Michael Romanov was only sixteen years old (1613). Unable to hold the tiller of the State with his weak hand, especially when the storm was still roaring, he owed this chance only to the great qualities of his father and to the need to make a choice which closed the career to all ambitions. After so many tyrannies, the Russians, tired, appealed to the candor of a child king so as not to be oppressed. They were wrong, however, as we shall soon see. Nevertheless, they could not have made a choice more in keeping with their worship of legitimacy; that of Rurik was not extinct, and although time had broken his throne, some of its disunited branches could be found in illustrious families. Rigorously, therefore, one could consider the election of Romanov, if not as a usurpation, at least as a violation of the principle which served as support for the fiction of legitimacies; but it seems that the Russians valued factual power more than legal seniority, since Michael was not even of Russian origin; his ancestors were Prussians, and only established in Russia since the XIVth Century.

The burden was in fact too heavy for this young prince, since he had to repel the efforts of Poland and Sweden, and at the same time support the unforeseen attacks of the Cossacks and the Tartars.

The Swedes were still masters of Novgorod. Gustavus Adolphus, in 1612, had brought his brother Charles Philip to the steps of the throne of the czars; but the Russians clearly saw that he intended less to give a king to Russia than to aggrandize Sweden. The election of Romanov did not quench this desire in Gustavus' soul; a child of sixteen seemed to him a weak obstacle. He therefore rejected all the proposals for peace that the young prince was to make him. Romanov implored against this powerful enemy the assistance and mediation of Great Britain, France, and Holland; these powers having remained deaf to his voice, Gustavus continued the war, took Pskov, and did not lay down his arms until after the Treaty of Stolbovo (1616). By this treaty, Russia abandoned to Sweden Karelia, Ingria and several important places, among others Ivangorod and Narva. She renounced her pretensions to Livonia and paid besides a sum of 200,000 rubles; but it remained to come to an understanding with Poland. The crown of the czars had been promised to more than one suitor; and, on this account, Władysłas (Ladislaus), son of Sigismund, demanded compensation for his disappointed hopes, and claimed them at the head of an army encamped almost under the walls of Moscow. It was urgent to buy back the rest of the country, which his troops were devastating. The Czar resigned himself to fresh sacrifices, and by another treaty ceded Smolensk, Severia, and Chernigov to Poland. At this price, he again obtained the freedom of his father, a prisoner at Polotsk from the embassy which Shuisky had sent to get the better of the false Dmitri, whom the Palatines had caused to arise against him.

External peace having been re-established, Romanov applied himself to favoring trade with the East, so often interrupted, and sent ambassadors for Persia and China. The result of their
negotiations was chiefly concerned with the trade in cloth, the deprivation of which made Russia dependent on the nations of the North, who were already making them successfully.

Sigismund's death was the signal for the renewal of the war with Poland. The Russians regretted the concessions wrung out of necessity; besides, the chance presented itself opportunely: Sweden was in open rupture with Poland; but the campaign opened under disastrous auspices; discord broke out among the Russian generals. Under the walls of Smolensk, the soldiers mutinied, and soon, surrounded by those they came to besiege, they saw themselves reduced to signing a dishonorable capitulation.

The result of this failure was the Peace of Vyaz'ma (1676), which maintained the stipulations of the preceding treaties in favor of Poland, by adding a formal renunciation of all claims on Livonia and Courland. By way of compensation, Władysław gave up his rights to the throne of Russia and was good enough to recognize the legitimacy of Romanov. Finally, the latter also treated with the Porte, and accepted its mediation, in order to obtain from the Khan of Crimea indemnities for the last incursions made on Russian territory.

There the ambitious desires and the military attempts of Michael Romanov ended. By dying, he left his son no embarrassment, and made his reign regretted, because he had loved peace, or at least because he had known how to be disgusted with war, without expecting too much from fatal lessons.

Through the oscillations of an often-stormy reign, Alexis, son of Michael, followed his father's restoration plans consistently. He opened new routes to trade, established factories, sketched out the creation of a merchant navy, called in foreign artists and gave the first impetus to the exploitation of the considerable iron and copper mines which were found in the various countries of Russian domination. The art of building ships was still in its infancy; Dutch builders came to improve it a little, while waiting for Peter I to go himself to increase these first industrial conquests, working, ax in hand, in the shipyards of Saardam. It was under the reign of Alexis that the eastern extremities of the Russian empire were explored for the first time.

Alexis was almost a child when he ascended the throne, and the boyar Morozov, his governor, who had become his prime minister, exercised sovereign authority. This man carried the abuse of power far enough to weary the people, who were nevertheless always patient; but at last, the day of vengeance arrived, and this vengeance was terrible. After having sacrificed to his fury all the relations and all the friends of Morozov, after having satisfied their rage even on the horses of this minister, the people of Moscow besieged the palace of the prince. The Czar conjured him to spare Morozov, and he would have vainly lowered the majesty of the throne to supplication, before this bloodthirsty multitude, if he had not abandoned to it some other lords equally detested. After tearing them to pieces, the inhabitants of Moscow allowed Morozov to continue his duties with the czar; but they had acquired a taste for sedition, and new troubles were not long in breaking out: the insurrection soon spread to all parts of the empire.

Swedish peasants had abandoned their country to escape the unmaternal yoke of the learned Christine, flattering themselves that they would find a happier fate in Russia; the Czar Alexis, having received them, had encouraged and favored their emigration. The Queen of Sweden
demanded compensation for this violation of the rights of sovereigns. The Czar, who was not sufficiently sure of the good will of his people to expose himself to a war, consented to a tribute in money and corn. The people, frightened by the issue of grain, and threatened with famine, again imputed to Morozov their present evils and those which they feared; they wished to see in each of the nobles or the rich a culprit, and went to the greatest excesses against the Metropolitan of Novgorod, the celebrated Nikon, one of the annalists of Russia. The conduct of this prelate while the revolt was flagrant, and his magnanimity when it had been quieted, were of a Christian and a hero.

The leaders of this insurrection had deliberated to depose the Czar in order to give themselves to the King of Poland. In his turn Alexis, when he had completely established himself on the throne, and that the Cossacks had given themselves to him, Alexis, we say, conceived the hope of uniting that of Poland to his crown. For long centuries these two rival powers disputed over who should smother the other; finally, Russia prevailed. But perhaps it was due only to the difference between religions that a Polish race ascended the throne of the czars; for it is mainly because of Catholicism that the Poles have always been detested by the Russians.

War broke out again between the two powers. Poland had the worst of it; and, after the loss of several towns, she saw herself compelled to conclude peace for thirteen years. This truce, signed in the vicinity of Smolensk, stipulated the definitive union with Russia of the conquered towns, such as Smolensk, Polotsk, Mohilev, Kiev, etc., and the abandonment of part of the Ukraine and Severia.

The war against Sweden was much less successful: Alexis, in spite of his efforts, succumbed under the influence of this astonishing military fortune of Charles Gustavus, the brilliance of which offended him. He began, however, by seizing Dorpat and Narva; but in front of Riga he suffered a complete check.

Finally, an armistice, and soon a peace based on the conditions of that of Stolbovo, maintained the status quo between the two powers.

At the moment when the czar was making the peace without, a brigand was laying waste within the provinces of his empire. Stenka Razin was a Don Cossack, beginning as many famous conquerors had done before him. Endowed with unparalleled audacity, he perhaps lacked only a little more prudence or happiness to become a Genghis-Khan. He was caught, brought to Moscow, and released because he had only surrendered on the condition of having his life. Returned, free, to the banks of the Don, he recommenced his robberies, seized Astrakhan, which he filled with murder and desolation; then, ascending the Volga, he announced his plan to go and besiege Moscow to make it the tomb of the boyars, priests, and soldiers: "all of them," he said, "accomplices of tyranny and oppression of the peoples." But Generals Boryatinky and Dolgorukov delivered Russia from this frightful liberator. Beaten and taken prisoner a second time (1618), he was quartered alive.

Alexis enjoyed a deep peace the rest of his reign. He died in 1626. He had been married twice; one of his sons from the first marriage, Feodor, was called to succeed him.
This prince did not notice in him that ferocity common to most of his predecessors; several historians have even praised the gentleness of his character. However, he created the secret chancellery, a kind of state inquisition which could satisfy all the whims of despotism. As societies advance, there comes a point where despotism passes from men into institutions.

It is also to this monarch that belongs the honor of having brought together the various parts of Russian legislation, in a collection which still survives today as a useful monument, under the name of Ulozheniye. But what was not for a legislator was the alteration of currencies, a deplorable resource to which he had recourse after the wars in Poland and Sweden. The misery of the people, already extreme, grew worse; despair advised sedition; it was terrible: torrents of blood had to be shed to calm it; perhaps it was to prevent the recurrence of these disorders that the secret chancellery was instituted.

Feodor, son of Alexis, but from the second marriage, succeeded his brother: he was ten years old. He began by making war on the Turks, with some success; and the peace, concluded in 1681, enabled this Prince to occupy himself with reforms and improvements: these were his finest victories.

He had the glory of abolishing hereditary titles, the effect of which was to give, either in military employments or in civil employments, an absolute superiority to anyone who could prove the previous exercise of high functions in his family on him who could not make this proof, were he even of a more distinguished birth; for, under his reign, it was the antiquity of the race which had to give way, in employment, to intelligence and personal merit.

It was necessary that the evils produced by these aristocratic abuses were very great, so that at such a time one undertook to remedy them! It was a hard extremity, indeed, to deprive oneself of the services of a good general, because his ancestors had not so high a line as those of some untalented personages who were in the army. Eternal nitpicking took place between individuals of the same condition, of the same rank, of the same family, and these puerile disputes ruined all the fruit of a campaign. In times of peace, there were no festivals or ceremonies where some lord did not present a request not to see himself as another's equal.

The Czar did not believe, in order to carry out his philosophical designs, that his absolute power exempted him from using skill. He had brought to his palace all the parchments, all the registers in which the order of the ranks was noted, under the pretext of having the necessary clarifications added to these charters, of rectifying errors and of giving these titles a new sanction. Then, having summoned a council composed of the patriarch, the high clergy and all the officers of the crown, he explained to them his intentions and had all these pieces burned, in the presence of their owners, who applauded with a shudder. What is remarkable in this coup d'état is that the Czar, in the speech he addressed to the councilors to demonstrate to them the necessity and the utility of this abrogation, constantly relied on passages from sacred texts and the Bible.

Feodor protected the sciences, and wanted, like his father, to polish the roughness of his nation; but the means he employed to achieve this end attest more to goodwill than judgment. We see, in fact, in the regulations that were formulated for the academy that he wanted to establish, that any contravention of the agreed principles of general doctrine was punished with fire, without
The introduction of the maxims of the Latin Church was feared: it was one evil to avoid another. So this kind of censorship, this literary inquisition, advised by some fanatical monk, was of no avail. This regulation was impracticable with the spirit of investigation and progress which is the principle of life of any learned society.

**MORALS AND CUSTOMS OF THE RUSSIANS IN THE XVIIth CENTURY**

The writer who has served us as our guide so far (Muller) stops at the end of the XVIIth Century to cast a new glance at the customs of the people whose history he has tried to trace the political vicissitudes during this period. Nothing, in our opinion, is more useful, more philosophical than these comparative tables of the civil practices of a nation, from one century to another; for it is much more in these details than in the recital of the disasters of the throne that one finds the history of societies. The picture of the progress of social organization and of the developments of reason is its soul. Let us see, then, what was the state of the Russian nation at the time when Peter the Great ascended the throne, that is to say at the time when, according to the most widespread opinion, the history of Russia really begins.

The clerical aristocracy seemed to have lost none of its former influence. Thus, the metropolitans were always the first consulted in temporal affairs: this is why the patriarch is always the first named in public deliberations. The respect inspired by the sanctity of his ministry made him, in a way, the equal of the sovereign.

External acts, the signs of the cross, prostrations, the rigorous observance of the four Lents, composed the whole religion of the Russians, and it was only by these practices that they were, as Christians, distinguished from the peoples of their empire deprived of any idea of spirituality: many Russians still live in the same ignorance.

Superstitious peoples hate those who do not share their superstitions: thus one of the cries of joyous advent with which they greeted their princes was always to demand the massacre of foreigners.

Priests were not allowed to preach; there were even some who, as a reward for their predictions, were sent to Siberia. The Russians of today say, with reason, that the Church is founded on the word of God, recorded in the holy books, and that the interpretations of the preachers are the source of all the quarrels which divide Christians.

Under Czar Alexis, almost all the houses in the capital were still of wood, as in the previous century. The walls were bare: it was a great luxury to line them with leather, as also to have beds other than benches, and to rest on wool or furs.

The table of the Russians was badly served; it is a defect which one still finds in the lower classes and even in people whose position and fortune allow more delicacy. The important personages alone had what is called full cover; the others didn't just have forks and ate with their fingers. Today the Russians are magnificent and prodigal; but at the time of which we speak, salted fish, vegetables, venison and roots alone made all their food; however, they ate less than
they devoured. Their usual drinks were hydromel and brandy; they hardly left the table before they were completely drunk.

They were usually badly dressed, and never found their clothes so worn that they thought they had to take them off or even change them; but in the ceremonies, in the occasions of pageantry, these men, ordinarily so negligent in their toilet, displayed an Asiatic luxury: the gold and the diamonds relieved on them the richness of stuffs and furs. Those who could not adorn themselves in a manner suitable to the circumstances hired robes, pelisses, caps, gold chains, jewels and luxury weapons from the Czar's wardrobe. It was there that they borrowed, sometimes for money, their finery for holidays and even for embassies.* If they lost or spoiled any objects, they paid for the damage, and were beaten into the bargain, as a punishment for their negligence; for neither rank nor birth then exempted from flogging in Russia.

*It seems that this custom has been preserved at the Russian court, because nowadays, under the reign of the Emperor Alexander, here is what happened:

The Grand Chamberlain, Prince Naryshkin, having received from the Czar a very fine decoration of the Order of Saint Andrew, set in diamonds and valued at 30,000 rubles, immediately went to pawn it with a usurer.

Shortly after, the court gave a great feast where the rich gifts made by the autocrat were necessarily to figure. What an embarrassment for the Grand Chamberlain, whose cashbox was empty! The inflexible lender, despite the persuasive elocution of the courtier, would not give up the star, even for what few hours before he was paid in full for what he had advanced on the jewel. The prince therefore had no other resource than to address himself to the valet of Chamber of the Emperor, who had in his possession a star of diamonds belonging to his master, and in every respect similar to his own, with this difference, however, that the brilliants being much larger, this decoration had cost double, i.e., 60,000 rubles.

Naryshkin went to find this servant; and, after having alleged to him the duties of his office, by dint of entreaties and on his promise that the jewel would be faithfully returned to him at the end of the feast, he determined him, not without difficulty, to lend him the star of the Czar. Naryshkin appeared at court with this decoration. Alexander soon noticed in his first chamberlain's star a striking resemblance to his own; finally, sure of his facts, he said to the prince, with a smile which was not of very good quality:

"My cousin, I can't get over my astonishment: the decoration you're wearing here looks so much like the one I recently received from my jeweler that, if I hadn't seen it again this morning in my box, I would believe that's her."

At these words, the Grand Chamberlain was taken aback. Alexander, who had been made more attentive by this embarrassment, added in a more significant tone:

"My cousin, I must tell you the truth, I believe that the star you wear there is only mine."

This time Naryshkin, confounded, confessed everything to the Emperor, and submitted in advance to whatever punishment he pleased to inflict on him, confining himself to asking pardon
for the officious valet of the chamber. At this confession, the Czar, feeling the just
dissatisfaction he had conceived expire, confined himself to replying to his Grand Chamberlain:

"Reassure yourself, my cousin; the crime is not great enough for me to be unable to forgive.
However, as I can no longer adorn myself with this decoration, I must present it to you; but it is
only on the condition that you will give me your word that in the future I will be insured against
similar appropriations on your part."

Alexander's life is full of examples of condescension and traits of generosity of this kind. One
can consult, in this regard, the excellent History of Alexander I, Emperor of all the Russias, and
of the main events of his reign, written by Alphone Rabbe.

In spite of this brilliance, which might dazzle the eyes of foreigners, the court of Russia had lost
those immense riches which it had enjoyed until the reign of Boris. These treasures, amassed
over so many centuries, acquired by trade or purchased at the price of blood, had fallen prey to
those who had torn the State apart during the last disturbances. Let us judge, by a single feature,
of the immense booty that the Poles made at Moscow: they pillaged, in the principal church, the
statues of Jesus Christ and of the twelve apostles, large as life and cast in solid gold; a large
number of silver tables, vases mounted with fine pearls and diamonds, etc. The treasury of the
czars was removed, dispersed, and distributed to the soldiers, to whom no pay could be given.
Russia, under the last princes of the period which we have just traversed, offered only the
brilliant remains of her former opulence.

Women of distinction, still subject to the austerity of Oriental mores, nevertheless felt less
embarrassment than before. They could go out alone, to go to church or to visit their closest
relatives; but, in all classes, they continued to submit to the absolute authority of their husbands.
The father or the mother of a woman would not prevent, even today, her husband from beating
her in their presence: he is only using his right, and it would be a grave sin for the woman to
resist. The author of the Persian Letters says that Russian women like to be beaten; and what
only looks like a joke here is an observation whose accuracy is justified by one of those proverbs
which attest to the existence of a general custom among a people: Biou kak choublou, i loublou
kak douc hou (I beat you like my fur coat, and I love you like my heart). They published not long
ago the letters of a Russian lady of distinction, in one of which she complained that her husband
no longer loved her, because he no longer beat her. Lastly, Catherine II., whom Voltaire had
surnamed the Semiramis of the North, empress though she was, and although born a German,
showed herself absolutely Russian in this respect; we know that the indomitable Catherine
allowed herself to be beaten by her favorites, and that she more than once felt the weight of the
arm of an Orlov and a Potemkin.

Their excessive ignorance made the Russians very proud. Their sovereigns, their great lords had
something of the amusing boastfulness of the great khan of the Tartars of the Golden Horde,
their former master, who, after having torn with his fingernails the half-cooked meat of which his
meal consisted, had his meal announced at the sound of trumpet, in front of his tent, that all the
potentates of the earth could sit down to table, waiting that he had dined.
The police were long neglected in Russia. There was no security during the night in the capital; the surroundings were infested with brigands: the misery, the laziness of the people and the harshness of the lords multiplied the number of these malefactors.

It seems that the use of poison was then very common, since all those who approached the Czar were made to swear not to put or to prevent others from putting dangerous substances in his food or in his drinks.

We have seen that the first czar, Ivan, formed a permanent infantry, under the name of streltsy, and that he gave them firearms. This famous militia became corrupt in times of trouble; they gave themselves up to robbery, paralyzed discipline, and was no longer to be feared except by her masters. Michael (Mikhail) had German cavalry and raised regiments of dragoons: to defeat his neighbors, he had sought to imitate them. Alexis made still greater changes in the military condition; in his time, most senior officers were Germans. His armies were composed of hussars armed with lances, since called lancers; horsemen with firearms, and dragoons with long muskets. The name of soldiers was given to militias composed of peasants armed with sabers and flails; this militia was divided into regiments under the command of officers, most of them foreign. The troops from Kazan, Astrakhan and Siberia were on horseback and used the bow. It was also the weapon of the Nogai, the Bashkirs and the Kalmucks, of whom there were always quite a number following the armies. The Cossacks were armed only with spears.

The district of Moscow always maintained on foot forty thousand streltsy: a third was reserved for the guard of the czar, the others were distributed in different places. They were divided into several regiments. Their chiefs had lands and slaves that the sovereign granted them for a limited time. They received a cash pay every year.

Officers who distinguished themselves, either by their personal valor or by the importance of their services, were presented to the czar, who gave them silk stuffs, rich furs, increases in pay and lands. The wives of those who had been killed in the war were gratified.

All business was decided in the council, or senate, composed of boyars, formerly called boiaré, which corresponds to the Latin terms of maiores, primoris: it was the first class of the great; of okolnichy, whose title signified that they surround the prince; of dummye dvoriane, or noble of the council, and of dummye diaki, or secretaries of the council. All the decrees emanating from the throne passed for having been presented, discussed, approved, and drawn up by this species of tribunal. The formula was: Boiare prigovorili, i tsar prikazal (The boyars were of opinion, and the czar ordered). Thus, the prince only ordered the execution of what the magistrates had resolved upon; but it will be understood that this was only a vain formula, since the most absolute power and the most absolute despotism had been established in Russia since the expulsion of the Tartars. Everywhere despotism likes to surround itself with the cold relics of the ancient freedom which it destroyed, or to which it succeeded.

All magistrates were obliged to serve in the armies: it was usually a boyar who had the command in chief. The officers of the council had the government of the towns; they were preferably sent to embassies. There was no marked barrier between civil status and military status; one passed
from one to the other without difficulty: which supposes an excellent, or detestable, administration; a simple and precise legislation, or an immense and pernicious confusion.

When the czar had resolved to go to war, he went to the principal Moscow church, had a secretary of state read aloud his grievances against his enemy, and the reasons which obliged him to take revenge on them. believing thus to owe to his people some account of his actions when it was a question of asking him for blood.

**IVAN V, AND HIS BROTHER PETER I**

On the death of Feodor (1682), the suffrages of the nation were divided between the two princes, his brothers.

Ivan was called to the throne by birthright; but an extreme weakness of body and mind caused him to be regarded as incapable of reigning. The nobility and the clergy joined together their wishes on Peter, born of the second wife of Alexis. However, the youth of this prince seemed to make supreme authority just as illusory in his hands as in those of his brother, because nothing yet could reveal in him one of those men fit to command: it was therefore to give the preference to his mother.

This young princess, Natalya Naryshkin, granddaughter of Naryshkin, minister under the two preceding regimes, found in Sophia, daughter of Feodor's first marriage, her husband, a dangerous rival. The latter, to whom a more advanced age than hers gave more experience, joined to the particular advantages of her sex a firm character, an active and ambitious genius; finally, although a woman and young, she felt that the burden of power was not too heavy for her. And then, it was not without indignation that she had seen her brother Ivan stripped of his rights to the throne. This feeling, which one cannot refuse to find excusable in a sister, made her give birth to a project that nothing can justify: the revolt of the streltsy.

These turbulent praetorians served Sophia even beyond her wishes in her hatred of Peter's mother. Word spread that Prince Ivan had been murdered by the Naryshkin. Immediately Moscow resounded with seditious clamors; the streltsy, increasing the tumult, excited by them, assembled hastily, and marched, dragging with them pieces of artillery which they directed against the palace of the Kremlin. It was in vain that the prince whose death they claimed to avenge appeared to their eyes beside his brother; their rage was only quenched after destroying everything that bore the name of Naryshkin, and slaughtering enough boyars to make an immense booty. However, as they had shed so much blood only in the name of young Ivan, they proclaimed him czar with his brother, and handed over to Sophia the reins of government: it was the object of all the wishes of this Princess, who, grateful, gave them a new leader; but the authority of this militia was not long in rendering it redoubtable even to those whom it had served. Sophia, fearing her, resolved to get rid of them. Accused of conspiring against the czar and the nobles of the state, this same chief who owed his elevation to Sophia, Khovansky, perished with the principal officers of the corps of the streltsy (1684). Their crime was assumed; but they were pursued by the jealousy of a rival who knew how to attack them at the right moment.
While within her States Sophia and her able minister Golitsyn thus triumphed over the rebellion, they assured the empire of a formidable preponderance. Leopold, Emperor of Germany, always disturbed by the Turks, whom the chivalrous valor of Sobieski had already driven from Vienna, sought the support of his neighbors against them. Although the Turks were the natural enemies of the Russians, they took advantage of the Emperor's position to put a price on the rupture of the treaty which had existed with them for twenty years. This price was to secure the possession of the country to which Poland maintained claims. A treaty was therefore concluded on 6 May 1686, between the two empires of Germany and Russia.

In this treaty, the czars were recognized in perpetuity as sovereigns of Kiev, Chernigov and Smolensk. Thus, all the countries situated between Chernigov and Novgorod-Seversky, in Little Russia, and all the left bank of the Dnieper, were assured to them. One of the main clauses of this treaty was the offensive and defensive alliance of Russia with the court of Vienna against the Turks.

However, hampered on the one hand by Sweden, and on the other still provoked by the Crimean Turks, the Russians expected greater benefits from Golitsyn's administration; he was not insensible to the voice of national honor, and marched himself into the Crimea at the head of a formidable army.

However, the Tartars deceived his hope by burning the country; and this expedition was remarkable only for the rather vain enterprise of building, in the midst of the deserts, on the banks of the Samara, a town which was to serve as a store and a boulevard for the coming campaign; but such monuments should rather be erected to attest and guarantee the conquests than to prepare for them.

Bringing back barely a quarter of an army which had been rapidly annihilated by hunger, thirst and lack of discipline, Golitsyn was nevertheless received by his sovereign with the honors due to a triumphant (1687); but also the hatred which the young Peter had for a long time vowed to this minister burst out more vividly than ever in bitter irony and in wounding sarcasms for him and his protectress. From that moment, Sophia and Golitsyn swore the ruin of this Prince, whom they already feared to have delayed too long, and brought into their project a crowd of officers of the Streltsy Corps. Peter was forced, in the first moments of the storm, to retire to the convent of the Trinity. It was, in revolutions, the ordinary asylum of Russian princes, which guaranteed, not by the respect attached to the sanctity of the place, but by the formidable artillery with which its walls bristled. There the young monarch assembled all the nobles whom he had been able to attach to himself, summoned the chiefs of the streltsy who had remained faithful to his cause, stopped the blow which threatened his head, intimidated the revolt and punished the guilty; but he left his sister and his minister alive, both of whom were condemned to eternal captivity in the most remote part of the empire (1689). Sophia's vindictive soul was not crushed by this kind of reprisal: we will soon see her weave new plots in the very depths of her prison.
RUSSIA.

IRREGULAR COSSACK. -- CRIMEAN TARTAR.