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Features of the Geographical Location and Climate for the Occupation of European Peoples

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Abstract: This article discusses the features of the geographical location and climate for the occupation of European peoples. The role of landscape features and geographical factors of Eastern Europe in the formation of the specific attitude of the first settlers to the surrounding space, their dwelling and personal property is analyzed. Peculiarities of climatic conditions forced farmers to an uneven labor rhythm throughout the year, which subsequently spread to the entire lifestyle of their descendants. Nature and climate dictated difficult conditions for the first settlers and their descendants to survive in a swampy, wooded area, forcing them to conduct a subsistence economy, which is a brake on the development of commodity-money relations, and thereby preserving economic backwardness from Western Europe.

Keywords: geographical location, European peoples, climate, features, farming and famers, natural conditions, mentality.

The modern world at the beginning of the third millennium is distinguished by its extreme diversity, complex geo-economic structure and high geopolitical dynamics. Another wave of radical transformation of the geopolitical structure of the world that swept modern civilization in the last decade of the 20th century, and having crossed the threshold of the 21st century, requires a deep understanding of the entire world economic structure, an analysis of the political and geographical structure of the world, its genesis and promising directions of development. The cycle of socio-geographical disciplines, of which political geography is an integral part, is called upon to equip modern geographers with an understanding of these complex processes.

The modern political and geographical structure of the world has evolved over several millennia. Limited ideas about the earth's surface in antiquity (before the 5th century AD) are associated with the history of isolated slave-owning states (Egypt, Greece, Rome) that did not have clear political boundaries. They were replaced in the medieval period (V-XV centuries), in the process of overcoming regional isolation, by large feudal states (Byzantium, the Roman Empire, Kievan Rus, etc.) with more defined political boundaries. The era of the great geographical discoveries at the turn of the 15th-16th centuries. until the First World War in the 20th century. marked the beginning of European colonial expansion and the global political division of the whole world [3].

At the beginning of the twentieth century. Europe dominates the global geo-economic and political structure, together with the United States, European countries produced 85% of the world's industrial

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output. But the aggravation of inter-imperialist contradictions, rivalry for the redistribution of colonies, national-territorial problems and other reasons led to the division of Europe into two warring groups - two coalitions of powers, which caused the First World War. On the one hand, the "Central States" (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Turkey and Italy - until 1915) took part in it, the demographic potential, which amounted to about 120 million people. On the other hand, the Entente countries (Russia, France, Great Britain, Serbia, later Japan, the USA, Italy, Romania, etc., 38 states in total) with a demographic potential of more than 238 million people. The First World War lasted 52 months (June 8, 1914 -September 8, 1918), with more than 10 million killed and about 20 million wounded in human losses, economic losses exceeded \$40 billion. Its most important political and geographical result was the redistribution of the world into favor of the victorious powers (Great Britain, France, the USA, etc.), the collapse of four empires - Russian, German, Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman, which until 1914 dominated the European continent, as well as the deepest socio-political changes in the territory of the former Russian empire. The most large-scale political and territorial changes took place in Central Europe. Germany lost 70.5 thousand km 2 in Europe (about 13.5% of the pre-war territory), where about 6.5 million people lived. She was forced to agree to the occupation of the Saar district and the demilitarization of the coastal regions of the Rhine, the transfer of some territories to neighboring states - France (Alsace and part of Lorraine), Belgium (Eipen and Malmedy districts), Denmark (northern part of Schleswig) and Poland (Greater Poland, part East Prussia and Upper Silesia). The Austro-Hungarian monarchy ceased to exist. In accordance with international agreements, Austria was reduced to an ethnically homogeneous province (82.4 thousand km2), which amounted to 1/8 of the former empire. Italy received South Tyrol and the Istra peninsula with Trieste. Hungary became an independent state, but lost 239 thousand km2 (Transylvania), independent Czechoslovakia (as part of the Czech Republic, the Moravian region and Slovakia) and the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes (since 1929 Yugoslavia) emerged from the collapsed empire. Romania increased its territory from 139 to 294 thousand km2, having received Transylvania, Banat, Bukovina and occupying Bessarabia (the area between the Dniester and Prut, which since 1812 was part of the Russian Empire). Bulgaria, which fought on the side of the "Central States", lost access to the Aegean Sea, and for Turkey (after the collapse of the Ottoman Empire and the formation of new independent states - Yemen, Saudi Arabia, British mandated territories (Iraq, Palestine and Transjordan) and France) (Syria, Lebanon) new borders were established in accordance with the Lausanne Treaty of 1923 [1]. Due to the changes in Central and Eastern Europe, the political and geographical structure of the region has changed and includes five new states of the former Yugoslavia, three Baltic countries, four CIS member countries, independent states of the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria, Romania and Albania. After the unification of the two German states of the FRG and the GDR on October 3, 1990 and the restoration of the integrity of Germany in the region, the economic weight and international influence of modern Germany on European and world relations has significantly increased. As a result of all the changes, the political and geographical structure of modern Europe includes 39 sovereign states (including microstates) of foreign Europe, 4 CIS member states, four autonomous entities and one colony.

As an example of such a mapping, A. Hotsei cites, in particular, the influence of landscape and climate on temperament and mental characteristics. Every person, staying in a certain natural environment, from an early age is forced to react in one way or another to its features, adapt his lifestyle to them, measure his actions, his desires and ways of realizing them. This means that the landscape and climate have a certain influence on the perception of natural phenomena and the human psyche, and through them on his behavior [2]. Marked differences in the influences of the landscape can be found, according to Chotsei, when comparing the inhabitants of vast monotonous plains with the inhabitants of spatially limited mountainous areas rich in diverse landscapes. A flat open space does not require such constant and intense attention from a person, which is necessary in conditions of limited terrain and difficult terrain,

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when one or another, including a very unpleasant, surprise can await a person around every corner. Therefore, in the first case, the world appears to a person to be uniform and monotonous, respectively, his brain is not exposed to a powerful flow of information and strains only in search of differences. In the second case, the world seems complex, requiring constant attention to the mass of various factors that replace each other, and a person strains in search of similarities in the diversity surrounding him. These differences cause some differences in worldviews and temperaments. The greatest influence on the formation of special features of the mentality is exerted by such natural factors, on which the nature of economic activity directly depends. These factors, first of all, include the severity of the climate. "In those regions where it is severe, where winter noticeably crowds summer, it is natural, say, to develop an agricultural culture of work of an emergency type, that is, with great effort in certain short periods with long relaxing idleness at all the rest of the time" [4]. As an example, it should be noted that the severity of the Russian climate left an indelible imprint on their mentality, which is clearly visible among all segments of the population and gave rise to an appropriate planned economic system in the Soviet Union. Since the historian V.O. Klyuchevsky spoke better than others about the causes that gave rise to this mental feature, we allow ourselves to quote a rather extensive quotation from his work. "The Great Russian is sure of one thing - that one must cherish a clear summer working day, that nature gives him little convenient time for agricultural work, and that the short Great Russian summer can still be shortened by untimely, unexpected bad weather. This forces the Great Russian peasant to hurry, to work hard in order to do a lot in a short time and to get out of the field just in time, and then to remain idle through the autumn and winter. So, the Great Russian got used to the excessive short-term exertion of his strength, got used to work quickly, feverishly and quickly, and then to rest during the forced autumn and winter idleness. Not a single people in Europe is capable of such a strain of work for a short time as a Great Russian can develop; but nowhere in Europe, it seems, will we find such unaccustomed to even and measured, constant work, as in the same Great Russia" [5]. Here the habit of such an emergency type of work, to a ragged work rhythm, the ability to extreme, albeit short-term, exertion of forces and prolonged shirking is a manifestation of two completely opposite variants of human behavior. Both of these options are organically soldered into the soul of the European people.

And it should be noted that the role of adverse climatic conditions is by no means limited to the formation of a specific labor rhythm. Natural conditions influence the whole practice of labor activity and interaction of people. If natural and climatic conditions are such that a person is constantly subjected to serious tests of strength, then one of the most important prerequisites for his survival is collectivism and mutual assistance. In some cases, collective labor efforts are also necessary in relatively favorable climatic conditions. For example, when engaging in agriculture in wooded regions, which the ancient Slavs encountered when developing the East European Plain, or the need to build and maintain an extensive irrigation system in good condition, as in Southeast Asia. If natural conditions are such that mutual assistance is not required, or if the practice of mutual assistance is not widespread due to, for example, an extremely low population density, then forms of individual (family) labor become dominant [2].

Obviously, the features of the influence of natural and climatic conditions on the formation of the mentality are closely related to historical conditions. Since each nation in its evolution goes through a unique historical path, which, one way or another, is reflected in its mentality, then, accordingly, the mentality of each nation is distinguished by its uniqueness and uniqueness. This mental layer is no longer a direct reflection of the natural habitat. In it, according to A. Khotsey, "the historical memory of the people is embodied." It is passed down from generation to generation and contains those social and cultural values that reflect the stages of the historical development of society. And due to the fact that all members of society receive this historical layer of mentality from older generations, and those, respectively, received it from their ancestors, it represents the most conservative part of beliefs and

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attitudes. It is for this part of the national mentality, it is precisely as the bearer of a specific set of cultural and historical values and attitudes that the self-determination and identification of each people is carried out.

In order to take into account the influence of historical conditions on the formation of the Russian mentality, we need to pay attention to the process of the settlement of the Slavs in the expanses of the East European Plain. Historians, as a rule, call this process not conquest, but colonization or even settlement, because it was not at all like the other, which began at about the same time (II-III centuries AD) in Western Europe, and began, in the words of L. N. Gumilyov, "the landing is ready - the inhabitants of Scandinavia." These processes began the Great Migration of Nations. In Western Europe, it led to the fall of the Roman Empire, and in Eastern Europe it turned into its colonization by Slavic tribes. The Slavs began their advance from the Carpathians, which are the natural southwestern border of the East European Plain. S. M. Solovyov, as a result of comparing the natural, climatic and geographical conditions of Western and Eastern Europe, points to a number of advantages of the first over the second. Accordingly, he calls nature for the peoples of Western Europe a mother, and for the peoples of Eastern Europe - a stepmother. He connects these advantages of Western Europe with the earlier and more significant success of civilization. "If the calculated natural benefits contribute to the early and strong successes of civilization, then it is understandable why the southern peninsulas of Europe appear on the historical stage first of all, why the ancient civilized world (the Roman Empire) embraced in Europe the southern peninsulas, Gaul and Britain, which means the southern and western outskirts. Central and Northwestern Europe, Germany and Scandinavia joined the Roman world, that is, the Greco-Roman civilization, after; they were followed by the western Slavic tribes, and, finally, it is already very late, laying claim to European civilization and the state, which included Eastern Europe within its borders" [3]. S. M. Solovyov emphasizes that the historical spread of a civilization of the European type began in the western part of Europe and moved to the east, that is, to where the most favorable conditions for the success of civilization weaken as they advance.

Thus, in the first millennium, Europeans spread in the forests of the East European Plain. The iron tools that they had mastered by that time made it possible to engage in agriculture in forest areas. At the same time, the main form of agriculture was slash-and-burn, which consisted in the fact that pre-cut and, as a result, dried trees were burned, and the resulting ash was used as fertilizer. This form of agriculture, which survived in Europe until the middle of the 19th century, to which the people were forced by a number of natural and historical conditions, which we have listed above, was the direct cause of the formation of several very characteristic features of the mentality. First of all, it should be emphasized that the slash-and-burn system of agriculture necessarily informed the farmers of a nomadic way of life. Secondly, one might think that this form of agriculture is very, very labor intensive. V. O. Klyuchevsky insists on this circumstance. Indeed, in a dense, virgin forest, it was necessary to fell all the trees in the selected area, and then, having uprooted all the stumps, burn these trees, without, of course, allowing a fire. After that, it was necessary to raise the virgin soil. For several years, this area, due to the fact that the ash is a valuable mineral fertilizer, could produce a good harvest, but only for several years in a row, since the land, which no longer knew any fertilizers, was quickly depleted. And the farmer had to look for a new suitable site and start all over again. One might think that some of the most difficult types of labor required collective efforts. Residential buildings in the city (with the exception of the houses of the boyars and some of the richest merchants and Germans who have stone palaces in their courtyards) are built of wood. The roofs are covered with boards, on top of which birch bark is laid, and sometimes sod. That is why strong fires often occur: not a month or even a week passes for a few houses, and sometimes, if the wind is strong, entire lanes are not destroyed by fire. As researchers noted from the words of eyewitnesses, "We sometimes saw at night how flames rose in 3-4 places at once. Shortly before our arrival, a third part of the city burned down, and, they say, four years ago it was the same again. archers

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and special guards must resist the fire in such a misfortune. Water is never extinguished here, but the houses closest to the fire are immediately broken so that the fire loses its strength and goes out. For this need, every soldier and guard should have an ax with him at night ".

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