

CAUCASUS HISTORY – Early Modern Period (18th Century)

Overview

In the early 18th century, the Caspian region became a very important arena for geopolitical competition for the Ottomans, the Persians, the Arabs, and the Russians. Particularly, after the loss of the the Azov territory to the Ottomans as a result of Peter the Great's failed Prut campaign in 1711, as the only place to gain access to the Black Sea, the Caspian Sea became much more important for Russia with its trade routes that connected Asia and the Middle East with Europe. Although the area was always under foreign invasion, the war-torn Caucasus people, with that many nationalities, religions, languages and cultures, managed to survive and were able to develop their culture and preserve their traditions.

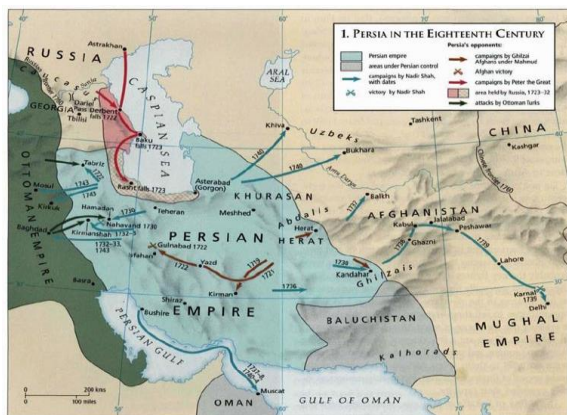
Events:

Early in the 18th century, Russia continued to spread its influence from the Northern Caucasus to the Black Sea and the Caspian coast. For Russia, the Caucasus was an obstacle to their reaching the Black Sea.

At the beginning of the 18th century, Safavid dynasty began to decline increasing tension between the Russia and the Ottomans over the Caspian region. Russia was particularly interested in the western Caspian coast, one of the major trade routes known as *Smaller Silk Road*, connecting the East and the West.

Taking advantage of the this situation, Peter I (the Great) decided to establish its complete control over the Caspian area to exclude the Ottomans from trade route. Peter's attempts to gain a foothold in the Caspian territory also was an indication that he intended to march on India.

While the Ottomans were dealing with the Safavids to gain control over Georgia, the Russians had established their full control over the Caspian territory.



Using the weakness of the Safavids, Peter I launched his Persian Campaign. He took the Caspian coastal region of Dagestan in 1722 and captured Baku in 1723. Russian troops also reached the southern Caspian shores in the Persian provinces of Gilan, Shirvan and Mazandaran. *The Treaty of St. Petersburg* was signed between the Safavids and the Russians in 1723. The Safavids ceded all the territory captured in the Caucasus.

Peter I was aware that the Ottoman sultan Ahmet III was also interested in the region. However, he did not want to start a war with the Ottomans since they had already gained control over Tbilisi in the summer of 1723.

In 1724, the *Treaty of the Partition of Persia* was signed between the Russian and the Ottoman empires dividing large portions of the territory of Persia between them. With this treaty, Russia was able to keep most of the Caspian border region. The Russians had to recognize the Ottoman's influence in the Caucasus. Both parties were engaged in a race to occupy more Safavid territories.

The Safavid Empire regained its strength during Nadir Shah Afshar, and in 1735 the *Ganja Treaty* was signed between Russia and Persia. This treaty required that Russia leave all the lands, Baku, Derbent and

Dagestan annexed in 1722–1724. The treaty was also viewed as a defense alliance against the Ottoman Empire.

The Ottoman Empire was not satisfied with the *Ganja Treaty* and sent its forces to Dagestan. To strike back, Russia sent its troops to the Crimea. A war broke out between Russia and the Ottoman Empire both in the Caucasus and in Europe. As an ally, Austria joined the war in 1737 against the Ottoman Empire, but the Ottoman forces defeated the Austrian forces at Grocka and the Austrians had to sign a separate treaty in Belgrade on August 21. In August 1739, the Russians, the Austrians and the Ottomans began to negotiate, but they did not reach an agreement. The Russian army crossed the Dnieper river, defeated the Ottomans at Stavuchany in 1739.

Russo-Turkish War, 1735-1739 - Treaty of Niš

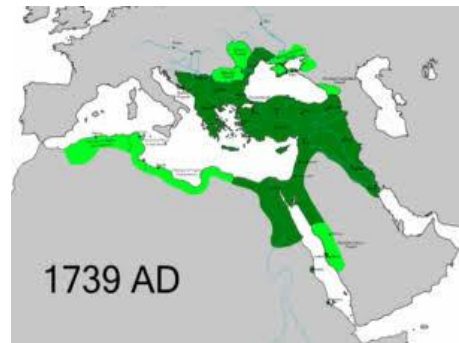
There was also a growing threat of Swedish invasion which began from the north. This forced Russia to sign the *Treaty of Niš*. With this treaty, Kabarda became a buffer zone between Russia and the Ottoman Empire, and Russia gave up their claim to Crimea and Moldavia. However, they were able to keep a port at Azov.

This treaty increased the tension between the Russians and the Ottomans in the Caucasus and the Crimea. In the following two decades the Ottomans continued campaigning on the Northwestern Caucasus and gained control over the Adyghe tribes.

In 1760, Russia continued its advance in the Caucasus and gained foothold in Kabarda, Ossetia and Georgia violating the Treaty.

In 1768, there was an internal conflict within Poland when the two powers got involved. The Cossaks in service of the Russians had entered the Ottoman territory while they followed a Polish Bar Confederation force. The Ottoman Empire blamed the Cossacks murdering its subjects in Balta. The Russian authorities denied the accusation. The Ottomans declared war on Russia. While the Ottomans made an alliance with the Polish Bar forces, Russia got support from Great Britain.

In 1768, the Ottomans also received support from France and Austria and attacked Russia in Ukraine and in the Caucasus. Campaign was a failure for both sides.



In 1770 naval battle took place near the Chesma Bay of the Aegean Sea coast.

The Russian Navy met the Ottoman Navy in the Chios strait, forced it to retreat to the Chesma Bay. The Ottoman Navy was totally destroyed.

In 1771 the Dardanelles were blocked, while the Ottoman trading in the Mediterranean Sea was stopped.

e Russian troops seized the Perekop and occupied the Crimea.

On November 1 1772 Russia signed a treaty with the Crimea, as a result the Crimea became independent from the Ottomans and came under the protection of Russia.

In June 1773 main forces of the Russian Army crossed the Danube.

On June 9 the Russian forces defeated the Ottoman forces near Kozludzha. The same day Ottoman unit defeated by Turtukan.

Russian troops blocked the Shumla, Ruse and Silistra fortresses and crossed the Balkans.



The Russian Army with the Ottomans signed the *Treaty of Kuchuk Kainardji* on July 10, 1774 in Bulgaria and ended the Ottoman control of the Black Sea and provided a diplomatic basis for future Russian intervention in internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire.



According to the peace treaty, the Crimean Khanate gained independence and went under the control of Russia. Also, Russia inherited a considerable part of the northern coast of the Black Sea.

With this treaty, the Ottoman rights were severely limited, and Kabarda was transferred to Russia.

Ingushetia was integrated into the Russian Empire in 1770 and was followed by North

Ossetia four years later.

In 1783, Russia defeated the Crimean khanate and obtain full control over the Azov and Black seas.

Annexation of Georgia

After the Safavids, the Afsharid dynasty came to power in 1736. They controlled Iran, Armenia, Georgia, Azerbaijan, and parts of the North Caucasus. After the death of the Afsharid ruler Nadir Shah, eastern Georgia became half-independent during Georgian king Irakli II and to protect his kingdom, he improved relations with Russia. The *Treaty of Georgiyevsk*, signed in 1783, made Kartli–Kakheti a Russian protectorate.

The Ottomans led a military campaign in eastern Georgia, but they were not successful. The Ottomans also lost control over western Georgia.

Persian Qajar Dynasty and the South Caucasus

The Qajar Dynasty began to rule in 1785. The conquest of the South Caucasus was started in 1795; the Yerevan and Karabakh khanates and Tbilisi were subjugated. Catherine II the Great sent her troops to help the Georgians. The Russians gained control of the region between the Black Sea and Caspian Sea, and the political fragmentation of the Georgian Empire and the Azeri inhabited areas made Russian expansion into the South Caucasus easier.

After Catherine II's death, Pavel I wanted to establish a pro-Russian South Caucasian federation to defend itself without Russian help.

Qajar ruler Agha Muhammad Khan used this pretext to send his troops to Georgia. But, he was killed by the Russians. Georgian ruler Irakli II also died and the successor Giorgi II asked Russia for military assistance in 1799, but died a year later.

Questions:

- 1- Why was the Caspian Sea geopolitically important for the Persians?
- 2- What strategic goal did the Ottomans have in the Caucasus?
- 3- What was the geostrategic importance of Crimea for the Russians?

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GOVERNMENT:

South Caucasus:

GEORGIA: Georgia was a feudal monarchy in which the king had control over everything, but his power was limited by the nobility. The central administration was led by *the vizirs* (ministers) appointed by the monarch. The local administration of provinces was carried out by *the eristavs* (civil servants). The merchants in cities established special committees to provide economic aid to the eristavs. The king summoned the council of senior nobility, *the darbasi* to discuss affairs of state. Most high level positions were filled by the hereditary nobles or by royal appointments.

ARMENIA: The king was the highest authority in Armenia, however, the second class, the *nakharars* (princely lords) of the country were the real land owners and masters.

During the Ottoman period, Armenia was divided into *vilayets* (provinces), governed by pashas appointed by the Sultan. Within a vilayet, the pasha held the highest administrative, financial and military authority. Judges called *kadis* were selected by the Muslim clergy. Vilayets consisted of *sanjaks* (sub-province) governed by *beys* (lord).

During the Persian rule, the administrative units were called *khanates* ruled by khans. They not only had administrative, but also financial, judicial and military authority, and were appointed by the Shah.

After the Russian conquest, the Armenian king, chosen by the Russian tsar, had the authority to have his own seal and create his own currency.

AZERBAIJAN: In the mid of the 18th century, with the death of Nadir Shah the Afshar Dynasty lost power over the territory of Azerbaijan, and the country disintegrated into khanates, sultanates and meliks ruled by khans and sultans. The khanates were not independent political entities, and the southern khanates were still under nominal Persian suzerainty. The feudal fragmentation of the country into local states resulted in the political and the military decline of the country and unification of Azerbaijani lands as part of a single state failed.

During Russian rule, a military officer was appointed to establish control in the Caspian regions by dividing these regions into *mahal* (districts). The districts were governed by district lords and naibs, whose positions were inherited. Districts were divided into *nahiya* (areas) and ruled by a yuzbashi (lieutenant). Villages were governed by *yuzbashi* and *kendkhuda* (village headman). Cities were ruled by *kelenter* and *galabeyi*. Russian officers were in charge of military-political power.

The Ottomans established their control by dividing the country into military-administrative units, provinces and beylerbeyis. Provinces were divided into *sanjaks* (administrative district), and the sanjaks were also divided into smaller military-administrative units, *mahal* (sub-district) and *nahiyas* (rural sub-district). The local feudal officials appointed *sanjaks* (head of sanjak), *naibs* (governor) or *katkhudas* (deputy) to rule the smaller districts.

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA: Until the Russian conquest, the Chechens were a semi-independent nation with many autonomous clans headed by a respected elder and all decisions were made by elected national councils.

MILITARY:

South Caucasus:

GEORGIA: Georgian military organization was rather loose and informal. The Georgian king had armed forces and his power depended on their loyalty. The Georgian royal armies were composed of feudal recruits. The recruits were armed with muskets, spears, and swords, and were mostly cavalry. The Georgian commander-in-chief carried the title of *sardar* (Persian), or general.

King Vakhtang VI created a *mtsvelta jari* (standing army) to deal with rebellious lords.

There were also troops of mercenaries called *banners* grouped in each kingdom. The soldiers of each banner were selected from the domains of the nobles. Each banner was commanded by either the noble himself or by a member of the Georgian royal family and they were composed of nine to ten thousand men.

There were also *qurchis* commanded by the *qurchi-bashi* (royal bodyguard). They were recruited from the Qizilbash tribes.

ARMENIA: Under the Safavids, the administrative units were called *khanates*. The khan held the highest military authority. The Armenian kings had a regular army and the military. Armenians were in the service of Persian shah and had ties with the *ghulams* (slave soldiers). The 18th century commander Mkhitar Sparapet led an Armenian army in their struggle for independence in Syunik region.

In Ottoman-ruled Armenia, the country was divided into provinces, *vilayets*, that were governed by *pashas* who had the highest military authority.

AZERBAIJAN: During the Ottoman rule, the country was divided into military-administrative units, *provinces* and *beylerbeyis*. Provinces were made up of sanjaks (district). The sanjaks were also divided into smaller military-administrative units, mahal and nahiyas. The Sultan appointed the *Sarasgar* (head soldier) to govern the provinces during the military operations.

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA: The Chechen army consisted of detached forces of mountaineers who united their forces to defend themselves against their enemy. They used guerrilla tactics against invaders, launching unexpected attacks followed by a fast retreat. Their villages (auls) were well fortified. Sometimes villages would join together into larger villages in order to defend the land, property, and lives of their community members. All the boys in villages were considered future *jiggits* (soldiers) who would defend their clan and village.

Questions

1- Despite being occupied by various foreign powers over the centuries, how were the peoples of the Caucasus able to preserve their traditional forms of government and military organization?

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CLASS:

South Caucasus

GEORGIA: At the top of the social stratum was the monarch. The upper class was divided into three classes: the senior nobility, *didebulni*; the lesser nobility, *aznaurni*; and the lowest class who worked as officials in the king's estates, the *msakhurni*. The lower classes included the urban population, free peasantry, serfs, and slaves.

ARMENIA: At the top of the social stratum was the king. As the second class, there were nobles, the *nakharars*, who had princely status in the country. The *nakharars* also survived in the region until the end of the 18th century. Under the Persians, the *Melik's* (princes) were another class that played an important role in defending the Armenian character of their country against occupants.

AZERBAIJAN: In the 18th century, at the top of society were the khans, sultans, meliks, clergy, beys, aghalars, and elbeyi. The khan was the head of the country and possessed unlimited power. Below him were the khan's council and the courts that played an essential role in the administrative system of the khanates. The court organs were divided into the divan, shariat and asnaf. Beys and aghalars had control over the peasants. The peasants were divided into raivyats, rancbars and elats. The elbeyi fulfilled a military obligation.

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA: In the 18th century, the *tukhumbaip* egalitarian system continued. Social distinctions in Chechen society were based not on class, but rather on geographic tribal unions called *tukhums* which

consisted of a number of clans called *taips*. Each clan has its own supreme council of elders. The council included the oldest taip members called *aksakkals*.

GENDER

South Caucasus

GEORGIA: At the beginning of the 18th century, the king Vakhtang VI wrote *The Book of Law* depicting the legislative life and cultural transformations of Georgia. *The Book of Law* also had articles protecting women's rights. For example, article 64 showed that if a woman complained of domestic violence her husband could be severely punished. This book was similar to the medieval *Dzeglisdeba* by King George V the Brilliant. In the 18th century, women were considered independent and legally, economically and politically active persons.

ARMENIA: The 18th century writer and philosopher and author of the first Armenian Constitution Shahamir Shahamirian talked about gender equality and the equal participation of women in political and social life.

AZERBAIJAN: 18th century Azerbaijani women's roles were shaped largely by Islamic ideology and patriarchal culture. However, there were courageous women like Tuti Bike of Darband, the wife of Fatali Khan, showing the existence of female labour force replacing men in industry, transportation and agriculture.

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA: Chechens had a society based on equality between the sexes. Women not only assisted men in defending their auls, but also fought together with men.

Questions

- 1- Why did women's status in society decline over the centuries?
- 2- Why did society in the Caucasus become increasingly stratified in the 18th century?

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ECONOMY

INNOVATION

South Caucasus

GEORGIA:

Dasturlamali: King Vakhtang IV compiled a law code called the *dasturlamali*, which ranked citizens by blood price between 1704 and 1708.

Quartuli ghrammatika: King Vakhtang IV wrote this grammar textbook in 1753.

First Modern Poetic Treatise on Versification: Mamuka Baratashvili wrote the first poetic treatise *Chashniki anu leksis stsavlis tsigni* in 1731. It was an innovation that employed the use of medieval Georgian meters and themes.

Typography: In 1709, the first typography was founded in Tbilisi in 1709 by Antimoz Iverieli. His student Michael Ishtvanovich also led an organization to establish typography houses on the right bank of the river Mtkvari. In this printing house the epic poem *The Knight in the Tiger's Skin* by Shota Rustaveli was printed for the first time.

The books that were published in Tbilisi in the second half of the 18th century mostly covered general subjects and religion.

First Chemistry book: King Vakhtang VI of Kartli wrote *The Book on Mixing Oils and Making Chemistry* containing 72 pages.

First Dictionary of Georgian Language: Georgian diplomat, scientist and writer Sulkhani-Saba Orbeliani (1658–1725) created the first dictionary of the Georgian language, *Sitkvis kona*.

Geographical Atlas: The *Geographical Atlas* written by Vakhushti Batonishvili was the first complete study of Georgian territory.

ARMENIA: The *Dictionary of Haikazian (Armeian) Language* was first published in Venice in the middle of the 18th century.

Printing house: The Catholicos Simeon of Yerevan in Etchmiadzin founded the first printing house and paper mill in Armenia in 1771. Many books were published in this printing house. The first Armenian periodical *Azdarar* (Herald) was published in Armenian in Madras, India, in 1794.

AZERBAIJAN:

Carpet Weaving: In 18th century one of the most important innovation was the carpet weaving. There were factories in Shamakhi producing silk cloths.

Nuzhe: The *nuzhe* is a string instrument based on the çeng and qanun, and was invented by the prominent music expert Safi al-Din al-Urmawi.[[]

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA:

Arbas: In the 18th century, a two wheeled Chechen cart was invented to carry captives.

TRADE

South Caucasus

GEORGIA: The revenue of the Georgian monarchs was obtained from crownlands, farms, the thermal spa waters of Tiflis, the taxes paid by shopkeepers, and taxes imposed on the feudal lords, the merchants and the peasantry. Tiflis was situated on important trade routes, and had officials who served as viceroys of the Persian shah. Trade was mostly conducted mainly by exchange.

ARMENIA: Armenian merchants established trade links with the East to import silk, cotton, spices and precious stones to Europe. Armenia and Russia also signed commercial treaties to hold a monopoly over commerce through the Caspian Sea. Russian merchants also gained free access to Armenian markets.

In Alaverdi and Kapan the copper-mining industry began to develop; brandy and wine, cotton and leather were transported from the Ararat valley.

AZERBAIJAN: With the establishment of khanates new cities were developed as the centers of craft and trade. The khanates built trade relations with India, Persia, Russia and the Ottoman Empire.

In the city Quba Chichi carpets were woven for foreign markets. Afshar carpets were produced in Urmia. Silk clothes were manufactured in Shamakhi and the city Shaki became a center of silk.

Azerbaijan was also rich in natural resources. Oil was exported to Russia, Tiflis, Istanbul, Persia and India. From Garabakh, Nakhichevan and Ganja traders transported silver, copper and other resources. In addition, salt was exported from Baku and Nakhichevan to many regions of South Caucasus.

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA: Control over the North Caucasus was strategically important for Russia to gain access to the trade route to oil-rich Chechnya.

Questions

- 1- What factors made the Caspian Sea important in regional trade?
- 2- Which Caucasus state had rich petroleum resources?

RELIGION

South Caucasus

GEORGIA:

Christianity: During the periods of invasion by Muslim powers (Persian and Ottoman), Georgians remained mostly Christian in the 18th century. However, some rulers converted to Islam.

Islam: King Vakhtang VI was summoned to receive his authorization from the Safavid Shah to rule in Kartli. However, the shah demanded his conversion to Islam. In 1703, Vakhtang VI became the ruler of the kingdom of Kartli and in 1716, he adopted Islam.

There were other Georgian kings and aristocrats like David XI of Kartli, Jesse of Kakheti and Simon II of Kartli who also converted to Islam and served as courtiers to the Iranian Safavid, Afsharid and Qajar dynasties.

Church Council: In 1705, the King Vakhtang VI established a church council and demanded them reorganize the Georgian Orthodox church and select a new catholicos patriarch.

ARMENIA:

Mekhitarists: In the 18th century, there was a religious and cultural awakening. The theologian and monk Mekhitar of Sebaste established a group called *the Mekhitarist Order* in Constantinople. The Mekhitarists were a monastic order of the Armenian Catholic Church. They contributed to the religious and cultural awakening with their publications of lost ancient Greek texts and with their research on the classical and modern Armenian languages.

AZERBAIJAN:

Sunni-Shia Sectarian Conflict: In the latter years of Safavid rule, Sunni resentment against their Shia rulers led to open rebellion that coincided with the Afghan attacks. In support of this rebellion, Sunni forces from northern Azerbaijan and Daghestan moved south as far as Shamakha and Ganja. In their wake Ottoman and Russian armies were able to occupy northern Azerbaijan, but were soon expelled when the Persians brought the region back under their domination. These developments highlighted the political significance of the deep Sunni- Shia divide in Azerbaijan, a division that was of greater social and political significance than that between Muslims of both groups and non-Muslims.

In the 18th century, there was a major attempt to reconcile the Sunni and Shia sects of Islam. When the military commander from Afshar tribe Nadir became ruler of the Afsharid Dynasty in 1736, he put an end to the influence of the Safavid Dynasty in the region. Nadir introduced a series of religious reforms to ease differences between Sunni and Shia sects. First he banned the cursing of the first Rashidi Caliphs practiced in Shia prayers. Nadir began to wear a hat called *Kolahi-Naderi* indicating that he respected all four Rashidi Caliphs. Reflecting the Sunni practice of naming juridical schools after their founders, Nadir began to refer to mainstream Twelver Shias as *Jafari*, and even attempted to gain recognition of the *Jafaris* as a fifth legal school on par with the four major Sunni schools. Although this effort was ultimately unsuccessful, the Ottomans did agree to permit Shia Muslims to join Sunnis in the annual Hajj (pilgrimage) to Mecca.

After the 18th century there were no further major outbreaks of violence between Sunni and Shia in Azerbaijan. In part, this was due to the growing weakness of both the Ottomans and the Persians which left the khanates in Azerbaijan relatively independent and with populations that overwhelmingly Sunni or Shia. The northern khanates of Derbent and Quba were Sunni, while the Shia predominated in the south. However, the religious makeup of the khanates was of little political consequence.

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA: When Islam finally became the predominant religion in Chechnya in the early 18th century it resulted in a mass exodus of Chechen Christians across the Terek River into territories inhabited by Cossacks. These refugees were assimilated into the Russian-speaking Cossack community over time.

The position of Islam in Chechnya was consolidated in the late 18th century with the resistance to the Russians expansion into the North Caucasus led by Sheikh Mansur. Acting not only as a military resistance leader, Sheikh Mansur also delivered passionate sermons calling on his followers to lead moral, religious lives and practice asceticism and condemning blood feuds, ignorance, hypocrisy, greed and immorality.

Question:

- 1- Why did Sunni-Shia Sectarian Conflict exist in Azerbaijan?
- 2- Why did some Georgian kings convert to Islam?

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SCIENCE

South Caucasus

GEORGIA: In the 18th century, new Georgian printing press was created to print books in Georgian.

Artillery Science: Vakhtang VI wrote a manual for artillery science in Georgian later used as a in the Georgian army.

Astrology: Vakhtang VI studied astrology, authored a Persian-Georgian dictionary of astronomy, and translated from Persian *Ziji* and *The Book of Creation*. He also wrote two books *Khelta* and *Kvinklos*.

Veterinary Science: Georgian prince and scholar *Bagrat Batonishvili* authored first veterinary study *Samkurnalo tskhenta da skhvata pirutkvta* in Georgian which laid the foundation for veterinary science in Georgia.

Schools of Kartvelology and Rustvelology: Georgian historian and philologist *Teimuraz Bagrationi* founded schools of Kartvelology and Rustvelology. His books included *History of Georgia* (1832), *History of Ancient Colchis* (1840), and *The Knight in the Panther's Skin* (1843).

ARMENIA:

Zakaria of Agulis: Zakaria authored a manuscript called *Patmut' iwn T'agayori Parsits`* (History of the Persian King) written in Armenian.

Abraham Yerevantsi: Yerevantsi was a historian known for his works the *History of the Persian king* and the *History of the Wars fought by the Ottomans over Armenian and Persian cities*.

AZERBAIJAN: In the 18th century, science was developing under difficult circumstances. There was an essay entitled *Khanadane Sefevi* on Safavid period written in the Azerbaijani language.

Molla Muhammed al-Cari authored *Chronicle of Car in 18th century* and talked about the struggle of the Carians against Nadir Shah.

There were poets who created new genres like *qoshma* and *bayati* and followed the Fuzuli's traditions.

Questions:

1- What does the fact that science in the Caucasus continued to develop despite difficult circumstances, say about the importance of scientific inquiry?

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ART

PAINTING

South Caucasus

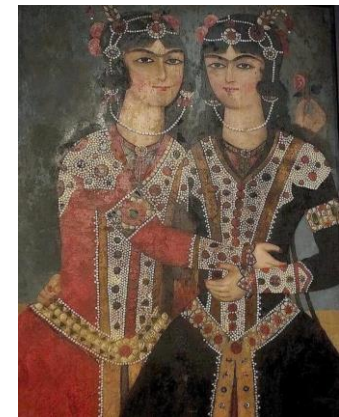
GEORGIA: At the beginning of the 18th century, Georgian artists followed the medieval style of painting with concrete details of landscape and interior. The iconostasis sometimes followed Russian style as in Katskhi, but sometimes Greek style as in at Mghvimevi. But after 1720, the artists followed more European models. They also developed a new style with a mixture of Oriental and Western patterns still carrying an Orthodox approach.

The first easel art and portraits began to appear in Georgia in the second half of the 18th century. The Georgian painters Ioseb Turkestanishvili, Grigol and Solomon Meskhishvilis, Nikoloz Apkhazi mastered the European style of painting in Russia. Unfortunately, the work of these painters was not studied at all.



ARMENIA: This was the period marked by the continuous development of Armenian illustrative art. The best examples were *the Portrait of Solomon I* and *Prince Bagrat, Son of Giorgi XII*.

AZERBAIJAN: In the 18th century, the artists went to Europe to get education. Under the European influence, Azerbaijani art developed a new style called Qajar style as in the work of Allahverdi Afshar's *The lovers*.



In the Palace of Shaki Khans, there were images of people and animals, and battle and hunting scenes painted on the walls by the artists Abbasgulu, Aligulu, Gurban Ali, Gambar Garabaghi, Shukur.

North CaucasusORTH CAUCASUS

CHECHNYA: After the adoption of Islam by the Chechens in the 17th century, images of people and animals were strictly forbidden, and fine art gained abstract, stylized forms.

SCULPTURE

South Caucasus



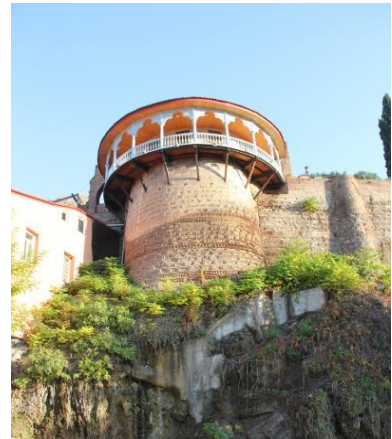
ARMENIA: In Khizan province in St. Khach monastery a stone carving was found dated back to 1750.

ARCHITECTURE

South Caucasus

GEORGIA: The 18th century Tbilisi royal palaces were built in the Persian style.

The Palace of Queen Darejan: The palace was built for the king Erekle II's wife, Queen Darejan. It also functioned as a castle to protect its inhabitants from invasions of foreign occupiers.



Kulbiti Church: Kulbiti church's façade was covered with reddish ashlar decorated with carved images.

The structure of the church reflected traditional Georgian architectural style with its arches on the dome, carved stonework and the ornaments on the cornices.

Church of Holy Virgin: The church of Holy Virgin built in the center of Tskhinvali. It had dome. The church walls were built with stone and brick.

Beloti Fortress: The fortress was built in the Patara Liakhvi River gorge belonged to the Eristavs of Ksani. It was built of stone and travertine. The fortress includes four towers. Three of them were circular in plan, whereas the fourth, used as a dwelling, was five-angled.

Batonis Tsikhe (Castle): The complex was built in the 17th – 18th century which included two royal basilica chapels, bathhouses, defensive wall and large circular corner towers. The palace has a rectangular building with a central hall with columns, arches and four balconies (ayvān) and some sections of the palace reflected Persian influence.

Amilakhvari Castle: The complex built in the 17th–18th century. It had three castles belonged to a noble family of Amilakhvari. The main castle included a rectangular fortress, a church, and two towers.



ARMENIA: In the 18th century, there was a large scale resettlement of the Armenians to Russia and Europe.

AZERBAIJAN:

Palace of Shaki Khans: During the feudal period, many palaces and citadels were built. One of them was *Palace of Shaki Khans* built in 1763 by Muhammed Hasan Khan. The two-story palace was built with raw bricks, river stones, plane trees and oaks. The palace consisted of 6 rooms, 4 corridors and 2 balconies.

Govher Agha Mosque: Mosque was built in Shusha, Nagorno-Karabakh. It was built of stone while the two minarets were made of bricks.

Bayat Castle: The castle consisted of defence walls, bath house, market place and a mosque. It was built with backed bricks.

Shahbulag (Tarnakut) Castle: Large castle complex had a rectangular architectural design consisted of one rectangular tower, mosques, houses, baths and a market place. The Castle's external walls supported with semicylinder towers. It is constructed with limestone and dimension stone.



Panahabad (Shusha) fortresses: The defensive walls of Shusha fortress were made of stone and lime. The castle is constructed in Arran style of architecture and had a circular guard towers.

Sardar Palace: The palace was built in Erivan in 1798 during Huseyn-Ali khan's son, Mahmud. Its architecture was similar with the the Shaki Khans Palace. It had a square wide building many rooms, halls and corridors.

North Caucasus



CHECHNYA: After the conversion to Islam in the 18th century, the Chechen pyramidal-stepped roof style of towers was ceased.

The buildings were made of clay-faced wattle, cane roofs and mud floor. 18th century monuments at Etkala and Khimoi reflected the Islamic style. But, the minarets were shaped like combat towers.

MUSIC:

South Caucasus

GEORGIA: Till the 18th century, Georgian artists were under the influence of Middle-Eastern style since Georgian aristocrats regularly spent time in Persia and the Georgian kings had professional musicians like the Armenian musician *Sayat Nova*.

Ashughs:

Sayat Nova: Nova was a poet and a musician of the King Erekle II at the Armenian court and he wrote poems and performing them in Georgian, Armenian, and Azeri languages in Persian melodies.

Besarion Zakarias dze Gabashvili (Besiki): The Georgian poet Besiki was also a musician at the court of King Erekle II. He sang his songs accompanied by *saz* and *tar* and used oriental poetry such as *mukhambazi* and *baiati*.

Starting from the 18th century, the Georgian music was under Russian and European influences and many foreign musicians travelled to perform in Tbilisi.

During the reign of king Archil II great contributions to the musical culture were made with his *Dghisa Da Ghamisa Gabaaseba* (Conversation between Day and Night) and *Sarke Tkmulta* (The Mirror of the Told).

Sulkhan-Saba Orbeliani: Georgian scholar Orbeliani wrote his dictionary *Sitqvis Kona* (The Dictionary of Georgian Modes and Idioms) which he also included musical terminology and many important sources on Georgian music.

Vakhushti Batonishvili: Batonishvili also authored *Geography of Georgia* (Sakartvelos Georgapia) including some information about the Georgian musical culture.

ARMENIA:

Gusans: Folk music singers were called gusans. One of them was *Sayat-Nova* (Harutyun Sayatyan) who was a poet, singer and a composer.

Sharkans: *Sharkans* were hymns or prose written in *khaz* (a system of notation) and sang with a rhythm and pitch. Many women like Khosrovidukht of Goghthn and Sahakdukt of Siunik contributed to the development of *sharkans*.

Ashughs: The ashughs were the heirs of the gusans. The most notable ashugh was Sayat Nova (Harutyun Sayatian) was the first folk-song writer and performer.

In the 18th century, the ashughs were fully connected with the Armenian national school of ashughs.

AZERBAIJAN

Mugham: Mugham was performed by *khananda* (a singer) and *dastgah* (a trio). During this century, *tasnifs* (songs) were also included to mughams.

Ashiqs: Ashiq art was usually performed in coffee houses in all the major cities of east and west Azerbaijan in Iran. The most prominent ashiqs were Khasta Gasim and Abdalgulabli Valeh.

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA:

Illii: Heroic ballads *Illii* were also performed by male singers in the 18th century, depicting the struggle for freedom, their battles for protecting their land and community.

DANCE:

South Caucasus:

GEORGIA:

Khorumi: Khorumi was a war dance from Adjara in Georgia. It was based on the numerous invasions of the country dating from the 18th century. It was performed by only a few men. The dance incorporates the themes of war, the courage of Georgian soldiers and the celebration of victory. Khorumi was accompanied by instruments such as the *doli* (drum) and the *chiboni* (bagpipe).

ARMENIA: In Armenia dance closely resembled the old traditional dances in the 18th century. Foreign invasions forced large segments of the society to move to other countries, and they brought their dances with them.

AZERBAIJAN: The old ritual dances constituted the basis of various national dances like labor ("shepherds"), ceremonial (ritual, wedding), common, military, sport, round, game and others.

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA: In the 18th century Chechens had dances with people making a large circle sitting and singing and challenging young dancers by making jumps and throwing each other down. Then they hold their hands and made a circle. Their songs were accompanied by oboe, bagpipes and flute.

THEATRE:

South Caucasus:

GEORGIA: In Georgia, among the performing arts, theatre became particularly important as part of feasts and festivals that were held at the royal court.

The first professional Georgian theater was established by Giorgi Avalishvili and Gabriel Maiori at Erekle II's court in 1790. They translated the plays of some Russian and European authors into Georgian, but also created original dramas.

ARMENIA:

Mekhitarists: In Armenia, the Mekhitarists played a major role in the development of the Western Armenian Theatre. They wrote original plays and translated European plays into Classical Armenian. For example, the Mekhitarists published Homer's *The Iliad*.

Minstrel School: Minstrel school was established by Naghash Hovnatan. The famous mistrels were Savat Nova and Naghash Hovnatan.

Questions:

1- In what ways were the arts of the Caucasus influenced, both positively and negatively, by outside cultures?

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LITERATURE

South Caucasus

GEORGIA: By the 18th century, the Georgian literature revived with the publication of Shota Rustaveli's epic poem *The Knight in the Panther's Skin*. In this lyrical poem, the author depicted the adventures of three heroes who defended their country and queen.

At the beginning of the 18th century, the King Vakhtang VI made an important contribution to Georgia's literary life by establishing the first printing house. As a poet himself, he translated many poems from Persian and wrote his poetic text *Martirika*.

The King Vakhtang VI also established commissions to translate foreign treatises and founded *Rustvelology* (the study of Rustaveli's epic).

Sulkhan Saba Orbeliani: Orbeliani was the author of the first encyclopedic dictionary of the Georgian language, *Sitkvis kona* and he also wrote many didactic fables like *Sibrdzne Sitsruisa* and *Stsavlani*.

Mamuka Baratashvili: Baratashvili was well-known with his 63-verse poem called *Qeba mefisa bakarisa* and with his first poetic work *Chashniki anu leksis stsavlis tsigni* written in Georgian. He also began to use new poetic meters.

David Guramishvili: Guramishvili composed an autobiographical poetry, *Davitiani* and wrote poetry on the misfortunes of Georgia and his own life.

Timothy Gabashvili: Gabashvili was a travel writer who wrote his *Mimosvla* in 1759 in which he depicted his experiences throughout Caucasia and the Middle East.

Besarion Zakarias dze Gabashvili (Besiki): The Georgian poet Besiki wrote heroic odes like *On the Battle of Aspidza* and *The Battle of Rukhi* and love poems *I Entered a Garden of Melancholy*, *I Understood Your Accusations* and *The Blackbirds*. Besiki also used eastern poetic forms such as the *mukhambazi* and *baiati*.

ARMENIA: In the 18th century, the literary genre *lyricism* in Armenian literature was developed in three lines: religious patriotic poems which were aimed at educating people in Christian values and spirit, secular cantos which were written on satirical and social motives, and folk-gusan songs which consisted of folk, national-gusan and ashugh.

Troubadours (Ashugh)

Sayat Nova: One of the prominent Armenian ashughs of this century was Sayat-Nova. He performed his songs in Georgian, Turkish, and Armenian.

Naghash Hovnatan: Hovnatan was also a poet and an ashugh like Nova. He founded the new Armenian minstrel school, following medieval Armenian lyric poetry.

AZERBAIJAN:

Molla Veli Vidadi: In his works, such as *Vafiq*, *Chokdandir*, *Aghlarsan* and *Musibatname*, Vidadi depicted historical events and feudal oppression, hopelessness and loneliness during the oppressive khanate period. Vidadi also wrote lyric poems. He was the master of *goshma* (Ashugh folk poetry).

Molla Penah Vaqif: The vizier of Karabakh khanate, Vaqif wrote poems. The main subject of Vaqif's creativity was describing of love. After he was murdered on the order of Karabakh khan and his works were destroyed, later a number of his poems were collected and published in 1856 by Mirza Yusuf Nersesof.

North Caucasus

CHECHNYA:

Illii: *Illii* continued to be one of the most important genres in Chechen literature depicting the heroic acts of young men to protect their community and their land. The *Illii* ends with the victory of the main character.

Chechen literature was also enriched during the Persian, Arab and the Ottoman conquests after the adoption of Arabic script and through the translations of Oriental poetry and love lyrics from Arabic into the Chechen language.

Questions:

1- How did the literature of outside cultures influence the local literatures of the Caucasus?

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