

BAKSHALIYEV FAZIL EYNULLA



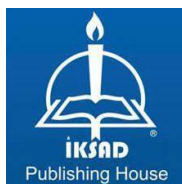
**ENTREPRENEURIAL PEASANTS
OF AZERBAIJAN IN THE PERIOD
AFTER THE RUSSIAN OCCUPATION
(1820-1890)**



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The monograph is devoted to the study of the most basic issues related to the economic activity, household conditions, and social status of entrepreneurial villagers in connection with the various changes that took place in the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan during the period from the Russian occupation until almost the end of the 19th century. In the work, land ownership forms of entrepreneurial peasants, rules of land use, changes in farm management methods, peasant-entrepreneur relations, formation of new capitalist relations in the village, stratification of peasants, and other issues have been given special attention. In the course of the monograph, a lot of analysis and comparisons were made to determine the place and role of entrepreneurial peasants in the Azerbaijani village in the 19th century based on the results of analyzing and summarizing a very large statistical report, documentary and archival materials related to our topic. Tables compiled on the basis of many calculations and analyzes carried out during the research, convincing conclusions obtained and justified are of great scientific importance.

INTRODUCTION

After the restoration of the state independence of the Republic of Azerbaijan, significant progress has been achieved across various spheres of society, including science, education, and cultural development. Among these, historical studies have occupied a distinctive place, contributing substantially to Azerbaijan's scientific advancements. Guided by the vision and directives of Heydar Aliyev, the architect of independent Azerbaijan and its national leader, substantial strides have been made in the development of historical science and the broadening of historical research. Over the past two decades, Azerbaijani historians have achieved notable success in addressing key scientific issues spanning all periods of the nation's history.

President Ilham Aliyev has continued this legacy by prioritizing the advancement of science and supporting scholars across diverse disciplines. His targeted initiatives and directives have emphasized the importance of conducting comprehensive studies on Azerbaijan's history, encouraging research into enduring and modern-day historical challenges. These efforts underscore the critical role of historical inquiry in shaping a deeper understanding of the nation's past and its implications for contemporary and future development.

The special actuality of many problems of the history of Azerbaijan creates a special need for their extensive and comprehensive study today.

One of them is the events and processes associated with the XIX century in the history of Azerbaijan. In his speech on January 1997, 31, during the meeting with the leadership and leading scientists of the national leader of Azerbaijan NAS, Heydar Aliyev specifically noted the re-examination and in-depth study of the history of Azerbaijan of the XIXXX centuries (54,216).

Taking into account that in the 19th century, agriculture was the leading sector in the economy of Northern Azerbaijan, and new quality changes took place in the Azerbaijani village compared to previous times, we can say that the new and comprehensive study of the events related to the Azerbaijani village and its villagers, related to them identification of important features in the processes that took place is of great scientific importance in terms of creating a general picture of the socio-economic and socio-political life of Azerbaijan at that time.

The Azerbaijani village, one of the most relevant and interesting problems in historiography, agricultural production and in general, agrarian relations, the level of research of all issues related to this common problem has always been in the center of attention of historians. In terms of the area where they live, as well as in official state documents, Azerbaijani peasants were historically divided into several categories. Sometimes it happened that statements belonging to these categories were interpreted in various official state and non-state documents in very different ways, sometimes completely contradicting each other. Therefore, the need to clarify the issue made it necessary to clarify this situation. Despite the fact that the phrase "subordinate to the landlord" was already used in the content of the laws adopted in the middle of the 19th century, the common and living Azerbaijani village was often divided into 2 poles - state and entrepreneur villagers - in official documents, state decrees and correspondence. The decrees of April 25, 1841 and May 28, 1841 deprived the beys and aghalars of their management, judicial and other rights over the peasants living on their lands. However, due to the new political situation, the need to eliminate the threat of the weakening of the empire's position in the country, the tsar's rescript of December 6,

1846 and its continuation, the peasant regulations of April 20 and December 28, 1847 (189,338, 931), allowed entrepreneurs to by restoring the rights of ownership and ownership over their lands, the expression of the entrepreneur peasants was brought back into circulation.

The implementation of the peasant reform marks the beginning of a new stage in the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan and taking into account the important impact of this stage on the socio-economic life of the village, we can say that it is necessary to return to the examination of the problems related to many entrepreneurial peasants of Azerbaijan belonging to this period and to thoroughly study these issues now it becomes even more relevant. It is this factor that determined the choice of the 20s-90s of the 19th century as the main chronological framework of our monograph.

In the course of our research, when talking about the first source writings about the economic situation and economic life of the Azerbaijani village and its peasants, the 5-volume "Svod materialov po izucheniyu ekonomicheskogo bita gosudarstvennykh krestyan Zakavkazskogo kraya" (205-209) and the special role of the 7-volume "Materiali po izucheniu ekonomicheskogo bita gosudarstvennykh krestyan Zakavkazskogo kraya" (166-171) collections. Despite the abundance of information about the entrepreneurial village and the economic life of the villagers living there, land provision, taxes, use of credit services, the use of wage labor and many other issues, in the both sources we found in our research every In the materials from two series, we have tried to monitor and observe the socio-economic situation of the entrepreneurial village and its results.

In the official documents of the imperial government, the peasants of the South Caucasus, including Azerbaijan, were called "state peasants" for a long time. The difference was

that the entrepreneur peasants were state peasants living on private entrepreneur lands ("государственные крестьяне или поселяне, живущие на частно-владельческих землях"), and the treasury - state peasants were "state peasants living on treasury lands" (казенные крестьяне, живущие на казенных (государственных) землях) was named.

M.N. Kuchayev (152,230), N.N. Shavrov (229), A.G. Konduralov (154), S.P. Zelinsky (156-158), F.G. Markov (161,162), who is the author of numerous works on the 19th century Azerbaijani peasants, their economic conditions and other issues.), we have tried to express our attitude by carefully and critically approaching various issues given in the works of A.V. Sarvitski (227) and which are close to our research topic.

We should mention the special importance of the works of O. Syomin (214) and I. Segal (210), who are closely familiar with certain issues related to our research topic. In their works, the authors mentioned the content and results of agrarian laws, forms of land ownership of entrepreneurial peasants, etc. By collecting a lot of facts and statistical materials about.

Many different works related to a number of fields of agriculture, including forms of land ownership, creation of irrigation systems, favorable forms and methods of agriculture, related to the period of our study of the Azerbaijani village have appeared (71,72,73,85 ,96,97,132). The materials given in the works of these authors were useful for us in investigating certain points related to our topic.

We used the works of bourgeois historians and authors in Russia up to October (81,164,179,188) in the writing of the monograph and tried to approach them with maximum caution.

As it is known, S.A. Yegiazarov (132,133), S.Avaliani (66-70), S.Esadze (231) and other authors who talked about the agrarian policy, which is an integral part of Russia's colonial policy in the South Caucasus, also mentioned many related to our research topic in their research. they talked about the issues. However, for some reason, none of these authors were able to present the picture created by the new agrarian laws and reforms of the tsarism in the socioeconomic situation of the rural population in the South Caucasus, and they did not want to reveal the true nature of the colonial agrarian policy of the tsarism.

In the course of our research, we have undertaken comprehensive analyses grounded in the utilization of evidence pertaining to land ownership among Azerbaijani peasants. Additionally, we have explored various interconnected issues reflective of the historical period, drawing extensively on the works of a cohort of Georgian historians from both the bourgeois and Soviet eras. Among these authors, S. Avaliani's multi-volume "The Peasant Issue in the South Caucasus" (in Russian), a very valuable and comprehensive series of books, was especially helpful in the course of our research in many different aspects.

Valuable facts in the III volume of the author's series, which is almost entirely devoted to the preparation and implementation of the peasant statute of 1870 on May 14 in Northern Azerbaijan, have contributed to our research. In Yelizavetpol, Baku and Iravan governorates along with other governorates of the South Caucasus, landowners and peasants share land ownership, hired labor, buying and selling, using the services of banking and credit organizations, etc. and the very valuable documents and materials given on the issues have found their place in volumes IV and V of this series.

It is possible to find important facts and judgments related to our research topic in the works of other Georgian historians I.G. Antelava (73-75) and P.V. Gugushvili (127-129), who are well known for their productive works.

P.V. Gugushvili in the South Caucasian region, various fields of agricultural production, landlord and peasant land ownership, farm management, etc. in his deep and valuable analyzes of the issues, he managed to clarify many points about the agrarian relations in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan and in the Azerbaijani village as a whole.

The writing of articles about the Azerbaijani village and entrepreneurial peasants is observed even after the establishment of Soviet power. However, compared to the middle of the 20th century and especially the second half of the 20th century, these writings were extremely rare. M. Valiyev (52) and R. Huseynov (130) talk in detail about North Azerbaijan, the socio-economic situation of the peasants, the rules of land use of the peasants and other issues in their works.

It would be appropriate to mention that Russian Soviet historian N.G. Bogdanova, who is known for his works dedicated to the Azerbaijani village and the sensitive occasion of our history, also had exceptional services in elucidating the agrarian relations and the colonial policy of tsarism in the entrepreneurial village. We probably wouldn't be wrong if we call the author's article (87) published in 1941 in the journal "Istoricheskie zapiski" the first and most serious study of the agrarian relations that existed in North Azerbaijan in the half century after the peasant reform. The author included a lot of facts and materials about entrepreneurial villagers for the first time in the scientific periodical and was able to create a general picture of the Azerbaijani village of that time.

Starting from the middle of the 20th century, in the Azerbaijani Soviet historiography, and at the end of the century, in the national historiography, the North Azerbaijani village and many different problems related to it are widely studied (60,62,79,141,143,144,172,221), in the vast majority of works, agrarian relations, the emergence and deepening of capitalist relations in agriculture, and the class struggle in the village and many other topical problems were investigated. However, in almost the majority of such studies, the North Azerbaijan countryside was taken into account as a whole, calculations and other research results were based only on general information on the governorates and districts where the Muslim population lives in the South Caucasus.

In the works of V. D. Mochalov, the issues of the spread of capitalist relations in peasant farms in Azerbaijan were analyzed (173-175), while the role of commercial and usurious capital in this process was somewhat poorly explained, but a number of socio-economic problems were also reported.

The author of the monograph "Azerbaijan's agriculture in the 19th century" (216), A.S. Sumbatzade, wrote a comprehensive research work in which, for the first time, almost all areas of the agriculture and countryside of Azerbaijan were comprehensively analyzed in Azerbaijan Soviet historiography based on rich archival materials. has been a horseshoe. By examining many key issues of the history of agrarian relations in the Azerbaijani village, the author gave a general overview of the processes taking place here, and at the same time defined the main outlines of a new, broad direction of future research in this direction. In other studies of the author (217-219), the issues of the development of capitalist relations in the village were studied, and thus a deep scientific analysis of all the main issues in the socio-

economic life of the 19th century Azerbaijani village was given.

M.A. Ismayilov, a correspondent member of ANAS, who became one of our productive historians, has fundamentally touched on all the issues related to agriculture of the period mentioned in numerous monographs and other series of research works (57-59; 134-140) have been deeply evaluated, almost all questions have been answered in many numbers.

In the book published in 2008 by T.T. Valiyev, who has a special position in our national historiography with his qualitative and conceptual studies on the emergence and development of commodity-capitalist relations in the main areas of the economy of Azerbaijan in the mentioned period (50), a large part of the issues related to our research is reflected in a concise form.

In another work by the author (51), the culmination of extensive and rigorous research, he provides a detailed account of the establishment of highly lucrative production zones in the villages of Northern Azerbaijan, supported by extensive archival and statistical data. More broadly, the other studies of this distinguished scholar—one of the foremost and most influential figures in contemporary

In the book of the Armenian Soviet historian S.P. Aghayan (72), which talks about the implementation of the May 14, 1870 Peasant Regulations in North Azerbaijan, the initial conditions, preparation and content of the reform are discussed, to some extent, the tax system, peasant demonstrations and uprisings are based on actual and archival materials. However, in the course of the research, he talks extensively about many issues related to the first half of the 19th century and gives ample space to the indicators related to the settlements inhabited by the Armenian population. In our opinion, this not only goes beyond the research topic to a

certain extent, but also overshadows the interpretation of many main issues related to the topic

In the monographs of I.A. Talibzade (63-65), another representative of the Azerbaijani Soviet historiography, the extensive analyzes of agrarian policy, water ownership and water use in Azerbaijan at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century were an important event for our national historiography. Using numerous archival materials, the author points out that water ownership and water use play an important role in the economic evolution of the Azerbaijani countryside.

There are works, dissertations, etc. written in various years in Azerbaijani Soviet and national historiography related to our research topic, and in some cases, related to it (49,50,52,77,78,79,80,82,86,93,94,126,141,148,159,177, 184,193,221,224,230). We even express our opinion on some points in these works during the course of the research. However, we must say that none of these authors' works fully explore the situation of entrepreneurial peasants in post-reform Northern Azerbaijan.

We would like to briefly discuss I.M. Hasanov, the pioneering author of the first dedicated work on the history of the entrepreneurial village and its inhabitants within Azerbaijani Soviet historiography. In his seminal and meticulously researched monograph (92), the author talked about the situation of entrepreneurial peasants in Azerbaijan at the end of the 18th century and the first half of the 19th century, statistical materials and legislative acts, archival materials, etc. used and analyzed the general picture of the entrepreneur's village, many main aspects of entrepreneurvillager relations. However, the over-ideologicalization of the materials or interpretation given in the text of the author's doctoral dissertation (93) about the situation of the state peasants in North Azerbaijan at the end

of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century has diverted the attention from the main goal.

Recently, the number of dissertations and other works related to agrarian relations in the national historiography of Azerbaijan is quite small, and this situation cannot be considered normal.

In any case, a brief review of some of these would be appropriate.

A.A. Umayev's monograph (225), which talks about the emergence of capitalist relations in the 19th century in the village of Azerbaijan, mostly focuses on the interpretation of the consequences of the emergence of capitalist relations in the village, but in some cases, without distinguishing between the state and the entrepreneur's village, only in a few specific moments, it is about the owner-employed villagers. talked about the issues in general.

H.N. Hasanov's monograph (95), which makes very valuable and meaningful comparisons on the basis of numerous archival materials and statistical facts related to a number of Azerbaijani accidents, highlights some points related to our research topic. Despite the fact that the author focuses mainly on issues with state peasants, the content and structure of his calculations based on the materials of various archival funds were useful for us.

Certain moments and ideas in the works of K.K. Shukurov (230), L.L. Hasanova (67,94) and G.A. Aliyev (55,56), who have special positions in history science with their valuable and relevant researches in the history of Azerbaijan in recent decades, are also discussed. During the period of study, the entrepreneur in Azerbaijan played an invaluable role in the investigation of issues related to the condition of the peasants and in strengthening a number of our conclusions.

In particular, in the work of K.K. Shukurov, the role of entrepreneurship in Azerbaijan, the issues of using hired labor

of entrepreneurs from South Azerbaijan in landlord and entrepreneurial farms were discussed in detail. It is true that the author's research does not indicate the exact number of entrepreneurs in the entrepreneur village, either in general or in individual cases. The main reason for this, apparently, is the general absence of such numbers.

At the end of our research, talking about the forms of land lease existing in the specially investigated Azerbaijani village, the formation of capitalist relations, we noted that we are in solidarity with the facts and generalized thoughts in the book of L.L.Hasanova, who is known as the author of the only research that has specifically broadly and comprehensively talked about land-lease.

Another representative of Azerbaijani national historiography - G.A.Aliyev, who is known as a researcher of the issues of the emergence and development of commodity-capitalist relations in the economy, including in the countryside, of transport in the period we are talking about. Commenting on many points in Aliyev's works, we have also noted the important impact of the expansion of transport connections on the economic activity of entrepreneurial peasants.

We must say that it is clear from the summary of historiography that there is no special research work about entrepreneur peasants in North Azerbaijan either in the national Azerbaijani historiography or in the former Soviet historiography. These factors determined the definition of the topic of our monograph.

It should be noted that there are a large number of primary source statistical collections (194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 199, 200, 202, 203), periodical press materials, archival documents and other sources related to our research topic, which differ in quality, content, approach to the issue, areas covered, etc. stands out for its diversity. Since in most of them

ideas about the village and villagers are given in general, it is difficult to follow the parts related to entrepreneurial villagers separately.

Collections (73, 143, 149, 151, 182, 201, 212, 213) in which a part of archival materials and other sources used in writing the monograph were printed, especially helped our research.

The monograph relies on a large number of stored documents served as the main source such as State Historical Archive of the Republic of Azerbaijan (ARDTA), the Scientific Archive of the Institute of History named after A.A. Bakikhanov of the Azerbaijan National Academy of Sciences (ANAS TIEA), the State Historical Archive of Russia (RDTA in St. Petersburg) and the State Historical Archive of Georgia (GDTA).

Speaking about the published documents and archive materials, it should be noted separately that in the 2-volume collection “the policy of self-flagellation of Russian Tsarism in Azerbaijan in the 20-60s of the XIX century” (149), which was published in Moscow and St. Petersburg, a lot of documents were collected on the investigated problem of the work.

Speaking of printed documents and archival materials, we should also note that in the 2-volume collection "Colonialization policy of Russian tsarism in Azerbaijan in the 20s-60s of the 19th century" (149) published in Moscow and St. . We have used some of the materials here during the writing of the monograph, as valuable information about the socio-economic situation and other issues in the agriculture of our country at that time was collected in the documents carefully grouped by prominent Soviet historians I.R.Petrushevski and especially N.Bogdanova.

Thus, in Azerbaijani historiography, no historical works have been written that study either the first or the second half

of the 19th century. If there is one that covers the half-century eras of Azerbaijani entrepreneurs and state peasants, we considered it important to write this monograph due to the fact that the socio-economic situation, class struggle and many other topics are discussed separately in them.

The presented monograph can be considered the first step to comprehensively investigate the main issues related to the economic situation, household conditions and social status of the entrepreneurial peasants of Azerbaijan during a large period of the 19th century in both Soviet and Azerbaijani national historiography. On the basis of the results obtained by analyzing and summarizing extensive statistical reports, documentary and archival materials, analyzes were conducted on most problems of the history of entrepreneurial peasants of Azerbaijan at that time, tables were compiled and substantiated, and convincing conclusions were obtained.

While writing the monograph, in addition to sources and materials previously used in the scientific periodical, many factual and documentary materials that have not been used in the scientific periodical or were previously ignored were added to its content.

Compared to the state peasants, the entrepreneur peasants are subjected to double taxation oppression, live in the conditions of heavy feudal exploitation, the area of share lands is extremely small, the gradual decrease of these areas due to various reasons, etc. taking into account, we have tried to focus all the main issues related to the entrepreneurial village and entrepreneurial villagers throughout the monograph.

During the research, the introduction of new statistical, archival and other materials into the scientific circulation for the first time was the focus of attention.

We believe that the monograph itself, as well as most of the issues reflected here, will be positively received by the scientific community and the general readership.

Of course, it would be impossible to dwell in detail on all sides and aspects of this problem, which is not so ordinary and small in itself, within a monograph. Each question given or posed in the monograph can be the subject of a separate study in terms of the wealth of events and the abundance of available materials. Therefore, we considered it important to keep our main focus on the most basic and important points of our research topic, and at the same time to avoid certain issues that we have already commented and analyzed in our previous studies on the topic.

Chapter I. Forms of land use of entrepreneurial peasants in Azerbaijan after the Russian occupation

I.I. New period of colonial policy of tsarist Russia in Azerbaijan

In 1827 Yermolov was removed from the administration of the Caucasus. I.F. Paskevich replaced him as chief manager, under whom in the late 20s. 19th century a new period of colonial policy of tsarist Russia in the Transcaucasus began.

If before this Burden, Transcaucasia was considered by tsarism, mainly from a military-strategic point of view, as a springboard in the struggle against Iran and Turkey, now the tsarist government began to make attempts to economically develop the region.

The new period of the colonial policy of tsarism in Transcaucasia was determined by two factors: the growth of Russian industry, especially textile industry, and the strengthening of Russia's position in Transcaucasia. According to Tugan-Baranovsky, the import of raw cotton and paper yarn to Russia since the mid-20s. by the end of the 60s. 19th century increased almost tenfold. By the beginning of the 50s. Russia was ranked fifth in the world in terms of the number of spindles.

The growth of the Russian cotton industry was noted by Marx and Engels, who closely followed the state of affairs in Russia. Russian manufacturers were in a difficult position. The domestic market, fettered by serfdom, was very narrow and did not satisfy the needs of domestic industry. The European markets were dominated by cheap goods of English and French industry. Under these conditions, the eyes of industrialists and merchants inevitably turned to Transcaucasia. Brilliant successes of Russian weapons in the

Russo-Iranian war of 1826-1828. and the Russian-Turkish war of 1828-1829, which meant that the annexationist plans of Turkey and Iran and the British colonialists standing behind them failed completely, and the Transcaucasus was reliably protected from foreign invaders, also stimulated attempts to develop the Transcaucasus economically.

Representatives of the Russian bourgeoisie now began to pay attention to Transcaucasia as an object of economic exploitation. Transcaucasia is reliably protected from the encroachment of Iran and Turkey, and no one and nothing threatens the industrialist and merchant here - the Russian manufacturers hoped for this.

Already in 1829, Prince L. B. Golitsyn put forward a project to form a joint-stock company for the improvement and development of sericulture in the Transcaucasus. Justifying his proposal, Golitsyn pointed out: "The former distrust of this region can no longer be a reason to keep Russian capitalists ... The current rule of Field Marshal Count Paskevich-Erivansky has silenced everywhere. The tranquility of Georgia after the last two so brilliantly ended wars fully ensures the reliability of commercial enterprises here and the profitable consumption of large capitals. (92,46).

Prince Golitsyn's voice did not sound lonely. The question of the economic "conquest" of Transcaucasia became the subject of attention of government circles and the press.

In this regard, such documents appeared as the "Review of Asian Peoples and States, compiled for Tsarevich Alexander by Timkovsky, Titov and Maltsev." The authors of the document stated that if at one time the Transcaucasus was of interest as a strategic base, then after the Turkmanchay and Adrianople peaces, the Caucasus is "surrounded on all sides by the ocean of Russian rule" and since then it has been of interest to Russia in a completely different way, namely: "

Three main benefits are presented for our fatherland: 1. enrichment with precious products of the Transcaucasian regions, improvement of manufactory products, which these products can serve as the basis for; hence the spread of trade with Upper and Central Asia, Persia, the shores of the Black and Marmara Seas; 2. the creation in the mountains of a new class of consumers for our coarse products, contemporary with the progress of education and luxury among the mountaineers; 3. political benefit—acquisition of fresh forces” (92,46).

In connection with the interest that appeared in government circles in the economic development of Transcaucasia, here by the beginning of the 30s. 19th century An official for special assignments under the Ministry of Finance, Pelchinsky, was sent on a mission to find out the possibilities for expanding trade ties with the Transcaucasus. The latter carefully familiarized himself with the situation, after which he made a big statement in the press, urging the Russian merchants to take trade with Transcaucasia into their own hands. “The successes of our manufactories,” wrote Pelchinsky, with the beneficial assistance of the government, have become so important in recent years that, in order to satisfy our own needs, there is still a significant excess of manufactory products that need to find a source abroad. European markets, for many reasons, do not offer profitable sales for our manufactories. Now the Russian merchants must turn all their efforts to spreading trade with the Asian peoples ... all the Asian markets that Russia separates from the European peoples, we must believe that, as it were, a privilege for Russian manufactured goods, bestowed by geographical location and political relations (92,47).

At the same time, it should be noted that Transcaucasia aroused the interest of the tsarist government

not only as a market for finished products of Russian industry, but also as a profitable and promising raw material base.

In 1827, the memorandum of the Minister of Finance Kankrin, submitted to Nicholas I, said: “Not without reason, the Transcaucasian provinces can be called our colony, which should bring very important benefits to the state by the products of southern climates” (92,47).

The view of the Transcaucasus as a colony immediately brought to the attention of the government two complex, closely related questions. It was necessary to resolve the issue of the system of government in Transcaucasia. We also had to work on creating a stable and strong social base, with the help of which it would be possible to suppress the resistance of the masses of the people to colonial oppression and intensify the exploitation of the region.

The system of administration in Transcaucasia did not correspond to the new tasks of the colonial policy of tsarism. Already in April 1830, Paskevich made a presentation, pointing out the need for a radical transformation of this system. Senators Mechnikov and Kutaisov, who at that time were inspecting the Transcaucasian Territory, also joined Paskevich's opinion. Criticizing the system of administration in Transcaucasia, both Paskevich and the senators saw salvation from all evils in the introduction of a uniform system of administration in Transcaucasia, built on the same principles as the administration of internal Russian provinces.

“It is necessary,” Paskevich wrote, “by a general order to stop evil at the base ... Turning to the actual civil government and considering all the means to correct it, I find the best and most effective is the introduction in all the Transcaucasian provinces of the Russian form of government and laws (149,263).

It was on this principle that Paskevich, together with the senators, based the draft of a new system for governing

the Transcaucasian Territory. The question of a reliable social support in Transcaucasia, raised in the Paskevich-Mechnikov-Kutaisov project, received more complete and somewhat different coverage in a document known as Special Assumptions for the Transcaucasian Territory. "Special Assumptions..." were presented to the Tsar in the early 1930s. Nicholas I ordered that they be sent to Warsaw for consideration by Paskevich, who in 1831 was appointed commander-in-chief of the tsarist troops in Poland. Paskevich made a number of remarks, and in May 1833 "Special Assumptions ...", along with other documents related to the transformation of the management system in Transcaucasia, were considered in the department of laws of the State Council (92,47).

Criticizing the existing system of governance in Transcaucasia, the author of "Special Assumptions ..." pointed out that, due to its imperfection, "the region does not give the state real income and requires more costs than it brings." In order to make the region useful, the author spoke of the need for a radical transformation of the system of governance of Transcaucasia on the principles of its complete equalization with the administration operating in the empire, because, according to the author, "only those acquired provinces that are governed in the same way, by the same laws, have significant benefits just money." But the author was not limited to the proposal to reorganize the management system. Understanding that it must be based on a certain social foundation, the author, recommending to the government "the necessary political measures for the formation of the Transcaucasian region", proposed a whole series of measures through which tsarism would create the social base it needed so much and carry out the tasks of colonial policy.

The author found the key to solving the problem in the planting of the Russian nobility in Transcaucasia. It was they, "the natural Russian nobility, devoted to the throne of their sovereigns," who, in the author's opinion, should have been the decisive social force, the pillar of tsarism; in the absence of the Russian nobility, the author saw the reason that the government still did not have "a firm and unshakable support of its well-being" in Transcaucasia. The author proposed distributing all the confiscated estates, inhabited and uninhabited lands, and in the event that they were not enough, then part of the state-owned, Russian military and civil officials, but only to those who had established themselves as a faithful servant of the government.

In order to ensure the material well-being of future landowners and thereby increase their zeal for the royal service, it was proposed in "Special Assumptions..." and the provision of material assistance for transfer to Transcaucasia, to prohibit the division of the estate between the heirs, except in cases where the estate is located in different villages.

The section "Special Assumptions ..." concerning the establishment of the Russian nobility in Transcaucasia, found the full support of Paskevich, who only objected to the resettlement of Russian serfs in Transcaucasia.

But pinning their main hopes on the "natural Russian nobility", the tsarist colonialists could not but understand that without local feudal lords they would hardly be able to successfully rob and oppress the peoples of Transcaucasia, among them the Azerbaijani people. The view of local feudal lords as an instrument of government policy was rather frankly expressed by Paskevich. Joining the opinion of the author of "Special Assumptions ..." on the need for "the establishment of the Mohammedan nobility", he quite frankly hinted that without the support of local feudal lords, it would hardly be possible to successfully exploit the region. The

establishment of the Mohammedan nobility, - Paskevich argued, "necessarily useful", because "it is impossible that the whole people, attached to the state, constituted a lower class" (149,283).

The tsarist administrators, however, were compelled to contend with the adversarial stance of certain segments of the feudal elite toward tsarist rule. This necessitated a deliberate strategy to exclude the hostile or unreliable faction of the local feudal lords from the newly "established" nobility. Instead, they prioritized incorporating individuals who had demonstrably proven their loyalty and reliability through commendable service to the imperial administration.

Princely dignity, according to the author of "Special Assumptions ...", should have complained to members of the former khan's families, but not to everyone, but "by the faces." Beks, agalars and sultans who had talags from the Persian shahs and khans, as well as those who did not have them, but could prove their dignity "up to the third generation in the ascending line", should have received noble dignity.

Having become acquainted with the goals and methods of inspections organized by the government to determine the rights of Cuban feudal lords to own villages, one can easily imagine what was hidden behind the requirement to grant the nobility "to each according to the analysis" (149,284).

Carefully filtering the composition of local feudal lords in order to protect the ranks of the newly created nobility from the penetration of hostile and unreliable elements - such was the meaning of the requirement to award princely and noble rank "by face" and to each "by analysis". The desire to infuse into the ranks of the newly created "Mohammedan nobility" people tested in their loyalty to tsarism was reflected in the proposal of the author of "Special Assumptions ..." to raise to the nobility those who deserved the ranks "giving nobility".

The author of "Special Assumptions ..." also touched upon the issue of land rights of local feudal lords. He recognized the presence in the Muslim provinces of "immovable property" - ownership of estates and, proceeding from this, suggested that the owners of "immovable property" to confirm their rights present evidence that could be of two kinds; 1) deeds from the previous owners and 2) prescription of possession, limited by the time of acquisition of the area. But recognizing the existence of "immovable property" in Azerbaijan, the author did not extend this concept to all categories of feudal landed property. He drew a dividing line between tiyul and mulk, although he did not use these terms. Only the owners of mulks, in the case of presenting one of the two abovementioned proofs, can be recognized as the owners of their estates. As for the Tiyuldars, the question was raised differently with respect to them. Article 72 of the "Special Assumptions..." stated that "magal naibs and other officials who had the right to own estates tied to their title, should lose their estate with the abolition of the title" (149,285).

It seems that the author stood on the point of view of the expediency of eliminating tiyul land ownership. It seems to us that such a formulation of the question would come into irreconcilable contradiction with the idea of the very same author of "Special Assumptions ..." about the need to create a "Mohammedan nobility."

Indeed, when proposing to create a "Mohammedan nobility", the author did not divide the Azerbaijani feudal lords into Mulkdars and Tiyuldars. It was proposed to include the Agalars in the nobility, who were usually considered by the government as "managers of estates." The author adhered to another criterion - the political reliability of this or that feudal lord. Standing up for the organization of the "Muslim nobility", he understood that only by strengthening the material well-being of the feudal lords, one can count on their

faithful service to tsarism. Since he considered it necessary to create a “Mohammedan nobility” with the inclusion of all feudal lords loyal to tsarism, regardless of whether they were tiyuldars or mulkdars, he could not be a supporter of the confiscation of the lands of all tiyuldars (92,53).

Therefore, it seems to us that the denial of the property rights of the Tiyuldars was intended to untie the hands of the government and make it possible to “cleanse” the ranks of the Tiyuldars from unreliable and hostile elements.

So, we see that in the early 30s. 19th century plans arose to create in the Transcaucasus, and in particular in Azerbaijan, a strong and reliable social support in the person of the "Russian nobility".

On the question of the course of government policy towards local feudal lords in the projects put forward, we observe strong fluctuations and collisions of two trends: one is aimed at the elimination of tiyul land ownership (the Paskevich-Mechnikov-Kutaysov project), and the other is towards the use of local feudal lords as a social support tsarism, and they were given only a secondary place. This alliance with them must be secured by the recognition of their property rights (“Special Assumptions ...”, approved by Paskevich).

Let us consider how the relationship between tsarism and local feudal lords developed in the late 1920s and early 1930s. XIX century, how the land policy of tsarism was carried out in practice.

Russo-Qajarian War of 1826-1828 was characterized by a wide confiscation of land holdings of feudal lords who had gone over to the side of Iran, or simply politically unreliable. As a result, a significant number of estates in the Karabakh, Shirvan, Shemakha, Talysh and Quba provinces were transferred to the treasury.

However, soon after the end of the war, the tsarist government changed its anger to mercy. It went to meet the wishes of the chief executive. Trying to strengthen his social support, on July 30, 1830, Nicholas I issued a rescript addressed to the chief administrator Paskevich, in which he announced the return of all estates confiscated to the treasury, with the exception of those that had already been the final order of the king.

The rescript stated:

"1. All in general, without trial, exiled from this region to Siberia and other places for treason, bad intention against the Russian government and for political reasons, return to their former residence and, together with the most merciful forgiveness, return to them the estates taken from them in the position in which they are now located , without any remuneration for the past time, presenting them to use them on the same basis; 2. The estates that came into the treasury after those who fled abroad and after the traitors who were executed by death OR died in exile should be returned to the families left after them or the closest heirs in the position in which they are now "(92,54).

The rescript of July 13, 1830 meant in fact the recognition by the government of the hereditary character of *tijuls*. However, since the feudal lords were not considered landowners, their position continued to be unstable, and they could lose their land at any time.

Based on the above rescript, most of the confiscated estates were returned. In the order of the administrator of the "Muslim provinces and the Talysh Khanate", given in 1837, the chief administrator stated that "most of the estates at different times were returned according to their ownership, on the basis of the order of my governor and my own."

As a result of these measures, the vast majority of confiscated estates were returned to their former owners or their heirs and relatives.

During the 1830s, land allotments held by feudal lords prior to Azerbaijan's annexation by Russia continued, as before, to be transferred to their heirs. This is confirmed by the materials of the Baku Bek Commission and other sources. From the materials of the Baku Bek Commission it can be seen that most of the land that belonged to the feudal lords in the 60s. XIX century, was in the possession of their ancestors even before the accession of Azerbaijan to Russia. There is no doubt that some part of them passed to the owners by inheritance after 1842, when a sharp turning point occurred in the land policy of tsarism, as will be discussed in detail below. But it is also indisputable that a certain part of these lands was inherited by their owners before 1840 (92,55).

The tsarist authorities, not de jure recognizing the Tiyuldars as owners of the lands, their possessions, recognized them as de facto owners, since the lands were inherited, and sometimes this transfer was even officially sanctioned by the authorities. Thus, in practice, the land policy of tsarism departed from theoretical guidelines. Let us cite from the materials of the Bek commission several examples of the inheritance of tiyuls, which the feudal lords owned even before the annexation of Azerbaijan to Russia. In 1823, when the tsarist authorities were making an inventory of the villages of the Karabakh province, the village of Khoruzlu belonged to Mammad Alibek according to the khan's talaga. After the death of Mammad Ali-bek (the year is not specified), the village passed to his sons, Kagraman-bek and Farzali-bek. In 1852, the sons of Kagraman-bek and Farzali-bek acted as owners of Khoruzlu (92,56).

Thus, for the period 1823-1852. the village passed to the second generation of heirs. At the same time, it is very

characteristic that the case does not contain even the slightest hint that the inheritance was confirmed by the authorities. "If it were so, then there is no doubt that Hussein-bek and Abbas-bek, who proved their ownership rights to the village of Khoruzlu before the bek commission, would not hesitate to report this.

Consequently, as we see in this case, the lands were often inherited without confirmation from the royal authorities. The fact that the above example was not an exception in this respect is confirmed by many protocols of the Bek commission.

In 1823, during the description of the Karabakh province, part of the village of Korkhi-Jan belonged to Ahmed-Aga. By 1852, these lands had already passed into the hands of his heirs, the sons of Jafar-bek, Rustam-bek and Kerim-bek and their nephews, Ahmed Agha and Bakhshalibek. The village of Kyalal-Odin and 4 camps belonged in 1823 to lieutenant Safar-Ali-bek. In 1852, all this estate had already passed by inheritance to his three sons. The number of such examples could be greatly increased (92,56).

The transfer of tiyuls by inheritance without the obligatory confirmation of ownership rights by the authorities meant in practice the strengthening of the land rights of the tiyuldars, since, in khan times, tiyuls, as already indicated, were inherited only with the approval of the khan or his successor.

However, due to the fact that the tsarist government did not officially recognize the ownership rights of the Tiyuldars, this was strongly of a very relative and unstable nature: the government at any time could carry out a mass seizure of land property, removing the "managers" from the "management" of the estates, which it tried to do, as we will see, in 1841. Thus, which appeared in the late 20s and early 30s. 19th century projects for the elimination of tiyul landownership

did not affect the land policy of tsarism, which still supported private feudal land ownership.

However, at the same time, questions about the transformation of the Transcaucasian region and the land rights of the Azerbaijani feudal lords continued to be considered. The Paskevich-Mechnikov-Kutaisov project and "Special Assumptions ..." were presented to Nicholas I in 1831 and, apparently, the tsar was so interested that he, passing them on May 22, 1831 for consideration by the State Council, demanded from the latter conclusion " as soon as possible and, if possible, before the start of vacation days. (i.e. until June 14)" (149,259).

But the project lay dormant for a long time, and only in 1833 did the Department of Laws of the State Council issue its conclusion on the assumptions presented, which boiled down to the fact that it basically accepted the PaskevichMechnikov-Kutaisov project. The general meeting of the council agreed with the opinion of the department of laws, and for the final judgment on the project, it was decided to form a "special committee" of the ministers: military, financial, internal affairs and justice. It was meant, if necessary, to invite for the necessary explanations the senators, Mechnikov and Kutaisov, who had audited Transcaucasia several years ago and were familiar with the state of affairs in the region. The "special committee" was supposed to submit its conclusion to the State Council. In accordance with this decision, the Committee on the Structure of the Transcaucasian Territory was established in 1833, and Alexander Ivanovich Chernyshov, one of the prominent dignitaries of the reign of Nicholas, was appointed chairman (149,259).

Having become the head of the Committee, Chernyshov led it permanently and gained great influence in matters of Transcaucasian politics. After two years of work,

the Committee presented a project similar in its foundations to the Paskevich-Mechnikov-Kutaisov project: it was assumed that the provincial, regional and district administrations would be created on the model of the corresponding imperial institutions "with only some local changes"; Imperial laws were to be introduced throughout Transcaucasia. True, local laws and customs were also taken into account.

The Committee's draft was discussed in the State Council. At this time, Baron Rosen happened to be in the capital, who was also invited to take part in the discussion of the project. Baron Rosen, Paskevich's successor as head of the Caucasus, was an ardent opponent of the introduction in the Transcaucasian region of a system of government based on the principles of the Paskevich-Mechnikov-Kutaisov Project. In a report on the administration of the Caucasus for three years (1832-1835), Rosen, analyzing the situation in Transcaucasia, came to the conclusion that it did not favor a radical reform of the administration system and therefore strongly objected to the immediate introduction of administration in Transcaucasia on an all-imperial basis, arguing that this not only will not bring benefits to the government, but, on the contrary, can lead to harmful consequences (92,57).

In his defense of the governance system in Transcaucasia, Rosen sought to depict the situation in Azerbaijan in an overly favorable light. He specifically praised the administrative systems in the provinces of Shirvan, Sheki, Karabakh, and Talish, presenting them in a positive and commendable manner.

To make minor changes to the existing system of government and thereby gradually prepare the

Transcaucasian Territory for the introduction in it in the future of the system of government operating in the central provinces - such was Rosen's program.

Local feudal lords found in the person of Rosen an active and zealous defender of their rights. Rosen proceeded from the need to create a strong social base in the country as a prerequisite for the successful colonial exploitation of Azerbaijan by the tsarism. In the report mentioned above, Rosen, drawing the prospects for the transformation of Azerbaijan into a rich colony, pointed out in no uncertain terms that for this it is necessary to "secure property", that is, to protect the property rights of the feudal lords. How important the chief administrator attached to the registration of the ownership rights of local feudal lords can be judged by his statement that without determining the rights of the beks, "any transformation in the Administration of these provinces will not bring the desired benefit" (92,58). In other words, Rosen considered hopeless attempts to strengthen the colonial exploitation of Azerbaijan without concluding a lasting alliance with local feudal lords, secured by the legal recognition of their property rights.

Proceeding from this, Rosen in his practical activities tried in every possible way to protect and protect the rights of local feudal lords. We have already spoken about the decisions of the Committee of Ministers in the Beglyarov case. The latter, dissatisfied with this decision, filed a petition in the name of Rosen, petitioning for the approval of the estate for them on the basis of hereditary property.

Rosen was very sympathetic to the request of the Beglyarovs. Protecting their interests, Rosen even found it necessary to enter with a special petition addressed to the king. He argued that Yermolov's conclusion that there was no right to inherit land in the Karabakh province was erroneous, that there was a full right of ownership of land (sale, division),

and the Beglyarovs should have inherited the estate on the basis of property rights.

Defending the property rights of the Beglyarovs, Rosen, in their person, defended the interests of the entire ruling class of Azerbaijan. Just as zealously he defended the interests of the beks, meliks and agalars in 1837, when the issue of the release of the Armenian peasants from the administration of duties in favor of the Muslim landowners was raised. This proposal was made by the civil governor of Tiflis, Prince Palovandov (Palovandashvili) back in 1835, but Rosen, standing guard over the interests of the feudal lords, did not give him a move, kept silent. So it lay without movement until 1837, when, in connection with the arrival of the king in the Caucasus, the attorneys of ten Armenian villages belonging to the agalars of the Kazakh distance filed a petition in the name of Nicholas I. Peasant societies, complaining about the cruel oppression of the agalars, asked to be released from power feudal lords and enrolled in the state department.

The petition of the peasants was submitted for consideration to a commission established to deal with complaints filed in the name of the king. At that time, a commission of Senator Gan (which will be discussed in detail below) was already working in Tiflis, who was unfriendly to the local feudal lords. It is not surprising that Gan liked Palovandov's proposal, and the latter, encouraged by the support, submitted his previous proposal for consideration by the commission we have already mentioned. She submitted Palovandov's proposal for consideration by Nicholas I, who imposed a resolution: to execute if the chief administrator considers it fair and possible (92,59).

Palovandov's proposal was to confiscate the estates of the beks and agalars, on whose lands the Armenian peasants lived. At the same time, he referred to the law forbidding

Mohammedans to own Christians as serfs. The Beks were supposed to receive compensation, and the estates of the Agalars were subject to confiscation without any compensation.

Needless to say, Palovandov was least of all interested in the fate of the peasants exploited by the Agalars and Boks. The demagogic statement about the need to protect the rights of the peasants was for Palovandov and Gan standing behind him only a convenient screen behind which was hidden the desire to increase the revenues of the fiscal. Rosen rightly saw in Palovandov's proposal the beginning of the implementation of Ganov's program - the mass confiscation of the lands of local feudal lords of the "Muslim provinces" - and wrote to the tsar a submission that was not only a response to Palovandov's proposal, but also Rosen's program setting, more precisely, a program on the issue of land rights of Azerbaijani feudal lords, recommended by Rosen to the government.

The former chief manager touched on "some" issues very carefully, did not put an end to the i, but nevertheless outlined the general contours of the policy regarding the land rights of local feudal lords. Rosen began by rejecting Palovandov's original thesis, arguing that there was no serfdom in Georgia Christians from Muslims, and in "Muslim provinces there is no serfdom, therefore, the law prohibiting Muslims from owning Christians under serfdom is unacceptable here.

Of greatest interest to us is Rosen's analysis of the land rights of Azerbaijani feudal lords. Recognizing the presence in Azerbaijan of hereditary and family estates, acquired by purchase and award, Rosen categorically stated that any violation of the rights of the Mulkdars is unacceptable, because the inviolability of property was "observed everywhere." Having taken the Mulkdars under his

protection, Rosen then proceeded to consider the land rights of the Tiyuldars. He did not speak about the inviolability of their rights, but the text of the document testifies to his sympathy for the Tiyuldars, the desire to let the government understand that the violation of the rights of the Tiyuldars will displease the latter. the right was hereditary. Considering it possible to remove them from the "management" of the villages, Rosen added that this could be done only by ensuring the existence of the Agalars, so as not to make them harmful to the government. Rosen advised to exercise the same caution in relation to the land rights of the beks-tiyuldars, pointing out that the government avoided infringing on their rights, the tiyuldars, accustomed to considering themselves the owners of their estates, will grumble if they lose their income.

Rosen's presentation runs like a red thread through the idea of the need to reckon with the property rights of the Tiyuldars. And in the mouth of the former chief administrator, who considered local feudal lords as the social support of tsarism, the call to reckon with the property rights of the Tiyuldars sounded like a call for their protection and recognition.

Let us return, however, to the fate of the plans for the transformation of the Transcaucasian Territory. Korf reports that when Rosen was invited to participate in the discussion of the project, he refused to express his final opinion about it, citing the fact that he had heard "about the essence of the proposed transformation" for the first time and without preliminary consideration on the spot fails to give "an unmistakable and quite satisfactory explanation"; this, however, did not prevent him from speaking negatively about the project as a whole, even without "considerations on the spot."

Korf's message unveils Rosen's strategic approach: a calculated effort to postpone an immediate decision on the project by citing a lack of familiarity with its details. Rosen aimed to shift the resolution of the matter to the Transcaucasian region, where he could leverage his position to more effectively obstruct the project's advancement. In the end, in 1837, in order to resolve the doubts that arose in the Committee about the organization of the main administration, it was decided to send a special commission to Transcaucasia, consisting of representatives of four ministries, chaired by a senator. The commission was supposed to consider on the spot all the judgments about the transformation of the Transcaucasian Territory that arose both in the center and on the spot, and then submit its conclusion to the Committee for consideration. Soon the commission left for Tiflis. It was headed by Baron Gan, who then began his brilliant, but very quickly and sadly ended public career.

A vivid and expressive characterization of Gan was given by his contemporary Baron Korf. Pavel Ivanovich Gan came from wealthy German (Courland) nobles. In his youth, he tested his strength in military service, the diplomatic field, and then, already in his years, he entered the University of Heidelberg, where he studied science for several years. After graduating from university, Gan became interested in traveling, traveled around Western Europe, Greece, Turkey, and, having thus gained a fair amount of necessary and unnecessary information, returned to Russia to test his strength again in the field of a statesman. "He," Korf writes about Ghana, "knew a lot in theory, but was very little familiar with practice, and his theory itself revolved more in the sphere of Western ideas that are not characteristic of us. Having studied in Germany and served exclusively in the diplomatic sector in the Ostsee region, he was very ignorant

of Russian laws, Russian life, the forms and details of our business life; our language itself knew very imperfectly, as a foreigner who learned it in his mature years and in general, in the whole direction of his mind, was more capable of diplomatic or court activities than of practical administration, or of legislative considerations” (92,62) .

This Courland German, barely fluent in Russian, fell to the lot of the role of the head of the commission, designed to resolve the issue of the transformation of Transcaucasia. Korf testifies that Gan did not know the Russian language, Russian life, Russian reality well. He could be even less familiar with the Caucasus. But all these shortcomings of the learned baron were more than covered by one of his virtues, which was so highly valued in the reign of Nicholas: he, according to Korf, had extraordinary dexterity and, most importantly, he always knew how to please the highest and strongest. Before he had time to appear in the big world, he attracted the attention of the emperor, unexpectedly for everyone, he was promoted to privy councilors and senators, and was soon sent to Transcaucasia.

In June 1837, the commission headed by Gan arrived in Tiflis and immediately set to work, beginning to collect various information and besieging the chief manager with all sorts of questions (92,63).

But Ghana, apparently, soon got tired of these studies, and since the government’s position on the issue of transforming the management system was generally quite clear, he decided to develop a transformation project based on the Paskevich-Mechnikov-Kutaysov project, i.e., on the basis of a complete leveling of the management system Transcaucasia and internal provinces of Russia.

What position did Gan take on the question of the land rights of local feudal lords? From the note "A Look at the State of Financial Management in the Muslim Provinces", it

is clear that Gan recognized the right of ownership to only a small part of the feudal lords. In the Sheki, Shirvan, Quba provinces, the Note stated, "there are beks who have rights to use the income from one or many villages, which constitute property called khalisa." As for the tiyuldars, Gan considered them only "managers" of estates, which were granted the right to enjoy some duties from the inhabitants for performing the khan's service. Former rulers, we read in the Note, "gave their favorites or officials instead of a salary one or more villages, i.e. income from those villages, while the official was in office or enjoyed the favor of the khan, but not as an inheritance, which, however, did not prevent these villages from passing to their sons, if the khan's will was, but always with new confirmation" (92,64).

Gan considered all these tiyul lands to be state property, and the peasants - state property. The entire Note is imbued with a spirit of mistrust towards the local feudal lords, a negative attitude towards them.

Despite the fact, the Note emphasized, that after the annexation of Azerbaijan to Russia, the chief administrators continued to "still give state villages to the beks, regardless of the fact that the previous circumstances, as well as the duties of the beks, in return for which the khans gave them such remuneration no longer existed", the beks are ready to betray the government at any opportunity ...

The Note stated that the beks did not justify themselves as guardians of public order. They rob the inhabitants, patronize robbery and theft.

Gan believed that the bulwark of public peace was the community, or, as he said, "municipal administration", which the beks were striving to destroy.

Gan calculated that the "management" of the Beks by the villages was very costly for the Fisk. 82,990 male peasants, "belonging to the khans and beks or given to them

for management on various grounds,” owe almost nothing to the treasury, except for postal service.

Thus, Gan denied the ownership of the land by the majority of Azerbaijani feudal lords.

In the autumn of 1837, amidst the proceedings of the Ghanian Commission, Nicholas I visited Tiflis, dismissed Rosen from his position as Chief Administrator, and appointed Golovin, who fully aligned with Gan’s views on the transformation of the Transcaucasian region. By early 1838, Gan submitted his proposed project for the reorganization of the Transcaucasian Territory to the Committee for review. However, the Committee ultimately rejected the proposal, deeming it insufficiently aligned with the objectives of the tsarist colonial policy. (92,64). The draft was returned to Ghana, which was asked to make amendments to it, together with Golovin, on the basis indicated by the Committee.

Meanwhile, the issue of the land rights of the Azerbaijani feudal lords continued to be considered at the top of the Transcaucasian administration. On April 15, 1839, the Main Administration Council (SGU) discussed a note on the land rights of local feudal lords in the Transcaucasian region. The Council stated that the rights of beks and other owners in Azerbaijan "represent the greatest uncertainty" (92,65). Having considered the land rights of local feudal lords, the Council came to the conclusion that the property of the beks are only lands “granted to them or acquired by empty-handed people and inhabited by themselves, likewise, gardens ... donated, acquired; or by the owners themselves, divorced and settled.” All others: the inhabited lands belonged to peasant communities, which were ruled by the beks, for which they charged certain duties from the inhabitants.

Thus, the Council did not recognize the tiyuldars as land owners. He distinguished between two types of

government - hereditary and temporary. The lands under both types of administration, in the opinion of the Council, were state property, and the state had the right to do with them at its own discretion, that is, in other words, to confiscate.

However, "in order to maintain peace in the Muslim provinces", the Council proposed to determine the land rights of local feudal lords: on the following grounds. Feudal lords who have the right to own land and are allowed to make any legal transactions with them. Lands that are in hereditary management should be assigned to the "managers" on the basis of inheritance law, considering them, however, state and forbidding the "managers" to make any legal transactions with them.

Such lands were not subject to division between the heirs of the "manager", but passed into the "management" of the eldest in the family. The rest of the family members were to be allocated small plots of land for maintenance. If there were no male heirs, the estate was transferred to the state department.

The state retained the right to remove the "manager" "personally from the management of the estate and the use of income" if he did not justify the hopes placed on him.

Judging by the expression "personally", in this case the estate should have been transferred to the "management" of another family member, and not to go to the state department.

The lands that were in the temporary use of the feudal lords were kept by them for life, and then they had to go to the state department. However, the chief authorities of the Transcaucasian Territory were given the right, in agreement with the Ministry of State Property, to transfer such estates on the same rights to the son of the "manager" if he "worthy of it because of his useful influence for the government on the villagers they rule."

The implementation of these proposals of the SGU would mean the recognition of the right of land ownership to only a small part of the local feudal lords. The bulk of the beks, recognized as "managers", would be completely dependent on the government, and part of the "managed" lands would eventually be confiscated to the treasury. The decision of the SGU of April 15, 1839 showed that even at the end: 30s. the Transcaucasian administration considered it necessary: to use local feudal lords in the service of tsarism, while retaining de facto feudal private land ownership, but did not recognize the right of land ownership to the tiyuldars. At the beginning of 1840, Gan and Golovin presented a new project, not much different from the previous one, for the transformation of the administrative and judicial structures of the Transcaucasian Territory, adopted by the Committee and approved by the tsar on April 10, 1840 (92,65). Soon after the implementation of the judicial and administrative reform in early 1841, the tsarist government attempted to confiscate the lands of local feudal lords.

I.2. Entrepreneurial peasant lands

On May 14, 1870, the beginning of implementation of the Peasant Regulations did not cause such a serious change in the situation of entrepreneurial peasants, and indeed it would be naive to expect it. Because the peasants and their interests were considered secondary in the reform (205,29). Despite all their hopes and efforts, entrepreneurial peasants were forced to wait until 1912 for the end of their temporary tax-paying status (140,75-76). This 42-year period had a heavy impact on the economic life and living conditions of entrepreneurial peasants (68,14).

In the post-reform North Azerbaijan countryside, although most of the owner's land was owned by landlords

and landlords, very few of these lands were owned by peasants. Most of the land plots consisted of state or treasury lands.

The lands belonging to the representatives of the high Muslim nobility were historically divided into two parts according to the rules of their use or their purpose: the first was the lands that remained only for their own use by the landlords and lords, and the second, although it belonged to the lords and landlords in terms of ownership, continuously and from generation to generation in those lands. Living and legally considered entrepreneurial peasants (remember the term "subordinate to the landlord" and the "Peasant Statutes" of 1847) were the plots of land used by the peasants and called share lands (140,73-75; 189,931).

When we talk about the problem of share lands of entrepreneurial peasants or peasant lands in North Azerbaijan, we mean the condition of lands of this category and the rules of their use.

As confirmed by many official data from the end of the 19th - beginning of the 20th century, in various regions of Northern Azerbaijan, 70-75% of the peasants used state land, and up to 20-25% of the land owned by private entrepreneurs. However, the analysis of data on individual governorates shows that there are serious differences in terms of the number of entrepreneurial peasants and the area of land they use.

After the reform, the land areas used by peasants were 1103420 tithing in Baku governorate, 944 252 tithing in Yelizavetpol governorate, and 890 692 tithing in Iravan governorate (167,240).

In 1886, an entrepreneur in Baku governorate gave an average of 1 tithing (386,665-668), and in Yelizavetpol gubernia 2 tithing (107,83-85). According to the family census of 1886, it was recorded that there were 64,130

farmsteads of 64,130 peasants in Northern Azerbaijan, 425,831 entrepreneurial peasants, and approximately 480,640 tithing of land, including 438,000 tithing of arable land and 42,639 tithing of non-cultivable land. The fact that more than 92% of the entrepreneurial peasants only owned up to 2 tithing of share land indicated that the peasantry took too much place in the entrepreneurial village and that they had extremely limited opportunities for farming. This meant that all entrepreneurial peasant households, more than 92%, were in a similar situation (203, 105-110; 225,119). 4,479 entrepreneurial peasants (7.15%) living on the farms of 5 tithing, which were considered normal by the tsarist officials for the entrepreneurial peasants of North Azerbaijan and were taken as the normal limit in most agrarian laws adopted after the Russian occupation, to be more precise, between 2 and 5 tithing 30309 people had it. Due to natural growth and other reasons, the further decrease of the indicators related to the lands of this category indicated further limitation of the economic opportunities of the peasant landowners. Finally, the fact that 5,811 entrepreneurial peasants in a total of 861 peasant farms (1.5%) owned more than 5 tithing of land indicated the paucity of more or less secure farms in the entire entrepreneurial village (193,119-120).

If in the first decades after the reform it was possible to talk about the emergence and further development of a new capitalist relationship in the lands belonging to the landlords and gentlemen, it seemed pointless to think about the idea of expressing this opinion about 92% of the entrepreneurial peasantry. Relatively few of the 861 wealthy entrepreneurial peasants, who are considered only the 3rd category of entrepreneurial peasants and have more than 5 tithing of land at their disposal, could use newly created and considered favorable forms of farming. The main reason was that the number of such farms was not so large and a large part of the

work was done by the entrepreneurial peasant himself and with the help of his family members. What was observed from the new capitalist relations in a very small part of such wealthy entrepreneurial peasant farms was the use of hired labor in special cases on the land (mostly during seasonal work).

When discussing the owner-peasant land plot, it is crucial to consider that in the Baku and Yelizavetpol governorates, which were home to 62,600 farms and 425,000 entrepreneurial peasants, this segment of the rural population constituted slightly more than 32% of the total village population. However, the land holdings and other forms of land ownership by these entrepreneurial peasants accounted for less than one-third of the entire land fund (223, 30-31).

Despite the praise of the progress of the country's peasant economy and the livelihood of the population in their reports of the tsar officials (186,322), the real situation was different. The main cause of this situation in entrepreneurial village was tsarism itself and its colonial policy in the South Caucasus. Even bourgeois and Soviet authors who were contemporaries of that period or later acknowledged this aspect. As M.N. Kuchayev, I. Segal, N. Bogdanova and others accepted, despite the fact that the reform is called a peasant reform, its progress and results are focused only on the protection of the property and land rights of the ruling class - landlords and landowners, so the situation in the entrepreneur's village will fundamentally change after the implementation of the reform. It wouldn't be right to think about it. We must say that this idea is very close to the truth and it is difficult to disagree with it.

We should note that this situation did not arise suddenly, and one of the main reasons for this is the use of the benefits provided for landlords and nobles to keep 1/3 of their property and to return to them more than 5 tithing of share lands. By

doing this, they succeeded in leaving more unusable lands planted within the peasant share lands. Near the end of the 19th century, if we divide the peasant share lands among separate categories of peasants, then we witness the following picture: irrigated land areas used by sedentary peasants in Baku governorate were 194,746 tithing, non-irrigated arable land was 311,161 tithing, and all types of land were 978,356 tithing. These numbers were 124,995, 134,585, and 834,187 desyatins in Yelizavetpol governorate, respectively (167,243).

When determining the area and other aspects of peasant share lands, only those in their actual use were taken as a basis. It is a very interesting fact that in some sources we find that the average area of allotment land per peasant's farm was at least 15-16 tithing (27,4,5).

But this happened very rarely, and it mostly belonged to middle-class peasants. According to the statistical research, Yelizavetpol governorate was in the first place in terms of the area of share lands, which consisted of all types of land plots. Iravan, Baku and Tbilisi governorates came next. The last one was the Kutais governorate. Except for the last one, the size of peasant share lands in the rest of the governorates did not differ much from each other (206,254-255).

Although the Peasant Reform of 1870 legalized the provision of at least 5 tens of acres of land to peasants who have reached the age of 15 (190,632), the implementation of this very provision of the law in almost most entrepreneur villages in North Azerbaijan, as mentioned at the beginning of our study, "temporarily obligated relations" »was delayed for ten years under the pretext of staying. However, among all the positive aspects of the Regulation, the most important was clarifying the relationship between the entrepreneur and the peasant, abolishing personal dependence, and giving the peasants the right to privatize their share of land by

purchasing it. Thus, in some places, the Statute legalized that the share lands, which until then were officially considered the private property of landlords and nobles, could be transferred to the hereditary property of the peasants, eliminating the possibility of the landowners to take it from the peasant in any form and combine it with their own property. Even if these lands were not acquired by the entrepreneurial peasants through payment, they remained in them and ensured the same rights of the next generations.

The land holdings of entrepreneurial peasants underwent frequent fluctuations, with a general tendency toward decrease over time. Although the total land area might have increased due to purchases and other factors, this expansion did not translate into a corresponding increase in the land area available per individual within the farm. If, based on the sources of 1897, we witnessed that the land area used by the entrepreneurial peasants of the two provinces was 542,180 tithing on the eve of 1917, this figure was close to 623 thousand tithing, and the land area per peasant was, on average, approximately 2.3 tithes. Apparently, this figure was not very high and indicated that the situation had changed only slightly (58,192).

Thus, the portion of private plots of land directly used by landlords and gentlemen was 2 times more than that of entrepreneurial peasants in Baku governorate, and 3 times more in Yelizavetpol governorate (13,4).

According to the data of 1897, in Yelizavetpol governorate, the land owned by landlords and gentlemen was 446,795 tithing, while in Baku governorate, this figure was 287,257 tithing. In those governorates, the share lands of entrepreneurial peasants were 124,314 and 110,306 tithing, respectively (68,3-4). Thus, the landowners and gentlemen directly owned 440,798 tithing in the Yelizavetpol governorate, and 246,913 tithing in the Baku governorate

(68.4), and the area of the land left in the owners' own use was several times greater than the total area of the share lands given to the peasants. The fact that landlords and landlords leased such land to landless and landless peasants on very harsh terms aggravated the situation of the latter.

According to the Peasant Regulation of May 14, 1870, 110,345 tithing of land belonging to the peasant farm of 40,748 male entrepreneurs in the Baku governorate had to be confiscated. Here, the least area was the share of Javad district (2149 tithing), and the most area was the share of Guba district (21244 tithing) (89,439). In the mentioned period, the main features that determined the image of the entrepreneur village were a lack of land and, in general, landlessness.

May 14, 1870, according to the Peasant Regulations, although the entrepreneurial peasants were legally and formally freed from dependence on their lords, in fact economic dependence on landlords continued for a long time. This dependence of the entrepreneurial peasants was first of all manifested in their use of the land of their entrepreneurs as shareholding land in an earlier, but slightly modified form. After the peasant reform, the situation in the entrepreneurial village of Northern Azerbaijan in the period of almost half a century meant that the lifestyle of the peasants worsened, they became landless and went bankrupt.

In fact, the conditions for the implementation of the Peasant Regulation were even more difficult than in the central governorates. It was repeatedly acknowledged by the government officials that the implementation of the Peasant Regulation in the village of North Azerbaijan could not immediately fulfill the expectations and even created some new problems. Speaking about the importance of the reform, I.N. Kuchayev once again noted that efforts were made to protect the interests of the representatives of the Muslim elite and other categories of landowners, and that serious attention

was not given to the interests and problems of the peasants (205, 69). However, the abolition of the formal personal dependence of the latter, provision of land, and the solution of the form and amount of taxes should ensure a direct improvement of their situation.

If the main goal of the implementation of the peasant statute was declared to be the provision of 5 tithing shares of land to entrepreneurial peasants, even if it was specifically indicated that all men over the age of 15 would be given 5 tithing land shares (190, 632), all this was not a solution to the problem. Because the few decades after the reform were mostly characterized by the fact that its main provisions remained on paper. The first and main reason for the absence of significant changes in peasant land ownership in the post-reform period should be sought in the reform decree itself. Thus, in the reform, allowing landowners to keep at least 1/3 of the land suitable for cultivation (190,633) led to the fact that landowners had the opportunity to keep the best part of their property in this name. Even if the main provisions of the peasant reform, including the article on share land, were to be implemented, they would have at best less, and not so suitable or unsuitable land plots for cultivation. This directly clouded the prospects of providing land to entrepreneurial peasants.

However, after the reform, leaving aside the question of the peasants buying share lands, allowing the plots of land they used to be cut and taken and returned to the landlords was just a formality. Thus, multi-land ownership was a very rare thing in Northern Azerbaijan, whether it was a treasure or an entrepreneurial peasant. The average land holdings of entrepreneur peasants in Yelizavetpol and Baku gubernias is 2.2-2.3 tithing (107,83).

Peasant reform meant that the share of land used by the peasant would remain in his use but in a slightly different way. In the reform, it was allowed to bring the amount of

share lands less than 5 tithing determined by law to the norm in the actual use of the peasant. This could happen when the landlords actually owned more than 1/3 of the total land taken with the peasant share lands.

Despite the fact that in the Peasant Statutes of 1847 and the Peasant Reform of May 14, 1870, each man who has reached the age of 15 and who lives on the entrepreneur's land and is officially called a "subordinate of the landowner" is to be allocated 5 tithing of share land, in the first ones, the ways of implementation of this provision were specified in concrete terms. was not defined as "forgotten" and later became an insignificant thing that remained on paper, and the latter, unlike its predecessors, showed concrete ways to realize the issue of providing the peasants with share land, and the financial conditions of entrepreneurial peasants bought them their share land by paying them the presence of serious practical obstacles on the way, on the one hand, and the long-term resistance of landlords to the issue of buying the peasants' share lands, on the other hand, finally, the colonial government, which had achieved "peace and cooperation" with the representatives of the higher Muslim elite in the region for several decades, On the other hand, the fact that he was not in a hurry to implement the Sasnam made it an unattainable dream for the peasants of this category to turn their share lands into their own property.

From the analysis of the family lists of 1886, it became clear that the area of share lands of entrepreneurial peasants in Yelizavetpol governorate was slightly less than 2 tithing on average, and more than 2 tithing in Baku governorate (107, 85, 88).

Although most of the research on the situation of the northern Azerbaijani village and agricultural production issues after the peasant reform sometimes expressed some contradictory ideas about peasant land ownership, including

land ownership of entrepreneurial peasants, it can be concluded that entrepreneurial peasant land ownership existed in two forms. The first group of them was the private land, which the enterprising peasants, who were extremely minority, received by notarial order even before the reform and somewhat after the reform. The second group of Lands was the part of the land owned by the peasants living on these lands in the right of share land, although according to the traditions existing in Northern Azerbaijan for many decades was officially owned by landowners. The peasants, who did not have the right to sell and donate such share lands, were actually their actual users, and this could not be the case otherwise, when the vast majority of landowners – beys did not have the desire and ability to independently manage their farms even in the first post-reform period. Therefore, in our opinion, by including issues about peasant share lands in our research, we contribute to the analysis and clarification of many issues related to entrepreneurial peasant land ownership.

However, it is another matter that, starting from the reform until 1917, most of the land acquired by the peasants through charter documents and other acquisitions took place at the expense of this share of the Land Fund.

In general, one of the main aspects of the study of peasant-share land ownership is that different sources sometimes indicate different figures about the area of such lands (especially those belonging to the Baku province). For example, the materials of the historical archives of the Republic of Georgia contain more than 105,600 tithing of land plots used by entrepreneurs of Baku province and 317,423 tithing in Yelizavetpol province. In Segal's calculations, slightly different indicators (96366 tithing and 317237 tithing) were given. As you can see, the main differences arise around the figures belonging to the Baku

province. So I.96366 tithing of this figure on the Segal province, S.L.Avaliani indicated 110315 tithing, and materials from the funds of the State Historical Archive of the Republic of Azerbaijan indicated 51216 tithing, not including the indicators of the Javad and Guba districts(22,15-16; 84,68; 210,71).

In our opinion, the variety of figures for the latter has not been so serious. Using other sources, these indicators were closer to each other when the indicators of the mentioned 2 accidents were included in the indicators of ARDTA. However, in each case, the reasons for the emergence of this difference should be investigated. In our opinion, the most serious reason for this, besides the mistakes made by technicians and officials, is the difficulties that prevented the final accurate calculations due to the complete completion of the work on the settlement of land, which began on the eve of the preparation for the reform, but was not completed in the first decade of the XX century.

The first reason for such a small area of land used by the peasants of the owners was the size of the land ownership of the bey and landlord and the fact that many times more land remained in their use than in the use of their own peasants. For example, according to the estimates of 1897, the land ownership of the land of 1211 entrepreneurs consisted of 246913 tithing lands, and in the Yelizavetpol province of 2744 entrepreneurs-446795 tithing Estates. Very few of these lands are used for rent, use of hired labor, etc. although used in forms, a large part was either in disuse or used in very negligent form (193,69,87). An analysis of these figures on governorates and individual accidents sometimes makes it possible to obtain significantly different data. Based on the indicators of this source, it is known that the lands used by entrepreneurial peasants in Baku province were less than the lands of landowners – beys and other private property

categories (124943 and 285257 tithing) 161314 tithing or more than twice - 52.68%. However, the situation from Yelizavetpol province was different from this point of view. The share lands of the entrepreneur peasants (317236 tithing) were only 440795 tithing or 123559% less than the share lands of the private property category (29.82 tithing) (- F.B.).

From this point of view, the review of accident indicators allowed to observe both interesting and different cases from the average. In the Baku governorate, the area of these lands was approximately close to each other in only two cases (27145 tithing in the use of entrepreneurial peasants in Goychay district, and 30814 tithing of the second party and 50310 tithing and 57491 tithing in Guba district respectively), in Javad district this difference was 7 times (10472 - 71857 tithing against 71857 tithing), 3.5 times less in Lankaran district (60665 tithing against 16262) tithing, and 39% less in Shamakhi district (137,62-63).

The indicators of Yelizavetpol governorate accidents were significantly different from this point of view. So, although analysis and comparisons show that in only 2 cases, the land used by entrepreneurial peasants is even more than the private land plots of landlords (they were more than 3 times in Jabrayil district, and more than 1.8 times in Gazakh district), the situation in the remaining cases is approximately the same as in Baku governorate (137,62). In terms of provision of land, the lowest indicator was recorded in Nukha district. Here, the entrepreneur's land was approximately 5 times more than the land of the peasants living on the entrepreneur's land (43877 tithing against 9648 tithing) (137,63).

At the end of the 19th century, 678097 tithing or 17.46 percent of the 3884604 tithing of allotment lands in the governorates of the South Caucasus were demarcated by court order, 1029758 tithing or 26.51 percent were shown on

the farm plan map, 12176748 tithing or 56 percent were assigned to the demarcation and farm plan. not included were allotment lands (206,310).

While the share lands of peasants living on owneroccupied lands decreased due to natural population growth due to arbitrary seizures and other reasons, the lands used by state peasants in Baku and Yelizavetpol governorates increased by a little more than 600 thousand tithing (210,71).

After the adoption of the Peasant Regulations on May 14, 1870, the first and most noticeable of the processes within peasant land ownership was the constant decrease of the land area per step, the constant increase in the cases of landlessness and even landlessness.

The provision of purchase of peasant share lands by payment to landlords, which implies important changes in the issue of peasant land ownership after the reform, was like showing something inaccessible to the peasants for the reality of that time and even later for a long time.

For a long time, the peasants could not buy the allotment land, as the peasants actually did not have money to buy the land, and, unlike in Russia, they were not given any assistance by the state. In the reports of the administrative bodies of the South Caucasus, in the information of the provincial peasant affairs commissions, it was stated that only a few peasants used this opportunity in the years after the reform (155, 67).

When examining the issue of peasant land ownership, it is necessary to take into account several important points. First of all, the lands used by the peasants were either landlord lands and were used as leases, or after the reform of 1870, they were bought by the peasant societies in various governorates and became the private property of the peasants.

In Iravan governorate, a certain part of the landowner's land was leased for the use of the residents of 70 entrepreneur villages. These are 28 (167,17) residents of Irevan district, 9

(167,267) of Surmeli district, 17 (166,538) of Nakhchivan district, 3 (168,105) of Sharur-Daralayaz district, and 13 (167,266) residents of Uchmadzin district.

In addition to peasant share lands, there were also share lands purchased by individual peasants and groups. The calculation of the share lands of the peasants in the private ownership of the two mentioned governorates, the analysis of these figures for individual districts proves the extremely small number of lands included in the categories of private ownership.

In Goychay District of Baku Governorate, only 2 peasant communities had privately owned lands. There were 125 tithing in Khalaj village and 1.5 tithing in Tuller village. 2130 tithing of 24 entrepreneurs, 10 tithing of 2 entrepreneurs and 277 tithing of the remaining 12 entrepreneurs in Kizilagac village; 30 tithing of 7 entrepreneurs in Yeniarch village; In the village of Garmajan, 4 entrepreneurs had a total of 28 tithing (from 0.5 tithing to tithing) of land (206,252).

Thus, the land owned by peasants and entrepreneurs in Goychay district was 811.77 tithing. 742.27 tens of them were purchased by notary procedure, 69.5 tens based on local documents. There was a document about Haji Salman, a resident of Bigir village, who bought 7.3 tithing of land from his fellow villager (206,253).

There were very few plots of land purchased by entrepreneurial peasants from beys and landlords in Lankaran district. Thus, each of the 46.44 tithing of private land purchased by 35 residents of different villages received an average of 0.3-2.94 tithing of share land (206,254).

In Shamakhi district, the private land ownership acquired by the villagers was owned by 11 people, and the land area per smoke varied from 5 to 75 tithing, and the total was slightly more than 297 tithing (206,253).

In the remaining 3 districts of the province - Baku, Guba and Javad districts - although the sources do not have fully specified information, it was determined that such lands are between 1150-1159 tithing in total. This meant 0.11 percent of the total area of the share lands of other peasants in the province (206,254).

Starting from the end of the 19th century, the use of debt received by banks and special credit organizations in separate incidents in these two governorates created a certain turn in this case, but still no serious change took place. Until the law of December 20, 1912 was announced, only 67 peasant families in Yelizavetpol governorate were able to purchase 2134 tithing of land (68,226-227). Most of them were rich peasants. The vast majority of the villagers still could not use this opportunity.

With the adoption of the law on December 20, 1912, even after the financial assistance to be provided by the state, the amount of money to be paid to landlords and nobles for the purchase of share lands in two governorates showed that the peasants' ownership of share lands was a real robbery. Thus, 2,991,692 rubles to be paid to landlords and landowners in Baku governorate and 6,380,258 rubles to Yelizavetpol governorate (annual interest was not included) indicated that the peasants would remain dependent on the state for a long time to come (68,227).

The analysis of materials for Yelizavetpol governorate is also of some interest. Out of the 8 districts of the province, only Yelizavetpol district had private land properties of the peasants. The lands of this category were a little more than 7964 tithing. This was only 3.45 percent of the share lands used by all entrepreneurial peasants, and 0.95 percent of the share lands of sedentary peasants throughout the governorate (206,255).

As can be seen from the materials, there were not so many private lands belonging to the peasants in the 5 governorates of the South Caucasus. Also, this minority seemed to be extremely small compared to the total area of the landlord's land.

Another form of increase in peasant land ownership was the purchase of plots of various sizes by some of the peasants, both entrepreneurs and the state, beginning in the late 1870s. In the middle of the 19th century, the existence of farms with more than 1140 tithing of private peasant land was recorded in Baku and Yelizavetpol governorates, and by the end of the century, such lands were more than 18 thousand tithing (163,118-119).

During the 30 years that passed after the announcement of the peasant regulations, approximately, the purchase of about 120 of tithing land and its transformation into private property was another, but insignificant, source of the emergence and formation of peasant land ownership (234,44).

It became known that 6 villagers who lived on the land of the representatives of the supreme Muslim silk in Iravan governorate bought the land. The land area of 5 of them was only 16 tithing, and in the last one, entrepreneur Taytan bought the land of villager Khudabeyoglu (206,254).

In Sharur-Daraleyaz district, the names of several Muslim landlords and peasants were mentioned, who bought the mulkamadar lands with a total area of 48 tithing in the villages of Munganli and Goruglu. Thus, peasants and individuals with private land ownership in the governorate had a total of 142 tithing of land, which was 0.02 percent of the total area of share lands of sedentary entrepreneurial peasants throughout the governorate (206,255).

At the same time, information was given about the purchase of 10,220 tithing of land by the villagers in Zagatla district (6, 9, 12).

Thus, in 3 gubernias - Baku, Yelizavetpol and Iravan gubernias, the special allotment lands of sedentary peasants constituted 0.36 percent of the allotment lands in common use of the peasants (206,255).

On the basis of archival documents and materials of statistical collections, it was not possible to determine the size of land areas per person in all districts and individual villages, only accurate calculations of the area of peasant share land are found in governorates and some districts. On the other hand, in the entrepreneur's village in Northern Azerbaijan, there are also plots of rich peasants with dozens and sometimes more tithing share lands. Some wealthy peasants acquired 50-75 tithing and more by seizing the farmlands of their fellow villagers and the lands of neighboring villages in various ways (299,39). For example, in Shamakhi and Guba districts, there were dozens of wealthy peasants with plots of land between 15 and 25 tithing (193,100-101,162-163; 199,96).

Now let's consider some figures from the beginning of the 20th century. According to the data of 1912, 120,000 tithing were used by 47,750 entrepreneurial male peasants in Baku governorate, and 317,237 tithing were used by 144,830 entrepreneurial male peasants in Yelizavetpol governorate. Thus, 37.5 percent of all land in the governorate belonged to gentlemen, 28 percent to peasants, and 34 percent to the state. Despite this, the average share of land per villager in the governorate was only 0.64 tithing. This was much less than the area of the share lands of the state peasants in the Baku governorate. However, 20 years ago, this number was 0.96 percent (63,59,61; 210,43,71).

The reasons for this situation were, first of all, the acceleration of the process of peasant stratification, the increase in the number of landless peasants, the arbitrarily seizing a part of the peasant share lands by lords and landlords, and finally the natural increase of the population. In the researches of P.V. Gugushvili, our review of the indicated figures for the years 1886-1896 for 4 districts of Yelizavetpol governorate confirms what we have said, while allowing us to closely monitor the process of landlessness of entrepreneurial peasants. The analysis of these figures showed that the reduction of peasant share lands in the entrepreneurial villages of Jabrayil, Javanshir Zangezour and Shusha districts of the governorate during the specified period was nearly doubled from 1.71 tithing to 1.03 tithing. If in 1886 the area of peasant share lands in Jabrayil and Shusha districts was 1.1 tithing and 1.4 tithing, respectively, in 1906 these figures fell to 0.66 and 0.84 tithing (128,030-031).

We should note that the figures and calculations shown are average statistical indicators, and based on them, it would not be correct to think that the areas of peasant share lands are equal to each other or their areas are close to each other.

According to 1917 data, there were 15,975 landless peasant families in Baku and Yelizavetpol governorates (8,2). It should be noted that the process of landless peasants accelerated in the beginning of the 20th century compared to the 80s and 90s of the 19th century, and the number of landless peasants steadily increased. For example, the villagers living in Choban Abdalli (44,325), Papakhchilar (1,415) and many other villages in Ganja District of Yelizavetpol Governorate were completely landless.

One of the facts showing the lack of land of the villagers in individual villages in Ganja district was that the share of land per villager in Hasanli village was equal to 0.07 tithing on average (8,310). In the rest of the villages of Ghaza, the

area of share lands of the vast majority of the peasants varied between 1.2-1.5 desiatins (1,336).

The process of natural growth within entrepreneurial peasants should also be mentioned among the reasons that complicate the rules of using peasant share lands and weaken its effectiveness.

For example, as shown in one of the documents from 1899, it was a sad fact that the number of houses in the village increased from 43 to 91 in 25 years in the village of Shynikh, Gazakh district, but none of the new families were provided with land (32,4), and in general, the North Such facts were often encountered in most villages of Azerbaijan.

Another aspect was the decrease of the previous cultivated areas due to various reasons, as well as the lack of provision of land for new families at the same time as the natural increase of the population. For example, in Shekalja village of Lankaran district, the number of houses-families increased by approximately 2.7 times, while the previous cultivated area decreased by 60 tithing (8,1).

Thus, after determining the state of provision of the entrepreneur peasants with share land through a comparative analysis of governorates and districts, now it would be appropriate to focus on specific indicators related to some districts. In most villages of Yelizavetpol gubernia, the land area per person was slightly more than 0.6 tithing on average. At the beginning of the 20th century, the lowest indicator in the Baku governorate was in Lankaran district, and this indicator was slightly more than 0.5 tithing (130,910; 288,69.87).

The role of charter documents is invaluable in determining the relatively accurate indicators of land provision for the peasants in the entrepreneurial village. For example, according to the information of such documents, in the village of Garagashli of Yelizavetpol district, the

entrepreneur gave the peasants approximately 0.79 tithing, 0.82 tithing in the village of Zurnabad, and 0.7 tithing in the village of Elchilar (1,558-560; 63,109).

Thus, in the two decades after the reform of May 14, 1870, there was not only no significant progress in the provision of land to entrepreneurial peasants, but the situation of landlessness and landlessness increased a little. For example, in the data of 1895, it was reported that 3,906 yards or 11,709 inhabitants were completely landless in Baku province, and 5,308 yards and 25,000 inhabitants were completely landless in Yelizavetpol province (1,78).

At the beginning of the 20th century, in most villages of Yelizavetpol gubernia, the area of share lands of entrepreneurial peasants varied between 0.6-1 tithing (137,106-107). In the village of Giyasli in the province, the amount of 0.19 tithing of land per male villager was more intolerable. The situation of the peasants of the Baku governorate was not encouraging in this regard. The limitation of share lands in the use of entrepreneurial peasants in separate districts and villages of the province was the most important reason for their difficult living conditions. The fact that 0.1-0.18 tithing of land per male villager in some villages of the province does not require any additional explanation (193,90-91).

One of the common aspects of the processes taking place in the entrepreneurial village of Northern Azerbaijan after the 1870 Peasant Statute and the adoption of the agrarian law of December 20, 1912 was the gradual landlessness of the peasants and the constant reduction of the land share areas they actually used. A review of the statute ordinances drawn up locally after the promulgation of the Peasant Statute reaffirms this view. Despite the fact that each of the entrepreneurial peasants in Guba district had an average of 1.5-1.6 tithing of land, in some villages of the district this

limit was even lower (130, 10). A review of the reports published on the two governorates in separate years starting from the end of the 19th century confirms this idea once again.

At the beginning of the 20th century, the innovations that took place in the North Azerbaijani countryside, the development of capitalist relations, the deepening of the process of stratification of the peasants, and the occupation of the lands of entrepreneurial peasants by private individuals also increased.

Their arbitrariness by various state organizations and bodies also played a certain role in the reduction of peasant share lands. Such cases happened often. Mulkedar and nobles also seized the share lands of their peasants in different ways, or openly expelled them from these lands (15,27; 16,19).

State officials were completely indifferent to such cases, and the numerous complaints submitted by entrepreneurial peasants to various authorities were almost always resolved in favor of landlords and gentlemen (84, No. 26; 122, 12, 65).

However, the main and most responsible for the peasants losing their share lands were landlords and nobles. The solution of these issues was delayed for years as a result of the ruling situation of landlords and nobles, the inability of entrepreneurial peasants to report what happened to them to higher organizations in time, and even when this happened, the tsar's officials neglected the issue in most cases. In January 1893, in the telegram sent by the peasants of Arash district to the emperor, the peasants complained about their landlords (24,2). Even though complaints of the same content were received by the government bodies from entrepreneurial villagers living in Gurjuvan of Shamakhi district, Garadonlu and other villages of Javad district, most of the time such complaints remained fruitless.

One of the most shameful cases of the forced capture of peasant share lands by landlords and gentlemen was found in the Lankaran district. Thus, the Talyshkhanovs, who seized hundreds of acres of land from their fellow villagers in the accident, justified their actions by all means. There were dozens of such facts about how the entrepreneurs treated their peasants in this way, and a certain part of them repeatedly became the object of research in the office of the Caucasian deputy for years (109, 6, 7).

An accurate review of the composition, purpose, and conditions of use of peasant share lands in places allows observing an intolerable picture. Thus, the landowners used their superior positions to determine the share lands allocated to the peasants as they themselves knew. The result was that almost an important part of the peasant share lands were bushy, marshy, and uneven places that were not suitable for cultivation. For example, approximately 1/3 of allotment lands in Barghushad village of Goychay district were unfavorable places (24,2).

One of the difficulties that arose as a result of the implementation of the Peasant Regulation of May 14, 1870 was the lack of land, life stopped in some villages due to the harsh living conditions and the frequent arbitrariness of allotment land, and the residents moved away. In 1891, the fate of a group of entrepreneurial villagers of Khanjan village in Shamakhi district was instructive from this point of view. It took a long time to determine the real truth even after the villagers' letter of complaint to the chief military commander of the Caucasus (108,4). This later caused complaints to be written to various imperial authorities and numerous court investigations for a long time (107,3,4,10,18,26).

May 14, 1870, in the Peasant Charter, the land that the lords and lords had seized in different ways at different times, and the part of the peasant share land that was more than 5

tithing in some places, was one of the reasons for the decrease of the share land of the peasants. Demanding cuts played no small role in further increasing the dependence of entrepreneurial peasants on their lords (190,633).

The occurrence of arbitrariness in the tax system in the conditions of the limited and sometimes complete absence of peasant land ownership caused a lot of complaints and telegrams from entrepreneurial peasants to various government bodies. From the first years of the 20th century until the adoption of the agrarian law of 1912, in official letters addressed to the administration of the governorates, in correspondence between the governors and the administration of the Caucasus, the arbitrariness of the lords and lords in places (37,8-10), and the special suffering of the peasants due to the lack of land (36,3-4), cases of arbitrary seizure of peasant share lands, etc. it was talked about a lot (37,14,15).

At the beginning of the 20th century, in the central governorates of the empire, the land area per peasant was 2 times larger than in the governorates where Azerbaijanis lived compactly. Here, 15,975 peasant families were completely landless (44,3). There were also many facts of the peasants being completely landless in separate accidents in the governorates. The difficult economic situation of the peasants, who had to rent land from the grooms and lords, wealthy peasants, and other landowners on very difficult terms, was unbearable. The fact that the population of 7 villages in Yelizavetpol Governorate and 31 villages in Baku Governorate were completely landless at the end of the 19th century was a very unpleasant sight (203,72-74).

In the 80s of the 19th century, the state peasants suffered more from the resettlement policy of the tsarist government, but the impact of this process on the entrepreneurial villages was not small. In addition, the creation of new Russian

villages in different districts of Yelizavetpol and Baku gubernias made it difficult to use servitudes in entrepreneurial villages and created a number of additional problems (89,351).

In the reports of one of the Russian officials, it is acknowledged that 1.5-2 tithing of land fell to the entrepreneurial peasants, 3-5 tithing to the state peasants, and 30-35 tithing to the displaced Russian villagers (28,6-8; 30,4,5).

After the peasant reform, the aggravation of the landlessness and landlessness of the peasants forced people of this category to rent land from their landlords and gentlemen, wealthy fellow villagers under the most difficult conditions. In most cases, entrepreneurial peasants had to rent the land with a crop tax (share) and money.

According to information from 1901, villagers in Javad district of Baku province rented 12,124 tithing of land from private entrepreneurs (108,12). If in the 70s and 90s of the XIX century, land rents were paid mainly in kind by entrepreneurial peasants (9, 42-43), then in the beginning of the XX century cash rent prevailed. Also, rents were increasing year by year (67,49-50).

Thus, at the beginning of the 20th century, the vast majority of entrepreneurial peasants in North Azerbaijan were not provided with land. A very small part of the land belonged to the peasants, and the vast majority belonged to the landlords, lords, lords and other categories of owners. This situation was acknowledged in various materials and documents that appeared in connection with the preparations for the new agrarian reform, which began in 1905 with the arrival of Count Voronsov-Dashkov, who was appointed to the post of newly restored Caucasus viceroy (68, 16-17).

The "temporary wage earners" peasants who worked under extremely difficult conditions on shared lands and

leased lands and paid a lot of taxes were deprived of a large part of their harvest at the end of the year.

Near the end of the 19th century, and at the end and even at the beginning of the 20th century, land rent in Baku and Yelizavetpol gubernias was mainly in kind and often varied between 1/10 and 1/4 of the harvest (128,042).

In the 1870s and later, for a long time in Yelizavetpol, Shusha, Javanshir and Nukha districts, the rent of land varied between 1/5 and 1/20 of the harvest (168,38-43). The highest land rent was found in Baku and Javad districts (161,156,164).

Starting from the 80s and 90s of the 19th century, rent was paid in cash, but a mixed form of both payments was often found (205,172).

During this period, 1,478,664 tithing of the land owned by landlords and gentlemen were leased by the state and entrepreneurial peasants. Most of such leased land consisted of mowing land and pastures (650,829 tithing), and 391,990 tithing were cultivated land (186,50).

In Yelizavetpol gubernia, there are many facts about entrepreneurial peasants renting a part of land of landlords and lords, only in rare cases (45,19,20). Statistical sources and archival materials also confirm that the abovementioned governorates have high land rents. For example, in Yelizavetpol governorate, the rent for each tithing of land varied between 82-92 rubles (45,21).

In the first decade of the 20th century, the rental fee for one tithing of land in Baku governorate increased 3 times and reached 132-152 rubles (67,50).

According to the data of 1896, the most cultivated crops on peasant share lands were grain products (3921800 pounds). For comparison, let's say that in that year, only 645,600 pounds of grain were obtained on the lands directly used by the landlords (180,3).

According to the data of 1912, it was determined that in the Iravan governorate, which mainly forms the western part of Northern Azerbaijan, without taking into account some data on accidents, there were 43,086 tithing shares of land owned by 7,313 entrepreneurial peasants (5,4,5).

In 1912, entrepreneurial peasants had 413,578 tithing, that is, 6% of the land fund of Northern Azerbaijan, including 96,335 tithing in Baku governorate and 317,243 tithing in Yelizavetpol gubernia (5,5,6).

At the beginning of the 20th century, the share lands of entrepreneurial peasants in Baku governorate amounted to 124,943 tithing on 14,236 smokes, which was almost 9 times less than the land used by state peasants (1,055,079 tithing). However, at that time there were 287,257 tithing of private lands in the use of beys, landlords and other private owners. The last figure was 7.9 percent of the total lump fund (3578687 tithing) available for the entire governorate (89,438-439).

At the end of the 19th century, 84.5 percent of the total area of all lands in the Baku governorate consisted of the share lands of the state peasants, and 15.5 percent of the entrepreneurial peasants (89,566-567).

In Yelizavetpol governorate, these figures were 60 and 35 percent, respectively. According to accidents, the share lands of entrepreneurial peasants were recorded the least in Javad district (10 percent or 10472 tithing), and the most in Jabrayil district (19.9 percent or 62888 tithing) (63.61-62; 137.31).

In 1902, 410,200 tithing or 12.1 percent of the 3,578,687 tithing of land in Baku governorate were owned by landlords, landlords, and other private owners. Of this, 285,257 tithing were owned by landlords and gentlemen, and 124,948 tithing were used by entrepreneurial peasants (181.3). Peasants had to pay their entrepreneurs a tax of 1/10 of the harvest and a

money tax of 30 kopecks per tithing. At the same time, it was shown that 8.9 decimeters of land fell per smoke (181,5). Another information on the Baku governorate dated 1904 indicated that of the 410,210 tithing of land owned by landlords and gentlemen, 285,257 tithing were directly used by them, and 124,943 tithing were the share lands of entrepreneurial peasants (186,50).

As it can be seen, there was no significant difference between the data of the end of the 19th century and 1902-1904 in the size of the land plots.

According to one of the data from 1911, 117,419 tithing of land were used by entrepreneurial peasants in Baku governorate. Most of this area - 81,570 tithing - was agricultural land (199,17-19). According to the data of 1912, the area of share lands used by entrepreneurial peasants in North Azerbaijan was 413,578 tithing, including 96,335 tithing in Yelizavetpol governorate, which constituted only 6 percent of the total land fund.

According to the data of 1911, 71046 of 85994 peasant households, excluding family members, or approximately 80%, belonged to state peasants, and the remaining 14948 households belonged to entrepreneurial peasants (199, XIII). If we consider that in the same source, out of 647,320 people living in the villages of the governorate, 538,420 are state peasants and 108,900 are entrepreneurial peasants, then it becomes clear that there was a significant difference in the provision of land for the two categories of peasants. Thus, the area of land used by the state peasants, who make up only 86.24% of the rural population of the province (at that time, this indicator was approximately 60% in the Yelizavetpol province), is 1 out of 3 of the total number of state and entrepreneurial peasants. showed that it was in proportion to (210,71).

Because 1,103,421 tithing of land remained in the use of the state peasants in the governorate, and 944,258 tithing in the Yelizavetpol governorate meant that the Yelizavetpol governorate, which had more land funds, was much ahead of the Baku governorate in terms of these indicators.

Thus, even a simple comparison of all these figures allows us to say that according to the data of 1911, 108,900 entrepreneurial peasants (with their family members) had a total of (199, XIV) 124,943 tithing of share land, which meant that per capita in Baku governorate the average land area was approximately 1.14 tithing. It should be taken into account that this figure was the average figure for farms, as well as the total size of the land area, and it included land from other categories besides arable land.

During the 37 years since the Peasant Reform of May 14, 1870, an increase of 39,264 people was recorded in the number of male population in Lankaran, Javad, Shamakhi and Goychay districts of Baku Governorate. At that time, the average indicator of share lands of entrepreneurial peasants was 3.35 tithing, and according to the results of the 1897 census, this figure was 1.64 tithing. In this regard, the accident indicators were more different. If in the charter documents, the average indicator of the peasant share of land per man in Goychay district was 4.9 tithing (actually 2 tithing), in Javad district it was 4 tithing (actually 3 tithing), in Shamakhi district it was 4.4 tithing (actually 2.9 tithing) and 1.3 tithing (actually 0.5 tithing) in Lankaran district (89,439).

If we analyze the indicators of Guba district separately, it becomes clear that according to the results of the 1897 census, 21,244 male entrepreneurial peasants had 35,976 tithing of land. On average, this meant that each of them got 1.6 tithing (actually 0.9 tithing) of land. However, at that

time, the average indicator of the governorate was 1.86 tithing (89,439-440).

One of the things that complicated the conditions of land use in entrepreneurial village was the co-location of lands belonging to the state and entrepreneur villagers in the same area, in the same district and in the same villages. The sometimes periodic distribution of allotment lands by village societies among state peasants made it difficult to define their boundaries and resulted in peasant complaints to the governorate and higher administrative bodies (30,2). At the end of the 90s of the 19th century, 11,364 houses (40,748 family members) owned 110,315 tithing of land in the entrepreneur's lands in Baku governorate. Here, the share of land per family was 9.7 tithing, and the area per man was 2.7 tithing. In Yelizavetpol governorate, these indicators were as follows: the land used by 47,555 houses (125,314 family members) was 317,234 tithing, the area per family was 6.6 tithing, and the area per man was 2.5 tithing (67,47).

According to the data of 1912, the arable land at the direct disposal of the entrepreneurs was 409,134 tithing. 326,598 tithing in Yelizavetpol governorate and 82,536 tithing in Baku governorate (5,4).

According to the data of 1911, 108,900 entrepreneurial peasants (with their family members) in Baku governorate have a total of 124,943 tithing of share land in use (199,XIV) and even a close comparison of all these figures allows us to say that the land area per capita here is approx. , was equal to 1.14 tithing on average. It should be taken into account that this figure was an average indicator for farms, and was a general indicator of the land area, and it included land from other categories besides arable land.

I.3. Ranjbars and the Role of Peasants in the Azerbaijani Entrepreneurial Village

After the Russian occupation, the ratio of forces and the division of labor between the peasant categories in the Azerbaijani village did not undergo such significant changes. What changed was that the censuses now carried out at different times by the imperial governing bodies were based on their labor activity, lifestyle, etc. it allows you to get somewhat more extensive information about issues than in previous periods.

Among the population leading a sedentary lifestyle in the Azerbaijani village, rayat and ranjbaris differed more. Those included in the elat category were mainly engaged in one or another type of cattle breeding, which was considered one of the very important sectors of agriculture as part of the population of the land, leading a nomadic lifestyle. Historically, among the peasants, who made up the vast majority of the population by tradition and way of life, the majority was called the chief, and they, as a rule, had Share lands, tools of labor, work animals, personal farms, which were officially considered private property of landowners, but which, according to centuries-old traditions, remained in the use of a permanent

Taking into account the fact that a significant part of Azerbaijani peasants is made up of rayat and ranjbar categories, and taking into account the simultaneous settlement of a certain group of them on Treasury and entrepreneur lands, we focused more on whether they are provided with land and the economic sphere they are engaged in in this regard.

The total number of rural population, the degree of provision of land with tools of labor, etc. it is possible to obtain sufficient saving information on its provision in archival and statistical materials, but among the categories of

peasants, in particular, ranjbar, servants, etc. about, the possibilities of determining exact documents, making generalizations based on specific facts are practically absent. This fact was also acknowledged by the management officials who conducted inspections and censuses at that time and later, as well as most of the experts and historians who were contemporaries or analyzed the events of that time (20,10).

The categories of peasants, we tried to keep in the center of attention the entrepreneurial peasants, which we tried to cover in our study, if we say that some extensive, saving information about them can be found from the beginning of the 60s of the XIX century, then probably the reason for this will be immediately clear. Thus, the beginning of preparations for the peasant reform in the land and the intensification of these works, given that the expected reform should cover only the circle of entrepreneurial peasants, meant increased attention to the categories of entrepreneurial peasants, their economic activity, first of all, to the issues of land provision. Just after that, at the same time as the level of land provision of the peasants, we obtain important information about the forms of activity of the population in the Azerbaijani village, types of Economy, life and a number of other issues, although not in detail, but in any case, we get an opportunity to describe the general picture of this period village,

Various government commissions and officials considering the issue of land provision of peasants in the Azerbaijani entrepreneurial village, as a rule, held a unanimous position on this issue that the situation in the region is very difficult compared to the situation in the central provinces of the Empire (111,68,74). The fact that in the above-mentioned provinces, on the eve of the occupation of the territory by Russia and in the first period after it, the area of peasant share lands was at least 8-12 tithing was at the basis

of the formation of the official position and opinion, which we mentioned above, probably, we will not distort any facts.

We would like to note that although the peasant categories in the Azerbaijani village are quite mentioned in almost all of the studies we have reviewed or encountered so far, we do not find even the minimum level of comprehensive materials about the rural people belonging to the few other categories. The main attention of the authors is focused on the economic activities of the chief, perhaps not so much, but still significantly. At this time, in each case, one had to face the fact that the village of entrepreneur was not so much needed to talk about the Chiefs who had a certain place and specific weight in the population structure, to be more precise, with this category of peasants all the main issues were completely excluded from research. In this sense, we have tried to focus on the issue we are talking about in our research, thereby bridging the gap in this area.

Although the address of the rural category is rural, we would like to express some of our considerations regarding this category. First of all, peasants of this category were relatively minority in number. In addition, the ranjbars lived at both poles of the Azerbaijani village. Since we have not set a goal to determine which of them are the most numerous, we have tried to focus on the source of their livelihood, often random types of activities.

In addition, the villagers stood in different positions in the ratio of the population of the village in different accidents, except that they remained in a negligent position in terms of employment. It can be said that the name carried by the farmhands was different in different accidents of the region.

One of the questions of particular interest when talking about the farmhands is when this phrase appeared or when facts and opinions about the peasants from this category were first encountered. Another question of interest on the issue is

related to how they arose, through what resources their number increased.

It should be noted that in the medieval Azerbaijani society, we do not find the term ranjbar in the sources and writings of the middle of the 16th century and sometimes a little later. The main source of the formation of ranjbars is the natural growth in rural areas, the occupation of peasant share lands, communal lands by individual feudal lords, officials, and soldiers, sometimes the use of such lands for the sake of the state's interests, etc. Due to the reasons, the daily life of the peasants became difficult due to the decrease of the land areas directly used by the peasants, as well as due to other factors, the number of peasants in rural areas without land, without labor tools, who tried to maintain their living conditions by working only in random jobs, and even steadily increased. Although the fact of increasing the number of farmers is undeniable, but the dynamics of this growth has not always been the same. The common opinion among authors and researchers is that the period of increasing the number of farmhands is the middle and second half of the XVIII century. In fact, this situation does not require a broad explanation.

In the period of khanates, the Khans, who were the absolute rulers in different provinces, donated land to various persons through donations, the mass deprivation of peasants from share lands and other cases are considered as the first of the main reasons for such an increase in the number of farmhands. In addition, those who fled from other khanates and moved, and those who took refuge in our territory from neighboring countries could not be provided with land immediately in the conditions of that time, so these persons expanded the ranks of the ranjbars.

A slight decrease in the number of farmhands occurs approximately at the beginning of the XX century. Thus, as a result of the accession of the land to the Russian Empire, the

cessation of feudal wars, the revival of economic life, the increase in the employment rate of the population and other positively oriented socio-economic processes have an impact on the process of population displacement within the country. Economic development accelerated gradually due to the emergence of a single system of money, measures, weights, revival of the domestic market and other factors made itself more and more evident in the leading sector of the economy-agriculture. Due to all this, the growth dynamics of the number of farmhands observed during the half century before the occupation is completely weakened.

As a result of the transformation of the former khanates into provinces after the Russian occupation, during the newly organized Commandant's military-administrative system, the cases of land donations were reduced, but still there were cases when the Chiefs were deprived of their share lands and included in the ranjbar category. Some states even overtook neighboring states in this regard. There were more such facts in Guba province than in others. It was a bitter truth that in the 20s of the century, about 1566, rayat village-Lisin became a ranjbar and was deprived of share lands. This was estimated because the number of rayat peasants placed in the rank of ranj-Barlar in the province for about 60 years of Khanate rule was three times less (125,88-98).

Thus, if this expansion of the category of peasant farmers resulted, on the one hand, in the peasants being deprived of their previous livelihood opportunities and losing their allotment lands, on the other hand, the new regime intended to strengthen their position on the land.

Instead, local landowners, as a rule, took advantage of their influence on their fellow villagers and provided assistance in timely payment of taxes collected by government officials from the population and unconditional fulfillment of obligations. They assisted the new regime in

ensuring police control and political stability within their villages, and at the same time, if necessary, they were appointed to positions at various levels of Commandant management.

The imperial officials, who saw the representatives of the local ruling classes as the most real means of turning them into their social support, instead of their loyalty to the Empire, provided them with a labor force-ranjbar, which they felt the greatest need for in their farms.

There were different ways of transferring rayat peasants and other residents to the ranjbar category, and in every land, even the villagers who settled on land plots owned by landowners were not insured from being transferred to the ranjbar category.

The first and easiest way to turn Chiefs into ranjbars was the Forgings of provincial Commandants, Chiefs of military districts, Chiefs of the Viceroy's notebook and Russian officials of the highest rank from other categories. During the first period of the occupation regime, to be precise, until the implementation of the administrative-judicial reform of the 40s, the Commandants of the province of Guba literally took the Commandants of other provinces into the race of "generosity" or "generosity" (40,32). The ranjbar pardoning campaigns of Guba Commandants resulted in hundreds of rayat and other villagers being deprived of their previous traditional economy and way of life and expanding the ranks of the ranjbar.

Among those who were distinguished by a greater increase in the number of farmhands, the majority were those who came out of local landowners, who at that time were officers of the Russian army and retired. We can mention the names of Hasan Aga Bey Sadikov, Isa Bey Budurski, Abdul Rahim Bey and others, representatives of landowners of Guba province. It was common to see representatives of local

religious figures among receiving of farmhands as gifts (40,4,6).

Sometimes even cases of obtaining ranjbar were applied to persons of non-landowner origin from the local population, who served Tsarism in one of the levels of management with excessive loyalty. Guba province, compared with other provinces, was remembered for the fact that sometimes residents of whole villages were donated not together, but in parts, to individual persons for various services.

Starting from the second half of the 20s of the XIX century, the Tsarist government, especially after the end of the next Russo-Iranian war and the government felt confident in the strength of its positions in the land, began to list the farmhands donated to representatives of local ruling classes in different provinces. It so happened that sometimes peasants who were previously forgiven as farmbar were returned to their previous positions or were included in the category of treasure peasants. However, such cases were quite a minority. Despite this, the donations of high government officials in exchange for service to certain persons at different times remained the only source for further expansion of the ranks of the farmhands.

The vast majority of petitions of commandants and other Russian officials addressed to higher instances on granting of ranjbars to someone were finally approved and implemented by the Tsar himself.

The fact that such requests were rejected in the documents stored in the archival funds in different cities of the period proved that in the first decades of the occupation regime, the government used more than one tool in different ways to keep the local ruling circles under its influence.

In archival documents, one can sometimes find petitions addressed to higher authorities in order to give them ranjbar from villages located in their estates, citing the lack of

manpower in the mares of local feudal families, and often with many facts about their approval(40,11; 227,108).If such facts could be found in other neighboring states in the first decades of Russian rule, but, as a rule, their number was not so large (149,110).

Some time after the establishment of the occupation regime in provinces and districts, during the inspections carried out on the ground, it was revealed that sometimes representatives of landowners ' families forcibly took away the share lands of their fellow villagers and transferred them to the rank of ranjbar peasants. Thus, during the inspections, it was not possible to submit any legal documents on the forgiveness of ranjbar peasants working in the landowners ' mansions. Because such a document has never been in advance (40,5).

Such facts were almost found in most accidents. More and more cases of sending complaints to higher authorities about the fact that the peasants of the rayat were forcibly turned into ranjbars by the hands of their own entrepreneurs increased, and the tsarist officials themselves were forced to admit this(40,7; 100,5).

Finally, another way for the feudal lords to forcibly transfer their fellow villagers to the rank of ranjbar peasants was to incur the wrath of their own entrepreneur in cases where the bankrupt, share land plot did not return the debt received and could not pay taxes on time.

In the first half of the 40s of the XIX century, the complaints written about the cases encountered in a number of villages in Sheki, Gazakh, Salyan and other districts were perhaps the worst of the injustices committed by landlords and gentlemen in this area. Thus, in these letters, when the rayat peasant family after the loss of its head had to transfer the share land to the heirs of it according to tradition, the opposite happened, and the members of these families were

completely attributed to the category of ranjbar peasant (19,5).

Among these processes, one of the new special features that attracted attention was that some of the residents, who were previously leaders and later belonged to the category of ranjbar peasants, preferred to leave here in different ways and move to the category of State peasants. However, there were few of them, and at the time when officials of the imperial government stood guard over the interests and rights of local landowners, this could not have happened without the consent of the latter.

Another source of reducing the number of ranjbar peasants was the confiscation of land and other property of the gentlemen and lords, who were considered a “hostile element”, since they still resisted the new occupation regime, starting with the course of the Russo-Iranian Wars. At this time, the peasant was classified as a treasure peasant, and in comparison with his previous state, this was considered a rather mitigating circumstance. Not only the property of such landowners was taken away from them, but they and their family members were buried in various repressive measures, and many of them were even exiled to distant Siberia.

Such repressive measures did not pass by the landowners who were relatively loyal to Tsarism.

On the one hand, regular inspections in the mansions of such families were focused on preventing their and others' dissatisfaction with the new regime, even if in a small form, on the other hand, the possession of property, the legality of the donation of property, whether arbitrariness was allowed in their treatment with subordinate peasants, and finding and identifying other negative cases.

It was during such inspections that facts emerged that accelerated the opposite process, which we have just talked

about, that is, the transfer of ranjbar peasants to the category of Treasury peasants.

After the occupation, hundreds of such facts were recorded during the censuses carried out on the instructions of the then commander-in-chief of the Russian troops for the South Caucasus, General Yermolov, in order to verify the belonging and property rights of the families of local landowners and gentlemen. Individual representatives of the Russian officials who carried out the inspection reflected the general's literally complete cold-blooded cruelty to representatives of the local ruling circles.

In the reports written by the chief military chief of the Caucasus, the facts of frequent transformation of the chief peasants into ranjbers in accidents were also sometimes openly condemned. However, the reason for the condemnation was not the increase in the number of farmhands, not the donations that caused it, but the lack of clarification of the addresses of these donations and, therefore, the misjudgment of various donations made to persons who contradicted the government or even took the initiative in armed struggle (40,3).

The situation was somewhat complicated by the fact that tsarist officials over time did not confine themselves to determining the level of their loyalty to representatives of local landlord circles, but now demanded that they only benefit in various forms.

This meant that in the course of periodic inspections in the accidents, both requirements were taken as a basis for the confirmation of the right of landowners and gentlemen to have farmbars and to stay in them living in the donated lands.

Along with all that has been said, it would be appropriate to briefly look at small details in the process of donating land properties, which at first glance do not attract attention. Thus, the issue of granting farmbar peasants free labor as a result of

government donations took place on the basis of consideration of some considerations.

First of all, the economic interests of the Treasury had to be taken into account. Government officials believed that the two conditions taken as the basis for the donation could not be the basis until the end, and here it was taken into account how much damage could be caused to the Treasury by the deprivation of taxes paid to the Treasury by peasants from other categories of peasants. Therefore, the numbers and the limit indicated in the letters of officials asking to be given to local landlords and officials were often slightly reduced, and the main reason for this was the considerations of the extent to which donations to the treasury revenues mentioned above would be affected.

Therefore, the Russian judges of the Caucasus, who took the main, somewhat other, considerations, after each check, tried with special zeal to include the previously forgiven farmhands in the category of Treasury peasants under the pretext that their owners now did not justify the trust shown by the government.

The tsarist officials did not suffer so much in order to find out the “sins” of local gentlemen and lords, who were deprived of the village peasants under pretexts. ” It was found out “that some landowner or gentleman either kept in touch with the ”enemy” elements during the war, or had secret relations with the former Khans, who were deprived of power. The most intolerable and, perhaps, ironic thing in the excuses was that if the landowner or the landowner who was deprived of his farm workers was the same as the landowner who resisted the new regime, was not punished and fled to Iran, then it turned out that he was a relative (40,7; 41,10).

At the end of the decisions that denoted some deprivation or the abolition of the decrees on forgiveness of the farmhands, a concrete statement was written without

extensive explanation or interpretation. For example, “because he did not justify the trust that the government placed in him.” Thus, the decision acquired the force of law, excluding the appeal of it in any form and other cases.

In some accidents, even representatives of landlords and gentlemen who had served the new regime for many years, as they themselves admitted, “with their blood”, could not bypass such persecution, or to some extent figuratively speaking.

Thus, as a result of inspections conducted in the 20s of the century in one province, the number of farmhands decreased by more than half (40,35,43).

After the information we have given about the Village Peasant category, the place and role of the producers-people of this order in the Azerbaijani village, economy, in the situation of deployment of productive forces in General, summarizing the issue, it is extremely important to express their attitude and clarify the issue.

The first question that arises in this approach is what farm leadership means in itself and what does this status give to the village and agriculture?

First of all, let's say that the presence and even a certain period of stay of this category in the Azerbaijani village, which is rich in sufficient labor force, Natural Resources, Land and other means of Labor, cannot be considered a positive phenomenon. Therefore, the decline in the number of farmhands regardless of the intentions and objectives of the Tsarist government in the National colonial economic and social policy should be regarded as a positive phenomenon. Provided that the peasants, whose social status has changed, in the case of a new form and quality of content, share land, tools of labor, with a worker animal, etc. had been provided. However, as a rule, in the then reality, these conditions were almost partially met(114.8). The only difference was that the

former ranjbar peasants were excluded from most other lawlessness and arbitrariness by paying pre-determined taxes and fulfilling obligations as a Treasury peasant, getting rid of a more severe form of exploitation and feudal arbitrariness.

The weakening of the farmhand establishment also had a say in the weakening of feudal-dependent relations in the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan. However, the colonial authorities of the Tsarist government and their local officials were interested in keeping these relations intact or unchanged in the National provinces for a long time even after that.

General Yermolov ranjbar, who spent the last years of his reign on the eve of the second stage of the Russo-Iranian wars as the chief military chief of the Caucasus, is taking a number of new steps in the course of the situation of the peasants. If these steps served the purpose of reducing the peasant category, on the other hand, they also helped to preserve their social status. One of such steps was the prohibition of actions related to the amnesty of landowners or, conversely, the repossession of agricultural lands in the event of accidents, by order of the General.

If earlier this right belonged to the Commandants of the state, now in connection with the formation of the known position, these powers were included in the competence of the Chiefs of the Military District. The head of the district, in turn, had to submit an annual report to the chief military chief of the Caucasus on all changes in the number of ranjbar on accidents. Despite all this, in order to prevent violations to be committed in the rules of issuance and subordination of farmbars for any reason in the places, a rule was established that the number of farmbars, family composition, etc. were assigned to each entrepreneur, provided that the copy was kept in the military chief's office, about it were presented lists certified by the seal. In general, the ready-made lists of ranjbar peasants on accidents and villages and the contents of

all documents related to them were placed in special books and these books were included in the list of Treasury documents.

In order to prevent violations of the law by local officials (county chiefs, village chiefs, etc.) regarding the status and management of the ranjbers, the imperial government was determined to allocate a certain number of ranjbers, who were completely exempt from all taxes and duties, in exchange for serving the said officials. This limit usually had to be more than 20 ranjbars, and as a rule, the violation of this indicator by the viceroys was considered as a violation of the law directly by the government. This instruction or limit was not really a novelty, because it existed even during the khanates (114,12).

The position of high-ranking tsarist officials in this matter was that viceroys, including veterans and other local officials who had obtained the specified number of rangers, would perform their duties with greater zeal before the government and the empire (40,8).

According to the document prepared by the local authorities and approved by the chief military officer, the rangers were divided into two groups. Those in the first group were exempted from all kinds of taxes and duties, while those in the second group had to pay a minimal annual monetary tax. The latter were satisfied with the fact that they only had to pay money taxes, as they did not have land and economic activities.

Thus, it would be appropriate if we dwell a little more on the conclusions we reached after the sufficient mention and accurate investigation of the number and affiliation of the rangers in the places and other issues related to them.

First of all, let's say that without looking at all the unilateralism, the serious and unpleasant violations of the law, and the cases of destabilization, we would form our

judgments in such a way that the process of increasing the number of rank-and-file officers, which began in the early days of the occupation in separate accidents, will soon become high-ranking administrative officials. In order to prevent the worsening of their situation and the deepening of the process of depriving the peasants of their share lands, it weakens and after a while it stops completely, thereby providing a certain stability around this issue.

Later, we can also say that during the administration of several senior military commanders of the Caucasus, following the decrease in the number of rank-and-file officers, the rules for appointing and pardoning them are being precisely regulated. With this, the level of abuse of the situation at different levels and levels in places is completely reduced to a minimum. This in itself ensured social and political stability in the Azerbaijani village and improved the employment level and situation of the population in different areas of the rural economy to a certain extent.

We can also note that in the process of updating and precise regulation of the rules, it was achieved that now donated ranchers were not only used as labor force in the estates of local landlords and gentlemen. Now, there was a wide practice in the cases where administrative piles were placed at the disposal of various administrative officers in separate places, provided that the exact types and forms of the work they were to do were specified.

In the first two decades of the Russian occupation mentioned above, the new stage of inspections, which resulted in the reduction of the number of ranjbar peasants, did not take long. The main goal, as we said earlier, was primarily the reduction of the peasants' disposable income by turning them into rentiers, the reduction of the ranks of those who fulfill certain obligations for the benefit of the state, and determined the content of the new reduction phase.

In the 1930s, both the causes of the uprisings against colonial oppression in 4 provinces and the need to prevent these causes played a decisive role in the beginning of a new stage. Already at the end of the 30s of the century, in the course of the new stage, which was accompanied by a decrease in the number of rentier peasants according to their results, the goals that government officials paid the most attention to were the relevant documents of neither the khanate nor the period of Russian administration about the forgiveness of rentiers who were under their control until now. It was the restoration of the previous status of the peasants who were not present and were relegated to the rank of serfs as a result of the arbitrariness of Russian and local officials at different levels of local administrative structures (98,5,6).

But the officials, who did not forget that the uprisings had just ended, preferred to carry out these works gradually, as opposed to the earlier stage of the process. In the directive letters addressed to almost every commandant, Prince Golovin, the chief military commander of the Caucasus at that time, who would later be one of the main inspirations and organizers of the administrative-judicial reform of 1840, recommended that there should be no haste in the course of all these affairs. it is necessary to take into account all precautionary measures and carry out the process under extremely strict control during a certain period of time, to exclude the occurrence of any form of dissatisfaction (98,7).

The result of all this was that, as a result of inspections, unlike the first stage of the decrease in the number of rentier peasants, during the new stage, the number of rentiers decreased significantly, so their previous dissatisfaction did not merge with the dissatisfaction of the landlords and other private property management officials. Even the complaint letters and appeals addressed to higher organizations could

not have a noticeable echo even in the new tense psychological, moral and social situation created by the unsuccessful results of the administrative court reform in the country.

It should be noted that the institute of rangers is one of the least covered areas in research and literature devoted to all agrarian relations. Regarding ranjbar, there are such serious issues and aspects in their system of relations with other parts of the Azerbaijani entrepreneurial village that these issues need to be investigated even today and await their own researchers.

In our opinion, the first place among such issues is the relationship between the entrepreneur and the poor peasants living in the villages owned by them, related to production and social relations. Today, we have at our disposal written and factual materials of quite different content and sometimes contradictory nature for the investigation of these relations.

Among the conclusions we reached, one of the less controversial ones was that among the categories of peasants in the village of Azerbaijan, it was the rangers who were subjected to the most severe exploitation and oppression. Of course, these people, who had no allotment of land, labor tools and tools, and could rarely provide for themselves in a meager way, could not come to terms with the unfavorable situation in which they found themselves.

The situation was aggravated by the fact that this category of peasants, who are not so popular and not widespread in the Azerbaijani countryside, did not have the opportunity to take advantage of the somewhat mitigating circumstances that other categories of peasants and treasure peasants had. First of all, because there were no laws, regulations, or any document that legalized or normalized the way of living and farming, what they would do, and the obligations they had to fulfill. For a long time, no one thought

about it or worried about it. Probably the rangers except the villagers themselves.

In entrepreneurial village, despite the constant dissatisfaction of the rentiers with their unbearable and lawless situation, there were no people at any level of the authorities, even at the level of the ordinary clerk's office or the police department, who thought about it or wanted to take some action.

Usually, in the documents regulating the economic activities of entrepreneurial peasants, sometimes the smallest details were explained over and over again, and the response steps that would take place when they were violated were repeated many times in a broad, often annoying way, in the documents attributed to peasant peasants, their legal status, obligations, and mutual relations with the people they were forgiven for degrees of responsibility, mutual obligations, etc. it was not possible to find any sentence about it. Apart from the words "be approved", "forgiven", "be placed under such and such a person" on the petitions sent from the places, there is no need to say or write about the work that the villagers will do in the estates they will be in, and in case of dissatisfaction, at least in what form they can express their wishes and complaints. they didn't see either. On the contrary, it was strictly recommended in all the forgiveness documents that they should obey their owners unconditionally and fulfill all their tasks unconditionally. In the documents presented to the new entrepreneurs with the signature of the local commandants, they were reminded that the donated ranchers were instructed to serve their entrepreneurs with a very serious effort (38,8).

Regardless of the category of rural areas, the life and economic situation of the villagers was greatly aggravated by how to fulfill various obligations that were not regulated by any law or normative documents until the middle of the

century. Because none of the parties had a written confirmation document about what the obligations were at the local and government level, when and under what conditions they would be fulfilled. Everything was based on local traditions. More precisely, the wishes and dreams of the landlords were the remaining uncertainty that thoroughly influenced them in these relations.

Regardless of their intentions and the content and results of the steps taken in this direction, sometimes the general condition of the ranchers was mentioned in government documents. However, certain information was given about the issue, although there was discussion about concretization and stabilization of relations, no specific position was defined in any of them, and legislative documents were not adopted.

Therefore, every time when the inefficiency of the work done in this area is clear, or more precisely, when it is determined that the government officials are not very interested in completing their intentions or plans with an effective end, the local government structures evaluate the continuation of the previous course of events as the only correct way out of the situation what they didn't change. The harsh lifestyle and unbearable conditions of the ranjbars were not new to their entrepreneurs either. However, it was more interesting for them that their material interests were secured through their unpaid labor than that at least no attention was paid to the rest.

There were other factors that made the situation of ranjbar peasants a little worse than that of the serfs. Thus, the serfs living within the same village boundaries, the economic condition of each other, and the slightly illegal and unintended pressure exerted on them by the government and local officials, say, increasing the obligations, extending the time of execution, etc. when faced with steps, they could unite their efforts in a common stream, having at least the

opportunity to stand in the same position, to immediately inform each other, to protest or resist what was happening. However, as a rule, the fact that several landowners lived and stayed scattered within the estates deprived the peasants of the opportunities and advantages we mentioned. Their desperate situation helped the landlords and other landlords to keep the renters in a superior position in making them work more and forcing them to fulfill excess obligations. It is impossible to speak once and for all about the work done by the farmers in the mansion of their new entrepreneurs, their activities in the economic life.

The areas in which landowners and beys used the free labor of farmers were very diverse and depended mainly on the seasons of the year, that is, during plowing, sowing, harvesting and other agricultural work, as well as on the areas they worked. Local farmers were engaged in agriculture, farming, cattle breeding, sericulture, and generally cotton growing.

Most of the time, one or two of these economic fields were leading in the economic activity of the manors where the ranchers worked. In the remaining times or cases, he was engaged in almost all of them.

Thus, while admitting that the economic activity, life and household conditions of ranchers are difficult compared to other categories, we must show that the fact that this situation has turned from severe to intolerable depends primarily on whether the economic activity in the manor is extensive or multi-faceted. When we examine this situation, we see that in the first half of the century, due to the use of the unpaid labor of farmers in the landlord estates, most of the entrepreneurs, confident of this factor, decided to use new cultivation methods, advanced equipment, and not to mention hired labor. , they didn't even think about it. This was one of the

existing obstacles to the creation and spread of new capitalist relations in the Azerbaijani countryside.

One of the areas where the free labor of ranjbars was most commonly used was grain cultivation, perhaps one of the 2 most common areas within the landlord estates. At that time, from the preparation of the land for sowing to the harvesting of the crop, farmers were often even with the participation of their family members, but at the end of the farm work, they were given a small part of the harvest. In most cases, this part was not even enough to meet the personal or consumer needs of the ranchers. In most provinces this was at best less than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total grain harvest. This limit was slightly higher than the crop rent paid by the latter to their lords in the peasant shareholding lands (114.9).

At that time, in the reports and letters addressed to the higher government bodies by the heads of the provinces and districts, in the actual materials collected in connection with the completion of the economic work of the entrepreneurial village, and in the materials related to the activities of other categories and fields, although it can be said that it is very insignificant, the production activity, livelihood of the peasants, their mutual relations with the landlord, the products they receive in exchange for the work they do, etc. issues are also briefly discussed. In none of the data and figures received from various provinces, individual districts and landlord estates, there were figures above the level of the share of the total product left to the peasants, which we indicated a little above. The figures received from the villages of Shamakhi, Baku, Gazakh and other districts repeat what we said once again (233,114; 17,96).

Only in some areas of agricultural production, the aspect shown was slightly different. It has been mentioned many times that Shamakhi district historically had favorable conditions for sericulture. Both here and in Nukha district,

one could not find such an entrepreneur's mansion that does not deal with this field within it. In these places, only about half of the crops cultivated by ranjbar peasants were given to the ranjbars. However, here too, different from grain farming, the farmers were not lucky, and they had to sell their share of the crop at very low prices either to landlords or to representatives of trade-usurer circles roaming around the villages (233,115).

However, at the end of intensive economic work in the labor-intensive fields such as sericulture, farmers were given $1/2$ to $2/3$ of the finished cocoon (43,3,6). Zagatala, Balaken, etc. and in the villages in the territories, even less than $1/4$ of this harvest fell to farmers (43,59,60).

Even if we fully describe the economic activities of ranjbars, perhaps it would be appropriate to comment on one aspect that does not attract attention at first glance. From our interpretation, perhaps, there is an impression that the entrepreneurs or treasure peasants whose share lands were taken from their hands by the decrees issued by the emperor and partly by the higher officials in other structures of the administrative system, in one day, deprived of their previous life-economic conditions and social status, became completely landless. they were left.

But this is not entirely true. So, in very few accidents, entrepreneurial peasants were sometimes able to keep at least a part of their previous share lands after such donations. The lack of such facts is perhaps related to the fact that the lifestyle, fields of activity, obligations, etc., of the peasants who have lived on the owner's land in the Azerbaijani village for a long time are different. Indicators were never calculated separately. In the best case and most often, such information was found that there were a certain number of ranjbar villagers of several landlords in the mentioned district. At the same time, in the writings of this type, in very few cases, it is

indicated that in some villages, farmers sometimes have private farms, and what kind of crops and plants are cultivated there.

We said that statistical reports on the number of ranchers in villages and their activities have never been prepared for accidents. Therefore, it may raise a legitimate question as to where certain numbers related to the plots of land, private farms, and activities of the above-mentioned ranjbar peasants are generated or taken from.

Therefore, we must state that both during the IranRussia wars and at the very beginning of the 40s of the century, when the relations of tsarism with the representatives of the local ruling classes were unstable and sometimes even came to open conflict, the latter's land and other properties In the course of the expropriation, which took place in two stages, the local tsarist officials prepared very extensive and detailed reports on the confiscated estates and lands. In these documents, all the property of the lords and lords whose property was confiscated, how many peasant farms they had, their categories, economic activities, in short, everything down to the smallest details was recorded. It is these reports and protocols that are used in our research to determine the social status, economic condition, obligations, etc. of the peasants allows you to get the most diverse information on issues and partially analyze them. However, the limitation in this situation is that it is not possible to obtain completely accurate figures, sometimes even for different villages, and unambiguously for districts and provinces.

In general, the best aspect of studying the condition of the rentiers is how much, when and to whom they are donated. All other issues are left out of the main attention, and only come up during the interpretation of certain issues related to the village of the entrepreneur and its villagers, and opinions

are voiced about some minor aspects, mostly their duties and unbearable living conditions.

As a whole, even if a group of authors, including the author of these lines, have expressed certain conceptual ideas about the remaining two categories of entrepreneurial peasants today, this cannot be applied to rank-and-file peasants. The reason is the lack of information about the activity and condition of the villagers from this category. Even in some statistical reports and sources, the rank-and-file peasants were not mentioned separately, the information about them was equated with the information of the serf peasants. Sometimes, the existence of villagers from this category in the entrepreneurial village is not remembered at all. As a rule, when either the treasury or the entrepreneur talks about the economic activity of peasants and other issues, in reports, censuses and other documents, not even the number of peasant farms, but the number of families settled there is indicated under the expression "number of smoke".

This situation is actually quite surprising. It is a pity that Russian officials, who usually take it upon themselves to show even the smallest details in reports and other documents with great care and consistency, for some reason pay little attention to this problem. In some works about the socio-economic and domestic life of the Azerbaijani society of that time, including the Azerbaijani village, it was talked about the bureaucratic activity style of such Russian officials, their excessive pettiness, their preparation of extensive and detailed reports on the smallest issues, and their going into unnecessary detail. Examples have survived as wise sayings and sayings, and some of them have not been forgotten even today. In the comedy "Haji Kara" by the great Azerbaijani intellectual and playwright M.F. Akhundzade, in the language of the harvester peasants detained by Russian

officials, the phrase "Urus's silist won't last for five years" is just one of our sayings (48,149).

It often happened that the Russian officials themselves were the cause of certain issues related to the rank-and-file, which sometimes ended up in such a confused state. Among these issues, the first thing that attracts attention is the issue of the origin of the peasants. It is true that in certain cases, especially on the basis of the content of various forms of forgiveness, making clarifications in this field does not create much difficulty. But it was not always like that. Among the materials and facts that we have reviewed, we sometimes come across those that cause great difficulties and mysteries for us to find answers to the question of clarifying the origin of ranjbar villagers, that is, how they came and became ranjbars.

Sometimes it was also found in places that the peasants, who were previously serfs, were now gifted to someone with their share of land. Or not only the entrepreneur, but also the serfs who were residents of the treasury lands managed to keep their share lands, either completely or partially, after they were transferred to the estate. In such a situation, it was very difficult to imagine how the mutual relations between the ranchers and their new owners would be formed. Here, as a result of creating such confusion, the dissatisfaction between the parties went beyond the borders of a former village and became the object of investigation and dispute between officials and various administrative structures.

It can't be said that the cases of tyranny did not go beyond the circle of local landowners and landowners. As the main condition for donating rank-bearers was that they had to provide various services to the government, Russian high officials now started the practice of donating rankbearers not only to landowners and soldiers, but also to officials and servants working in various administrative structures. Among

the people who were pardoned by ranjbars were office workers, translators, workers in road construction and communications, customs, and even the police.

The surprising thing was that the number of pardoned prisoners was not so large. In the best case, it is possible to find the facts of the donation of 5-6, sometimes 7-10 villagers to the professionals listed above. Such victims could be among those who used to live in both poles of the Azerbaijani village.

Another innovation was that since the new owners of the above-mentioned ranchers did not have farms and mansions before, they were now interested in the ranchers continuing their previous economic activities, and the only difference was that the new entrepreneur was responsible for the products, labor tools, and use of their ranchers. they became full owners of land plots (116,18,28).

We mentioned that the mutual relations between the ranchers and their new owners are not regulated by any normative documents, and unexpected situations in these relations could happen at any moment. The most common situation was that the farmer family bought draft animals and seed grain from their owner to plow the farmland and continued their economic activities. After the completion of farm work, a large part of the finished product was transported to the owner's mansion and to the designated place. Many facts about the content of these relationships in the archival funds and the content of the compiled references, as a rule, were similar to each other. It would be appropriate to dwell on one of them in terms of a special point. So, while talking about which part of the finished product will go to whom in the mentioned document, it was not forgotten to indicate which part is now bought for feeding the entrepreneur's horses and other animals (116,36).

Ranjbar owners did not even want to think about the necessity of allocating time for the cultivation of the share lands previously owned by ranjbar peasants, even if it was minimal. The main issue that interested them was that the renters should pay the taxes due to them in full and on time and fulfill their obligations. Such an unfavorable situation led to the deterioration of their economic activities, inefficiency and eventually falling into debt in the cases where there were rentable share lands (115,45).

Another group of aspects in the economic activities of the ranjbar peasants was that their working conditions were much harder than that of the serf peasants. One of them was that Javad, Guba, Lankaran, Gazakh, etc. In almost all decades of the century, even after the implementation of the Peasant Regulation, a careful review of the statistical information and figures from the localities showed that the size of the plots of land planted and cultivated by the peasants was many times larger than that of the serf peasants. This was also quite clear. Because it is known that entrepreneurial peasants have between 5 and 10 tens of acres of land at best, and that taxes will be paid depending on the size of the harvest collected from it, the amount of produce that will reach them in the farms of the peasant peasants is predetermined, and it is known that all the rest will go to their owners. It is not so difficult to search and find out whose interests the cultivation of the plot of land meets.

The reasons that made the economic activities of ranjbar peasants difficult followed them every step of the way and could not be exhausted. Landlords and entrepreneurs were now not satisfied with only demanding the performance of farm work from their tenants. After all types of farm work were done and completed, new troublesome and sad work awaited the ranchers. When not on the farm, the ranchers had to deal with all the tasks assigned by the feudal lords or their

lords in general, while at the same time carrying out various tasks within their estates. In all the documents and writings related to the events of that time, it was clearly stated that the rangers were considered obliged to perform all the tasks assigned by their entrepreneurs without reservation (125,64).

The worst thing was that the entrepreneur was given the right and authority to demand the involvement of his family members in the performance of the heavy economic and other tasks that the farmers were responsible for. In the conditions of strong national traditions in the Azerbaijani village, among the legitimate complaints of ranchers, there were quite a lot of complaints and written cases from landlords and entrepreneurs who forced their spouses to work in farm work. It seems that the Russian officials could not fully understand the essence of this issue until and after the cancellation of the well-known provision of the rescript of December 6, 1846, which provides for the involvement of the wives of entrepreneurial peasants to work within the manors' estates (39,5).

In one of the complaint letters addressed to higher organizations on behalf of a group of entrepreneurial ranjbar villagers of Guba district, it was written that their situation is quite unbearable and our entrepreneurs even do so much extra work for us that we do not have any free time to deal with our own farms and household chores. It has reached the point where we don't even have the strength to feed and clothe our own family (39,6).

In the intolerable conditions of such levels of exploitation of ranjbar peasants, only a few years were required for the economic and economic activity of the former ranjbar peasants to deteriorate completely and result in them leading an almost beggar-miserable lifestyle (20,8).

Tsarist officials, who were aware of almost all the events happening in the village in time, and who only aimed to

prevent dissent from merging into a common trend against the regime, were sometimes forced to openly admit this situation. In the information addressed by one of the local provincial commandants to the chief military commander of the Caucasus, all the events that happened in the province are discussed in different sections, and the difficult economic positions and daily life of the poor peasants are also mentioned. However, the author of the letter, in the face of his fear of being blamed for sympathizing with the local poor population in front of the authorities, indicated that this situation was normal for the country and that it was necessary for the feudal landlord-farmer peasant relations to remain intact in order to ensure the strengthening of the new regime (149,328).

The ordinary living conditions and lifestyle of the ranjbars indicated that they were in a difficult economic situation. Most of the time, they lived in dugouts, did not even have primitive mud houses, and the lack of most of the common household items in the family eventually resulted in their agreeing to do the most unbearable work so that their family members would not die of hunger.

During the Russo-Iranian wars, the purchase or confiscation of land and other property by the representatives of the local landlord circles, and then returning it to them again based on the decree of the tsar in 1830, the various acts, protocols and other documents that reflect the situation of the peasants are the same as other aspects. It is also clear from the analysis of the facts about their lifestyles, household conditions and other issues at the time that ranjbars sometimes did not even have the usual primitive building to live in. The land used by some of them, their economic activities, and the results of their obligations are discussed in detail by a Russian bureaucrat, almost to every detail, while the number of family members is indicated and it is added

that such and such families live in a farm building within the farm area. (20,9).

Thus, we are not only the most socially vulnerable of the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan, but also of the village as a whole, property, land, labor tools, etc. Let us try to summarize our conclusions by analyzing the main aspects of the position of the peasant category in a completely insecure situation in the social structure of the village and the population in general.

First of all, let's say that in the literature and other writings about the Azerbaijani peasants and the village, whether it is Russian officials or bourgeois Russian and Soviet historiography, we find more information about the economic activities of the peasants by categories. Entrepreneurial village remains in the shadows in the articles we are talking about, except for a short period. If there was a discussion about ranjbar peasants in those articles, it is accidental, secondary in nature, the specific number and generalized indicators are non-existent. But in these writings, if found, the main interpretation is based primarily on their hard and unbearable economic activities and living conditions. This means that since the 19th century, the lack of information about the activities of rankand-file peasants has kept this category away from the attention of not only officials, experts, but also researchers.

The fact that the poor peasants were in such a careless situation at various levels led to their being perceived as a kind of third-class peasants, and for this reason, their entrepreneurs subjected them to conditions of uncontrolled and all-round arbitrariness and extremely severe forms of exploitation.

Sometimes in the agrarian literature, when serfs and serf peasants are mentioned separately, the main attention is focused on the fact that the latter have little or no land, mostly

in various forms, and sometimes even have to perform obligations for the benefit of both entrepreneurs and the treasury. However, in fact, these alone cannot be sufficient reasons for defining specific differences between serfs and rank-and-file peasants.

It is true, as a rule, serf peasants were in a different situation in terms of provision of share lands, labor tools, working animals. At the same time, in contrast to the place of residence, they give taxes to the state or the entrepreneur, and perform obligations for his benefit. However, we have already mentioned that among the poor peasants, in some cases, there are those who have at least a part of their previous share lands, and those whose economic situation is not so bad. We even talked about the fact that many complaints were sent to ranchers of this type because they did not have time to partially deal with their farms. In fact, we should approach the issue from a slightly different point of view. Perhaps it is appropriate to make certain comparisons between these two categories in terms of social or legal status.

Starting from the middle of the 19th century, almost all of the laws and decisions adopted by the Azerbaijani village government regulated the exact time and form of the taxes to be paid and the obligations to be fulfilled by entrepreneurial peasants and peasants. If they were described as such, the same cannot be said about the peasants. With this, the government and the laws themselves made it possible for the ranchers to remain in a state of social and legal insecurity. On the other hand, unlike the first two categories, ranchers were not recognized as the main productive force in the entrepreneurial village in terms of numbers. Sometimes, the number of peasants who were involved in accidents, when they were counted together with both groups of villages, did not exceed a thousand. This means that this number is many

times less than 1/50, even when comparing the two categories separately.

In such a difficult and economic-economic situation, it was also found that the farmers used different methods to pay the monetary duty to be paid to both their entrepreneurs and the treasury. It was perhaps the only effective way out of the situation for the poor peasants from the regions close to Oil Baku, the borders of the Russian and Ottoman empires, to go to the city in search of work as day laborers and entrepreneurs in the 1960s and 1970s. It is true that these cases, especially in the form of peasants from a number of villages in the central provinces of the empire, going to the city in search of work, were encountered even at the beginning of the century. Even this, that is, the large mass of those who left the village formed the main base for the creation of wage labor and workers in big cities. Among those who left, there were those who later became rich and became wealthy and influential businessmen. There were no such among the peasants from the Azerbaijani countryside who went to the cities in search of employment, and this process itself was gaining momentum in the years after the announcement of the peasant reform.

It was also possible to find other different aspects in the situations of ranjbars and subjects. For example, the rangers were obliged to live in the places determined by the landowners and perform various tasks and duties assigned to them. At the same time, the entrepreneur could force his employees to live there whenever he wanted. However, the traditional way of life and economic activity of the serf peasants excluded this situation. The activities of the ranjbars depended on the wishes and intentions of the landowners, unlike the serfs.

Although the social status of the ranchers was not strictly defined by the laws, but based on traditions and local

conditions, every change that occurred in the rancher's family and economic activity was resolved on the spot, immediately and verbally. There were quite a lot of such cases.

Let's say that when the head of the family died, according to tradition, all his property had to be divided among the family members who were considered heirs. However, even after that, they had to continue their previous work within the estates and farms of the landlords they belonged to.

This situation can also create some conflicting opinions. Although some authors, including individual authors of different nationalities who do not know the history of Azerbaijan in depth, are not familiar with historical traditions and national characteristics, and sometimes are deliberately hostile to our history and traditions, write various nonsense about the existence of serfdom in the Azerbaijani village, these relations are outside the Azerbaijani village. The vast majority of historians prove it with facts.

Despite all the degree of dependence and severe forms of exploitation, there is no room left to identify the peasants themselves with serfdom existing in Russia and neighboring Georgia. It is known that the serf peasants not only did not have any rights, but there were cases where they were given various corporal punishments besides being killed by their masters. In addition, the absolute majority of villagers in the village of Azerbaijan even legally had the right to leave their place of residence and move to another place. It is not found anywhere, except for one or two authors, that the propertyless and landless ranchers themselves are called serf peasants. In fact, ranchers correspond to one of the terms that received the legal expression of citizenship when talking about the rural population in Soviet historiography. Thus, the ranchers were called the rural poor, sometimes even the rural proletariat. They meant a fertile social base for future wage jobs, the prospect for the formation of a new working class.

Perhaps the wording or approach used in the various styled materials dealing with the ranjbars, who constitute a small part of the peasantry, may be confusing. As some authors emphasize such an issue in the protocols and reports, a complete description of the farm and property of lords and lords, after talking about the serfs and common peasants living in their properties during censuses, listing the name and number of ranchers along with the land, property, and agricultural inventory owned by entrepreneurs the fact (149,102) does not confirm at all that there were relations similar to the relations of dependence in neighboring provinces and governorates in Azerbaijan. In fact, such a form of drafting was related to the participation of serfs and elats in the production process, possibly to the presence of principles established in legislative documents regarding their social status, and finally to their numerical majority.

To complete our idea, one of the attributes of the existence of subordinate peasants in the central governorates is the fact that peasants are bought and sold, and sometimes this happens among entrepreneurs.

After the Russian invasion, even until the end of the century (although the peasant reform had already excluded all the cases that might be a hint for such cases, and the entrepreneurial peasant of Azerbaijan had personally obtained the right to freedom), many facts confirming the existence of such facts were not discovered. In only 1-2 cases, they also belonged to the 30s of the century, only 2 examples are given in the report of the officials about the representative of the local landlord class giving his rank to officials or other persons (18,34; 42,10).

Although in all the reports sent to the chief military commander before the formation of the viceroyalty, a separate question was asked about the occurrence of cases of

buying and selling of villagers, but this question remained unanswered in all reports (42,11).

Even in the content of the reports from the places, it allows to make a decisive verdict on the essence of this issue. Thus, it was not possible to find a single fact or sentence about this in any of the complaint letters sent to the superiors from the entrepreneur's village. There is no doubt that the root of the issue is precisely the mutual economic relations.

I.4. The place of resettled Russians in the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan and participation in economic life

Speaking of the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan, we should take into account that among the population of this category there were also representatives of nonnationalities. Lezgis, oars, talishes, etc. The first sources provide a lot of information about economic activity and household conditions. However, in our research, we would like to briefly express some thoughts about the Russian entrepreneurial villagers, who are the largest ethnic group of the Azerbaijani entrepreneurial village.

In ancient times, from the time of the Roman Empire, the governments of the ruling nations organized the resettlement of non-main ethnic groups within the borders. This policy also took place during the Sassanid state, the Arab Caliphate, the Mongol Empire and other states. For thousands of years, the Caucasus, which has become a place of collision of different forms of world civilization and a competitive arena for the policies of major world powers, as well as Azerbaijan, has been a political training ground of empires.

Although the lands of Azerbaijan have been formed and inhabited by the Azerbaijani people since time immemorial, representatives of other peoples and nationalities have also lived here together with the local population. Most of them

did not choose Azerbaijan as a place of settlement on their own, but in most cases they included Azerbaijan in their territories at different times and became a means for the policy of creating an ethnic base for themselves in new places. Among such empires, the Persians in ancient times and the Middle Ages, and Russia in the new era, made the South Caucasus or Azerbaijan the arena for the implementation of this policy.

Russians are currently the second largest ethnic group in Azerbaijan after Azerbaijanis and Lezgs. According to the number of Russians living outside the Russian Federation, Azerbaijan is among the leading countries where the Russian diaspora is successfully active. Despite all their limitations, Russians played an important and active role in all spheres of life of the country and the state since they settled in Azerbaijan at the beginning of the 19th century.

In time, the transfer of Russian peasants and other Christian elements to Azerbaijan was evaluated only in a positive sense in Russian and Soviet historiography. However, in modern national historiography, a completely new approach and attitude has been formed to the issue of the resettlement of Russians to Azerbaijan. In addition to the fact that the resettlement served the imperial colonial policy and was carried out with the aim of strengthening Russia's position in new places, the Russian peasants as a whole, the Russian-speaking and other Christian population, played an important role in the economic and social development of Azerbaijan. The role they play in the social life, as well as in the cultural field, is discussed in detail and objectively. The territory of Azerbaijan occupied a special place in the formation and implementation of Russia's resettlement policy due to its favorable strategic and geographical position from the first half of the 19th century. Even before 1920, the works and writings of Russian historians of bourgeois-noble origin

and officials holding high positions in the administration system of the Caucasus explained different aspects of the process of resettling Russians to the region.

Articles of this type mostly bypassed the main goals of the resettlement carried out by the Russian government in the national regions, as well as in Azerbaijan, and generally justified the resettlement and the measures taken in connection with it, emphasizing only the positive aspects and results of these issues. In fact, there was some truth in these ideas. It would probably not be a secret to reveal that in the middle of the 19th century and especially in the second half of the 19th century, the participation and services of the resettled Russian peasants in different fields of agricultural production in Azerbaijan, including cotton growing, cattle breeding, horse breeding, potato production, veterinary service and other fields, were important.

Today, the era of the seizure of the territories of neighboring states by states that called themselves empires in their time, or at least were interested in increasing their borders, is far behind. But neither the ambitions of politicians, nor the actions taken across the ocean to change for their own good the geopolitical situation that has developed over the decades in the old world, especially around Russia, can serve as a basis for violating even the most ordinary rights of people who have built their home for centuries. This is either a Russian or a representative of another nation. It does not matter whether he lives in Ukraine, in Azerbaijan or in another country.

The changing world, the international situation and the almost stabilization of the balance of power between the states have also changed the direction and reasons of population migration processes. Any wrong step in this area, unthought-out or artificially created novelties can lead to

unimaginable disasters not only for a region, but also for the world.

Although the period of the expansion of the Russian imperial borders and settlement of Russians in new territories is long behind us, the reverberations and painful consequences of those relocations are still visible today. Russians who have lived in Ukraine and post-Soviet republics for decades are now oppressed due to issues of school, language and other social status, which in many cases results in them leaving the areas of their permanent residence and returning to the Russian Federation.

It is at least intolerable that tens of thousands of innocent people have become forced refugees, while the protection of human rights is being talked about at various levels and organizations about the events in Ukraine. It was under the influence of the events in Ukraine that we considered it important to focus on the further fate of the Russianspeaking population that was transferred to Azerbaijan and other issues. This is also important because the current situation of the Russians who were resettled in Azerbaijan, known as a tolerant country both religiously and racially and ethnically, at that time as well as the current situation of the later generations of Russians, was not at all the same as in Azerbaijan in the national regions where the resettlement work was carried out, and now it is can't be comparable.

Politicians, first of all, Ukrainians themselves, forget that the ancestors of the current Russian settlers have rendered invaluable services in the acquisition of the status of the territory of the Ukrainian state after the multi-stage and bloody wars with the Polish and Ottoman states, starting from the 16th century. A new test for the fate of the Ukrainian lands was the Great Patriotic War, which was the greatest threat to humanity in the 20th century, and the Great Patriotic War between Nazi Germany and the USSR, and again, as before,

the intactness of the Republic of Ukraine within the current borders was crucially dependent on the Russian-speaking population living there, as well as the Russian Federation and its allies at that time was made possible with the help of the economic potential and population of other so-called Soviet republics.

Already at the beginning of the 19th century, Russia, which won two wars with the Ottoman Empire and the Iranian state, completed the work of uniting both the South and the North Caucasus in the middle of the century, and achieved the most successful steps in the history of its country to expand its territory. Economic appropriation of the newly united territories required solving the issues of strengthening political power here. Among the works done in this direction, the introduction of the traditional resettlement policy served several purposes in itself. Russia does not trust most of the peoples of the Muslim faith in the new territories, including the Azerbaijani Turks, and discriminates among the population in these territories, as well as in the entire Caucasus, and "divide and conquer!" implemented the historical imperial policy.

Russian-speaking peasants and people of other Christian faiths, who were the main objects of the resettlement work, who did not know the real goals of the politicians and what their fate would be in the new places they would be moved to, were moved to new places. It was certainly not their fault that they were recognized as strangers by the local population in those places.

One of the most harmful consequences of the Russian government's policy of not trusting the Muslim population was the massive resettlement of Armenian peasants from the territories of neighboring countries, including Turkey and Iran. Tens of thousands of Russian peasants, Russianspeaking sectarian Malakans brought from various governorates of

Russia were also found among those who were transferred to new places.

At first, as a result of court-administrative punishment, sectarians and heretics-sectarians were among the resettled people, but in the following years, the government authorities brought the Russian-speaking population here (144,75). The migration of Russians to the territory of Azerbaijan began in 1838 with the establishment of Vel village of Lankaran district. Some sources accept that this date is 1834 or even 1832 (144,101-102). It is said that the first Russian settlements were established in Shamakhi district. In 1833-1834, the first Russian village was established in Zangezur district called Bazarchay, covering about 40 malakan yards (144,104). Later, part of the residents of this village were transferred to the village of Garabulag, Jabrayil district.

In the following years, the establishment of Russian villages continued in Azerbaijan. In 1854, the fact that the settled Russians in the South Caucasus were settled in 56 villages and consisted of 3689 families was shown (144,115).

After the 1861 peasant reform in Russia, a qualitatively new stage began in the process of resettling Russian peasants to the South Caucasus, including Northern Azerbaijan. In the second half of the 19th century, especially at the end, due to the emergence and expansion of new capitalist relations in the economy of Azerbaijan, the number of resettled Russians increased significantly.

According to the data of 1873, resettled Russian peasants made up 2.1 percent of the local population. Among the governorates, the highest settlement rate of Russian peasants (5.5 percent) was registered in Tbilisi Governorate. Baku (3.4 percent) and Yelizavetpol governorates (1.5 percent) came next (144,58).

The most accurate information about the migration of Russians to the South Caucasus and North Azerbaijan can be

obtained from the statistical collection reflecting the results of the 1886 family census. According to this source, Russians made up 104,919 people or 2.4 percent of the total population of the South Caucasus out of 4,091,000 people. What attracted attention in this list was the emergence of new differences in the degree of settlement of Russians by governorates. Thus, at that time, Russians made up 6 percent of the population in Baku Governorate, 4.2 percent in Tbilisi Governorate, and 1.1 percent in Yelizavetpol Governorate. Again, it is known from this source that in 115 villages of the South Caucasus, either more than half or at least one third of the population consisted of Russians (144,59).

Thus, on the basis of the conducted analysis, it was determined that the governorates with the largest number of Russian villages were Baku, Tbilisi, Yelizavetpol, and Yerevan. At least 2 Russian villages were registered in Kutais governorate (144,62).

Based on the comparison and analysis of data related to Baku and Yelizavetpol governorates, it was determined that 17,675 out of 424,644 or 4.2 percent of state peasants living in Baku governorate, 7,275 or 2 percent of 350,918 state peasants in Yelizavetpol governorate were Russian peasants. (48,10).

As stated in one of the sources' information, in the villages where Russians settled in Yelizavetpol province, they were in a more privileged position and used a land share of 60 decimeters, much more than the land area given to local villagers (133). In the process of resettling Russians, there were innovations at each stage. One of them was the decision adopted by the government in April 1899. It was stated that allotment of land to Russian peasants settled in Azerbaijan was carried out only if they were of Russian origin (67,322).

Although there was no extensive information about the socio-economic and economic life of Russian villages until

the middle of the 19th century, already in the 60s and 70s of the century, quite extensive information about the land structure and economic life of Russian peasants can be found. Based on the law of December 21, 1849, each of the Russian peasant families transferred to the South Caucasus was supposed to be allocated 30-60 tithing of land (144,64).

In 1852, by the order of the Viceroy of the South Caucasus, it was intended to allocate 60 tithing of land to each of the resettled Russian peasant families, and this figure was 2 times more than the norm of the land in official use of that local peasant family (144,34,65). However, the situation in localities was sometimes such that, since the number of resettled Russian peasants was not so large, they were allocated a higher amount of land by local administrative bodies.

A little later, as new groups of Russian peasant families were brought to the South Caucasus, the Caucasian administration determined new norms for the share lands of Russian peasants. In 1862, 35 tithing were determined for mountainous areas and 10 tithing for irrigated areas (144,52).

Although it is not possible to obtain specific figures about the total area of allotment land per family and per person in the Russian villages of the South Caucasus, but at that time A.I. Kliba-kov, I.L. Segal and others, who worked in various structures of the South Caucasus administrative bodies, reported accidents and it was possible to obtain quite important information about the land provision and economic-employment areas of Russian villagers from the calculations he conducted for the villages (144,65).

The level of participation of resettled Russians in different areas of Azerbaijan's agricultural production is also of particular interest. After the peasant reform, various socio-economic processes in the Azerbaijani village, including stratification, did not bypass the Russian villages. In some

cases, the more favorable economic situation in the Russian villages, as well as the favorable privileged situation created by the official structures, increased the number of middle-class and wealthy peasants among the Russian peasants. They were found primarily in grain farms. At the end of the 19th century, the area of the share lands of Russian peasants in the Baku governorate varied between 11 and 52 tithing, but the average of such areas was 23 desyatins, and in Yelizavetpol gubernia these indicators were between 19 and 75 desyatins and 36 tithing, respectively (224,138). In Russian villages, as among local residents, the concentration of private ownership, share and leased land in the hands of individual persons was not a majority, but in any case, it allowed for the creation of farms with hundreds of acres of land in the use of some farms.

Among the reasons for the relatively successful economic activity of residents in Russian villages, we can mention the raising of productive breeds of cattle, the use of more advanced labor tools, the use of more productive plant varieties in planting, the introduction of more efficient systems in field farming, etc.

It should be said that the degree of employment of resettled Russians in different fields of agricultural production was not the same. Cotton growing was the most common occupation in Russian settlements. Along with a number of reasons, the reason for this was the fact that cotton farming was 4-5 times more profitable than grain farming. At the end of the 19th century, there were 15,000 tithing of cotton plantations in the village of Azerbaijan, and at the beginning of the 20th century, this figure was 105,000 tithing (91,155).

The process of creation of large capitalist farms of Russian peasants in grain farms can be more clearly observed in the example of 19 Russian villages in Lankaran district.

Novogorlovka, Astrakhanka, Novaya Andreyevka, Nikolayevka, Privolny, Prishib and some other villages of Gaza were in a more favorable situation from this point of view. For example, in the village of Prishib, in 1900, a Russian family planted grain crops on more than 40 tithing and obtained 32 centners from each tithing (91,139).

At the time, families in some Russian villages cultivated more than 400 tithing of grain each. Such farms were found in Russian villages even during the First World War. Along with advanced technical facilities, the use of hired workers in these farms proved the rapid emergence and development of new commodity capitalist relations in Russian villages. At the end of the 19th century, during the new phase of the Russian government's resettlement of Russian peasants to Azerbaijan, the 324,000-decathin area of the Mugan plain, which is considered the wintering place of local Azerbaijanis, becomes a resettlement fund for the gradual resettlement of Russian peasants. 39 new Russian villages were built here during the first 5-7 years of the 20th century. According to the data of 1911, there were 1,830 farms of Russian peasants with more than 10,000 tithing of arable land in Mughan. 233 of these Russian peasant farms were engaged in cotton cultivation in the area of more than 10 tithing, 682 of them were 4-10 tithing, 450 were between 3-5 tithing, and 362 were up to 3 tithing (144,158).

Thus, cotton was grown on 77 percent of the cultivated land in Russian villages in Mughan. Only a limited amount of grain, corn, potatoes and plants were cultivated.

The economic activity of the Russians in the Azerbaijani village was not limited only to the work of the Russian peasants in various agricultural fields of the size of the indicated fields. Among the Russians who settled in Azerbaijan, there were sometimes rich and wealthy people who had more than 1000 tithing of farmland and other

property and economic units. For example, in Yelizavet-pol gubernia, prince L.S. Golitsy's land of more than 1000 tithing in the place called Karaarkh is mainly used for viticulture, grain growing, animal husbandry, fruit growing, etc. they successfully dealt with fields (11,193). The activity of a winery and other processing enterprises was also known within the farm, and on the eve of the war, the annual income was 200-250 thousand rubles (11,194).

One of the Russian entrepreneurs, Prince K.A. Gorchakov's estate called Garapax, on an area of about 1150 desyats, and A.P. Plemlyanniko's estate of more than 1500 desyats in Shamkir, were successful in various fields of agricultural production, primarily viticulture and winemaking. The presence of 16,000 acres of vineyards on the eve of the war in the estate of the last entrepreneur indicated that he had quite wide economic opportunities. Another Russian entrepreneur, N.L. Shustov, was the owner of all the vineyards in Baku governorate, especially in Shamakhi and Goychay districts (144,197).

This list could be extended to the end. But one thing was known, that the privileged position of the people of the Russian nationality made it possible for them to own farmlands, pastures, forests and other types of land and to operate successfully in different areas of production. At the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century, other processes taking place in the South Caucasus, which was considered one of the main regions of the resettlement of Russians, had to influence the course of the resettlement work. Starting from the end of the 60s of the 19th century, capitalist relations spread to the South Caucasus, including the rural areas where Russians live more compactly. The process of resettlement of Russian peasants in Russia during this period was faster than the national regions such as Siberia, Urals, and Central Asia. In 1897, the head of the

civil administration of the Caucasus, Prince G.S. Golitsin, sent circular letters to the governors of the regions and gave concrete instructions to search and enumerate the vacant lands within the state lands, with the condition that Russian peasants would be transferred there. In fact, on the basis of this letter, already on June 7, 1896, the name of the Caucasus was first mentioned among the mentioned national regions, talking about the partial implementation of the relevant government order on the establishment of a land fund in places for the resettlement of Russian peasants by the Minister of Internal Affairs I.L. Goremyki (144,102).

It should be noted that prince G.S. Golitsy, who worked for some time as the head of the civil administration of the Caucasus, was instrumental in the relocation of Russians to the South Caucasus. Count S. Y. Witte, the finance minister of Russia at that time, wrote about him that the prince came to the Caucasus with the program and purpose of Russifying the place, but he carried out this work with special enthusiasm and violent police methods. Therefore, it is no coincidence that as soon as G.S. Golits was appointed to his new post in 1897, new groups of Russians were transferred to the region, and new additional problems were created for the local population.

The assassination of G.S. Golitsy in October 1903 was related to the very negative attitude of the local population towards the prince and was the logical result of this attitude. Instead, in official circles, the prince acquired the image of a true hero and was defended by Tsar Alexander III. As it is known, S.G. Witte spent his childhood in the Caucasus, and through his close family members, through his contacts with high-ranking officials in the higher management structures of the Caucasus, as a high-ranking official with extensive information about the way of life in the Caucasus, he expressed a strong negative attitude to Golitsy's activities in

the Caucasus. Count S. Y. Witte openly stated that Prince Golitsyn was the main culprit of numerous riots that occurred in the Caucasus in recent years. According to SY. Witten, Prince Golitsyn was in the spirit of hatred for the Caucasus, and therefore he could not be a Caucasian, he could not understand and accept the spirit of the Caucasians. He was the first person who tried to Russify the Caucasus not with his morals, reputation, and spirit, but with violence and brutal police methods. The prince was punished for this act, and after being injured, he was removed from his position and had to leave the Caucasus (144, 105).

Despite all this, it was during the time of the new civil chief that the resettlement of Russians was carried out faster and with more drastic administrative methods. It was during this period that the procedure for leasing land plots for 6-12 years at the expense of state lands to displaced Russian peasants was determined. It was supposed that after the end of the specified period, those fields should remain at the disposal of the Russian peasants for life. In fact, this rule was applied in the Baku governorate even before the arrival of the prince and allowed the expansion of the economic activity of the Russian peasants. Prince Golitsy's expansion of the application of this rule meant encouraging and simulating the arrival of displaced Russians to the region (144,106).

Another law was passed on April 30, 1899, which accelerated the resettlement of Russians. The novelty of the law was that now priority should be given to the resettlement of people of Russian origin and Orthodox faith to the Caucasus. In addition, the resettled Russian peasant families were supposed to be exempted from all state taxes and land rent (144,109).

A new stage in the resettlement of Russian peasants to the South Caucasus began in 1903 with the opening of a special resettlement station at the Bilajari station near Baku.

In this station, along with the registration of imported Russian families, they were also provided with food and medical assistance, and appropriate buildings were built for this purpose (144,112).

The next campaign for the resettlement of Russians to Azerbaijan, which began in 1897, was distinguished by several different features. Starting from that year, the settlement of new Russian peasants in most parts of the Mughan plain, which is considered the winter land of the local population, was far behind the previous decades in terms of the scale of the resettlement and the number of those brought. Although the fact that 48 new Russian villages were established in Mughan by 1917 is indicated in a number of sources (91,7), some authors, for example, O.D. Komarova, in 1902-1917, 55 new Russians with a population of more than 20 thousand were established in Mughan. states that his village was built (355,91).

In the mentioned years, Russian villages were built along the Mughan plain along the Caspian coast and along the strip between the Guba and Lankaran districts. In general, at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries, more than 100 Orthodox Russian peasants were reported to have settled in Azerbaijan (11,92).

According to the data of 1897, 73,632 Russianspeaking residents lived in Baku governorate and 14,146 in Yelizavetpol governorate. The beginning of the 20th century was a new stage in the resettlement of Russians to Azerbaijan, and the size of the newly established villages and the wider participation of Russians in the economic life of the region are remembered. In 1901-1904, Yermolovka, Kozlyakov, Alekseyevka and Pokrovka in Lankaran district, Grigoryevsk, Novogalitsino, Novoyermolovka, Shirvan in Guba region, Nikolayevka, Aleksandrovka, Mikhailovka in Javad district were built in 1901-1904 (91,7).

At the beginning of the 20th century, the Russian government took other economic measures to completely Russify the Mil and Mughan steppes. With the participation of the resettled Russian peasants, funds were allocated for the transformation of Mughan into a large cotton-growing district in order to meet the raw material demand of the Russian textile industry. However, the most important goal was the settlement of more than 100 thousand Russians and creating the conditions for economic activity. For this reason, newly resettled Russians were given various concessions in land use and other necessary property ownership (11,93).

The work done by the Russian government in the field of creating Russian settlements in Mughan was not enough to create favorable conditions for ethnic support and economic activity. The government did not consider it expedient for Muslim entrepreneurs intending to engage in cotton farming in Mughan to buy land and resettle Azerbaijani peasants here, and even warned the governor-general of Baku about this. That is, the release of the local population to Mughan, which is located along the border of Iran, which is a Muslim state, was considered a wrong step from a political point of view, so the establishment of Russian villages in Mughan was justified from the point of view of socio-ethnic and economic policy (48,463).

The same attitude and situation applied to Mil steppe and Yelizavetpol governorate. In the 1901 report of Yelizavetpol governorate, it was stated that the settlement of the Mil Plain with Russians would be in accordance with the economic interests of the state and would have a very serious political significance. Because there will be a wide strip of Russians between the South Caucasian provinces, whose population is mainly Shiite Muslims, and Iran, which is of the same religion (48,465).

During the resettlement process, the government structures violated the local traditions of land use and changed the previously stable land relations among the villagers. Thus, in the eastern part of the South Caucasus, the basis of the economy was the pasture lands necessary for nomadic cattle breeding. As a rule, during the transfer process, such lands were transferred to newly established Russian villages. Sometimes, the transfer of grazing lands of nomadic herdsmen to Russian peasants was often carried out without warning. One such case that happened in Alar village community of Lankaran district was reflected in the article of V.I.Lenin entitled "Relocation issue" (187,227).

Chapter II. Economic activities of entrepreneurial peasants in Azerbaijan after the peasant reform

II.1. Russia in the 60s-80s of the XIX century The issue of attitude towards entrepreneurial peasants in colonial agrarian policy in Azerbaijan

In the village of North Azerbaijan, the entrepreneur village and the villagers were a minority compared to the state village. On the eve of the reform - in 1869, entrepreneurial peasants made up 17.8 percent of all peasants in Baku governorate, and 1/4 in Yelizavetpol governorate (218,234). On the eve of the peasant reform in the South Caucasus, capitalist relations, which had just begun to develop slowly, were in conflict with the ruling feudal relations, making it necessary to carry out the peasant reform (218, 232-233).

A serious opinion about the implementation of the reform about entrepreneurial peasants in the Muslim territories was expressed in the letter of Prince A.P. Nikolay, the head of the General Administration under the Viceroy on March 23, 1866, addressed to the Viceroy of the Caucasus, and the issues that must be reconsidered in the future reform were also indicated here.

After the peasant reform in Russia - abolition of the right to serfdom - there was a certain conclusion in ruling circles about the implementation of agrarian reform in the outskirts of the empire, including in the South Caucasus, which includes Northern Azerbaijan. For this purpose, the government also instructed the Viceroy of the Caucasus, Prince A.I. Baryatinsky, to start preparations for the reform (47,42; 117,2). After that, the Central Reform Committee of the South Caucasus was started under the leadership of the office of the Vice-Chancellor of the Caucasus, and in the

governorates, the governorship and in some districts, the district reform committees began to operate.

In the course of preparations for the peasant reform of May 14, 1870 in Azerbaijan, there were many different aspects from the Tiflis governorate, where the reform was first implemented in both Russia and the South Caucasus. One of the key aspects of the Central Reform Committee's activities during its first six months was the assessment of the economic and land conditions, as well as the peasant-entrepreneur relations of all private landowners, and an evaluation of the peasants residing on their lands. Additionally, the committee focused on determining effective methods for providing land to the peasants, emphasizing the importance of implementing these measures with minimal harm to the interests of landowners. (13,8).

Although the implementation of the peasant reform in Northern Azerbaijan was delayed until 1870, the Central Reform Committee prepared its preliminary considerations and proposals at the end of 1863 and presented two draft laws for discussion in order to start the relevant work in the Tiflis governorate as the first place for the reform:

- 1) South Caucasian governorates: Yelizavetpol, Baku, Iravan and partly Tbilisi governorates about the land structure of the peasants who live on the lands of people from high Muslim lineage
- 2) About the working rules of rural affairs departments (later to be called commissions) in each of these governorates.

Although the official circles explained that the peasant reform was not implemented simultaneously in all the South Caucasian governorates, or that the governorates inhabited by Azerbaijanis were left out of the reform process at the beginning, the latter were not yet fully ready for this reform and other technical reasons. It was based on the possibility

that it would not be met with satisfaction by the people, and even that there would be peasant unrest in separate places (67,509-510).

Thus, after the process of implementing the peasant reform in the South Caucasus was started, the colonial administrative bodies realized that it was inevitable to do these things in North Azerbaijan as well, and started the process of implementing the reform (183,28). It should be noted that the presence of sufficient base and experience in preparation for the peasant reform in Georgia allowed the preparation for this work in North Azerbaijan to be completed in a short time in the conditions where bureaucracy and procrastination prevailed in the colonial administrative bodies.

Based on these considerations, the Viceroy of the Caucasus wrote in his letter to the Central Reform Committee on March 16, 1870, and finally recommended the initiation of relevant works for the preparation of the reform in Northern Azerbaijan (67,65).

The first draft of the reform was widely discussed 14 times on January 12-17 and November 10-24, 1869, with the participation of 5 members of the Russian Government Senate and local governors in the General Administration under the Caucasian Viceroy. As a result of the intensity of these discussions and their uninterrupted continuation for about a month and a half, almost all the main details of the future reform were fully specified (67,41-42).

In the discussions in the committee, such an aspect attracted attention that the ways of obtaining the necessary funds for the implementation of the Regulation and the necessity of creating special institutions were specially mentioned. It was specifically stated that the need to create separate peasant offices for the implementation of the reform arose from the following reasons: 1) The specificity of the

work of preparing the plan of peasant share lands and its preparation according to local conditions; 2) The impossibility of trusting the local landowners, who are not competent in this matter, but who are particularly ambitious, to prepare charter decrees (67, 43).

Based on these considerations, the Committee discussed the collected materials at the end of January 1869 with the participation of the governors of Tiflis, Baku, Iravan and Yelizavetpol and recommended to add its own proposals and notes to the project (67,41).

One of the most controversial issues in the discussions in the committee was the determination of the area of the peasant share lands. In the various reports presented to the Committee by the gubernia administrations during the preparation of the reform, various figures were shown on the area of share lands used by entrepreneurial peasants. In the Kazakh district of Yelizavetpol gubernia, in the mansion belonging to the lords, the area of shared lands per tusk (1 tusk - Russian "dym" actually means a yard, a farm. B.F.) is shown as 15 tithing on average, but the area of shared lands of the majority of parties is not even 10 tithing was not enough (67,47).

Therefore, the Committee adopted the principled and final provision of allocating up to 15 tithing to one family, and 5 tithing each to men who have reached the age of 15, with the condition that 1/3 of the landlord's land remains in their possession during the period after the announcement of the reform (67, 48).

After getting acquainted with the committee's materials, Mikhail Nikolayevich, the deputy of the Caucasus, basically approved its provisions and sent it to the Caucasus Committee on March 16, 1870. Janishin also stated that the additions to the project should be harmonized with the general provisions of the Villager's Charter. According to Janishi, the content of

the project did not create difficulties because the main provisions proposed or determined by the Peasant Statutes of 1847, including the granting of allotment lands to the peasants and the confirmation and retention of the landowners' ownership rights to their land, actually reflected in the Peasant Reform of 1861 (67,65).

Thus, after very detailed discussions, two projects were approved and recommended for adoption by the Caucasian committee: 1) About the land structure of entrepreneurial peasants in the South Caucasian governorates; 2) On the organization of local bodies on peasant issues in governorates and districts (67, 67).

After all this, the Caucasian Committee approved and approved both projects along with their main directions and provisions on April 20, 1870, but some additions were made to them. In particular, it was decided to replace the term "villager" with the term "resident" in the project (67,67-68). One of the most important issues in the committee meetings was about the rules for replacing the duties performed by the peasants to buy their share lands with money. In the discussions, it was stated that the content of the project only talked about the conversion of the peasants' obligations into money, but the capital value of the peasant share lands was not mentioned. At the same time, taking into account the difficulty of this issue, it was considered impossible to entrust it to the commission of the local peasant issue.

It was considered necessary to provide clear instructions and instructions to civil mediators for calculating the exact amount of assessment and payment transactions. This issue was also considered particularly important, as the question of the exact assessment of the amount of payment had to be determined only by the gubernia peasant affairs commission. For this purpose, the project included a provision on the capitalization of 6% of the income of peasant share lands and

the addition of 16.5% monetary obligations. However, the last word on the rules of conversion of natural liability into money was left to the discretion of the viceroy (67,68-69).

Although the May 14, 1870 Peasant Statute was new in terms of date and certain principle points, it actually repeated some of the principles of the April 25 and December 28, 1847 statutes in terms of the content of the main provisions. In other words, the peasants living on the lands of the representatives of the high Muslim nobility had to bear obligations and pay taxes for the benefit of the previous sole landowners until they purchased and privatized the land they used all the time (190, 631; 218, 235; 226, 85).

In the new regulations, regardless of the size of the crop, the entrepreneurial peasant should pay a tax of 15 kopecks to his lord for each tithing of the share land. In some cases, the money tax was allowed to remain in the form of a product tax as before. However, this was allowed on the basis of mutual agreement between the two parties, i.e. the landowner and the entrepreneurial peasant, on the condition that this tax did not exceed 1/8 of the total product (87, 212).

During and after the announcement of the peasant charter, the government representatives in their meetings with representatives of nobles and landlords in the localities, along with the declaration that the government made special efforts to improve the condition of entrepreneurial peasants, also took into account that special efforts were made to ensure that the economic interests of landowners did not suffer less and their incomes did not decrease.

In any case, it should be said that the peasant reform did not serve the interests of the landlords and limit the interests of the peasants as much as in the South Caucasus in any territory of the empire (218, 232).

As stipulated in the content of the peasant charter, in accordance with the charter decrees prepared separately

during the implementation of the reforms, the ownerfarming peasant male who has reached the age of 15 can start his own farms on the share lands that he has been using until now, provided that this does not exceed 5 tithing could manage independently. But here, unlike the statutes of 1847, entrepreneurial peasants were considered obliged to return their land to their lords, which actually exceeded 5 tithing. It is true, it was also stated here that the excess part could still be returned to the peasant entrepreneur, only on the condition that the lease be given now (87, 212-213).

However, it was considered important that the peasants would not have the money, which is the most important condition for buying their share lands, and that they would not have it for a long time, and even if there were those who wanted it, according to the rules, it was considered important that they should wait for the transfer of the product tax to the money tax as one of the main conditions. . Among the parties, most of the time, the entrepreneur tries to deliberately overstate the volume of his employee's product, to increase the amount of tax that will reach the lord and master, etc. due to the reasons, it caused serious dissatisfaction, conflicts and sometimes many complaints were sent to different addresses. In I. Segal's work, as well as in many statistical compilations and documents, there was a wide discussion about the arbitrariness allowed in the collection of fruit and property tax in places (210, 23).

The 1870 Ordinance gave the entrepreneurial peasant only a small measure of freedom from his landlords. Although the statute freed the entrepreneurial peasant from personal dependence and gave him the right to move from one place to another, it did not matter. Thus, a peasant in Northern Azerbaijan was never personally dependent on the owner of the shared land he used - the landowner, and a

personally free peasant could freely change his place of residence if he had no tax debt.

In the course of the implementation of the reform, the civil mediators whom the entrepreneurial peasants saw and turned to most of the government officials, being close to the gentlemen and aghas from the class and social point of view, made decisions in favor of the entrepreneurs in almost all cases. In most cases, processing of petitions and complaints addressed to the emergency, governorate and capital authorities of the villagers lasted for years and ultimately remained ineffective and unresolved.

Until the loan operation, the right of the entrepreneurial peasants to demand the transfer of taxes to the landlord's mansion remained with the entrepreneur for a long time. One of the limitations of the peasant reform was that the Constitution did not cover all the territories inhabited by Azerbaijanis. These were, first of all, the Guba district, where the implementation of the reform was delayed until 1877 under various pretexts of tsarism (231, 601-602), and then the Zagatala district, where the reform was postponed until 1913 (231, 616). True, after some preparatory work, finally in 1877, the reform was applied to the entrepreneurial peasants of the Guba district with some amendments and changes (67, 157-158).

However, the implementation of the reform in the Zagatala district was significantly delayed due to the complicated nature of the relations between the entrepreneurs and the peasants who depended on them, according to the officials in the relevant structures of tsarism. Even in 1874, a special commission presented a special project to the Caucasian Viceroy on peasant reform in the Zagatala district, but it was excluded from further discussions due to some considerations (87, 116; 113, 3).

After the peasant reform of 1870, many attempts were made to change agrarian relations in Zagatala district, but the first steps on this path were taken in 1900-1903 with the adoption of some legislative acts. But these did not allow to achieve effective results. As a whole, the work done in this direction in all structures of tsarism did not bear fruit until the adoption of agrarian laws in 1912-1913.

As mentioned, the creation of the departments of the gubernia peasant affairs commissions was one of the first steps towards the implementation of the reform (231, 20). Thus, the Statute provided for the creation of 18 gubernia and district peasant affairs commissions in the South Caucasus governorates, the establishment of 44 civilian mediator positions and the allocation of 20 translators to them (231, 22).

One of the first and most important tasks for the gubernia peasant affairs commissions to start functioning was the preparation of special acts defining the legal bases of relations between entrepreneurs and peasants living on their lands, as stipulated in Article 4 of the Constitution. These acts were used as the basis for the activity of the "civil mediators" who were the main or leading figures in the course of the reform in the entrepreneurial village, and these acts were later included in all documents related to the reform of May 14, 1870 as "ustavnnye gramota" - "regular decrees". » began to be called (183,30).

Articles 124-139 of the Statute were specifically devoted to the content of this "decree" (190, 644-646). It should be said that the issue of charter decrees was not a new issue in principle. Because this document was mentioned for the first time in the Statute of February 19, 1861, its purpose and content were explained in detail (151, 36; 156, 126).

It should be noted that the importance of charter decrees is extremely important in terms of studying the relations

between the owners of mansions and the villagers dependent on them, as well as in terms of monitoring the implementation of the Regulations on the ground. Although the documents related to the reform envisage the drafting of charter decrees for the manor, so far it has been possible to find only a part of these documents in the historical archives of the cities of Baku, Tbilisi and St. Petersburg. The worst thing is that only a small part of the charter decrees, about 200, are kept in the funds of the RDTA in Baku, and the most (more than 260) in the funds of the RDTA in St. Petersburg (178,45).

The years 1875-1885 are considered the most intensive period in the drafting of charter decrees. In these years, approximately 2/3 of the decrees were prepared, but the complete completion of this work remained elusive. The fact that the preparation of charter documents is multi-stage and complicated, topographer, etc. the lack of specialists, the fact that the process of drawing up documents legally confirming the purchase - confiscation of peasants' share lands without receiving any financial assistance, unlike in European Russia, even after the reform of 1912, was very slow even after the reform of 1912, etc. as a result, documents were prepared for a total of 2-5 percent of all peasant share lands.

According to the regulations, a separate charter was drawn up for each entrepreneur's village or for each entrepreneur's property, indicating the number of villagers living there, family members, the area of shared land in their use and its boundaries.

In the first paragraph of the 14-item statute decree, which was drawn up for almost all landlord mansions without exception, the name of the mansion owner, civil rank, title, name of the governorate and district, the chamber list of villagers in that mansion, the number of male inhabitants, other yard land in each charter decree, garden, melon areas,

the area of used pastures and meadows and other information should also be reflected.

In the second paragraph of the charter decree, the area of the share land used by the entrepreneurial peasants for each smoke, in the third paragraph within the limits of the entrepreneurial peasants' share land, as well as the rules for the use of grazing and grazing areas by the entrepreneurial peasants in the lands belonging to the landlords, in the fourth paragraph about water sources, in the fifth paragraph about forests, in the sixth paragraph the rules for using fruit trees, the taxes and duties paid by entrepreneurial peasants for the benefit of the owner of the mansion in the seventh and seventh paragraphs, the amount of money tax paid by the peasants for each tenth of the share land in the eighth paragraph, the timely payment of taxes and duties by the entrepreneurial peasants for the benefit of the mansion owner in the ninth and tenth paragraphs, ten in the first paragraph, the entrepreneur peasants are obliged to carry the product tax to the estate of their entrepreneur (provided that it is not far away from 50 versts), in the twelfth and thirteenth paragraphs, the price of the entrepreneur peasants rman, the rules of using artificial irrigation sources, and finally, in the fourteenth article, the right of the owners of mansions to demand the fulfillment of obligations from entrepreneurial peasants was mentioned (190, 645-646).

In all three governorates, in the process of drafting charter documents, the following scenario was repeated in most places. In most cases, this document is prepared by the local landlord or his representative, and the civil mediator often superficially checked the procedure for drawing up the document and the correctness of its information. This did not require much skill and precision from the mediator. The most difficult task of the mediators was to do the necessary work, which was not so noticeable at first, but also took into account

the cases in which the peasants themselves would get rid of the temporary obligation by paying a fee to their master, which they did not care much about. It should be noted that the disputes that arose during the performance of this task were no less than the disputes that arose during the determination of the size and location of the peasant share land.

In fact, this issue was one of the main goals of drafting the charter documents. Because the authors of the draft Regulation were aware of how interested government circles are in solving this issue soon. Therefore, all the main points related to the payment transaction had to be reflected in the charter decree (207,66).

Another aspect was the indifference, arbitrariness and other actions of civil mediators who acted as defenders of the interests of the government and entrepreneurs during the drafting of the document. In most cases, these people considered themselves to have done the work, ignoring even the reasonable dissatisfaction of the entrepreneurial peasants in the localities (231,21).

Despite the fact that the government carried out a lot of organizational work before the announcement of the reform, and it was planned to prepare the charter decrees within two years, in fact, the work in this field was delayed due to the reasons mentioned. Even in some provinces, this work continued for decades (226, 87).

If we examine whether the peasant or the entrepreneur caused more obstacles to the progress of the work during the drafting of charter documents, we must say that the drafting works were most often obstructed by landlords, and most often deliberately. Instead of helping the mediators with their correct information and statements, the landlords made the situation even more confusing. Sometimes they even openly gave false statements. In almost all manors, landlords hid

accurate information about pasture and garden areas located on their land. It even reached the point that during the drafting of some charter decrees, landlords deliberately did not participate in this work, so that later they would complain about the mediator's work to the relevant commissions (67, 29, 34, 77).

According to the regulations, the charter decree was drawn up on the basis of full consent and voluntariness between the landlord and his villagers and should come into force after both parties signed it (207,66). But in most cases, more villagers were dissatisfied with this document. It is clear from the statistical indicators and materials related to the preparation of charter decrees that the preparation of documents for different governorates, even reconciliation departments established within the governorate, led to various procrastinations.

In the process of review of the prepared charter decrees in the gubernia peasant affairs commissions, cases of the same land area being included in the charter acts as the territory of different villages were also recorded. In such cases, as a rule, the mentioned acts were either canceled or returned to the places for redrafting. This meant additional costs for the revision of decrees in almost all cases, which the peasants had to pay. There were more such cases in Jamilli, Dallar, Garabulag, Buzlug, Karachinar villages of Yelizavetpol governorate (153,50).

A detailed review of the Peasant Statute of May 14, 1870 showed that the reform did not serve the interests and interests of the peasants, as the tsarist officials sometimes said, but in many cases the opposite was the case (218, 237).

In the regulation and all the documents drawn up in addition to it, after the reform, in what form and area the peasants would be provided with land, the amount to be paid to the landlords in exchange for the transfer of the share lands

to the ownership of the peasants, more precisely, the purchase prices of the share lands were determined. Although the statute clearly states that each male over the age of 15 living in a peasant family will be allocated not less than 5 tithing of land, according to Article 135 of the Law, the sale of a plot of land of not more than 15 tithing and not less than 7.5 tithing per family and yard was allowed to be purchased (190,646).

However, in Article 9 of the Statute, granting the right to the landowners to take back the part that exceeds 5 tithing in the actual use of the peasants in the name of "cuts" in order to ensure that at least 1/3 of the land property remains in their hands (190, 632), is actually a condition for violating the right of the peasants to be provided with land. (214,12). According to the calculations made by S. Avaliani, in 5 governorates of the South Caucasus, entrepreneurial peasants kept 2,522,650 tithing of land, and landlords had 871,377 tithing of land (68,3).

However, in the course of the reforms in the central governorates of the Russian Empire, as well as in the governorates of Tiflis and Kutais, the entrepreneurial peasants of North Azerbaijan were deprived of some of the advantages enjoyed by the entrepreneurial peasants, first of all, the settlement contracts were drawn up without the consent of the landlords and lords in most cases, which made the situation of the latter especially difficult, and the settlement transaction often took years. was becoming one of the main reasons for its delay.

In each of the Yerevan, Yelizavetpol and Baku governorates, the delay in drafting charter decrees and organizing the payment process was also acknowledged in the governors' reports to the Caucasian deputy. Thus, during the first two years, when the drafting of the charter decrees was planned to be completed as a whole, certain

documentation works were carried out on a total of 68,387 smokes (231,22).

Other important issues reflected in the charter decrees were determining the amount of taxes that peasants would pay to entrepreneurs during the period of temporary liability, and the payment that the peasant would have to pay in exchange for obtaining personal freedom and share land.

In general, the issue of determining prices for each tithing of peasant share lands was perhaps one of the most important issues in the course of the reform, and this issue was discussed and kept in special focus in the gubernia peasant affairs commission under the viceroy during the preparation and implementation of the reform. Because determining the price of the land, the conditions of the land purchase process should be fully specified, and the payment of the peasants should be accelerated. However, an unambiguous and immediate solution of the issue not only did not take place, but it remained almost the most urgent, most controversial problem in discussions for a long time until 1912.

In the 1870s, this issue was the subject of discussions for a long time in most of the meetings of the Peasants' Affairs Commission of the Baku Governorate, but after the principle of converting the peasants' obligations and taxes into money was finally decided, it was possible to clarify this issue. The first steps towards solving the problem were taken a little later - in 1872-1878, and it was possible to determine the initial version of land purchase prices depending on the degree of fertility of the soil and irrigation possibilities for individual districts and even villages of the province. However, these figures were so high that several generations of the peasant family were required to work and collect and pay the purchase price. 31.28 rubles for one tenth of a medium-category share land of an entrepreneurial peasant in Baku governorate; 202

rubles for good category and 22.83 rubles for low category; 47.71 rubles respectively in Yelizavetpol governorate; He had to pay 129.1 rubles and 28 rubles (72,241).

The lowest purchase price for irrigated land plots of the first category was determined in Gurjuvan village of Baku governorate (21.81 rubles), and the highest in Zangezour district of Yelizavetpol governorate (202 rubles) (72,243). The comparison of these figures with other governorates of the empire also proves that the purchase prices of the land are extremely high. The purchase price of one tenth of land in North Azerbaijan was 7.7 times higher than the average imperial index, and 20-30 times higher than the average of individual governorates (156,167).

The peasant affairs commissions of the gubernia almost all agreed with this term, only the peasant affairs commission of Baku gubernia approached the issues from a slightly different position and insisted on extending the payment period from 3 years to at least 10 years. According to the majority of the commission members, such a shortterm form of payment terms could result in the complete bankruptcy of entrepreneurial peasants, whose ability to pay was already non-existent (72,251).

The commission of Baku governorate put forward the proposal of giving credit to the villagers by the government in order to simplify the form of solving the problem. This kind of setting of the problem, as well as being a somewhat different way of approaching the problem, meant simultaneously achieving the solution of two complex tasks in one attempt. At first glance, this step, which made it possible for the peasants to buy the share lands with the loan allocated by the government, was actually supposed to serve to eliminate the dissatisfaction expected by the landlords and gentlemen, who were deprived of their traditional annual

income, by receiving one-time financial funds in exchange for the share lands (67,252).

However, the limitations of the colonial government's policy in the remote areas showed itself here again, and the government refused to allocate funds for the acquisition of allotment lands. However, in 1912, after a period of 42 years, only this option was considered acceptable for solving the issue. Thus, all the collected materials were finally presented to the higher government authorities.

However, the difficult socio-economic situation of entrepreneurial peasants in the village of North Azerbaijan, the high amount of payment money and the very short payment period, the lack of any assistance from the state, and finally, the fact that the imperial authorities are not so interested in speeding up the solution of the issue here, and many other circumstances make the problem immediate. solution was impossible. At that time, none of the parties involved in the issue would have thought that this issue would be resolved only in 1912.

The payment of such sums was beyond the financial means of the North Azerbaijani peasants not only at that time, but even for several decades after the reform. It was for this reason that the condition of peasants in Northern Azerbaijan remained temporarily liable until 1912, and in some cases until 1913. Therefore, the number of peasants whose temporary liability ended by paying rent to landlords during the specified period was extremely small.

Thus, after considering both the content of the Statute of May 14, 1870, and the conditions for the preparation of statute documents in the annexes to the Statute, it could be initially said that the government authorities were trying to reconcile two conflicting parties with the reform. Despite all aspects of the Regulation, even after its implementation, the solution of two very important issues in the main provisions

was still incomplete. One of them was the replacement of the tax that the peasant would have to pay to the landlord instead of the use of the share land during the period of temporary liability, and the other was the termination of the temporary liability of the peasant.

II.2. The main features of the use of land by entrepreneurial peasants of Azerbaijan

After the adoption of the Peasants' Regulations on May 14, 1870, the question of the use of the peasants' share lands remained almost unchanged for a certain period of time. Thus, it was clearly stated in the Statute that entrepreneurial peasants were obliged to fulfill their previous obligations until the statute decrees came into force (72, 205-206).

Even S.L. Avaliani wrote that before the reform, landlords did not show much inclination to get involved in the division of land and management in the villages they owned, but only controlled the collection of taxes and the fulfillment of obligations (67,47).

But in the course of the decades after the reform, some changes took place anyway. According to the new Regulations, the rule of giving one peasant out of every 10 houses to the land owner as a servant in the landlord estates provided for in the Regulations of 1847 is canceled and the taxes paid by the entrepreneur peasant for the use of the share land while he is in the landlord estate and the obligations he fulfills again based on the previous rules and conditions. was intended. It was intended to replace the duties performed by the peasant with a monetary tax only after the drafting of the charter decrees. The tax, which the peasant paid in kind in exchange for the share of land for the benefit of his lords, was also replaced by a money tax (87,211-212).

It should be said that the new Regulation, which determined the procedure for the payment of monetary taxes

by the villagers instead of taxes and benefits, did not improve the situation of the villagers, on the contrary, it aggravated their financial situation and created additional problems (44, 23). On the other hand, despite the adoption of the law, the payment of taxes in kind continued for a long time.

It should be noted that this rule, "so called" by the authors of the 1847 statutes, was never applied in the landlord village of Northern Azerbaijan. The entrepreneur gave the villagers not as servants to the master, but as workers for the biyar (-F.B.).

In North Azerbaijan, the property tax and other taxes that the peasant paid to his entrepreneur in exchange for the use of the share land were not only heavy, but even increased significantly compared to the first half and middle of the 19th century, sometimes making up to half of the harvest (92,220-221). In exchange for working for 18 days on the owner's land, the entrepreneur peasant had to pay an average of 30 kopecks for every 1 desiatin of the share land, be it arable land or other type of land. But since this indicator is an average indicator, it was variable in some accidents. For example, in the Gazakh district of Yelizavetpol gubernia, this figure was 15 kopecks, and in others it was higher than 30 kopecks (68,5-6; 87,212). In some accidents, a different amount was recorded.

Peasants could make some change in their situation by slightly increasing the amount of property tax instead of money tax, but this required mutual consent of both parties. However, in any case, the property tax should not exceed 2/8 of the product. Local government officials strictly monitored the timely collection of property and profit taxes paid by the peasants to their entrepreneurs. If the landlords and lords were dissatisfied with the rules for the fulfillment of the conditions stipulated in the charter decrees and with any action of the peasants, the civil mediators appointed by the

government to protect the interests and interests of the representatives of the high Muslim silk immediately investigated those claims and, in most cases, satisfied them. Article 90 of the Statute was taken as the basis (87,214).

One of the most striking aspects of peasants' use of land after the reform was that the monetary value of taxes and duties paid by peasants was higher than in previous years. This led to the creation of deficits in the money tax. These, as a rule, were bought not as much as they were, but with additional interest determined by the landlords themselves. In some places, if the peasants could not pay it (such cases were the vast majority), then the entrepreneurs required their peasants to do various jobs under the most difficult conditions to pay off their debts. Even in places, the work led to the fact that if the peasants could not pay the tax debts remaining from the previous year, their properties in their farms were taken away.

Thus, after the reform, payment of the duties and taxes performed in exchange for the use of share lands in the entrepreneur's village with money, in fact, paved the way for the development of new, capitalist relations. However, compared to other Caucasian and central governorates, this process was more painful for the entrepreneurial peasant in North Azerbaijan as a result of the reform, and his condition worsened.

The attitude of both the government and the peasants to the transition from natural tax to monetary tax and the replacement of taxes with money was not unambiguous. Thus, in the local government structures, such an idea was formed that this process could harm the interests of both parties to a certain extent (210,58) and therefore it was considered inadmissible to rush this process. In fact, the full transition to money tax was not completed until 1912. After the reform, discussions and debates continued for a long

time around the issue of determining the amount of the money tax that the peasant would pay for one tenth of the share land. The first condition used to determine the amount of money tax was the price of 1 pood of grain before the reform, and then based on the level of productivity of the land in the governorates (and districts) (for example, irrigated or dry land, or whether the land is plain or foothill). location in the zone, etc.) the possibility of obtaining grain yield from one tithing was determined. The average selling price of 1 pound of grain was determined in the 3 years before the reform (35 kopecks in 1868, 40 kopecks in 1869, 62 kopecks in 1870), and finally the average price for 1 pound of grain was set at 45 kopecks (72,268-269).

The part of the peasant's land above 2.5 tithing could be bought by the landlord and given to other persons if he could not pay his taxes and the remaining tax deficits of the previous years. Another case was that if the entrepreneurial peasant could not cultivate at least half of his arable land for some reason, the landowner demanded compensation for the damage through a civil intermediary. The worst thing was that the Peasant Statute of May 14, 1870 contained relevant articles legalizing both cases (87,213; 124,8,9).

All this led to the reduction of peasant share lands, and often they were deprived of these lands in general.

Thus, completely different processes, contrary to the principles announced by the ruling circles in the Peasant Charter, not only did not disappear in the years after the reform, but even increased year by year, strengthening the process of the peasants being deprived of their land. According to the data of 1895, the population of 31 villages in Baku Governorate and 7 villages in Yelizavetpol Governorate were completely landless (8,2; 208,71-72).

In such a situation, the most used way of the entrepreneurial peasant was to rent the land of his lords and

other people. The terms of the lease were too harsh, and at the end of the 19th century in Yelizavetpol province, the peasant had to pay up to 1/3 of the total harvest to the entrepreneur as rent (68,9).

Entrepreneurial peasants, who received a minimum income from share lands, had to pay various taxes to the treasury and Muslim religious organizations in addition to their lord, which made their already difficult situation desperate. In addition to property and fruit, the entrepreneurial peasant had to pay his master up to 20 kopecks of grass money for each head of animal, as well as smoke money, garden money and other taxes, in lieu of military tax. In addition to the mentioned official taxes, the peasant entrepreneur unofficially pays his master holiday pay, toy pay, etc. "donations" were also forced to pay. Often, the total amount of taxes far exceeded the annual income of the peasant.

Even after the announcement of the Peasants' Regulations on May 14, 1870, 3 main forms of tax payment by peasants remained for a long time: labor tax, product tax and money tax. Although the last type of tax took little place at first, all the steps taken by the government structures in the post-reform years gradually strengthened their positions, no matter how cautious and slow they were. The complete transition to money tax was completed only with the adoption of the agrarian law on December 20, 1912 (58,196197).

The peasant statutes of 1847 provided that each peasant living on the owner's land, in exchange for the share of land bought by his owner, should go to the biyara during the specified number of days per year (18 days a year for those living on the land of the lord, 8 days for those living on the land of the lord) and 2 days for everyone to go to the imajili on the owner's farm. legalized (92,218).

Although the Constitution of May 14, 1870 officially canceled the work of the farmer on the entrepreneur's land (in exchange for a money tax; we talked about it above - F.B.), in fact, after the reform, the entrepreneur's peasant still had to go to the work of the entrepreneur for a long time, and this was done by the civil It is also possible to trace clearly in the charter decrees drawn up by the mediator. Even in the Peasant Charter itself, it was mentioned that the peasant was obliged to carry the produce of his master up to a distance of 50 versts. For example, in 1873, in Mamyrlı village of Zangezır district of Yelizavetpol governorate, the charter decree drawn up between Davud Agalarov and the villagers living on his property stated that the villagers were obliged to carry the property tax to the groom's mansion through their draft animals, after counting the seams (7, 8).

Again, in the same governorate, in Sarılı village of Zangezır district, the order of the peasants living on lands owned by Hidayat bey and his brother Abdullapasha bey Javanshir was officially confirmed in the charter decrees of the peasants taking property tax to the mansions of the mentioned beys (7,46-48). This situation was recorded in almost all charter documents.

In the archive materials, there are also complaints sent to civil mediators, gubernia peasant affairs commissions and other addresses about the fact that in most accidents, entrepreneurial peasants were forced by their masters to transport and take the product to places not provided for in the charter decrees (33,12).

For example, in the village of Borsunlu of Yelizavetpol district, the complaint letters about the forcing of the entrepreneurial villagers to take the finished product to the groom's mansion and from there to the Ganja market, and in the village of Barda of the Shusha district about the collection and beating of the dars and the forced to take the grain to the

mill for grinding are not only in the mentioned districts and villages, but also In other places, it was reported that the product tax and other taxes still remain for a long time (33,18, 21,22).

It happened that there were long-term conflicts between the entrepreneurs and the peasants who depended on them, over the issues of the implementation of obligations that could not be regulated by charter decrees and were paid with the product. As it was not possible to reach an agreement between the parties on the terms of transportation of the product intended as property tax in one of the charter decrees drawn up in the name of the residents of Barda village of Shusha district, the commission of peasant affairs of the governorate was later applied and the commission determined the procedure for the transportation of property tax that is mandatory for the parties, and as a result the issue was resolved as the landlord wanted, and the villagers were forced to transport part of the harvest to the landlord's manor in Shahbulak, and the rest to his manor in the village (35,118).

When the work of the entrepreneurial peasants in connection with the transportation of the product related to the property tax becomes more extensive, not only with the transportation of grain, but also with other agricultural work - firewood, grass, wood and other stock supplies, the peasant's own farm is left without a head, and the necessary work is done there. work could not be carried out.

It should be noted that in the first decade after the reform, the payment of product taxes with products was noticeably predominant. In more than 95 percent of the statutory decrees drawn up regarding entrepreneurial peasants, it was intended to pay the property tax and sometimes the interest with the product (99,61-62; 210,16). It was also interesting that the landowners preferred the product tax to the money tax in a situation where commodity-

money relations were poorly developed in the entrepreneurial village. Because for this tax, 1/10 to 1/5 of the product was intended, not the total volume of the product collected as a one-time amount of the product and a monetary indicator in the entrepreneur's village. In the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan, although it was slow, due to the annual increase in the total amount of the crop and the annual increase in the prices of agricultural products, especially grain, on the eve of the reform, as well as in the following years, the landlords preferred the product tax more (216,176-177).

Considering that, apart from property and fruit taxes, the other taxes that the entrepreneurial peasants had to pay together sometimes exceeded the limit of the total product that the peasant could produce. Then the peasant would inevitably have to borrow at least the seed grain from his owner and other people in the next planting season. Another such issue that attracts attention, actually helps to reveal the root of the difficult situation in which the entrepreneurial peasant finds himself: although in most regions of Northern Azerbaijan property and fruit taxes are determined in the amount of 1/10 of the product, in some districts where peasants with little land and no land dominate in numbers - Shusha , Shamakhi, Gazakh and others, this number was 1/5 of the crop and sometimes more. Even sometimes 1/5 to 1/3 of the horticultural products went to pay these taxes (72,264-265).

However, it was often recorded that the landlords demanded much more product tax than what was stated in the charter decrees. For example, in the complaint letter sent by a group of residents of Shamakhi district to the governor, it was stated that the landlords demanded 1/3 of the harvest from them as property, and despite the complaints, this situation was repeated every year (99,62).

In the complaint petition sent by a group of villagers to the chief judge of the Caucasus in the Lankaran district, the actions of landlord Talishinski with the same content were mentioned and asked for help (110, 1, 2). The same situation was mentioned in the complaint petitions of the residents of Badalan village of this district (23,2) and it was stated that the local landlord always demanded from them, under various pretexts, to pay more product tax than agreed in the charter decree.

Although the peasant regulations stipulate the procedure for collection of property and fruit taxes from the actual crops cultivated by the peasant, in many places the landlords demanded payment of taxes from the cultivated fields destroyed by drought and disease. In the complaint submitted by the Madrasa village residents of Shamakhi district to the Baku Governorate Peasant Affairs Commission, it was mentioned that the local landlords forced them to pay taxes even on the uncultivated uncultivated fields (46,3). The same thing happened to the villagers living in the land estates of the Vakilov family in Aslanbeyli village of Gazakh district (87,215).

In the Regulation of May 14, 1870, we mentioned that product tax and duties were to be replaced by money tax. The main difference of the new reform from the Statutes of 1847 was actually this.

Entrepreneur peasants were previously called biyar, and then the amount received in money for each tithing of land, 30 kopecks, and 15 kopecks in some cases, was determined in exchange for the work done on the entrepreneur's land. The money tax could be replaced by the product based on the mutual consent of both landlords and peasants, provided that property and fruit taxes did not exceed 1/8 of the total product, and in some cases 1/9.

In the appeal dated November 8, 1870, addressed to the landowners and the dependent peasants living on their lands, the Grand Duke of the Caucasus, Mikhail Nikolayevich, the Grand Duke of the Caucasus, stated that the new charter was supposedly aimed primarily at improving relations between the two parties, and especially the peasants (87,212). .

Based on the rules established by the new Regulation, every peasant male over the age of 15 living on the owner's land could have a share of land of not less than 5 tithing. If the area of the peasant's share land was more than 5 tithing, then the landlord had the right to take back the excess part and use it as he wanted. However, such lands were leased not to anyone else, but to the peasant from whom the "cut" was taken, but now under new, more difficult conditions. At the same time, the landowner could increase the area of the share land of the peasants, which is less than 5 tithing, to the norm determined in the Regulation, if the land remaining in his personal use, together with the share lands of the peasants, is not less than 1/3 of his total land property. This provision was not really a novelty, it was provided in the initial versions of the Draft Regulation and remained unchanged during the implementation of the reform (87,212). We want to note once again that the fall of 5 tithing of allotment land per person was not so widespread in North Azerbaijan; in fact, such peasants were considered wealthy households with many lands.

In fact, the May 14, 1870 Peasant Regulations did not improve the condition of entrepreneurial peasants, only the form of labor and harvest collection changed. Even after the reform, the peasant was completely dependent on the landowner from the economic point of view (69,75). The landowner, who was interested in receiving a portion of the harvest collected from each tithe of the peasant's share land

as a property tax, now had the opportunity to strictly control all his activities and every step.

Among the reasons that strengthened the peasant's dependence on his landlord, one of the most important was the excessively high purchase price of peasant share lands. August 21, 1873 As the prices fixed by the law were almost beyond the reach of the peasants, they did not even think of doing so and became more dependent on their masters (87,215).

The process of collecting the property tax received in exchange for the use of peasant share lands was associated with many difficulties, the representative of the peasant landlord, who completely collected and harvested the crop on the share land, could not do what he wanted with his crop until he arrived at the place where the harvest was collected. Because the finished product was weighed in the presence of the landlord or his representative. During the determination of the amount of the product, the landlord or his employee tried to artificially increase the weight of the finished product by any means, which naturally led to disputes and even clashes between the latter and the peasants (87,214-215).

In the reports and letters of governors and other highranking officials addressed to the capital about such mutual clashes and disputes, it is clear that during the collection of property and other taxes, landlords and other tax officials demanded more products than the norm stipulated in the Regulation, and after that, numerous complaints from villagers to different addresses increased. was being talked about. In various reports and documents of Yelizavetpol Statistical Committee, many facts were shown about the conflicts and dissatisfaction that arose in localities, including in entrepreneurial villages, due to the fact that the collection of property and other taxes was often entrusted to large tenants, and they entrusted this work to smaller tenants.

Such cases of arbitrariness were, in fact, part of the matter. The other side of the matter, and a more harmful aspect, was that all these ultimately severely damaged the agricultural economy, the amount of the final harvest, and, in fact, seriously displeased the peasants and reduced their interest in the final results of their labor. After that, the peasants were not concerned with improving the tools of their labor, nor with using progressive farming methods, but only with the concern of having at least a part of their crops to meet the needs of the family and to have seed material for the next year. Later, such a situation alienated the entrepreneurial peasant from the possibilities and intentions of cultivating cotton and other more profitable technical crops on his farm. Even the peasants, who are faced with arbitrary actions under the guise of collecting taxes from the landlord and his employees, sometimes find it impossible to get income from their share lands, and in order to avoid such unavoidable situations, they give these lands to their landlords or their officials rents on the basis of low prices, and they had to go to the cities in search of work for entrepreneurship (137,122-123). Although such situations and conflicts happened rarely, it led to some form of damage to the farm and property of the landlord by the peasants, or to insults, violence, and sometimes even assassinations of the peasants.

Formally, the adoption of the Peasants' Statute, which supposedly considered the improvement of the condition of the peasants as one of the main goals, in fact tied the entrepreneurial peasants to their share lands more closely than in the Statutes of 1847, in a way increased their dependence on their landlord. The statute decrees drawn up on the basis of the statute, while setting the issue of providing the peasant with 5 tithing of share land, simultaneously brought up the issue of "cuts" (68,3). At the same time, in the practice, it was very rare to find peasants who were provided

with 5 tithing of land per person for the male population (9,1,3,4).

Valuation of property and interest taxes, which is one of the main conditions for the purchase of peasant share lands, was determined based on the terms of the law of August 21, 1873. However, the prices used as the basis for the acquisition of share lands were so high that entrepreneurial peasants saw the only right way out of the situation in the refusal of the payment transaction. In the several decades since the adoption of the regulation, many entrepreneurial peasants have repeatedly tried to start the process of purchasing their shared land, but each time, seeing the conditions and future consequences of determining the value of taxes and duties in money, they had to resolutely refuse not only to pay, but also to replace taxes with money (87,213).

As a result of this, it took very little time to determine the number of entrepreneurial peasants who had become vikup during the long period of time that passed since the adoption of the Regulation. In the periodical reports of the Viceroy of the Caucasus, the Chief Civilian Chief of the Caucasus after 1883, in the documents of the ministries of state property and agriculture, there was almost no material about the number of entrepreneurial peasants who started the payment operation in North Azerbaijan.

May 14, 1870, the articles of the Peasants' Statute intended for the "improvement" of the condition of entrepreneurial peasants were of a formal nature. In spite of the grandiose proclamation of the abolition of the personal dependence of the entrepreneurial peasants on their landlords in the statute, in reality this provision had no practical significance. Thus, neither in Azerbaijan nor in many Muslim countries, the peasants were never dependent on the feudal lord, their dependence was only economic in nature. It is known that the Islamic religion and the Sharia consider

human beings as rare and irreplaceable, and consider the domination of one person over another as a sin and forbidden. The policy implemented by tsarism in the South Caucasus for decades and the future perspectives of the stability it achieved, the state of mutual understanding achieved in the relations with the representatives of the Muslim elite ruled out any form of damage to the interests of the former in the landlord-peasant relations in the Regulations (68,3-4; 118,3).

Landlords and lords, who tried not to lose their ruling position in the entrepreneurial village, using even the smallest opportunities allowed by the peasant charter, tried by all means to benefit from the results of the labor of their peasants. The arbitrariness and lawlessness committed by the landowners were in all cases fruitless, and the first to come to their aid were civil mediators who were close and united with the landlords in terms of social origin and class interests. All the complaints made by the entrepreneurial peasants and all the petitions they sent were almost always discussed for years, resulting in numerous correspondences between various local and gubernatorial authorities, but each time they were returned and did not yield any results.

After the reform, one of the issues that displeased the peasants the most was that the landlords deliberately reduced the areas allocated for share lands and the number of peasants who had the right to buy 5 tithing share lands. Civil mediators also often became the representatives of the will of landlords and nobles. The civil intermediary of the I department of the Kazakh province took bribes from the local landowners Vakilov and imposed a property tax on grain fields burned due to drought in the village of Aslanbeyli (87,214-215). Yelizavetpol Governorate Peasant Affairs Commission reported on improper preparation of the charter decree by the landlord in Buzlukh village of the same district in 1887, the charter decree of residents in Kotanarkhi village, the refusal

of the residents of Kalbalikand to pay the duties in favor of the landlord in 1892 and many others. The situation did not change even if they reviewed the complaints (87,215-216).

In general, the most intensive period for sending letters and complaints addressed to the Caucasian Viceroy, the Civil Chief, the State Council, the Senate, and even the emperor due to the reduction of the land share of the peasants living on their land, the incorrect determination of taxes, and other reasons was 1880-1913 years are considered. However, very rarely these applications and complaints were partially resolved.

In Northern Azerbaijan, May 14, 1870, Zagatala district, which was one of the areas not covered by the Peasant Code, was left out of the scope of this reform for a long time, and the dependence of English and Mughals living here on the local beys and keshkal owners lasted until the adoption of the law on June 7, 1913. As it was not regulated by any legal documents, their situation was very difficult. However, in 1869, a special commission was established in Zagatala district for the purpose of regulating the relations between peasants and entrepreneurs, and in 1874, the commission submitted a draft law to the Viceroy of the Caucasus on the land structure of this region. However, since the relevant law was not implemented, the relations between peasants and landowners in the district worsened year by year (87,216).

In the eastern part of the district, according to the rule called "serf dependence", depending on the fertility of the peasant land, landlords and nobles were given 1/10 to 1/7 of the crop, or a previously agreed fixed amount called "kesamat", regardless of the amount of the crop. In exchange for the gallows and the use of gardens for the benefit of the officials who collect the taxes of the groom, he must pay tribute with silk in places where the taxes are mulberry trees; besides, he had to take these taxes with his beasts of burden

to the master's mansion, and he had to pay various taxes for the benefit of the treasury. After all this, it would not be difficult to understand the economic and living conditions of the English and Mughals living in the circle.

After the reform, the entrepreneurial peasants had to pay money for working on the land of the landlord (18 days + 2 days of compulsory period) before the reform. However, the amount of this tax that had to be paid for each tithing's hare of land was also different. For example, 15 kopecks were determined for each tithing in Garamurad village of Gazakh district of Yelizavetpol province, 10 kopecks in Zazali village, and 20 kopecks in Guba district of Baku province (23,2,3; 206,61). For most districts and villages, this limit was set at 30 kopecks. This variation in money taxation was undoubtedly related to the fertility of the allotment lands.

The payment of money tax by the entrepreneurial peasant created a number of additional problems for him. So, unlike before, the peasant now had to sell a part of his product in the market and turn it into money. When this did not happen due to infertility and other reasons, the peasant needed cash. Landlords, usurers, wealthy peasants and other wealthy people immediately took advantage of this situation.

In the post-reform period, the reason for the transition of peasants to the rules of calculating the product tax in money and the delay in the application of this rule for decades should be sought in the emergence of this situation.

The most common way out of the situation was the agreement of the peasants themselves to replace the money tax with a product tax. When this happened, the amount of product tax was higher than usual. For example, many villages of Nukha district agreed to pay 1/8 of their crops (99.63) in exchange for money rent, and the residents of Hajidarli village, which has 130 tithing of share land in

Yelizavetpol district, agreed to pay 1/9 of the produce to their entrepreneurs (123,23). .

But the work did not end there. Not all landowners agreed to replace the money tax with the product tax. In a situation where the relations with the market were expanding, the demand for cash by landlords and gentlemen was also increasing, and in such a situation, it was convenient for them to have cash from the beginning, rather than storing the produce in warehouses and then selling it in the market by the landlords themselves or their representatives. Therefore, it was often found in places that landlords and lords tried to increase the amount of money tax with various excuses and means. For example, in the village of Ayrym, Yelizavetpol province, most of the villagers who owned 4963 tithing of share land in 425 yards were forced to pay additional taxes that were not provided for in the charter decree (123,23).

In Shikhlar village of Guba district, 163.8 rubles instead of 62.8 rubles were taxed from the villagers with 317 tithing of share land (29,63). Residents of Kizilagac village of Shamakhi district were forced to pay 420 rubles instead of 180 rubles at the bey's request (99, 62-63).

After the adoption of the Peasant Statute on May 14, 1870, one of the aspects that confirmed the economic dependence of the peasants on the entrepreneurs and was reflected in the statute decrees was related to the setting of the property tax. Thus, the peasant had to notify his entrepreneur long before the start of harvesting and could start harvesting only after receiving his consent. For example, in the decree approved for Mamyrlı village of Zangezür district, Yelizavetpol gubernia, a separate provision was mentioned that villagers should notify their entrepreneurs 7-8 days before starting grain harvesting (7,14).

Again, in the charter decrees of the residents of Sarıhajılı village of that governorate, a special clause was

mentioned that the villagers should notify their masters 10 days in advance about starting grain harvesting (8,63).

The rules and period of payment of property by entrepreneurial peasants were also kept under strict control. In case of violations of the payment period specified in the charter decrees, even if it was a little, fine interest was added to the specified amount or amount, or severe punishments were given. In addition, sometimes the whole village was responsible for the villagers who regularly violated the rules of paying property and interest taxes and had to pay their debt.

Due to the lack of pasture lands, entrepreneurial peasants in Northern Azerbaijan had to graze their cattle in non-cultivated areas, including cultivated fields after the harvest. Therefore, the landlords and lords demanded a certain fee from their peasants, even though the peasants did not have to pay any fee. For example, in most villages of Jabrayil province, the villagers had to pay a tax called khokbashi to the entrepreneur after the harvest in the fields of grain crops to graze their cattle and for the use of land that is not suitable for cultivation. Entrepreneurial peasants in Javanshir, Shusha and Zangezur districts had to pay the garbage collection tax mainly with products, and in Yelizavetpol, Aresh, Nukha districts with money (34,13).

The low level of productivity in the share lands of entrepreneurial peasants is primarily due to the traditionally low-yielding and primitive labor tools, such as wooden sticks, sickles, sickles, etc. their use, the non-cultivation of arable land with progressive forms of farming, and the preference for extensive methods were closely related (210,228; 216,318-319).

Due to the smallness and lack of shared land of the peasants living on the owner's land, they rented land plots of various shapes and sizes (61,18). In L.H. Hasanova's

research, a lot of factual materials about different forms of land leases are given.

It should be noted that even after the adoption of the Peasants' Regulations on May 14, 1870, landlords and gentlemen who had large plots of land took advantage of this situation to lease their land under harsh conditions (59,137). Of course, the rules for using such leased land and the forms of rent payment were also different.

Entrepreneurial peasants, as a rule, leased plots of land from their entrepreneurs, wealthy peasants, or even individuals, on the condition that they paid 1/10 to 1/4 of the harvest. For example, in Javad district, the villagers rented plots of land from single, sometimes several families. Later, this number even reached 1/3 (128, 042).

At the end of the 80s of the 19th century, 108,217 tithing or 30.9% of the 372,598 tithing of land used by entrepreneurial peasants of Yelizavetpol governorate consisted of leased lands. Entrepreneurial peasants of Aresh, Nukha, Javanshir, Shusha and Gazakh districts of the governorate used leased land more often (61, 15-16).

There are even reports of some peasant families renting a large plot of land, especially from the landlord (171,309). There were many such among the entrepreneurial villagers of Arash district. In Shusha and Jabrayil districts, the most common form of lease of the entrepreneurial peasants was that one or more families jointly leased land plots of land belonging to the landlord and other private property categories (95,145-146; 153,309). In Shusha, Jabrayil, Aresh and other districts, there were many facts about entrepreneurial peasants renting pasture lands from landlords to engage in cattle breeding (168,296).

It is difficult to obtain aggregated materials and figures on the leasing of land plots by individual peasants in gubernias, especially in Yelizavetpol gubernia. Because the

forms of renting such land by individual peasants and several entrepreneurial peasant families are various, shortterm, permanent, temporary, etc. because it is connected with a number of difficulties to monitor and generalize and analyze this process, even for accidents. In most statistical collections and booklets, general information is given not separately, but about the type of cultivation of the owner of the leased land in the governorate or district, about the amount of the obtained product, and about the peasants of the state and entrepreneurs. Nevertheless, at least partially, the number of entrepreneurial peasants who leased lands belonging to the private ownership category in the provinces and governorates, the number of villages they live in, etc. it is possible to obtain certain information about

After the comparative analysis of these figures, which are few in number, it became clear that in the middle of the 80s of the century, the Yelizavetpol governorate was in the 2nd place and the Baku governorate was in the 3rd place among the South Caucasus governorates for renting the most land (69.34). The figures also differed according to the degree of land plots being leased from landlords and other persons for individual cases. For example, in 59.72% of existing villages in Guba district, 47% in Yelizavetpol district, 41.18% in Javanshir district, and 36.7% in Nukha district are known facts about villagers renting land (170,78). In other districts, the number of entrepreneurial villages with leased land was a minority. For example, in 22 percent of entrepreneurial villages in Shusha district, 18 percent in Shamakhi district, 17.7 percent in Jabrayil district, 5.9 percent in Aresh district, and 5.7 percent in Lankaran district (171,79).

Although it is possible to determine some indicators of the villages where the entrepreneurial peasants leased land by governorate and district, there are less results about the area

of the land they leased and the allocation to which agricultural fields and for what purposes they are used.

According to statistical data, 1/4 and 1/3 of the cases of leasing land plots in Baku governorate and 251 in Yelizavetpol governorate respectively belonged to entrepreneurial peasants (170,83).

Most of the leased lands were arable, then pasture, and finally mowing fields.

Among the governorates of North Azerbaijan, the advantage of agricultural land in the lands leased by entrepreneurial villagers attracts attention. According to the degree of land use, the second place was occupied by pastures and hayfields in Yelizavetpol governorate, and hayfields in Baku governorate. Instead, the pasture and mowing part of the lands leased to the share of each village in Baku governorate was in the third place, and the mowing part was in the second place. On average, there were 34.3 tithing of arable land in Baku governorate, and 32.8 tithing in Yelizavetpol gubernia. In this case, the level of renting mowing land in Yelizavetpol governorate was somewhat higher than in Baku governorate because Baku governorate was 1.5 times behind Yelizavetpol governorate in terms of the cultivation of fodder plants and the scale of pasture areas in villages (170, 83-84).

Instead, the level of renting garden and vineyard plots by entrepreneurial villagers was higher in Baku governorate. Even the governorate was on the 2nd place among the 5 South Caucasus governorates according to this indicator. Yelizavetpol governorate was the last - 5th in this indicator (170,84).

When we examine the figures of how entrepreneurial peasants use the leased land, we see that in Yelizavetpol governorate, except for Gazakh district, in all remaining

districts, and in Baku district, Guba, Baku, and Shamakhi districts, a lot of agricultural land is leased (128, 042).

In fact, whether agriculture is the leading field or whether pasture and arable land is in the second or third place was formed under the influence of several factors at the same time. However, a simple analysis of all the figures shows that the areas where agricultural land is leased by entrepreneurial peasants the most are the areas in the plains and foothills where the population is the most populated and where agricultural traditions have historically developed. In such lands, the cultivated area of technical crops was usually very small. On the other hand, due to the natural conditions in the mountainous areas, due to the lack of allotments, meadows, and winter pastures, the simple spread of animal husbandry was associated with various difficulties, and therefore the entrepreneurial peasants rented the grazing and mowing lands of the landlords and nobles.

It is impossible to determine exact figures about the land plots leased by entrepreneurial peasants in governorates and often in districts, it is only possible to find facts about the extent and types of land plots rented by individual peasant families or several peasant families.

For example, only 19 out of 38 villages with leased land in the eponymous district of Baku governorate have clear statistical data on land leased. It is clear from these data that only about 1/5 of the leased 750 tithing of agricultural land was leased by entrepreneurial peasants. In this regard, the highest indicator in the province was observed in Shamakhi district. Thus, the data of 24 out of 25 villages with leased lands were analyzed and it was determined that about 1000 tithing of 2481 tithing of leased land were leased by entrepreneurial villagers (170,86).

The indicators for Yelizavetpol governorate were somewhat different. Thus, although it is known that there are

leased lands in 197 villages of the province, the statistical materials provided information about leased lands in only 107 villages. The least amount of agricultural land leased by entrepreneurial peasants in the province was recorded in Jabrayil district (a little more than 100 tithing), and the most in Zangezur district (nearly 1090 tithing) (170,87).

Despite all this, the plots of land leased by entrepreneurial peasants were very small compared to the total area of crops, gardens, pastures and other areas, both in the governorate and in the districts. For example, in Goychay district, such leased land makes up only 1.17 percent of all land in use, and each household had an average of 0.12 tithing of leased land (170,90).

In Yelizavetpol governorate, these indicators on accidents were slightly higher. Thus, in Jabrayil district, where the leased land made up 5.21 percent of the land areas suitable for all farm areas, on average, 4.15 tithing of share land and 0.28 tithing of leased land fell on a farm. In this regard, the highest indicators were recorded in Javanshir district. Thus, leased land here is 8.02 percent of the total land area, share land per farm was 9.12 tithing on average, and leased land was 0.73 tithing (170,91).

In the middle of the 80s of the XIX century, the review of the forms of land leases of the peasants in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan greatly helps to determine the characteristics of land use. Small and short-term leases were the most common forms of peasant leases. In these forms, there was no mention of guarantees for the protection of the tenants' interests and the proper use of the land. Entrepreneurial peasants, in most cases, leased land for 100 tithing, and sometimes up to 20 tithing, under certain conditions. It was also recorded that one peasant family and several families leased a larger plot of land of 300-500 tithing together; but this happened very rarely. There were even

cases with a lease term of 10 or more years, and these were recorded in Goychay and Shamakhi districts. Also, a large part of such lands consisted of pastures and meadows (170,122).

We mentioned above that the conditions observed by entrepreneurial peasants in exchange for the leased land were different and, most importantly, variable (61,36). For example, in 1884, residents of the Goychali village of Gazakh district, where there are hundreds of entrepreneurial peasant families, leased a large plot of land to the landlord on the basis of paying 1/7 of the grain, 1/3 of the hay and 300 rubles for the use of pastures. However, after the death of the landowner, his heirs demanded 1/5 of the grain as rent in 1885, and then greatly increased the fee for hay collected and the use of pastures (167,149).

The land lease periods of entrepreneurial peasants were also variable. For example, the residents of Galacik village in Zangezur district of Yelizavetpol province have 10 years of wintering place of Ismayil Bey Huseynali bey oglu (324778), 12 entrepreneurial peasant families in Malikli village of Nukha district have 12 years together (170,43-44); Residents of Janyatag village of Javan Shir district leased 300 tithing of farmland from their landlords for 7 years (170,386). There were many similar facts in Baku governorate. For example, in Guba district, in 1883, the peasants of the landlord Alpanski signed a contract to lease his land for 12 years (167,335).

Later, one farm in Goshakend village of Goychay district agreed to rent 50 tithing of land for 15 years, a resident of Kerkanec village of Shamakhi district agreed to lease 20 tithing of land for 40 years, and 6 farms of Khilmilli village of 75 tithing of land for 12 years from their landlords (170,165-166).

According to comparative calculations, it was determined that at the end of the 19th century, the rent in Aresh and Javad was higher among the districts in North Azerbaijan, and it was from 1/2 to 1/4 of the product (128,044). O. Syomin wrote that in some accidents, this indicator varied from 1/3 to 1/4 of the product (214,36).

In the Javad region, the land rent rate was the same as in kind, and the entrepreneur peasant, if calculated in money, had to give the landowner 15 rubles in return for 1/2 of the yield from the irrigated land, and 10.5 rubles from the dry lands (171,310-311).

In Goychay and Shamakhi districts, the rent paid with a product called maljahat and yadarlig was widespread. The entrepreneurial peasant usually paid 1/10 of the crop to the landlord in the form of property. In the form of charity, the entrepreneurial peasant often gave half of the harvest to the owner of the land. From the remaining half of the crop, he paid 1/3 to 1/8 of it as rent. In this case, the entrepreneurial peasant had to give his landowner 28 rubles for 1/3 part, and 10.6 rubles for 1/8 part (170, 139-142).

In Guba district, the land rent is calculated from 1/4 to 1/10 of the crop, and the entrepreneur peasant pays 18 rubles of wheat, 6 rubles of barley, 9 rubles of rice, 1/10 of the land from one tithing to the landowner. Respectively, he gave wheat worth 7 rubles, barley worth 2.4 rubles, and rice worth 3.6 rubles. 1/2 of the harvest was paid as rent in the case of the peasant entrepreneur only if the land leased by the peasant entrepreneur was located either close to the center of the case or the most shareable land, or the soil's fertility rate was high (170,337).

In Yelizavetpol district, the rent of the land varied from 1/2 to 1/20 of the crop. 1/2 and 1/3 of the crop was given as rent if the landlord or other landowner gave the peasant that much of the seed crop. Thus, an entrepreneurial peasant in

Ghazada used to produce 29 rubles for 1/2 of the crop and 2.9 rubles for 1/20 of one tithing (171, 175).

Although the rent for agricultural land in Shusha and Jabrayil districts varied between 1/5 and 1/20 of the crop, the most common form was 1/10. If the rent of garden areas is converted to the prices of that time, then 44.5 rubles for 1/2 of the product, and 22.2 rubles for 1/4 of the horticultural products were paid as taxes (168.76, 200,302).

The situation (including rent) in Javanshir, Zangezur, Gazakh, Nukha districts was almost similar to them. A radical change in the rent was due to the type of arable land, whether it was irrigated or dry.

Although more produce or cash compensation was spent during the form of payment of rent in crops than in the form of payment in money, most of the entrepreneurial peasants considered it more convenient. This form was also convenient for landlords, and the custom of the peasant collecting the rest - his own share - after giving only the rent, was still strictly observed (168, 296).

Near the end of the 19th century, instead of the leased land of the entrepreneurial peasants, the lands, manors and farms of the landlords and gentlemen, often labor tools, work animals, etc. Doing all kinds of work without spending was the third form of rent. A large part of the peasants' time was spent on the form of work and payment, and at this time they had no time to do any work for themselves. Even if sometimes the tenant farmers tried to replace the payment with money, this often did not happen. Because the workand-pay form was more profitable from the point of view of landlords and gentlemen managing their farms without hired workers in a way convenient for them. On the other hand, the landlords took advantage of the desperate situation of the tenant farmers during the form of work and payment, forcing them to work more than what was stipulated in the agreement.

In the payment of the rent of the plots of land, it was found that the peasants received a part of the crop as a share in exchange for their work, sometimes money, sometimes doing certain works on the instructions of the landowner, and sometimes all of them at the same time. Such a mixed form was widespread among the landless and landless entrepreneurial peasants (170,202).

As we said, in the entrepreneurial villages of Northern Azerbaijan, tenant farmers were also forced to give additional products to the rent. In Guba district, the peasants who leased the land plots of Gasim Bey, Alpanski, Mirzayev and others from the landlords were forced to pay 15 pounds of clean wheat for every 10 seams. In addition, they had to take grain and other products to Guba or Darband city once a year free of charge (167,335).

The lands of Kura-Araz valley of Shamakhi region were less effective for cultivation of agricultural products in the conditions where the floods of the Kura river were completely reduced, and when the demand of the peasants for agricultural lands increased, the tenants were forced to pay an additional fee of 2 rubles for 1 tithing of land in addition to the rent and rent. (170,121).

Since there were few pasture lands for grazing cattle of either the state or the treasury peasants in the North Azerbaijan regions, they rented such lands from the landlords and other landowners. Leasing of grazing lands for money was almost a new feature in some places. The rent was mostly determined according to the number of grazing animals (59,52).

Leasing of grazing lands by sedentary peasants started from the beginning of June and ended in August, while for nomadic peasants it was from the beginning of spring until the beginning of the first frosts.

Thus, the research conducted on the basis of the abovementioned materials once again proves that in the last 30 years of the 19th century, the most important features of the land use of the peasant inhabitants of the owner's village in Northern Azerbaijan was that this use still remained mixed. The lands used by entrepreneurial peasants were, as a rule, allotments and leased lands (61,53).

Privatization of shared lands (vikupu) was extremely slow due to many reasons, so extensive, traditional forms of using those lands remained.

Rents of land leased mainly from landlords, landlords, treasury, and other owners are divided into different types of land - crop, cash, mixed, labor, etc. was paid. Although individual forms of lease were the most widespread, there were also cases of lease by collectives - partnerships.

Although the lease mainly served to meet the personal needs of the entrepreneurial peasants, there were also (though few) land leases aimed at the market. Thus, despite all the obstacles, the use of land by entrepreneurial peasants of Northern Azerbaijan was gradually evolving under the influence of market economy requirements.

II.3. Emergence and deepening of stratification among entrepreneurial peasants in Azerbaijan

As a result of the implementation of the peasant reform and the emergence and expansion of new capitalist relations in the agriculture and economy of Northern Azerbaijan in the following years, one of the important changes that took place in the state of the peasant farms within the entrepreneurial village was the gradual deepening of property and social stratification among the entrepreneurial peasants. This process, which intensified in the 70s and 90s of the XIX century, did not result in the disappearance of a number of features characteristic of the entrepreneurial village of North

Azerbaijan, on the contrary, it created a number of new problems with the deepening of property stratification.

In that period, the fact that the periodic redistribution of share lands was not characteristic of the entrepreneurial village created more favorable conditions for the strengthening of the stratification process here. The fact that the borders of share lands in the entrepreneur village remained almost unchanged for a long time according to the traditions formed over decades, as one of the consequences of the property stratification in the ranks of the entrepreneur villagers, which was considered irresistible, led to slightly more arable land, livestock and agricultural inventory compared to their fellow villagers.

The wealthy entrepreneur, who was a very small minority, determined the increase of the economic power of the peasants. The wealthy entrepreneurial peasants, who had considerable economic influence and influence over their fellow villagers, were in a superior position in a number of respects compared to the rest. Thus, entrepreneurial peasants (92,218), who were not so different from each other in various aspects before the reform, now share the area of shared land, the number of cattle and sheep, the supply of agricultural inventory, and the use of hired labor, they began to distinguish themselves in terms of obtaining additional income by renting land, even engaging in a number of auxiliary activities.

Most likely, there were other processes that proved the strengthening of the stratification process in the North Azerbaijani village after the reform. On the other hand, the process of stratification, especially property stratification, took place among the landowners and other private property category landowners, who are the other pole of the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan. In both the first and last chapters of the dissertation, we have discussed

enough about property and social stratification along with the various processes that take place within landlord land ownership, so we considered it appropriate to limit ourselves to only some summarizing figures in this section of the dissertation.

In the post-reform years, taking into account that the process of stratification within the peasants and their peasant households began more quickly, in general, various forms of new capitalist relations found their way to the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan more quickly, as we followed the process of stratification within more peasant households, the process of property and social stratification of the entrepreneurial village we clearly witness the change of the previous appearance and traditional way of life (50,13).

In most cases, it is not possible to monitor and analyze the progress of the stratification process in the entrepreneur village of North Azerbaijan based on all of the abovementioned signs, and because the obtained numbers do not allow us to draw generalized results for the part of the entrepreneur village, sometimes even for one of the governorates, in our research, the most, we have preferred to analyze land, the number of cattle, the use of hired labor and the possibility of renting land, which are the main means of production in agriculture.

In comparison with other territories of the empire, especially the central European governorates, the repeated backwardness of the level of land provision of the peasants in the North Azerbaijani entrepreneurial village, on the one hand, accelerated the process of stratification in the entrepreneurial village, and on the other hand, in this process, it revealed new and different features that were not previously found in separate regions (50,31).

As a result of the process of property stratification in entrepreneurial village, on the basis of the division of

villagers into three categories such as poor, middle-class and rich villagers, it is necessary to clarify the scale of the land plot when determining these categories, based on the fact that they are provided with land in the first place.

According to the common opinion of N. Bogdanova, O. Syomin, S. Avaliani, V. Mochalov, I. Hasanov, A. Umayev and many other authors, the peasants who have up to 2 tithing of arable land are poor, Between 2 and 5 desyats were considered middle-class and above 5 tithing were considered wealthy peasants. This idea, in fact, was first reflected in the content of the agrarian reforms of the 19th century in a concrete and indirect way. Thus, in the agrarian laws of 1847 and 1870, the provision of 5 tithing of land for each peasant male who reached the age of 15, and 3 tithing for irrigated lands, meant that up to 5 tithing of land was considered necessary for living (87,214; 92,188,218-219; 95,124).

According to the results of the 1886 family census, 425,831 entrepreneurial peasants united in 64,130 farms in North Azerbaijan had 480,639 tithing of land. Approximately, or 92% of them are united in 57,780 farms (92% of all farms) of 390 thousand people (92% of all entrepreneur peasants) share land, on average, up to 2 tithing, in 4479 farms (7,155%) 30,309 people (7.12%) had 2-5 tithing each, and 5,811 people (1.5%) had more than 5 tithing each in 861 households (204,34-35).

However, at the same time, 394,100 peasants (50%) registered in 54,990 farms (47.3%) of the state peasants (786,137 people) united in 115,237 farms each had an average of 2 tithing of share land (193,35-36).

As it can be seen, in the entrepreneurial village, the vast majority of the villagers, that is, 92 percent, have little land, while in the state village, this indicator was close to 50%.

Among the state peasants, the farms using 2-5 tens of acres of land (49,284) make up 42.4% of all farms, and those

who live in these farms (324,572 people) make up 41.1% of all treasury peasants. 7.2% and 7.15% of farms.

In terms of the degree of stratification of the state and entrepreneur peasants, the indicators of using the land area above 5 tithing, which are in approximately the same condition, were somewhat close to each other. Thus, 67,465 state peasants (8.55% of all peasants) or 10,963 households (9.4%) had such land shares. In terms of stratification, the indicators of the entrepreneurial villager far surpassed the state village in the first two categories of results.

In entrepreneurial village, it was recorded that the land area owned by 1.5% of the rich or poor peasant households is a little less than the land used by the poor peasants of the first category, and it is slightly less than the land of the middle-class peasant households, approximately 2 times less.

Right here, we should say that it is difficult to agree with the fact that some authors, while talking about the strengthening of the stratification process due to the emergence and expansion of capitalist relations in the North Azerbaijani village, referring to figures that have not been summarized to the end, say that the process of stratification in the entrepreneurial village is somewhat slower than in the state village.

There were wealthy Golchomag peasant households, which were a minority in terms of stratification in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan, and this indicator - 5,811 wealthy Golchomag peasants (1.5%) united in 861 households (1.5%) - was extremely low compared to the average general Azerbaijani and state village (6.6 % and 9.4 %, respectively) (204,115-116).

In all the decades after the peasant reform, it is impossible to follow the process of stratification in the entrepreneur's village consistently. So, if during the censuses conducted in 1886 and 1897 it was possible to obtain a lot of statistical

figures that allowed to determine the provision of land for different categories of different classes of peasants and both parts of the Azerbaijani village and to conduct extensive analysis, in the following decades stratification among peasants it was possible to follow its progress only on the basis of the changes taking place within the rich-Golchomag peasant households. Our monitoring and analysis of this process was conducted based on the official statistical indicators recorded when most of the wealthy entrepreneurial peasants leased land owned by landlords and gentlemen, as well as land owners included in the state village, and also used hired labor within their own farms.

One of the main results of the changes in the stratification process in the 2-3 decades after the reform in terms of the provision of land to entrepreneurial peasants was that there were no serious or breakthrough changes in the stratification process. As a rule, against the backdrop of the very small increase in the number of people included in the category of wealthy entrepreneurial peasants at the expense of the category of middle-class peasants, the expansion of the land they use has become one of the features that attract more attention.

Wealthy entrepreneur peasants, while retaining the best part of arable land in various districts of Northern Azerbaijan, the rule of the Peasant Regulation that allows share lands to become private property only after payment transactions, took advantage of the difficulties arising from this in various ways, first by purchase, then by renting, sometimes they managed to expand their land areas year by year by forcefully and arbitrarily seizing their fellow villagers and the lands included in the state village.

In general, the main means used by the peasants belonging to the category of wealthy entrepreneurial peasants for the expansion of their land plots, even if not on a large

scale, was the purchase of the share lands of their fellow villagers. According to statistical data, in the 1880s, there were 1,538 plots of land in Baku and Yelizavetpol governorates, as well as in Nakhchivan district, including 1,114 in Yelizavetpol governorate and 26 peasant farms in Baku province. Until the end of the 19th century, due to the extremely limited opportunities of the entrepreneurial peasants to purchase their share of land through payment, this number changed very little, and at that time, a little more than 18 thousand land plots were owned by the entrepreneurial peasants, in the categories of middle-class and wealthy peasants (199,67; 200,46).

In terms of stratification, the second category of entrepreneurial peasants partially, and a certain part of the third category, do not have the opportunity to expand their land in the ways we mentioned, not to mention that more than 92% of the people living in the entrepreneurial village are deprived of such opportunities. The level of owning or using share land was decreasing year by year, mostly due to the return of s. Even in most districts and villages, this indicator was lower than 0.5 tithing.

In the process of stratification within the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan, until the adoption of the new agrarian laws of 1912-1913, the fact that the process of purchasing land plots was the driving factor did not raise any doubt, and this aspect is reflected in the various reports and statistical materials prepared with the participation of the employees of the governorate administrative bodies of that time has also found its reflection. I. Segal, O. Syomin and many others even compared the speed of the process of stratification in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan, especially in terms of the provision of land to the peasants and the transformation of allotment lands into private property, with the central karatorpag and other

governorates of the empire, and concluded that this process was particularly high in the village of North Azerbaijan. They noted that they have speed (191,5; 210,69).

One of the main factors showing the strengthening of the process of stratification in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan was the indicators of the use of hired labor by households belonging to different categories of peasants. Due to the fact that more than 9/10 of the peasants in the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan had a small share of land, even the peasants were forced to rent the plots of land under difficult conditions (87,214-215).

In the post-reform decades, there are many facts about entrepreneurial peasants who belong to all three categories renting land plots to varying extents, especially grassland and winter lands, and a small amount of arable land. Although there were cases of leasing of lands belonging to the peasants and lords within the leased land areas of the entrepreneurial peasants, such leases were short-term or very small in scale. Among the lands leased by the peasants, the lands belonging to the treasury or the state village prevailed. In addition to the widespread use of the last-mentioned land areas by entrepreneurial peasants, such leases were also long-term, and the fact that such lands were used for decades did not differentiate them much from the lands they had previously used-(68,8-9).

It is known that at the end of the XIX century - the beginning of the XX century, 144.5 thousand tithing of land plots of various purposes were leased by the villagers from both poles in the village of North Azerbaijan, and approximately $\frac{1}{4}$ of it fell to the share of the entrepreneurial village (4,6-7).

Baku governorate was the first and Yelizavetpol governorate was the second in terms of land plots leased by entrepreneurial peasants. In the first place, this was primarily

due to the relatively small number of privately owned lands and arable land.

It would not be true to say that there were no cases of land leasing among the peasants included in the first category of entrepreneur peasants. Here the situation was somewhat different. In fact, their land supply was extremely low, as well as the supply of working animals, seed grain, and agricultural tools was almost non-existent, which made it impossible to rent land under very difficult conditions. Therefore, during the 20-30 years after the Peasant Reform, a certain part of the poor entrepreneurial peasants were forced to rent their meager plots of land to their fellow villagers, primarily to wealthy Qolchomaq villagers, preferring to go to work in other districts, mostly in Baku governorate, in permanent and seasonal jobs.

Wealthy entrepreneurial peasants were in a superior position when renting agricultural labor tools, seed crops, hired labor on leased land, and other factors, whether it was their fellow villagers, landlord or state land.

On the other hand, since the use of new methods of farming in the process of using leased land accelerated the process of transformation of such farms into more and more capitalist farms, the leasing opportunities of poor and somewhat middle-class entrepreneurial peasant farms were completely limited (71, 90, 91)

As we mentioned, among the lands leased by entrepreneurial peasants, land plots belonging to landlords and gentlemen were often found. In the 90s of the 19th century, entrepreneurial peasants in Yelizavetpol governorate leased approximately 138,000 tithing of land for various purposes. However, in the following years, no particular increase was observed in these indicators, on the contrary, this figure was lower in individual years (203.70).

The investigation of the reasons for this has shown that in a situation where the intervention and spread of commodity-capitalist relations in the North Azerbaijani village is expanding year by year, many processes taking place within the village of the entrepreneur have revealed many reasons for the annual decrease of the leased part of the landlord's lands. A large group of landlords and landlords, unable to adapt to the new economic conditions, kept a certain part of their land in their hands and mortgaged it in banks, or, on the contrary, a small part of these people, using hired labor, which is more productive and profitable within their own land trying to adapt to farming conditions also meant a decrease in leased land areas. In addition, as one of the important and different features of the emergence and development of commodity-capitalist relations, the formation of a new category of private landowners as a result of the purchase of a part of the landlord's land into the hands of the representatives of trade and industry circles, and the new landowners who entered this category in their own land their preference to engage in more profitable areas of agricultural production by using hired labor was one of the reasons for the year-by-year decrease in the area of mulkamadar and bey lands rented by entrepreneurial peasants. Thus, in 1908, in Yelizavetpol governorate, the area of leased landlord lands decreased considerably and amounted to only 73 thousand tithing (185, 38-41).

In the Baku governorate, this figure varied between 50-60 thousand tithing in different years. In general, the area of landlord-bey lands leased in the North Azerbaijan entrepreneurial village did not change seriously until 1913, and in different years it was 140-190 thousand tithing (185,38-46).

However, in any case, there is no doubt that those who belong to the second, or even the third category of

entrepreneurial peasants are the first among those who lease such lands.

It would not be correct to assume that the landless situation of up to 92% of the peasants within the entrepreneurial village would remain unchanged in the decades after the reform. Because the gradual strengthening of the stratification within the peasant households creates a situation of complete landlessness, which is one of the most acute social and economic problems for the North Azerbaijani village, and their number was expanding year by year partly due to the middle class and mostly poor peasants.

As one of the main results of the process of stratification in entrepreneurial village, it is of particular interest to investigate the reasons for the emergence of landless villagers. The vast majority of entrepreneurial peasants with extremely low levels of land supply tried to improve their situation, at least partially, by renting out small plots of land after they were convinced that personal management of their farms was not effective, but most of such peasants soon lost their plots of land. . As for the emergence of such a situation, it was primarily due to insufficient supply of such farms with agricultural tools and working animals (153,39).

The situation of this category of peasants remained almost unchanged in the first decade of the 20th century, but the number of entrepreneurial peasants who leased or sold their land to their wealthy fellow villagers increased somewhat due to the limited and lack of opportunities to cultivate their land.

Based on the figures of 1911 for the Baku governorate, it was known that the area of irrigated agricultural land in the yard of each peasant, including the entrepreneur, was on average 0.3 tithing. If we take into account that this figure includes the plots of land used by middle-class and wealthy peasants, then we determine that the plots of land belonging

to poor peasant households, which make up about 80% of all peasants, are much less (199,19).

Statistical analyzes sometimes make it possible to obtain certain generalized information about the situation of the entrepreneurial peasants with little or no land from a slightly earlier period. Of these, it was known that in Yelizavetpol governorate, about 25,000 people united in more than 5,300 farms, and in Baku province, more than 11,700 peasants united in 3,900 farms live completely without land (214,27).

Thus, clarifying our opinion a little more, we can say that the number of landless entrepreneurial peasants was more than landless peasants in some districts of both governorates. Even in Shusha district, the latter were much more than peasants with little land (214,27-28).

The examination of the statistical materials for the year 1917 for the Baku governorate once again shows that the process of stratification in the agriculturally united Azerbaijani entrepreneurial village continued not only in the first decade of the 20th century, but even after the adoption of the agrarian laws of 1912-1913 (224,30-31).

So, although the implementation of the new agrarian laws, on the one hand, thanks to the funds paid by the state to entrepreneurs, the entrepreneurial peasants have the opportunity to buy their share plots and manage their farms independently and under relatively favorable conditions, but the vast majority of the entrepreneurial peasants still and being in a state with little land as before (in some cases in the mentioned period, it often happened that a certain part of the entrepreneurial peasants had even 0.2-0.4 tens of acres of land (223,129-131) due to the economic inefficiency of the activity of such farms The unbearable situation of the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century could not bring about a positive change, as a result of which a significant part of the small-land entrepreneur peasants sold their meager

share of land to their wealthy fellow villagers and other persons, leaving their former places of residence and moving to the district centers or Baku. and oil in its surrounding villages As a result of the increase in the demand for labor force due to the expansion of the oil fields, they went to the city to work as black laborers in the oil fields.

As a result of this deprivation of the entrepreneurial peasants from their land, it was natural for a small part of the rich and partially middle-class peasants to expand their land by buying such land. However, since the main buyers of such lands are mostly rich Qolchomak peasants, during the first 20 years of the 20th century, there was no significant change in the number of wealthy peasants, who constitute the last category of entrepreneurial peasants. The change in the number of private owner peasants from this category (instead of 1.5% in the 80s of the XIX century) was mainly due to their land purchased before the adoption of the agrarian laws of 1912-1913, mostly after the adoption of the laws. As a whole, up to 85 thousand tithing or about 75% of more than 120 thousand tithing of land purchased in the North Azerbaijan village during the period of half a century after the reform were included in the ownership of wealthy villagers (232,44).

The process of stratification in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan is almost entering a new stage due to the changes in the economy at the beginning of the 20th century, especially the development and deepening of commodity-capitalist relations in agricultural production. Although we do not have the opportunity to speak extensively about the qualitatively new special content and forms of this stage, in any case, the favorable conditions created in connection with the adoption of new agrarian laws, most of all, the creation of the possibility for the peasants to buy their land compulsorily within the entrepreneur village. The process of stratification,

which has been going on for nearly 40 years, has now been given a new impetus. Some of the middle-class peasants, who have already been somewhat active in the purchase of peasant share lands, have expanded their land holdings by known means, and now they have acquired more than 5 tithing, sometimes 10-15 tithing and more, instead of between 2-5 tithing as before. They expanded the ranks of the wealthy Qolchomak peasants.

It can be expected that the adoption of new agrarian laws will facilitate the change and, most importantly, the reduction of the number of poor peasants, who constitute the majority (more than 92%) in the entrepreneur's village, and accelerate the transition of a certain part of them at least to the ranks of middle-class peasants. But it didn't happen like that. Because, as mentioned earlier, the provision of land up to 2 tithing could not even apply to at least half of the peasants in this category. Since the 0.1 to 0.4 tithing of land was often the only source of livelihood for the poor entrepreneurial peasant, it was economically inefficient for them to manage their farms independently, even after the purchase by payment. Therefore, it was quite natural that their land fell into the hands of wealthy, wealthy entrepreneurial peasants. Such people already became representatives of the middle and big bourgeoisie in the village (224,72).

Against the background of the processes we have discussed, one of the important conclusions we have come to is the expansion of the ranks of the rich and wealthy peasants, primarily at the expense of the middle-class peasants. In various statistical sources and materials of the years 1917-1920, various facts can be found that confirm the expansion of the ranks of wealthy Qolchomak peasants, albeit partially, as a result of stratification.

In connection with the agrarian policy of the Azerbaijan Democratic Republic, as well as in the reports of the Agrarian

Affairs Committee of the Azerbaijan SSR in various years, it was stated that approximately 10% of the peasant farms consisted of the rich-wealthy peasant farms (160,391; 234,82). Although this indicator varies between 25-30 thousand in various reports and materials, the latest data from 1921 shows that there are about 28 thousand such peasant farms in Azerbaijan (8.5-8.6%) once again confirms the above-mentioned opinion (215,85).

Investigating how much land the peasants have in entrepreneurial village and what kind of activities they are engaged in in their farms also helps to monitor the process of stratification here more closely (225,11-147).

Cultivation of cereals, which play a leading role in the traditional agricultural fields in the North Azerbaijan village, the scale of these farms, the rules of farm management, the use of hired labor, etc. from the point of view of facts, the results of the differentiation of entrepreneurial peasant farms from each other should be counted among the indicators of stratification. Because small and partially medium-sized entrepreneurial peasant farms were engaged in grain farming, which is considered the main food product and produces at least 2/3 of the grain crops, mainly for the purpose of paying taxes, seed grain for the next farm year, and paying for the family's consumption. Peasants from this category, in a situation where the demand for grain products in both domestic and foreign markets is increasing, especially after the commissioning of the Baku-Tbilisi railway line, in a situation where grain production has become more commoditized (72,78; 174,130), wealthy entrepreneurial peasant farms they lacked the conditions to engage in commercial grain farming. Wealthy entrepreneurial peasants leased agricultural land of 756,000 tithing of owner-peasant share land, approximately 252,000 tithing, and up to 100,000 tithing from the land of nobles and landlords, and engaged in

grain farming together with 100,000 tithing of arable land at their disposal. Having acquired more favorable economic, technical and other opportunities, they became the main producers of grain products brought to the markets in the end of the 19th - beginning of the 20th centuries in the Azerbaijani village (210,71-72).

By the way, we would like to express some of our considerations in terms of the comparison of the sizes of the entrepreneur and state peasant share lands. In our calculations, we mentioned that among entrepreneurial peasant farms, only middle-class and wealthy peasants are provided with a plot of land between 2-5 tithing and above. If we take into account that such entrepreneurial peasants do not make up even 8% of the peasants living in the entire entrepreneurial village, then it is easy to understand that the issue of land provision, as in other areas of agricultural production, plays a key role in determining the share rate of total grain products in grain farming.

Our main goal in making this feature more prominent is to draw attention to the very large scale of the share lands of the state peasants, who are more engaged in the production of grain products.

Determining the degree of stratification in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan and monitoring this process is also evident when the villagers of these categories are engaged in other fields of occupation - cattle breeding, viticulture and winemaking, cotton growing, sericulture and other production fields. However, we have tried to complete our opinion by identifying different aspects of the stratification process that takes place in the entrepreneur's village, not all of them, but only by following the fields of cotton growing, viticulture, sericulture and cattle breeding.

Starting from the 80s of the 19th century, cotton farming, which was formed on the basis of industry and began to spread widely, was one of the profitable economic fields, spreading widely in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan, and even began to give more income than grain farms. At the end of the 19th century - the beginning of the 20th century, the role of the entrepreneurial village was not insignificant in the increase of cotton production in the North Azerbaijan village as a whole, by almost 8 times (88,32).

At the beginning of the 20th century, more than 20% of the farms in the entrepreneur's village had between 0.5 and 2 tithing, and sometimes more, cotton fields (228,67-68).

However, in the entrepreneur's village as a whole, the agricultural areas of the farms engaged in cotton cultivation, where only this plant was grown, were close to 2 tithing on average (164, 10-11).

Thus, here too, it was possible to observe the process of stratification within the entrepreneur's village, which is gradually strengthening, by examining the scale and level of their engagement in cotton farming. Even if they wanted to, the poor entrepreneurial peasants who had very small plots of land were deprived of the opportunity to engage in this profitable farming field on a large scale. It was not so difficult to imagine how much income a poor entrepreneurial peasant engaged in cotton growing on 0.1, sometimes 0.2 tithing and a little more would get at the end of his farm work. From this point of view, the situation of the average peasant with an average of 2-5 tens of acres of land was also somewhat different. Because the average entrepreneurial peasant could allocate only a certain part of his land for cotton cultivation, and at the beginning of the 20th century, his net income from 1 tithing cotton field sometimes reached 100 rubles (228,761).

There is no doubt that individuals from different categories of entrepreneurial peasants differ in terms of the size of the fields, the number of working animals and labor tools when they are engaged in cotton cultivation. It is these factors that play a key role in determining whether such farms have a commodity-capitalist nature or not. It was impossible for small-scale small entrepreneur peasant farms to use hired labor in the cotton cultivation areas of less than 1 tithing. Entrepreneurial peasants who had only more than 1 tithing, and in some cases even 10-15 tithing of cotton fields, depending on the size of the fields, earned considerable income from the labor of 1-2 or more hired workers, using advanced cultivation methods (147, no. 24,45).

The expansion of the process of stratification within the entrepreneurial peasant farms engaged in cotton cultivation was also influenced by the difficult financial and economic conditions in which peasants with little or even medium land had fallen. Entrepreneurial peasants in cotton-growing districts, in return for borrowing a certain amount at the beginning of the economic year, leased 1 tithing or other size of cotton fields to relatively wealthy entrepreneurial peasants, and the latter received at least 1.5-2 times the net income from these fields (146,6 ; 228,761-762).

One of the cases that helps to comprehensively monitor the visual indicators of the level of stratification in the entrepreneurial village and, in general, the entire course of the process both at the end of the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century, is the examination of the indicators of livestock farming, where almost all categories of entrepreneurial villagers are engaged. In entrepreneurial village, it would be difficult to find such a farm or family that is not engaged in this important and profitable area of agricultural production. However, as in other production areas, the fact that different categories of entrepreneurial

peasant farms were in different situations in terms of management, finance and other factors created serious differences in the degree of engagement in cattle breeding, especially in sheep breeding. So, compared to agriculture, it was possible to engage in animal husbandry even in the case of entrepreneurial peasants who had little land or even had no land at all. Because the field of activity, which is second only to the use of hired labor in the management of entrepreneurial peasants' farms, the leasing of plots of land from lords and aghas, especially pastures, allowed to take more income in livestock farming, which did not require so much risk compared to agriculture.

In order to determine the degree of stratification between entrepreneurial peasant farms engaged in cattle breeding, especially sheep farming, which was given more space in our research, it is necessary to clarify the principles of dividing peasant farms into poor, middle-class and rich entrepreneurial peasants in terms of the number of cattle and sheep.

The vast majority of authors who have studied the problem of agricultural production in North Azerbaijan, primarily based on the reports of various administrative structures and statistical offices of the colonial administrative bodies of the Caucasus, defined this division as follows. Thus, farms with 10-25 sheep were considered poor, those with 40-60 sheep were considered middle-class, and those with more than 80 sheep were considered rich. With this division, I. Segal, O. Syomin, S. Avaliani, I. Hasanov, A. Umayev, H. Hasanov and many authors agreed with some changes. In our opinion, it is difficult to fully agree with the second part of the norm, which is limited only to poor livestock farms. Because maybe 10-25 heads seems a bit less compared to farms that keep 40-60 heads and more than 100 heads of sheep. But the fact that having 25 head of sheep, as it is said, is considered a completely poor peasant livestock

farm, should certainly raise some controversy. On the other hand, while the degree of stratification and condition of the entrepreneurial peasant depends on his land supply when dealing with agriculture, whether it is grain growing, cotton growing, or horticulture and horticulture, the peasants with up to 2 tithing or between 2 and 5 tithing of land can use this land. It would not be right to think that they are engaged in cattle breeding or sheep farming in any part of it.

In addition to these, it is necessary to take into account the fact that livestock-owning peasants were often engaged in other areas of agricultural production at the same time. On the other hand, it was this factor that prevented large-scale farming, which did not require such a large area of land. Also, within the farms of poor entrepreneurial peasants, this field was carried out only to the extent that it was possible to meet consumer demand.

As in other fields of agricultural production, it was not possible to use aggregated figures for the owner's village in sheep farming due to their absence. However, obtaining statistical figures related to some accidents and their analysis allows to once again confirm the ideas and conclusions mentioned in the previous part of the research about the process of stratification.

In this respect, the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan, especially in the Baku governorate, was far behind the state village. Thus, most of the sheep farming farms in Yelizavetpol, partly in the state village of Baku governorate, were engaged in the production of commercial products, adapting to the raw materials of the industry and the demand for meat and dairy products of the domestic market (25,12).

The year-by-year increase in the production of commodity products in peasant farms engaged in sheep farming in the entrepreneurial villages of Javad, Shusha,

Yelizavetpol districts of Yelizavetpol gubernia reflected the strengthening of the stratification process starting from the 80s and 90s of the 19th century. In the mentioned period, only in Javad district, 400 entrepreneurial peasants kept up to 50 sheep (269 among state peasants), 150 (194) between 50-100 sheep, 77 (232) between 100-250 sheep, 20 (121) between 250-500 sheep.), 10 (68) between 500-1000, 3 (37) farms with more than 1000 heads were registered (165,74-92).

As it can be seen, in terms of the level of the stratification process of sheep farming farms, the number of poor farms was even higher than that of the state village. In terms of having 50-100 sheep, the entrepreneurial village is also slightly behind. However, for farms with more than 100 sheep, this difference has changed from 1/5 to 1/10 in favor of the state village. On the other hand, the situation of the poor peasant categories, which we observed in agriculture, especially grain cultivation, was the producer of much less than half of the total product. Thus, 400 entrepreneurial peasants, who are considered the poorest sheep farms (they made up 61.7% of all entrepreneurial farms in the region) had a slightly smaller number of sheep than the entrepreneurial peasants in the region. Although this figure indicated that the degree of impoverishment of poor peasants in this area of cattle breeding was quite high, this level was not as high as, say, in the field of farming and other agricultural production (165,101-167).

However, if we have to compare the situation of poor peasant farms in both grain farming and sheep farming, the first conclusion we come to is that the products produced in both fields did not become industrial, commodity products, and did not go beyond meeting personal or consumer needs.

One of the cases that helps to comprehensively monitor the visible facts of stratification in the entrepreneurial village both at the end of the 19th century and at the beginning of the

20th century is the investigation of the results of viticulture production, in which almost all categories of entrepreneurial peasants are engaged. At the end of the 19th century, the peasants from both poles of the North Azerbaijan village planted grape plantations on 22,000 tithing (out of 40,174 tithing). The degree of stratification of entrepreneurial peasants could also be observed in this type of economy. It should be said that this process showed itself more prominently in the scale of the vineyard areas of entrepreneurial peasants and in the results obtained. Thus, more than 90% of entrepreneurial peasants had vineyards that did not even reach 0.6 tithing. In this area, the vineyard plots of 1-2 tithing belonged to middleclass people, and those above 3 tithing belonged to wealthy entrepreneurial peasants. Production in the vineyards of entrepreneurial peasants with 1-2 tens of vineyards was already commercial-commodity (174,287).

One of the cases that helps to comprehensively monitor the visual indicators of the level of stratification in the entrepreneurial village and, in general, the whole course of the process both at the end of the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century, is the examination of the results of silk production, in which almost all categories of entrepreneurial peasants are engaged. In terms of the development of commodity-capitalist relations and the speed of this process at the end of the 19th century, silk farming was one of the areas that attracted attention in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan. In Nukha, Aresh, Goychay, Shusha, Nakhchivan districts, as well as in entrepreneurial villages and estates located in Zagatala district, they have been engaged in this field for a long time (51, 12-13).

During the studied period, the increase in the demand for silk and the expansion of the production of its products accelerated the spread of this field to other areas. If in the

early 1880s, an average of 19,000 pounds of dry cocoons were produced annually, then in 1911-1914, this figure reached 54,000 pounds. About half of this product fell to the share of the entrepreneurial village (51,15).

The increase in demand for ready-made cocoons in North Azerbaijan and the expansion of trade with this product led to the creation of special silk trade markets in both governorates. Nukha, Vartashen, Agdam, Agdash, Barda, etc. they had become large silk markets. The main center of sericulture was, of course, the city of Nukha, and at first, entrepreneurial peasants themselves, representatives of landlord farms, representatives of Tbilisi, Shusha, and foreign companies came here from the district itself and neighboring areas.

In the 80s of the 19th century, a new revival in sericulture began, and in the following years, the number and participation of not only treasure villages, but also entrepreneurial peasants and farms steadily increased. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the number of villages and peasants engaged in sericulture doubled, a little more than 2 times, during about 25-26 years (1887-1913). The number of producers in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan engaged in industrial sericulture was more than 300 thousand (68,15-16).

Thus, the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan, first of all, depends on a number of factors within the peasant farms, including the provision of land, etc. The analyzes based on this have shown that the process of stratification within the entrepreneur's village and holdings has gradually strengthened since the 1980s and 1990s. Following the penetration of commodity-capitalist relations into various fields of economic activity in the entrepreneurial village of North Azerbaijan, entrepreneurial villagers and their farms became producers of commodity products (primarily grain, viticulture, winemaking, cotton, meat and milk and other

products). As one of the main results of development and expansion of commodity – capitalist relations in the entrepreneur village, as a result of intensification of stratification process within the entrepreneur village and peasant farms, the formerly largesized entrepreneur village was divided into the poorest, partly mediocre and especially the few wealthy – qolchomag peasants. Wealthy qolchomak peasants, who make up 1.5% of entrepreneurial peasants and another 1.5% of their farms, seized a large part of arable lands, pastures, and crops, and at the end of the 19th - beginning of the 20th century, they sold most of the various agricultural products to the producers. In other words, 5,811 entrepreneurial peasants united in a total of 861 farms, acquired agricultural tools and machines starting from the 80s and 90s of the XIX century, used hired labor to a significant extent, adapted their farms to the rules of the development of commodity capitalist relations and market demand, and produced agricultural products. formed an important group of producers.

After all that has been said, we would like to note that after knowing the level of land security of both entrepreneurs and villagers living in state villages in North Azerbaijan, it would be appropriate to compare their indicators in three categories with the general results of the North Azerbaijan village and express some of our opinions.

First, the comparison of poor peasant households for all three groups showed some sharp differences. So, although the number of villagers in both the entrepreneur and treasure village was approximately equal to each other (390,000 and 394,100 people, respectively), their ratio to the total number in the villages to which they belonged was almost twice as much in favor of the former (92 % and more than 50 %).

It is known that the process of stratification, due to the influence of various economic factors, the changes within the

3 categories of peasants in both villages should have led to a significant increase in the number of poor and landless peasants, mainly at the expense of middle-class peasants, and the figures we have shown above prove this once again. Although stratification did not significantly affect the increase in the number of wealthy peasants, especially within the categories of entrepreneurial peasants, it meant a further increase in their wealth in terms of land provision and other economic factors. In our opinion, what we have said once again shows that the degree of stratification in the entrepreneur village is higher than in both the state and general North Azerbaijan villages. The fact that 57,780 or 92% of the total 64,130 peasant farms in the entrepreneurial village are at the poverty level, and at the same time, their limited participation in the production of commodity agricultural products is due to the fact that the level of stratification is higher than in the state village, and the number of poor entrepreneurial peasants is significantly higher (92%) was one of the main reasons.

A comparison of the number of North Azerbaijani peasants who have between 2 and 5 tens of acres of land in both villages also reveals different results, as in the case of the categories of poor peasants. Thus, the households of medium-sized entrepreneurial peasants (30,309 people or 7.12% of the total number) were approximately 8 times less than in the state village (234,572). However, the average peasant category was 41.1% of the total average (234,572 people out of 786,127 people) in the state village. However, in the 1980s and 1990s, to which the analyzed figures belong, the number of middle-class peasants (30,309 out of 425,831 peasants) in the entrepreneurial village was only 7.12% of the total. The fact that the results of the comparison between the entrepreneurial and state villages in the middle peasant category are so different (7.12% versus 41.1 %) should also

reaffirm the fact that the degree of stratification is superior precisely in the entrepreneurial village. Because the stratification process, whether in agriculture or in other sectors of the economy, sooner or later led to the expansion of the low-income poor, the melting of the middle class as a result of the insolvency process, unlike them, the wealthy class increased their property in terms of land and other means of production.

This idea or saving should be applied to all three categories of peasants, who, with certain different aspects, are considered to be aspects of agricultural production that are in a certain different situation in terms of different factors.

In the end, let's say that the analysis of the numbers of the wealthy qolchomak peasant category in both villages of the studied period once again confirms our conclusions about the first two categories. A total of 5,811 villagers or 1.5% of all villagers in entrepreneurial village was less than 12 times the number of villagers of this category in the state village. However, wealthy qolchomaglar villagers living in the state village made up 8.55% of all villagers.

Thus, between the three categories in which the state peasants are divided according to the degree of stratification, especially in the first two categories, not so serious differences were observed, the difference was felt only in the third category. This was at least 7.5 times more compared to the entrepreneur village. This idea once again confirms that the process of stratification in the state village is not so different compared to the entrepreneurial village. Although the indicators of the level of stratification of villagers in the three categories into which the North Azerbaijan village is divided, respectively, 64.5%, 29.22% and 6.3%, are a common indicator of the corresponding indicators for the entrepreneur and the state village, here, in the comparison of the first and last categories, there is such a

difference. There was no significant difference. A serious difference is felt only in the average peasant category, as it is clear from the indicators of all three tables. That is, the number of villagers belonging to this category was 7.12% in the entrepreneurial village, 41.1% in the state village, and finally the average Azerbaijani indicator was 29.22% (Calculations are ours-F.B.).

Finally, when examining the extent of stratification within the entrepreneurial village and one of its key consequences, it is important to note that, in contrast to the state village, the poor and middle-class entrepreneurial peasants faced very limited economic opportunities. By the late 19th and early 20th centuries, they had become mere commodities in both the local economy and the broader village society in Azerbaijan. While capitalist relations were rapidly developing and intensifying, the Azerbaijani village remained largely excluded from these processes, even as its role in producing raw materials and agricultural commodities essential for industrial growth expanded.

Thus, as a result of the strengthening of the process of stratification of entrepreneurial peasant farms, some social problems, which we hardly encountered in previous decades, appeared in the village of North Azerbaijan. Although the poor and landless peasants gave up their land, so to speak, and went to the city in search of work, it meant providing cheap labor for the newly emerging industries at the time, but at the same time, bringing wage labor, rent and other forms of capitalist economy to the entrepreneurial village, the wealthy - qolchomag increased the role and importance of peasant farms in the economy and production process.

Chapter III. Entrepreneurial peasants of Azerbaijan in the new socio-economic conditions

III.1. About the management rules of entrepreneurial peasants

In the 19th century, the rules of managing the villagers in the Azerbaijani village were changed several times. In the first half of the century, due to changes in the attitude of tsarism towards the local ruling classes, the unstable situation that existed for some time stabilized after a series of successive reforms. Especially with the adoption of the Law on Village Societies of 1865, the situation in both poles of the Azerbaijani village remained stable for a long time, except for some minor changes (201,118).

In any case, taking a general look at the problem of peasant management rules and re-examining the problem would in itself help to clarify the attitude to certain issues. Even at the beginning of the 19th century, around the eve of the Russian invasion, the rules of population management in rural areas were in a different situation compared to the rules of management of other sections of the population in the society as a whole. Although there are a number of reasons for the existence of such a different situation, probably the first place is the historically formed different aspects of the population's life and lifestyle, and to a certain extent, economic activity.

Generally speaking, after every law and decision made by the Russian government regarding the Azerbaijani village, especially regarding the agrarian field, we will probably not be wrong if we show that a qualitatively new stage has begun in the management rules of the villagers. Among these laws, after the announcement of the peasant reform covering the internal governorates of Russia, the attitude to the problem took a slightly different position, and even the need

to make new, more serious changes in the management of peasants and rural societies in general began to make itself felt.

It is true, from the high-ranking officials of the colonial administrative bodies in the South Caucasus to the emperor himself, the attitude to the problem of the legal status of the peasants in the Azerbaijani village was significantly different. Many believed that the different traditions of the Azerbaijani village, the population's way of thinking, psychology, the different content and nature of the relations between the feudal entrepreneurs and the peasants as a whole, were the main reasons for their conclusion.

Nevertheless, the adoption of the Peasants' Statute in Russia in any case gave a serious impetus to the change of attitude towards this issue in the South Caucasus, including Azerbaijan, and in other words, to the preparatory work in the field of revision of the management rules and legal status of the peasants.

Even the first proposals in this direction appeared. First of all, it was proposed to develop the principles of the principles and directions of activities of the village selfgoverning societies covering districts and villages. These provisions were actually reflected in the content of the peasant reform of 1861. However, it would not be right to attribute this form of governance to Azerbaijan as it is. Because there was a three-level self-government system for the management of the rural population in the central Russian governorates, and the new reform reflected exactly this three-level form of management. In Azerbaijan, unlike the central governorates of the empire, a two-tiered village self-government structure that could cover districts and villages and the organization of their corresponding administrative bodies was considered possible and appropriate.

In fact, the principles of operation of the village selfgovernment bodies should be completely different from those of the central governorates. If in the mentioned governorates more or less appropriate legislative documents were prepared in this area before the reform and after the reform, and the last law that completely covered this area appeared in 1865, Azerbaijan initially lacked certain normative documents in this area and in this direction and has not been developed yet. Since no organizational work was carried out in the direction of its preparation, it was planned to be based on local historical traditions in the field of village and peasant self-governance (201,118).

The division and distribution of land plots in rural areas, the determination and collection of taxes, the appointment of local officials in administrative structures, the principles of operation, the state of taxes paid and obligations performed for the benefit of the state, the issues of administrative tasks related to villages and villagers and control over the execution of court decisions are all the responsibility of village societies was supposed to be given. In contrast to the first periods of the occupation, various structures of the official authorities now have a positive attitude towards the implementation and strengthening of the form of self-government of the peasants, and generally they were of the opinion that the application of such management rules would serve to strengthen the positions of tsarism even in the localities. It was natural and believable. So, even from the experience of the empire itself, it was clear that self-management, which is considered one of the main working principles of rural societies, was far from covering the rules of political and administrative management, based on local historical management traditions. On the other hand, it could not be otherwise in the conditions of strict control imposed by the governorate and other administrative structures on the activities of all three

levels included in this structure. Taking all of this into account, the imperial government kept the series of bourgeois reforms in the central governorates intact, neither in the content nor in the forms of application, nor did they give any place to the village society and self-government, and even ensured that it remained as it was until the beginning of the 20th century.

Therefore, considering the South Caucasus, Azerbaijan and national regions in general in the selection of the next direction of the implementation or creation of rural societies and the field of activity can be considered a logical continuation of the work done in this field. The attention of the government authorities was primarily focused on restudying and analyzing the local historical traditional rules and principles of governance. Of course, the obtained results and generalizations had to be taken into account in the imperial administration of the rural population. On the other hand, these should also be taken into account in the content of the next legislative documents to be prepared in this field. In a word, the realization of the government's plans to turn the form of local self-government of the peasants into a small part of the local structures of the state administration apparatus depended to a great extent on the results of the work done in this area.

In the first period after the peasant reform in the empire itself, the form and practice of the village self-government structures underwent considerable changes and improved. The main reason for this was that capitalist relations, which gradually developed and accelerated, found their way to rural areas and changed not only the appearance of the prereform village, but also the way of life and economic activity.

Let's take into account one aspect that the situation of the village and the peasants after the reform was perhaps the most complicated period both from the economic and legal point

of view, both before and from the second decade of the 20th century. The main reason was that, in accordance with the main principles and goals of the peasant reform, despite the fact that each peasant had the opportunity to own up to 5 tithing of share land and to be free personally, the first of these remained on paper until exactly 42 years after the announcement of the reform (218,124).

In other words, the financial condition of the peasant entrepreneur is that he has to pay the value of the land to his lord, which is considered the main condition for buying the share land up to 5 tithing and the lack of financial resources for the realization of this principle. determination led to the emergence of the so-called "temporary adequate" situation in the laws and literature related to the reform and peasant issues in Azerbaijan.

However, even before the reform, there was no unanimity or the same rules in the rules of coexistence of villagers, in the forms of management in the Azerbaijani village. In fact, the existence of management and economic activities in different forms was primarily due to the variety of forms of land ownership in the village.

The main factor influencing the co-existence and management of the villagers in the first group was that in such villages all the cultivated land was divided between individual families or producers. This division also included gardens and pastures. They were mostly found in villages where entrepreneurs' lands were located. The most important thing was that, although not in a legal or juridical form, but every peasant or producer was considered a hereditary user of these agricultural lands. Unlike arable land, only uncultivable land could be used universally.

The situation was somewhat different in the villages included in another group of coexistence of villagers. Thus, in the villages included in this group, at best, half of the

cultivated land, and often even a little less, was divided between families. Again, as in the villages included in the first group, here also the user villagers were not the legal owners of the plots of land under their responsibility, but were in the status of lifetime users.

In the villages included in the third group, the form of self-government was in a much different situation. Thus, the population collectively used all the remaining arable lands and pastures, except the arable part of the arable fields, stony and forested areas near the village. In this group, villages with relatively more arable land were in a different situation, and this situation allowed them that the peasants now had the opportunity to use the plots and harvesters even in excess of the prescribed sizes (43,152).

Regardless of the location of land in private ownership and treasury fund in the Azerbaijani village, there were many special differences in the form of coexistence or selfgovernment of the villagers.

If we say that during the entire course of the 19th century, the management rules of the peasants, or more precisely, the village population, had the same content in the Azerbaijani village, perhaps this would not be completely accurate. Thus, most researchers, including the author of this article, fully share the opinion that there were certain different aspects and characteristics in the management rules of the rural population.

The first place among them is that the principles and rules of management have the character of class and class. Because, as a rule, in the village of Azerbaijan, along with the representatives of the high Muslim elite, there was also a significant group of private owners who took over forms of land ownership by various legal means. Or the people from this group were related to the management rules of the village population to one degree or another. Owners from this group

were often referred to as representatives of the "privileged class" in government correspondence and sometimes in official documents. In some sources, even in the works of a number of researchers, when talking about these people, it is possible to find cases where they are called "outsiders".

In addition to lords and lords, this rank includes people who were awarded a plot of land for certain military or civil services to the government in various ways, viceroys, centurions, village chiefs, heads of village society, etc. people included the clergy in the village, a group of representatives of the trade circles who became landowners through the purchase of land plots. In general, after the reform, it is not surprising that the population in the rural areas of Azerbaijan has such a mixed social composition, but in fact, the logical continuation of the country's political, especially economic events and processes has an effect, but in itself, the rules of the management of the rural population are almost unprecedented. it was considered one of the main reasons for the existence of problems.

The main principle that determined the place of each group and individual not only in the social structure of the population, but also in the management system was the type of occupation. Thus, if every person living in rural areas and owning a plot of land engaged in agriculture, it was no longer considered correct to consider him as a "foreign" or "outside" element in the rural society, and even often they were considered separate elements of the same economic and administrative institution.

Even the Shia clerics who settled in rural areas historically traditionally occupied their place in the administrative system by owning land plots, mostly agricultural fields. The remarkable thing was that the plots of land used by such clergy did not have serious differences compared to the plots of peasant share lands. Sometimes it was the exact opposite.

Thus, in the cases where the cultivated areas, especially the fertile lands, were a minority, the lands at the disposal or use of the Muslim clerics were a minority. It happened that in whole villages such areas considered as waqf lands were not found at all.

This problem itself is of great interest, and especially the last point may be somewhat surprising at first glance. Without deviating from the main goal, i.e. the detailed interpretation of the management rules of the peasants and the rural population, it would probably be appropriate to at least clarify this issue. First of all, it should be taken into account that in the lands owned by monasteries and churches related to the Christian religion, it is often found that clerics are directly engaged in their own production activities, but we cannot say these thoughts about any of the persons who are considered clerics in Muslim religious organizations. In the best case, such lands were either leased or cultivated at the expense of the labor of the peasants living on those lands.

Leaving this aside, the rules for paying taxes from the collected products, the existence of very serious problems in the course of the implementation of the obligations that should be fulfilled for the benefit of the residents, especially the state treasury, created serious difficulties in the rules of local administration. Therefore, it was not surprising that in the post-reform period, lands owned by Muslim clerics were often registered as village community lands, and such owners were confident that they would remain in a privileged position with obligations related to taxes and duties before the state treasury.

Generally speaking, the question of the place and role of such and other persons considered "outsiders" or "strangers" in the management system in the Azerbaijani village, as we mentioned above, has not been the same in every period. If before the reform, almost all of the people

from this category participated or were represented in all the events and meetings related to the management system of the rural population or were represented in some other form, after the adoption of the Law on Rural Societies, the situation in this area changes completely. With the adoption of the new law, the participation of these persons in the management system of the rural population is completely eliminated based on the provisions of the legislative documents of the whole empire.

With this, the rules of management characteristic of the clan, which we have seen in the management of the rural population since the Russian occupation, are strengthening their position. If until now people from this category could participate either passively or actively in all elections related to the management of the rural population, now they were completely deprived of these opportunities. This meant that the solution of all issues related to the management of the village population was directly at the disposal of the village communities, more precisely, the village assemblies.

This situation, in fact, a novelty, in turn, started the beginning of the next phase of quality in both poles of the Azerbaijani village, and caused a significant change in the situation among the population. First of all, the positions of the *zumra* or class principle in the management of the rural population were severely damaged. But the heavy blow was not limited only to the cynical character of the administration. Starting from the mid-1840s, by becoming the main pillar of tsarism in the Azerbaijani society and village, the existence of gentlemen and aghas, who were the main representatives of the high Muslim silk, who managed to significantly strengthen their positions, suffered a serious blow.

However, it was not only these two areas that were hit. The changes had to have an impact on the interests and positions of rural communities, which the tsarist government

paid special attention to strengthening. Because after the peasant reform, it would not be right to hope that the management forms and methods of rural societies, reminiscent of the form of collective management, will remain unchanged at a time when the new capitalist relations, which are spreading and strengthening every year in every part of the Azerbaijani village, have acquired the right of patriotism. Every year since the adoption of the Law on Rural Societies, in the conditions of the emergence and spread of new capitalist relations, at a time when the Azerbaijani village is more and more adapted to the needs of the market economy, it would become clear that this form of management could no longer keep pace with the new social and economic conditions.

This situation prompted the authorities to adopt a number of laws that would serve the purpose of somewhat softening the contradictions and to implement them without delay. That is why, in each of the decades after the reform, it was not surprising that many legislative documents and decisions were adopted that would serve to solve the problem we discussed and eliminate the conflicting situations.

Although the new quality changes that suddenly occurred in the post-reform Azerbaijani village were primarily related to economic processes, their political consequences had to have an impact on the administrative situation of the village population as a whole, and on the change of the general picture of the village. Among these processes, the consequences of the ever-increasing property stratification and social stratification among the rural population attracted more attention.

Previously, the nature of relations between villagers within a village or village society was mainly characterized by not allowing cohabitation norms and violations of egalitarian relations, but now it is primarily the emergence

and gradual spread of new capitalist relations, under the influence of greater involvement in market relations. Relations that were once simple exchange relations gradually gave way to capitalist relations, which include the main requirements and principles of the market economy.

These processes could be considered new for Azerbaijan, but they meant that the new qualitative changes that took place in the central governorates of the empire after the adoption of the 1861 Peasant Statute were repeated in the local regions as well, albeit with slight differences. This meant that no matter how new the events were, the changes in rural life, the change in the management system of the rural population was a direct result of the property and later social stratification within the rural population that had already begun and was considered inevitable.

Already, the former Azerbaijani village is gradually losing its previous traditional appearance, a new wealthy peasant class with sufficient economic power and superiority, or the rural bourgeoisie, as it is called in economic literature, was forming among the rural population.

We mentioned a little above that the rules of population management in the Azerbaijani village had serious differences both in terms of structure and content compared to the central governorates. In the first period after the reform, the work done in this direction was aimed at the elimination of administrative stages. The purpose of this was to tie hands and arms of the Azerbaijani peasants with various, often unnecessary links of the administrative bureaucratic apparatus and to adapt them more firmly to the administrative rules dominated by the absolutist-police management method.

On September 28, 1866, the Regulation on Village Societies in Baku Governorate, prepared by the Caucasian Committee and approved by the Viceroy of the Caucasus,

was the first and perhaps the most effective among the steps taken in this direction. The document provided for the implementation of obligations and other management rules that the villagers would have to fulfill regardless of whether the village they lived in was owned by the treasury or an entrepreneur.

Not long after, in 1870, the charter was applied to Yelizavetpol governorate without any serious changes (129,78). In the regulations of both governorates, the election of village societies, principles of operation, convening of meetings, judicial functions, work rules of the village head and his assistant, the mechanism of their election and dismissal for these positions, as well as their rights, privileges, and obligations that the village population must fulfill for the benefit of the public and treasury. a detailed explanation was given.

From the first acquaintance with the content of the document, one got the impression that the main provisions of all the laws and decisions adopted by the government regarding the villagers were based on the activities of the village societies and their management boards, and their independence in the election of the officials who will manage the activities of the village societies by the village population itself. principles stood. It was even indicated that the officials of the society will be completely free to solve all controversial issues and scandals that will happen among the population.

It was added that the officials are authorized to prevent all kinds of law violations by the villagers, to arrest and detain the culprits, to implement relevant police control measures related to them, in short, to continuously monitor all the steps of the villagers.

These provisions were kept in force after some time after the implementation of the peasant reform in Azerbaijan, without being subjected to serious changes.

It should be said that although the establishment of a single village administration or village societies in Baku and Yelizavetpol governorates, where the majority of the population consists of Azerbaijanis, has accelerated the solution of most tasks in this direction and the elimination of difficulties, at the same time it was too early to say that all work has been done and everything has been solved. Thus, although the village societies formed on the basis of the statutes of 1866 and 1867 and their local structures are unequivocally aimed at uniting both the state and entrepreneurial poles of the Azerbaijani village under a single control, inevitably, in terms of management, ownership and other issues,

The merging of these two territories, which were managed differently and separately for a period of time, should have created and exposed additional problems that were not expected in advance and were not taken into account, and it did.

Thus, combining the treasury, entrepreneur, and management of the villagers settled in the foundation lands in one place created new and difficult problems for the village population and the officials themselves. It probably took some time for both mentioned classes to get used to the new rules and lifestyle.

Another group of difficulties was primarily financial difficulties and other problems caused by the organization of the administrative apparatus of rural societies in villages and settlements with a small population. In this case, the creation of a village society to manage small, sometimes quite distant villages by the relevant officials holding positions at the governorate level, or more precisely, their unification, created other kinds of difficulties and problems.

To prove what we have said, it is enough to consider the number of village societies organized at the beginning in the

mentioned governorates and the changes in their number after about two decades. In the first years of the establishment of village societies, their number was 423 in Baku Governorate and 335 in Yelizavetpol Governorate, but according to the data of 1885, 427 village societies covering 1524 large and small villages were registered in Yelizavetpol Governorate alone (125,8).

The unification of several villages into one village society meant the emergence of major difficulties in the course of management. Worst of all, the merging of peasant farms located in different types of ownership within a village society, in turn, deprived them of the rules of operation in a single farm form. Such a combination only served to create more favorable conditions for securing the interests of administrative management and the police control apparatus (183,239).

The conditions described meant that in the territory of the same village, under the same village society, different fields of cultivation, pasture, garden and other designated land, included in the category of both treasure and private property, operated in parallel or existed at the same time in the same area.

This meant, first of all, that they had at least different economic interests, but also that they were not compatible with each other. Such a situation, in the best case, necessitated the organization of two different village societies that would operate separately on both poles of the village as a first step. However, the first thing that determined the solution of this issue was the financial difficulties, and then the non-existence of the activity of the commissions of the governorate and district entrepreneur peasant issues, which will deal with the solution of the issues related to the socio-economic situation and economic activity of the entrepreneurial peasants in both governorates, and the accounting of materials. Therefore, in

both governorates, the activities of the peasant affairs commissions consisted of collecting and systematizing statistical data depending on the type of economic activity at best (231, 141).

This situation was not compatible with the relevant articles of the regulations of 1866 and 1867, which provided for the organization of village societies in both governorates.

A number of powers of village societies, which at first glance were seen as insignificant, and this was so from the beginning, were also reflected in the statutes. The structure of village societies consisted of a village assembly, a chairman of the assembly (which, as a rule, assumed the position of the village head) and a village court. Let's say from the beginning that the actions of the village court, which were not considered serious violations of the law by the residents, were referred to the community court.

These violations of the law usually included delaying the residents' timely payment of taxes, issues related to the fulfillment of obligations, and minor household problems. The highest body was the open meetings of the village assembly with the participation of all the male population. During the period between meetings, the chairman of the society or the village head was considered the main figure in solving all daily and current issues.

If we take into account that from the mid-40s of the XIX century until the adoption of the law on village societies, the nobles and aghas, who were representatives of the high Muslim class, were independent rulers in the respective pole of the Azerbaijani village, now in the newly created reality they have police judicial rights over the residents living on their land. they were deprived of the most usual control functions, in other words, the fact that the new laws passed the management of both parts of the Azerbaijani village to the control of the state structures could not fundamentally change

anything in the situation of the villagers. Even in some cases, the arbitrariness of the officials and the inability of the residents to defend their rights resulted in their situation becoming a little worse.

We have talked to some extent about the freedom of village assemblies, which is actually of a formal nature. In fact, the specific limits of this "freedom" were very strictly regulated by statutes. Giving the village societies the freedom to assign forest and desert rangers, clerks for the settlement of community agreements, monitoring the state of irrigation systems, and other similar positions within the boundaries of the villages under their control, did not in itself mean the freedom of the village societies to solve all local issues and problems. In fact, the activities of village societies were kept under the strict control of governorate and district police chiefs from the very first day of their establishment, and any decision, step, action, etc., which created or was considered to be a threat to the interests of the empire, was prohibited. cases were immediately canceled and eliminated.

Certain minor rights in the activity of village societies, which at first glance gave the impression of freedom, did not prove that they were completely free to solve all issues and problems within the village. By allowing village assemblies and village gods to make certain choices in regulating issues related to some local conditions, the regulations served to paint the situation as we have just described, that is, to create an image of the complete freedom of village societies in their activities.

One of such "allowances" was giving the chairman of the meeting the right to choose not one but several assistants if there was a large population within the villages covered by the societies, or if not one but several small villages were included in the village society. The existence of several small villages within the village society, the great distance between

the villages, the difficulties of inter-village relations in the conditions of transport and communication at that time necessitated such a situation. Even the Russian officials considered it possible to have assistants of community leaders for such distant villages in connection with this situation.

Along with these, other socio-economic reasons that necessitated the presence of assistants also emerged. Thus, despite the emergence of new capitalist relations in the Azerbaijani countryside and the gradual increase in the speed of development, the previous closedness and isolated way of life of rural areas continued to remain. This situation was more relevant to the villages located in the mountainous zone. Thus, it was allowed to appoint a representative of that village as an assistant to the chairman of the village society based on the request of the residents of these villages, which are located outside of the main roads and road intersections, with a small population, where transportation is associated with various difficulties. At the same time, the assistant heads of such villages provided control over the collection of taxes from the population and timely execution of duties in the small villages they represented.

This was not always the case. Because even though it is not stipulated in the law, the heads of the village communities could entrust the collection of taxes and the supervision of the implementation of obligations to any official within the community.

Examining the working rules of the general meeting held with the participation of adult men, which is considered the highest body for the activity of village societies, is important in our research from the point of view of examining the rules of administration in the post-reform Azerbaijani village, carefully studying the effects of these rules on the current situation of the village and the population, and on the household conditions.

The meeting held by the village community, as we mentioned, the village, more specifically, the adult male population included in the lists confirming that they are residents of the village or villages covered by the community based on the results of the last camera census conducted by the government authorities, and also related to the activities of the community were held with the participation of officials, and in these meetings, as a rule, the economic activity, life, and household conditions of the village and the people living there were discussed and decisions were made. However, based on the review of archive materials about the course of the meetings of the majority of village societies, we can say that among the issues discussed in these meetings, which at the same time caused disputes, first of all were the dissatisfactions arising from the periodic division of share lands, certain shares of peasant share lands within the same village. disputes related to making, etc. if the cases are not taken into account, mainly there were complaints and dissatisfactions related to the work of tax collection and the delay in the execution of various obligations. Although these are not as many as mentioned, but in any case, the disputes and conflicts that arose during the determination of the boundaries of the land areas covered by the village within the village, sometimes even the investigation and settlement of conflict situations were the most common cases in the course of the activities of village societies.

The resolution of these grievances was sometimes prolonged for years, resulting in the intervention of gubernia peasant affairs commissions and other administrative structures to resolve the issue, leaving the sphere of activity of the village society.

In the statutes, everything about the convening of the village meetings, the issues to be discussed and other rules,

almost down to the smallest details, was determined and specified in advance.

Although the participation of every person who is considered a member of the society in the village meeting is considered mandatory, the degree of influence of the village residents or the participants of the meeting on the course of the discussed issues and the content of the decisions made was very weak. All issues were discussed not by the leadership of the village communities, but by the heads of the governorate and emergency departments, and ready decisions were presented to the community leaders. As mentioned above, it was up to the leaders of the village community to discuss and resolve the issues of taxes and obligations, as well as the settlement of various socioeconomic disputes between the residents. A little while ago, we mentioned the frequent disputes between the residents with the division and delimitation of the peasant share lands in the meetings of the village communities, and the fact that their solution sometimes goes beyond the boundaries of the meetings and the village.

Despite the fact that the occurrence and repetition of such situations is very unpleasant, the roots of its occurrence go back to earlier times.

The course of agrarian land relations in the Azerbaijani village was based on historical and national traditions even before the Russian invasion, even in the first decades of the occupation regime. For centuries, the collection of taxes from the peasants, who were the actual users of the share lands located in the private ownership of khans, beys, aghas, and individual representatives of the power structures, and monitoring the fulfillment of various obligations were based only on traditions and perhaps the habits of the residents. Therefore, the determination of the borders of share lands and other reasons that created a controversial situation were

almost non-existent in the Azerbaijani village. However, in the course of the Russian occupation, the khanates were abolished one after the other, the lands belonging to the khans were transferred to the property of the Russian treasury, and after that they were called treasure lands as a rule.

As a result of the confiscation of the land properties of the lords and lords who were guilty of armed resistance, and the beginning of a new wave of confiscation of the land properties of the ruling classes in the village in the beginning of the 40s of the XIX century, the total area of the land plots considered as treasure property in the village of Azerbaijan was an absolute majority. Such a situation, i.e., the frequent and drastic change of the address or affiliation of the landowner in less than half a century, may not have a serious impact on the economic activity of an ordinary peasant, but many issues, such as including the collection of taxes, the fulfillment of various obligations, and at this time it was accompanied by the occurrence of many violations of the law and the arbitrariness of the new Russian officials.

One of the issues that caused dissatisfaction and speeches among the population was precisely the dissatisfaction that arose during the determination of the boundaries of the peasant share lands. It used to be that every peasant family and their heirs had forest, ravine, river, hilly depression, etc., which were already considered natural features in the village. Defined the boundaries of their shared lands in a natural way, and sometimes roughly, and these aspects remained unchanged for decades. However, in a situation where the address of the land owner that we are talking about changes frequently, due to the redistribution of share lands, the change of user or lessee villagers, and other reasons, the lands in the Azerbaijani village were not demarcated, i.e., their boundaries were not determined based on accurate maps, it was a real mess.

It is true that following the announcement of the peasant reform in Russia itself, in line with the Central Reform Commission of the South Caucasus established in 1861 by the tsarist government, which insisted on national successes, including the preparation of agrarian reform, starting from the mid-1860s in the region, more precisely, in two Azerbaijan governorates even before the adoption of the regulations providing for the implementation of the Institute of Rural Societies, the work of determining the exact boundaries of all types of land plots with different users had been started. However, the progress of this work was slow and incomplete, due to the indolence, bribery, and procrastination of the tsar's officials, as well as the fact that the representatives of the local ruling circles arbitrarily seized a part of the lands, pastures, mowing fields, and forest areas that were previously considered the share lands of the peasants, and other reasons, and the work carried out in this direction even in 1870.

When the peasant reform was announced in It is true that the tsar's officials and relevant government structures officially declared that the works in this area were largely completed, but the demarcation chamber still had a lot of work to do regarding measurement accuracy in individual districts and villages. If we take into account that the complete solution of this situation was not fully completed even at the beginning of the 20th century, then the reasons why such issues are at the forefront among the controversial issues discussed by rural societies become clear. Of course, although specifying or measuring the borders of share lands belongs to the work of the respective gubernatorial demarcation chamber or commission, the address of numerous appeals of the officials regarding the issue and the final stage of dispute resolution were precisely the meetings of the village societies.

The composition of village assemblies is also of special interest. Thus, the member of the village society and assembly was a villager who was a resident of the village. However, the statutes made it possible for other persons living in that village, but who did not have a share of land, to participate in the work of the meeting. Those residents of the village who were convicted of various criminal acts or were under the supervision of the judicial process were released from the work of the village assembly.

According to the rules of organizing the work of the village assembly, the time of convening the assembly was usually set outside of farm work, and the time of its convening was determined by the head of the village or the chairman of the village society. According to the regulations, a meeting of the village assembly could be scheduled at the request of the district head.

The conditions for the decisions made by the meeting of the village society to become law were also clearly specified. For this, it was considered important to have at least more than half of the members who have the right to participate in the meeting. At least two-thirds of the participants had to vote in favor of the discussed issue.

The content of the decisions was very different. For example, if a resident who is a member of a village community was expelled from the community by the decision of the general meeting of the community, but before this decision was implemented, it had to be submitted by the chairman of the community to the district chief for discussion. If the issue was discussed and the corresponding decision was made, the village resident could only send a complaint to the governor through the head of the district. We have already mentioned the difficulties of calling village meetings. Such difficulties were the most diverse.

When the village society often consisted of dozens of small villages located along the river and on both banks of the river in mountainous areas, it was a difficult task to gather their inhabitants for a meeting. The village societies of Ashagi Eskipara of Yelizavetpol gubernia, Agdam of Shusha district included small villages located 10 versts away from each other. The location of more than 80 families and farms on the other side of the Kura River in the small villages included in the Gushcu village community of Gazakh province meant a serious obstacle to the organization of gatherings. Especially in mountainous areas, the distance between small villages belonging to the same village community was 50-60 versts.

Such a situation makes it difficult for at least the majority of all residents to gather together for a meeting, and it led to the fact that often all issues were resolved without a meeting, with the participation of the most influential and wealthy group of the village society, and the necessary decisions were made. They knew this in the accident and governorate authorities and preferred to go over the issue in silence.

In very rare cases, it was possible to gather all the members of the village society together. However, for this, the strict instructions of the emergency management, the special zeal of the police chief and other officials were required. In order to make decisions in such meetings, it is important to strictly ensure calmness, to know what the essence of the matter and the content of the decision is, noise of the crowd, shouting, etc. for reasons, it did not happen soon (121,3).

The local high-ranking officials of the imperial government, who were aware of the rules and conditions of the meetings of the village societies, as well as the violations and arbitrariness in their work as a whole, did not intend to

take care of eliminating these defects. The main issue they were thinking about was securing the position and interests of the central imperial government in the country.

Therefore, after the adoption of the statutes of 1876 and 1876, in both governorates, where Azerbaijanis live compactly, the goal of outwardly improving the management system of the rural population and in all laws and decisions adopted, on the one hand, to expand their police-judicial functions, and on the other hand, their legal and tendencies to completely limit their freedoms were clearly observed.

In the governorates of Azerbaijan, the chairman of village societies and his assistant were considered the main figures. They were selected from among men who reached the age of 25. The term of action was to be three years. Local elections were held in violation of all conditions and requirements. Sometimes, even after the specified three-year term of office had expired, the governors postponed the organization of the next elections for an indefinite period. If any dissatisfaction and objections to the results of the elections reached the form of an official application or complaint, their review and response were sent directly to the police authorities that supervised the organization of the elections. This situation allowed us to easily imagine how the complaint letters would be answered in advance.

In some cases, the elections of the heads of village societies were prohibited, or the elected head and his assistant were dismissed from work by the direct instructions of the higher authorities. Among the main reasons for this, the most common of these people was that the government and local tsarist officials did not justify the "trust" shown to them.

The chairman and assistant, as well as those who performed other duties, family members were exempted from all taxes and obligations. The head of the society was considered responsible for security and stability in his village

or territory. Any member of the community who was found guilty of obeying the government officials and authorities and breaking the laws could be detained and imprisoned by the village head and his assistant. The duty of the village head is to protect peace in the village, prevent the spread of "malicious news", protect private property, ensure the implementation of the laws and instructions of the village court, etc. duties included.

It should be noted that previously the rights of policecourt control over fellow villagers in the entrepreneur's village were at the disposal of the representatives of the higher Muslim silk. After their powers of this type were abolished in 1861, after the adoption of the law on village societies in 1865 defined the known duties in this regard, already in 1866 the aforementioned powers were entrusted to village societies. After that, almost all issues related to the life of the village were resolved by the village chief and his assistant and with the participation of relatively "influential" representatives of the village residents (231,544).

Now entrepreneurial peasants, unlike when they were under the control of lords and lords, have some freedom, to engage in additional earnings, etc. they were deprived. So, starting from the 1890s, as a result of the introduction of a registration system similar to the passport system of the local population in the South Caucasus, those who went from the village to the city and other places for a few days in search of work and profit had to get the written consent of the village society. At that time, community workers tried to extort gifts and concessions from residents in various ways. Obtaining permission in this way sometimes even cost the peasants the loss of allotment land.

In the governorates of Azerbaijan, the conditions for rural residents to go to the city for business were made more difficult and almost impossible (220,79).

In rural communities, the village chief and his assistant, as well as other officials, found patrons among the Russian officials in the provincial and governorate offices, committed illegalities against their residents, committed arbitrariness in the collection of taxes, fulfillment of obligations, and other tasks. When they were justly dissatisfied with these actions, even though complaints were written, almost all of them remained fruitless. About 20 complaints written by the local officials from the villages included in the various districts of the Baku governorates alone remained unanswered.

Among the most common cases of illegality are spending money from the society's fund where it came from and not requiring any report, forcing fellow villagers to work for free in the farms of society officials, asking for a "donation" for distributing irrigation water during the height of agricultural work. It reached the point that in some village communities, village lords, village magistrates, who were responsible for the distribution of agricultural water, combined the powers of the mirabs in their hands, and tried to extract the compensation for the work they had done from the local villagers in various illegal ways. Of course, most of such acts were clearly criminal in nature, but as a rule, they remained unpunished (120,110).

Another group appeared in the course of the work of local village judges who were supposed to serve to ensure the law in the village and to prevent cases of illegality. So, although the above-mentioned statutes clearly define the period of election of the judges who will be directly responsible for regulating the relations between the residents within the society and will be fruitful for this, the local customs or imperial laws will be based on local customs or imperial laws in their decisions. Since it was not clearly defined, the lack of clear boundaries between them created conditions for

frequent violations of laws, or the fact that administrative errors were evaluated almost as criminal cases.

Let's say that the principles of action of the local judges, who will play the role of law enforcers in the village of Azerbaijan, were fundamentally different from those in the central governorates. If the people performing the functions of local village judges in the central provinces of Russia had the right to punish the peasants for violating the law, to give them corporal punishment, to confiscate part of the work inventory, sometimes even the share lands, sometimes even the right to sell the property taken from the peasants. if they had, the relevant officials in the village of Azerbaijan were not given such authority. However, despite this, local officials in many cases committed illegalities in a more severe form, and this, in turn, caused serious dissatisfaction among residents (142,144,146).

In addition, village judges could be appointed from persons who knew imperial laws and had certain qualifications. This was made possible by the reality of the total illiteracy of the population at that time. If the word "judge" is used in the statutes referring to this point of view, since the sphere of activity of these persons is more based on the customs, traditions and Sharia principles established in the Azerbaijani village for decades, it seems to us that it is more appropriate to use the word "judge" instead of the word "judge". Thus, if we look at the complex of issues that village judges have the authority to consider and solve, we will see that they are quite wide. These include all disputes and quarrels within the village society, compliance with obligations related to land and immovable property, purchase, sale, borrowing, claims about compensation for damage to peasant property, etc. considered and made a final decision. However, in contrast to Russia, in the village of Azerbaijan, depriving a villager of his land in exchange for the

punishment he had to bear, or a part of it, was considered beyond the authority of the village court. This issue could only be considered in the accident and gubernatorial court after the appeal of one of the parties, and then a corresponding verdict could be issued (131,157).

However, minor criminal acts and minor law violations committed by local residents were allowed to be solved and punished on the spot within the society.

The course of activity of the village court was also somewhat different. Here, the hearing of the parties and the whole process is based on oral conversations, only the final decision was presented to the parties in written form after their application. Another copy of the decision was given to the village god for implementation. During the hearing, special attention was paid to the reconciliation of the parties, the peaceful settlement of the issue, the compensation of the damage caused, in short, the resolution of the conflict on the spot.

It would be appropriate to mention such an issue that the works of those who worked in the local structures of the imperial administrative bodies at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th centuries were published, and in the study of the historical conditions and characteristics of the national region in question, he was already recognized as an expert in Russian historiography. Some of the authors of this picture of the judicial system in the village of Azerbaijan are the cultural innovation brought about by the imperial government, the spread of democracy, the emperor's concern for the local population, etc. as they tried to write. But the real truth was completely different. It is true that a review of the principles and norms of the village courts in the statutes may give some reason to say so. However, in some places, the total illiteracy of the population, especially in the field of legal knowledge, the abuses and illegalities committed by the

imperial officials and the local representatives who helped them in their activities indicated a completely different reality in the country.

In other words, the course of judicial proceedings conducted within village societies was accompanied by violations of the law and arbitrariness of officials.

However, it also happened that the imperial officials, who were dissatisfied with the activities of village lords, their assistants, and other workers in general, removed them from their posts. However, these positions were chosen by the participants during the village meeting, and naturally, their removal from office had to be carried out during those meetings. In the 1980s of the 19th century alone, more than 65 village society chairmen were illegally removed from their jobs in the Baku governorate and Russian officials appointed compatriots more favorable to them in their place, which proves how deep the arbitrariness in this field is. It is true that the imperial officials tried to cover up this fact by saying that in the cases where the village chiefs were appointed without election, cases of dissatisfaction and speeches against the government often occurred among the peasants. But this was only an excuse, and the occurrence of other rural societies in the governorate in approximately $\frac{1}{4}$ of these administrative units in the governorate indicated a different situation. In general, the dismissal of the village lords in this form did not only mean a gross violation of the laws by those who are guaranteed to protect them, but also meant additional costs for the residents of the society. The monthly salary received by the newly appointed village chief and at least two of his servants was based on funds collected from the local population.

Despite all that has been said, one can come to a final opinion about the problem of determining the historical role and place of the village society institution, along with other

events that took place in the socio-economic and economic life of the Azerbaijani village of the 19th century, and this is also necessary.

First of all, let's say that the institution of village society and the main provisions of the related legislative documents meant the beginning of a new stage for the approximately half-century existence of the Azerbaijani village after the occupation. First of all, despite all the limited aspects and the frequent violation of the established principles of activity, it had a certain positive character against the background of the arbitrariness committed by the lords and masters of the Azerbaijani village in their property.

It is true that even after the adoption of the institution of village societies, the representatives of the local ruling classes tried to exert their influence on the activities of the society workers, who were mainly selected from among the local peasants. However, in any case, this was not the previous closed, lawless and demanding Azerbaijani village. Despite the formal nature of the election, the emergence of a new type of social activity of the entrepreneurial peasant of Azerbaijan and gradually becoming an integral part of his lifestyle first of all meant the emergence of great changes in the consciousness and way of thinking of the peasants.

In addition to all this, the self-government of the peasants in the Azerbaijani village had a weak effect or was lagging behind in comparison with the central governorates of the empire.

Summing up what we have said and the analysis of other issues we have considered, we would like to state that the new management rules covering both poles of the Azerbaijani village were more in line with the following conclusions:

The post-reform management period of the entrepreneurial village in Azerbaijan exhibited several

distinct features when compared to the central governorates of the empire.

The legal and administrative authority of village societies in the region was significantly weaker.

In the functioning of rural societies, local historical traditions and Sharia law took precedence over the fundamental principles of legal norms and statutory laws. Azerbaijani village societies lacked dedicated buildings for official functions and administrative activities.

The operations of rural societies in the region were largely characterized by a passive reflection of the will of district and gubernatorial police departments.

Until the formulation of a new legislative framework in 1897, aimed at improving the activities of village societies, there were notable contradictions within the functioning of these societies in Azerbaijan's entrepreneurial villages, marked by passivity and a loss of their role as elected governing bodies, as they increasingly became mere instruments for carrying out the wishes of the imperial authorities.

These were the main conclusions of the administrative form of the Azerbaijani entrepreneurial village of half a century after the reform, despite having some different aspects, as well as the reality of the Azerbaijani village at that time.

III.2. Entrepreneurial activities of entrepreneurial villagers

Although we would like to conclude that the condition of the villagers was good or stabilized in the separate periods we considered in the Azerbaijani entrepreneurial village, experience shows that this did not happen for several reasons. In the early days of the occupation, the instability of the political situation in the country, the emergence of tension in

the relations between the local landowning circles and the new regime, undoubtedly had a negative impact on the socio-economic situation and economic activity of the villagers.

Near the middle of the century, in a situation where the relations and mutual obligations between the entrepreneurial landlord and the peasants were already fully regulated in almost all areas, while the entrepreneurial peasants were mostly protected from feudal arbitrariness to a certain extent, the police-judicial rights over the peasants remained with the entrepreneurs again. could not improve at all.

Although the reform of May 14, 1870 marked the beginning of a qualitatively new historical stage in the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan, in fact, this law was the most radical step taken and implemented by the imperial government about the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan for almost half a century before and even after it (218,232).

But contrary to what was expected, the hopes of the peasants for the reform for decades did not come true. It would be naive to think otherwise in a situation where certain conditions of the statute are not interested in breaking the mutually satisfying relations that the tsarism was able to establish with the local supreme Muslim silk, and it is interested in preserving the content and stability of the relations with all efforts.

In exchange for the purchase of the peasant share lands given in the statute itself, the payment operation is taken as an essential condition, which is extremely rare in the relations between the peasants and their entrepreneurs, and the creation of the so-called "temporary binding relationship" which official circles still consider temporary, will make the implementation of the main provisions of the reform almost impossible. it was postponed again in nearly half a century.

Taking into account that detailed information was given about this in the course of our research, we are only satisfied

to say that those who assumed that the general situation of the entrepreneurial village and its villagers would change, at least to a certain extent, soon realized that they were completely wrong. This meant that the entrepreneurial peasants who could not carry out the payment transaction were forced to live as before. This meant more than 98% of entrepreneurial peasants in the two governorates where the majority of Azerbaijanis live, despite slight differences (106,74,76).

In this part of the study, we would like to focus in detail on the two main processes that took place in the entrepreneur's village under the conditions of the previous severe economic, economic and lifestyle conditions.

One of them, on the one hand, in a situation where the natural growth was high enough for that period, as a result of the fragmentation of allotment lands, in the event that only one male peasant was supposed to be given five tens of allotments of allotment land, the peasant did not consume any of the harvest collected and divided into taxes. because it does not meet their needs, entrepreneurial villagers turn to urban areas to find pleasant, new occupations and work areas.

By the middle of the century, this process was quite weak. It could not have been otherwise, given that the laws of the empire used every means to minimize to the absolute minimum the cases where the landlords were deprived of the necessary labor. True, although the formal right of both the entrepreneur and the treasure peasants to move from one place to another was preserved until 1853, this was practically impossible. Non-completion of farm work, nonfull payment of taxes from the purchased products, debts from previous years and other reasons and excuses of this kind negated the right and opportunities of the peasants to move to another place.

Only after the adoption of the mentioned peasant regulation, the creation of the conditions that actually

formalized the sale of land accelerated the process of stratification in the entrepreneur's village, in fact, it accelerated the creation of a new socio-economic picture or situation. It was this situation that encouraged a part of the entrepreneurial peasants to move to the cities in search of livelihood, or, in other words, to become entrepreneurs or hired labor.

Such peasants did not completely cut ties with their villages, but at best went to neighboring villages, or to landlords' farms, or to cities with commercial and industrial centers nearby, to work in temporary-seasonal jobs. If the first form was called agricultural farming, then moving to urban centers was already considered seasonal farming, and entrepreneurial peasants pursued such jobs only outside of seasonal farming. It was still possible to find about such entrepreneurs in various styled writings of that time (230,19).

It would not be correct to explain this situation only by the fact that entrepreneurial peasants have little or no land. Because due to the emergence and spread of new quality changes in the village of Azerbaijan, first of all, as a result of the stratification of peasant farms, on the one hand, the peasants were deprived of their share of land, and on the other hand, the content and direction of the demand for additional hired labor in the farms of wealthy qolchomak peasants opposite processes were going on.

In entrepreneurial village, there was no other solution for the hardships of the villagers, whose daily life was becoming difficult. Entrepreneurship itself created contradictory moments in the condition of the peasant. Thus, the entrepreneurial peasant still could not completely cut ties with the old way of life, no matter how hard it was, and at the same time could not adapt to the new, noisy urban way of life. This situation sometimes delayed for years the transformation

of poor and landless peasants from former peasants into wage laborers, a new class for society.

Depending on the duration of the stay in the city, it was either short-term, continuous or one-time stay in the city.

The main participants of short-term business activities were usually small-land entrepreneurial peasants. In this situation, the majority of their family members kept their hopes that the peasant would get out of the situation through short-term entrepreneurship for the time being, due to the incomplete payment of the necessary consumer demand after the payment of taxes.

However, there were those who no longer had any reason to keep them in the village. Such people were usually completely landless peasants, and they were forced to go out to neighboring villages and cities and agree to all jobs, regardless of how they were evaluated and how serious they were. It was these people who played the role of the main source of the formation of a new class in the structure of the urban population, hired workers or laborers.

In fact, this process meant the emergence of new aspects for the Azerbaijani village. Even in advanced European countries, where the emergence of capitalism took place in previous centuries, in terms of the form of occurrence and repetition of the results of this process, the arrival of a new society, which is considered as a new step forward after the features characteristic of the previous closed feudal economy, and the events that contribute to it, should be considered progressive.

The fact that ancient cities such as Baku, Yelizavetpol, and Nukha now have favorable opportunities for new commercial and industrial activities accelerated the arrival of entrepreneurs to these places. Although a significant part of the entrepreneurial peasants, who came for temporary entrepreneurship, returned for the first time, but decided to

stay in the city the next time, unknowingly becoming a participant in the process of formation of new classes, losing their previous social status and traditional peasant image. Individual peasants came to the cities to engage in crafts and find additional sources of income, especially among the rank-and-file peasants, in the 30s and 40s of the century the number of peasants who came to the cities to do business began to increase year by year.

This was a time when, at the same time as the wealthy qolchomok farms, which benefited more from the stratification of peasant farms, a part of the landlord circles, who preferred to manage their farms according to the new progressive rules, already saw the results of the new capitalist relations and the advantages provided by the farm management, and hired workers within their farms. they preferred to use labor and advanced devices. Although this is a good thing, on the one hand, but on the other hand, the increase in labor productivity in farms working with new rules increases the number of cases of rejection of the previous primitive peasant labor and also creates an unnecessary mass of labor force in the village.

The announcement of the May 14, 1870 reform and the first period of its implementation constitute a special stage in the strengthening of entrepreneurial tendencies. The de facto and legal emancipation of entrepreneurial peasants by the statute now, unlike in previous times, does not place any conditions or obstacles on their way to move from one place to another, on the contrary, it makes it easier. This meant that now not only landless and landless peasants, but also serf peasants who were not satisfied with their livelihood and land provision could leave their places of residence and engage in entrepreneurial activities.

In entrepreneurial activity, the status and opportunities of the entrepreneurial peasants were already the same as those

of the treasure peasants. It is true that the level of land provision of treasure villages was slightly better than that of entrepreneurial peasants. But despite the conditions proposed by the village meetings and the increase in some cases of a formal nature, the number of people from the ranks of the treasury peasants who went to the cities in search of work was not less. In the articles and reports about the situation on the ground, it was mentioned that there were no cases of obstacles being created by the government structures in this area.

Starting from the end of the 70s of the century, the process of entrepreneurial villagers moving to urban areas in search of work, especially to oil fields in Baku, is accelerating. Here, not only the severe economic conditions in rural areas, landlessness, but also the elimination of the use of forced peasant labor, which was widespread before in oil fields, the abolition of the iltiza system, the widespread use of oil products in the increasing number of industrial enterprises, etc. The reason was the increase in demand for oil products. In such a situation, the arrival of entrepreneurs, whose labor is cheaper than the established population of the city, was the most convenient way to meet this demand. From this point of view, it was probably natural that among the ranks of entrepreneurs who came to work in the oil fields, there were more former entrepreneurial villagers from the surrounding and nearby districts.

At the end of the century, the reports of the government officials mentioned the increase in the number of entrepreneurs among the entrepreneurial peasants of the Absheron Peninsula and that most of them never returned and stayed in the barracks located near the oil fields.

Over time, in the ranks of businessmen who came to work in the oil industry, not only from nearby accidents, but also from Shusha, Zangezur, Jabrayil, Nakhchivan, etc.,

which are located far away. The number of entrepreneurial peasants who came from accidents also increased.

Although it is not possible to accurately calculate the number of entrepreneurs from accidents, but the figures in the reports prepared for some times allow to determine specific figures about the number of entrepreneurs. For example, in one of the reports from the end of the century, it was indicated that the number of entrepreneurial peasants from Zangezur district alone was more than 9% of the entire male population. The fact that a very important part of those who left found work mainly in the oil fields was quite common. Just because at that time most of the shares related to the oil industry belonged to foreign companies, it was not possible to find and summarize these facts for individual fields, including the oil industry, because they did not require information about the social status of the employees, their previous occupation, and where they came from. However, even from the examination of the materials found in the archive funds of individual companies and campaigns, it became clear that more than half of the oil workers were entrepreneurs from rural areas (220,83).

Baku was not the only city where enterprising peasants went into business and joined the ranks of workers. Meanwhile, neighboring provinces, governorates, cities of the Ottoman Empire, etc. points can also be noted.

It is possible to get information about the activities of entrepreneurial peasants from the archives and from the materials of the press of that time.

Thus, it is clear that an important group of entrepreneurial peasants, whose economic situation and living conditions worsened, engaged in entrepreneurial activities and went to urban centers and industrial enterprises to work as hired workers. At the same time, regardless of which category they belong to, the number of entrepreneurial

peasants working as hired workers in the rich qolchomak farms of the villages where they are located, or the villages located nearby, in the neighboring districts, has increased.

The somewhat slow but steady spread of new capitalist relations in the activities of the peasants within the entrepreneurial village and the fact that the peasants who were the first to enter into entrepreneurial activity played a more active and leading role in this process is one of the conclusions we reached in the course of our research.

III.3. About the struggle of entrepreneurial peasants to alleviate their situation

We noted that the entrepreneurial peasants periodically expressed their objections to the strengthening of heavy forms of exploitation by their landlords, to the increase of taxes and duties, in different ways.

We have already touched on one of them, and by saying that although these protests are not widespread yet, in a somewhat civilized form, they do not go beyond the scope of the laws, we conclude that this form of entrepreneurial peasants will change not only the forms of activity, but also the way of life. led to

Another form of protest was that entrepreneurial villagers expressed their dissatisfaction with their current situation in several forms of active protest.

In the historical literature related to the 19th century, concrete events about the forms of protest of the peasants in the first, second, and early 20th centuries of the 19th century were separately mentioned, and most authors accepted that the protests took place in passive and active forms at that time. However, we must clarify one aspect here that their interpretation does not show everything as it is.

In those literatures, at best, these issues are discussed against the background of peasant protests in the first half of

the century. However, it should not be overlooked that this was a period when the period of tension between tsarism and the representatives of the local ruling classes had an effect on the beginning, content and course of the protests of the peasants with the help and pressure of the landowners. That is, until the agrarian laws adopted in the second half of the 40s of the century came into force, that is, until the tsarism sought ways to get closer to the local landlords, restored and strengthened the previous alliance, these were part of or were a part of the popular expressions of discontent in the Azerbaijani village and society.

It remained that the passive forms of struggle in the mentioned period happened from time to time and usually did not go beyond the boundaries of the village. At best, they culminated in writing complaints to higher authorities. The 4 major uprisings of the 1930s were not only antifeudal in nature and were mostly anti-colonial in nature. Because after the restoration of property rights and other privileges by the government, the change in the attitude of the local ruling classes to the regime, without a doubt, influenced the form and course of the protests of the entrepreneur as well as the population in the entire Azerbaijani village, highlighting its anti-feudal character. However, there are still no reports of the first half of the century about the occurrence of social and other performances of entrepreneurial peasants that took such an effective, massive form. In other words, we have already talked about the results of verbal and written complaints about the high number of taxes and fees.

The protest speeches of entrepreneurial peasants of the second half of the century vary greatly in terms of content, quality, and form.

The main reason for the emergence of this situation was, without a doubt, that entrepreneurial peasants expected more

from the implementation of peasant reform, and now their hopes have been completely dashed.

As we mentioned, the main form of struggle was mostly called passive struggle. The form of dissatisfaction of most entrepreneurial peasants with their situation and the landlords, whom they considered the main culprits, was their refusal to pay taxes and fulfill their obligations. Sometimes it reached such a level that the villagers gathered in small groups in front of the landlords' mansions and demanded that their demands be heard and their complaints accepted, and sometimes the landlord was not allowed to enter the village. In this situation, various officials working in the occupation regime, starting from the chief of police to the chairman of the village societies, united in a united front against the disaffected villagers and resorted to blackmail methods, fearing that the protests would spread to other villages.

Dissatisfaction in the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan was spontaneous and purposeless, as before, but in the new period, it also had certain new and different aspects. Unlike before, now the entrepreneurial peasants' protests were more persistent and consistent. In addition, the protest movement and speeches of the entrepreneurial peasants encouraged the solidarity speeches of the treasury peasants, who were in almost the same socio-economic situation as them.

Despite all this, the fact that protests did not go beyond the borders of the villages and districts where they lived weakened the scope and spread of the struggle.

It would not be correct to create a sharp separation and difference between the first half of the century and the middle of the century, despite the fact that the number of expressions of dissatisfaction of entrepreneurial peasants sometimes increased a little. The point was that the reasons for the dissatisfaction of the entrepreneurial peasants with their

socio-economic situation remained unchanged in both halves of the century.

Now, after the reform, in contrast to the previous years, the fact that the rights to use water sources and forests remained exclusively in the hands of lords and lords indicated that the situation was getting worse. Even within their estates, the lords and lords used not only the means of physical influence of the police and officials, but also the armed groups they created.

In addition to these, after the reform, the entrepreneur in the villages bought ready-made products of the villagers at a low price, seeds, cash, etc. for preparation for the upcoming farm work. the arrival of moneylenders and buyers who distribute loans on the condition that they pay the interest, even the number of such people increases year by year, after the completion of farm work, the hands of the peasants who settle with taxes and debts are left emptyhanded, sometimes their debts from this year are left for the next year, etc. the circumstances were reasons that would increase the situation, and thus the expressions of dissatisfaction.

This course of events led to the annual increase in the debts of entrepreneurial peasants, and in the end, they sold their share lands and partially or partially paid off their debts. It was the dire need that caused the enterprising peasant to sell his share of land at a very cheap price to his lords and fellow villagers, and sometimes to wealthy Qolchomaq fellow villagers. In such cases, there were even reports that 20 to 30 rubles were paid for 1 deciliter of fertile land (167,77).

In the report written by the commission composed of officials who came to the village during the investigation of the complaints addressed to the government authorities by a group of entrepreneurial villagers of Gazakh district, the lack of land areas, the weight and abundance of taxes, the fact that

the finished product does not even reach the full payment of taxes in some years, the arbitrary seizure of peasant share lands, the demarcation of peasant share lands. In a situation that is not yet completed, it is also talked about the emergence of disputes between the peasants' share lands on the issue of the location of the borders and sometimes their encounters with the facts of committing crimes and murders (167,78).

Of course, the cases we listed in the localities were not limited to the territory of a single village and district, and were the same as the situation in the rest of the territories. It goes without saying that not one, but several commissions that came to the places, even if the commission members themselves wanted to, both the class essence of the imperial government and the personal interests and positions of the officials could not solve these disputes from the root and put the situation in order. Therefore, the emergence and proliferation of dissatisfaction by the helpless entrepreneurial peasants, which manifested itself in various forms, meant the logical continuation and end of the events and the situation.

Some of the cases we found in the reports of the Russian officials who conducted inspections in various accidents were not the direct reasons for the protests, but they encouraged the entrepreneurial peasants to express their discontent. Again, the Russian official, who indicated that the size of the share of land owned by a local entrepreneurial peasant in the aforementioned Gazakh province was only 0.6-0.9 tithing for each family member of a male peasant, at the same time, in a question addressed to him, these figures were transferred to a Russian peasant living in a neighboring village. In exchange for being asked the reason why his family's land was 5-6 times more than that of the share lands, he preferred to go over the issue in silence (167,79).

If we say that even the group complaints made by entrepreneurial peasants about the arbitrariness of their

masters remained unanswered and fruitless in most cases, this is not the end of the matter. Because sometimes in the course of these inspections, not only the complaints of entrepreneurial villagers were not satisfied, but also facts were found that civil mediators added penalty interest on the taxes considered unpaid.

By creating conflicts between the villagers within the villages located on their property, the lords and lords also created conditions for clashes and were even interested in continuing such situations for years.

In most cases of Azerbaijan, the issue of clarifying the borders of shared lands with each other leads to disputes, between two entrepreneur peasant families and villages, and even after armed clashes, the controversial situation around tens of thousands of shared lands and fertile farmlands should be resolved by the hands of the government authorities. sometimes, such "settlements" continued for 2030 years in places, resulting in their remaining empty and uncultivated, which meant that the condition of the inhabitants became worse (167,81).

In the 80s of the century, in a report about such controversial conditions in qadas every year, it was stated that the average annual size of such areas was about 800 tithing in the Gazakh qada alone (170,38).

Landlords, who often kept unused agricultural lands at least 2-3 times larger than the area of the peasant peasants' share lands in any district of Azerbaijan, leased these lands to peasants with little or no land under very harsh conditions. Since we have talked enough about lease forms and conditions in the previous parts of our research, we will focus here on the harsh lease conditions, the fact that such conditions are often unrealistic, frequent droughts, natural disasters, etc. We specifically point out that the failure of entrepreneurial villagers to comply with them and the protests

that followed this situation played no small role in the intensification of conflicts in entrepreneurial villages. If we say that among the reasons for the intensification of the conflict in entrepreneurial village, taxes are the first, we will probably not be wrong. Starting from 1887, while the Muslim population was already not taken to military service, now instead of it, the imposition of a new tax also spoke for itself. The fact that the tax collected for this purpose in the Baku governorate alone in the following year amounted to 158 thousand rubles shows that the situation is really getting worse (105, 65-70).

We said that no matter how diverse the forms of nonactive struggle of entrepreneurial peasants were, their scale and results were not so effective. In contrast, the forms of active struggle, which became a little sharper from the last quarter of the century, seriously worried both the landlord and the government authorities.

At first, the most widespread form of active struggle was actions that damaged the farms and property of landlords. It was now more common for peasants to forcibly seize various properties of their lords, herds of cattle, agricultural fields, and burn grain and other agricultural fields.

Such cases were often discussed in various reports on Yelizavetpol governorate, where agricultural fields and economic activities are more extensive. Even in the sources of the 70s and 80s of the century, the number of arsonists was increasing year by year. In official reports, tsarist officials had to admit that such fires were started by the peasants themselves. In 1872 alone, it was reported that about 490 cases of intentional arson were registered in Yelizavetpol governorate accidents (106,1-33).

It should be noted that the landowners, who are seriously concerned about the occurrence of any form of protest in the entrepreneur's village, and local police officers

sometimes establish relations with Russian officers who are the commanders of military units, and cooperate with them in imposing severe punishment measures on their fellow villagers. they were one.

The police departments, which did not shy away from the harshest punishment measures against peasant demonstrations, organized investigations and created many files on all the details of the criminal case. In the mentioned province, only in 1871-1873, the number of folders where the materials of such criminal cases were kept increased twice and reached 92 (101,5-24).

The number of entrepreneurial peasant speeches ended with fines and other punitive measures was at least 8-10 times more than the cases in which criminal proceedings were initiated in the governorate (103,8-10).

Another document from the Yelizavetpol governorate indicated that 908 of the 930 criminal incidents that occurred in 1876 were related to peasant protests. further increasing, it was said that the 169 cases of arson in the governorate were caused by entrepreneurial peasants burning various properties of their masters (104,56-57).

Russian officials were also forced to admit in their reports that most of these fires belong to Nukha, Yelizavetpol, Shusha and Javad districts, where conflicts and speeches on land and tax issues between entrepreneur peasants and landlords were strong (104, 30-32).

The situation in other Azerbaijan governorates was no different from this point of view. The fact that in 1870-1872, the number of criminal incidents in which villagers were considered to be participants increased more than twice and reached 1260 in Baku governorate confirmed this once again (102,41). 1883 was considered the most record year in this regard, and the number of such crimes was already close to 2700 (105,32-33,55-67).

Noticing that the lack of clarification of the boundaries of share lands played a key role in most of the clashes that took place in the owner villages, the Russian officials sent appeal letters to the relevant structures asking them to speed up the work in this area.

However, the traditional slowness of the bureaucratic official apparatus in the Russian administrative system, as well as the fact that the entrepreneurial village is no longer similar to what it was in previous years, that is, at a time when the level of activity of the entrepreneurial villagers is increasing, the performance of these tasks itself leads to cases of violence against officials, and sometimes even murders. was accompanied by (105,3-5).

At the root of a significant majority of the peasant protests were the injustices and violations of the law committed by the landlords who, after the reform, kept all the water sources in their own hands in the entrepreneurial village during the heyday of farm work.

In one of the sources from 1885, it was shown that the reason for half of the criminal cases in the country was due to the uneven distribution of water (167,86).

It was no coincidence that in the 1970s and 1980s, Russian officials also expressed their opinion to the imperial authorities about the dynamics of the increase in the number of criminal cases heard by the accident and gubernia courts. Starting from the end of the 70s of the century, in most cases, there were cases of entrepreneurial peasants resisting or fighting against their lords and lords in the form of armed gangs. This was already a higher stage of the active struggle of entrepreneurial peasants. It often happened that small armed groups of both entrepreneurs and treasure peasants hid in the mountains and forests together, often changing their places.

Their familiarity with the local conditions made it almost impossible for such people, who are called participants of the refugee movement, to be captured by the government bodies and officials. Because they were helped by local people and residents with food and hiding their places, they were invulnerable. In official documents, fugitives are "thugs", "thieves", etc. calling them with insulting terms, all means were used for their capture and severe punishment.

There were quite a lot of influential people in the fugitive gangs, who were usually considered among the people. Some of them were even known by their names to visit holy places. In the reports of Russian officials, Karbalai Karim Shahgulu oglu, Haji Murtuz, Haji Ahmed Hasan oglu, Karbalai Gasim Mammad oglu, Karbalai Abdulla Ali oglu etc. are often mentioned. the occurrence of their names proves exactly what we said once again (106,42; 112,1214).

The armed struggle of these gangs continued for years. In these cases, the government helped the lords and masters with armed groups. But in many cases this did not help either.

Taxes and duties were not the only causes of conflict between landowners and their peasants. It often happened that the lords were not satisfied with the profits obtained from the heavy exploitation of the peasants, and looked at their very small allotment lands and farmlands. Such captured fields were later leased to the enterprising peasants themselves under very difficult conditions. Complaints about such cases were considered for years and eventually became routine and the villagers were forced to accept this situation.

But these cases mostly coincided with the period before the reform. Now the peasants, who were disillusioned with what the reform would give them, openly expressed their dissatisfaction up to the point of armed clashes. The first members of the gangs of fugitives operating in separate accidents were formed from those disgruntled villagers.

In the press pages of that time, it was possible to find the names of the fugitives, whose names were already mentioned in the accidents, but which caused the anger and hatred of the police and government officials, as well as chronicles about them. Deli Ali in Yelizavetpol district, Qanbar, Kerem in Gazakh, Suleyman and Murtuza in Karabakh, Yusif in Zagatala district, Gachaq Nabi in Zangezur and others whose names appeared in newspaper pages the most were (145,106,107).

The fact that the armed struggle of the gangs led by some of them continued even for decades indicated a lot. In fact, due to the fact that they defend justice and rights in their struggles, and oppose oppression and injustice, the population defends them and does not shy away from any punitive measures. At the same time, the creation of poems, epics and other sayings among the people about their bravery and bravery and word of mouth walking was an expression of respect and love for them.

Most of the time, the government forces could not capture them, and no matter how and where they tried to prevent them from getting armed, they failed. Only nontraditional means, treachery, capture, help of non-nationals to Russians, etc. for some reasons, some fugitive gang leaders were arrested and punished. However, this could not reduce the intensity of the struggle, and on the contrary, newly-known fugitives emerged from the population and continued the armed struggle.

Fugitives and the fugitive movement constitute a very important and bright page of the struggle in the village of Azerbaijan. It is true that, starting from the end of the 20th century, the topic of class struggle in the village and society of Azerbaijan seems to be suddenly alienated. There were even those who claimed that such a situation did not exist at all. In this period, except for one or two works, we do not

come across heroic pages that left indelible traces in the life of Azerbaijani villages and spoke out against oppression and injustice.

However, we must not forget that only a small part of the lords and lords take care of their fellow villagers, help them, etc. While accepting that their good actions really took place, we also feel obliged to say that due to the nature of private property and the owner, a large part of the landowners aggravated the forms of exploitation of their fellow villagers, and it had to be so in the conditions where the intention to get more profit prevailed. It was in fact another and undeniable fact that known fugitives fought for years with so many discontents, conflicts, and finally with the help of the population, without any means of obtaining any arms or ammunition. At the same time, those who think like this forget that the struggle was not limited only to the wealthy class of the entrepreneurial village, the local village lords and others, but the real target was the colonial administration system.

Therefore, we believe that there is a need to re-examine the class struggle of the population in the entire 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century in the Azerbaijani countryside, including the emigration movement. In our research, we have sought to highlight the need for a brief look at this issue.

Thus, we have said that the protests of the peasants against the severity of their situation are getting stronger, and now we have talked about some features and separate points related to the content of the smuggling movement, which is considered the strongest of the methods of active struggle as its high stage.

Although such speeches took place even before and during the beginning of the world war, but after the new agrarian laws somewhat softened the socio-economic

contradictions within the entrepreneurial village, the scale of these speeches decreased and their influence weakened.

What we have commented on are two forms of manifestation of the irreconcilable position of entrepreneurial peasants with their difficult socio-economic situation.

In the first case, the rural population leaving their places and moving to the cities had a certain organized content, as it took place in a peaceful form, leading to the emergence of new capitalist relations and the elimination of the previous isolation of the village, while in the second case, the socio-economic contradictions reached the point of armed conflict. the fact that it took the form of an explosion signaled the growing tension not only in the Azerbaijani village, but in society as a whole.

CONCLUSION

In the monograph, for the first time, an attempt was made to comprehensively investigate the most basic aspects of the social, household conditions and economic activity of the entrepreneurial peasants of Azerbaijan during a large period starting from the establishment of the Russian occupation until the end of the 19th century. In the work, a large number of statistical reports, documentary and archival materials were analyzed and summarized, and many calculations were made, analyzes were given, tables were drawn up and important conclusions were made to imagine the general situation of the entrepreneurial peasants of Azerbaijan in a complete form.

Our researches have allowed us to obtain a number of important results.

It became known that during the peasant reform, the entrepreneurial peasant was given the right to buy, privatize and acquire the share lands. However, due to known reasons, the possibilities of using this right were almost nonexistent.

This meant that the most basic, as well as most, provisions of the Peasant Charter were of a formal nature. Even after the announcement of the reform, for a long time, the smallness of share land, shortage, etc., of entrepreneurial peasants. due to various reasons, it was often possible to find cases where they leased plots of land from their entrepreneurs, worked as hired workers, and even went to nearby cities and industrial centers for business purposes.

In the monograph, in the years after the Peasant Reform, the important changes that took place in the state of entrepreneurial peasant farms as a result of the emergence of new capitalist relations in Azerbaijani agriculture were fundamentally discussed and it was shown that the gradual deepening of property and social stratification among

entrepreneurial peasants attracted more attention than other changes. .

In the monograph, the emergence of neo-capitalist relations within the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan, the increasing number of land-lease operations in the entrepreneurial village, the use of hired labor, the transformation of peasant lands into an object of purchase and sale, the beginning of foreclosures on banks and other situations that create new quality changes among entrepreneurial villagers as a whole facts have also been discussed extensively.

As the effect of all these things, the fact that the farms of entrepreneurial peasants are becoming more and more the carriers of commodity-money and commoditycapitalist relations has not been ignored, as much as possible, attention has been paid to the degree of influence of these aspects on the economic and living conditions of entrepreneurial peasants as a whole.

By the way, let's note that in the monograph, special attention was paid to the various aspects and aspects of the economic activity of entrepreneurial peasants, and even within the possibilities provided by the first sources and statistical materials, special attention was paid to the issues of analyzing and generalizing these processes by individual districts, and sometimes by governorates.

Taking into account that an important part of Azerbaijani peasants are serfs and serfs, and taking into account the fact that a certain group of them simultaneously settles on treasury and entrepreneur lands, in our research - monograph, we have tried to pay attention to whether they are provided with land or not, and to pay attention to the field of farming they are engaged in.

We would like to note that although the categories of peasants in the village of Azerbaijan have been sufficiently

discussed so far, we have tried to focus on this issue in our research and to eliminate the gap in this field, taking into account the fact that there are no comprehensive materials on the rangers belonging to the other category, which is small in number.

It should be said that although Azerbaijanis, the main ethnic group, are the main ethnic group of the villagers in the Azerbaijan entrepreneurial village, it is known from statistical reports that Russians, Lezgis, Talyshs and other ethnic groups also lived here. Taking into account that Russians are the main ethnic group among these groups, the monograph discusses their participation in the economic life of the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan, management rules, etc. considering it necessary to provide information about

In the monograph, it is important to give specific materials and their analysis about the fact that entrepreneurial peasants express their objections from time to time in different ways to the strengthening of severe forms of exploitation by their landlords and to the increase of taxes and duties.

In the end, we must say that the conducted research and the obtained results allowed us to say the following about the main conclusions of the work that took place in the North Azerbaijan entrepreneurial village:

- some new ideas were expressed about the role and place of entrepreneurial peasants in agriculture and economy as a whole;
- it has been confirmed that entrepreneurial villagers are producers of an important part of the main agricultural products of the entrepreneurial village of Azerbaijan;
- it was determined that one of the main reasons for restricting the economic activities of hundreds of thousands of peasants suffering from severe socio-economic problems

such as landlessness and landlessness is the tax system and the primitive rules of land use that entrepreneurial peasants have to pay;

- the limitation of peasant land ownership, management of the economy with previous primitive forms, heavy tax oppression and living conditions negated the development prospects of peasant farms;

- the area of the share lands of entrepreneurial peasants remained unchanged and the population increased due to natural growth, which gradually brought their economic conditions and activities to a dead end;

In the end, we would like to say that the monograph can be useful for historians, young specialists, other professionals, and finally ordinary readers who want to get general information about the most diverse issues related to the innovations related to the life and activity style of entrepreneurial peasants of Azerbaijan throughout the XIX century.

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