the field of formation of the Government of the Republic of Belarus and other central government bodies:

1) The President appoints the Prime Minister (with the consent of the lower house of Parliament);

2) determines the structure of the Government, appoints and dismisses Deputy Prime Ministers, ministers and other members of the Government, decides on the resignation of the Government or its members;

3) with the consent of the Council of the Republic, appoints the Prosecutor General, the Chairman and members of the Board of the National Bank and dismisses them from office (the President must notify the Council of the Republic about this);

4) appoints and dismisses the Chairman of the State Control Committee;

5) forms, abolishes and reorganizes the Administration of the President of the Republic of Belarus;

6) appoints six members of the Central Election Commission, including the Chairman of the Central Election Commission (with the consent of the Council of the Republic). Dismisses them from office (with notification of the Council of the Republic).

Powers in the field of legislation and legality:

1) has the right to cancel acts of the Government;

2) signs laws;

3) has the right, in accordance with the procedure established by the Constitution, to return the law or its individual provisions with their objections to the House of Representatives;

4) has the right to suspend decisions of local representative Councils of deputies, etc.

Powers in the field of foreign policy relations:

1) conducts negotiations and signs international treaties, appoints and recalls diplomatic representatives of the Republic of Belarus in foreign states and international organizations;

2) accepts credentials and revokes the credentials of diplomatic representatives of foreign States accredited to him.

Powers in the field of defense, law enforcement and protection of citizens:

1) is the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the Republic of Belarus; appoints and dismisses the high command of the Armed Forces;

2) forms and heads the Security Council of the Republic of Belarus;

3) appoints and dismisses the Secretary of State of the Security Council;

4) introduces martial law on the territory of the Republic of Belarus in the event of a military threat or attack, declares full or partial mobilization with the submission of the adopted decision for approval by the Council of the Republic within three days;

5) in the event of a natural disaster, catastrophe, riots accompanied by violence or threat of violence from a group of persons and organizations, as a result of which there is a danger to human life and health, territorial integrity and existence of the state, introduces a state of emergency on the territory of the Republic of Belarus or in its individual localities.

Powers in the field of formation of judicial bodies:

1) with the consent of the Council of the Republic, appoints the Chairman of the Constitutional Court, the Chairman and judges of the Supreme Court, the Chairman and judges of the Supreme Economic Court;

2) appoints six judges of the Constitutional Court (including the Chairman) and other judges of the Republic of Belarus.

Powers in the field of citizenship:

1) decides on the issues of admission to citizenship of the Republic of Belarus, its termination and granting asylum;

2) grants pardons to citizens;

3) awards state awards, assigns class ranks and titles.

The President of the Republic of Belarus also exercises other powers assigned to him by the Constitution and laws.

Lecture 2.3. The Government as the highest executive authority

1. Historical forms of executive power in Belarus.
2. Functions, tasks and structure of the Government of the Republic of Belarus. Prime-Minister.

1. Historical forms of executive power in Belarus.

State power is divided into legislative, executive and judicial. The executive branch of the state power must ensure control over compliance with laws and court decisions. For this purpose, there are executive authorities – this is part of the state apparatus for the execution of laws and court decisions.

The key role in the power system of the Polotsk-Turov period in the history of Belarus belonged to the knyaz. A squad of professional warriors was formed around the knyaz; it became the basis for the creation of an administrative apparatus. The knyazes had special officials – tiuns, who were entrusted with running the household in the knyaz's court and in the villages. According to their status, tiuns were servants of the knyaz, strictly fulfilling his will.

The first system of local government was viceroyalty – the placement of knyaz's men in cities with volosts, while vesting them with the highest judicial and administrative functions.

The self-governing body in the villages was a rural community – *verv*, whose representatives were united by mutual guarantee (collective responsibility) in judicial and financial matters. It was headed by a headman elected by a general meeting. The competence of the *verv* included: land redistribution, taxation and finance issues, settlement of legal disputes, investigation of crimes, execution of punishments.

The advisory body under the knyaz was the Boyar Duma, which included representatives of the feudal aristocracy. From among the members of the Boyar Duma, the knyaz appointed *posadniks*. *Posadniks* could receive land holdings from the knyaz. The *posadniks* retained part of the taxes (tribute), court fines and customs duties.

During the independence of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania 1235 – 1569. the country was led by the Grand Knyaz, under whom the Rada (council) was the advisory body. It included knyaz's officials, representatives of the feudal elite, high clergy, representatives of cities, and in wartime – leaders of the allies. The competence of the Rada was broad: discussions of legislation, governance of the Duchy, relations with the church, and foreign policy. The Grand Knyaz appointed officials from the Rada to state court positions. The positions themselves were divided into higher and lower. Among the highest was the position of Grand Chancellor (head of government). He headed the state chancellery, kept the state seal and the Metrics of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania (archives), participated in the development of laws, and prepared materials for meetings of the Rada. The deputy chancellor was the sub-chancellor – the keeper of the small state seal. Secretaries,

clerks, and translators worked in the office under the control of the chancellor and sub-chancellor.

Financial matters were the responsibility of the podskarby (treasurer), who kept records of all taxes and fees that went into the state treasury. He also managed all state property. The podskarby also had at its disposal a state arsenal (a storage facility for weapons and ammunition).

An important place in the GDL belonged to the hetman, who led the armed forces in the state, their recruitment and provision. His deputy was Hetman Polny, who led the part of the armed forces that were in the theater of military operations, and in peacetime on the border of the state.

A special place among the highest officials was occupied by the marshalok, who performed administrative work in the places where the knyaz was located or meetings of the Sejms were held. He controlled order and etiquette at court.

The lower officials were those who oversaw a narrow range of management issues. These are equeries, keepers, hunters, etc. All officials acted under the control of the knyaz and the Rada.

After the unification of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania and the Kingdom of Poland into Rzeczpospolita, there were no significant changes in the organization of government. In accordance with the provisions of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania statute of 1588, foreigners (that is, Poles) did not have the opportunity to hold government positions in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. In 1581, the Tribunal of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania was created – the highest court of appeal. In Rzeczpospolita there was an increase in the power of a narrow circle of large landowners – magnates. They took over leading government positions, which allowed them to control finance, the economy, and the armed forces along with the political sphere.

At the beginning of the 19th century, after the inclusion of the territory of Belarus into the Russian Empire, a reorganization of central administration took place. The Manifesto of September 8, 1802 created the positions of eight ministers: military forces, naval forces, international affairs, justice, internal affairs, finance, chancellery, commerce, and public education. The executive committee of the ministries consisted of several departments, divided into branches, and the departments were divided into tables.

Simultaneously with the ministries, a Committee of Ministers was created, which in 1861 was renamed the Council of Ministers. The Council of Ministers considered issues at the national level.

After the liquidation of the monarchy, a new stage in the formation of Belarusian statehood began. Thus, on March 9, 1918, the Belarusian People's Republic (BPR) was proclaimed within the borders of the territory in which the Belarusians had a numerical advantage. Due to the difficult foreign policy situation, the BPR was unable to form its own governing bodies in the center and locally. Nevertheless, the proclamation of the BPR attracted public attention, including in Soviet Russia, to Belarusian problems.

With the liberation of most of the territory of Belarus from German troops, the question arose about the creation of Belarusian statehood on a Soviet basis. The first government of Soviet Belarus was created on December 31, 1918 from representatives of the Regional Executive Committee and Belarusian communists. The temporary workers' and peasants' government was headed by Dmitry Zhilunovich. On February 2, 1919, it transferred its powers to the First All-Belarusian Congress of Workers, Peasants and Red Army Deputies. The Constitution of the Socialist Soviet Republic of Belarus, approved by the congresses, outlined the structure and competence of the highest bodies of state power. At the first meeting on February 5, 1919, the Central Executive Committee (CEC) created the Large and Small Presidiums. The large Presidium included all the commissars and this body actually became the Council of People's Commissars (SPK). Members of the Council of People's Commissars headed local government bodies – people's commissariats.

In 1924, the management of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the Byelorussian SSR was divided. The right of the Council of People's Commissars of the BSSR to independently issue legislative acts was abolished. This turned the Council of People's Commissars of the BSSR into an executive state body subordinate to the Central Executive Committee. In 1946, the Council of People's Commissars of the BSSR was reorganized into the Council of Ministers of the BSSR, which was assigned the functions of executive power in the Republic of Belarus until 1994. After the introduction of the presidency, the powers of the government were assigned to the Cabinet of Ministers, and in 1997 – to the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus.

This is how executive power developed on the territory of Belarus at different stages of the history of our country.

2. Functions, tasks and structure of the Government of the Republic of Belarus. Prime-Minister.

In accordance with the current Constitution of the Republic of Belarus, the executive branch in our country is headed by the government. In Belarus, the government is the Council of Ministers, which is a collegial central body exercising executive power. In addition to the executive power, the Council of Ministers has the right of legislative initiative and organizes the development of draft laws of the Republic of Belarus. He is accountable to the President and responsible to the National Assembly of the Republic of Belarus. Resolutions of the Council of Ministers can be canceled by decree of the President of the Republic of Belarus. The Council of Ministers operates during the term of office of the President of the Republic. The composition of the government is approved by the President of the Republic of Belarus.

The government ensures control over the implementation of its decisions directly through its subordinate government bodies and other government bodies.

The Council of Ministers includes the Prime Minister, the Head of the Administration of the President of the Republic of Belarus, the Head of the State Control Committee, Deputy Prime Ministers of the Republic of Belarus, ministers and heads of state committees, as well as the Chief of Staff of the Council of Ministers, the Chairman of the Presidium of the National Academy of Sciences of Belarus, the Chairman of the National Statistical Committee, Chairman of the Board of the Belarusian Union of Consumer Partnerships.

The Office of the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus monitors the implementation of decisions adopted by the Council of Ministers. Under the leadership of the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus, 24 ministries, 7 state committees and 6 state governing bodies operate. Among them: ministries: defense; education; antimonopoly regulation and trade; architecture and construction; foreign affairs; information; culture; forestry; on taxes and fees; for emergency situations; labor and social protection; natural resources and environmental protection; industry; Agriculture; sports and tourism; communications and information; transport and communications; internal affairs; finance; economics; energy; Justice.

State committees: on property; on Science and Technology; on standardization; State Security Committee, state military-industrial, border and customs committees.

State governing bodies subordinate to the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus: Belarusian State Concern of the Food Industry “Belgospischeprom”; etc. The Commissioner for Religious and National Affairs is also subordinate to the government.

The work of the Government is led by the Prime Minister, currently Roman Aleksandrovich Golovchenko (since July 2020). He presents the Government’s activity program to Parliament and resolves the most important issues of international financial and credit organizations, defense, internal affairs, justice, budget and finance. The Prime Minister is appointed and dismissed by the President. Consent to the appointment of a candidate for this post is given by the House of Representatives. If the Chamber twice refuses to appoint a candidate proposed by the President, he has the right to appoint an acting Prime Minister, and the Chamber to dissolve and call new elections.

Forming a government is the responsibility of the head of state. The Prime Minister submits relevant candidates for consideration to the President, which he either accepts or rejects. To carry out its duties, the government does not need to obtain a vote of confidence from parliament on its composition or program of action.

The Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus has broad powers in the field of economics, social sphere, environmental protection, foreign economic activity, personnel policy, and in the field of ensuring law and order.

The main tasks and functions of the current government of the Republic of Belarus: 1) development of the main directions of domestic and foreign policy, implementation of measures for their implementation; 2) preparation of the draft

republican budget and its execution; 3) development of draft programs for the economic and social development of the country; 4) implementation of measures to ensure the rights and freedoms of citizens, protect the interests of the state, national security and defense capability, law and order; 5) organization of state property management; 6) ensuring the implementation of the Constitution, laws, decrees, decrees and orders of the President; 7) management of ministries and other republican government bodies.

The government issues regulations that are binding throughout the territory of the Republic of Belarus.

Meetings of the Council of Ministers are held as necessary, but at least once every 3 months. It is considered competent if at least half of the members of the Government are present. Decisions are made by a majority vote of those present. The President of the Republic of Belarus may preside over government meetings at his discretion. The decisions adopted at the meetings of the Council of Ministers are formalized by resolutions of the Council of Ministers and brought to the interested bodies in accordance with the established procedure.

Lecture 2.4. Legislative and judicial branches of government.

1. Early forms of estate representation: veche and sejms.
2. State Dumas in the Russian Empire and the Soviet form of popular representation – the Central Election Commission and the Supreme Council.
3. The National Assembly is the parliament of sovereign Belarus, its structure and functions.
4. Historical forms of judicial bodies in National history.
5. Types and powers of modern courts in the Republic of Belarus.

1. Early forms of estate representation: veche and sejms.

The beginnings of parliamentarism arose among the Eastern Slavs in the early feudal period in the form of various advisory bodies under the knyazes. There was an institution of power that combined the functions of legislative and judicial power. This is a Veche – a meeting of adult male citizens for the collective solution of various problems. The Veche elected and removed officials, changed legislation, and made decisions on the most important issues of society's development.

After the creation of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, national assemblies of the feudal class, the Sejms, began to be convened to resolve the most important state issues. As a body of legislative state power, the Sejm originated from the ancient Veche assemblies of the principalities of Ancient Rus.

In the XVI century, the Sejm turned from an all-noble into a representative body, at the meeting of which not all the gentry were present, but only its representatives – ambassadors – two deputies from each district, who were elected at the council meetings.

The range of issues of Sejm was as follows: the choice of a knyaz, discussion of the terms of international agreements, issues of war and peace, the introduction of new and the abolition of old taxes, the establishment of customs duties, the adoption of new and replacement of current legislation, consideration of individual criminal cases that affected the interests of the state, the Grand Knyaz or noble persons.

The creation of Rzeczpospolita became a new stage in the development of representation in the GDL. The new state was headed by one monarch, who was both the King of Poland and the Grand Knyaz of Lithuania. The sejms were also united. Representatives from the GDL were part of the Senate of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth (upper house) and the Embassy Hut of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth (lower house).

Before the national Sejm of Rzeczpospolita, the ambassadors chosen together with the senators of the GDL, gathered at their Sejm, at which a common position of the GDL was developed. In the 1570s, another institution of parliamentarism appeared in the GDL – the Vilna convocation, which was convened by the monarch at the request of senators, and state affairs on defense, finance, and taxation were considered at it.

In the XVIII century Rzeczpospolita found itself in a crisis situation, so there was an urgent need to reform the organization of public administration. Reforms have been implemented to streamline the activities of the Sejm. Thus, some issues of no strategic importance could be resolved by a simple majority vote. Thus, the right of “liberum veto” was limited. In 1775, a common Rada was created for the GDL and the Polish Crown. It was divided into five departments – military, budget, Foreign Affairs, police and justice.

On May 3, 1791, the Great Sejm adopted a Constitution that abolished the electability of the king, the “liberum veto” and the confederations. Executive power was transferred to the King and the Council of Ministers. The Sejm remained bicameral. The Chamber of Deputies was formed from the nobility, but “city commissioners” were added to its composition, who received the right to an advisory vote. The Senate was supposed to consist of high-ranking officials. However, the Constitution was soon repealed. The Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth also ceased to exist.

2. State Dumas in the Russian Empire and the Soviet form of popular representation – the Central Election Commission and the Supreme Council.

As part of the Russian Empire, for a long time the population of Belarus was deprived of estates and other representative bodies.

The revolutionary events of 1905 forced Nicholas II to make concessions and propose on August 6, 1905 the project of creating the State Duma, which was supposed to develop legislative proposals, which were then transferred to the State Council and further for the emperor’s consideration. That is, the Duma provided for by the draft of August 6, 1905, did not have legislative powers. This Duma did not satisfy the people, and the revolution continued. Then the Russian government made more significant concessions. The Manifesto of October 17, 1905 provided for an expansion of the circle of electors and the emergence of the Duma of the rights of legislative initiative. Started the political struggle between parties and groups in connection with the elections to the First State Duma. The monarchists won in the Belarusian provinces.

One of the most pressing issues in the work of the First State Duma was agrarian issues. The government wanted to carry out an agrarian reform in which landownership would be completely preserved. And the deputies of the first State Duma believed that it was necessary to transfer part of the landowners’ land to the peasants. The government and the Duma failed to agree on mutual concessions. Therefore, Nicholas II, by decree of July 9, 1906, dissolved the First State Duma and called new elections.

The majority of seats in the Second State Duma were won by leftist parties and Cadets. The main focus of its work, as in the Duma of the previous convocation, was the agrarian question. Deputies from Belarus continued to link the solution to the agrarian issue with the provision of broad local self-government. The Second State Duma not only rejected the government’s project for agrarian reform, but also put forward its own. Therefore, Nicholas II dissolved the Duma on

June 3, 1907, and also changed the electoral law, which increased representation from landowners, who were perceived by the government as the social support of the existing state system.

As a result of the elections, none of the Duma fractions had a majority of seats in the Third Duma. The Third State Duma approved the government's agrarian reform, which later became known as the Stolypin agrarian reform, so this Duma was able to complete its entire term.

The leaders of the company in the IV State Duma were monarchical forces and Orthodox brotherhoods. Deputies from the Belarusian provinces demanded that the government take decisive measures against the dominance of the Poles and Jews. However, the activities in the Duma of a dozen deputies representing Belarusian provinces could not influence the policy of tsarism in Belarus.

After the revolution and the overthrow of the monarchy, the highest body of state power in Belarus was the Congress of Soviets, and between congresses, all power in the republic was exercised by the Central Executive Committee (CEC) and its Presidium.

On December 30, 1922, in Moscow, at the First Congress of Soviets, representatives of the RSFSR, the Ukrainian and Belarusian Soviet Socialist Republics, as well as the Transcaucasian Federation signed the Declaration on the Creation of the USSR and the Union Treaty. In accordance with the Constitution of the BSSR of 1927, the supreme authority was determined by the Central Executive Committee.

In 1936, instead of the Central Executive Committee, the Supreme Council of the BSSR was created. The Supreme Council of the BSSR continued its legislative activities even during the war years. However, strategic decisions were made by the central government bodies of the USSR.

The Supreme Council met in session 1–2 times a year for several days. In a short time up to a week. Deputies, as a rule, approved the budget and a report on its execution, and also adopted and approved a five-year development plan for the BSSR or the USSR. In addition, they approved by open vote dozens of laws developed between sessions and proposed by the Presidium of the Supreme Council of the BSSR or the USSR.

Thus, the appearance of a professional legislative and representative body in modern Belarus was the result of a long and controversial development of parliamentarism in our country.

3. The National Assembly is the parliament of sovereign Belarus, its structure and functions.

In modern Belarus, legislative power belongs to the National Assembly. It is a bicameral parliament, which consists of the House of Representatives (from voters) and the Council of the Republic (the Chamber of territorial representation).

The Parliament consists of representatives of the people, who are elected by them and partially appointed (the Council of the Republic). They got the right to make laws on behalf of the people and represent the interests of the people. The

election of deputies of the House of Representatives is carried out on the basis of universal suffrage by secret ballot. The members of the Council of the Republic are elected at the meeting of deputies of the local Councils of deputies of the basic level of each region and the city of Minsk by secret ballot of eight members. Eight members are appointed by the President of the Republic of Belarus. The same person cannot be a member of two Chambers at the same time.

The House of Representatives elects the Chairman of the House of Representatives and his deputy from among its members. The Council of the Republic elects the Chairman of the Council of the Republic and his deputy from among its members.

House of Representatives:

1) considers draft laws on amendments and additions to the Constitution. Such projects can be put forward either at the proposal of the President of the Republic of Belarus, or at the initiative of at least 150 thousand citizens of the Republic of Belarus who have the right to vote;

2) considers draft laws;

3) approves the republican budget and accepts reports on its execution;

4) establishes republican taxes and fees;

5) calls elections of the President;

6) gives consent to the President to appoint the Prime Minister;

7) hears the report of the Prime Minister on the program of activities of the Government and approves or rejects the program;

8) considers the issue of trust in the Government;

9) accepts the resignation of the President, etc.

Council of the Republic:

1) approves or rejects draft laws on amendments or additions to the Constitution adopted by the House of Representatives;

2) gives consent to the appointment by the President of the Chairman of the Constitutional Court, the Chairman and judges of the Supreme Court, the Chairman and judges of the Supreme Economic Court; Chairman of the Central Commission for Elections and Republican Referendums, Prosecutor General, Chairman and members of the Board of the National Bank;

3) elects six judges of the Constitutional Court;

4) elects six members of the Central Commission of the Republic of Belarus for elections and holding republican referendums;

5) cancels decisions of local Councils of Deputies that do not comply with the law;

6) makes decisions on the dissolution of the local Council of Deputies in the event of a systematic or gross violation of the requirements of the law, etc.

The decisions of the House of Representatives are made in the form of laws and regulations. The decisions of the Council of the Republic are taken in the form of resolutions. The decisions of the chambers are considered adopted provided that a majority of the full composition of the chambers votes for them. The powers of

the House of Representatives or the Council of the Republic may be terminated prematurely. Decisions on these issues are made by the President.

4. Historical forms of judicial bodies in National history.

A fairly developed system of judicial bodies has developed in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. The highest judicial body was the Grand Knyaz's Court, which acted both as an appellate court and as a court of first instance in the most important cases that affected the interests of the state. Since 1581, appellate functions were transferred to the Main Lithuanian Tribunal. Castle and zemstvo courts operated locally. The competence of the castle court included the consideration of criminal cases, and only in cases where the offender was detained at the scene of the crime or captured within 24 hours after the commission of the crime. In all other cases it was necessary to apply to the zemstvo court. The Zemsky Court was an elected collegial court independent from other government bodies. It was a purely class court, which was formed only from the nobility and considered issues only in relation to the nobility.

Cases that related to land ownership were administered by a special Subcomorian court.

The special judicial bodies for the common people were the Copniy courts for the peasants. The judges were representatives of peasant self-government – the elders.

For the townspeople of the cities who received letters of Magdeburg Law, *voitov-lavnichi* and magistrate courts were created. The *voitov-lavnichi* court, which included the *voit* and the *lavniks* (jurors), considered criminal cases. The magistrate's court included *burgomasters* and *radets*. This court heard disputes in civil cases.

After the inclusion of the territory of Belarus into the Russian Empire, structural changes took place in the judicial system: the judicial system began to spread according to the all-Russian model. Even the progressive judicial reform of 1864 had a number of local features. Firstly, judicial reform in Belarus began only in 1872 with the introduction of community courts. Secondly, in Belarus there were no *zemstvos*, so judges of the community were not elected here, as in Russia, but were appointed by the Minister of Justice. Thirdly, district courts, judicial chambers, and jurors appeared in the Belarusian provinces only in 1883. The list of jurors was also approved by the authorities.

After the revolution of 1917, a new system of courts came. The legal proceedings of the BSSR were finally formalized with the adoption in 1938 of the Law "On the Legal Proceedings of the Union and Autonomous Republics." In accordance with it, criminal and civil cases on claims of individuals were assigned to the competence of people's courts. Civil cases on claims of legal entities and organizations were considered by regional courts.

In 1953, cases of serious state crimes that had previously been considered by a military tribunal were transferred to the competence of the Supreme Court of the BSSR.

In 1958, two levels of judicial bodies were identified – all-Union and republican. The first included the Supreme Court of the USSR and military tribunals, the second included the Supreme Court of the BSSR, regional courts and people's courts. This judicial system operated until the end of the 1990s.

5. Types and powers of modern courts in the Republic of Belarus.

The modern judicial system is built on the principles of territoriality and specialization and consists of the Constitutional Court and a system of courts of general jurisdiction.

Courts of general jurisdiction administer justice in civil, criminal, administrative and economic cases. The system of courts of general jurisdiction consists of district (city) courts, economic courts of regions and (the city of Minsk), regional courts (Minsk City).

District (city) courts are created in a district, a city that does not have regional divisions, or a district within a city. The district (city) court hears civil and criminal cases as a court of first instance.

In each region of the Republic of Belarus there is a regional court and a regional economic court, and in the city of Minsk there is the Minsk City Court and the economic court of the city of Minsk.

Regional (Minsk City) Court: considers, within its competence, as a court of first instance, by way of supervision, based on newly discovered circumstances, as well as on appeal, civil, criminal cases and cases of administrative offenses; studies and summarizes judicial practice, maintains and analyzes judicial statistics.

Economic Court of the region (city of Minsk): considers economic cases within its competence as a court of first instance, on appeal and on newly discovered circumstances of a case of administrative offenses as a court of first instance, maintains and analyzes judicial statistics; prepares proposals for improving legislation regulating relations in the field of entrepreneurial and other business (economic) activities.

The Supreme Court of the Republic of Belarus heads the system of courts of general jurisdiction. The Supreme Court of the Republic of Belarus considers cases within its competence as a court of first instance, in cassation, in the order of supervision and on newly discovered circumstances, as well as complaints (protests) against decisions of regional (Minsk City) courts, considers them in accordance with legislative acts within the limits of its competence of the case on appeal.

The Constitutional Court of the Republic of Belarus is a body of judicial control over the constitutionality of normative legal acts in the state. It gives conclusions on the existence of facts of systematic or gross violation of the Constitution by the chambers of the National Assembly; makes decisions on the constitutionality of laws, makes decisions on the existence of facts of systematic or gross violation of the requirements of the law by local Councils of Deputies; gives an official explanation of the decrees of the President of the Republic of Belarus,

receives annual messages from the President of the Republic of Belarus and the chambers of the National Assembly on the state of law in the Republic of Belarus.

Lecture 2.5. Regions of Belarus.

1. Historical forms of administrative-territorial division on Belarusian lands.
2. Modern administrative-territorial division of the Republic of Belarus. Functions and powers of local government and self-government.

1. Historical forms of administrative-territorial division on Belarusian lands.

We have already talked a lot about this in previous lectures. Therefore, today we will briefly dwell on the changes that have taken place in state entities and their administrative division on the territory of Belarus throughout its history.

VI – VIII centuries – tribal unions were formed on the territory of Belarus – the “princdoms” of the Krivichi, Dregovichi, Radimichi.

IX – X centuries – these “princdoms” became part of Kievan Rus.

1st half of the 10th century – The independent principalities of Polotsk and Turov were formed and Kievan Rus broke up into many appanage principalities.

XIII – XIV centuries – The territory of Belarus became part of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. Since 1443, part of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania was divided into the Troki and Vilna voivodeships, the rest of the territory consisted of appanage principalities.

1564 – 1566 – The territory of Belarus is included in the voivodeships of Beresteyskoye, Viltnskoye, Vitebskskoye, Kievskoye (Mozyr county), Minskskoye, Mstislavskoye, Novogrudskoye, Polotskskoye.

XVIII century. In 1772 there was the 1st partition of Rzeczpospolita. The eastern part of Belarus was annexed to Russia, included in the Pskov and created Mogilev provinces.

1776 – Polotsk province was formed.

1778 – Mogilev and Polotsk provinces were renamed into governorships.

In 1793, there was the 2nd partition of Rzeczpospolita, as a result of which the territories of central Belarus were annexed to Russia. From these territories, the Minsk province was formed, in which there were 13 counties.

In 1795 there was the 3rd partition of Rzeczpospolita, as a result of which the Slonim province was formed.

XIX century. In 1802, a new administrative division took place in Russia, as a result of which 5 provinces were formed on the territory of Belarus: Mogilev, Vitebsk, Minsk, Grodno and Vilna provinces.

XX century. In 1919, the BSSR was formed as part of the provinces: Minsk, Vitebsk, Grodno, Mogilev and western districts of the Smolensk province.

In July 1920, the second proclamation of the SSRB took place as part of 8 counties of the Minsk province, and the Mogilev and Vitebsk provinces became part of the RSFSR. The territory of Western Belarus become part of Poland.

In 1924, the first consolidation of the BSSR took place. The territories of Vitebsk and Mogilev provinces were returned to Belarus. There are 10 districts and 100 districts in the annexed territories.

In 1926, the second consolidation of the BSSR took place. The BSSR returned Gomel and Rechitsa districts.

In 1939, after the reunification of Western Belarus with the BSSR, 5 more regions were created: Baranovichi, Bialystok, Brest, Vileyskaya, Pinskaya. These regions were created on December 2, 1939.

In 1954, the following regions were abolished: Baranovichi, Bobruisk, Pinsk, Polesie, Polotsk, and in 1960 the Molodechno region was abolished.

From 1961 to the present day, the administrative–territorial division of Belarus has not changed and includes 6 regions: Brest, Vitebsk, Gomel, Grodno, Minsk and Mogilev regions.

2. Modern administrative-territorial division of the Republic of Belarus. Functions and powers of local government and self-government.

Modern administrative-territorial division of the Republic of Belarus. Belarus is a unitary state. A unitary state is a form of government in which the state does not include any state entities that have elements of sovereignty. The territory of a unitary state consists of its administrative-territorial units (regions, territories, districts, provinces, etc.), which are subordinate to a single central government.

From 1961 to the present day, the administrative-territorial division of Belarus has not changed and includes 6 regions: Brest, Vitebsk, Gomel, Grodno, Minsk and Mogilev regions.

The Brest region includes 16 districts and 3 cities of regional subordination Brest Baranovichi Pinsk. The Vitebsk region includes 21 districts and 2 cities of regional subordination: Vitebsk and Novopolotsk. The Gomel region includes 21 districts and 1 city of regional subordination, Gomel. The Grodno region includes 17 districts and one city of regional subordination of Grodno. The Minsk region includes 22 districts and 1 city of regional subordination of Zhodino. The Mogilev region includes 21 districts and 2 cities of regional subordination: Bobruisk and Mogilev.

Cities of regional subordination in Belarus are those cities with a population of at least 50 thousand people. They must also be administrative or large economic and cultural centers, with developed industrial and social infrastructure. Cities with a smaller population, which, however, have important industrial or historical significance, can also have the status of a city of regional subordination.

Functions and powers of local government and self-government. The fundamentals of the legal status of local government and self-government bodies are enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus and in the Law of the Republic of Belarus of January 4, 2010 “On local government and self-government in the Republic of Belarus”.

Local government is a form of organization and activity of local executive bodies to resolve issues of local importance.

The unified system of local government bodies on the territory of the Republic of Belarus consists of: 1) regional, 2) district, 3) city, 4) village, 5) rural executive committees and local administrations.

Local self-government in the Republic of Belarus is a form of organization and activity of citizens for independent resolution of economic, political and cultural issues of local importance directly by citizens or through bodies elected by them.

The local government system includes: 1) local Councils of Deputies; 2) bodies of territorial public self-government; 3) councils and committees of microdistricts; housing complexes; brownies; street; quarterly; village committees and other bodies.

The exclusive competence of local Councils of Deputies includes:

- 1) approval of economic and social development programs, local budgets and reports on their implementation;
- 2) establishment of local taxes and fees in accordance with the law;
- 3) determination, within the limits established by law, of the procedure for managing and disposing of communal property;
- 4) appointment of local referendums.

In the Republic of Belarus, three territorial levels of Councils are established:

- 1) primary; 2) basic; 3) regional.

The primary territorial level includes Soviets: rural; village; urban (cities of regional subordination).

The basic territorial level includes Councils: city (cities of regional subordination) and district.

The regional councils belong to the regional territorial level. The Minsk City Council has the rights of a basic and regional Council.

The executive and administrative body on the territory of a region, district, city, town is an executive committee with the rights of a legal entity (executive committee).

Executive committees are divided into three levels: primary (rural, township, city (cities of regional subordination)); basic (city (cities of regional subordination), district); regional).

The Executive Committee makes decisions within the limits of its powers. Decisions of the executive committee are made by a simple majority of votes and signed by the chairman of the executive committee and the business manager (secretary) of the executive committee.

The competence of the executive committee includes:

- 1) development and submission for approval to the Council of a scheme for managing local economy and communal property, as well as proposals for organizing the protection of public order;
- 2) development and submission for approval to the Council of draft economic and social development programs, local budgets, submission of reports on their implementation to the Council;
- 3) ensuring compliance with the Constitution in the relevant territory; laws; acts of the President; decisions of the Council and higher state bodies adopted within their competence.

Local Councils of Deputies, executive and administrative bodies, within their competence, make decisions that are binding in the relevant territory.

Decisions of local Councils of Deputies that do not comply with the law are canceled by higher representative bodies. In case of systematic or gross violation of the requirements of the law by the local Council of Deputies, it may be dissolved by the Council of the Republic.

Decisions of local executive and administrative bodies that do not comply with the law are canceled: by the relevant Councils of Deputies; higher executive and administrative bodies; President of the Republic of Belarus.

Lecture 2.6. Political parties and public associations

1. History of the development of political parties and public associations in Belarus.
2. Party building in the Republic of Belarus. The role of parties and public associations in the development of society and the state.

1. History of the development of political parties and public associations in Belarus.

The beginning of the formation of political parties in Belarus is associated with the appearance and formation in 1986 – 1987 of various discussion clubs and informal organizations (Talaka, Spadchyna, Tuteishya, Martyrology of Belarus, etc.). Their social base was the creative intelligentsia and youth.

At rallies and meetings, they advocated for the democratization of society, the rule of law, freedom of speech, the press, the revival of national culture, giving the Belarusian language the status of the only state language, pluralism of various forms of ownership, economic independence and sovereignty of Belarus.

In October 1988, on the basis of informal associations, the organizing committee of the Belarusian People's Front (BPF) "Adradzhenne" (Revival) was created, the founding congress of which took place in June 1989 in Vilnius. After the Second Congress (March 1991, Minsk), the Belarusian People's Front transformed into a party. Having joined the struggle for power and accepting all the attributes of a political party, the Belarusian Popular Front switched to anti-communist positions and became the coordination center of all opposition forces. In the first years of Belarus' independence, it had the highest rating for the entire period of its activity. In the early 90s of the twentieth century, it reached 40%.

In the conditions of social upsurge in the early 1990s, political parties of various ideological directions were created, and a multi-party system was formed. In 1991, there were actually several parties in the republic, including the CPB and the United Democratic Party (the first officially registered by the Ministry of Justice), the Belarusian Peasant Party, the Belarusian Social Democratic Party, the National Democratic Party of Belarus, the Belarusian Christian Democratic Union, which acted in opposition to power. All of them set themselves the task of forming various values of civil society.

In August 1991, after the failure of the State Committee on the State of Emergency (SCES ГКЧП) coup d'état, the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus suspended the activities of the Communist Party of Belarus. In December 1991, the Party of Communists of Belarus (PCB) was created, registered in May 1992. In February 1993, parliament reversed its decision to suspend the activities of the CPB, after which there were two communist parties in the republic.

The presidential elections in July 1994 played an important role in the formation of the party system in the country. During the election campaign, the activity of political parties increased dramatically, they gained practical experience

of participating in elections. Of the 21 registered political parties, 6 took part in the presidential elections.

A significant event in the socio-political life of the republic was the adoption by the Supreme Council of the Law “On Political Parties” in October 1994. For the first time in the history of Belarusian legislation, it established the procedure for the creation and operation of political parties. In accordance with the law, the minimum number of members required to register a political party has been increased from 100 to 500 people.

The elections of deputies of the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus in 1995 had a significant impact on the development of the party system in Belarus. The elections to the highest representative and legislative authorities revealed the degree of voter support for various political parties. 16 parties had their representatives in the country’s parliament. The victory was won by the Communists, who received 45 parliamentary mandates. The second place was taken by the Agrarian Party, which received 33 mandates. Other parties had significantly fewer deputies in parliament (from eight to one). According to the results of the elections, 5 parliamentary fractions were formed in the Supreme Council. Soon, the leaders of the four opposition fractions clashed with the President of the Republic, causing a split in the work of the parliament. The way out of the crisis between the branches of government was a referendum on November 26, 1996.

After the 1996 referendum and the dissolution of the Supreme Council of the 13th convocation, the number of political parties in the republic decreased sharply. An intensive process of their reorganization began.

The process of formation of a multi-party system in Belarus was significantly influenced by the Decree of the President of January 26, 1999 “On some measures to streamline the activities of political parties, trade unions and public associations,” in accordance with which their re-registration was carried out. The decree increased the minimum number of party members required for registration from 500 to 1,000 people from most regions of the republic and Minsk. As a result, 17 of the 28 political parties that existed at the time the Decree was adopted were re-registered. In July 2005, a new version of the Law on Political Parties consolidated the norms of this decree.

As of January 1, 2020, 15 political parties and 1,192 party organizations were registered in the republic. However, the number of political parties is insignificant. None of them can be considered massive and significantly influencing the political situation in the country. The CPB, the Party of Communists of Belarus and the Liberal Democratic Party can be considered more or less numerous, numbering several thousand members each, the rest are close to the 1000 members established by law.

2. Party building in the Republic of Belarus. The role of parties and public associations in the development of society and the state.

In addition to political parties, as of January 1, 2021, 3,021 public associations and 25 trade unions were registered in Belarus.

The largest of them are:

1. Federation of Trade Unions of Belarus (FTUB). This is a single national trade union center with a total number of about 4 million people. Trade unions protect the rights of their members, monitor compliance with labor protection requirements and labor legislation, provide material support to those in need, and provide medical services to trade union members and their families.

2. The Republican public association “Belaya Rus” has more than 190 thousand people in its ranks. The association includes 6 regional, district, city and village organizations in large cities. It includes more than 8 thousand primary organizations. The association’s activities are aimed at implementing the socio-economic development program and supporting the President of the Republic of Belarus.

There are about 400 charitable organizations in Belarus. Among the most authoritative is the public association “Belarusian Charity and Health Foundation,” which is a member of the International Charity and Health Foundation and the European Union of Charity Societies. Among charitable organizations, there are a large number of organizations related to the problems of eliminating the consequences of the accident at the Chernobyl nuclear electric power station.

The youth movement in Belarus is actively developing. The largest and most influential of the youth organizations are the Belarusian Republican Youth Union (BRYU) and the Belarusian Republican Pioneer Organization. The Belarusian Republican Youth Union unites more than 400 thousand young men and ladies, and the ranks of the pioneer organization include more than 660 thousand children and teenagers.

Environmentalists take an active part in the public life of the country. Veteran, women’s, sports, creative unions and organizations.

In our opinion, it is public associations and organizations that are the basis for the emergence and development of civil society in the country, the basis for intensifying the socio-political life of the country and the formation of full-fledged political institutions of a democratic state.

Topic 3. Belarus at the junction of cultures and civilizations

Lecture 3.1. Ethnogenesis of Belarusians and the origin of the name “Belarus”.

1. Stages of formation of the Belarusian ethnic group. Theories of the origin of Belarusians.
2. Theories of the origin of the term “White Rus”. Historical forms of self-name of the Belarusian ethnic group.

1. Stages of formation of the Belarusian ethnic group. Theories of the origin of Belarusians.

The process of formation of the Belarusian ethnic group is quite complex and contradictory. There is no consensus among scientists about the time of the appearance of Belarusians as an ethnic group, or about the ancestors of modern Belarusians. It is believed that the ethnogenesis of the Belarusians took place on the territory of the Upper Dnieper, Middle Podvinie and Upper Ponemonie. Some researchers (Georgy Shtykhov, Nikolai Ermolovich, Mikhail Tkachev) believe that the Belarusian ethnic group existed already in the 13th century. Archaeologist Valentin Sedov believed that the Belarusian ethnic community developed in the 13th – 14th centuries, Moses Greenblat – in the period from the 14th to the 16th centuries. There are several fundamentally different concepts of the ethnogenesis of Belarusians:

Krivichi theory of the origin (ethnogenesis) of the Belarusian people. Author Vaclav Lastovsky. The controversy of this concept is manifested in the fact that, firstly, by the 12th century the Krivichi ethnic group disappeared, and, secondly, it cannot explain the emergence of the ethnic features of the southern Belarusian population, since the Krivichi lived only in the northern and central parts of modern Belarus.

Krivichi-Dregovich-radimich concept. The authors are Efim Karsky and Vladimir Picheta, who included not only the Krivichi, but the Radimichi and Dregovichi among the ancestors of the Belarusians. However, they did not take into account the important factor that there is no direct continuity between the Slavic tribes, on the one hand, and the Belarusians, on the other. The Krivichi Dregovich Radimichi had already disappeared in the 12th century, and the all-Belarusian complex of language and culture had not yet been formed at that time.

Baltic theory of the origin (ethnogenesis) of the Belarusian people. Author Valentin Sedov. He argued for the Baltic origin of the Belarusians, by the fact that many elements of the language and culture of the Belarusians have Baltic roots, for example, the worship of grass-snake and stones, straight-woven bast shoes, housing construction techniques, a number of sounds of Belarusian phonetics (hard “r”, emphasis on the “a” sound, etc.).

The Old Russian concept of the origin (ethnogenesis) of the Belarusian people. One of its authors is Mikhail Koyalovich, who believed that the Russian

people consists of three parts: Great Russians, Little Russians and Belarusians, who formed on the basis of the ancient Russian nationality that existed during the time of Kievan Rus, which was the predecessor of Belarus, Ukraine and Russia.

The “Finnish” concept put forward by the writer Ivan Laskov. According to it, the ancestors of Belarusians were Finno-Ugrians. The concept was formed on the basis of the presence of a significant number of ancient Finno-Ugric hydronyms on the territory of Belarus (for example, Dvina, Svir). However, it is considered an established fact that the Finno-Ugrians acted as a substrate not of Belarusians, but of Balts.

The “Polish” concept in the 19th century was put forward by Lukasz Galembowski, Alexander Rypinski. They denied the existence of an independent Belarusian ethnic group and considered the ethnic history of Belarus as part of the native Polish, although they did not provide convincing arguments in favor of this statement.

The Great Russian concept was also put forward in the 19th century by Alexei Sobolevsky and Izmail Sreznevsky. It is based on the idea that Belarus is a part of Russia, the Belarusian language is a dialect of the Russian language. It does not stand up to criticism, since academician Efim Karsky in his work “Belarusians” proved that the Belarusian language is an independent Slavic language, which in its lexical composition is included in the group of East Slavic languages.

2. Theories of the origin of the term “White Rus”. Historical forms of self-name of the Belarusian ethnic group.

During the late Middle Ages and Early Modern era, the name White Rus’ was unstable, denoting a number of different regions in the territory of modern Belarus, Russia and Ukraine. This name is recorded mainly in Western European sources, starting from the middle of the 13th century. Until the end of the 15th century, the vast majority of references to “White Rus” (Rus Alba) referred to the territory of Veliky Novgorod (Novgorod Republic). Later, this name began to be used to refer to the lands of North-Eastern Rus, that is, the Vladimir-Suzdal principality.

In Rzeczpospolita, the name Belaya Rus from the end of the 16th century was used in relation to part of the modern territory of Belarus, namely the Polotsk land. Since the 1620s, the term was assigned to the eastern, Podvina-Dnieper lands of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. In the Russian Kingdom, White Russia from the first half of the 17th century called all East Slavic lands belonging to Rzeczpospolita. Later, the meaning of the name Belaya Rus in Russian merged with its meaning in Rzeczpospolita. Around the same time, the ethnonym “Belarusians” appeared in official documents of both Rzeczpospolita and the Russian Kingdom.

Thus, in the 16th – 17th centuries. the name of the Belarusian ethnic territory was formed – Belaya Rus and the name (ethnonym) of its inhabitants – Belarusians.

Hypotheses about the origin of the term White Rus. The origin of the term has not been definitively revealed.

According to one version, this was the name given to lands that did not depend on the Mongol-Tatar khans. That is, white in this case is independent, free. This is what Alexander Potebnya, Matvey Lyubavsky, and Mitrofan Dovnar-Zapolsky thought.

According to another version, the name comes from the white color of the hair or clothing of the inhabitants of these lands, as Jacob Reitenfels, Vasily Tatishchev, Efim Karsky, Nikolai Yanchuk thought.

The third version suggests, that White Rus was the name of the lands whose population was Christian, as opposed to “Black Rus”, where paganism allegedly persisted for a long time (Konstantin Tarasov).

The fourth version is based on the fact that White means great or ancient, and the names of the most ancient states among the Croats – White Croatia, and among the Serbs – White Serbia – are based on the same principle. According to Nikolai Karamzin.

Fifth hypothesis – the name comes from the color analogy with the cardinal directions. It is one of the three “Black Rus”, “Chervonnaya (red) Rus” and “White Rus”. The same three-color names are mentioned both among other Slavic peoples, in particular among the Croats and Serbs, and among the peoples of the Steppe (White Horde), who may have borrowed it from the Chinese. The Chinese cardinal directions were designated as: white – west, blue (cyan) – east, black – north, red (red) – south. According to Georgy Vernadsky.

Sixth version. Since the first mentions of “White Rutens” or “White Rus” in Latin and German-language chronicles refer to battles that took place shortly after Easter, it is possible that the warriors of Rus were accompanied by priests in festive white robes, which gave rise to the corresponding color designation. This theory was put forward by Alexey Martynyuk.

Since we mentioned above such names as Black Russia and Chervonnaya (that is, red) Russia, it is necessary to focus on these names here.

Upper Ponemanye was called Black Rus. Now it is Grodno and part of the Brest region. The eastern border of Black Russia is outlined by a conventional line drawn through the cities of Ivatsevichi, Baranovichi, Molodechno. According to one version, the territory had such a name because paganism prevailed here before the XV century, and after the XV century Catholic Christianity (according to Konstantin Tarasov). This name was found in various sources and documents until the 19th century. However, after the annexation of the Belarusian lands to the Russian Empire, the name Chernaya Rus gradually fell out of use, and the name Belaya Rus spread to the entire Belarusian ethnic territory.

Chervona (Red) Rus is a part of Kievan Rus, located in the west of modern Ukraine and the south-east of modern Poland. It covered the lands of the Russian and Belz voivodeships of the Polish Crown. Significant cities of the Red Russia were Lviv, Zvenigorod, Galich, Terebovlya, Holm. Synonyms of the Red Russia are the historical names Galicia.

The self-names of the Belarusian ethnic group during the formation of the Belarusian nation were as follows:

Litvins – East Slavic population who converted to Catholicism (since the 15th century); Poleshuki – inhabitants of Polesie.

Rusyns – the self-name of the East Slavic Orthodox population of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania (predominant in Central and Eastern Belarus (XIII – XVI centuries));

Belarusians are the self-name of the East Slavic Orthodox population of the Grand Duchy of Dvina and the Dnieper region since the end of the 16th century (former Rusyns).

In the XVII – XVIII centuries. In official documents of the Russian state, the word “Belarusians” is used to designate the ethnic composition of the population of “White Rus”, and in the 19th century. it is transformed into the ethnonym “Belarusians”, which gradually replaced the self-names “Litvins”, “Poleshuks” and “Tuteishies” (the locals). Later, the ethnonym Belarusian spread to the territory of ancient “historical Lithuania”, “Black Rus” and Polesie.

Lecture 3.2. Peoples and religions of Belarus.

1. History of the formation of the main ethnic groups in Belarus.
2. Ethnic composition of modern Belarus. Multiculturalism of modern Belarusian society.
3. Confessional history of Belarus.

1. History of the formation of the main ethnic groups in Belarus.

The materials accumulated by researchers show that the first ethnic communities on the lands of Belarus formed in ancient times. There are three main stages in the ethnic history of Belarusians:

The first stage is the Ancient (Pre-Indo-European). It begins with the settling of Belarus by people and until 3 – 2 thousand BC. The monuments of this period are the oldest human settlements – Yurevichi (near Mozyr), Berdysh (near Chechersk) which date back to 23 – 26 thousand years BC. Until about the 12th millennium BC, the territory of Belarus was covered with glaciers. Glaciations periodically retreated and during these relatively short intervals the territory of Belarus was populated by people to varying degrees. By the way, settlements near the villages of Berdysh and Yurevichi appeared precisely during one of these interglacial periods.

About 12 thousand years BC. The glacier completely retreated and people began to intensively populate the territory of Belarus. It is impossible to give an exact description of the ethnic communities that formed on the Belarusian lands in the Stone Age, because it is not known what language these communities used. The only exceptions are those tribes that left behind the archaeological culture of “Pit-Comb Pottery”. Archaeologists find settlements belonging to this culture in the northeastern regions of Belarus. It is believed that this culture belongs to the Finno-Ugric tribes who penetrated here in the middle of the 3rd millennium BC. from the east. By the way, the Finno-Ugric peoples are not Indo-Europeans; they belong to the Uralic language family.

The second stage is Baltic. It began 3 – 2 thousand years BC and lasted until the middle of 1 thousand years AD. It was at this time that Indo-Europeans appeared on the territory of Belarus. The first Indo-Europeans on the territory of our country were the Balts. It is believed that the Balts began to move here at the end of the 3rd millennium BC.

The ancestral home of the Balts is the middle reaches of the Dnieper (Kiev region). In the 2nd millennium BC. the Balts occupied the most extensive territory. Their settlements reached in the west as far as the Oder River (now Germany), in the east – to the upper reaches of the Volga River and its tributary the Kama (now the Russian Federation). In the north, the Balts settled as far as the Gulf of Finland and Lake Ladoga (Russian Federation Novgorod, St. Petersburg), in the south – to the Middle Dnieper region (Ukraine, Kiev region). That is, in the 2nd millennium BC. the entire territory of Belarus was inhabited by Balts.

In the 2nd – 5th centuries. AD The Balts were experiencing their “golden age”. At this time, their craft and trade flourished. Although the territory they

occupied decreased, they still inhabited a significant part of the Baltic coast and almost the entire territory of modern Belarus. For those who don't know, the Balts are the ancestors of modern Lithuanians and Latvians.

The third stage is Slavic. It began in the 5th century AD and continues to the present day. New ethnic changes in the Belarusian lands were associated with settling of Slavs here. Slavic peoples are also peoples of Indo-European origin.

The question of the ancestral homeland of the Slavs remains controversial. Nevertheless, most scientists place the ancestral home of the Slavs north of the Carpathians in the area of the Elbe, Oder, Vistula, Upper Dniester and adjacent areas.

The Slavs began to leave their ancestral home in the 2nd – 3rd centuries AD due to the appearance of the Germanic tribal association of the Goths in the neighborhood. As a result, the Slavs quickly advanced to new lands, reaching the Balkan Peninsula, as well as many areas of Central and South-Eastern Europe. At the same time, the early ethnic community of the Slavs split into three groups – western, southern and eastern. The Western Slavs today are Poles, Czechs, Slovaks; eastern – Belarusians, Ukrainians and a significant part of Russians; southern – Serbs, Croats, Slovenes, Montenegrins, etc.

On the territory of Belarus, the Balts and Slavs initially lived side by side, often engaging in armed conflicts with each other, but then they gradually began to mix and the Slavization of the Baltic population took place.

Belarus was inhabited by three Slavic groups of tribes: Krivichi, Dregovichi and Radimichi. Krivichi – lived in the upper reaches of the Dnieper, Western Dvina, Volga, in the south of Chud Lake. The Dregovichi lived mainly in the Pripyat River basin and partly in the Western Dvina River basin. The Radimichi occupied the Sozh River basin and the lands of the southeastern part of Belarus.

On the territory of Belarus, the Baltic tribes of Lithuania and the Yatvingians (Dainova or Sudins) lived as peculiar islands, with whom the Slavs fought back in the 13th century. There was no clear ethnic border between the Balts and the Slavs; Slavic territory was more often designated by cities as border points.

As already mentioned in the XI – XIII centuries. On the territory of Belarus, the Slavs created two early feudal states, the Polotsk and Turov principalities, which were nominally part of Kievan Rus. Kievan Rus is a medieval empire of knyazes of Varangian origin, the Rurikovichs, which existed in the 11th – 13th centuries. and had very unclear boundaries. For example, the direct dependence of the Principality of Polotsk on Kyiv dates back only 70 years. The existence of Kievan Rus allows some scientists to speak about the existence of the Old Russian nationality, from which the Belarusians, Russians and Ukrainians allegedly came, but other researchers deny the existence of the Old Russian nationality. In short, the existence of the Old Russian people is a subject of scientific dispute.

In the middle of the 13th century. A new state, the Grand Duchy of Lithuania with its capital in Novogrudok, appears on the map of Europe, which retained its independence until the Union of Lublin in 1569. Although Knyaz Gedimin moved the capital of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania in 1316 to Troki (now Trakai in

Lithuania) and in 1323 to Vilno (now Vilnius). Anyway, the majority of the population of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania are Eastern Slavs living on the territory of modern Belarus. Thus, one should think that the Belarusian people appeared in the era of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, mid-13th – mid-16th centuries. However, there are different opinions about the time of formation of the Belarusian nation. Some researchers (Georgy Shtykhov, Mikhail Tkachev) believe that the Belarusian ethnic group existed already in the 13th century, and the process of formation of the Belarusian nation began in the 17th – 18th centuries. Archaeologist Valentin Sedov believed that the Belarusian ethnic community emerged in the 13th – 14th centuries, Moses Greenblat believed that the Belarusian people appeared in the period from the 14th to the 16th centuries.

In any case, the first written precedent of using the term “Belarusian” as a self-designation for people from the modern ethnic territory of Belarus dates back to 1586, when the Latin poet Solomon Rysinsky signed his work as Solomon Belorussian. In the Russian Kingdom (the official name of Russia since 1547), the term “Belarusians” was used to refer to the entire East Slavic population of Rzeczpospolita, which over time narrowed to the East Slavic population of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania.

Until the 19th century, the ethnonyms “Rusyns” and “Litvins” were used as self-names. By the end of the 19th century, the term “Belarusian” was assigned to the population of the entire territory of Belarus.

2. Ethnic composition of modern Belarus. Multiculturalism of modern Belarusian society.

Multiethnicity and multireligiosity are an integral part of the history of Belarus. The process of historical development on the territory of Belarus began with the appearance of various ethnic groups here; this process is more than six hundred years old.

Already in the era of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, various ethnic groups lived on the territory of Belarus. The ethnic structure of the population of Belarus, which was formed during the era of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, continues to exist, with minor changes, to this day.

Russians. They appeared in large numbers on the territory of Belarus as a result of the church reform of Patriarch Nikon (1650 – 1660), after which a schism began in the Russian Orthodox Church. Russian Orthodox Christians, who did not accept Nikon’s reforms, emigrated en masse to the territory of Belarus in the second half of the 17th – early 18th centuries. By the end of the 19th century, the number of Russians was 235 thousand people, or 3.6% of the total population. Russians made up 54% of the Orthodox clergy, 46% of officials, 19% of nobles and 10% of merchants.

Poles. The people of the West Slavic linguistic group, the main population of the Polish Republic. Most Poles are Catholic Christians. Back in the 12th – 13th centuries, under the pressure of the Crusaders’ aggression, part of the Polish population moved to the territory of Belarus. The strengthening of Polish

ethnocultural influence in Belarus occurred in the period that began after the Union of Lublin in 1569. Part of the Belarusian population, especially representatives of the gentry and wealthy townspeople, accepted the Catholic faith and changed their ethnic self-determination.

Jews. In the 14th – 15th centuries, a subethnic group of Ashkenazi Jews began to settle on the territory of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. They spoke the German-Jewish language Yiddish (Hebrew performed only religious functions). The first large Jewish communities formed in Brest and Grodno in the late 14th and early 15th centuries. In the 16th century. The resettlement of Jews in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania increased significantly due to emigrants from the German lands, Italy and the Czech Kingdom. In the 1560s, the total number of Jews on the territory of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania reached 20 thousand people, and in 1628 – about 40 thousand. According to the 1897 census, the number of Jews in five Belarusian provinces was more than 1,202,000 people. (14.1% of the total population and about 40% of the urban population). 56.5% of all employed Jews were employed in industry in Belarus, 88.6% in trade.

Tatars. The first information about the presence of Tatars on the territory of Belarus dates back to the 14th century. In the last third of the 14th century, a struggle for power began in the Golden Horde, during which Khan of the Golden Horde Tokhtamysh was overthrown from the throne by one of the Mongol generals Tamerlane (translated into English as Lame Timur). Tokhtamysh and his supporters fled to the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. The Grand Knyaz of Lithuania Vitovt received the Khan of the Golden Horde Tokhtamysh and his people, who settled in the vicinity of Lida. Many Tatars were resettled to the Grand Duchy of Lithuania as a result of the joint campaign of Vitovt and Tokhtamysh near Azov in 1397. In the 16th – early 17th centuries, the Tatars gradually lost their native language and began to use Belarusian. The total number of Tatars on the territory of Belarus in 1897 was 13,877 people.

The national composition of Belarus in the second half of the 20th – early 21st centuries. Data from the first post-war population census of the BSSR in 1959 gave the following results: Belarusians – 81.1%, Russians – 8.2%, Poles – 6.7%, Jews – 1.9%, Ukrainians – 1.6%, Tatars – 0.1% and other communities – 0.4%.

The last Soviet census in 1989 revealed slight changes in the ethnic structure of the population: the share of Belarusians decreased, amounting to 77.9%; the share of Russians increased to 13.2% (the highest figure in the history of Belarus); the share of Poles decreased by 0.1% and amounted to 4.1%; the share of Ukrainians increased significantly – to 2.9%; the number of Jews decreased significantly – to 1.1%; Tatars made up 0.1%; the share of all other (more than 120) ethnic communities was 0.7%.

After the country gained independence, the number of the titular nation increased. At the present stage of history, the ethnic composition of Belarus is as follows. According to the 2019 census, more than 130 national minorities live in Belarus. The total population of Belarus is 9.4 million people. The vast majority of the population are representatives of the titular nation – Belarusians 84.9% or

7,990,719 people. The largest ethnic minorities are Russians – 7.5% or 700,000 people; Poles – 3.1% or 287,000 people; Jews (about 14,000 people), Armenians (about 10,000 people), Tatars (about 8,500 people), etc.

If we compare with the data of previous population censuses of Belarus, it should be noted that the approximate share of representatives of indigenous nationalities remains unchanged, and there is also an increase in the number of representatives of the following nations during 1999 – 2019: Chinese (from 75 to 1,788 people), Turkmen (from 921 to 5230 people).

3. Confessional history of Belarus.

At the stage of the tribal system in Belarus, totemism, animism, fetishism and magic dominated, as evidenced by archaeological and ethnographic sources. By the 9th century AD, the Eastern Slavs had developed a pantheon of pagan gods: Rod – one of the main gods – the creator of this world, Perun the god of thunder and lightning. Svarog was the god of the sky, and the god of sunlight Dazhdbog was his son. Khors was considered the god of the Sun, Stribog controlled the winds that drove rain clouds, Mokash was the female deity of fertility and hearth, Volos (Veles) was the god of livestock, Lada was the goddess of love and beauty. There were also gods, on whom, according to the ancient Slavs, the future harvest, well-being and life of people depended. Among them were Yarilo, Kupala, Ovsen, Kolyada.

Familiarization with Christianity was facilitated by the campaign of the Eastern Slavs to Byzantium. The most important historical milestone in the spread of Christianity among the Eastern Slavs was in 988, when the Grand Knyaz of Kiev, Vladimir Svyatoslavich, forced the people of Kiev to be baptized, that is, to adopt the Christian religion. It is known from historical sources that the first Christians in the principality of Polotsk were Rogneda, her son Izyaslav and the knyazes of his dynasty. Churches and monasteries were actively built in Belarus in the 12th century. At least ten stone churches were built in Polotsk alone and three monasteries were founded. It is believed that the diocese originated in Polotsk in 992, and in the Principality of Turov in 1005. Thomas became the first bishop of the Polotsk diocese.

The spread of the new religion had very important historical results. They were mostly positive. First of all, Christianity promoted the development of writing and education. Schools and workshops for copying books were opened at Orthodox churches and monasteries. The churchmen were not only educated people, but also advisers in business.

In the XVI century, Protestantism appeared on the territory of the GDL, which became widespread among some of the gentry and townspeople. However, it did not become widespread due to the actions of the Jesuits. In 1596, in order to reconcile Catholics and Orthodox, the Brest Church Union was concluded, which became widespread in Belarus. By the end of the XVIII century, three-quarters of the population of Belarus professed Uniatism, 10% Orthodoxy (mainly in the Mogilev diocese). The rest professed Catholicism.

The religious situation changes dramatically after the annexation of the Belarusian lands to the Russian Empire. At first, the government pursued a cautious confessional policy. Until 1831, Catholic churches, monasteries and educational institutions operated freely. The lands that belonged to the Catholic Church were retained by it on the condition that Catholics would not convert Orthodox Christians to Catholicism.

In relation to the uniates, a policy was pursued aimed at their “voluntary return” to the bosom of Orthodoxy, through coercion of parishioners and bribery of the hierarchs of the Uniate church. In 1839, the Polotsk Church Council took place, which finally eliminated the Uniate Church in Belarus. At the same time, restrictions were imposed on the activities of the Catholic Church, and the property of monasteries and churches was confiscated. The spread of Orthodoxy began especially actively after the uprising of 1863.

The presence of a large number of Jews in Belarus contributed to the spread of Judaism here, and the Tatars – Islam. Thus, the territory of Belarus was a place of residence for different peoples belonging to different faiths, which contributed to the formation of religious tolerance and tolerance among the population.

After the Bolshevik persecution of religion during the Soviet era and the religious revival in the late 90s of the 20th century, the tradition of religious tolerance towards believers of other faiths persists and remains a unique feature of the Belarusian mentality.

Lecture 3.3. State symbols of Belarus.

1. The significance of the Anthem, Coat of Arms and Flag for statehood.
2. State holidays of the Republic of Belarus and their significance.

1. The significance of the Anthem, Coat of Arms and Flag for statehood.

State symbols are special, historically established, distinctive signs of the state established by the constitution, special laws or traditions, personifying its national sovereignty and identity.

The main state symbols include the state Flag, state Coat of Arms, and national Anthem. There are also other types of state symbols: national colors, mottos, emblems, and the like.

The national flag is one of the symbols of the state; It is a single-color or multi-color panel of various shapes with a certain aspect ratio, attached on one side to a shaft (or cord).

The state flag usually depicts: either the state Coat of Arms, or its individual elements, or various symbolic emblems, explained (very conditionally) by historical events, political system, geographical location, etc. Special government acts regulate the procedure for raising and lowering the flag.

The state coat of arms is an emblem with a special legal status, designating the state as a territorial and administrative state integrity; one of three chapters symbols of sovereignty. The vast majority of states have their own coat of arms – officially approved special signs, as a rule, developed historically.

The function of the State Coat of Arms is the visualization of state power, its political, administrative and territorial affiliation. The national coat of arms denotes the presence of the State in the person of its institutions, and is also used to directly identify a particular State among other States.

The image of the State Coat of Arms on seals, letterheads, banknotes, etc. guarantees the responsibility of the state and testifies to its competence in this area of legal relations.

The national coat of arms can exist in short and extended versions. First of all, this concerns the National Coat of Arms of European countries. The short version is sufficient and contains the main principal visual part of the coat of arms: a bit image, often a crown (the National Coat of Arms of Denmark, Norway, Sweden). The extended version implies the presence of other elements of the coat of arms, complementing the short one.

The State Coat of Arms of the Republic of Belarus is a symbol of the state sovereignty of the Republic of Belarus. It represents a golden outline of the State Border of the Republic of Belarus placed in a silver field, superimposed on the golden rays of the sun rising over the globe. At the top of the field is a five-pointed red star. The coat of arms is framed by a wreath of golden ears intertwined with clover flowers on the right and flax flowers on the left. The wreath is intertwined three times on each side with a red-green ribbon, in the middle part of which, at the

base of the State Emblem of the Republic of Belarus, the words “Republic of Belarus” are inscribed in gold in two lines.

The outline of Belarus in the center symbolizes the sovereignty and territorial unity of the country. A wreath of golden ears, flax flowers and clover symbolizes prosperity. The globe signifies the desire to live in peace and harmony, to cooperate with all countries. The rising sun is a symbol of life and the best life. The star is a symbol of man and humanity, a sign of courage and high thoughts, high aspirations of the people.

The state flag of the Republic of Belarus is a symbol of the state sovereignty of the Republic of Belarus; it is a rectangular panel consisting of two horizontally located colored stripes: the upper one is red in $\frac{2}{3}$ of the width of the flag and the lower one is green in $\frac{1}{3}$. Near the pole, the Belarusian national ornament of red color on a white field is located vertically, making up $\frac{1}{9}$ of the length of the flag. The ratio of the width of the flag to its length is 1:2.

The colors of the flag of the Republic of Belarus have the following meanings: red – strength, courage, nobility, energy; green – hope, health, youth, rebirth, diligence, creativity, natural harmony; white – purity, purity, reconciliation, wisdom, knowledge, ornament – a symbol of the ancient culture of the people, its spiritual wealth.

The ornament placed on the flag was embroidered in 1917 by Matryona Markevich, a peasant from the village of Kostelishche in the Sennensky district of the Vitebsk region. There is a monument to her in Senno.

The second Sunday in May is the Day of the State Coat of Arms and the National Flag of the Republic of Belarus.

In 2013, the National Flag Square appeared in Minsk. In the center of it there is a 70-meter stele, on which the largest national flag in the country is installed. Its area is 98 sq. m., and its weight is 25 kg.

The national flag is constantly raised on the buildings of government bodies and some state institutions, is installed in the offices of the heads of these bodies (institutions), in schools, at polling stations, and is hung out during various festive events.

When simultaneously raising or installing the National Flag of the Republic of Belarus and the flag of another state, the National flag of the Republic of Belarus must be raised or installed on the right side, and the flag of another state – on the left, if you face them.

The National Anthem of the Republic of Belarus is a musical and poetic work performed on solemn occasions, the list of which is fixed in legislation. The National Anthem of the Republic of Belarus has its own authors, the music for it was written by N.F. Sokolovsky, the text by M.N. Klimkovich, V.I. Capriciously.

The national anthem is performed at the beginning and in some cases at the end of important state and public events. As a sign of respect for the National Anthem, when it is officially performed, those present listen to it standing (men – without hats, military personnel, other persons for whom uniform is provided – in accordance with the law).

For more information on the cases in which the National Anthem is performed and can be performed, see Chapter 4 of the Law of the Republic of Belarus dated July 5, 2004 No. 301-3 “On State Symbols of the Republic of Belarus”.

2. State holidays of the Republic of Belarus and their significance.

State holidays, public holidays, memorable and festive dates are set by the President of the Republic of Belarus. Currently, Decree No. 157 of the President of the Republic of Belarus dated March 26, 1998 “On Public holidays, holidays and memorable dates in the Republic of Belarus” is in force.

In accordance with the amendments and additions to the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus adopted at the republican referendum on February 27, 2022, the All-Belarusian People’s Assembly establishes state and public holidays.

State holidays are established to commemorate events of special historical or socio-political significance for the Republic of Belarus, which have had a significant impact on the development of the Belarusian state and society.

Holidays are established to commemorate other events dedicated to traditional dates, honoring employees of a certain profession, branch of economy or field of activity, etc.

Memorable dates are associated with other historical events in the life of the state and society, or are traditionally celebrated by certain categories of citizens.

Public holidays are events traditionally celebrated by a significant number of citizens, which are not given the official status of a state holiday, a public holiday or a memorable date in the Republic of Belarus.

Public holidays

Constitution Day is March 15th. The Constitution of Belarus was adopted on March 15, 1994. This document laid a solid legal foundation for independence, realized the desire of the Belarusian people to be a full-fledged master in their native land.

The Day of Unity of the peoples of Belarus and Russia. April 2 is a Russian and Belarusian holiday celebrated at the state level. It is celebrated on April 2 due to the fact that on this day in 1996 the agreement on the creation of the community of Belarus and Russia was signed.

Victory Day is May 9th. Victory Day in Belarus is a public holiday established by Decree of the President of the Republic of Belarus No. 157 dated March 26, 1998. The celebration of the victory of the Red Army and the Soviet people over Nazi Germany in the Great Patriotic War of 1941 – 1945.

The Day of the State Emblem of the Republic of Belarus and the National Flag of the Republic of Belarus is the second Sunday in May. This public holiday is celebrated in the country annually in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 157 of March 26, 1998. The symbols of Belarus as a sovereign state are the National Flag, the National Emblem and the National Anthem.

Independence Day of the Republic of Belarus (Republic Day) is July 3. Since 1991, Independence Day has been celebrated on July 27, the day of the adoption of

the Declaration of State Sovereignty of the Belarusian SSR. The decision to celebrate Independence Day on July 3, the day of the liberation of the capital of Belarus from German occupation, was made during a republican referendum in 1996. Independence Day of the Republic of Belarus is a non-working day. The main event of Independence Day is a solemn military parade with a theatrical performance on Pobediteley Avenue in the area of the stele “Minsk is a hero city”.

National Unity Day is September 17th. In accordance with the Decree of the Head of State No. 206 dated June 7, 2021, the National Unity Day was established in Belarus. September 17, 1939 was the day of the reunification of Western and Eastern Belarus, which was divided against the will of the Belarusian people in 1921 under the terms of the Riga Peace Treaty.

The New Year is January 1st and 2nd. New Year in Belarus is a day off and a public holiday celebrated by the inhabitants of the country in accordance with the Gregorian calendar. It occurs on the night of December 31st to January 1st. The New Year’s Eve in Belarus is very similar to its meeting in other countries.

The Day of Defenders of the Fatherland and the Armed Forces of the Republic of Belarus is February 23. It is believed that Defender of the Fatherland Day was founded in 1918 as the “Birthday of the Red Army” to commemorate the victory over the German conquerors at Narva and Pskov. In 1922, this day became a holiday and was named the Day of the Red Army, and then was renamed the Day of the Soviet Army and Navy. After the collapse of the USSR, the holiday was preserved in a number of CIS countries, including Belarus.

Women’s Day is March 8th. March 8 – International Women’s Day is World Women’s Day, which, in addition to honoring the beautiful half of humanity, also celebrates the achievements of women in the political, economic and social fields, celebrates the past, present and future of the women of the planet. It is a day off in Belarus.

International Women’s Day was preceded by National Women’s Day, which was celebrated in the United States on February 28, 1909 in memory of the events of the previous year, 1908, a strike by textile workers in New York who demanded better working conditions.

The annual celebration of International Womens Day was initiated by the Second International Conference of Socialists, held in Copenhagen in 1910.

Since 1975, the UN, in connection with the International Year of Women, began to hold International Women’s Day on March 8.

Labor Day is May 1st. The May 1 holiday is celebrated in 142 countries around the world. It is celebrated, as a rule, either on the first day of May or on the first Monday of May. Most often, this holiday symbolizes spring, fertility and work. And after the events of 1886, the day of May 1 also acquired socio-political significance. In Belarus, Labor Day is celebrated on May 1 and is a day off.

It is believed that the events in Chicago on May 1 – 4, 1886 marked the beginning of the history of the holiday. On May 1, 1886, a demonstration and a strike were organized. The Chicago workers demanded an 8-hour day. On May 3, the confrontation led to bloodshed, and several workers were killed.

In 1889, in Paris, it was decided every year, in memory of these tragic events, to hold demonstrations of workers' solidarity on May 1.

October Revolution Day is November 7th. Every year on November 7, Belarus celebrates a national holiday – October Revolution Day, which is a day off in the country.

The date of the Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917 was celebrated in the USSR as a public holiday for two days, November 7 and 8.

However, Belarus still celebrates the Day of the October Revolution as a national holiday. However, the interpretation of events in our country has acquired a slightly different shade. In particular, it is emphasized that thanks to the revolution, the Belarusian people gained statehood, and the celebration of this date is conditioned by respect for history.

In addition to the above-mentioned public holidays, religious ones are celebrated in Belarus, some of them. Below is a list of the most important ones. Of these, Radunitsa and Christmas are days off.

Religious holidays:

Christmas (Orthodox Christmas) – January 7;

Easter is according to the calendar of the Orthodox and Catholic denominations;

Radunitsa – according to the calendar of the Orthodox denomination;

Memorial Day – November 2nd;

Christmas (Catholic Christmas) – December 25th.

Lecture 3.4. Socio-economic model of modern Belarus.

1. Transition to the market. Economic crisis 1991–1995
2. Main trends and State programs for socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus in the second half of the 1990s – early 2020s.
3. Features of the Belarusian model of socio-economic development.

1. Transition to the market. Economic crisis 1991–1995.

In the post-war period, industry became a priority direction in the development of the Belarusian economy, primarily mechanical engineering and metalworking, as well as light, food, chemical, fuel and energy. Agriculture and transport also occupied an important place in the economic sector of the BSSR.

With the collapse of the USSR, economic problems became priority problems for Belarus. In October 1990, the Supreme Council of the BSSR adopted a resolution “On the transition of the BSSR to a market economy” and approved a program that provided for:

1. Measures to stabilize the economy: curbing inflation by reducing government spending, privatizing property, purchasing shares, bonds, etc. by citizens.
2. Denationalization, privatization, demonopolization of ownership of the means of production, development of entrepreneurship and competition.
3. Creation of a system of state regulation of the economy.
4. Creation of market infrastructure, exchanges, banks, etc.
5. Social protection of the population in market conditions, the introduction of a minimum wage, income indexation, unemployment assistance.
6. Overcoming the consequences of the Chernobyl disaster in the context of the transition to a market economy.

The government also adopted laws “On the National Bank” (1990), “On Entrepreneurship in the Republic of Belarus” (1991), “On Combating Monopolistic Activities and Development of Competition” (1992), “On Denationalization and Privatization of State Property in the Republic of Belarus” (1993) and others.

In 1991, the “State Program for Stabilizing the Economy and Social Protection of the Population” was approved, which provided for accelerated market reforms, as well as the priority of state regulation in order to prevent the collapse of the economy.

However, the start of market reforms was complicated by the deep economic crisis of 1991–1995. Its main reasons were: firstly, a change in the conditions of the geopolitical position of Belarus, which turned into a sovereign state, which implied the implementation of an independent economic policy; secondly, a change in business conditions, which required adaptation to market conditions both inside and outside the state.

Market reforms were carried out through “shock therapy”, which was recommended by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) for underdeveloped

countries. Moreover, the features of the model of building the Soviet economy, which Belarus inherited, were not taken into account. These factors actually predetermined the fate of future reforms.

The economic crisis was experienced in the first half of the 1990s. all CIS countries. The Republic of Belarus even maintained a higher level of macroeconomic indicators than the CIS average. Losses of the CIS republics during the crisis of the first half of the 1990s. years can be compared with the economic losses of Western countries during the Great Depression of 1929 – 1933.

Reforms carried out in 1992 – 1994 made it possible to create in Belarus the necessary minimum of basic market institutions, legal documents, transform the system of state management of the economy into a new system, which to a certain extent relied on market regulators, and stimulate the emergence of foreign and joint ventures.

The decline in production in most industries continued until 1995, until the “Program of Urgent Measures to Bring the Economy of the Republic of Belarus Out of the Crisis” was developed on behalf of the first President of the Republic of Belarus, A. Lukashenko, whose objectives were to strengthen state regulation of market reforms, stop the decline in production, reducing inflation, preventing a further decline in living standards. The implementation of the program ensured a slowdown in inflation in 1995.

Thus, the transition of Belarus to new conditions of economic activity took place in difficult conditions of transformation of the state structure, the collapse of the unified economic complex of the USSR and a radical change in the mechanism of traditional economic ties.

2. Main trends and State programs for socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus in the second half of the 1990s – early 2020s.

To overcome crisis phenomena and shortcomings, as well as to identify promising tasks in carrying out market reforms, the “Main Directions of Social and Economic Development of the Republic of Belarus for 1996 – 2000” were developed. On October 20, 1996, participants in the First All-Belarusian People’s Assembly, whose program was the slogan “Only the people have the right to decide their own destiny!”, approved this document. The goal of the program was to overcome the crisis and build a socially oriented market economy. Exports, housing construction and production development were declared priorities. Belarus has made a choice towards evolutionary development and abandoned the IMF prescriptions in the form of “shock therapy” and landslide privatization. Thus, the Belarusian model of socio-economic development has emerged, combining the mechanisms of market management with effective social protection.

The implementation of this program made it possible to overcome the decline in production. In 2000, compared to 1995, Belarus’ GDP grew by 36%, industrial output – by 64%, housing commissioning – by 81%, real cash income of the population – by 72%, exports – by 1.5 times, retail turnover – 2.4 times. However,

in terms of GDP volume, agricultural production, and investment in fixed capital, the 1990 level was not reached.

The Second All-Belarusian People's Assembly took place on May 18 – 19, 2001; it adopted the Program of Socio-Economic Development for 2001 – 2005, and was held under the slogan “For a strong and prosperous Belarus!” The program provided for the creation of a highly efficient socially oriented market economy with effective mechanisms of state and market regulation. The priorities of the new five-year program remained exports, housing, food, but they were supplemented with new ones – innovation and investment, healthcare.

The main tasks outlined in the second five-year economic plan were ultimately completed in 2001 – 2005. Belarus' GDP increased by 43% (with a plan of 35 – 40%), industrial production – by 49% (with a plan of 28 – 32%), agricultural production – by 25% (with a plan of 22 – 28%), investments in basic capital increased by 79% (with a plan of 60 – 70%). In 2005, the lowest inflation in the previous 15 years was recorded at 8%.

The main goal of the Program of Socio-Economic Development of the Republic of Belarus for 2006 – 2010, adopted by the Third All-Belarusian People's Assembly (held on March 2 – 3, 2006 under the slogan “State for the people!”) was to further improve the level and quality of life of the population based on growth competitiveness of the economy, creation of a state convenient for people. To the previous five priorities (export, housing, food, innovation and investment, healthcare), another new one was added in 2006 – the development of small and medium-sized agricultural towns.

By 2010, the GDP of Belarus increased by 42%, investment in fixed assets – by 2.3 times, real cash income of the population – by 74.5%. However, the global financial crisis that began in 2008 and rising oil and gas prices complicated the implementation of the Program. The forecast indicators for GDP growth, agricultural production, and achieving a positive foreign trade balance could not be met.

The strategic goal of the Program for Social and Economic Development of the Republic of Belarus for 2011 – 2015, which was adopted by the Fourth All-Belarusian People's Assembly on December 6 – 7, 2010 (the slogan “Our historical choice is an independent, strong and prosperous Belarus!”), was to become one of the top 50 countries in the world according to the Human Development Index. To the previous six priorities (export, housing, food, innovation and investment, healthcare, development of agricultural towns), two more were added – the development of human potential and quality of life, radical modernization of all sectors of the economy. Five most important components of the level and quality of life of citizens of Belarus were identified: a strong family, health, education, real income, and comfort of life. According to the UN rating, Belarus was among the top 50 countries in the world on the Human Development Index, and this was the highest indicator among the CIS countries. Despite the new wave of the global financial and economic crisis, in general it was possible to ensure the stability of the Belarusian economy in 2011–2015.

Country socio-economic development program for 2016 – 2020. was approved by the Fifth All-Belarusian People’s Assembly on June 22 – 23, 2016 (the slogan is “Together for a strong and prosperous Belarus!”). The country’s development was to be based on the following priorities: investment, employment, exports, informatization, youth. It was noted that significant attention should be paid to the development of private entrepreneurship. The program planned an increase in GDP, industrial and agricultural products, labor productivity, investment by 12 – 15%, real cash income of the population – by 9.5 – 11.6%. The annual inflation rate was planned to be kept below 5%. As a result, GDP per capita at purchasing power parity increased by 14%, and stable employment was ensured in the country. According to the educational level index, the Republic of Belarus took 32nd place out of 189 states, according to the level of development of medicine – 59th position out of 93 states, and according to the environmental efficiency index – 49th position out of 180. Entrepreneurship made a significant contribution to the economy, providing more than 40% of exports of goods and 50 % of GDP.

The Republic of Belarus has established itself as a regional leader in the production of tractors, ensuring the production of about 80% of their total number in the EAEU. The share of heavy-duty mining dump trucks in the world market was one third. For the first time, the production of passenger cars was mastered. Belarus is among the top three exporters of potash fertilizers, providing a sixth of global production. Our country took third place in the world in the export of butter of animal origin, fourth place in the export of cheeses and cottage cheese.

However, not all results coincided with forecasts: 2020 was a year of serious testing for the economy, as it was characterized by the negative impact of the global COVID 19 pandemic, the closure of borders, the introduction of quarantine in most countries, a slowdown in business activity, a drop in effective demand for Belarusian products and, in in general, the crisis of the world economy.

The Sixth All-Belarusian People’s Assembly, which was held on February 11–12, 2021 under the slogan “Unity! Development! Independence!” approved the program of socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus for 2020 – 2025. The main goal of the country’s development should be to ensure stability in society and increase the well-being of citizens through modernizing the economy, increasing social capital, creating comfortable conditions for living, working and self-realization of a person. The main priorities were a happy family, strong regions, an intellectual country, and a partner state.

Thus, the development and implementation of programs for the socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus made it possible to overcome the economic crisis of the early 1990s, create a system for managing economic processes, increase the incomes and standard of living of the majority of citizens, and significantly reduce inflation.

3. Features of the Belarusian model of socio-economic development.

The theoretical model of socio-economic development is a set of principles, goals, elements and requirements for the national economic system and the social sphere of society, its social and institutional structure, the efficiency of the functioning of the government and management organization, and the quality of life of the population.

For the first time, a clear formulation of the main features of the Belarusian model was given in March 2002 by the President of the Republic of Belarus A.G. Lukashenko in a speech at a meeting of a permanent seminar of senior officials of republican and local government bodies. Its most important distinctive features are:

1. Building a strong, effective state power that prevents the plunder of people's wealth and the breakthrough of crime into the levers of the control system.

2. Ensuring equality and effective functioning of all forms of ownership, all forms of management. This means creating equally favorable socio-economic and legal conditions for the development of the public and private sectors of the economy.

3. Implementation of individual, thoughtful privatization, which should be aimed at increasing production efficiency. Privatization is considered not as an end in itself, but, first of all, as a means of forming an effective owner. It is aimed at finding an investor interested in the technical re-equipment of production, in increasing the competitiveness of privatized enterprises, in creating new jobs, and in increasing the country's budget revenues.

4. Multi-vector foreign economic policy. Economic activity of Belarus should be present in those regions of the world where it is beneficial and meets its national interests. That is, we cooperate with Russia, with the CIS countries, China, Venezuela, Iran, etc. This cooperation was a success. Belarus entered new markets for Belarusian products, received preferential loans, and developed joint productions.

5. Implementation of social policy, which is a priority of the Belarusian development model. Today, only a socially oriented economy can be understood as effective. At the same time, the social orientation of the economy implies priority investment in the spheres of education, healthcare, culture, as well as the provision of targeted social assistance to economically vulnerable segments of the population.

The Belarusian model is called a socially oriented multi-structure market economy. Within its framework, priority is given to the development of knowledge-intensive industries while simultaneously ensuring the principles of social justice and honest performance by employees of their official duties. In general, the Belarusian model should contribute to achieving a high quality of life for the people, which is a priority and the highest goal of the state.

Lecture 3.5. Belarus in the geopolitical space.

1. Belarus in the geopolitical space (late 20th – early 21st centuries).

1. The concept of geopolitics. The place of Belarus in the geopolitical space.
2. Characteristics of the current geopolitical situation of Belarus. Multi-vector foreign policy.
3. International economic cooperation.
4. Belarus in integration communities. Union state of Russia and Belarus.
5. Belarusian-Chinese relations.

1. The concept of geopolitics. Belarus' place in the geopolitical

space. *Geopolitics* is a political science concept according to which government policies are determined by geographic factors, and also a scientific discipline that studies how spheres of influence and control are distributed and redistributed in the world.

Belarus, by its geographical location, is located in the middle of Europe. Its territory is compact: the length from north to south is 560 km, from west to east – 600 km. The Republic of Belarus borders on five countries: the Russian Federation, Ukraine, Poland, Lithuania and Latvia. Belarus is an inland country, one of 37 countries in the world that do not have direct access to the sea. However, this disadvantage is compensated by the developed intraregional river system and the possibility of using the seaports of neighboring states (Kaliningrad, Ventspils, Klaipeda, Gdansk), which are located at a distance of 250–350 km from the Belarusian borders. Belarus is a flat country with convenient transport routes, which contributes to the development of intensive economic ties with neighboring countries.

2. Characteristics of the geopolitical position of the Republic of Belarus.

Multi-vector foreign policy. Having realized its right to self-determination, the Republic of Belarus has been pursuing an independent foreign policy since 1991. The geographical location of our state determined the course towards a multi-vector foreign policy as a fundamental principle of international relations. It involves the development of balanced, constructive relationships with partners in different regions of the world. The fundamentals of the foreign policy of the Republic of Belarus are: pragmatism, consistency, mutual respect, equality, non-interference in the internal affairs of other countries, refusal of pressure and coercion.

The basic principle on which the foreign policy of any state is based is national interests. The basic national and state interests of the Republic of Belarus are: preserving and strengthening the independence and sovereignty of the country, its territorial integrity, ensuring security, forming a “belt of good neighborliness” along the perimeter of the Belarusian borders, comprehensive protection of the rights and freedoms of citizens, self-identification and affirmation of their interests in relations with other peoples peacefully, maintaining the country's economy with energy and raw materials resources, competitiveness of production, job preservation, stability of the monetary system, ecological balance.

The Republic of Belarus has taken a balanced position in the escalation of the Ukrainian conflict and in every possible way contributed to its early conclusion. On February 11 – 12, 2015, the Normandy Four summit on the settlement of the Ukrainian crisis was held in Minsk. The Belarusian side has provided all the necessary conditions for holding regular meetings of the contact group on the Ukrainian issue. And currently, Belarus is making every effort to peacefully resolve the conflict between fraternal peoples. It was in Belarus that the first attempt at a peaceful solution to the Ukrainian crisis was made.

3. International economic cooperation.

One of the directions of development of the Republic of Belarus is foreign economic activity. The Belarusian economy is one of the most open in the world. Exports account for more than 50% of the country's GDP.

The republic's independent entry into the world market required active participation in international economic organizations. In 1992, the Republic of Belarus joined the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the International Investment Guarantee Agency, the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD), the International Finance Corporation (IFC), etc. The Republic has received observer status in the World Trade Organization (WTO) and the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO). All this made it possible for our country to receive advisory and financial assistance. In 1994. Its foreign trade partners were 97 countries, 153 in 2000, and more than 180 in 2010. Belarus attracted investments from many EU member states, but after the 2020 presidential elections, Western countries imposed restrictive measures against Belarus in the form of numerous packages of economic sanctions.

An important and promising direction in the foreign trade of the modern Republic of Belarus is the export of trade services, which includes financial, transport, tourism, insurance, construction, information, medical and other types of services. In 2021 – 2025, the republic's foreign economic activity will be aimed at qualitative growth of imports and its geographical diversification, increasing integration processes in the economy. Priority will be given to the growth of economic cooperation with partners in the Union State, the EAEU and the CIS, as well as the PRC. The multi-vector nature of foreign policy and the search for new foreign economic partners, the search for foreign investments and technologies, and the construction of joint ventures will continue.

4. Belarus in integration communities. The Union state of Russia and Belarus. The first association of states in the post-Soviet space was the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). In 1994, the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus ratified the CIS Charter, which was adopted at a meeting of the Council of Heads of State in Minsk. Minsk has been the seat of the CIS Executive Committee since January 22, 1993.

In 1995, Belarus, Russia and Kazakhstan made the first attempt to create a Customs Union. In 1999, Belarus, Russia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan established a Customs Union, which was transformed into the Eurasian Economic Community (EurAsEC) in 2000. On January 1, 2015, the Treaty on the Eurasian

Economic Union (EAEU) consisting of Belarus, Kazakhstan and Russia entered into force. The creation of the EAEU was the most important result of the activities of the Eurasec, which fulfilled its task and was abolished. Armenia joined the EAEU on January 2, 2015, and Kyrgyzstan joined in May 2015. The members of the EEC are also united by the Customs Union.

Creation of the Union of Belarus and Russia. Cooperation with Russia was of particular importance for Belarus. On February 21, 1995, an agreement on Friendship, Good-neighborliness and cooperation was signed, which formalized relations between Belarus and Russia as relations of sovereign, equal states. On April 2, 1996, the Agreement on the Community of the Republic of Belarus and the Russian Federation was signed in Moscow. On April 2, 1997, an agreement was signed on the establishment of the Union of Belarus and Russia, which became a model of an interstate association with a higher degree of political and economic integration compared to the CIS. December 8, 1999 In the Kremlin, Presidents A. Lukashenko and B. Yeltsin signed an agreement on the creation of a Union State.

The integration processes between Russia and Belarus have contributed to the strengthening of Belarusian-Russian relations, primarily in the economic sphere. Russia is Belarus' main trading partner and the largest export market for Belarusian goods. By the end of 2022, the mutual trade turnover of the two countries amounted to more than 28 billion US dollars, exports to Russia – 13.8 billion dollars, imports from Russia – 15.3 billion dollars. After the unprecedented sanctions imposed against the Republic of Belarus after 2020 and the reduction of trade with the United States and the European Union, integration cooperation with the Russian Federation within the framework of the union state intensified in 2023, the volume of mutual trade increased to 53 billion US dollars.

By building mutually beneficial cooperation with Russia, Belarus strictly adheres to the principle of unconditional preservation of the sovereignty and territorial integrity of the parties, clear and responsible fulfillment of their international obligations.

5. Belarusian-Chinese relations. One of the main directions of the foreign policy of the Republic of Belarus is the development of bilateral relations with China. On December 27, 1991, the PRC recognized the independence of the Republic of Belarus, and on January 20, 1992, diplomatic relations were established between the states. The Embassy of the People's Republic of China started operating in Minsk, and in 1993 the Embassy of the Republic of Belarus opened in Beijing. The leadership of the independent Republic of Belarus took measures to establish contacts with the People's Republic of China. In January 1992 Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus Vyacheslav Kebich visited China, and in January 1993 – Chairman of the Supreme Council of the Republic of Belarus Stanislav Shushkevich. In 1995, 1997, 2005, 2008, 2010, 2020 and in 2023, the official visits of the President of the Republic of Belarus to the People's Republic of China took place. During this time, Chinese government delegations of the highest level have visited our country more than 10 times.

The Belarusian-Chinese cooperation in the economic sphere is fruitful. In January 1992, the Republic of Belarus and the People's Republic of China signed an Agreement on trade and economic cooperation, and in January 1993 – an Agreement on Investment Protection. In 1995, the intergovernmental Belarusian-Chinese commission on trade and economic cooperation was established. Belarus' trade turnover with China increased from \$33.9 million to \$183 million in 2000. In 2011, it already reached \$3 billion, and in 2023 it amounted to about \$6 billion. The volume of Chinese investments in our country's economy is constantly growing.

Thanks to the support of China and Russia, Belarus is gradually integrating into the Shanghai Cooperation Organization and BRICS, which are considered by our country as a means of expanding partnership relations with the countries belonging to these associations. This, in the face of unprecedented economic and financial sanctions from the United States and the European Union, is one of the main geopolitical tasks of our country's foreign policy.

**PRACTICAL SECTION.
SEMINAR SESSIONS TOPICS**

Seminar № 1. The creation of the first principality states on the territory of Belarus in the IX – XIII centuries and their place in the system of medieval international relations

Plan

1. The emergence of statehood among the Eastern Slavs. Ancient Rus.
2. The principalities of Polotsk and Turov are the first early feudal state formations in the Belarusian lands.
3. Belarusian lands during the period of feudal fragmentation.
4. The adoption and spread of Christianity in the territory of Belarus.

List of topics for research papers:

1. “The theory of social contract” in the interpretation of T. Hobbes, J. Locke, J.-J. Rousseau.
2. Organization of central government in the Slavic principalities in the early feudal period.
3. The role of the Varangians in the formation of the ancient Belarusian state.
4. Status of the Polotsk Principality in the Ancient Rus state in the 9th – 11th centuries.
5. The place of the East Slavic lands in the system of medieval international relations.
6. The struggle of the Principality of Polotsk with the Crusaders in the late XII – first half of the XIII centuries.
7. The path “from the Varangians to the Greeks” in the socio-economic development of the Belarusian lands during the High Middle Ages.
8. The legal tradition of customs and norms of Ancient Rus.
9. The most important archaeological finds on the history of the Belarusian lands of the IX – XIII centuries.
10. Religious beliefs of the ancient ancestors of Belarusians. Paganism.

Seminar № 2. The Grand Duchy of Lithuania is a multiethnic feudal state of Eastern Europe

Plan

1. The causes and basic concepts of the appearance of the GDL.
2. Foreign policy and territorial growth of the GDL.
3. State and social system of the GDL.
4. Reasons for the conclusion of the Union of Lublin in 1569. The GDL in the political system of Rzeczpospolita.
5. Features of the political system of Rzeczpospolita. “Gentry democracy”
6. The political crisis of Rzeczpospolita, attempts at reforms in the second half of the XVIII century. Divisions of Rzeczpospolita.

List of topics for research papers:

1. The reasons for the conclusion of the Krevo Union and its results for the Belarusian lands.
2. Foreign policy of the GDL at the end of the 15th – first half of the 16th centuries.
3. Powers of the Grand Knyaz and Lords of Rada in the GDL.
4. Belarusian feudal city in the 14th – 15th centuries.
5. War 1654 – 1667 Rzeczpospolita with the Moscow State and its consequences for the Belarusian lands.
6. Conditions of election and scope of powers of the king of Rzeczpospolita.
7. Polonization as a factor in the political, cultural, social life of the Belarusian lands as part of Rzeczpospolita.
8. Reforms of the four-year Sejm of Rzeczpospolita (1788 – 1792).
9. Administrative-territorial structure and organization of local government in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania until 1569. Judicial authorities.
10. Rules of law in the Statutes of the GDL as an example of legal thought of the Middle Ages.

Seminar № 3. Belarus as part of the Russian Empire

Plan

1. The question of statehood in the socio-political life of Belarus in the first half of the 19th century.
2. Uprisings of 1830 – 1831 and 1863 – 1864 on the territory of Belarus.
3. Features of the economic development of Belarusian provinces at the end of the 18th – beginning of the 20th centuries.
4. Formation of the Belarusian national idea. Group “Gomon”.
5. The newspaper “Nasha Niva” (Our Cornfield) and the Belarusian national idea at the beginning of the 20th century.

List of topics for research papers:

1. Committee of Western Provinces: main areas of activity (1831 – 1848).
2. Features of the legal system of the Belarusian provinces within the Russian Empire.
3. The specifics of the management system of the Belarusian lands during the period of their entry into the Russian Empire (1795–1917).
4. M.N. Muravyov and his program for the modernization of Belarusian lands within the Russian Empire.
5. Formation and development of Belarusian studies.
6. The newspaper “Nasha Niva” (Our Cornfield) in the national revival of Belarusians (1906 – 1915).
7. Belarusian deputies in the I and II State Dumas.
8. The ideologies of Western Russianism and Regionalism and their influence on the socio-political life of Belarus in the second half of the 19th – 20th centuries.
9. The reasons and results of the Stolypin reforms (agrarian and zemstvo reforms) on the territory of Belarus.
10. Formation of the Belarusian nationality.

Seminar № 4. National-state construction in the BSSR in the XX century.

Plan

1. The October Revolution of 1917 and the establishment of Soviet power on the territory of Belarus.

2. The first All-Belarusian Congress. The proclamation of the Belarusian People's Republic and its activities under German occupation (March – December 1918).

3. Creation of the SSRB and the Lithuanian-Belarusian SSR. The second proclamation of the BSSR.

4. The economic policy of the Soviet authorities in the 1920s – 1930s. (the policy of “war communism”, new economic policy, industrialization, collectivization).

5. The formation of the Soviet socio-political system in the BSSR in the 20 – 30s of the twentieth century.

List of topics for research papers:

1. The First World War in the Belarusian lands.

2. The Polish-Soviet war and its results for Belarus.

3. The situation of Western Belarus as part of Poland (1921 – 1939).

4. The policy of Belarusization: directions, progress, results.

5. The formation of borders and the administrative-territorial structure of the BSSR in 1919 – 1939.

6. The Belarusian National Commissariat and its role in the creation of the BSSR.

7. Industrial modernization in the BSSR in the 1920s – 1930s and the creation of an industrial and agrarian republic.

8. I. Langbard and his projects in the architectural appearance of Minsk.

9. Creation and activity of the BPI in the pre-war period.

10. Achievements and tragedies of the Soviet era.

Seminar № 5. The Great Patriotic War is a key event in modern history

Plan

1. Foreign policy of the USSR in the 1930s – early 1941. Reunification of Western Belarus and Western Ukraine with the BSSR and Ukrainian SSR.
2. Germany's attack on the USSR and the beginning of the Great Patriotic War. Defensive battles on the territory of Belarus.
3. Fascist occupation regime on the territory of Belarus. Politics of genocide and "scorched earth". Holocaust.
4. Anti-fascist struggle in the occupied territory of Belarus.
5. Liberation of Belarus. Strategic offensive operation "Bagration".
6. Contribution of Belarusians to the Victory.

List of topics for research papers:

1. The policy of "pacification" of Western European states. The Munich Agreement of 1938 and its role in the escalation of the war.
2. The reasons for the failures of the Red Army in the initial period of the Great Patriotic War (1941).
3. Collaboration: nature, typology, manifestations in the occupied territory of Belarus.
4. Use of forced labor of Belarusians in Germany (Ostarbaitars).
5. The situation of children and their participation in the people's struggle against the German occupiers on the territory of Belarus during the Great Patriotic War.
6. Concentration camps and death camps on the territory of Belarus during the years of occupation.
7. The largest military and sabotage operations of partisans and underground fighters on the territory of Belarus during the war.
8. Belarusian offensive operation "Bagration" and its significance.
9. The Great Patriotic War in the historical memory of Belarusians.
10. World War II and the Great Patriotic War in Russian historiography.

Seminar № 6. Features of the development of the BSSR as part of the USSR in the post-war period and until 1991. The formation of the independent Republic of Belarus

Plan

1. Social and political life of the BSSR in the second half of the 1940s – the first half of the 1980s.
2. Attempts to reform the Soviet socio-political system in the mid-1980s and socio-political processes in the BSSR at the turn of the 1980s – 1990s.
3. Reasons for the collapse of the USSR. Proclamation of the independent Republic of Belarus.
4. Legislative and legal formalization of the state sovereignty of the Republic of Belarus in the first half of the 90s. XX century. Adoption of the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus. First presidential elections.
5. Features of the socio-political development of the Republic of Belarus at the end of the 20th century. – beginning of the 21st century. Achievements of the sovereign Republic of Belarus.

List of topics for research papers:

1. Participation of the BSSR in the founding and activities of the UN.
2. Referendums of 1995, 1996, 2004, 2022 and their impact on stabilizing the situation in the country.
3. “Mr. No” of Soviet diplomacy A.A. Gromyko.
4. Restoration of the national economy of the BSSR in the first post-war decade.
5. Scientific and technical revolution of the second half of the 1950s – the first half of the 1960s as an impetus for the development of industry in the BSSR.
6. Main trends in the development of Belarusian culture in the post-war period.
7. Political and economic crisis of the first years of independence of the Republic of Belarus.
8. Composition and functions of the Government of the Republic of Belarus.
9. Constitutional practice in the BSSR and the USSR.
10. Judicial system of the Republic of Belarus.

Seminar № 7. President of the Republic of Belarus

Plan

1. Development of the institution of head of state in national history. Features of the monarchical form of government in historical retrospect.
2. The specifics of the organization of the top leadership of the state in the Soviet period.
3. The presidential Republic is the choice of the Belarusian people.
4. The functions and powers of the head of State as a guarantor of the preservation of the Constitution.

List of topics for research papers:

1. The institution of knyazs' power in the Belarusian lands during the Middle Ages.
2. The history of the Polotsk knyazs' dynasty.
3. Grand Knyaz of Lithuania Olgierd and his state and political activities.
4. The image of Vytovt in literary sources and Belarusian historiography.
5. D.F. Zhilunovich is the head of the first Provisional Workers' and Peasants' Government of the SSRB.
6. The formation of the political elite of Belarus in the Soviet period.
7. The place and role of the institution of the presidency in the political system of the Belarusian society.
8. Administration of the President of the Republic of Belarus.
9. Powers, rights and duties of the President of the Republic of Belarus.
10. 10. The institution of the Presidency in the modern world.

Seminar № 8. Regions of Belarus. Peoples and religions of Belarus

Plan

1. Historical forms of administrative-territorial division in the Belarusian lands.
2. The modern administrative-territorial division of the Republic of Belarus.
3. Functions and powers of local government and self-government.
4. Features of the ethnoconfessional situation of Belarus in the past and present.
5. The ethnic composition of the population and the main ethnic groups of Belarus: a historical retrospection.
6. Traditional confessions of Belarus.

List of topics for research papers:

1. The history of the formation of the main ethnic groups of Belarus.
2. The Orthodox Church of Belarus at the present stage.
3. The Catholic Church of Belarus at the present stage.
4. The history of the emergence and functioning of the Greek-Catholic Church in Belarus.
5. Protestant communities of Belarus: history and modernity.
6. Interfaith relations in the Belarusian lands.
7. Judaism in Belarus.
8. Islam in Belarus.
9. Fundamentals of the state policy of the Republic of Belarus in the religious sphere.
10. The organizational structure of local government and self-government in the Republic of Belarus.
11. The main hypotheses about the origin of Belarusians.
12. The origin of the name "Belarus".
13. M.F. Pilipenko and his concept of Belarusian ethnogenesis.

Seminar № 9. The socio-economic model of modern Belarus

Plan

1. The economic situation in Belarus in the late 1980s and early 1990s.
2. The search for an authentic model of socio-economic development in Belarus in the first half of the 1990s.
3. Features of the Belarusian model of the socially oriented market economy of the Republic of Belarus.
4. The main indicators of the development of the National economy.

List of topics for research papers:

1. Target (social) orientation of the Belarusian economic model.
2. Chernobyl disaster on April 26, 1986 and its consequences for Belarus.
3. All-Belarusian People's Assemblies and programs for the socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus.
4. Industrial complex of modern Belarus.
5. Development of the agricultural industry in the Republic of Belarus.
6. Key export goods and services of the Republic of Belarus.
7. Intellectual and innovative basis of the Belarusian economic model.
8. Participation of the Republic of Belarus in integration projects.
9. Political parties and public associations of the Republic of Belarus and their role in the life of society.
10. Concept of national security of the Republic of Belarus.

KNOWLEDGE CONTROL SECTION

1. List of questions for the exam/differentiated test

1. Stages of formation and development of the Belarusian statehood.
2. Sources on the history of the Belarusian statehood.
3. The history of the appearance and formation of the first state formations on the Belarusian lands: Polotsk and Turov principalities.
4. Causes and basic concepts of GDL. Early history GDL.
5. Expansion of the territory of the GDL in the XIV–XV centuries. Unification of the Belarusian lands as part of the GDL.
6. The internal political struggle for power in the GDL in the XIV century. The Krevna Union and its consequences for the GDL.
7. Socio-political system GDL.
8. Causes for the conclusion of the Union of Lublin in 1569. The situation of the Belarusian lands as part of Rzeczpospolita.
9. Features of Rzeczpospolita political system. “Gentry democracy”.
10. The political crisis of Rzeczpospolita, attempts at reforms in the second half of the XVIII century. Sections of Rzeczpospolita.
11. The question of statehood in the socio-political life of Belarus in the first half of the nineteenth century
12. The uprisings of 1830 – 1831 and 1863 – 1864.
13. Western Russianism, regional identity and the formation of the Belarusian national idea in the XIX century.
14. The Doctrine of the Narodnik movement and the activities of the “Gaumont” group.
15. “Nasha Niva” and the Belarusian national idea at the beginning of the XX century”
16. Economic development of the Belarusian lands within the Russian Empire.
17. The Revolution of 1905 – 1907 in Belarus. The State Duma in the Russian Empire and the position of deputies from the Belarusian lands.
18. The First World War on the Belarusian lands and attempts to solve the national question in 1918.
19. Revolutions of 1917 and the Belarusian national question.
20. Variants of programs for solving the national question at the I All-Belarusian Congress, its results.
21. Creation of the SSRB and the Lithuanian-Belarusian SSR.
22. The war of Poland and Soviet Russia. The second proclamation of the BSSR.
23. Participation of the BSSR in the creation of the USSR. Formation of the Soviet model of statehood.
24. The policy of Belarusization in the 1920s and its results.
25. Transformation of the BSSR into an industrial-agrarian state in the second half of the 1920s – 1930s.
26. Formation of borders and administrative-territorial structure of the BSSR in 1919 – 1940.

27. Nazi Germany's attack on the USSR and defensive battles on the territory of Belarus.
28. The occupation regime and the genocide of the Belarusian people during the Great Patriotic War.
29. Formation and development of the partisan and underground movement in Belarus during the Great Patriotic War.
30. Liberation of Belarus from the Nazi invaders. The end of the Great Patriotic War.
31. The contribution of the people of Belarus to the defeat of fascism and victory in World War II.
32. The Great Patriotic War in the historical memory of Belarusians.
33. The BSSR is the founding country of the UN.
34. Restoration and post-war modernization in the BSSR in the second half of the 1940s – early 1950s.
35. Attempts to democratize socio-political life in the second half of the 1950s – the first half of the 1960s.
36. The growth of stagnation in the 1970s – the first half of the 1980s.
37. Social and political processes in the BSSR at the turn of the 80 – 90s of the twentieth century. The collapse of the USSR and its causes.
38. Adoption of the Constitution and the first election of the President of the Republic of Belarus.
39. Referendums of 1995, 1996, 2004, 2022 and their role in the state-political construction of Belarus.
40. Features of socio-political development at the beginning of the XXI century. Modern achievements of the Belarusian state.
41. Formation of legal traditions in Belarus. Russian Truth and Customary Law, Statutes GDL.
42. Legislation of the Russian Empire. Constitutional construction in the BSSR.
43. The development of the institute of the head of state in the national history.
44. Elections, functions and powers of the President of the Republic of Belarus.
45. Historical forms of executive power in Belarus.
46. Functions, tasks and structure of the Government of the Republic of Belarus. Prime Minister.
47. Early forms of estate representation: veche and sejms.
48. State Dumas in the Russian Empire and the Soviet form of people's representation – the CEC and the Supreme Council.
49. The National Assembly is the parliament of sovereign Belarus, its structure and functions.
50. Historical forms of judicial bodies in Russian history.
51. Types and powers of modern courts in the Republic of Belarus.
52. Historical forms of administrative-territorial division in the Belarusian lands.
53. Modern administrative-territorial division of the Republic of Belarus. Functions and powers of local government and self-government.

54. History of the development of political parties and public associations in Belarus.
55. Party building in the Republic of Belarus. The role of parties and public associations in the development of society and the state.
56. Stages of formation of the Belarusian ethnic group. Theories of the origin of Belarusians.
57. Theories of the origin of the term “White Rus”. Historical forms of self-designation of the Belarusian ethnic group.
58. The history of the formation of the main ethnic groups in Belarus.
59. The ethnic composition of modern Belarus. Multiculturalism of modern Belarusian society.
60. Confessional history of Belarus.
61. The significance of the Anthem, Coat of Arms and Flag for statehood.
62. State holidays of the Republic of Belarus and their significance.
63. The main factors of the modern economic development of Belarus.
64. Belarus in the geopolitical space (late XX – early XXI centuries).

2. Test assignments for the course of lectures to test knowledge on the history of Belarusian statehood

Test tasks for lecture 1.1. "Introduction to the academic discipline".

1. A modern political institution that regulates the socio-economic, cultural, spiritual and political development of the country is...
 - a) party
 - b) public association
 - c) state
 - d) church
2. The concept according to which the state was created by God is called...
 - a) contractual
 - b) theological
 - c) patriarchal
 - d) Marxist-Leninist
3. Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau justified the following concept of the formation of the state:
 - a) contractual
 - b) theological
 - c) patriarchal
 - d) conquests
4. The Republic of Belarus is a state in terms of the form of state structure:
 - a) federal
 - b) unitary
 - c) confederate
 - d) associated
5. States such as Russia, Germany, and the United States are states in terms of the form of state structure:
 - a) federal
 - b) unitary
 - c) confederate
 - d) associated
6. The concept according to which the state arose as a result of the division of society into classes and in which the state expresses the interests of the economically dominant class is called ...
 - a) contractual
 - b) theological
 - c) patriarchal
 - d) Marxist-Leninist
7. Cultural and political society, which has developed historically, the highest form of civilized unity of people is...
 - a) family
 - b) tribe

- c) community
 - d) people
8. The first legal act known in Kievan Rus is...
- a) The collection of laws;
 - b) The Statute;
 - c) The truth of Rus;
 - d) The Chronicle
9. The Grand Duchy of Lithuania as a sovereign feudal state existed in:
- a) IX–XII centuries.
 - b) IX–XI centuries.
 - c) XIII–XV centuries.
 - d) XIII–XVI centuries.
10. The historical stage of development of the sovereign Republic of Belarus begins with:
- a) 1990
 - b) 1991
 - c) 1992
 - d) 1994

Answers: 1.c; 2.b; 3.a; 4.b; 5.a; 6.d; 7.d; 8.c; 9.d; 10.b.

Test tasks for lecture 1.2. “The first state formations on the territory of Belarus.”

1. Polotsk was first mentioned in the chronicle in:
- a) 862
 - b) 980
 - c) 985
 - d) 988
2. The Principality of Polotsk was formed on the territory of a tribal union:
- a) Slovenians
 - b) Ulichy
 - c) Vyatichi
 - d) Krivichi
3. The water trade route played an important role in the formation of the Principality of Polotsk:
- a) “From the Varangians to the Greeks”
 - b) “The Great Silk Road”
 - c) “The Road of Life”
 - d) “Baikal-Amur Mainline”
4. The most ancient city in Belarus is...
- a) Minsk
 - b) Turov
 - c) Zaslavl
 - d) Polotsk
5. Kholops, ryadovichs, zakhups – these are the categories:

- a) artisans
 - b) peasants
 - c) merchants
 - d) representatives of the clergy
6. The first religion that appeared among our ancestors is...
- a) Islam
 - b) Paganism
 - c) Christianity
 - d) Judaism
7. The Church of St. Sophia was built in Polotsk under the knyaz:
- a) Rogvolod
 - b) Bryacheslav
 - c) Vseslav
 - d) Izyaslav
8. The Baptisation of Rus took place in:
- a) 862
 - b) 980
 - c) 985
 - d) 988
9. The Turov Principality was formed at the place of settlement:
- a) Slovene
 - b) Dregovich
 - c) Vyatichi
 - d) Krivichi
10. The Knyaz of the Principality of Polotsk is a book amateur and one of the first to accept Christianity – this is...
- a) Rogvolod
 - b) Bryacheslav
 - c) Vseslav
 - d) Izyaslav

Ответы: 1.a; 2.d; 3.a; 4.d; 5.b; 6.b; 7.c; 8.d; 9.b; 10.d.

Test tasks for lecture 1.3. “The Grand Duchy of Lithuania is a multi-ethnic feudal state of Eastern Europe.”

1. The first knyaz of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania was:
- a) Viten
 - b) Vytovt
 - c) Gedimin
 - d) Mindovg
2. The Grand Knyaz of Lithuania, under whom the territory of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania began to extend from the Baltic to the Black Sea, is...
- a) Olgerd
 - b) Vytovt

- c) Gedimin
 - d) Mindovg
3. In 1385 a union was concluded:
- a) Gorodelskaya
 - b) Krevskaya
 - c) Vilensko-Radamskaya
 - d) Lublinskaya
4. According to Alexander's privilege of 1492, the power of the Grand Knyaz was limited:
- a) Sejm
 - b) Rada
 - c) Senate
 - d) The Main Tribunal
5. Podskarbiy in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania is...
- a) head of the grand ducal chancellery
 - b) presiding at meetings of the Rada and Seimas
 - c) chief of the army
 - d) manager of the state treasury
6. According to the Constitution of Rzeczpospolita on May 3, 1791, the following was proclaimed:
- a) introducing restrictions on the use of the right of "liberum veto"
 - b) elimination of the right of "liberum veto"
 - c) holding every third Sejm of the Rzeczpospolita in Grodno
 - d) holding Sejms in Rzeczpospolita only on the territory of Poland
7. The Hetman of the GDL, who fought against the 80,000-strong army of the Grand Duchy of Moscow in the Battle of Orsha in 1514, is:
- a) K. Ostrogsky
 - b) M. Glinsky
 - c) Ya. Radzivil
 - d) M. Radzivil
8. The battle on the Lan River near Kletsk in August 1506 took place between the troops of the:
- a) The Crusaders
 - b) Crimean Tatars
 - c) The Kingdom of Poland
 - d) The Grand Duchy of Moscow
9. In 1764, he was elected Grand Knyaz of Lithuania and King of Poland:
- a) Stanislav Leshchinsky
 - b) August II the Strong
 - c) Stanislav August Poniatowski
 - d) August III
10. The uprising of 1794 on the territory of Belarus was led by:
- a) Ya. Yasinsky
 - b) K. Kalinovsky

c) S. Grabovsky

d) M. Oginsky

Answers: 1.d; 2.b; 3.b; 4.b; 5.d; 6.b; 7.a; 8.b; 9.c; 10.a.

Test tasks for the lecture 1.4. “Belarus as part of the Russian Empire”.

1. In 1817, students of the University of Vilna created:
 - a) the Filaret Society
 - b) the society of “Military Friends”
 - c) the Philomath Society
 - d) “Democratic society”
2. In 1831, in order to develop and implement measures to unify the western provinces with the inner provinces of Russia, it was established:
 - a) the Institute of Zemstvos
 - b) The Committee of the Western Provinces
 - c) The Council of Workers’, Peasants’ and Soldiers’ Deputies
 - d) The Lithuanian Provincial Committee
3. The policy of the Russian government to exclude small gentry from the nobility and transfer them to the taxable estates was called:
 - a) “analysis” of the nobility
 - b) requisition
 - c) rehabilitation
 - d) nationalization
4. In 1832, the Russian government closed the following educational institution:
 - a) Mountains-Goretsky agricultural school
 - b) Polotsk Jesuit Academy
 - c) Belarusian Teachers’ Seminary in Vitebsk
 - d) Vilna University
5. In 1884 in St. Petersburg, students born in Belarus A. Marchenko and H. Ratner was created:
 - a) “Land and freedom”
 - b) “Black redistribution”
 - c) “Narodnaya Volya”
 - d) the “Homon” group
6. The first Belarusian political party was called:
 - a) The Belarusian People’s Party of Socialists
 - b) The Belarusian Socialist Community
 - c) The Lithuanian Social Democratic Party
 - d) Belarusian Christian Democracy
7. One of the features of the development of agriculture in Belarus in the first half of the 19th century was the dominance of land ownership:
 - a) state-owned
 - b) church-owned
 - c) of landlords
 - d) of peasants

8. The majority of peasant deputies from Belarus in the First State Duma adhered to the position of solving the national issue:
- building an independent Belarusian state
 - renunciation of the status of an autonomous region within the Russian Empire
 - granting the status of autonomy to the Belarusian territory within the Russian Empire
 - creation of the Union State of Belarus and Russia
9. Since 1914, the editor of the newspaper “Nasha Niva” was:
- Ya. Kupala
 - Ya. Kolas
 - V. Lastovsky
 - V. Ignatovsky
10. The bourgeois reforms of the 1860s and 1870s in Belarus were carried out late and with significant restrictions due to:
- the significant remoteness of the Belarusian provinces from the internal provinces of Russia
 - the uprisings of 1863 – 1864.
 - the transformation of Belarus into an autonomous region of Russia
 - the lack of support from the local elite

Answers: 1.c; 2.b; 3.a; 4.d; 5.d; 6.b; 7.c; 8.c; 9.a; 10.b.

Test tasks for the lecture 1.5. “National-state construction in 1917 – 1941”.

- The First World War has begun:
 - July 7, 1907
 - August 1, 1914
 - October 25, 1917
 - September 1, 1939
- The result of the February Revolution was:
 - the transfer of power only to the Provisional Government
 - the transfer of power only to the Soviets of Workers and Peasants Deputies
 - the establishment of dual power
 - the preservation of the monarchy
- The Brest Peace Treaty was concluded:
 - March 3, 1918
 - March 21, 1918
 - March 18, 1921
 - March 21, 1921
- The October Revolution has begun:
 - February 23, 1917
 - October 15, 1917
 - October 25, 1917
 - November 25, 1917

5. The Regional Executive Committee was:
 - a) a temporary governing body during the transition of power to To the Soviets in Belarus
 - b) the first highest legislative body of Soviet power in Belarus since November 1917
 - c) the first highest executive body of Soviet power in Belarus since November 1917
 - d) a body of Soviet power on the Western Front
6. The first proclamation of the SSRB took place:
 - a) January 1, 1919
 - b) February 2, 1919
 - c) July 31, 1920
 - d) December 30, 1922
7. The first government of the SSRB was headed by:
 - a) A. Myasnikov
 - b) A. Chervyakov
 - c) D. Zhilunovich
 - d) V. Ignatovsky
8. Collectivization is the policy of the Soviet authorities to create farms:
 - a) farmsteads
 - b) collective
 - c) cooperative
 - d) farmers
9. The peculiarity of the pre-war industrialization in the BSSR was the development of industry:
 - a) light
 - b) chemical
 - c) mechanical engineering
 - d) heavy
10. The first enlargement of the territory of the BSSR took place in:
 - a) 1923.
 - b) 1924.
 - c) 1925.
 - d) 1926.

Answers: 1.b; 2.c; 3.a; 4.c; 5.b; 6.a; 7.c; 8.b; 9.a; 10.b.

Test tasks for lecture 1.6. “The Great Patriotic War is a key event in modern history”.

1. June 22, 1941 began:
 - a) World War II
 - b) World War I
 - c) Great Patriotic War
 - d) Soviet-Finnish War

2. On November 26, 1943, the first regional center of the BSSR was liberated from the Nazi invaders:
 - a) Gomel
 - b) Brest
to Minsk
 - d) Mogilev
3. For the first time in June 1941, the Nazi invaders were struck by a battery of Katyusha rocket launchers under:
 - a) Senno
 - b) Lepel
 - c) Orsha
 - d) Borisov
4. One of the first partisan detachments was organized in Pinsk on the fifth day of the war by:
 - a) M. Shmyrev
 - b) A. Dalidovich
 - c) V. Korzh
 - d) T. Bumazhkov
5. In September 1942, the Belarusian headquarters of the partisan movement headed:
 - a) P. K. Ponomarenko
 - b) P. Z. Kalinin
 - c) P. M. Masherov
 - d) K. T. Mazurov
6. On July 30, 1943, Osipovichi carried out the largest sabotage during the Second World War at the railway junction:
 - a) I. Kozinets
 - b) I. Kovalev
 - c) F. Krylovich
 - d) N. Kedyshko
7. For the first time at the beginning of the Great Patriotic War, new Soviet T-34 tanks were used against the Nazi invaders under:
 - a) Senno
 - b) Lepel
 - c) Orsha
 - d) Borisov
8. The largest death camp in Belarus and the USSR was created by the Nazi invaders:
 - a) The Trostyanets camp
 - b) The Ozarichy camp
 - c) The Koldychev camp
 - d) The Lupolov camp
9. In the period from June 23 to August 29, 1944, Soviet troops conducted the largest offensive military operation:

- a) The Leningrad-Novgorod operation
- b) The Yassy-Kishenev operation
- c) The Bagration operation
- d) The Baltic operation

10. Operation of the Belarusian partisans in 1943 – 1944. against the Nazi invaders went down in history under the title:

- a) “Lightning War”
- b) “Bagration”
- c) “Rail War”
- d) “Cottbus”

Answers: 1.c; 2.a; 3.c; 4.c; 5.b; 6.c; 7.d; 8.a; 9.b; 10.b.

Test tasks for lecture 1.7. “Restoration and post-war modernization of the BSSR”.

1. The main direction of economic recovery of the BSSR in the post-war period was:

- a) agriculture
- b) light industry
- c) heavy industry
- d) service sector

2. A feature of the restoration of the national economy of the BSSR in the first post-war decade was:

- a) introduction of a multi-structure model of economic development with elements of market relations
- b) carrying out collectivization in the western regions
- c) introduction of the territorial principle of economic management
- d) development of virgin lands

3. At the first session of the UN General Assembly, which began its work in January 1946, the BSSR delegation came up with the initiative:

- a) reconsider existing boundaries
- b) provide assistance to the peoples affected by the war
- c) extradition and punishment of war criminals
- d) grant all union republics of the USSR membership in the UN

4. Social and political life in the BSSR in the second half 1960s – first half of the 1980s. was characterized by:

- a) declaration of publicity
- b) carrying out the policy of restructuring
- c) the formation of a multi-party system
- d) the existence of a one-party system

5. Social and political life in the BSSR in the second half 1950s – first half of the 1960s. was characterized by:

- a) partial rehabilitation of the repressed
- b) carrying out the policy of restructuring
- c) the formation of a multi-party system

- d) the emergence of parliamentary opposition
6. Political and educational work among young people in the BSSR in the second half of the 1950s and the first half of the 1980s. carried out:
- Komsomol
 - Trade unions
 - Supreme Council of the BSSR
 - Councils of Working People's Deputies
7. The period in the history of the BSSR, the second half of the 1950s and the first half of the 1960s is called a period:
- thaw
 - stagnation
 - perestroika
 - sovereignty
8. In 1956 – 1965 The Communist Party of Belarus was headed by:
- P.K. Ponomarenko
 - N. I. Gusarov
 - K. T. Mazurov
 - P. M. Masherov
9. In the late 1970s – first half of the 1980s. negative phenomena in the economy have been defined:
- “worthy”
 - “stagnant”
 - “alien”
 - “significant”
10. In the mid-1980s. The BSSR, like the USSR, entered a period of radical transformations that went down in history as:
- “movement”
 - “modernization”
 - “perestroika”
 - “reform”

Answers: 1.c; 2.b; 3.c; 4.d; 5.a; 6.a; 7.a; 8.b; 9.b; 10.c.

Test assignments for lecture 1.8. “Stages of development of the independent Republic of Belarus”.

1. On July 27, 1990, the Supreme Council of the BSSR adopted:
- Law “On ensuring political and economic independence of the BSSR”
 - Declaration of State Sovereignty of the BSSR
 - Law “On Citizenship of the Republic of Belarus”
 - Law “On giving the status of a constitutional law to the Declaration of the Supreme Council of the Belarusian SSR on the state sovereignty of the BSSR”
2. First President of the Republic of Belarus A.G. Lukashenko was elected:
- January 11, 1994
 - July 10, 1994
 - September 21, 1994

- d) December 7, 1994
3. A referendum is a popular vote:
- election
 - balloting
 - meeting
 - voting
4. One of the questions submitted to the republican referendum on November 24, 1996 in the Republic of Belarus was the question of:
- giving the Russian language equal status with the Belarusian language
 - development of economic integration with the Russian Federation
 - establishment of a new State Flag and State Emblem
 - adoption of a new edition of the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus with amendments and additions
5. The main issue submitted to the republican referendum on October 17, 2004 in the Republic of Belarus was the question of:
- giving the Russian language equal status with the Belarusian language
 - adoption of a new edition of the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus with amendments and additions
 - introducing amendments to the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus on the term of office of the President of the same person
 - establishment of a new State Flag and State Emblem
6. At referendums held in the Republic of Belarus, the question was not raised about:
- abolition of the death penalty
 - on the free purchase and sale of land
 - on economic integration with the Russian Federation
 - on giving the Belarusian language equal status with Russian
7. On December 8, 1991, the leaders of Russia (B. Yeltsin), Ukraine (L. Kravchuk) and Belarus (S. Shushkevich) signed an Agreement on Education in Belovezhskaya Pushcha on the establishment of:
- CIS
 - The EAEU
 - The EEC
 - The CSTO
8. The Belarusian model of a socially oriented market economy is characterized by:
- the existence of only a private form of ownership
 - the existence of only a state form of ownership
 - attention to the social needs of a person
 - support from the state exclusively for farms
9. The decision to rename the Belarusian Soviet Socialist Republic to the Republic of Belarus was made:
- July 27, 1990
 - August 25, 1991

- c) September 19, 1991
- d) March 15, 1994

10. On April 2, 1996, the Republic of Belarus and the Russian Federation signed an agreement on the establishment of:

- a) the Union
- b) the Union State
- c) the Federation
- d) communities

Ответы: 1.b; 2.b; 3.d; 4.d; 5.c; 6.d; 7.a; 8.c; 9.c; 10.d.

Test tasks for the lecture 2.1. "The Constitution as the basic law of the state".

1. The Basic Law of a modern state, which has the highest legal force, is...
 - a) Code of Law
 - b) Statute
 - c) Constitution
 - d) Decree
2. The first statute of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania was adopted in:
 - a) 1529
 - b) 1532
 - c) 1566
 - d) 1588
3. In 1588 it was adopted:
 - a) First statute of the GDL
 - b) Second statute of the GDL
 - c) Third Statute of the GDL
 - d) Code of Law of Casimir
4. The first Constitution of the BSSR was adopted in:
 - a) 1918
 - b) 1919
 - c) 1990
 - d) 1991
5. The first Constitution of the Republic of Belarus was adopted in:
 - a) 1994
 - b) 1995
 - c) 2020
 - d) 2022
6. The transformation of an absolute monarchy into a constitutional monarchy in the Russian Empire was regulated by:
 - a) Manifesto of October 17, 1905
 - b) By order of Emperor Nicholas II on January 12, 1912
 - c) Reform of Alexander II in 1861
 - d) By the will of Alexander III in 1882
7. The Constitution of the Republic of Belarus was last amended in:
 - a) 1990

- b) 2022
 - c) 2004
 - d) 2014
8. The Law “On giving the status of a constitutional law to the Declaration of the Supreme Council of the Byelorussian SSR on the state sovereignty of the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic” was adopted:
- a) September 25, 1939
 - b) August 25, 1991
 - c) October 25, 1989
 - d) November 25, 1999
9. The guarantor of the Constitution, rights and freedoms of citizens in the Republic of Belarus is:
- a) President
 - b) Parliament
 - c) people
 - d) Constitutional Court
10. A collection of local laws for the territory of Belarus, Lithuania and Right-Bank Ukraine, which was a synthesis of the Lithuanian Statute, the norms of Magdeburg law, resolutions of the Sejms of Rzeczpospolita, etc., compiled in the first quarter of the 19th century on the initiative of M.M. Speransky, was called:
- a) Western Code of laws
 - b) Complete collection of laws of the Russian Empire
 - c) Code of Laws of the Russian Empire
 - d) Lithuanian Statute
- Answers: 1.c; 2.a; 3.c; 4.b; 5.a; 6.a; 7.b; 8.b; 9.a; 10.a.

Test tasks for lecture 2.2. “President of the Republic of Belarus”.

1. At the head of the ancient Belarusian principalities in the 9th–13th centuries stood:
- a) hetman
 - b) king
 - c) tsar
 - d) knyaz
2. The first knyaz mentioned in the chronicles on the territory of Belarus was:
- a) Jagiello
 - b) Vladimir
 - c) Rogvolod
 - d) Vseslav (the Magician)
3. The Grand Knyaz of Lithuania, who introduced the institution of governorship in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, centralizing power, is...
- a) Mindovg
 - b) Vytovt
 - c) Olgerd

- d) Jagiello
4. King of Rzeczpospolita in the second half of the 16th – first half of the 18th centuries:
- necessarily passed on his throne by inheritance
 - elected by the gentry at the Valny Seym
 - was completely independent in decision making
 - performed sole legislative functions in the state
5. The highest official in the BSSR according to the 1978 Constitution is ...
- President of the BSSR
 - People's Commissar of the BSSR
 - Chairman of the Supreme Council of the BSSR
 - General Secretary of the Supreme Council of the BSSR
6. The position of President in the Republic of Belarus was introduced according to:
- Declaration of State Sovereignty of the BSSR
 - Constitution of the Republic of Belarus 1994
 - Law "On giving the status of a constitutional law to the Declaration of the Supreme Council of the Byelorussian SSR on the state sovereignty of the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic"
 - Law "On ensuring political and economic independence of the BSSR"
7. According to the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus of 1994 with amendments and additions adopted at the republican referendums of 2004 and 2022, the age threshold for a candidate for the President of the country begins with:
- 30 yearsold
 - 40 years old
 - 50 years old
 - 60 years old
8. According to the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus of 1994 with amendments and additions adopted at the republican referendums of 2004 and 2022, the President may be removed from office in case of systematic or gross violation of the Constitution, or in connection with the commission of high treason or other serious crime:
- The Constitutional Court
 - The House of Representatives
 - the Council of the Republic
 - By the All-Belarusian People's Assembly
9. According to the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus of 1994, with amendments and additions adopted at the republican referendums of 2004 and 2022, in case of vacancy of the post of President or inability to perform his duties, his powers before taking the oath of office by the newly elected President are transferred to:
- to the Prime Minister of the Republic of Belarus
 - The Chairman of the Council of the Republic
 - the Chairman of the House of Representatives

- d) the Chairman of the Constitutional Court
10. According to the Constitution of the Republic of Belarus of 1994 with amendments and additions adopted at the republican referendums of 2004 and 2022, the powers of the head of state in the Republic of Belarus are limited:
- 2 terms of 5 years
 - 1 term of 5 years
 - 3 terms of 3 years
 - terms are not limited

Answers: 1.d; 2.c; 3.b; 4.b; 5.c; 6.b; 7.b; 8.d; 9.b; 10.a.

Test tasks for lesson 2.3. “The government as the highest body of executive power”.

- Government refers to power:
 - legislative
 - executive
 - judicial
 - absolute
- The basis for the creation of an administrative apparatus in the Slavic principalities of the early feudal period was (s):
 - the knyaz’s squad
 - burghers
 - purchases and slaves
 - boyars and nobles
- The Armed Forces of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania and Rzeczpospolita were led by:
 - hetman
 - marshals
 - treasure
 - chestnut
- In the administration of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, the zemsky podskarbiy led:
 - office work in the office
 - office, was in charge of foreign affairs, kept the large state seal with the coat of arms of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania
 - the grand ducal guard and court guards
 - government financial affairs
- Collegiums in the Russian Empire were replaced by ministries as a result of the reform:
 - 1802–1803
 - 1837–1841
 - 1861–1872
 - 1874–1888
- A native of Minsk province, the first official representative of the Russian Empire in Japan, a famous orientalist and linguist is:

- a) I. Goshkevich
 - b) I. Gurko
 - c) E. Hutten-Czapski
 - d) V. Korvin-Krukovsky
7. In the period from 1946 to 1991, the central executive body of the BSSR was:
- a) Council of People's Commissars of the BSSR
 - b) Council of Ministers of the BSSR
 - c) Central Executive Committee of the BSSR
 - d) Supreme Council of the BSSR
8. The Government of the Republic of Belarus is called:
- a) Council of Ministers
 - b) Cabinet of Ministers
 - c) State Duma
 - d) State Rada
9. The Head of the Government of the Republic of Belarus is:
- a) Prime Minister
 - b) Chairman of the Government
 - c) President of the Republic of Belarus
 - d) Chancellor
10. According to the Constitution of the BSSR of 1927, the Council of People's Commissars of the BSSR was the authority:
- a) legislative
 - b) judicial
 - c) executive and administrative
 - d) administrative

Answers: 1.b; 2.a; 3.a; 4.d; 5.a; 6.a; 7.b; 8.a; 9.a; 10.c.

Test tasks for lecture 2.4. "Legislative and Judicial Branches of Government".

1. The highest legislative body in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania is...
- a) Valny Sejm
 - b) Rada
 - c) Magistrate
 - d) Veche
2. As a result of the Manifesto of October 17, 1905, the legislative body of the Russian Empire became:
- a) Committee of Ministers
 - b) Senate
 - c) Synod
 - d) State Duma
3. According to Casimir's Law Code of 1468:
- a) blood feud was introduced for crimes
 - b) uniform types of punishment were introduced throughout the principality
 - c) serfdom was abolished

- d) the Permanent Rada was created
4. Criminal cases in the cities of the GDL that received Magdeburg law were considered:
- a) Lava men
 - b) Rada men
 - c) burgomasters
 - d) voivodes
5. The Podkomorsky Court of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania considered cases on:
- a) tax offenses and crimes
 - b) land ownership
 - c) theft and robbery
 - d) family disputes and conflicts
6. The Kopny Court in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania considered court cases regarding:
- a) peasants
 - b) bourgeois
 - c) clergy
 - d) nobility
7. Features of judicial reform on the territory of Belarus in the second half of the 19th century is that...
- a) justices of the peace and juries were not chosen by local residents, but were appointed by the authorities
 - b) a department of public investigation was created, the supervision of which was entrusted to the governor general
 - c) the trials were organized closed and non-public
 - d) only class courts were organized
8. In accordance with the USSR Law of August 16, 1938 "On the Judicial System of the USSR, Union and Autonomous Republics," civil and criminal cases on claims of individuals were within the jurisdiction of:
- a) military tribunals
 - b) Cassation Tribunal
 - c) people's courts
 - d) regional courts
9. The Parliament in the Republic of Belarus consists of:
- a) National Assembly and Council of the Republic
 - b) House of Representatives and Senate
 - c) the Council of Deputies and the State Duma
 - d) House of Representatives and Council of the Republic
10. The system of courts of general jurisdiction in the Republic of Belarus is headed by:
- a) Supreme Court
 - b) Constitutional Court
 - c) Minsk City Court
 - d) regional courts

Answers: 1.a; 2.d; 3.b; 4.a; 5.b; 6.a; 7.a; 8.c; 9.d; 10.a.

Test tasks for lecture 2.5. “Regions of Belarus”.

1. In the 15th century the first voivodeships were created in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania:
 - a) Vilna and Troki voivodeships
 - b) Vitebsk and Minsk voivodeships
 - c) Kyiv and Podlyazhsie voivodeships
 - d) Novogrudok and Volyn voivodeships
2. In the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, the districts included:
 - a) regions
 - b) counties
 - c) provinces
 - d) voivodeships
3. The territory of Belarus within the Russian Empire was divided into the following provinces:
 - a) Brest, Vilna, Vitebsk, Mogilev, Grodno provinces
 - b) Vilna, Vitebsk, Minsk, Mogilev, Grodno provinces
 - c) Vilna, Vitebsk, Minsk, Mogilev, Polesie provinces
 - d) Vitebsk, Minsk, Mogilev, Grodno, Gomel provinces
4. In 1921, the territory of Western Belarus went to:
 - a) Germany
 - b) France
 - c) Poland
 - d) RSFSR
5. The smallest region of the Republic of Belarus by area is...
 - a) Minsk
 - b) Gomel
 - c) Brest
 - d) Grodno
6. After the Great Patriotic War, the BSSR region became part of Poland:
 - a) Grodno
 - b) Minsk
 - c) Bialystok
 - d) Brest
7. The Republic of Belarus at the present stage consists of the following regions:
 - a) 6
 - b) 7
 - c) 5
 - d) 8
8. The main law regulating the formation and activities of local authorities in the Republic of Belarus is the Law:
 - a) “On local government and self-government in the Republic of Belarus”
 - b) “On the protection of consumer rights”

- c) “On labor protection”
 - d) “On public associations”
9. The largest region in terms of population is the region of the Republic of Belarus:
- a) Brest
 - b) Minsk
 - c) Mogilevskaya
 - d) Vitebsk
10. After the second proclamation on July 31, 1920, the BSSR consisted of 6 districts of the former province:
- a) Mogilevskaya
 - b) Minsk
 - c) Grodno
 - d) Vitebsk

Answers: 1.a; 2.d; 3.b; 4.c; 5.c; 6.c; 7.a; 8.a; 9.b; 10.b.

Test tasks for lecture 2.6. “Political parties and public associations”.

1. Which societies (partnerships) did not exist in Belarus in the first half of the 19th century:
 - a) Philomaths
 - b) Filarets
 - c) Social Revolutionaries
 - d) Decembrists
2. In 1898, at a congress in Minsk, the following was formed:
 - a) Socialist Revolutionary Party
 - b) Russian Social Democratic Labor Party
 - c) Cadet Party
 - d) Social Democratic Party of People’s Accord
3. Among the national social democratic parties at the turn of the 19th – 20th centuries. the interests of the Jewish proletariat were represented by:
 - a) Bund
 - b) RSDLP
 - c) BSG
 - d) PSR
4. Among the right-wing (monarchist) parties of the early 20th century. related:
 - a) “Union of Communists”
 - b) General Jewish Labor Union
 - c) Union of the Russian People
 - d) Communist Youth Union of Belarus
5. Liberal-bourgeois direction at the beginning of the 20th century. represented:
 - a) Bundists
 - b) Cadets
 - c) Black Hundreds
 - d) Social Revolutionaries

6. The Communist Party (Bolsheviks) of Belarus (CP(b)B) was created in:
 - a) 1898
 - b) 1908
 - c) 1918
 - d) 1998
7. “The guiding force of Soviet society” the Communist Party of the Soviet Union was recognized by the Constitution of the USSR:
 - a) 1918
 - b) 1924
 - c) 1936
 - d) 1977
8. The Law of the Republic of Belarus “On Political Parties” was adopted in:
 - a) 1991
 - b) 1994
 - c) 1995
 - d) 2000
9. Center-right (liberal) ideology is the basis of activity:
 - a) Belarusian Agrarian Party
 - b) Communist Party of Belarus
 - c) United Civil Party
 - d) Republican Party of Labor and Justice
10. In 2023, a political party was created in the Republic of Belarus:
 - a) “Belaya Rus”
 - b) Belarusian Social Democratic Community
 - c) Belarusian Social and Sports Party
 - d) Social Democratic Party of People’s Accord

Answers: 1.c; 2.b; 3.a; 4.c; 5.b; 6.c; 7.d; 8.b; 9.c; 10.a.

Test tasks for lecture 3.1. “Ethnogenesis of Belarusians and the origin of the name “Belarus”.

1. Among the key concepts of the beginning of Belarusian ethnogenesis are not represented:
 - a) “Substrate Balts” concept
 - b) The concept of German-Celtic determinism
 - c) “Tribal” concepts
 - d) “Old Rus” concept
2. Supporters of the “tribal” concepts of Belarusian ethnogenesis were:
 - a) M. Dovnar-Zapolsky and M. Bogdanovich
 - b) E. Karsky and V. Lastovsky
 - c) V. Sedov L. Niederle
 - d) A. Shakhmatov and Y. Kupala
3. The main theories of the ancestral homeland of the Slavs include:
 - a) Baltic-Neva and Dnieper theory
 - b) Vistula-Oder and Polesie-Dnieper theory

- c) Dnieper-Dvina and Volga theory
 - d) Black Sea-Caspian and Dnieper theory
4. The first archaeological culture clearly defined as Slavic:
- a) Prague archaeological culture
 - b) Minsk archaeological culture
 - c) Budapest archaeological culture
 - d) Brest archaeological culture
5. The earliest known mention of “White Rus” is found in:
- a) “The Tale of Bygone Years” of the 12th century.
 - b) Statute of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania in the 16th century.
 - c) “The beginning of the description of the lands” in the Dublin manuscript of the 13th century.
 - d) “The Life of Euphrosyne of Polotsk”, XII century.
6. One of the first dictionaries of the Belarusian language was created and published in 1870:
- a) F. Bogushevich
 - b) Ya. Kupala
 - c) E. Karsky
 - d) I. Nosovich
7. Russian linguist, language historian, who in 1822 was the first among Russian scientists to say that Belarusians in the past had their own statehood, history and original language:
- a) V. Belinsky
 - b) F. Galuzov
 - c) A. Mickiewicz
 - d) A. Pushkin
8. The Krivichi settled on:
- a) in the western part of Belarus
 - b) in the north and northeast of Belarus
 - c) in the east and southeast of Belarus
 - d) in the central and southern part of the territory of Belarus
9. The extension of the term “Belarus” to the entire territory of the Belarusian lands refers to:
- a) mid-19th century
 - b) the end of the 18th century.
 - c) mid-16th century.
 - d) the end of the twentieth century.
10. Belarusian poet, who in the second half of the 19th century laid the foundation for a linguistic tradition of ethnic self-identification, for which abandoning one’s native language meant spiritual death:
- a) I. Nosovich
 - b) V. Korotkevich
 - c) F. Bogushevich
 - d) A. Lutskevich

Answers: 1.b; 2.b; 3.b; 4.a; 5.c; 6.d; 7.b; 8.b; 9.a; 10.c.

Test tasks for lecture 3.2. “Peoples and religions of Belarus”.

1. An association of believers within one religion, which has specific religion, rituals and a unique structure:
 - a) procession
 - b) clear
 - c) prayer service
 - d) confession
2. Representatives of the Russian ethnic group who moved to the territory of Belarus as a result of the reforms of Patriarch Nikon and the schism of the Russian Orthodox Church in the second half of the 17th – early 18th centuries and who formed a closed ethno-confessional group here were called:
 - a) Calvinists
 - b) Protestants
 - c) Anti-trinitarians
 - d) Old Believers
3. The decree on the Jewish settlement line, which led to an increase in the number of Jews in Belarusian cities and towns, was signed in:
 - a) 1802
 - b) 1794
 - c) 1799
 - d) 1772
4. A subethnic group of Jews whose name reflects cultural ties to Germany:
 - a) Sephardim
 - b) Ashkenazim
 - c) Mizrahim
 - d) Romaniotes
5. In the Middle Ages, Tatars settled in Belarus in tribal groups called:
 - a) Uluses
 - b) Vaads
 - c) Vervs
 - d) Kagals
6. Texts of fabulous, instructive content written in the Belarusian language, but in Arabic script:
 - a) kitabs
 - b) kipu
 - c) dua
 - d) mastabas
7. Self-name of representatives of the Gypsy ethnic group who live in Belarus:
 - a) Pavey
 - b) Bosha
 - c) Sinti
 - d) Roma

8. The Polotsk Church Council with the participation of hierarchs I. Semashko, V. Luzhinsky and A. Zubko, at which the Uniate Church was annexed to the Russian Orthodox Church, took place in:
- 1831
 - 1864
 - 1772
 - 1839
9. In 1989, the Belarusian Exarchate of the Moscow Patriarchate (Belarusian Orthodox Church) was created, headed by Metropolitan:
- Minsk Filaret
 - Vitebsk Illarion
 - Kletsky Pavel
 - Mogilevsky John
10. The basic principles of state policy in the religious sphere reflect:
- Constitution and Law of the Republic of Belarus “On Freedom of Conscience and Religious Organizations”
 - The Constitution of the Republic of Belarus and the Criminal Code.
 - Administrative Code and Constitution of the Republic of Belarus
 - Labor Code and Constitution of the Republic of Belarus

Answers: 1.d; 2.d; 3.b; 4.b; 5.a; 6.a; 7.d; 8.d; 9.a; 10.a.

Test tasks for lecture 3.3. “State symbols of Belarus”.

- The main state symbols do not include:
 - anthem
 - emblem of government agencies
 - coat of arms
 - flag
- The first state flag of Soviet Belarus is...
 - red flag without any images
 - white-red-white flag
 - a red flag with the initials SSRB
 - a red-green flag with a white national ornament, a yellow hammer sickle and a pentagonal star in the upper left corner.
- The flag of LitBel was:
 - white-red-white flag
 - red flag with the initials SSRB
 - red-green flag with white national ornament
 - red flag without images
- From 1951 to 1991 in Soviet Belarus the flag was:
 - a red-green flag with a white national ornament, a yellow hammer sickle and a pentagonal star in the upper left corner
 - red-green flag with white national ornament
 - red flag – no images
 - red flag with the initials SSRB

5. The authors of the National Anthem of the Republic of Belarus are:
 - a) N. Sokolovsky and V. Karizno
 - b) M. Klimkovich and A. Kishchenko
 - c) V. Mulyavin and G. Vashchenko
 - d) M. Savitsky and N. Aladov
6. July 3 in the Republic of Belarus is a public holiday...
 - a) Independence Day of the Republic of Belarus
 - b) National Unity Day
 - c) Victory Day
 - d) Constitution Day
7. March 15 is celebrated in Belarus:
 - a) Day of Belarusian Literature
 - b) National Unity Day
 - c) Environment Day
 - d) Constitution Day
8. On September 17, Belarus celebrates:
 - a) Day of Belarusian Writing
 - b) Environment Day
 - c) National Unity Day
 - d) Constitution Day
9. The Day of the State Coat of Arms and the National Flag of the Republic of Belarus is celebrated:
 - a) on the first Sunday in May
 - b) on the second Sunday in May
 - c) on the first Sunday of June
 - d) on the second Sunday of June
10. The monument to Matryona Markevich, who embroidered the ornament placed on the National Flag of the Republic of Belarus in 1917, is installed in:
 - a) Gomel
 - b) Minsk
 - c) Senno
 - d) Zhlobin

Answers: 1.b; 2.c; 3.d; 4.a; 5.a; 6.a; 7.d; 8.c; 9.b; 10.c.

Test tasks for lecture 3.4. "Socio-economic model of modern Belarus."

1. The resolution "On the transition of the BSSR to a market economy" was adopted by the Supreme Council of the BSSR in:
 - a) 1989
 - b) 1990
 - c) 1991
 - d) 1992
2. The main directions of the five-year plan for socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus are approving:
 - a) the Council of the Republic of Belarus

- b) the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus
 - c) All-Belarusian People's Assembly
 - d) Constitutional Court of the Republic of Belarus
3. The new priority for the socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus in 2001–2005, adopted at the Second All-Belarusian People's Assembly, was:
- a) social revival of the village and the creation of agricultural towns
 - b) refusal to export domestic products
 - c) attracting new investments
 - d) introduction of universal payment for health care services
4. The new priority for the socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus in 2001–2005, adopted at the Second All-Belarusian People's Assembly, was:
- a) focus on innovation
 - b) radical modernization of all sectors of the economy
 - c) attracting exclusive domestic investments into the economy
 - d) significant reduction in social programs
5. The new priority for the socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus in 2006–2010, adopted at the Third All-Belarusian People's Assembly, was:
- a) social revival of the village and the creation of agricultural towns
 - b) refusal of foreign investment
 - c) dismantling of collective and state farm production
 - d) reduction in housing construction programs
6. The new priority for the socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus in 2011–2015, adopted at the Fourth All-Belarusian People's Assembly, was (a, - o):
- a) the state's refusal to provide social guarantees for youth
 - b) significant reduction in social programs
 - c) radical modernization of all sectors of the economy
 - d) construction of agricultural towns
7. The Belarusian model of a socially oriented market economy is characterized by:
- a) the advantage of the extensive path of economic development
 - b) free purchase and sale of agricultural land
 - c) complete rejection of social programs and benefits
 - d) activation of integration processes
8. The Belarusian model of a socially oriented market economy is characterized by:
- a) equality of different forms of ownership
 - b) refusal of integration processes
 - c) carrying out reforms using the “shock therapy” method
 - d) narrowing of social policy
9. Based on the results of the implementation of the Social and Economic Development Program for 2016–2020. The Republic of Belarus took 3rd place in the world in exports:
- a) agricultural machinery

- b) petroleum products
- c) oils of animal origin
- d) timber

10. Based on the results of the implementation of the Social and Economic Development Program for 2016–2020. The Republic of Belarus took 4th place in the world in exports:

- a) heavy-duty mining dump trucks
- b) cheeses and cottage cheese
- c) timber
- d) household appliances

Answers: 1.b; 2.c; 3.c; 4.a; 5.a; 6.b; 7.d; 8.a; 9.b; 10.d.

Test tasks for lecture 3.5. “Belarus in the geopolitical space”.

1. A scientific discipline that studies how spheres of influence and control are distributed and redistributed in the world, this is ...
 - a) geo-economics
 - b) geopolitics
 - c) geostrategy
 - d) geophilosophy
2. The term “geopolitics” was first introduced in 1899:
 - a) Karl Haushofer
 - b) Halford Mackinder
 - c) Friedrich Ratzel
 - d) Rudolf Chelen
3. Belarus does not have common borders with:
 - a) Lithuania
 - b) Poland
 - c) Latvia
 - d) Estonia
4. The first to recognize the independence of the Republic of Belarus was December 1, 1991:
 - a) Russia
 - b) Ukraine
 - c) Tajikistan
 - d) Turkmenistan
5. On December 8, 1999, an Agreement was signed between the Russian Federation and the Republic of Belarus on the establishment of:
 - a) communities
 - b) union
 - c) union state
 - d) free economic zone
6. The first unification of states in the post-Soviet space was:
 - a) CIS
 - b) CSTO

- c) EAEU
 - d) EurAsEC
7. The main trading partner of Belarus and the largest export market for Belarusian goods is:
- a) Russia
 - b) Ukraine
 - c) Kazakhstan
 - d) Armenia
8. The new Unified Customs Code of the EAEU entered into force on:
- a) 2010
 - b) 2018
 - c) 2020
 - d) 2022
9. The EAEU does not include:
- a) Armenia
 - b) Russia
 - c) Kazakhstan
 - d) Tajikistan
10. The Treaty on the Eurasian Economic Union (EAEU) entered into force on:
- a) 2000
 - b) 2005
 - c) 2010
 - d) 2015

Answers: 1.b; 2.d; 3.d; 4.d; 5.c; 6.a; 7.a; 8.b; 9.d; 10.d.

AUXILIARY SECTION

1. List of recommended literature for the course.

Main literature

1. History of Belarusian statehood: study guide for students of higher education institutions / [I. A. Marzalyuk and others]; under the general editorship of I. A. Marzaluk. – Minsk: Education and upbringing, 2022.

2. Dovnar-Zapolsky, M.V. History of Belarus / M.V. Dovnar-Zapolsky. – 4th ed. – Minsk: Belarus, 2016.

3. History of Belarusian statehood: in 5 volumes / National Academy of Sciences of Belarus, Institute of History; [editorial board: A. A. Kovalenya (editor-in-chief), etc.]. – Minsk: Belarusian Science, 2018.

4. History of Belarusian statehood / G.A. Aleksashina [and others]; edited by N.I. Poletaeva. – Minsk: “Ecoperspective”, 2023.

5. Republic of Belarus – 25 years of creation and achievements: [in 7 volumes] / editorial board: V. P. Andreichenko [and others]. – Minsk: Belarusian Science, 2020.

6. Semenova L.N. The Great Patriotic War of the Soviet people in the context of the Second World War / L.N. Semenova, N.B. Schavlinisky. – Minsk: BGATU Vyalikaya, 2019.

7. Temushov, S.M. History of Belarusian statehood / S.M. Temushov; under science. Ed. I. A. Marzaluk. – Minsk: RIVSH, 2023. - 72 p.

Additional literature

1. Contribution of the Belarusian people to Victory in the Great Patriotic War / A. M. Litvin [and others]; editor: A. A. Kovalenya (see editor) [etc.]. – 2nd ed. – Minsk: Belarusian Science, 2016.

2. History of Belarusian statehood in the late 18th – early 20th centuries: in 2 books. / National Academy of Sciences of Belarus, Institute of History. – Minsk: Belarusian Science, 2011 – 2012.

3. Social and political life in Belarus, 1772 – 1917. / A. U. Unuchak [etc.]; editor: V.V. Danilovich (Gal. ed.) [etc.]; National Acad. of Sciences of Belarus, Institute of History. – Minsk: Belarusian Science, 2018. – 573 p.

4. Downar, T. I. Development of the main institutions of civil and criminal law of Belarus in the XV – XVI centuries / T. I. Downar. – Minsk: Propylaea, 2000.

5. Dovnar, T. I. History of the state and law of Belarus: study. assistant / T. I. Downar, A. I. Orlovskaya, A. V. Kozhar. – Minsk: Rep. and Institute of Prof. of education, 2018. – 267 p.

6. Confessions in Belarus (end of the 18th – 20th centuries) / K 19 by V. V. Grigor’ev [etc.]; of science ed. U. I. Novitsky. – Mn.: Ecoperspective, 1998. – 340 p.

7. Kakhanovsky, A. G. History of Belarus in the second half of the 19th – beginning of the 20th century. / A. G. Kakhanovsky; Belarus. state Univ. – Minsk: BSU, 2017.

8. Lukashenko, A. G. Historical choice of Belarus: Lecture of the President of the Republic of Belarus at the Belarusian State University, Minsk, March 14, 2003 – Minsk: BSU, 2003.

9. Lych, L. M. History of the culture of Belarus / L. M. Lych, U. I. Novitsky. – 3rd ed., supplement. – Minsk: Modern School, 2008.

10. Marzalyuk, I.A. The ethnic and religious world of the Belarusian city, 16th – 18th centuries: (ethno-confessional composition of the population, ethnic and religious stereotypes of Belarusian citizens) / I.A. Marzalyuk. – Mogilev: Moscow State University, 2007.

11. Novik, J. K. History of Belarus: From ancient times to 2008 / J. K. Novik, I. L. Kachalov, N. Ya. Novik. – Minsk, 2010.

12. Snapkovskiy, U. E. History of the foreign policy of Belarus: study. manual: in 2 h. / U. E. Snapkovsky. – Minsk: BSU, 2004.

Internet resources:

Constitution of the Republic of Belarus – <https://pravo.by/pravovaya-informatsiya/normativnye-dokumenty/konstitutsiya-respubliki-belarus/>

Official website of the Republic of Belarus – www.BELARUS.BY

Official website of the President of the Republic of Belarus – www.president.gov.by

House of Representatives of the National Assembly of the Republic of Belarus – <http://house.gov.by>

Government of the Republic of Belarus – <http://www.government.by>

Council of the Republic of the National Assembly of the Republic of Belarus – <http://sovrep.gov.by>

Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus – <http://government.by>

National legal Internet portal of the Republic of Belarus – www.pravo.by

Belarusian Telegraph Agency (BELTA) – www.belta.by

Belarusian Institute for Strategic Studies (BISS) – www.bisr.gov.by

National Library of the Republic of Belarus – <http://www.nlb.by>

Digital library ModernLibNet – <https://modernlib.net>

Digital library RoyalLib.com – <https://royallib.com>

Scientific electronic library Elibrary.ru – <https://www.elibrary.ru>

2. The curriculum for the discipline
“History of Belarusian statehood” (fragment)

UNIT 1. THE MAIN STAGES OF THE BELARUSIAN STATEHOOD
DEVELOPMENT

Topic 1.1. Introduction to the academic discipline

The state as the main political institution. The concept of statehood. Independence and sovereignty. Nation and state. Stages of formation and development of the Belarusian statehood. Sources on the history of the Belarusian statehood.

Topic 1.2. The first state formations on the territory of Belarus

Early feudal state formations on Belarusian lands. Ancient Rus. Common features and peculiarities of the development of the Polotsk and Turov principalities. The Christening of Rus as a factor of civilizational choice. Feudal fragmentation. The place of the East Slavic lands in the system of medieval international relations.

Topic 1.3. The Grand Duchy of Lithuania is a multi-ethnic feudal state of Eastern Europe

Causes and basic concepts of the appearance of GDL. Expansion of the territory of GDL. Unification of the Belarusian lands as part of the GDL. The struggle for the unification of Rus. Relations with the Livonian Order and the Golden Horde. The role of Belarusian lands in GDL. Kreva Union and Westernization of socio-political institutions. Magdeburg Law.

Legal and political significance of the Union of Lublin. The position of the Belarusian lands within Rzeczpospolita. Polonization as a factor in political, cultural and social life. “Noble democracy” and its influence on the development of the state. Relations with neighbors and the weakening of Rzeczpospolita.

Topic 1.4. Belarus as part of the Russian Empire

Partitions of Rzeczpospolita. Russification and decolonization. The question of statehood in the socio-political life of Belarus in the first half of the nineteenth century. Uprisings of 1830 – 1831 and 1863 – 1864 on the territory of Belarus. Economic development of the Belarusian lands. Western Russianism and regionalism. Formation of the Belarusian national idea. The magazine “Gaumon” and the activities of the Belarusian narodniks. Revolutionary events of 1905 – 1907

in Belarus. “Nasha Niva” and the Belarusian national idea in the early twentieth century.

Topic 1.5. Nation-state forming in 1917 – 1941

The First World War on the Belarusian lands. Activation of the national movement during the First World War. Revolutions of 1917 and the Belarusian question. All-Belarusian Congress of 1917 Proclamation of the BPR. Belarusian National Committee and its role in the creation of the SSRB. LitBelSSR. Polish-Soviet war and the second proclamation of the SSRB. The signing of the Riga Peace Treaty and its consequences for the Belarusian statehood. Formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). Implementation of the national-state model of development. Creation of an industrial-agrarian republic. Formation of borders and administrative-territorial structure of the BSSR in 1919 – 1939. Contradictions in the development of the social and cultural sphere in the 1930s. in the BSSR.

Topic 1.6. The Great Patriotic War is a key event in modern history

Causes of the Second World War. Reunification of Western Belarus with the BSSR. The attack of Nazi Germany on the USSR. The occupation regime in Belarus. The Nazi genocide and demographic losses of Belarus in the war. The Holocaust. The scope and significance of the partisan and underground movement in Belarus. Participation of Belarusians in key battles of the Great Patriotic War. Liberation of Belarus. The Belarusian strategic offensive operation “Bagration”. The contribution of the Belarusian people to the Victory. The Great Patriotic War in the historical memory of Belarusians.

Topic 1.7. Restoration and post-war modernization of the BSSR

The BSSR is the founding country of the UN. Attempts to democratize socio-political life in the second half of the 1950s – the first half of the 1960s. The growth of stagnation in the 1970s – the first half of the 1980s. Socio-political processes in the BSSR at the turn of the 80 – 90s of the twentieth century.

Topic 1.8. Stages of development of the independent Republic of Belarus

The collapse of the USSR and its causes. The political and economic crisis of the first years of independence. Adoption of the Constitution and the first election of the President of the Republic of Belarus. Referendums of 1995, 1996, 2004, 2022 and their impact on the stabilization of the situation in the country. Features of socio-political development at the beginning of the XXI century. Modern achievements of the Belarusian state.

UNIT 2. FUNDAMENTALS OF THE STATE STRUCTURE OF THE REPUBLIC OF BELARUS

Topic 2.1. The Constitution as the basic law of the state

Formation of legal traditions in Belarus. Russian Truth and the GDL Statutes. The Soviet Constitutions of 1919, 1927, 1937, 1978. The significance of the Declaration on State Sovereignty July 27, 1990. Recognition of the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The Constitution of March 15, 1994 and the nature of the amendments made to it. Constitutional referendum of 2022. A person, his rights, freedoms and guarantees of their realization as the highest value and goal of society and the state, proclaimed by the Constitution. Hierarchy of normative legal acts.

Topic 2.2. President of the Republic of Belarus

The development of the institute of the head of state in the national history. Features of the monarchical form of government in historical retrospect. The specifics of the organization of the country's top leadership in Soviet times. The Presidential Republic is the choice of the Belarusian people. The order of presidential elections. The functions and powers of the head of state as a guarantor of the observance of the Constitution, the rights and freedoms of citizens. The President is the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the Republic of Belarus.

Topic 2.3. Government as the highest executive authority

Historical forms of executive power in Belarus. The ranks of the Knyazian administration in Ancient Rus. The main officials of the central office in GDL. The appearance of a ministerial form of organization of executive power. Belarusians in the highest government positions in the Russian Empire. The Council of People's Commissars and the further development of executive power in Soviet times. Functions and tasks of modern government. Structure of the Government of the Republic of Belarus. Prime Minister.

Topic 2.4. Legislative and judicial branches of government

Pre-parliamentary forms of representation: Veche and Sejms. Belarusian deputies in the State Duma of the Russian Empire. Soviet form of people's representation: The CEC and the Supreme Council. The National Assembly is a bicameral parliament in sovereign Belarus. Structure and functions of the Council of the Republic and the House of Representatives.

Historical forms of judicial bodies in the national history. Types and powers of modern courts in the Republic of Belarus. The Supreme and Constitutional Courts. The procedure for the selection and appointment of judges.

Topic 2.5. Regions of Belarus

Historical forms of administrative-territorial division in the Belarusian lands: appanage principalities, voivodeships, provinces, counties, volosts, districts, regions. Modern administrative-territorial division of the Republic of Belarus. Functions and powers of local government and self-government.

Topic 2.6. Political parties and public associations

Historical retrospective of the development of political parties and public associations in Belarus. The transition from a one-party system to a multi-party system. The regulatory framework for the activities of parties and public associations. Types of political parties and public associations in the Republic of Belarus. Their role in the development of society and the state.

UNIT 3. BELARUS AT THE JOINT OF CULTURES AND CIVILIZATIONS

Topic 3.1. Ethnogenesis of Belarusians and the origin of the name “Belarus”

The main hypotheses about the origin of Belarusians. Stages of formation of the Belarusian nation. Factors that influenced the genesis and further development. Belarusians in the world, diaspora.

White Rus – Belorussia – Belarus. Versions of the origin of the name. Language policy. Bilingualism is a characteristic feature of the modern Belarusian nation. Historical examples of bilingualism.

Topic 3.2. Peoples and religions of Belarus

The history of the formation of the main ethnic groups in Belarus. The ethnic composition of modern Belarus.

A brief history of confessions in Belarus. The confessional composition of the population. Principles of state policy in the confessional sphere.

Topic 3.3. State symbols of Belarus

The significance of the Anthem, Coat of Arms and Flag for statehood. Historical symbols on the Belarusian lands. Variability of symbols in other countries. The history and symbolic meaning of the National Flag. The State Coat of Arms and its semantic interpretation. The national anthem is a musical reflection of the state tradition.

State holidays of the Republic of Belarus and their significance.

Topic 3.4. Socio-economic model of modern Belarus

Preconditions for the formation of the Belarusian model of social and economic development. The main factors of the modern economic development of Belarus. The state for the people is the main principle of the national socio-economic model. All-Belarusian People's Assemblies. Programs of socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus. The main indicators of the development of the domestic economy.

Topic 3.5. Belarus in the geopolitical space

The geopolitical factor of the formation of the Belarusian statehood. Characteristics of the current geopolitical situation of Belarus. The multi-vector nature of foreign policy. Russia and China are strategic partners of Belarus. The near and far arc of international relations. Belarus in integration communities. The Union State of Russia and Belarus.

3. Requirements for the preparation of research papers on the academic discipline “History of the Belarusian statehood”.

The research paper is one of the important forms of student’s work, it shows the student’s ability to work with historical sources, literature, independently find the necessary information, analyze it and formulate conclusions. During the search for additional information, students’ knowledge gained during lectures and seminars is significantly expanded and supplemented. The work on the research paper is actually the preparation of the student for the implementation of course and diploma projects, because on the basis of this type of work, he(she) learns to set goals and formulate tasks, identify the structure of the work, and draw specific conclusions. Also, when writing research paper, it becomes possible to determine a student’s aptitude for scientific research.

The research papers are executed in printed form in accordance with the following structure and rules of registration.

1. The title page (an example of the design of the title page, see Appendix A below).

2. Content (an example of the layout of the Content sheet, see Appendix B).

3. Introduction (a short part of 1–2 pages, where the relevance of the topic, its scientific novelty, the purpose and objectives of the abstract, its chronological and geographical boundaries must be determined, and the student must also conduct a brief analysis of the sources and literature used).

4. The main part of the research paper, largest in volume, it should occupy 2/3 of the work. As a rule, the main part consists of several chapters, which should have their own title. The division of material into chapters and paragraphs (if necessary), as well as their sequence, must be logically justified. The titles of chapters (paragraphs) should correspond to the content, but not repeat the topic of the abstract itself. The title of the chapter (paragraph) defines the problem that should be solved in this chapter (paragraph). The structure of chapters (number of paragraphs) should be proportional. Attention! The work cannot consist of one chapter (minimum two), and the chapter cannot consist of one paragraph (minimum two)!

5. Conclusion (a short part of 1–2 pages, here the main conclusions should be formulated, point by point, the number of conclusions depends on the number of tasks).

6. List of sources used. The literature and historical sources used by the student are presented in alphabetical order in accordance with the rules of bibliographic description (for examples of literature formatting, see Appendix B).

7. Application. If necessary, the necessary illustrative material (drawings, maps, diagrams, tables, etc.) is placed in this part of the work. However, this is an optional part of the abstract.

8. Design requirements. The computer font used is Times New Roman, size 14, single line spacing, margins: left – 30 mm, right – 10 mm, top and bottom – 20 mm. The first line of a paragraph must be indented. The text is aligned to the width of the sheet; hanging lines are not allowed. The total volume of the main part of the

abstract is 15–17 printed pages (excluding the title page, table of contents, introduction, conclusion and list of used sources and literature). The work must contain page numbers. The page number is written in Arabic numerals in the lower right corner. The title page is the first page, but there is no number on it. Numbering begins on the “Contents” page with number 2.

Each structural element of the research paper (Contents, Introduction, Chapters, Conclusion, List of used sources and literature, Appendix) is printed in capital letters, centered and starts on a new sheet. If chapters are divided into paragraphs, they are not moved to a new page.

Appendix A

Example of title page design

Ministry of Education of the Republic of Belarus
Belarusian National Technical University
Department of “History”

Research paper

on the topic: “Theme”

Completed by: student of group 30801220
FMTH BNTU
Ivanov Ivan Ivanovich
Head: Ph.D., Associate Professor
Lepesh O.V.

Minsk 2024

Appendix B**An example of the design of the Research paper content sheet (p. 2)****Content**

Introduction.....	3
Chapter 1. The policy of the German authorities towards the Russian Orthodox Church and in the occupied territory of Belarus.....	5
Chapter 2. Moral and material assistance of the Russian Orthodox Church to the Belarusian population during the war years	11
Chapter 3. Participation of the clergy of the Russian Orthodox Church in the partisan movement of Belarus	16
Conclusion.....	17
List of used sources and literature (or Bibliographic list).....	20
Applications.....	22

Appendix B**SAMPLES OF THE BIBLIOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION OF LITERATURE**

Source Characteristics	Design example
One, two or three authors	Kotov, A.I. History of Belarus and world civilization / A.I. Cats. – 2nd ed. – Minsk: Encyclopedia, 2003. – 168 p.
	Schott, A.V. A course of lectures on private surgery / A.V. Schott, V.A. Schott. – Minsk: Asar, 2004. – 525 p.
	Chikatueva, L.A. Marketing: studies. handbook / L.A. Chikatueva, N.V. Tretyakova; edited by V.P. Fedko. – Rostov n/A: Phoenix, 2004. – 413 p.

Source Characteristics	Design example
	Daineko, A.E. The economy of Belarus in the World Trade Organization system / A.E. Daineko, G.V. Zabavsky, M.V. Vasilevskaya; edited by A.E. Daineko. – Minsk: In-t agrar. Economics, 2004. – 323 p.
Four or more authors	Culturology: textbook for higher educational institutions / S.V. Lapina [and others]; under general ed. S.V. Lapina. – 2nd ed. – Minsk: TetraSystems, 2004. – 495 p.
Коллективный автор	<p>Collection of regulatory and technical materials on energy saving / Committee on Energy Efficiency under the Council of Ministers of the Republic. Belarus; comp. A.V. Filipovich. – Minsk: Lorange-2, 2004. – 393 p.</p> <p>National strategy for sustainable socio-economic development of the Republic of Belarus for the period until 2020 / National Commission for Sustainable Development of the Republic. Belarus; Editorial Board: L.M. Aleksandrovich [and others]. – Minsk: Unipack, 2004. – 202 p.</p>
Multi-volume edition	History of Belarus: in 6 volumes / editor: M. Kostyuk (chief editor) [etc.]. – Minsk: Ecoperspective, 2000–2005. - 6 toms.
Collection of articles, works	Information support for science in Belarus: on the 80th anniversary of the founding of the Central Scientific Research Center named after. Y. Kolas NAS of Belarus: collection. scientific Art. / National Academy of Sciences of Belarus, Central Scientific Library; editorial board: N.Yu. Berezkina (responsible editor) [and others]. – Minsk, 2004. – 174 p.
Educational materials	Gorbatok, N.A. General theory of state and law in questions and answers: textbook / N.A. Gorbatok; Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Belarus, Academy of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. – Minsk, 2005. – 183 p.
Resources remote access	National Internet portal of the Republic of Belarus [Electronic resource] / Nat. center of legal information. Rep. Belarus. – Minsk, 2005. – Access mode: http://www.pravo.by . – Date of access: 25.01.2006.

Source Characteristics	Design example
	Proceedings of a mini-symposium on biological nomenclature in the 21 st centry [Electronic resource] / ed. J.L. Reveal. – College Park M.D., 1996. – Mode of access : http://www.inform.ind.edu/PBI0/brum.html . – Date of access : 14.09.2005.
Magazine article	<p>Бандаровіч, В.У. Дзеясловы і іх дэрываты ў старабеларускай музычнай лексіцы / В.У. Бандаровіч // Весн. Беларус. дзярж. ун-та. Сер. 4, Філалогія. Журналістыка. Педагогіка. – 2004. – № 2. – С. 49–54.</p> <p>Caesium-137 migration in Hungarian soils / P. Szerbin [et al.] // Science of the Total Environment. – 1999. – Vol. 227, № 2/3. – P. 215–227.</p>
Newspaper article	Dubovik, V. Young forests are green / V. Dubovik // Republic. – 2005. – 19 apr. – P. 8.
Article from encyclopedias, dictionary	<p>Аляхновіч, М.М. Электронны мікраскоп / М.М. Аляхновіч // Беларус. энцыкл.: у 18 т. – Мінск, 2004. – Т. 18, кн. 1. – С. 100.</p> <p>Vitruvius // Great Soviet Encyclopedia. – 3rd edition. – М., 1971. – Т. 5. – P. 359–360.</p>
Laws and legislative materials	On the amount of state scholarships for students: resolution of the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Belarus, April 23. 2004, No. 468 // National Register of Legal Acts of the Republic. Belarus. – 2004. – No. 69. – 5/14142.

The bibliographic list is arranged in alphabetical order!!!