This popular-historical publication under review assesses the evolution of nearly two millennia of map-making relating to the territory of Ukraine. Halushko’s narrative and analysis is enriched with colour reproductions of carefully selected rare maps from various European and North American collections, which were scanned with the support of the Canadian Institute of Ukrainian Studies. Publication of the book was funded by the Ukraine-UNESCO Fund (foundation).

The book has a brief introduction and is divided into four chapters. Each chapter describes a period of history and map-making, telling how contemporaneous cartographic techniques depicted the geographical regions that we now know as Ukraine. The chapters are: 1. Ukraine before the Appearance of “Ukraine”; 2. Ukraine—“Wild Frontier” to the “Land of the Cossacks”; 3. From “Little Russia” to “Ukraine”; and 4. Striving for a Place on the Map.

In his introduction, Halushko suggests that by delving into old maps, we can learn about historical geography and, thus, dispel modern stereotypes. He points out that, over time, states and empires appeared and disappeared, and that the lands of nations changed their outlines and names. Since modern maps from the past five hundred years have presented mainly administrative entities, one would be hard-pressed to find Ukraine on them. Yet, by the early twentieth century, modernizing East European nations were seeking independence to achieve statehood. Thus Halushko provides an overview of how the territory of Ukraine was described from antiquity, how the identity of the land and its people evolved, and how it was represented on maps throughout history.

Halushko begins his narrative with the ancient Greeks. He recounts how well-known classical geographers (Strabo, Ptolemy) described in words the peoples and their lands in and around what is now Ukraine. He also draws on rare surviving parchment linear maps that had served itinerants—one of the Black Sea coast (third century BC), listing cities from west to east; and another similar one, marking the coast and rivers (circa AD third to fifth century). The earliest graphic visualization of the known world is the Ravenna Cosmography; it was compiled by an anonymous cleric around AD 700. Halushko points out that maps from the Middle Ages retained the design of the Ravenna map, but assumed a distinct “T-O” format, with its Christian symbolism. These maps show the classical names of rivers and peoples, but the contemporary names of cities and the land of Rus’ have been added. Halushko then describes the incredibly accurate
nautical chart of the Black Sea coast (1320-21) by Genoese cartographer Pietro Vesconte, as well as other maps. Breakthroughs were made in the naming of the lands of Eastern Europe (1507-09) by Polish cartographer Bernard Wapowski. Halushko, though, does not show Wapowski’s maps. He does, however, include detailed maps of Poland by German cosmographer Sebastian Münster (1540); of “Russia” (what is now Ukraine) by Flemish cartographer Gerardus Mercator (1595); and of Poland by Waclaw Grodziecki (1558). In each case the author provides solid commentary.

In the next chapter, Halushko argues that the meaning of Ukraine changed from that of “wild frontier” to the “land of the Cossacks.” His evidence, however, does not support his thesis. Only Muscovy’s steppe frontier was named Okraina Dikoia [Wild Frontier] (Jan Blau atlas, 1665), while the Polish kingdom’s eastern provinces were called “Ukraine.” By 1650, “Ukraine” had become synonymous with “Russia,” as depicted by Guillaume Le Vasseur de Beauplan (1648). Halushko explains that after the splitting of Ukrainian territory between Muscovy and Poland, increasing Russian influence led to the appearance of the name “Little Russia” (1699). Even so, Dutch and French cartographers showed “Ukraine” in the Polish kingdom (1702), while German geographer Johann Homann featured a map called “Ukraine or Cossack Land” (1712). This interest in Ukraine, according to the author, stemmed from the international significance of the Cossack wars. After the Battle of Poltava, however, victorious Russia imposed the name Malorossiia [Little Russia] on its maps.

In chapter 3, Halushko outlines the process of change from “Little Russia” to “Ukraine.” He notes that non-Russian political-administrative maps sometimes included historical names and ethnonyms. The ethnographic map of Slavic lands by Pavel Josef Šafařík (1842) represented a breakthrough, as it featured Malorusi [Little Russians] as a separate people. Although Aleksandr Fyodorovich Rittikh also differentiated the East Slavs (1875), he introduced the error on mainland Tavrida of “Great Russians” instead of “Little Russians,” which was copied by subsequent Western map-makers. Meanwhile, Ukrainian ethnographer Pavlo Chubyns’kyi and linguist Kostiantyn Mykhal’chuk produced a map named “South Russian Dialects” (1872), which in the twentieth century, as Halushko notes, provided the basis for the territorial claims of the Ukrainian national movement. Turning to the Austrian Empire, the author sketches developments leading up to the definitive ethnographic map of the Habsburg Monarchy by Karl Freiherrn von Czernig (1855). Halushko discusses the ethnonyms “Ruthenian” and Maloros [Little Russian], used in the Austrian and Russian empires, respectively, and how these names were rejected by the Ukrainian national movement in the early twentieth century. He illustrates this change with Stepan Rudnyts’kyi’s map called
“Ukrainian Lands” (1915). He also points out, that although Hrushevskyi provided an outline of the history of the Ukrainian nation, the discontinuation of Ukraine’s statehood necessitated placing an emphasis on ethnographic, rather than historical, bases for Ukrainian territorial claims.

In his last chapter, Halushko focuses on the mapping of Ukraine during its struggle for independence (1917-20). Halushko begins with an émigré-sponsored map depicting Ukrainian ethnographic-based territorial claims (Geneva, 1916[?]). He then presents an overview of the Central Rada’s claims; the territorial changes it pursued after the Bolshevik Revolution and the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk; the changes under the Hetman government of Ukraine; the role of Dmytro Dontsov in articulating boundary policies; and negotiations with the Kuban National Republic and the Crimea. He summarizes the territorial gains of the two governments (that is, the Central Rada and the Hetman government), relying on another map of Ukraine (Vienna, 1919). Halushko should have credited Rudnyts’kyi for the Vienna map, because, at that time, maps in Ukraine were still being produced in Russian. Finally, the author documents and comments on the British mapping of independent Ukraine, its autonomy-seek ing regions, and Soviet Ukraine, and discusses changes to the borders of Ukrainian lands up to 1954.

Halushko deserves credit for having found rare, relevant maps that help him provide a clear and solid visualization of Ukraine’s territorial evolution from antiquity to the present, which is particularly important within the context of current Ukrainian identity formation and nation-building.

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