In the beginning of the XIX century, the Russian Empire started a long and complex process of integrating the already conquered Caucasian territories, with the ultimate goal to turn the region into a stable and secure border with the Ottoman Empire and Persia. The key location of this region, considered to be a bridge between Europe and Asia as well as an outpost for the spread of political and economic influence in neighbouring territories, is among the main reasons why the Russian domestic policy in the Caucasus experienced foreign intervention. This had an impact mostly in the North Caucasus, where the attempts to integrate the so called “highlanders” led to the outbreak of a war of
almost fifty years. Therefore, the strenuous integration of the region and its turning into an inseparable part of the Russian imperial territories finished only after the end of the Caucasian War in 1864. Part of this process involved the transformation of the North Caucasus from a military and troubled territory into a peaceful administrative district with cities and normal social and economic life. In the beginning, the city-building processes in the North Caucasus were related to the transformation of the fortresses forming the so-called Caucasian Line into cities. This is how the city of Grozny due to its fast development after the end of the Caucasian War became the economic and commercial centre of Chechnya.

The emergence of the city is associated with the name of General A. P. Yermolov. After taking part in the Napoleonic Wars in April 1816, he was assigned by Alexander I to be commander-in-chief of the Georgian (Caucasian) Corps and to administrate the civil corps of the Caucasus and the guberniya of Astrakhan; he was also appointed Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Persia. He remained at that post until 1827 and in his decade-long governance he managed to set the ground for the establishment of the Russian administration in the Caucasus region. He also developed a new military strategy that takes into consideration the particularities of the territory. His military activity was the main reason for the development of the fortress of Groznaya, later the city of Grozny, whose location was connected with the General’s vision of subduing the North-Caucasian region.

For General Yermolov, the Caucasus was a stronghold that should be besought with perseverance. His concept consisted in that the rebellious regions had to be divided into smaller sub-regions which to be surrounded by a system of fortifications in order to push the highlanders up towards the high parts of the mountain, ultimately beleaguering them with no room for escape, while taking the auls – their refuges – one by one. In order to stop the raids of the highlanders against the Russian settlements, Gen. Yermolov decided to force them up in the mountain by relocating the Caucasian Line beyond the Terek River so as to take
control over the river of Sunzha and gradually build a number of forts along its banks over a period of three years. After having received the “supreme” permission of Alexander I, the general started putting his plans into effect, and in a few years several fortresses were built, one of which was Groznaya. The latter formed part of the long fortified line (the Caucasian Line) that was stretched from Nazran (a city in the present Western Ingushetia) to the shores of the Caspian Sea. Meanwhile, cuttings were made from the North to the South which provided access to places that had been impassable, and where Chechen and Dagestani units were located. Thus, the military blockade was combined with an economic one because the pushing and limiting of the rebellious tribes into the mountain meant they were deprived of the plane terrains crucial for their subsistence. Gen. Yermolov considered hunger to be an effective means of submission caused by the impossibility to farm the land and graze the cattle.

“I begin fulfilling my long-time intention to take Sunzha and stop the atrocities of the Chechens who have already gone too far… I put the foundations of the fortress called Groznaya. In it, there will be a garrison of up to a thousand men, and it will terrify the Chechens.” This is what Gen. Yermolov shared in a letter to a friend of his, the Count M. S. Vorontsov from July 9, 1818, while he was camping on the Sunzha River. On June 10, 1818 O.S. was laid the first rock of the fortress, and that is why this date is considered to be the birthday of the city. The construction of the fortress was finished in mid-October in heavy-weather conditions and under the constant threat of Chechen attacks. It became the residence of the Commander of the Left Flank of the Caucasian Line who also practically administered Chechnya. It was also then when the real

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1 Дегоев, В.В. Большая игра на Кавказе. М., 2003, с.163.
2 Кавказские письма А. П. Ермолова М. С. Воронцову. СПб., 2011, с. 53.
* Today, there is the “A. P. Chekhov” Park located in the centre of the city of Grozny, on the left bank of the Sunzha River.
establishment of political and administrative control over the Chechens occurred, and that was done in several different ways: through the establishment of the institution of the superintendent, through the forceful moving of the Chechens to the plains, through recruiting them in the Russian service⁴.

There is no specific description of how the Groznaya fortress looked like at first. However, based on accounts on other two fortresses and an early drawing*, this is the description offered by A. I. Kazakov: “There were no stone walls and no drawbridges over the ditches, as you may imagine from the name of the fort. The citadel was a regular hexagon; in each of the corners there was a bastion with embrasures for two canons, 12 canons in total. Ramparts and earthwork, strengthened fences. Inside the citadel, there were store rooms for guns and munitions, barracks and sentinel quarters for the garrison. The fort itself and the neighboring areas were surrounded by ditches. The buildings were wooden or pasteboard, rarely adobe. The roofs were all made of reed. The borderline of the fort and the suburbia passed along the present-day Kabardinska Street.”⁵ A drawbridge was laid over the ditch at the main entrance; from there, a road began which joined itself with the main road leading to the central areas of Russia. In 1850, a triumphal arch was erected called “The Alexander Gate” in commemoration of the visit paid to Groznaya by the crown prince Alexander Nikolaevich, the future emperor Alexander II⁶.

Groznaya, as well as the other forts, became a home rather than only a work place for the Russian soldiers. They gradually began shaping themselves

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⁴ Блиева З.М. Система управления на Северном Кавказе. Владикавказ, 1992, с.70.

* The drawing of the fortress is from the 40’s of the XIX century and belongs to the artist A.P. Dyakonov. It was found in 1956 by two caucasiologists - I.Z. Ponomarev and B.S. Vinogradov in the funds of the Russian State Museum in St. Petersburg. Attached image is available in the book: Шабаньяц, Н.Ш. Город Грозный. Грозный, 1972, с.8.

⁵ Казаков, А.И. Страницы истории города Грозного. Краеведческие этюды. Грозный, 1989, с.3.

as a specific corps with a mentality of their own and they perceived their service in a way different than that of the other soldiers in the Russian army. For them, the past experience did not matter, because in Groznaya they were engaged in something new and unfamiliar. All the soldiers became part of a “team” destined to fight in the name of highly moral goals. It is no coincidence that the greater part of the Russian generals who governed the region perceived their work as an act of civilization. They had to be the light for the ignorant highlanders. The latter had to realize that their commanders sent them to certain death against the Russian army in the name of personal interests.

The military were the most numerous group living in Groznaya, as they were part of the fortress’ garrison and they resided in the barracks located in its territory. As a whole, the moving of the military – mostly Cossacks – to the Caucasian Line was a premeditated policy of the Russian government aimed both at strengthening the defense of the Russian territories from the attacks of the highlanders, and at the protection of the Russian civilians and their settlements. That policy played a positive role in the centralization and stabilization of the district government because it led to the merging of the administrative and the military powers – all the administrative positions were occupied by military personnel. Speaking of the population of the city, the main focus was put on the moving of the families of the military. This is what gradually happened with Groznaya as well, when in 1822 its “suburb” emerged as a place where the families of the Russian soldiers lived and later craftsmen and merchants settled. In that area the first streets were laid, which still exist (namely the streets “Pervomayskaya”, “Pushkinskaya”, and “Byikovskaya”)\. In the 1830s, a Jewish establishment also appeared, but soon the land for house construction was exhausted. The river impeded the growth of the city in Eastern direction because there was no bridge over it. Thus, the constructions moved to

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7 Шабаньиц, Н.ИИ. Город Грозный. Грозный, 1972, с. 10.
the South-West, where the administrative, commercial and cultural centre of the future city was established.

In 1839, the construction of a new military settlement on the Southwestern side of the fortress was ordered and the military living there were instructed to defend the peaceful citizens from the suburb. The settlement was all made up of married soldiers from the Kurinsky Egersky Regiment. Later, in 1848 – 1851, all the inhabitants of the settlement became part of the Cossack stratum, and the place was called stanitsa* Groznenska. The street that separated the stanitsa from the suburb became known as Limit Street. Today, this street is the famous Grozny prospect “V. V. Putin”.

A small number of Chechens also lived in the fortress suburb. They were mainly translators in the headquarters on the left flank of the Caucasus Line. Later (from 1852 onwards) they also worked as clerks. On the opposite side of the fortress, four Chechen auls were located on the right bank of the Sunzha River: Yangi-Yurt, Kuli-Yurt, Sarachan-Yurt and Groznenski Yurt, in all of which lived more than a thousand people*. The inhabitants of these auls were stock-farmers; they also rolled logs along Sunzha and Terek Rivers to Kizlyar to sell them on the market there. Groznaya, together with the settlement and the adjacent auls, was truly impressive: “The Groznaya fortress and all four auls shielded by its walls... looked like a significant city from distance, rather a Muslim than a Christian one, due to the minarets and the pyramid shaped Populi that added to its picturesque outlook”*, according to a witness.

Originally, in the fort there were only official facilities, such as the barracks for training, for the disabled, some musical detachments, a kitchen, as well as a wooden regiment church among others. There were no streets. In the first few months, a bridge was constructed over Sunzha – it was unstable and it

* Stanitsa (Russian: станица) – a Cossack village.

8 Казаков, А.И. Страницы истории..., с.5.

9 Казаков, А.И. Город..., с.8.
was impossible for two carts to cross it at the same time. On the left bank of Sunzha, there was a regiment shower and some workshops, mostly blacksmith shops. That is why a street was formed in that area and it was called “Kuznechnaya” (today known as “Gvardeiskaya”). After 1844, when the headquarters of the Kurinsky Regiment was moved, many of the facilities were demolished and many little shops appeared on their place, forming a market where everything could be bought.

In Groznaya, a very specific judicial institution for the Caucasus region was created in 1828, namely the Chechen Popular Court. What is so characteristic about it is that unlike other courts, its members were elected and not appointed by the Russian administration, which was a principle in the colonization of the peoples in the North Caucasus. The jury was elective as well. For the court to be constituted, however, there were some limitations connected to the social status of its members, that is, they had to be “worthy of origin and abilities“\textsuperscript{10}. What is more, this electoral freedom of the Chechens was compensated by the presence of Russians officers that occupied the chairman and secretary positions in the court and were appointed by the commanding officer of the left flank of the Line. The court resolved civil cases on the basis of the Chechen \textit{adat} (common law system) that in some cases was adjusted to the Russian law. The criminal cases were resolved only on the basis of the latter and by a Russian military court. The Chechen Popular Court had administrative functions as well, connected to the data gathering regarding tax payment and the services paid in favor of the landlords and the clergy. In the court, permits were also issued to the inhabitants of Chechnya who were to travel in the Caucasian region. These were the methods the Caucasian administration used to enhance its control over the region while gradually adapting the highlanders’ common law to the Russian legislation.

\textsuperscript{10} Малахова Г.Н. Становление и развитие российского государственного управления на Северном Кавказе в конце XVIII-XIX в. Ростов-на-Дону. 2001, с.145.
In the 1820s-1840s, Caucasus, Groznaya included, became a place of exile for many people who had dared to defy the power of the Tsar. Alexander I himself called Caucasus “the warm Siberia”. The fate of the exiles was dreadful, because in that region a lot of infectious diseases were raging at the time, such as malaria due to which all the soldiers and officers in Groznaya were given quinine. Until the beginning of the 1840s, the fortress lacked a permanent hospital and the sick were installed in temporary ones. Another constantly present danger was the attacks of the rebellious Chechens and the ensuing form this an actual mortal threat to the settlements in and around the fortress. That is why the authorities hoped that by sending exiles to Caucasus, mostly to Groznaya, they were not going to survive. The first ones who sensed “the warmth” of the Caucasus Mountains were Decembrists, exiled to the “warm Siberia” for different offenses committed even before the Decembrist Revolt in 1825. Each one of them could be sent to a mission with a detachment in any sector of the Caucasian Line, to die fighting the highlanders or to get mortally ill.

In the beginning of the 1830s, the lead of the North-Caucasians (the highlanders) was taken by Imam Shamil who, on the basis of the Mouridism, an Islamic sect, organized the mountain peoples in their struggle against “the Russian enemy”. He managed to create a one-of-a-kind state called the “Imamat” in which the obedience to Shamil was a law. It included the territories of Chechnya, Dagestan and Cherkessia. The Russian authorities needed more than thirty years to defeat and capture Shamil. During that period all the efforts were focused on this task and the war became a priority for both the local Caucasus authorities and the central Tsarist authority. Due to this, all the activities related to the development of the region lagged behind.

Nonetheless, the economic development of the fortress of Groznaya continued, and it turned not only into a military and administrative center, but

11 Казаков, А.И. Город…, с. 11.
also into a bustling economic and commercial point that connected the highlanders with the locals and the merchants who came even from Central Russia. This was also due to the relative peace in Groznaya as it is confirmed by the words of the Russian writer A. L. Zisserman who at that time was serving in the headquarters of the left flank of the Caucasian Line situated in Groznaya: “For twenty-two years [from 1818 to 1840] if we do not count several insignificant predatory actions and a few attempts for uprisings, the Chechens were quite easily calmed and they lived peacefully without showing any extraordinary hostility. If we had taken advantage of this continuous period to strengthen our power, if we had built better roads for communication, or had secured forts to cross Sunzha and Terek… if we had encouraged the development of some kind of industry, or built at least one school, attracting the sons of the most powerful local inhabitants in it to learn the Russian language… and if we, ourselves had tried to get to know the country and its people, maybe in the moment described here Groznaya would have had a different face, a more peaceful civil face…”¹².

The 1840s were the period when the Russian fortresses became an attractive place for the highlanders tired of the constant battles and the insecurity in the life of their families. According to the Viceroy of the Caucasus at that time, Prince M. S. Vorontsov, one of the main ways to strengthen the Russian influence among the mountain peoples was precisely commerce. He thought that the materialistic interests could neutralize the hostility of these people and to secure sustainable pro-Russian moods. That is why markets began to emerge in Groznaya, as well as in other fortresses. There was an opportunity for exchange of goods on these markets. The Caucasians could get hold of goods that would improve their everyday life and consequently incorporate them in a culture that frightened them at the beginning. The Russians were ordered to help their visitors in every way needed, and to protect them from scams and frauds. They

had the task to demonstrate that the Russians were not there to persecute the natives, but to help them\textsuperscript{13}. Of course, bribes were used often times to secure the loyalty of a given aul leader: he became part of the fortress administration and the population became loyal to the Russians once offered security and protection from the fierce imam.

This policy was successful and even the highlanders themselves, in the beginning of 1850, turned to the Commander of the Left Flank of the Caucasian Line to found a three-days market on the outskirts of Groznaya that would take place once a month and would allow the “unruly” inhabitants of Chechnya who were under the rule of Shamil Imam to sell their produce in exchange for manufacture goods brought to the fortress by Russian merchants from Central Russia. They were given the permission and so the first fair, located on the left bank of the Sunzha River, appeared. It quickly became popular among the highlanders. Thanks to the fair, Groznaya became one of the main commercial centers of the left flank. According to Major General Pullo, up to forty thousand highlanders per year came to the borderline to sell their produce\textsuperscript{14}. The first fair took place in May for three days and it ended without incidents. The highlanders brought animal products, furs, cloths, carpets, and bought manufactured goods from the Russians, fabrics, Kalmykian tea, etc. Both sides were satisfied and expressed their agreement for such fairs to be held every year.

At that time, the crafts were gaining strength in Groznaya. Smiths and tanners worked there. The foundations of industry were also laid with the first adobe factory and the hand yield of oil around the city. In descriptions dating from that time, Groznaya was more and more often called a city: “From a fortress not so big… in my time it became quite a big… city… with big stores, warehouses, infirmaries and a good number of merchant saloons\textsuperscript{15}. And more:

\textsuperscript{13} Дегоев, В.В. Op.cit., p. 181.

\textsuperscript{14} Казаков, А.И. Страницы истории…, c.16.

\textsuperscript{15} Зиссерман, А.Л. Op.cit., p. 269.
“Whoever visits the Caucasus – with his arrival in Stavropol, Pyatigorsk, Kislovodsk, Vladikavkaz, Groznaya, etc. – sees cities, lively trade and Russian life”\[^{16}\].

The peacebuilding policy was continued by the next Viceroy of the Caucasus, General A. I. Baryatinsky. Together with the attraction of the highlanders to the peace activities and to the trade in combination with strong propaganda it gave the desired results and led to the fall of Imam Shamil. Many Chechens fled from the imam, tired of the long years of war and deprivation, and turned to Russia because they believed it could secure a better and safer life for them. This in itself was the goal of the propaganda tactics of the Viceroy – to strengthen that faith not only in words, but also through social policy that constituted in material help and protection. Even naibs\(^*\) who were loyal to Shamil and local aristocracy figures fled because they saw that the alliance with the Russian military administration guaranteed them a higher social rank and the inviolability of their property. Thus, especially around Groznaya, new and new settlements created by Chechens emerged because they wanted to return to their peaceful way of life. Gradually, from a strategic military point the fortress turned into a commercial, economic and administrative center of Chechnya.

In 1857, the tension began to ease due to which the headquarters in Groznaya became unnecessary. A post office was set in the building and a stagecoach began travelling regularly to Vladikavkaz thus making the connection to Central Russia possible. In 1859, Gen. Baryatinsky ordered in Groznaya to be annually held two fairs from 1860 onwards – a spring and an autumn one. That was also the year in which the Emperor Alexander II decreed the foundation of the Terska District divided into 4 counties: Chechen,

\[^{16}\] Записки полк. Де-Саже о военных действиях в Азиатской Турции в 1854 и 1955 годах. – Акты, собранные Кавказской археографической комиссией (АКАК). Тифлис, 1888, т. 11, с. 450.

\(^*\) Naib – An Arabic word historically used to refer to any local leader in some parts of Ottoman Empire and Eastern Caucasus (e.g. during Caucasian Imamate). A “governor” of an administrative unit in the Shamil’s Imamat.
Ichkarian, Ingushetian, and Nagornian. Groznaya became the center of the Chechen district. Special judicial-administrative governance was introduced that was called “military-popular governance”. At first it was applied for the local population of Chechnya and later in the whole Northeast Caucasus\textsuperscript{17}.

In general, this is how Groznaya looked like in 1860: population – 1100 people. The main occupation was agriculture, horticulture, viticulture, orcharding, wild-grown linen gathering, stock-breeding. The industry was linked to the manually extracted oil – fifteen thousand poods\textsuperscript{**} per year, and the production of building materials in several small adobe factories. The craftsmanship, as was mentioned earlier, constituted mainly in smithy, home manufacture, leather manipulation, as well as traditional production of Caucasian arms ornaments and gold and silver decorations. The trade was developed and it took place in a mall constituting of many shops and stores and separated in a whole borough. The communications were reduced to a single post department in only one post office. The cultural institutions were one regimental club, a city park with a dance square and live music by the regiment brass orchestra. There was no theater, nor library or school. The urban development of the fortress was also low – there were no bridges, in fact, there were some wooden sidewalks, but there was no street lightning\textsuperscript{18}. All in all, the level of development of the trade and industry in Northern Caucasus before that period was defined by the internal necessities of the district economy and its population. After the end of the Caucasian War, however, this situation changed and the region began developing rapidly, part of which was the turning of the fortress into a capitalist city.

The full inclusion of the North Caucasus region in Russia’s borders concurred with the abolishment of the serfdom law in the country. The end of

\textsuperscript{17} Дегоев, В.В. Op. cit., p.192.

\textsuperscript{**} 1 pood (Russian: пуд) = 16.3804815 kg.

\textsuperscript{18} Казаков, А.И. Город..., с. 19.
the Caucasian war (Shamil was captured in 1859 and in 1864 the last risen highlanders surrendered) and the abrogation of the serfdom were decisive for the development of the social-economic and cultural life in Northern Caucasus.

The fortresses lost their main function after the end of the Caucasian War. On December 30, 1869, Emperor Alexander II signed a decree with which administrative reforms were conducted in the Terska District dividing it into 7 counties. The fortress Groznaya became the center of the Groznenski district which is why it had to be promulgated a city. However, this process was set back by a year during which the law of the new city was elaborated. It was on December 1, 1870 when the Viceroy of the Caucasus, the Great Prince Mikhail issued a circular by the force of which from the January 1, 1871 the new administrative division of the Terska district came into action, and the fortress of Groznaya turned into the city of Grozny. Apart from the acquisition of an urban statute, another reason for the fast growth of the city population was the fact that Grozny was given a five-year privileged term during which to all the enrolled citizen were given the land below their houses amounting to 400 square sazhens* for free. That is why from May 1871 the city popular council chose a city committee that undertook the responsibility for reviewing the multitude of applications for citizenship.

It should be noted that speaking in ethnic terms Grozny was mainly a Russian city. With a population of 2 615 people in 187219, in 1875 16 Chechens lived in the city; in 1877 their number had grown to 90, the bigger part of whom were serving in the mountain militia that was drawn from the city at a later stage20. Apart from the Tsarist officers and clerks with Chechen backgrounds, wealthy Chechens who were occupied in commerce and industry also lived in

* Sazhen (Russian: сажень) – an old Russian measure for distance. 1 sazhen = 2,134 meters.


the city. The fast growth of the city related to its economic prosperity happened at the expense of the Chechen population: according to the official Tsarist statistics in 1897 of 15,564 people living in Grozny only 502 were Chechens. What is more, a quarter of them were not citizens, but were inmates serving their sentences in the Grozny county jail. That is due to the fact that between 1893 and 1901 the law “About the prohibition of highlanders who are not civil servants, nor are they officers to live in the city” was enforced which banned the local population from being copyholders outside of their territory, travelling by the field roads property of the Cossack stanitsi, from populating and holding immovables in the district cities and villages. On the basis of that law, in 1894 from the city were exiled around one-fifth of all the Chechens, and until 1901 even the immigration of Chechen merchants was prohibited. A substantial growth of the Slavonic population of the city could be observed at the same time. A large number of the settlers arrived from the central parts of Russia to build the new railroad and the refinery plants. Another significant part of the population was the military who were on leave for undefined time or had already retired. From 1862 to 1897 the population of Grozny increased six times. In comparison, the population of another central district city, Vladikavkaz, grew two times in the same period.

It is interesting to note that when Grozny obtained the city statute, the question of the mergence with the Groznenska stanitsa was also raised. But the wealthy Cossacks who did not want to lose their privileges derived from their position in the Terska Cossack Army opposed to that proposal and thus the Groznenska stanitsa was not included in the district, whose center was Grozny. That administrative paradox would later lead to unexpected developments in the city history.

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21 Ibid, p.31.

22 Ибрагимова, З.Х. Мир чеченцев. ХІХ в. М., 2007, с. 838.
The first urban plan of Grozny dates back from 1871. In it, apart from the existing houses and a small number of future street constructions were also sketched. In the mid-1870s in Grozny, there were 11,810 buildings, 468 of which were either stone or adobe, the others were wooden or pasteboard. These houses were very characteristic of the whole Groznenski region, where in 1871 the wooden houses accounted for 54%, the adobe were 42.2%, the pasteboard were 3.3%, and the stone were 0.5%23. In Grozny, the stone and adobe houses were property of merchants, including of the incipient Chechen bourgeois24. As in other industrial centers of Russia, in Grozny there were a lot of wooden buildings for the workers and their families. Some of the more unstable ones were destroyed by the inundations of the Sunzha River which passed through the city. That is the reason why all the people living on the west bank were cut from the only market which was located on the right side of the river. The “Dvoryanskaya” Street (today “Lenin” Street) along which was the market was also the main place for trade and social contacts.

In the years between 1874 and 1876 in Grozny there was a twofold rise in the number of merchants, the number of craftsmen increased four times, the workers in the factories – two times, but the number of peasants decreased two times, in turn25. The number of merchants in Grozny was rising rapidly which was corroborated by the fact that only in 1896 there were 323 commercial offices in the city that accounted for a turnover of around 2.5 million rubles. The increased money turnover led to the development of the banking system in the 1860s and 1870s. On September 30, 1872 a public bank was opened in the city and part of its year revenue was put aside into the city budget. The public bank of Grozny was able to execute the following operations: deposit opening, exchange bills discounting, leasing against securities, goods, jewelry, stocks and

23 Шабаньянц, Н.Ш. Оп. cit., p. 10.


25 Ибрагимова, З.Х. Мир..., с. 839.
bonds and immovables in the city of Grozny. The bank could operate by itself and also with state securities, stocks and bonds, guaranteed by the government and the city authorities. In 1895, a branch of the Azovo-Donskaya commercial bank – one of the oldest local crediting institutions – was opened. A mutual help crediting establishment also began its activity in the city lead by Russian and Chechen entrepreneurs. Its members were one of the biggest industrials, merchants, landlords and other proprietors in Grozny. As a whole, the opening of banking and crediting institutions in Chechnya resulted in the integration of region in the Russian banking and economic system.

One of the main problems of the fortress of Groznaya, and consequently of the city, was the lack of roads that connected it to the central part of Russia. That was also the fundamental deficiency in the communications throughout the whole country, whose importance, especially after the defeat of the Empire in the Crimean War, increased and became part of the so called “concentration” policy. The railway construction was the most important and it was related to the attraction of private capital. That is why, in January 1857, the Chief Company of the Russian Railways was founded as a private organization, though it was supported by the government with the guaranteeing of a certain amount of profit on the basis of the invested capital. From 1857 onwards began intense railway construction that continued until the war with the Ottoman Empire in 1877-1878. After a certain period of inactivity, the process was renewed in the 1890s. The development of the railway system played a vital role in the economic development of the country.

In the four years between 1867 and 1871 8400 versts* were built – two times as much as those that had been already built in the entire country. During that period, the construction of the Caucasus railway was also being discussed. As a result, in 1872 the Rostov-Vladikavkaz Railway Company was founded,

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*Verst (Russian: верста) – a Russian distance measure. 1 verst = 1.0668 km.*
and in July 1875 the passenger and cargo transportation began. The construction and usage of the railway led to a new stage in the economic integration of the North Caucasus. That is what the Tsarist administration had envisioned, when they explained that “the shortening of distance that separated the Caucasus from the Empire” would lead to strengthened Russian positions in the region.

Long time after the construction of the Rostov-Vladikavkaz railway had finished, the question about a rail passing through Grozny was not posed. It was only mentioned in some plans concerning the connection of Rostov with the Caspian Sea and Baku, which at that time was a main industrial center for oil extraction and refinement for Russia. The construction of the railway in Grozny was postponed with about 20 years.

The development of branches along the Rostov-Vladikavkaz railway line was a primary concern in the projects of the Russian government after the Russo-Turkish War from 1877-1878. The arguments for that were not only economic in nature, but were also military and political. On the one hand, the railway branches were meant to contribute to the internal and external export of cereals from the crop-growing regions in the North Caucasus, which were bypassed by the railway. The military arguments were immediately connected with the lessons learnt in the previous war. The difficulties with the mobilization and the final composition of the troops were emphasized. The presence and maintenance of a large army securing the peace in Dagestan and Chechnya also made it vital to connect the Rostov-Vladikavkaz railway with Transcaucasia. The connection of the Caspian Sea and the Iranian border, on the other hand, was politically important so as to neutralize the growing British influence in Iran and Middle Asia.

The construction of the railway in Grozny was linked mostly to the development of the new oil-industry center in the region. Some authors claim

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that this was due to the spa boost thanks to the mineral springs in the area\textsuperscript{28}. Additional factor was the fact that when the weather was bad, Grozny and its surrounding areas regularly ended up detached from the outside world that resulted in giant price growths.

In mid-1880s, the oil in Grozny started attracting more and more oil producers. In the beginning of the 1890s, the reliability of that oil region was proven and that led to the disappearance of every doubt that the railway should pass through the city. But not quite… It is actually quite interesting how the line, which had been planned to pass through the city, was built in its environs and more specifically through the Groznenska stanitsa.

In 1892, the rail engineers turned to the Grozny city council with a request some of the city land to be rendered for the development of a train station and a depot adjacent to it. The mayor and his advisors decided to get rich at the city’s expense. The city rulers were aware of the “big” money flowing in other places from the same activity and, being confident that the line could not bypass the city lands, they decided to answer the constructors that some land could be spared for a station and a depot, but only in return for 60 rubles per sq. sazhen. The engineers were enraged and decided to turn their proposal directly to the inhabitants of the Groznenska stanitsa to construct the station and depot precisely at that place if they were given the necessary land. The Cossacks turned out to be more sagacious and, after having weighed the costs and benefits, they agreed to render as much land as it was needed\textsuperscript{29}. Thus, on May 1, 1893, the first train arrived at the station in the stanitsa and only several years later new refineries started growing along the railway and led to significant profits for the Cossack elite.

The emergence of the industrial area around Grozny happened in the 1890s. Before that, its development was very difficult due to the lack of railways

\textsuperscript{28} Казаков, А.И. Страницы истории…., с. 24.

\textsuperscript{29} Ibid, pp. 25–26.
and local capital in it, its isolation from the big markets and the existing redemption payment system.

The first data of oil extraction can be traced back to 1823. Until the construction of the railway in 1893 for seventy years of existence of the Grozny oil extraction industry, some 3.2 million poods of oil were obtained, which was a result of the more primitive extraction techniques. From 1893 began the well-extraction and, consequently, the broad usage of oil. On June 28, 1893, the company of I. A. Akhverdov set the first drilling machine in the so called Ermolovski section of Alkhan-Yurt (15 km away from Grozny) that on October 6 erupted with a capacity of 0.5 vedros* per day. Akhverdov’s success attracted the attention to the oil fields of Grozny of other entrepreneurs as well. In the beginning of the XX century, the oil industry was concentrated in the North-West of Grozny where major oil-processing enterprises appeared and whose proprietors were famous foreign and Russian companies. As a result, in 1900 the oil production of Grozny accounted for 4.9% of the whole oil industry in the country, and in 1905 the amount rose to 10%.

Because of the industry, the Grozny area became a factory center. In the beginning of the XX century, there were four refineries, two of which – the Akhverdov & Co. Company and the Company of the Vladikavkaz railway – held 84.5% of the market in the region with a yearly turnover of 4.8 million rubles and 186 employees. Additionally, there were some service factories as cast-iron foundries, borer-parts plants and several small workshops with mechanical boilers in them. In 1905, the number of laborers living in Grozny was more than 11,000. Six thousands of them worked in the oil industry, 3,000 – in the railways, 1600 in city enterprises, etc. The labor conditions were harsh

* Vedro (Russian: ведро) – an old Russian measurement for liquids. 1 vedro = 12.3 litres.


31 Ибрагимова, З. Х. Царское прошлое чеченцев. Политика и экономика. Москва, 2009, с. 479.
due to the lack of machines, the low wages, the 13-15-hours work days, and the poor housing. The dissatisfaction of the people of Grozny grew and merged with the universal discontent of the workers in the Empire at that time.

By continuing the Vladikavkaz railway to Grozny (the Beslan – Grozny line), and in 1894 connecting Grozny with the Caspian harbor of Petrovsk (the Beslan – Grozny –Gudermes – Kadi-Yurt – Khasav-Yurt – Chir-Yurt – Petrovsk line), mainly two things were accomplished. Firstly, the Vladikavkaz railway reached the Caspian Sea and it connected the oil area of Baku offering the possibility to export oil goods from the South Caucasus to the Black Sea. The development of Baku’s oil area could be observed by the transportation of oil products by means of the railway before and after the Beslan – Grozny intercept was finished: if 1.7 million poods of oil were transported in 1891, in 1895 that amount was 9.5 million poods. In 1900, it reached 40 million poods, or 23 times more oil and oil products were transported in comparison to 1891. Secondly, thanks to the Vladikavkaz railway two commercial harbors gained importance, namely Novorossiysk on the Black Sea and Petrovsk on the Caspian.

Apart from the oil, the region also became an important grain-production center. The vine growing, the gardening and the stock breeding were also developed. The corn and wheat crops grew at the greatest speed. In the Grozny County in 1876, the corn crops reached 57 %, and in 1890, they accounted for 78% of the whole harvest. In the 1890s, the corn became the leading crop culture in Chechnya and Ingushetia, and the Grozny County accounted for the biggest wheat harvest in the whole Terska District. The development of Grozny’s market relations with the other Russian territories led to the growth of commerce in the city itself. The trade turnover in 1900 was greater than 3.8 million rubles, or around 77% from that of the whole region. Moreover, the

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32 Куприянова, Л.В. Оп. cit., p.115.
33 Ibid., p.101
34 Ibid., p.103.
number of commercial enterprises reached 1/3 of all the companies in the area. At the beginning of XX century, Grozny became a big commercial center in the Northern Caucasus and attracted a substantial flow of goods coming from the other parts of Terska Districts as well as from its neighboring districts.

The need of educational and cultural institutions which had to “raise” the incipient intelligentsia appeared with the economic development of the city. The general outlook of education in the Caucasus was very poor – as far as this criterion, it was on the last place in the Russian Empire. The lack of secular education of the local inhabitants was one of the main reasons why they were not allowed to pursue an administrative or military career in the Empire. The proportion of schools in the Tverska district where Caucasian languages were taught was reduced between 1879 and 1883 from 17.9 to 9.6%. In 1883 – 1884 they declined to 1.2%; from 1885 to 1888 fell additionally to 0.6% just to disappear completely in 1891. In 1886, from a population of 41 thousand people in Chechnya, 211 were literate, 69 of them could write in Russian and 142 in Arabic\(^{35}\). At the same time, the secular schools in Terska district raised in number, and if in 1863 the number of people who were taught there was 195, in 1886 they were already 7,447\(^{36}\).

The religious schools were another matter. According to the statistics from 1871, the Muslim population in the Caucasus was 46.79%. In Terska, there were 582 mosques in 1876; in 1887 they were 615. In the Grozny area, these were 144 in total. Religious schools– madrasahs* and maktabs** - were created within

\(^{35}\) Ибрагимова, З.Х. Чеченцы в зеркале …, с.17.

\(^{36}\) Ibid., p. 19.

* Madrasah (Arab., also madarasaa, or literally “a place to study”) – this is a Muslim school that equaled a high school or a university, where Muslim priests and teachers for the maktabs and also civil servants from the Middle East were educated.

** Maktab (Arab.: school) – this is a primary school for Islamic sciences. In it, the kids were taught reading, writing, grammar and the Koran. In this particular case, it refers to primary schools that were located in the territory of the mosque. The education in the maktabs precedes the education in the madrasah.
these institutions. At the beginning of XX century, there were 115 madrasahs and 138 maktabs in the Terska district. The principal method of teaching there was the memorizing of prayers and religious texts in Arabic, reading the Koran and religious tenets study. As to the existence of private school sector, such institutions might be founded and financed only by Russian subjects.

What about the education in Grozny? In 1859, in the fortress there was a mountain school where 60 people were educated. It was opened with the purpose of educating the local children how to read, write and speak in Russian; they were also taught basic arithmetic. The school did not last for a long time and was eventually closed, but in November 1863 a primary mountain school was opened. It was a two-grade school, and the ones who finished it could continue their education in high schools. At the beginning of its existence, the Grozny mountain school was located in a state-owned adobe property. As time passed, the building wore down and in 1871 a decision was made to hire a new house in Grozny for a ten-year period, paying 1000 rubles per year as a rent, and an obligation of the landlord to totally repair the property. In 1872, 1500 rubles a year were spared from the municipal budget for the rent of the school; later that support was insignificantly increased and the maintenance of the Grozny school was the lowest from all the schools in the Terska district (see Appendix, Table 2). During the first year, 40 pupils entered the school and they were taught by three teachers. Between 3 and 5 rubles were paid for a student’s education per year while the poor were discharged of any fees. The school also had a boarding house at its disposal. The subjects that were taught were Russian language (reading and writing), arithmetic, geography, religion and calligraphy. Those who graduated with good success were admitted without exams in schools and high schools in the central city of the Caucasus education county. It was thought very prestigious for the graduates from the Grozny mountain school to enter in the Stavropol high school, in which a three-person quota exited. Only candidates

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37 Ибрагимова, З.Х. Чеченцы в зеркале …., с.18.
who knew Russian well and could pass an age-corresponding exam were admitted into that school. In the late 1890s, Chechen teachers appeared in the mountain school and the other educational institutions in Grozny. They had graduated from the Stavropol Gymnasium and were successful in graduating from higher institutes and universities.

One of the main problem in the mountain schools not only in Grozny, but elsewhere as well, was the language barrier between teachers and pupils. The latter were learning all in Russian from the very beginning due to the lack of educated local people who could teach in the local languages. This led to the memorizing of some expressions and to a falling behind of the non-Russian pupils. The boarding houses, where the schoolmates could communicate freely, were the only place in which Russian could be learnt quickly. As a matter of fact, not many highlanders were admitted in the mountain school because there were quote limitations and due to the lack of secular schools in the auls, the literacy level remained low.

In 1880 with a special programme of the Caucasus educational district, the teachers acquired research functions as well. They had to gather country-specific information about the region, such as the names of the different auls, their etymology, the population, the geographical location, climate, soils, plants and animals. But that ambitious program was unsuccessful. On the other hand, the mountain school pupils gathered information about the local folklore, while in class the learning of traditional local games was encouraged.

Some cultural events took place in the Grozny mountain school as well. In 1896, the school created its own orchestra. “Home” plays were organized for the students, their teachers and some prominent citizens. A library was opened, which in 1865 became public and free of charge for each citizen.

From 1889 onwards, there was obligatory military gymnastics in the schools, the purpose of which was to introduce the children to the military discipline, to encourage their patriotism and to help their physical development.
Carpentry and turnery were also taught in the school and the students participated in a number of industrial artistic fairs\textsuperscript{38}.

In 1867, a free maiden school was opened in Groznaya that had a two-year course: preparatory and first. For its finances, it relied mainly on charities. Until 1917, the school did not have its own premises, even though more than 200 pupils studied in it and that it already had a statute of junior high school. It was not until 1896 when the City Pushkin school was founded (since 1951 it is known as High School №13)\textsuperscript{39}.

Because of Groznaya’s urbanization and its simultaneous fast economic growth, a social “craving” for culture was born in the city. That is why in 1876, the theater lovers in Grozny formed their own society. The official inauguration of the “Society of the Lovers of the Theatrical Arts” was held on October 6, 1877. Its first years were really successful. The plays performed by amateurs twice a week brought more and more income. When the need for a building became vital, ten of the most active participants got a six-thousand-ruble loan from the bank and built the first theater in Grozny. During the Soviet époque, that building became the Palace of the Pioneers and Students and today it is used as the city hall. The money gathered from the plays was used to pay the loan. In the mid-1880s, the building became full property of the society.

Newly appeared musical societies played a significant role for the inclusion of the citizens in the cultural life as well. The “Society of the Music Lovers” in the Vozdvizhenski Military Club was particularly popular in Grozny. In the days when there were concerts, the halls were full, because the price of a single show was quite accessible – only 50 kopecks\textsuperscript{40}.

Other public organizations emerged as well. They were connected to the development of the technical means of creation and presentation of new arts in

\textsuperscript{38} Ibid., pp.19–23.

\textsuperscript{39} Казаков А.И. Страницы истории…., 29–30.

\textsuperscript{40} Ибрагимова, З.Х. Мир…., с. 840.
the first half of the XIX century, such as photography and cinema. They entered the Russian urban environment slowly but surely. On the border between the two centuries, societies of the photographers and the first cinemas emerged in Grozny. Other societies also appeared – these of the choir singers and of medicine, among others. The municipality did not spare any funds for the activities of these societies and the cultural happenings in general. That was not an exception, but rather the rule, because from the mid-1880 the Russian government saw the budget benefits from the existence of such public organization that led to cuts in the state expenditure for social needs, and gradually simplified the procedure for their inauguration.

As far as the governance of the cities in the Russian Empire, an urban reform was done in 1870 which replaced the class-based governing bodies into non-class ones – the City Duma* and the City Council**, the members of which – the glasnyiy*** – were elected for a four-year term. The Duma was gathered on the basis of property criteria in special curiae, created according to the amount of the taxes paid to the city treasury. The officials were also elected on the basis of the same property criteria. The number of voters dropped with the increase of the mentioned criteria in 1892. In the Terska district, the “City Provision” was approved in June 1892 and it was applied in the cities of Georgievsk and Grozny at the same time. In the “Provision for the City of Grozny”, the individuals who had no right to have the statute of citizens were defined: “All who are under investigation, under trial or under arrest due to political reasons. Those, who have bankrupted on purpose. Those, who have not paid their taxes. State migrants sent to other provinces. Individuals, who are going to serve in the

* City Duma (Russian: Городская дума) - representative authority in the pre-revolutionary and contemporary Russian cities.

** City Council (Russian: Городская управа) – the executive body of the City Duma in pre-revolution Russia.

**** Glasnyiy (Russian: гласный) – Member of the City Duma and the City Council in the Russian Empire.
military. Peasants, who are temporarily indebted.”

All who wanted to become citizens of Grozny had to present certificates for the leaving of their former place of residence and a reference for the absence of any impediments for their becoming of citizens. In May 1895, in Grozny was founded the City Duma – the legislative body of the city government. The City Council was the executive body. The head of both institutions was the mayor who was elected on a general assembly of the glasnyiy from the Duma and was subsequently approved by the commander of the district. Those who had voting rights were: individuals who had real estate in Grozny worth no less than 300 rubles; merchants from the 1st and 2nd guild who had had a commercial or industrial company for no less than 1 year; joint-stock companies and trust funds – through their representatives; citizens who have reached the age of 25. That way the city authorities represented the interests of a very small portion of the population which allowed them to act primarily in their own interest. For example, the prohibition law from 1893 for the settlement of local population representatives in a number of populated points, including Grozny, was defined in favor of the Russian entrepreneurs who that way were protected from their competitors. On the other hand, that forced the well-off Chechen entrepreneurs to use out-of-the-law means so as to be able to trade and acquire real estate in the city. The city authorities significantly abused their power, mostly in the city treasury.

By the end of the XIX century, the outlook of Grozny changed quickly. In the local papers from the end of the century can be read: “the city is growing and built up not for days but per hours” or “the two-story stone homes with exquisite entrances and overall architecture spur up like mushrooms”. One of the first hotels in Grozny was Hotel “France” where itinerant actors often stayed. In

41 Ibid., p. 837.


43 Ibid., p.136.

* The building existed on “Revolyutsiya” Boulevard until the war in 1994.
1892, the first postal-telegraph office was opened and in 1898 a special two-story building was constructed for a telephone central office. In 1912, the building of the Grozny full high school was built.

By 1911, there were already taller and modern massive edifices in the city, namely the buildings of the City Duma, the Azovo-Donska Commercial Bank, the female high school with a primary school, the Hotel “France”, and one small but boldly named hotel – “Grand Hotel”. The authorities were also occupied with the landscaping and the squares. Broad boulevards with trees hid the miserable and unevenly outlined neighborhoods of the city. On the other hand, the construction of the railway largely contributed to the change of the outlook of the city by differentiating the living from the industrial area.

The sanitary conditions were very low quality. For example, the water that the people of Grozny drank and that came from Sunzha River frequently led to gastro-intestinal diseases with high mortality rates. After a serious cholera epidemic burst in 1892, the people started asking for clean potable water. But the city authorities did not answer their needs for a long time and an aqueduct was not built until 1903. That was not the only problem because one of the other main topics in the local daily newspapers was the dirt in the city. The examples the newspapers gave were horrifying, such as animals rotting in the street ditches, horses sunk in the dirt, especially when the weather was bad and when at some places that dirt and the mud reached 30-40 cm. A particularly horrific case was reported in 1911, when in November in the central parts of the city the body of an old man was found in a dirty slop under his wagon that was stuck in that same slop. As one of the articles remarked “all the newspapers in Grozny are reprinting how a man drowned in the dirt in the center of Grozny”\textsuperscript{44}. Other disasters were provoked by the street lightening. It was composed of around 40 street lanterns with kerosene lamps or stearic candles, which often caused fires. The first and only paved street was laid in 1913.

\textsuperscript{44} Шабаньянц, Н.Ш. Op. cit., p. 15.
The medical services were also poor. Long after Grozny became a city it had a pharmacy and a military hospital. Every county had a senior medic who was responsible for the hospitals, observed the hygiene in the army; he visited the auls where his services were at the dispose of the locals. Around the oil fields of Grozny primary medical point-shelters were also founded. They offered emergency help and free medicines were given to the sick. With a law dating from 1897, the presence of infirmaries in the oil plants was made obligatory. In 1876, the emperor approved a decision of the State Council to give the hospitals pertaining to the mountain schools in Maykop, Nalchik and Grozny a maintenance of 1,500 rubles per year. There were some private hospitals as well, such as the private female hospital founded in 1897 in Grozny. However, its services were quite expensive – between 2 and 7 rubles per day, so very few well-off families could use it. A network of pharmacies developed in parallel with the emergence of the hospitals; those had the possibility to store, prepare and sell medicines to the public.

In 1913, Grozny had a population of 30,400 people. Beginning its existence as a military fortress, it turned into a typical imperial industrial center. Although Chechens, Hebrews, Armenians and other ethnicities lived in the city, it remained a predominantly Russian city as the Russians were the majority. As far as the city environment, we could not say that Grozny was a modern city in the period reviewed in this article. It became modern in the Soviet era. But Grozny, as well as the other cities in the North Caucasus, managed to integrate itself in the administrative system and the economic life in the Russian Empire. Through the educational and cultural institutions in it, the Russian culture and language found their way into the region and gave birth to the local intelligentsia. The integration of Grozny into the life of the Empire led to its inclusion in the social problems common for all Russia and connected mainly to the labor and life of the peasants. It is no coincidence that the city was praised by the Socialist historiography as a pillar of the Socialist revolution in Northern Caucasus. That is how apart from the benefits of Grozny’s transformation into a
city, its citizens encountered the serious problems that were to shake the foundations of the Russian Empire.
Appendix:

**Table №1**
The development of the railway network of the Vladikavkaz Railway Company (1875-1901)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Railroad line</th>
<th>Entering into exploitation</th>
<th>Length in verstes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rostov - Vladikavkaz</td>
<td>2 June 1875</td>
<td>652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tikhoretskaya - Ekaterinodar</td>
<td>15 June 1887</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ekaterinodar – Novorossiysk</td>
<td>25 June 1888</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beslan – Port-Petrovsk</td>
<td>1 January 1894</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mineralnyie Vodyi - Kislovodsk</td>
<td>1 January 1894</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beshtau - Zheleznovodsk</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kavkazskaya - Stavropol</td>
<td>1 January 1897</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port-Petrovsk – Derbent – Baladzharyi</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tihoretskaya - Tsaritsyn</td>
<td>1 July 1899</td>
<td>501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kavkazskaya - Ekaterinodar</td>
<td>1901</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td><strong>2331</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Table №2. Budget of the city of Grozny (1887)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Expenses</th>
<th>Rubles</th>
<th>Copecks</th>
<th>Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Funds for the sustentation of the city public governance</td>
<td>5038</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>the lowest among the districts’ central cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Public buildings maintenance</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>№</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Amount</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Note</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Educational institution support</td>
<td>1668</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>the lowest among the districts’ central cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Charity institutions support</td>
<td>702</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Military needs</td>
<td>1493</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Prison heating and lighting</td>
<td>487</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>1315</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Police and fire brigade support</td>
<td>6663</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>the lowest among the districts’ central cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Bridge building and support</td>
<td>no funds</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>City lighting</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>The lighting of Vladikavkaz was 4662 rubles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>no funds</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Всичко:</td>
<td></td>
<td>18217</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table can be found in the book: З.И.Ибрагимова „Чеченцы в зеркале царской статистики (1860 – 1900)”. М., 2006, с.175

Table №3. National composition of the Terska District intelligentsia at the end of XIX century, divided proportionally into groups
The table can be found in the book: З.И.Ибрагимова „Чеченцы в зеркале царской статистики (1860 – 1900)”. М., 2006, c.177
The table can be found in the book: З.И.Ибрагимова „Чеченцы в зеркале царской статистики (1860 – 1900). М., 2006, с.159

### Table №5

**Distribution of the Chechen population employment in Grozny (1897)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Employment</th>
<th>Individually</th>
<th>A family member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Capital and real estate income</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Armed forces</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Trade with agricultural goods</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Public and class service</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Trade with construction materiel and fuels</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Muslim ministration</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Livestock breeding</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Metal treatment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Clothing production</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td><strong>466</strong></td>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
<td><strong>487</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table can be found in the book: З.И.Ибрагимова „Чеченцы в зеркале царской статистики (1860 – 1900)”. М., 2006, c.165

**Translated by: Nadejda Miteva**

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