Zmejanović were significant examples. Thus, a decades-long struggle turned into a race for influence and funds, while actual influence on schools and enlightenment faded. It therefore came as no surprise that most Serbian representatives were elected from lists presented by Hungarian political parties.

The book ends with the essay ‘Musical Representations of the South East in the Habsburg Monarchy’ (pp. 249–257) by Harald Haslmayr. Based on musical examples, this article attempts to gain knowledge of the history of mentality from musical works of Austria’s music past that refer to the region of South Eastern Europe using the methodological central question ‘Can sounds be historical sources’? In order to escape this dilemma two publications are presented in the essay of Haslmayr (‘We and Passarowitz. 300 Years of Impact on Europe’, and the second that was published as an essay in the programme of the ‘Arabella’ premiere on February 9th 2008 at the Opera of Graz). The author through the guidance of these two mentioned publications explains how the reader can look on these music pieces from Joseph Haydn and Johann Strauss as historical sources.

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The theory of the long nineteenth century as an overture to the drastic changes in the map of Europe that occurred after the Great War is of relevance to the history of the Russian Empire. The path to the modern era and the new society and polity was full of challenges for the Great Powers of the nineteenth century. Dynamic transformations within states and struggles for a leading position in the politics of colonization through endless wars exhausted the strength and sustainability of certain socio-political systems. Issues of equal importance included either a social or national crisis to which they were unable to respond, or a series of wars that culminated in the devastating Great War. One of these two issues is dealt with in this monograph by Duško M. Kovačević. In this book about the Russian Empire in the nineteenth century, the author exposes military and diplomatic relations with European countries led by the government that were focused on expanding the empire’s borders and maintaining Russian influence in its areas of interest. When becoming familiar with the circumstances of the nineteenth century, a question is also raised regarding how much influence foreign policy had in sustaining Russian autocracy (Russian: самодержавие).

This monograph is the culmination of historical research into the Russian Empire’s foreign policy and Serbian–Russian relations in the nineteenth century. The author’s long and exhaustive research of documents of Russian and Serbian provenance has resulted in numerous monographs and journal articles. Among other things, the author has examined Serbian–Russian relations from the Congress of Berlin up until 1899 and Russia’s relationship with the Radical Party and King Milan. Out of an aspiration to shed light on the complex processes of Russian foreign policy in the last decades of the nineteenth century, the author has produced an extensive body of work on the evolution of Russia’s foreign policy after the Crimean War and the period of conservatism in Russian foreign policy, and how this was reflected in its influence in the Balkans.


2 These include Kovačević (M) D. (2003), Serbia and Russia 1878–1889: From the Congress of Berlin to the Abdication of King Milan, Beograd: Istorijiški institut; Kovačević (M) D. (2012), Russia in International Relations 1856–1894: From the Crimean War to the Alliance with France, Beograd: Službeni glasnik.
Russian influence on Balkan issues has indicated a need for a more detailed account of Russian military and diplomatic relations with other European countries, as their tendency to thwart the possibility of Russian influence prevailing in resolving the Eastern Question had an impact on the further course of Serbian history. From a chronological point of view, research findings presented in previous works cover the period from the mid-nineteenth century to the beginning of the First World War. However, this monograph extends this period by beginning from the Crimean War rather than the death of Paul I and ending in 1917 rather than with the Balkan Wars.

The monograph’s theoretical basis consists of two basic considerations that emerged from years of research and reflection on Russian historical patterns. The first theoretical basis is the issue of how much foreign policy—embodied by one war after another without pause, exhaustive diplomacy, and the gradual expansion of the empire’s borders— influenced the collapse of the Russian Empire. The second theoretical basis stems from the very form of organization—autocracy—whose beginning and end, especially in foreign policy, was the sole characteristic of the emperor. Given that the ruler’s power was, by definition, unlimited, a question arises as to how many decisions related to the foreign policy made at key moments by each ruler from Alexander I to Nicholas II were crucial or disastrous for the Russian state.

The monograph is divided into three main sections, with each section divided into several chapters and subheadings. These divisions are based on decisive military or diplomatic events in European politics. A somewhat different approach to organizing the content was taken for the third part, which begins with Nicholas II’s ascension to the throne. The content of each part is divided by geographic region: Russian influence on European soil, the Caucasus, the Far East, central Asia, and the United States. Throughout academic discourse, factors influencing the rise of Russia’s foreign policy have been observed, and from this two factors have crystallized: the interests of European powers and the characteristics of each ruler’s personality. The introduction (pp. 13–18) explains the concept of autocracy and, in connection with it, a brief overview of internal and external issues dealt with during the reigns of nineteenth-century Russian rulers. A feature of the introduction, as well as of other chapters, is quotations related to political thinking by rulers, ministers, and writers who witnessed these events or knew their participants. At the end of the introduction, territorial divisions in foreign policy, the bases these divisions in the Balkans and the Far East, and the gradual development of interests in Asia are explained.

The first section, ‘From the Death of Paul I to the Crimean War’ (pp. 21–242), includes seven chapters formulated according to the event and area of Russian interest. The section begins with a description of Alexander I’s rise to power. It then defines Russia’s involvement in the formation of new international relations and ends with a description of the Crimean War, in which Russia suffered an enormous defeat and ended up on the margins of European politics. Then the next fifty years are presented, which were marked by the Napoleonic Wars and actions carried out in the spirit of the system established at the Congress of Vienna that were characterized by conservatism and anti-revolutionary struggle. In addition to a description of Russia’s military and diplomatic relations and the European powers, much space in the monograph is given to creating an image of the rulers and their thinking regarding the contemporary challenges of foreign politics. Specific events and the response of European powers to the direction of Russian foreign policy were guidelines for rulers when making decisions. Nevertheless, the ruler’s personality traits were, for the most part, what influenced the direction of foreign policy. This period was marked by the personalities of two rulers: Alexander I (1801–1825) and Nicholas I (1825–1855). Even though, by definition, the ruler had full responsibility for foreign policy, its success depended on his ability to select competent people for diplomatic missions and to recognize the interests of other countries. Throughout this period, this would prove to be an extremely significant factor for success and the ruler’s ability realistically judge the capacities of his own country, allied countries, and enemies, as well as their overall benefit. In this review of foreign
policy during the first half of the nineteenth century, one of the things the author deduces is how important it was to establish an equilibrium between the ruler’s desire for the glory achieved through successful foreign policy and the contemporary circumstances of European policy.

The second part, ‘From the Treaty of Paris to the Alliance with France’ (pp. 243–390), is separated into six chapters according to Russia’s diplomatic agreements with other European countries, with an additional account of Russian actions during the Eastern Crisis of 1875–1878. The second part commences with a description of how the consequences of the defeat in the Crimean War were overcome, and it ends with an explanation of the process that established the Russian–French alliance. The second half of the nineteenth century is presented through basic facts, the decisions of the Congress of Paris that led to Russia’s political isolation, and diplomacy focused on reentering the European political stage as an influential force. The book shows that at this time the formation of the alliance was dependent on a large degree of conflict of interest and a common enemy, as well as the personal relationship between leaders. The reigns of Alexander II (1855–1881) and Alexander III (1881–1894) were marked more by diplomacy than war, which translated to improving internal conditions. As revealed in the monograph, this period was marked by Emperor Alexander II and Foreign Minister Gorchakov’s contrasting views on foreign policy. The Czar was an advocate of renewing friendly Russian–Prussian relations and Russian national foreign policy, while Gorchakov was a Slavophile and a Francophile. Alexander III retained a policy of nonparticipation in the war and a determination to follow a national foreign policy instead of Slavophilism. The general conclusion of the second part of the monograph and the period after the Crimean War was a move toward a policy of peace that was treated as part of the emperor’s education. However, this policy was also conditioned on the current state of the empire, which required more attention to internal affairs.

The third part, ‘From the Ascension of Nicholas II to the end of the Russian Empire’ (pp. 391–610), is separated into five chapters that illustrate the last years of Russian autocracy. This section provides an additional overview of the figure of Nicholas II (1894–1917) and how he responded to the challenges of international relations in the early twentieth century. It shows that the foreign policy during the reign of the last Russian emperor was marked by a policy of colonization and confrontation on the Asian continent, an attempt to maintain diplomatic balance, and gradual approach to the world war. Nicholas II began his reign with a word of warning that Russia had no friends, which turned out to be especially accurate during the war with Japan. Events in the area of foreign policy were accompanied by the emperor’s lack of resolve and dependence on other people’s opinions, no matter where they came from. He was particularly guided by the council that came from a friendly relationship with Kaiser Wilhelm II. The moves the emperor made during this entire period were like a practical execution of the theoretical basis of autocracy, in which foreign policy is solely the ruler’s grandeur and demise. The state of affairs in Europe at the beginning of the twentieth century required leaders to make decisions, a successful outcome to the war, and a more considerable state with an internal political foundation; yet none of these existed. However, military defeats significantly contributed to the final desolation. The words of Emperor Alexander III once again proved to be true: ‘If public opinion’s trust in foreign policy is lost, then all has failed.’

The monograph presented here has multiple benefits for Serbian historiography, the most important of which is that it is a result of research into Russian and Serbian sources. The monograph also embodies the most prominent aspect of the author’s research into Serbian–Russian relations in the nineteenth century, because earlier research was placed within the framework of contemporary European affairs and viewed in the light of European interests and Russian foreign policy. Never before in Serbian historiography on Russian history has such a thematic and chronologically comprehensive work of academic research been published, which provides readers with such an extensive summary of the history of
nineteenth century diplomatic relations from the perspective of the Russian Empire.

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After many years of research, Paschalis M. Kitromilides, a distinguished professor at the University of Athens who is certainly the best and most profiled experts in the history of the Orthodox Church, Orthodox thought, and Orthodoxy in the Balkans in the twenty-first century, has recently published a book that must be considered one of the milestones when it comes to knowledge of the history of the Ecumenical Patriarchate and its influence on the Orthodox world. Professor Kitromilides’ book is indispensable for any consideration or understanding of the place and role of the Orthodox Church in modern times and the modern world.

The foreword was written by one of today’s most prominent Orthodox theologians, Metropolitan Ioannis Zizioulas of Pergamon, who has carefully and commendably written about the author, the book, the significance of this current topic, and the place and position of the Orthodox Church in modern society. Metropolitan Zizioulas also touches on the history of the development of the Orthodox Church in the Balkans, its considerable Byzantine Orthodox heritage, and the multitude of ethnophyletist issues the Ecumenical Patriarchate was faced with in the second half of the nineteenth century. The metropolitan highlights the significance of the approach Professor Kitromilidis advocates for by pointing out that the author completely separates the Ecumenical throne from nationalism through an overarching analysis of a difficult period for the Patriarchate from the tragedy in Asia Minor in 1922, the reign of Patriarch Athenagoras, and up to the present day.

In the introduction, the author first gives an overview of the earliest Christian thinkers, explains and clarifies the history of Orthodoxy, and convincingly demonstrates how, even today, the Orthodox Church is subject to misconceptions and stereotypically negative perceptions related to the Balkan region and southeast Europe. Author takes a particularly nuanced look at the modern-day relationship between church and state, poses important questions about the global status of religion today, and the position of the Eastern Orthodox Church. It is important to point out that, throughout the entire book, the author gives close attention to the relationship between the Orthodox Church and damaging ethnophyletism, which was one of the primary issues for the Orthodox Church in the second half of the nineteenth century and continues to be so even today. Secularization combined with rising nationalism is a unique process and poses a significant problem for Orthodoxy. The author analyzes the Byzantine Church’s pastoral work in the Balkans and Russia, and the personality of the charismatic Cyril I Lucaris (1620–1638), thereby challenging the thesis from older historiography that the Ecumenical Patriarchate wanted to Hellenize the Balkans.

The extensive first chapter, ‘The Orthodox Church and the Enlightenment: Testimonies from the Correspondence of Ignatius of Ungrowallachia with G. P. Vieusseux,’ relies heavily on historical sources. In it, the author provides a vivid and dynamic narrative of the Enlightenment’s influence on the Orthodox Church and this important movement, and relations between the Patriarchate and bishops throughout the Orthodox world. Special attention is given the personality and work of Ignatius (a native of Mytilene) who was appointed metropolitan of Ungrowallachia by the Russian Synod after Russia annexed Wallachia and Moldavia in 1808. The metropolitan distinguished himself by engaging in the difficult work of opening the Lyceum in Bucharest and later in diplomatic efforts during the Congress of Vienna. After this, he moved to Pisa in 1815, where he advocated for a revival of Greek culture and supported the ideas of the Enlightenment. His correspondence with the eminent professor G. P. Vieusseux, starting in the spring of 1827, reveals