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GEOGRAPHY AND WORLD AFFAIRS



STEPHEN B. JONES
Professor of Geography, Yale University

MARION FISHER MURPHY
Former teacher of geography

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To the Teacher

Viewpoint. World affairs no longer are the distant doings of elegantly dressed diplomats. They press upon every individual. There is a continuous chain of political activity from local through national to world politics. Politics, whether local or national or world, is an inescapable part of group life. If we see life clearly and see it whole, we can't leave out politics. That doesn't mean that political life is always good. It can stand a vast amount of improvement. World affairs frequently seem but one step removed from chaos. If we would improve politics and reduce the chaos in world affairs, we must study that with which we would deal. Utopian solutions for political problems might work with Utopian men and women in a Utopian world. In the real world, idealism and realism must be combined. We need a star to steer by, engines to push us along, and teamwork among the crew members.

With this book, the theme of *world affairs* enters the Rand McNally Social Studies Series. The special theme of this book is conveyed by its title, *Geography and World Affairs*. Earlier books of the series have built up a background knowledge of geography and history. In previous work in geography the pupil has studied the world from three viewpoints: typical world community, regional, and occupational or economic. In history he has had simple stories of man's advance in civilization, with special attention to his own country and its people. Now we shall see how this knowledge fits together to make our political world understandable. World affairs always take place *somewhere*. There is always a regional or geographical setting. This regional setting is a combined product of nature—mountains, rivers, rainfall, and so on; of the works of man—cities, railways, and the like; and of historical development.

Neither geography nor history *determines* world affairs, in the sense that men are merely puppets. But the facts of geography and history do set limits, restrict choices, and thus influence world affairs. In technical language, they "condition" world affairs. This concept of geography and history as conditioning factors is far removed from that infernal region known as geopolitics, which the authors of this book have no desire to visit and wish their readers to avoid.

The ultimate purpose of this book is to make us more understanding citizens of the world. "Above all nations is humanity." There is, however, no avoiding the dominant fact of world affairs today—the existence of nations. And national loyalties need not be sacrificed in order to have a united world. There is room in every human mind for many loyalties—to friends, home, nation, humanity, and religious faith. In this book we accept the present-day reality of nations as something out of which a more united world may grow.

Content and organization. *Geography and World Affairs* is organized in seven comprehensive chapters. The first chapter and the last give systematic views of the subject. The first chapter tells us what world politics is like and how geography and world affairs are related. Geographic factors—landforms, climate, vegetation, and the like—provide basic patterns for the interpretation of world affairs. The chapter closes with a quick survey of the basic patterns, developed in more detail in the five regional chapters of the book. The final chapter summarizes what the pupil has learned and points his thoughts toward the possible future.

The five regional chapters form the body of the book. Each of them takes up a great region of the world which has some logical unity when the world is viewed broadly. These regional chapters are arranged according to a simple scheme. The Soviet Union, as the "other" giant power and as the central region of the Eurasian land mass, is treated first. The regions which surround the Soviet Union—the "coastlands"—are next studied. The "western coastlands" include Europe, southwestern Asia, and Africa; the "eastern coastlands," from India around to Japan, are sometimes called Monsoon Asia. These chapters are followed by a unique feature of this book, a chapter called "The Oceans in World Affairs." Chapter VI carries the regional survey to the Americas, terminating the regional studies in the home continent of most of the pupils who use this book.

Gradation. Within a given grade, it is commonplace to find a spread in reading ability of as much as eight years. Under such a condition it would require one profoundly wise or ineffably brash to say, "This book should be used only in a specific grade." Caution stipulates that we make no such statement.

It seems more useful to indicate the courses presupposed for users of this text and to indicate future courses for which this book will serve as a foundation. Any pupil with normal reading ability who has finished the intermediate grades should be able to read *Geography and World Affairs* without difficulty. There are other prerequisites. The pupil should have had sufficient experience with regional geography to provide him with a reasonable elementary knowledge of geographic location and also an elementary understanding of the geographic character of the major regions of the world.

Traditionally, world history has been regarded as an overcrowded and difficult course. A world-history course will be less onerous and more comprehensible to a pupil who has studied *Geography and World Affairs*. This text also provides understandings that should prove extremely useful in the study of the American-history course and of the problems course, both of which are frequently requirements in the upper grades of the senior high school.

Objectives. Each citizen of American democracy urgently needs the ability to think clearly about those problems which vitally affect the welfare of his own country and of the entire world. For too long the people of America—indeed the people of all the world—have been influenced by slogans and shibboleths. They have been taught through propaganda to think in stereotypes—to substitute emotion and prejudice for reason. *Geography and World Affairs* provides information which serves as a foundation for intelligent participation in world affairs. But it does more than that. Its objectives are concerned with improved social and civic behavior on the part of the student. Its content has been organized and its learning experiences planned to carry out these purposes.

Geography and World Affairs will help the student to achieve these objectives:

1. To understand the nature of the political world with its changing pattern of countries and its more basic and more permanent geographic patterns, and to see that man is limited by his environment and his past—by geography and history—but not controlled by them.
2. To realize that the face of the political world is not fixed—it changes and can be changed by man—and that each individual has his responsibility for the world of today and tomorrow.
3. To take an intelligent interest in world affairs and in the solution of problems that confront society.
4. To recognize that interdependence is inherent in a political world and that international coöperation is desirable and logical.
5. To appreciate the facts that in a free society an individual can think his thoughts, speak his mind, and express his political choice and that it is in a free society he has the best opportunity to discharge his responsibility to the world he lives in.
6. To improve his social attitudes toward members of his own group and toward other people everywhere.
7. To be able to collect and organize pertinent data on world problems.
8. To develop critical thinking—to analyze and interpret data, to draw generalizations, and to apply generalizations.
9. To participate in formal and informal discussions.
10. To use maps, graphs, cartoons, pictures, and statistical tables for their geographic and political content.

Evaluation. In any teaching situation it is necessary to check carefully to discover whether established objectives have been realized. Since the major objective in all education should be to effect desirable changes in the whole behavior of students, evaluation should determine what students are thinking as well as determine the facts they have learned.

Geography and World Affairs includes paper-and-pencil tests to measure the success of the student in mastering content material and in handling situations requiring verbal skills. It provides situations in which progress in developing other specific skills cited in the objectives can be appraised. But an important part of our objectives is the development of socially desirable understandings and attitudes. Evaluating these intangibles is more difficult. *Geography and World Affairs* sets up a series of subjective tests as one means by which the student's personal and social reactions can be gauged. These, found in the workshops under the heading "How Do You Feel About It?" may be used in pretesting as a legitimate part of the evaluation process, or they may be used at any point when sampling is desirable.

Acknowledgments. The authors and the publisher wish to express grateful appreciation to Professor Derwent Whittlesey, political geographer of Harvard University, and to May Gonderman, classroom teacher of Spokane, Washington, each of whom read the entire manuscript of this book. They have offered many suggestions which have made *Geography and World Affairs* a better and more useful book.

With the world closely knit together by the advance of technology, every country has an inescapable obligation to be intelligent about its newly found neighbors. Without any definite intention to build a world like this, we suddenly find ourselves living on each other's doorsteps. We do not have to approve everything our neighbors do, but we face the necessity of living close together in the same world with them; and if we remain ignorant about them—how they think and live and what social and cultural purposes motivate them—the distrust and suspicion which ignorance always creates will in the end lead to new catastrophes. No intelligent man can ever again say about any political event or social process in any part of the world: "This is nothing that need interest me."

RAYMOND B. FOSDICK
Past President, Rockefeller Foundation

Official United Nations Photo





Our Political World

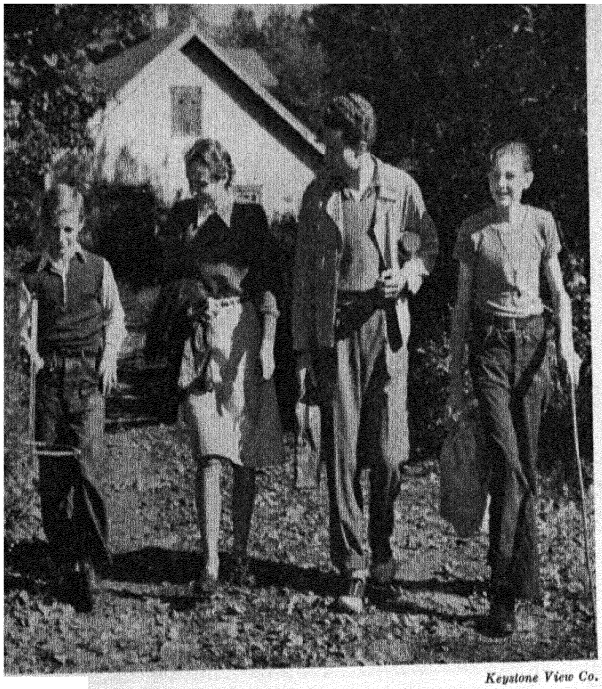
ABOUT PEOPLE AND POLITICS

In praise of Politics. *Politics* is just about the most important thing in the world today. That is a sweeping statement, and we don't expect it to be taken without argument. Right away some of you will say that religion is more important than politics, or that education is more important than politics, or that atomic energy is more important than politics. But such good things as freedom of religion, public education, and the wise use of atomic energy depend upon government, and so they have their political side.

Take education, for instance. Nearly everyone in our country has some education. That is because the government helps out by providing public schools. That is good politics, because a country needs educated citizens. And take atomic energy. Will it be used to make bombs or run power plants? That depends on world politics. So we say that politics is one of the most important things in the world today.

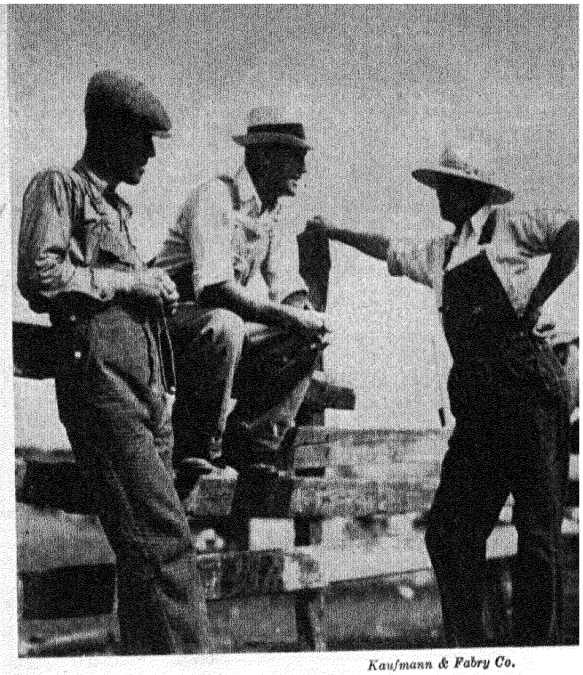
Politics enters into almost every phase of modern life. It is hard to think of anything that does not somehow or somewhere run into politics. Whether to provide new goal posts for the city playground, pavement for a county road, food for hungry nations—these are all political questions.

When two or more people get together, politics begins. Parents have to be politicians. If their politics are good, the home runs smoothly; if bad, there are jars and frictions. So hail Good Politics, the oil that makes human affairs run more smoothly. It is good politics that makes it possible for human beings to live and work together in groups instead of living and working alone like hermits.



Keystone View Co.

There must be good politics in this family.



Kaufmann & Fabry Co.

It looks as if politics has begun here, too.

Politics and Politicians

There is a hole in the pavement in front of my house. It has been there for a week, and is getting wider and deeper every day. Someday, some motorist will hit it at full speed and break a spring or axle of his car. Why doesn't somebody fix that hole? "Too much politics at the city hall," we complain.

Grumbling about politics and about politicians is a great old game, older by far than baseball. Around the stove in a village store, on the porch of a country house, in log cabins in the West, our forefathers talked politics. Often they said "politics" in a tone of voice that made you know that "dirty" went in front of it, even if they didn't use that word. Yet somehow, through generations of politicians good and bad, a nation developed that is a good place in which to live.

The path of that nation has not been a straight, smooth highway. Its government has not worked noiselessly like a fine machine. Its politicians have often seemed a quarrelsome crew. And there are plenty of bumps on the road ahead. The governmental bus will creak and groan. Rivals will struggle for the steering wheel. But many of the bumps and creaks and groans are simply proof that the human race is human—that people have minds and wills of their own.

Real and ideal politics. We often say that some people are idealists. That is a hard word to define. Idealists, we might say, are people who think the world is better than it seems to be. At least, it could be made better. Some other people we call realists. Realists take the world as it is. They may not even want it any better.

Realists call idealists "dreamers." Idealists call realists "hard-boiled." Young people are nearly always idealistic. Sometimes, when they come in contact with hard work and competition and selfishness, young idealists swing to the other extreme and become hard-boiled realists. Unfortunately, it seems easier to believe that the world is all good or all bad than to accept the fact that the world is neither—that it's a mixture of good and bad.

No one can live very happily without some faith in the worth-whileness of living. But nobody should build his faith on an ideal of a purely imaginary perfect world inhabited by perfect people. Such a faith is

likely to collapse like a punctured balloon when one comes face to face with reality. On the other hand, a completely hard-boiled attitude toward the world is wrong, too. To make one's rule of living "Grab your share while the grabbing is good" makes enemies instead of friends. It is a sure road to unhappiness.

As with people, so with politics. For politics is part of the life of any group of people. If you look about the world, you will find no perfect governments. You will find some fairly good ones, some poor ones, some very bad ones. All governments, even the fairly good ones, can be improved if their citizens will work to improve them. But it is unlikely that any government ever will be perfect, because governments are made by people, with human failings. The sensible person knows that he can't get good government by putting a nickel in the slot, but that it must be built, slowly and laboriously.

Similarly, world peace and world unity cannot be obtained by putting a nickel, or even fifty cents, in the slot. Learned men have tried to find a formula for peace, but trying to find a formula for peace is like trying to find a formula for good looks or happiness. Permanent world peace may someday be obtained, but it will come only after long years of persuasion, compromise, worry, and education. We must face the fact that in the world of today many people have very narrow outlooks. They are really more interested in today's hamburger than in tomorrow's world peace. And people will continue to be that way. What is close to us seems bigger than what is far away. But little by little, we human inhabitants of a small but interesting planet will learn more about each other and will realize that we must get along with each other. But we shouldn't expect too much too soon. That would be unrealistic.

Human beings are often very idealistic about distant things and at the same time quite realistic about the affairs of their own lives. They lock their doors at night, but they can see no need for their country to have strong defenses. They know that their city government is inefficient, but they expect a world government to work like a clock. They may even look at their own democratic form of government through dark-colored glasses and at distant dictatorships through glasses tinted like the rose.

On the other hand, there are some people who would like to ignore all distant problems. Such people would like to believe that foreign lands do not exist. But since they know in their hearts that foreign lands do exist, they like to think that foreigners are inferior. These people are neither realistic nor idealistic. They are just narrow-minded. After all, individual foreigners are people like ourselves, with the same loves and hates, hopes and despairs, even though they express themselves in different words and different ways.

A sample human being: yourself. In order to understand the core of the problem of politics, good government, and world peace, take a good look at a sample of the human race—yourself. Don't be too severe in your judgment of yourself. You have your good points and your bad points, but the good probably greatly outweigh the bad. Your mother thinks so, and so do your friends. You are, let us say, good-natured most of the time, but occasionally quarrelsome. You work as much as you have to, and when your interest is really aroused, you work more than you have to. But you are easily bored—if you are a typical human—and you like change. You don't want to be pushed around, yet you often follow a leader. But if that leader tries to tell you what to do, most likely you will rebel and follow someone else. Or you may decide to be your own leader.

If you are a fair sample of young humans, you probably are idealistic and a bit romantic. But you are realistic enough to know that lockers have to be kept locked or things may disappear from them. You are more

concerned about a football game than about world peace. But you have an uneasy feeling that should the world be torn by another war, football games would somehow seem unimportant.

You, an individual, are one of the fundamental units of politics. You want to be free, yet a member of society. You want to live your own life (with the minimum of direction by parents and teachers), but you don't want to be lawless. You don't want to bother with every detail of politics and government, but you want to be something more than a helpless cog in a machine. There are two and a half billion people like you on this earth. Together those people make the political world of today.

The lowest level of politics. A flock of hens or a herd of cows has a rough sort of political organization. One of the flock or herd usually begins to lord it over the others. Among hens, there grows up what someone has called the pecking order. One hen, not always the strongest, can peck at all the rest, but they never peck back at her. Hen No. 2 can peck at those that rank below her without their pecking back. And so it goes, until the poor last hen is pecked at by all the rest and pecks at none of them herself.

Among small children who play together, this sort of "pecking order" sometimes develops. One child can snatch the toys from the rest and keep his booty, while the child at the lower end– "low man on the totem pole," we might call him– can keep no toys except those that the others do not want. We can find examples of "pecking orders" in adult life. The caste system of India, about which we shall read later, is much like a pecking order.

But man, although he is like the animals in many ways, has within him higher qualities. Human beings are not satisfied to go through life pecking and being pecked like hens. Even young children discover that there are other kinds of organization. They become pals. They gang up against a bully. Before they reach high school, they are forming clubs and holding elections. Instead of letting one person run their group, they have learned to use methods people

What kind of government is best for their community? Citizens meet to share ideas about such questions.

Courtesy Council Bluffs Chamber of Commerce



have developed to let everybody take part. These methods are accepted or approved ways of carrying on politics in a group. Holding elections is one of the methods. An election may be called a political form.

Leadership in a democracy. When a human group develops political forms—constitutions, elections, legislatures, and the like—both the duties and the rewards of leadership change greatly. Clearly the No. 1 hen benefits from her position. She is not pecked by the other hens, and she can grab choice bits of food from any of them. But the head of a democratic country, such as the President of the United States or the Prime Minister of Canada, has no such privileges. He has a position of great power and honor, but you might almost say that he is pecked at by all the other people in his country. Like most officials in a democracy, he works very hard and seldom saves much money. The more honest an elected official is, the more likely he is to die poor.

Many kinds of men enter politics for many kinds of reasons. Some enter politics for purely selfish purposes. They may want to get jobs for their friends, to bask in the light of publicity, to listen to the applause that follows their speeches. Others enter politics for mixed reasons. They may love publicity, yet also be thoroughly honest public servants. Some men enter politics because they wish to serve their fellow citizens. And some men enter politics because they have been drafted by people who trust them.

When we consider that most elective positions carry rather low salaries and that a political career is very insecure, it is remarkable that high-minded men ever enter politics. They are as likely to receive abuse as applause. Yet high-minded men do enter politics, and as we look back on history, such men often stand out like mountains above the plains.

When things go wrong with the world, when wars threaten or troubles loom, it is almost instinctive for human beings to long for a great leader. It would be pleasant to believe that the great leader always arrives on schedule. But sometimes he comes late, and sometimes not at all. Moreover, what looks like Superman in the distance may turn out to be Sad Sack. In a civilization as complicated as ours, no one man, however great, can manage everything. An able and honest politician in the hand is worth a flock of supermen in the bush.

To get able and honest men into politics, we need, of course, to have intelligent voters. But we also need to pay officials enough to attract them into a life that is certainly no bed of roses. We should give them pensions. Pensions would help to make up for the insecurity and poor pay of public offices. It is poor business to underpay the men who govern a country.

On being a good loser in politics. Elections in a democratic country have two purposes. First, of course, they are the way we choose our leaders. But they are also the way we check on the performance of our leaders. Election is not for life but for a term of years. In a country accustomed to democratic elections, it is taken for granted that a man who loses will leave office. Have you ever thought that it is only in a fairly small number of countries and only for a brief part of the history of the human race that losers have behaved that way? No hen No. 1 ever gave up her place in the pecking order because the other hens voted against her. Hens play for keeps, and so have men for most of history.

We all know that games must be played according to rules and that one should be a good loser. That the serious business of politics also should follow rules and that officials should be good losers are lessons that people have learned only after centuries of struggling for their liberties. Winston Churchill may be most famous for his determination to resist the Germans when all he could promise his followers was "blood, sweat, and tears." But he should also be remembered for another reason.

After he had led his country to victory, he held more power than any Englishman had held in generations. But he unhesitatingly stepped out of office when his party lost an election.

Two islands. We can learn something about politics by comparing the stories of two islands, one of which is real and the other imaginary. The imaginary one is in the book *The Mysterious Island*, by Jules Verne. In Verne's story, five men in a runaway balloon dropped on an uninhabited island in the South Pacific. These men had no need of politics. Their leader, Captain Harding, had great ability and never had a selfish thought. And when nature played tricks that even Captain Harding could not match, the stranded men were helped out by near miracles performed by the unseen hand of Captain Nemo.

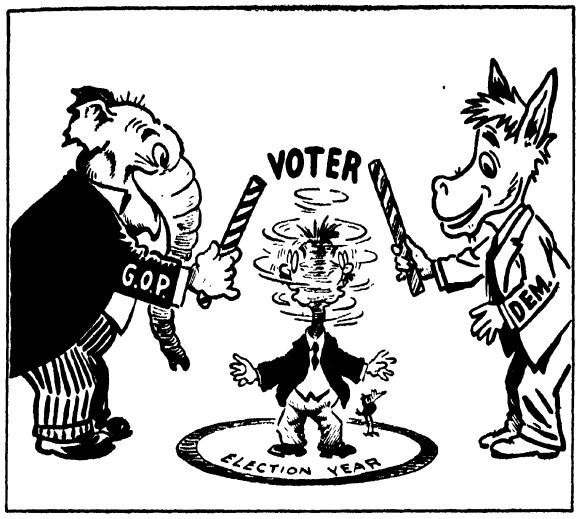
But *The Mysterious Island* is fiction, and so are Captain Harding and Captain Nemo. In the same part of the world where the "mysterious island" was supposed to be—the South Pacific—there is a real island. Fifteen men and twelve women came there in a stolen ship. The real island is Pitcairn Island. Nine of the fifteen men who came there had been serving on the British warship *Bounty* and had mutinied and seized the ship. The other six men and all the women were South Sea Islanders the Englishmen had persuaded to accompany them.

Now men who will steal a ship, no matter how much they hate its harsh commander, are not the best material with which to start a colony on a small island. Nevertheless, among the mutineers were some men of generous mind and high ideals. For two years the colonists worked together fairly well, considering their rough and mutinous past. They settled many of their questions and quarrels by taking votes. But as their interests and desires continued to clash, they stopped using reason. Killings followed, and all but two of the men died violent deaths. The survivors, we're happy to say, grew sick of bloodshed. They organized what was left of the community—mostly women and children—in the fairest and best way they knew. Then Pitcairn Island became one of the most law-abiding places on the face of the earth.

What do the stories of these two islands tell us about world politics? In the first place, we humans have certainly acquired our sense of law and decency the Pitcairn way. Man has dwelt on this earth a million years, according to the geologists, and for 99 percent of that long time he has been uncivilized. If we think of the whole span of human life on the earth as one hour, then civilization has existed less than a minute. Out of that minute of civilization, only a few seconds have seen democratic governments, and then not in all parts of the world. The physical world has been explored and its coasts and islands mostly mapped, but most of the world of good government lies before us. If the past has resembled the troubled times on Pitcairn, there is hope that someday the whole world will learn the lessons the Pitcairn Islanders learned.

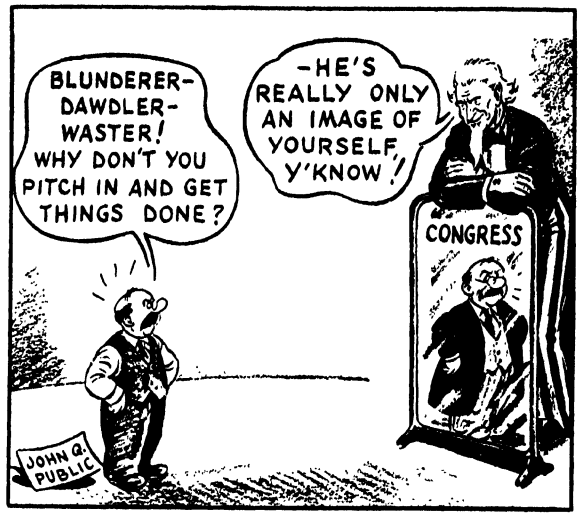
In the second place, the stories of these two islands tell us what we can do if we don't like our government. On one hand, we can dream of a perfect world—served up on a platter, with a bit of parsley on the side. We can rush to vote for whoever promises to bring this perfect world to us if we will but adopt his "system." Or we can realize that people are good and bad, high-minded and selfish, able and not so able, and that good government is not the result of perfect men and a perfect system but is created by courage and hard work. Two men on Pitcairn Island kept their ideals and finally established the kind of community they believed in.

Grumbling is not enough. In democracies like ours people believe that free speech, a free press, frequent elections, and checks on the power of any one man or group help them get what they want and need from their government. We grumble



Seibel in the Richmond Times-Dispatch (*Adapted*

An empty-headed voter is easily put in a whirl.



Manning in the Phoenix Republic and Gazette

John Q. Public in a democracy.

because the wheels of our government turn slowly and because we don't always like the laws that are turned out. But this grumbling is part of the process of getting better government. The right to grumble—freely, loudly, and without fear—is a precious thing. In countries ruled by dictators, the people don't grumble about the government because they don't dare.

But grumbling is not enough. If we do not take part in government—in politics, that really means—as much as we can, we can't expect the kind of government we want. If we don't do all we can, others will, and they will get the kind of government *they* want. If you failed a test this morning, probably you were lazy and did not study yesterday. If a house is dirty, probably a lazy housewife did not sweep it. And if politics in a country or city or school are dirty, perhaps lazy voters failed to keep them clean. If the history of our country proves anything, it proves that we can have good government if we work hard enough for it. It isn't easy, and it takes the efforts of many people. Sometimes it takes courage of a very high kind. But energetic citizens can have good government.

C-R-A-S-H ! ! ! A truck has plunged into that hole in the street! The air is gray with dust and blue with curses. Why in the world didn't the city repair that hole? Why didn't someone telephone the city engineer about it? Why didn't *I* telephone?

Let's change the subject.

World Politics

All of us belong to many groups. We belong to a class and to a school, to a community, to a state or province, and to a nation. Each of these groups has its own politics. In the small groups, like our clubs, most of us take part actively. In our clubs we have a great deal of freedom. If someone in a club, for example, tries to take too much power, we can vote him out of office. If that fails, we can always start another club.

The larger groups- city, state, country—seem more remote. It is easy to forget about them until things go wrong, and then it is easy to complain of "dirty politics." But these large groups are more important than the small ones. For one thing, we can't easily leave them or start new ones. We might move to another city to get better city government, but most of us want to stay where we are. As for moving from one country to another, it isn't easy and few of

us want to do it. For better or worse, nearly every human being belongs to a country, and his most precious right—the right of freedom—depends on the kind of government his country has.

Besides belonging to clubs and communities and countries, we all belong to a much larger group—the human race. Unfortunately, that large group, the human race, is very poorly organized. World politics is not like the politics of a club or country. The world consists of a large number of countries, each one of which desires to run its own affairs without paying much attention to the others. The surprising thing about world politics is not that we have wars, but that we don't have them all the time. The world is like Pitcairn Island after the troubles broke out. Men on the island distrusted each other, and there was no feeling of unity to pull them together. Fifteen men fighting on a tiny island in the Pacific! Two and a half billion people living on a tiny planet in space! The Pitcairn Island survivors learned to get along together. Someday the whole human race may be as successful.

A good lamp to carry.

Shoemaker in the Chicago Daily News



Good and bad policies. One use of politics is to bring about agreement among groups of people with different ideas. When a group of people decides that this or that should be done, it usually can convince itself that what it wants is good. But the other groups may be just as convinced that the new proposal is bad.

In our club, city, state, or national politics, there are two ways of settling such disagreements. Suppose one group of coaches decided that football fields should be shortened ten yards. Another group might be equally certain that fields should be lengthened ten yards. A very natural thing to do would be to leave football fields just as they are. That would be a compromise, because each side would be giving in a little. Almost every day of our lives we make compromises. Without them we would be in almost daily quarrels with our fellows. Another way to reach agreement is by voting. We agree in advance that the majority shall have the say. We take a vote, and unless someone is a poor sport, the issue is settled.

In world politics a good deal of compromising takes place. Few countries or rulers really want war. Even if they have no feeling that war is wrong, it is too costly and dangerous. Hitlers fortunately are the exception rather than the rule in modern times. But countries and their rulers want things. They may want more trade, or more oil, or more security, or more power. They want these things badly. They feel that important things are at stake. For these reasons, countries sometimes find themselves in situations where it is hard to avoid war. Compromise would make things smooth, if both countries were willing to compromise. But there is no second peaceful way in world politics. There is still no way to settle international quarrels by vote with any certainty that the loser will accept the verdict.

How agreements may be reached. In democracies, disagreements between political groups are threshed out in congresses or other lawmaking bodies, and the will of the majority wins. The losing group, in a free country, does not need to give in silently—and seldom does. Its members can speak and write and campaign for a change. So in a country or state or smaller group politics does not always lead to the adoption of laws or policies that everybody thinks good. Politics does not always lead to laws or policies that will be good forever and ever. Instead, it leads to laws and policies that most of the people (or most of those who take an active interest in politics) think good at the time. Later, what now seems good may be changed for something that seems better.

It is much harder for the people of many nations to agree in world politics than it is for the people of one nation to agree in national politics. Each nation tries to adopt policies that are good from its own point of view. One country thinks its citizens should have the right to hunt for oil in a distant land, but so does a second country, and maybe a third. Perhaps they manage to compromise, each taking a share of the oil or forming a joint company for the work. But if they can't reach a compromise, there is the chance that they may be starting a small flame of conflict. This flame may last and grow bigger and finally break out in a war.

The League of Nations and the United Nations. In order that nations might reach agreements more easily and might settle disputes by vote if compromise failed, the world has twice set up an international organization. The League of Nations was set up after World War I. It failed, and the main reason for its failure was that nations were not ready to yield enough power to it. Every nation, great or small, could veto an action of the League assembly. Nations were not ready to agree to majority rule, or even to rule by two-thirds or three-fourths of the



Courtesy Netherlands Information Bureau

Representatives from Indonesia and one from the Netherlands chat at a United Nations conference.

nations. Only by unanimous vote could action be taken, and it does not require much imagination to guess that there were not many unanimous votes on serious issues.

The League failed, but the idea lived on, and in 1945 a second international organization, the United Nations, was formed. In the United Nations only five nations have the right of veto. These five powers are the United States, the Soviet Union, Great Britain, France, and China. The small countries were ready to submit to majority decisions. The greatest powers were not willing to do that. We have already learned from experience that the veto, even when granted to only five great powers, prevents the United Nations from being a true world government.

The veto power was adopted in the first place because it was thought that neither

the United States nor the Soviet Union would join the United Nations without it. Many people in the United States are now sorry the veto was ever heard of, for the Russians have used it more than Americans have liked. But it is there, and it will be very difficult thing to change.

True world government still seems a long way off. But there is no need to despair, even though permanent peace seems as hard to reach as the end of the rainbow. The world could be a much better place than it is today, but it has been much worse, too. Great nations are like great ships—they change course slowly. And to continue to be nautical, our political world is like the Gulf Stream. It doesn't seem to move, but it gets places in the long run.

ABOUT LAND AND POLITICS

Up to this point we have been talking about human groups and their politics as if they lived nowhere in particular—as if they were in the air, on a cloud, or balanced on the point of a pin. The only times we have come down to earth have been on two small islands in the South Pacific, and one of those islands was imaginary. But human groups always exist *somewhere.* A club may meet in a member's home, in a clubroom, or in a clubhouse. A city has boundaries called city limits, and a county or state has boundaries.

Much of the business of any human group consists in managing its bit of space or territory. A club may have dramatics for its purpose, but it must have a stage for the actors and seats for the audience. There must be scene painters and stagehands as well as actors. There must be ushers to get the guests to their proper places. How much of a city's money goes for things that are located in some definite place, like streets, sewers, schoolhouses, and fire stations?

What a Country Is

When the newspapers report the day's happenings in world politics, they use the names of many countries. We sit up and take particular notice when our own country is mentioned. And why do we speak of our nation as "our country"? Because it is made up not only of us citizens but also of the land we govern. The land belongs to the nation, and the people inhabit the land. The combination of land and people is a *country.* Under our laws, a person born on the land of our country in most cases becomes a citizen of it.

A neat trick, if you can do it. The story is told that a member of a state legislature who had had great trouble with arithmetic when he was a child introduced a bill to make pi an even 3 instead of 3.1416. If it were as easy to change nature as all that, some of us might like to see a law passed doing away with geography.

Let's imagine that such a law has been passed and, more amazing still, that it can be enforced. In order to abolish geography, we would have to remove all the differences between one part of the world and another. We would need to level the mountains, for the difference between mountain and plain is one of the simplest of geographical facts. We would need to fill all the oceans and lakes. Then—and this really would take some doing—we would need to do away with all differences in climate. If we had deserts and jungles, ice fields and coral islands, we would have geography. Having made all the world just alike, we would spread the people out evenly. Each person would have his bit of land, just like every other bit of land. But there could be no cities, for the contrast between city and country would be geography. If we could do all these things, we could cut down the geographical differences in the world to

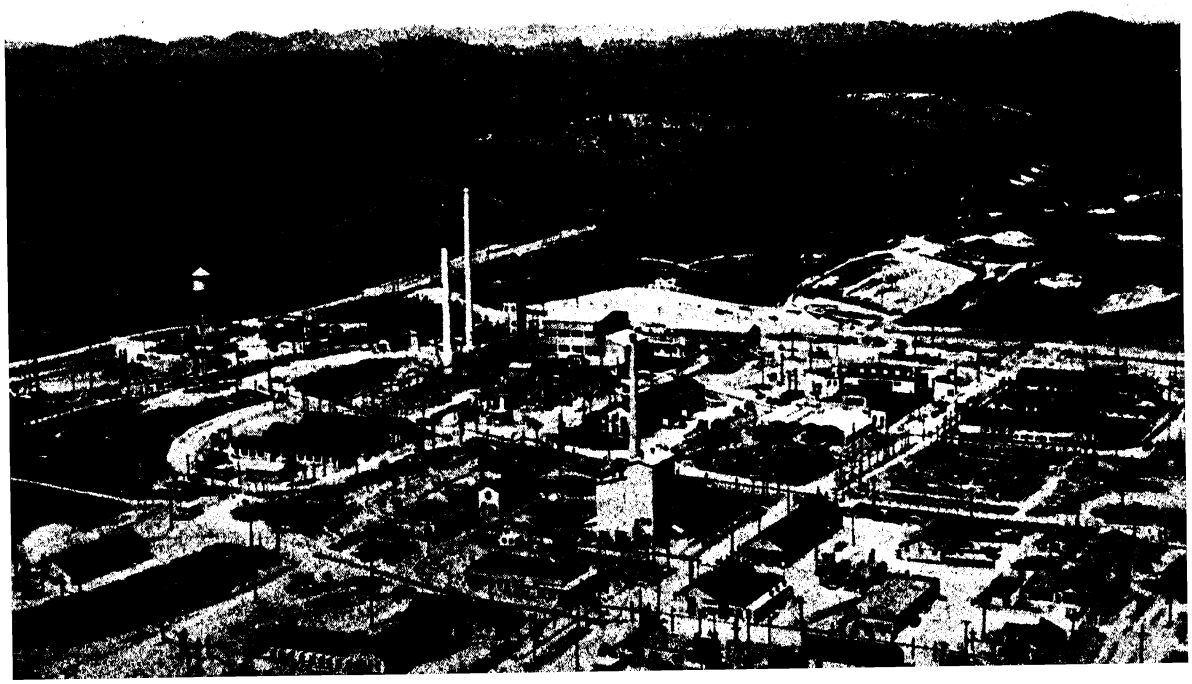
almost nothing. But even so we could not do without "where" in our vocabularies.

Would a world without important geographical differences have any politics? Of course it would, for people would still form groups. They would form groups to enforce the law, to put out fires, and just to amuse themselves, for people are generally sociable. As soon as groups were formed, some items of geographical difference would return. A jail might be built, and it would have to be built *somewhere*. It might be convenient to have the fire station near the jail. Some ambitious individual would start a store near by, and another would start a hotel. A road would be paved through this village center. Before very long, the group activity of people—their need to get together and act together—would create a new geography in place of the one we got rid of. In some such way, *politics can make geography*. Politics makes boundaries, where kinds of money, stamps, auto licenses, and many other things change. Politics makes capital cities grow. Through politics we acquire national parks, navy yards, state highway systems, and scores of other visible things.

Geography makes politics. You have just read that politics can make geography. But geography can make politics, too. The real world—not the imaginary one from which geography was removed—is very different from place to place. There are plains with good soil and climate, deserts with almost no rain, arctic lands of long winters, mountains too steep for habitation. Oil, coal, and other minerals are scattered unevenly about the world. Put a skillful people in a large and fertile lowland, let them find coal and iron beneath it, and they are likely to form a strong and prosperous nation. Cramp them on a tiny island or scatter them thinly over a desert, and a weak, though possibly happy, nation will result.

Politics can make geography. The United States government wanted and needed places for atomic research. The town of Oak Ridge, Tennessee, grew up around a plant for producing atomic materials.

Ewing Galloway





Courtesy Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce

Geography makes politics. Pittsburgh grew up where two rivers meet and rich natural resources are found.

Geography does not force people to live in a particular way, but it has a very strong influence on them. An islander might never go on the sea, but most island peoples do. An Eskimo might make his clothes of cotton raised in a greenhouse, but it is easier and warmer to dress in furs. On the other hand, people—especially those who use machinery—can learn to overcome the drawbacks of their surroundings. Irrigating land and tunneling through mountains are two examples. Geography sets the stage, but people do the acting. In this book we try to show how geography sets the stage for world affairs and how world affairs are acted out upon that stage.

How countries began. We are so accustomed to living in a world that is divided into countries that we never think of it as anything but natural. But human beings have lived in the world for a million years, and only in the last few centuries have they thought of it as being divided into countries. Even today there are millions of people who don't know they live in countries.

We look at the map and say that China and Burma meet at a sharp boundary in the part of the world made famous by the Burma Road. And it is true that the governments of China and Burma regard their boundary as a sharp line. But there are many people living in the hills which surround that boundary who do not think of themselves as either Chinese or Burmese. They are hill tribes, and they have no desire to belong to any country, for they consider both Chinese and Burmese to be foreigners. In the same way, Africa, as you can see on the map on pages 390–391, is divided completely into countries and colonies. But there are many African tribes that regard the boundaries of those countries and colonies as just queer inventions of white men.

Quite likely, all parts of the inhabited world were once upon a time in the tribal stage of government. Many tribes have rough boundaries and will fight vigorously for the tribal hunting grounds or farm lands. But in general, the idea of razor-sharp boundaries that we in modern countries hold is strange to tribal peoples. We could draw a map showing the general distribution of Eskimo tribes, but we could not draw sharp boundaries between them. The Eskimos are so thinly scattered and wander so much within their general region that sharp boundaries do not seem necessary to them. Nor do many tribes have capitals. The capital is where the chief happens to be. He can make laws or hand out justice wherever he goes.

Modern capitals and boundaries. In modern countries the capital is usually a city of large size. Often it is built in a very ornamental fashion, such as is suitable for the seat of government. The government actually is made up of men. But it has a place of business, where tons and tons of records are kept and all sorts of tasks are performed, from signing laws to studying the weather. A modern country also has sharply defined boundaries, measured to the inch and marked with monuments. This is because modern governments have so many tasks to perform that they must know exactly where their territory ends.

The boundary between the United States and Canada is a very peaceful one, and there are no fortifications along it. But the governments of these two friendly nations need to know exactly where the boundary lies. The boundary even cuts through some stores and houses. It cut through the bedroom of one house so that the owner slept with his head in one country and his feet in another. This did not matter very much until the owner died. Then the officers of the law decided that the head, as the center of intelligence, was more important than the feet, and that the man died in the country in which his head lay.

Government and defense. A tribe usually consists of a chief and his people, living in a somewhat indefinite area of tribal land. In early tribes the chief was usually a warrior as well as a lawgiver. No chief could last long if his tribe could not defend itself. In early nations, likewise, the king usually headed his army in person. The idea that the head of the government is the commander in chief of the army and navy is kept alive in the Constitution of the United States. And the prime ministers and presidents of countries do make many important decisions in military matters. The actual leadership they leave to professional soldiers.

Much as we hate war, and even hate to think of war, it is shutting our ears to the voice of history to forget one important thing. The chief political groups in the world—that is, countries or nations—usually have developed as a result of conflict or war. A common need for defense has often forced people to unite and choose a common ruler. If they spoke the same language, it was a great help; but the common need for defense has held the Swiss together, even though four languages are spoken in their country. In the world we live in, a country must have strength. The poet Shakespeare said that it is excellent to have a giant's strength. But he went on to say that it is tyrannous to use it like a giant.

Great Nations and Small Ones

Samuel Grafton, in the *New York Post* for Nov. 23, 1943, said, "Even after you give the squirrel a certificate which says he is quite as big as any elephant, he is still going to be smaller, and all the squirrels will know it and all the elephants will know it."

There are some countries we all agree are great powers. The United States and the Soviet Union certainly are great powers. Some nations we know to be weak. Others are not so easy to classify. Canada has a

small population but a large area, and it produces much food and many manufactured products. Canada is often called a middle power. China is large and has many people, but it is poorly developed. It is difficult to find out just how strong it really is.

We also know that it is the great powers that fight the great wars. If we have a long period of peace, it will be because the great powers keep it so. And if the people in the small countries are to live in security, as they surely are entitled to do, it will be mainly because the great powers behave themselves. The governments of the great nations of the world have a tremendous responsibility. Whether or not we can have world peace is up to them.

What makes national strength? Why are some nations strong and others weak? Why are some elephants and others squirrels? One reason, of course, is that they differ in size. The Soviet Union is the largest country in the world today. It is about as large as all of North America. Five countries are nearly tied for second place. They are Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, and the United States. But we have only to think about these five countries for a few moments to realize that size is not the only thing that makes a nation strong. The United States is a great power. China is considered a great power in the United Nations, but it is not yet truly one. The other three are middle powers in spite of their great size.

It is not hard to guess that one of the reasons great size alone does not make a great power is that some countries have more fertile land than others. In nearly every country, the area of fertile land is much less than the total area. The United States has much fine farming land, but it also has rugged mountains, deserts, swamps, and scrubby hills. These poorer lands are by no means useless. Deserts and mountains are valuable because people need scenery and places to go. The rough, dry, and swampy parts of a country may yield coal, oil, or metals. When the United States built atomic-energy plants, they were located in deserts or rugged hills partly to be away from the crowded fertile places. It is doubtful if more than half of the total area of the United States is productive enough to support a large number of people.

Some of the countries of Europe, though much smaller than the United States, have less wasteland in proportion to their areas. On the other hand, Australia is about the same size as the United States, but so much of its interior is semiarid and desert that most of the people live in the humid belts along portions of the coast. In the coastal belts, Australians have built fine and prosperous cities. But Australia's great dry interior almost certainly will prevent it from ever becoming a very great power.

Look at the population map of the world on pages 372–373. If you compare it with the rainfall and fertile-lowlands maps, pages 376–377 and 38–39, you will be struck with how much of the earth is not really highly productive. You will see that many places are not suitable for people to live in.

Size is one of the things that count in national strength, but it is not size alone that makes a country a world power. Below are shown silhouettes of the three great powers of the world arranged in the order of their size (Alaska and Hawaii are not shown with the United States). Look at the United Kingdom!

There are only a few portions of the earth that are likely to support really great powers.

In defense of small nations. We have been talking about great powers, and we shall return to that subject in a moment. But it is wise to halt and think about the small countries of the world. Hitler and some other people argued that small nations had no place in the modern world. They are too small for modern industry and trade, so runs the argument, to say nothing of modern warfare. Now it is true that small countries should coöperate in matters of trade, as Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg have done. It is also true that small countries cannot defend themselves very well against the great powers. But small countries have a right to exist. Some of the most admirable countries of the world are small. Some of them are Norway, Denmark, Iceland, and New Zealand, to name just a few. In education and health these four small countries rank high. And one finds there some of the best examples of good government to be found anywhere in this imperfect world. To be sure, some small countries are backward, but their backwardness is not necessarily due to their smallness. Life in a progressive small country has some of the advantages of life in a progressive small town. The people are nearer to their government and to each other.

The equality of nations. One of the very first sentences of the charter of the United Nations says that the principle of sovereign equality of nations is endorsed. This sentence can be misunderstood, though, just as one can misunderstand the sentence in the American Declaration of Independence which says that all men are created equal. The "equality of nations" does not mean that the greatest and the smallest countries have the same power in the world. We can't make squirrels equal to elephants. But the small countries have the same right to exist and govern themselves as have great powers. All men are not equal in physical strength or in intelligence, but they should all have the same right to live in freedom, to be protected by the law, and to earn a living by honest work. We can't say that this is always true today. Clever people often take advantage of those less clever, and the law does not always give protection. Great powers still interfere in the affairs of small ones—if not boldly and openly, then by influence and roundabout means. One aim of the United Nations is to give small countries a place where they can state their cases.

Small countries, though they are weak in military power, are by no means unimportant in world affairs. The great powers are glad to have the friendship of small countries. Small countries can fight only with pinpricks, but pinpricks are very unpleasant. In World War II the Nazis found that even a weak country like Denmark, which had practically no armed forces, could cause a great deal of trouble when it was occupied. The Danes were clever at thinking of ways to annoy the German soldiers and bother the Nazi officials. The small countries alone could never have defeated Germany. But their underground resistance was a constant drain on German strength and a great annoyance.

The United States has by no means a perfect record in dealing with its smaller neighbors. American troops have intervened in several Latin American countries—Mexico, Haiti, Nicaragua, and others. This has seldom been wise, and it certainly has not helped to make the United States popular.

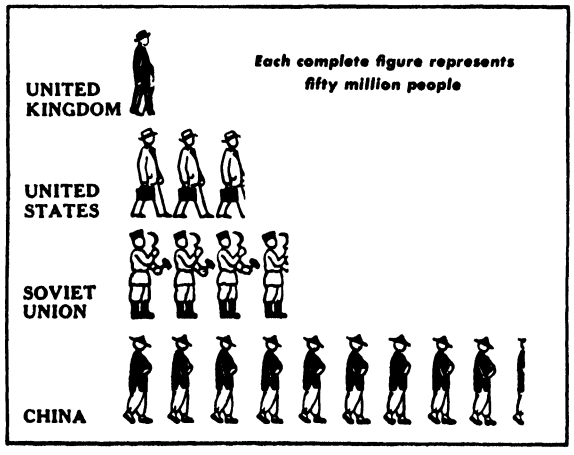
Here the black coloring shows wasteland. What clue does it give you to the difference in the national strength of the countries?



Individually, the Latin American countries cannot oppose the United States. But if all these countries were taken together—and there are twenty of them—their unfriendliness could be very serious. Everyone knows that pushing people around is not a way to make friends. Many Americans have learned that pushing small countries around is not the way to make them friendly; and in this troubled period, a great power needs all the friends it can get.

What makes a great power? A country, we learned a while ago, is made up of a group of people on an area of land. The people feel that they belong together and that the land is theirs. That is what we call the sense of nationality. Someday all the people in the world may feel that they belong together and that the world is their country.

If a country is land plus people, we might guess that a great power consists of much land and many people. In a general way we would be on the right track, but it is not quite that simple. The United States and the Soviet Union do have much land and many people. But if a large area and a large population were all that a great power needed, China and India would be the greatest powers today. We know that this is not so. China and India have large areas, productive valleys, and very large populations, but they lack the industries and other things that make for national strength.



It is not even certain that China and India will ever have national strength to match their great populations. It is possible for a country to have so many people that it is weakened rather than strengthened. It may be necessary for its people to use all their energy making just a scanty living. In that case, there is little wealth or energy left over for the development of resources. It may take many years, or even generations, for China and India to acquire the industrial machinery that is needed by a great nation. It will be difficult, also, to find enough of the right kinds of food to make their people as strong and healthy as they could be. In time China and India may be great powers, but they have many problems to solve first.

A small great power. We know of a nation that not so long ago was the world's strongest power and that is still third among the great powers. Yet this nation has a homeland only about the size of the state of Oregon, and its population is only one-third that of the United States. It is, of course, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The reasons for the greatness of Britain will be studied later in detail. This island kingdom had productive mines and factories, an early start in the use of machines, and active shipping. It carried on trade all over the world and acquired wealthy and important colonies. By becoming the first of the world's great manufacturing countries, Britain gained more power and importance than its size and population would lead one to expect.

In recent years, the relatively small size and the lack of resources of the country have begun to be handicaps. The United Kingdom still has coal, but not nearly so much as the United States or the Soviet Union. Other countries have learned to use machines and to operate ships. And the country which was the leading power of the nineteenth century has become the third power of the twentieth.

The population pattern of the world. If we turn to the population map of the world on pages 372–373, we find only four large areas where population is dense. One is the Far East—China, Korea, and Japan. The second is India. The third is Europe and the European part of the Soviet Union. The fourth, not so densely populated, is the eastern half of the United States and the neighboring part of Canada. There are other smaller areas of dense population, like Java in the East Indies, but the four we have named hold most of the world's people. As we go on through later chapters, we shall find out why these four regions can support so many people. We shall note that three of them lie chiefly in the coastlands of the double continent of Eurasia.

There is good reason to believe that the population pattern of the world may not change very much from what it is today. The four large, densely populated regions just named probably will continue to have most of the world's people. This will be true unless climates or ways of making a living change. As time goes on, we can expect more people to settle in the best parts of South America and Africa, and perhaps elsewhere. But the main features of the population map probably will continue to look much as they do now.

Energy and National Strength

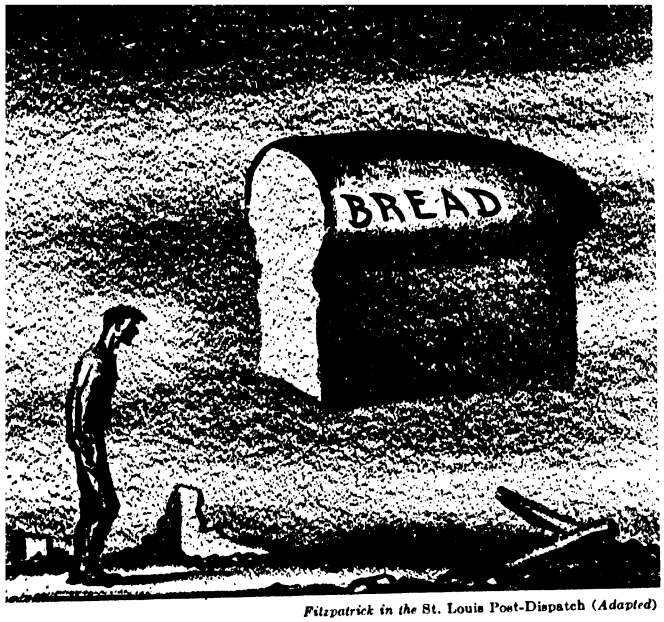
A strong man has an abundance of energy. A strong nation has an abundance of energy. Man may have two kinds of energy: muscular and mental. Nations may have three kinds of energy: muscular, mental, and mechanical.

Muscular energy, whether it comes from the muscles of men or of animals, is today the least important of the three kinds. That does not mean that muscular energy has no value, but only that its importance has lessened. Once upon a time, muscular energy built the pyramids. It did not matter much whether the workers who moved the stones used their minds or not. Today we value muscle power chiefly because it shows good health, and for sports and recreation. But in time of war, the soldier often has to depend upon sheer strength even today.

The power of animal muscles used to be an important means by which a man could get work done. There are still millions of farm animals, pack horses, sled dogs, and camels helping man with his work. At one time, Mongol horsemen ruled much of Europe and Asia and terrified much of the rest. Their hardy horses and dashing horsemanship were of great help to them. The Spaniards brought horses to North America and with their help overcame the Aztecs of Mexico. Some Indian tribes secured horses from the Spaniards, and they quickly discovered how much faster a rider could go than a footman. In both hunting and war, the tribes with the newly found "horse energy" were far more successful than those that traveled on foot.

What makes people energetic? We do not know all that goes into the making of muscular and mental energy. We can say that adequate and proper food, a stimulating climate, and good inherited qualities are important. As far as we can tell, there is not a great deal of difference among the peoples of the world in their inherited physical and mental abilities. Smartness and dullness, strength and weakness, are qualities possessed by individuals. If there are any inherited differences among peoples in these respects, they are certainly far smaller than the differences between individuals.

But there are great differences in the conditions under which different peoples live. Some people are well fed, and others have barely enough food to keep them alive. One of the great problems of our times is to find out how the undernourished peoples of the world, such as the many millions in India and China, can be given adequate food. There would be no point in reducing Americans or Canadians to starvation in



Fitzpatrick in the St. Louis Post-Dispatch (*Adapted*)

Enough food for all people—a world problem.

order to feed other peoples a little bit more. But we ought to be willing to tighten our belts in emergencies. The real problem is to raise the production of food the world over, so that everyone will have enough.

Climate undoubtedly has an effect on our energy, though just how different climates affect us is a matter of some dispute. We all know we feel more energetic in cool weather than in great heat. People in hot, equatorial lowlands generally do not care to put in long hours of heavy work, though they may work actively for short periods. Long periods of severe cold may sap people's energy, too, but probably much less than does extreme heat. Probably the ideal climate, from the standpoint of human energy, is one in which the weather changes every few days but remains comfortably cool most of the time.

Human energy is also affected by the kind of society in which we grow up. Europeans and North Americans, in particular, grow up in a society in which work is considered very important. The native peoples of Central Africa or of the South Sea Islands do not want to work any more than they have to. They have few wants, but the Europeans and North Americans have many wants and work hard to satisfy them. Mental activity is also influenced by our surroundings. People who have been through many years of school usually read more than those who have not. They get the habit.

Human energy therefore is influenced by a number of things. Whether energy makes a people great or merely a nuisance depends upon what they do with it. What they do with their energy depends in part upon their traditions. One country may traditionally spend much of its energy upon its army, another upon commerce, another upon agriculture. The early people of Easter Island spent much of their surplus energy making gigantic statues. Americans undoubtedly waste much of their abundant energy upon short-lived things like radio programs and comic books, while more important things are left undone.

Mechanical energy. It is hard for us to realize that less than two hundred years ago—a very short time in human history—most of the world's energy came from muscle power. Wind was used to propel ships and turn windmills. Falling water slowly turned the wheels of gristmills. Wood and dung were burned to cook food and keep men warm. The great modern sources of mechanical power—coal, gas, oil, and electricity—were almost unknown.

The steam engine, now about two hundred years old, was the first great new method of using energy. Even in this age of gasoline and electric motors, steam still drives most ships and generates a large part of our electricity. But for many purposes, small and light motors like those in automobiles and airplanes are required. And for them, what engineers call "internal-combustion motors" are used. These are simply gasoline engines, Diesel engines, and the new gas turbines and jet motors. No boilers or fireboxes are required in these. The fuel burns, or explodes, right inside the motor.

The great sources of energy for driving machines today are coal, oil, and water

power. As we talk about the countries of the world in this book, we shall have more to say about how these energy sources are distributed.

Black diamonds. Coal is black and dirty and not at all glamorous in appearance. Nevertheless, it is the backbone of the world's industry. As new oil fields become harder to find, we may in time run our aircraft and automobiles and oil-burning ships with liquefied coal. If all the water power in the world were harnessed, we would still need coal, for there is not enough water power to supply the world's need for mechanical energy.

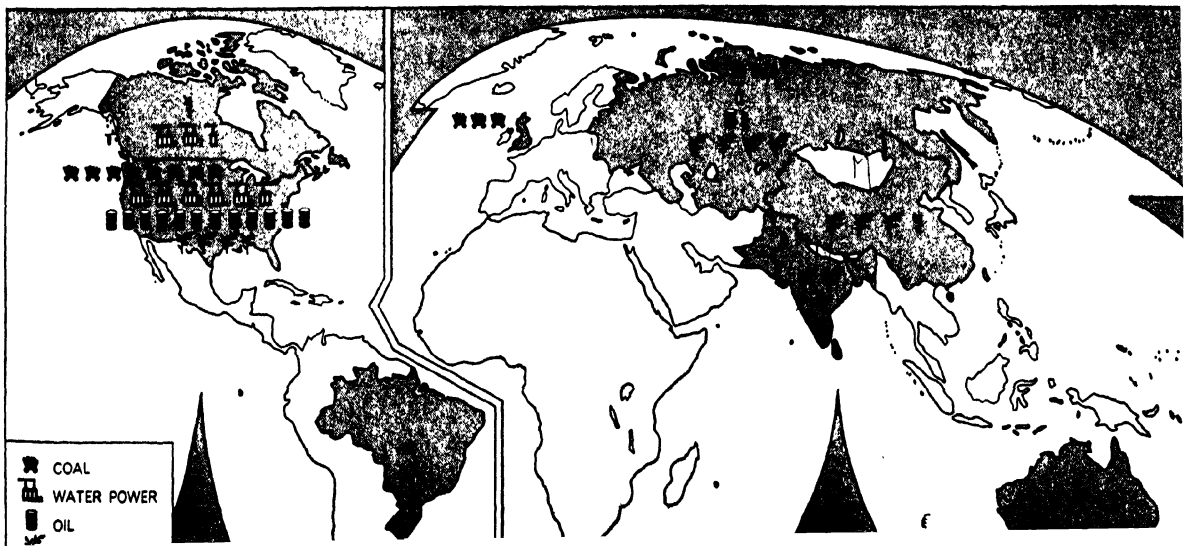
An abundance of coal is a great advantage to a modern nation. England based much of its industry upon its coal fields, and it exported coal and burned coal in its merchant and naval ships. The shift from coal to oil as a fuel for ships was quite a severe blow to the great coal-mining industry of England.

We know fairly well where the great coal fields of the world lie. In Hollywood terms we would say that both the United States and the Soviet Union have "supercolossal" quantities of coal. They have enough to last them for many hundreds of years if all their coal beds are counted. Coal beds vary in their value. Some yield better coal than others. Some lie near the surface and can be mined with steam shovels, but others are deeply buried. Some coal beds are horizontal and easily worked; others have been folded and are standing on edge. But even if we include only the beds that are thick, fairly level, and near the surface, both the United States and the Soviet Union have a great deal of coal.

China, Germany, and the Union of South Africa all have large coal reserves. There is much mining in Germany, for its many industries, but in China and South Africa industrialization is not as greatly advanced. England and Scotland have a great deal of coal remaining, though many of their mines are deep and beds thin. A number of other countries are moderately supplied with coal, including Canada, Poland, and India. Alaska has a good deal of coal but as yet only limited uses for it.

On the other hand, many parts of the world, such as Italy and its Mediterranean neighbors, Latin America and the Scandinavian countries, possess little or no coal. Lack of coal is a great handicap unless there are other sources of energy. The black diamonds from the coal mines are about the finest jewels a country can have.

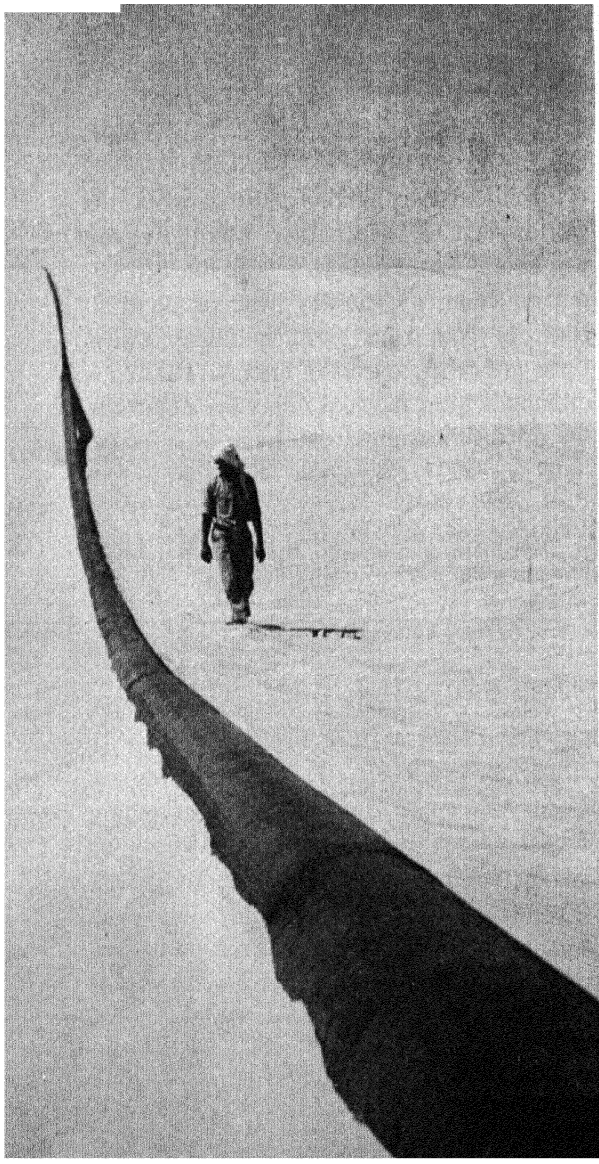
To be a great power, it is not enough that a country have natural resources. It must also produce. Compare the production of the three great powers with that of other large countries shown.

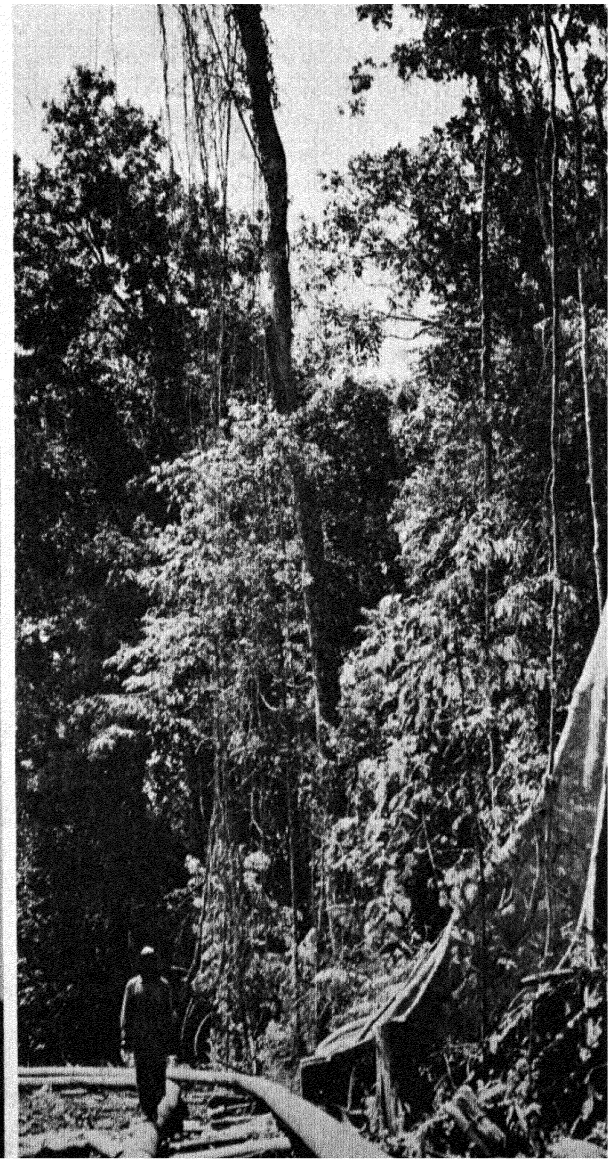


Oil is where you find it. There is an old saying among prospectors that gold is where you find it. That saying sums up their feeling that there are few rules about the finding of gold. One geologist changed this saying a bit to apply to oil. He had located a spot for a well and his company had drilled there. The well produced a fine grade of water, but no oil. The geologist wrote a letter of explanation, which ended, "Oil is where you find it." That saying is not really true, because geologists have discovered means of picking places where oil is most likely to occur. Nevertheless, oil is much more difficult to find than coal. It doesn't show itself at the surface of the earth in thick, black seams, as coal often does. It may be hiding in the pores of rocks two or three miles below the surface.

Probably there is less oil in the earth than there is coal. This is unfortunate, for liquid oil is easy to pump out of the ground once it has been discovered, and it is very easy to ship and to use. In many ways it is the

Inspecting oil pipe lines in two very different parts of the world—Saudi Arabia and Colombia.





handiest of energy sources. We can pump oil through pipe lines, carry it in ships, and store it in tanks. It is cleaner than coal and easier to handle. It is small wonder that businessmen and whole nations scramble for oil.

Because oil is hard to find, we do not know for sure just which countries have the most of it. The United States has an estimated reserve of twenty-five billion barrels. It uses so much oil every day that its reserves may not last many years longer. The Soviet Union has not been as thoroughly drilled for oil as has the United States. It is possible, though not certain, that it may have more oil in reserve.

Some Latin American countries produce much oil. Venezuela is the leader of them. The islands of Indonesia are another oil-rich area. But the jack pot, to the best of our knowledge, lies in the troubled part of the world which we speak of as the Middle East. What we now believe to be the greatest reserve of oil in the world lies around the Persian Gulf, in Iran, in Iraq, and on the Arabian Peninsula. The countries that own this oil do not use very much of it, since they have few industries and few automobiles. The great powers are eager for this oil. In an automobile oil reduces friction, but in politics oil increases friction. It seems unfortunate that so precious a fuel should be found in such vast quantities in what was already a hot spot in world affairs. But "oil is where you find it." We shall learn more about the countries of the Middle East when we study "the Moslem world" in a later chapter.

Substitutes for petroleum. Many important countries have no natural oil within their boundaries. Great Britain, France, Germany, Japan, and China either have no oil or have so little that it does not begin to satisfy their needs. They have met their needs mainly by imports. But the dream of producing liquid fuel from some other source is one that has been in men's minds a long time.

Here and there in the world are beds of a black rock known as oil shale. There is no liquid oil in oil shale, but if the rock is heated, liquid oil is formed. Shale oil, as the liquid oil is called, has been produced in several parts of the world, including Scotland and Manchuria. It is more expensive than petroleum. The shale must be quarried or mined and then treated. Petroleum is simply pumped out of the ground. But if oil becomes scarcer it will cost more, and oil shales may help fill the demand. The United States has great oil-shale beds in the Rocky Mountain states.

Liquid oil can be made from natural gas and also from coal. German chemists, living in an industrial country with no oil of its own, were the first to develop large-scale methods of turning coal into oil. Coal is much more abundant and widespread than oil. This process of turning coal into oil may in time mean that coal will become the principal source of liquid fuel. Coal from the great coal beds of the American plains may be turned into oil and piped to market.

These substitutes for petroleum make it certain that there will be some kind of liquid fuel for many centuries. But to turn from natural oil to these other sources requires new machinery and more man power. All this means higher prices, probably. Time will be needed to develop the new industry. The United States, which is more dependent upon oil than any other great nation, must look ahead and plan for the day when its natural supply of liquid fuel is no longer sufficient.

White coal. Water power is a very strange source of energy. Once harnessed, it runs on forever. It is never exhausted, like coal mines or oil fields. Modern power plants built along streams make use of water power to generate electrical power. But so far we have not found an efficient way to send electricity more than two or three hundred miles from the plant. Some power is used up in transmitting the rest through the wires. If power must travel very

long distances, more is used up in transmission than is left over at the end of the line. The situation reminds one of the Chinese who set out with a pack of food to help his hungry relatives, beyond the mountains. When he arrived his pack was empty, for he had eaten all the food on the way.

A few of the choice water-power sites of the world lie near great markets for electricity. One of them is Niagara Falls. But some are far from civilization. There is a great waterfall in the interior of Labrador—Hamilton Falls on the Hamilton River. The world's greatest water-power resources are in equatorial Africa. There the Congo River, large because of equatorial rains, comes down from the African plateau.

Someday these vast sources of electrical energy may be in use, perhaps for refining metals in large quantities. Not many years ago it seemed beyond belief that the great rivers of the western United States—the Columbia, the Colorado, and others—would ever be harnessed. Later, when they were harnessed, people wondered if there would be any market for so much energy. But cheap energy is something that often creates its own market, for industries will be attracted to its source.

White coal from falling water has played a very important part in industrializing countries like Norway, Switzerland, and Japan, where coal is scarce and swift streams are common. But unless some new ways to transmit and use electricity are developed, the world will always need coal and liquid fuel, too.

New sources of energy. The great powers of the past were those with many people. The Industrial Revolution added coal as a requirement for great national strength. Supplies of iron were necessary. Access to petroleum then became important. The scientific world moves so rapidly that one does not dare to predict what will be important next. A few centuries ago coal was used only for heating, if at all. Petroleum was an ointment for sores. Only a century ago the people of Buffalo, a few miles from Niagara Falls, complained that their city had no water power to turn its gristmill. Niagara seemed too big for man to use. Today we are writing and reading about coal, oil, and water power. But we may wake up any morning to find that some new major source of energy has been added to our list.

Atomic energy already has been tapped. The words uranium and thorium have been added to everyday speech. Long before this book wears out, atomic energy may be in common peacetime use, especially in parts of the world which lack coal, oil, and water power. We know full well that the great powers of the future must be able to make atomic bombs unless some method of international control is worked out.

There may be new sources of energy that are cheaper and safer than atoms. For example, there is the direct use of the sun's heat. One major problem is how to store up the sun's energy for night and for cloudy days. If an efficient way to use the sun's heat is found, we may see centers of industry shifting toward the tropical deserts. There the sun today sends its burning rays upon almost unpopulated lands. Whether we use coal, oil, water power, atoms, or sunshine to turn the wheels, we can be sure that the command of these sources of energy will be important in world affairs.

Multiplying man power. The reason that energy resources are so important in world affairs is that their use multiplies a nation's man power. One man with a machine may do as much work as a hundred or a thousand can do by hand. In fact, one man with a machine can do some things that a thousand or even a million men could never do. A great ship like the *Queen Elizabeth* could never be moved by oars because there would not be room on the ship for all the oarsmen. But a single engineer can turn the valve that sets such a ship in motion.

During World War II it was easy to see how the use of mechanical energy multiplied

man power. For example, the United States mobilized eleven million into its armed forces, and twenty million workers were engaged in war production. Yet there were enough workers left to produce food and the other essentials of life for the entire nation.

But we should not be blind believers in the ability of machines to do everything. We read about "electronic brains" that can solve mathematical problems faster than a thousand human beings could. But it took a human brain to design the "electronic brain," and it takes a human brain to tell it what problems to solve. We read of "push-button weapons" to defend our country in case of war. It took men to design and build those weapons. It takes a man to push the button. And some man must decide whether to push the button. Machines can help us very greatly, but there is no substitute for human brains and judgment in the last analysis.

Industrial snowballs. If you have ever watched a modern factory being built, it may have seemed as though Aladdin rubbed his lamp and the genie brought the factory out of a cloud. So rapidly are goods and buildings produced nowadays that we forget how much time it took to build up industry in the first place.

Industrialization is something like rolling a snowball. We begin with a fistful of snow, and while the ball is small, it grows slowly. But the bigger the ball gets, the more snow it picks up every time it rolls over. So it is with what we could call "the industrial plant" of a nation. It took a good many years to build early factories and the machines that were in them. Now, with machines to make machines and with factories built of standardized parts, we can put up colossal plants in a few months. It took a good many years, also, to save the money for the early factories. Now it is much easier to raise money for new construction and more machinery.

Nations like China are just beginning to roll their industrial snowballs. It is a slow process for them to acquire the industrial plant they need for modern life. But a country that has rolled up a big snowball of industrial plants cannot stop there. It may fall behind if it does not keep its plants modern in every respect. Great Britain was the first country to become industrialized, and it made great profits from its head start. This was one reason Great Britain was such a great power in the nineteenth century. But Britain let much of its industrial plant grow old and so faced the expensive job of modernizing it. The United States is the greatest industrial power today; but the United States, though it has on the whole very modern factories, could fall behind if it became self-satisfied.

Strength from Skill and Morale

The strength of a nation is not merely a matter of size, population, or mechanical energy. There are other things that enter in, too. They cannot be expressed in figures. One of these is popularly called know-how.

The importance of know-how. Know-how means the skills and knowledge that people have acquired. A good deal of know-how can be learned in schools and universities, but much of it is picked up in other ways. Farm boys learn to milk cows and to drive tractors. City boys may learn a little about business from delivering papers or shoveling snow, and they see buildings erected and automobiles repaired.

Education in schools and colleges increases our know-how. Anybody can watch a doctor take a patient's temperature and, by imitating him, be able to do the same thing. But without a doctor's education, he can't tell what a fever means or how to treat it. Most of us learn to drive automobiles, though we don't always learn the safest ways to drive, but only a trained engineer can design an automobile.

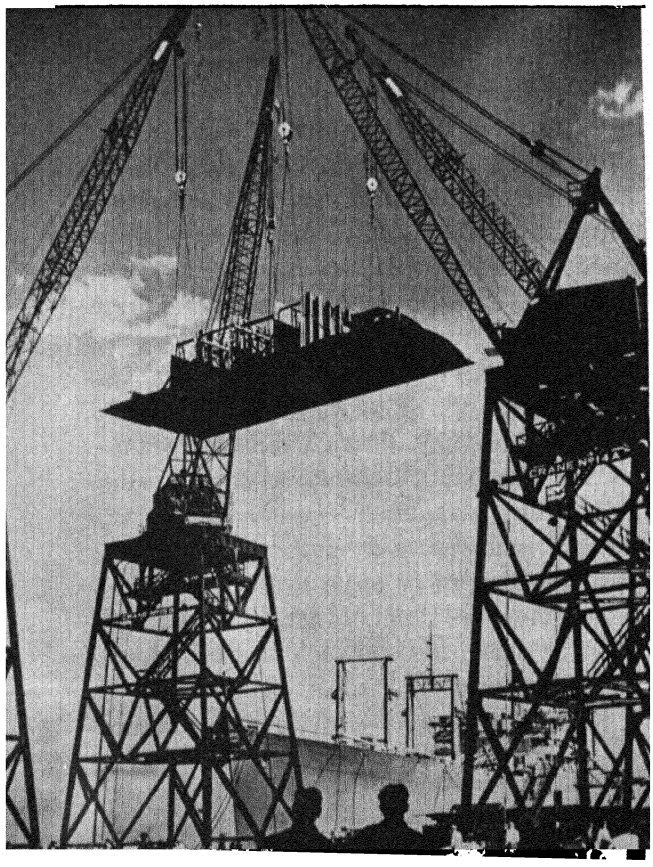
Know-how is part of the general culture of a country. We speak of "modern" or

"modernized" countries where mechanical and scientific skill are common. It is not difficult to train a single person in some modern skill. But it takes longer- perhaps a generation or more– before an entire country can shift from simple hand methods to complicated mechanical and scientific methods.

The United States is blessed with an immense amount of mechanical know-how. On the other hand, the United States has been very poor in another kind of knowledge. That is the know-how of diplomacy and world affairs. Americans have been ignorant of foreign peoples and of the right ways to deal with them. It has almost seemed as though Americans thought the rest of the world did not exist or, if it existed, did not have to be thought about. To increase its know-how of world affairs– of world politics, trade, history, and geography—is one of the great needs of the United States.

These cranes in a New Jersey shipyard are lifting a 65-ton section that will form part of a ship's "ground floor." Figuring out how to do all this took mechanical know-how.

Ewing Galloway



The importance of organization. Organization is important in national strength, too. We certainly couldn't last very long without it. For instance, think about the elaborate organization that provided your breakfast this morning. The orange you may have eaten was grown by an orchardist, who earns his other food by growing and selling his fruit. Probably he had to buy fertilizer that came from a distant factory, and he may have irrigated his trees with water from a distant river. He sold his fruit to a wholesale dealer, who sold and delivered it to a retail store, from which it was sold and maybe delivered to you. And another organization, the sanitary branch of the town or city government, may have carted away the empty peeling. Farming, manufacturing, transportation, and government had to work together to give you your morning vitamins.

Sometimes we may feel that modern life is too well organized, that we would like to be on a tropical island where all the clocks had stopped. But most of us are so used to having things on time, to expecting the five o'clock "soap opera" to come on at five o'clock, that we probably would find our dream island a bore and an annoyance. Whether we like it or not, civilization (and hardly any of us could survive without civilization) depends upon organization. A great problem of modern life is to combine organization with liberty and individual rights. We have seen the evil results of the Nazi system, in which the individual was completely swallowed by the organization. We want the world organized for peace, but we want it a peace of freedom, not of slavery.

Morale. The last item of national strength we shall consider is morale. This word is hard to define, but most of us know what it means. Among other things, morale includes confidence, determination, and high spirit. Morale was about all the British had after France fell to the Germans in 1940—

morale and a very fine navy and air force. Without good morale, all the coal, oil, machinery, and know-how a nation may have are of no use. The word morale looks like moral, and though the two words don't mean exactly the same thing, people who have high moral standards are likely to have steady morale.

To be honest, however, we must admit that morale is not enough by itself. No one thing can explain national strength. We have to try to think of everything in combination if we want to think about the modern world. We have to consider area, population, resources, morale, and the rest. This is a great bother. It is much easier to blame everything on communism, or on capitalism, or on the humidity, or on the movies. The big problem in the social studies, such as geography and history, is how to bring together all the things that are important without creating confusion. This is much harder on the writers of books than it is on you, so be patient with us.

A giant's strength. When we talk about the things that go to make up national strength, it may seem as if we were measuring the muscles of fighters about to enter the ring. It is unhappily true that nations have spent far too much of their strength on wars. The world would be a richer place if they had not. It is unhappily true, also, that a great nation today must devote much of its strength to building up the means of defense. It must do this if only to make sure that it will be let alone.

But we need not think of national strength in terms of war alone. The strength of nations can be used for world progress along many lines. As mankind is now organized, world affairs, for the most part, take place between or among national governments. If there is peace, it is because strong nations desire it. If trade increases, it is because nations use their strength to encourage and develop it. True world government will come only when strong nations are ready to accept it. Physical, mental, or financial strength gives a man both power and responsibility. It should be the same with nations. Their people should learn those lines from Shakespeare which we mentioned earlier:

> O, it is excellent
> To have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous
> To use it like a giant.

In Union There Is Strength

We have been talking about countries as if they were feudal noblemen—each living alone behind the walls of his castle, in mortal fear of the others and trusting only his own armed men. Unfortunately, there is a good deal of truth in this imaginary picture. Nations are forced to have castle walls in the form of armies and navies and to keep their armor handy. This is certainly not the ideal way for people to live. Hardly anyone wants war, yet all live in fear of it.

It is not good for man to live alone, says the Bible. It is not good for nations to live alone, either, but it seems to be hard for them to get together. Nevertheless, history has many records of nations working together. For instance, they formed the Universal Postal Union so letters could be sent cheaply and easily anywhere in the world that transportation could reach. Now and then we read in history of a customs union, in which countries lower or drop their tariff barriers so that trade can flow more freely among them.

Alliances. By far the commonest type of get-together among countries has been the kind called an alliance. Nations are stronger standing together than standing alone. Alliances are not necessarily good or bad. It depends upon what the strength is used for.

We can't judge the strength of an alliance simply by adding up the areas, populations, and resources of the countries that join it. Sometimes the combined strength will be more than just the sum. This is the case when Canada and the United States, for example, work together on problems of defense. The two countries together make a

solid block from the Bering Strait to the Gulf of Mexico; and their railroad, highway, and airway systems are tied together like a gigantic net. On the other hand, alliances may be weaker than they appear if the countries that join them do not support each other wholeheartedly. Hitler forced some of the small countries of Europe to become his allies, but they did so with little enthusiasm and added little to his strength.

If there is strength in union, why is the United Nations weak? Adding up the areas, populations, resources, and armed forces of members of the United Nations, we reach a colossal total. The United Nations, acting together, could make the world as peaceful as a pasture. We know why this is not so. We know the world has two great centers of power, the United States and the Soviet Union. We know that these two countries have different ideas about how the world should be run. For the present—and perhaps for as long as we live—the United Nations is actually the Divided Nations. There is no need to be discouraged by this if we take a long view. We have said that if we called the time man has lived on earth one hour, civilization has existed less than a minute. The countries of the world first formed a world organization to preserve peace in 1919—only a split second ago. It is too soon to quit trying.

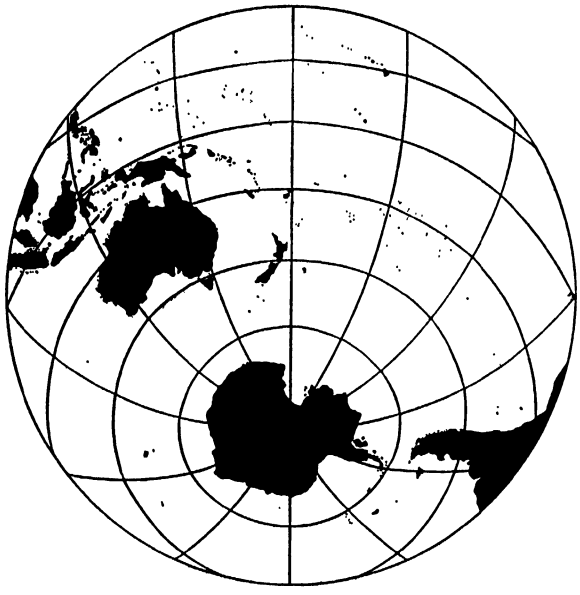
About the future. Where the world is heading is anybody's guess. The writers of this book have no crystal ball to tell them what lies in the future. One guess—and it is only a guess—is based on these facts: The United States, for all its power, contains only 6 percent of the world's people. The Soviet Union, mighty though it is, has only 9 percent. Together, these two great powers have less than one-sixth of the world's population. Because they are well organized and have great resources, they influence greatly the affairs of the world. But the other five-sixths of the world's people cannot be ignored. Most of them live in what we call the coastlands of Eurasia, especially in the Far East, India, and Europe. What these other five-sixths do may determine how world affairs move. They would like to know that the United States will trade with them (and that means buy their products). They would like to know that the United States will stand back of them when they are in trouble. They would like to be convinced that Americans really believe in equality of rights for all human beings. Then the world may move toward the kind of United Nations that Americans want. A point to remember is that other countries judge the United States much more by what it does than by what it talks of doing.

LOOKING AT THE WORLD

We—most of us who read this book, at least—say we live in the Western Hemisphere. We also say that we live in the Northern Hemisphere. Nobody is puzzled by the fact that we live in the Western Hemisphere and the Northern Hemisphere at the same time. It is just a matter of how we look at the globe. If we look at the globe with the North Pole right in front of our eyes, we see the Northern Hemisphere. It isn't so easy, however, to decide how to hold the globe so as to see only the Western Hemisphere. There isn't a "West Pole." It is difficult to view the globe so that only the Americas are visible. Nearly always we find a corner of Asia, Europe, or Africa visible, too.

How Many Hemispheres?

We live in many more hemispheres than just the Western and Northern. In fact, one can cut the world in two in an endless number of ways, and we always, of necessity,



The Water Hemisphere.



The Land Hemisphere.

find ourselves on one half or the other. There are some ways of cutting the earth in two which produce interesting halves.

Land and Water hemispheres. Turn the globe so that you are looking straight at a point in the South Pacific Ocean a bit south and east of New Zealand. What do you see? Mostly the Pacific Ocean. There is some land around the edges—Australia, Antarctica, and fringes of other continents—but practically all of this hemisphere is water. Geographers call it the Water Hemisphere.

If the earth has a Water Hemisphere, one might guess that there is also a Land Hemisphere. Turn the globe until you are looking at a point in western Europe somewhat southwest of Paris. What you see is not all land, for the Atlantic Ocean cuts through the middle of it. But you do see all of Europe, all of Africa and North America, large parts of Asia, and some of South America. The Atlantic appears as a wide channel between continents, not as a great round ocean like the Pacific.

In an earlier part of this chapter, we learned that both fertility of land and size of population are important in political geography. Which main areas of great population can be seen when we look at the Land Hemisphere? These are also major areas of fertile land. Naturally, there must be more mineral wealth available to man in the Land Hemisphere than in the Water Hemisphere. It is easy for us to understand why an author writing about the Air Age called the Land Hemisphere the "principal hemisphere."

Is there an American hemisphere? The hemisphere most familiar to us, and the one that is most often mentioned in the newspapers, is the Western Hemisphere. But actually, is there one? We have already found it hard to turn the globe so that only the Americas are visible. We are in still more trouble if we think of a Western Hemisphere as centered in the United States. If we turn the globe so that the United States is directly in front of our eyes, we discover that a portion of South America is not in this "United States Hemisphere." We see that all of Europe, much of the Soviet Union, and a part of Africa are included. If we measure distances with a string, we find that a city in the eastern United States, like New York, is nearer to

Moscow than it is to Buenos Aires, and that a western city, like San Francisco, is nearer to Japan than it is to Chile.

The idea that they lived in a Western Hemisphere gave many Americans a comfortable feeling of being cut off from the troubles of Europe and Asia—until the day of Pearl Harbor. Then they learned that oceans could unite as well as divide. A Japanese fleet could cross two-thirds of the broad Pacific in secrecy and deliver a crushing attack. Less than a year later, we saw how narrow the Atlantic Ocean is when Allied troops were landed in North Africa. Two years after that, American troops returned to the Philippine Islands. Whoever controls the oceans of the world can send armies across them.

Even though there is no isolated Western Hemisphere, the countries of the Americas need to work together. They should work together for the very reason that they are not cut off from the rest of the world. They are close to it, and so they are mixed up in its affairs. Acting together they can be stronger than acting separately, and the safety of one is of concern to all the others.

Some important hemispheres. We can learn a good deal about the world by turning the globe so that we look at various halves of it. Some of its hemispheres have more importance than others. The Land Hemisphere, we have seen, contains most of the people, crops, and resources of the world. The Northern Hemisphere is centered on the Arctic Ocean, which appears where it really is, between North America and Eurasia. On ordinary maps centered on the equator, the Arctic is spread out unnaturally as a fringe along the top. The Northern Hemisphere is ringed by the busiest transportation routes of the world. These are the North Atlantic, with steamers running almost like ferry boats; the railroads, highways, and airways across the United States and Canada; the transpacific routes to the Far East; and the seaways and airways from Europe to southern Asia, by way of the Mediterranean and middle eastern lands. But no matter how we divide the world into hemispheres, we must never forget that there is really only one world. The seaways and the airways bind all the hemispheres together.

Other Ways to Look at the World

Even though we do live in one world, we have to divide it up if we are to learn much about it. We can learn many things by studying the globe, but we must go step by step over the earth's surface if we are to find out the details. It is like the difference between flying and walking. Flying is a quick and exciting way to travel, and we see vast stretches of the earth at one glance. But if we want to know details and get acquainted with people, we must come down to earth and walk around.

Dividing the world. How shall we divide the world for the rest of our study? To take up each country individually, we would have to learn all about seventy or eighty separate pieces. It is likely that the result would be a mixed-up jigsaw puzzle in our minds. We want some pattern or grouping which will show us how the puzzle parts of the political world fit together. Here and on the next few pages we shall describe the pattern adopted for this book. It is not the only possible grouping, nor is it necessarily the best. But it serves our purpose, and we hope it will be clear.

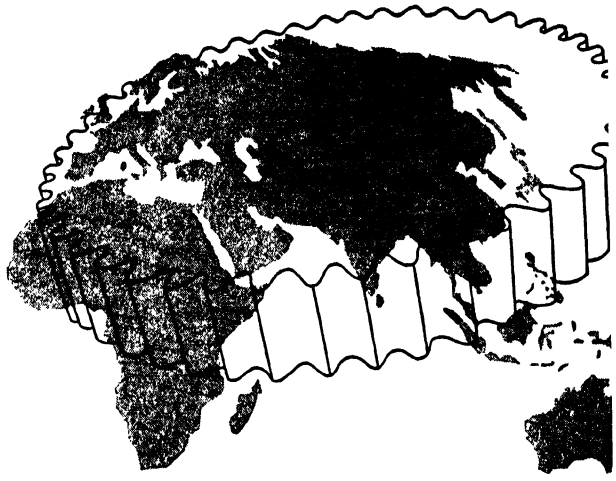
We shall begin with the Soviet Union, for several reasons. It is by far the largest country of the world in area. It lies in the center of the combined continents of Europe and Asia, or Eurasia, the largest and most populous of the land masses of the earth. It is a country in which we feel a great interest. In world affairs it often has stood opposed to the United States and Great Britain. Since World War II the United States and the Soviet Union have been the two poles of world politics.

Since we have decided to begin with the Soviet Union, the logical next step is to study the lands which surround it. These lands extend outward from Eurasia like gigantic teeth on a colossal gear wheel. The first tooth, starting on the west, is Europe. The Mediterranean Sea, a gap between the lands, likewise commands our attention. Then we turn to the great belt of dry lands that extends from Afghanistan westward across North Africa to Morocco on the Atlantic. Because most of the people in this dry belt are Mohammedans, or Moslems, we shall call it the Moslem world. South of the Moslem world, and south of the Sahara Desert, lie Central and South Africa—the largest of all the teeth on our gear wheel.

From Africa we shall move eastward to the most toothlike of all our peninsulas, India. Eastward from India, enclosing the Indian Ocean on the east side, is a jagged tooth called southeastern Asia. Its coast line is almost as irregular as that of Europe. The islands of the East Indies and the Philippines will be considered part of southeastern Asia.

Finally, we move farther eastward to the Far East, which to dwellers in North America is really in the west. China forms the huge rounded tooth of the Far East, and Korea a smaller and sharper one. The Japanese islands lie offshore.

The idea of the coastlands. All the lands we have described as teeth on the Eurasian gear wheel, with the exception of Central and South Africa, have one thing in common. That is their location. They are the coastlands of Eurasia. It is true that they have many differences. They differ in climate, in products, in peoples, and in religions. They are not united politically. But they do have something in common in world politics. On their landward side is the Soviet Union, one of the two great centers of world power. In the other direction they face the oceans, and across the oceans lies the United States, the other very great power. So they are "in-between lands" in



Showing the irregular coasts of Eurasia.

world politics, and every reader of newspapers knows that their names appear in the headlines very often. In addition, they are by far the most populous part of the world. Nearly three-fourths of the people of the globe live in the coastlands of Eurasia. Europe, India, and the Far East are the most densely populated parts of these coastlands. The Moslem world, because of dryness, and southeastern Asia, in part because of too much moisture, have fewer people. The coastland countries could largely control the world if they pulled together and were industrialized. Instead, they are divided and weak. All are drawn to one or the other of the well-organized great powers, the United States or the Soviet Union.

Coastlands and Interior through History

The distinction we have just made between the interior of Eurasia and the coastlands calls attention to a geographical fact that helps to explain many historical events. The coastlands of Eurasia contain three of the very productive and desirable parts of the world—Europe, India, and China. The interior of Eurasia is, on the whole, less productive, more subject to drought, and less able to support large, settled populations. Until modern times, much of the

interior of Eurasia was the home of restless nomads, who from time to time broke out into the coastlands on raids and conquests. On the other hand, the farmers of the coastlands gradually pushed inland. They began to farm the land in the more humid parts of the interior.

In Eurasia. This conflict between interior and coastlands is well shown in Chinese history. The Great Wall was built more than two thousand years ago to keep the nomads of Mongolia out of settled, agricultural China. Several times in the course of history, the nomads were able to break through the wall, and some of them remained in China as rulers for many years. On the other hand, when the Chinese were strong, they went beyond the Great Wall and conquered and ruled the nomads.

In a very similar way, India has been invaded several times by nomadic peoples who swept into that country from the northwest. The Roman Empire was attacked repeatedly by wandering peoples. Later, in the fifth century A.D., the Huns raided Europe. The Mongols ruled what is now Russia in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Then the Turks, who originally came from inner Eurasia, occupied Asia Minor. They captured Constantinople in 1453 A.D., and for a long time they ruled the Danube Valley almost up to Vienna.

On the other hand, the people we now call Russians moved in the reverse direction, from Europe toward Asia. They first extended their farms into the forests of northeastern Europe. Finally they pushed back and conquered the nomads and established their own rule over most of interior Eurasia. From this central location, as we shall learn in the next chapter, the Russians themselves have pushed outward against the coastlands. This was partly due to a desire for ports as the Russians became more and more interested in the sea.

In the Americas. We who live in the Americas have in our homelands nothing like this contrast between the coastlands and the interior. True, the larger American countries, the United States, Canada, and Brazil, have vast interiors. But there is no conflict between interior and coast like that which has marked the history of Eurasia. This may be due in part to the smaller size of the Americas, but history has probably been more important. The modern history of the Americas begins with the crossing of the Atlantic by Europeans. Later, they moved inland and either conquered or drove back the native inhabitants. It was always the colonists on the coasts who pushed in. There was never an interior force of Indian peoples able to push outward.

The narrow seas. It was an English custom to call the Atlantic Ocean west of the British Isles the high seas. The enclosed waters around the British Isles, such as the English Channel, were called the narrow seas. We shall learn later that the strength of the British Empire rested in part upon the ability of the British Navy to bottle up enemy fleets by controlling the narrow seas.

We can borrow this term, the narrow seas, and apply it to the many bodies of water which lie between the teeth of our Eurasian gear wheel. No other lands of the world are cut so deeply by seas as are the coastlands of Eurasia. They are cut by the North, the Baltic, the Mediterranean, the Black, and the Red seas. Then there come the Persian Gulf, with its oil fields, the Arabian Sea, and the Bay of Bengal. Along the coasts of southeastern and eastern Asia is a whole series of seas—the South China, the East China, the Japan, the Okhotsk, and the Bering.

Each of these seas has its history, and the gateways to them, or key points in the control of them, are of great importance to the nations of the world. For instance, whoever holds the Strait of Gibraltar, the western entrance to the Mediterranean Sea, can keep ships from either entering or leaving the Mediterranean. Whoever controls the Suez Canal, at the eastern entrance of the Mediterranean, can do the same. The

nation that holds or controls the city of Singapore, at the tip of the Malay Peninsula, can tie up shipping passing between the Indian and Pacific oceans through the East Indies.

In peacetime, ships entering the waters near places like Gibraltar and Singapore come mainly for trade. But in wartime, they come to attack and fight. Whatever nation is then in command of Gibraltar or Singapore, or some similar place, has a great advantage. Such a nation is in a position to block enemy ships in large and important areas in the world.

Men who make naval or military plans for use in wartime, or, in other words, plan naval or military *strategy*, keep places like Gibraltar in mind. And because holding such points is an advantage to anyone making plans or developing strategy, we call them *strategic* points.

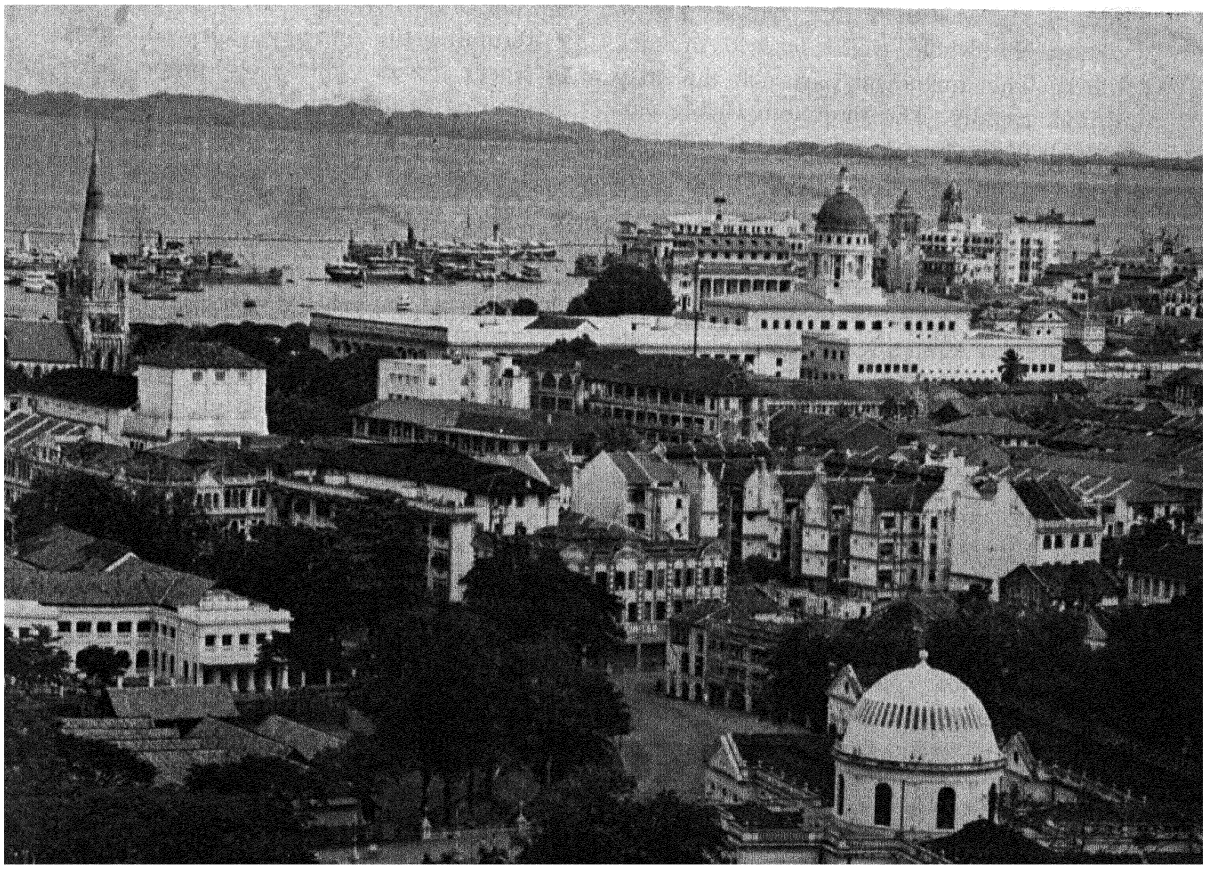
Because the Eurasian coastlands are cut so deeply by many seas, they are just as much under the influence of the great sea powers as of the great land powers. Great Britain was, and the United States now is, the chief sea power. The coastlands are "in-between lands." This is not only because of their general location in the world but also because of their position between sea and interior.

Lands and Seas

The earliest civilizations were in river valleys in Egypt, Mesopotamia, India, and China. Each of these river valleys, we shall learn, was somewhat cut off from the land around and so had some natural unity. Each had some natural protection which helped civilizations to rise. Long before the time of Christ, however, sea states had

The city of Singapore on the island of the same name. This city has been called the Gibraltar of the East.

Deane Dickason from Ewing Galloway



begun to grow and prosper. For as man progressed from canoes and rafts to rowing or sailing ships, his ability to move cargoes and armies increased. Even in this day of railroads, motorcars, and airplanes, the cheapest way to transport large numbers of men or large supplies of goods is by ship.

The Greeks, though rather few in number, were able with their merchant and naval fleets to control much of the Mediterranean. The Romans are famous for their roads, but they built ships, too, and made the Mediterranean their highway. The Chinese, long experienced in river boating, also made coastal voyages in their awkward but seaworthy junks. But, of course, the flowering of the Sea Age came with the voyages of Columbus to the Americas and Vasco da Gama to India in the fifteenth century.

The modern history of the Americas begins, we have said, with the great voyages of discovery. And so do the modern histories of India and the Far East. The period of discovery was one of the most important in history. It was then that the peoples of almost the whole world learned of each other. The unknown parts of the map shrank rapidly. The most remarkable outgrowth of the Sea Age was the British Empire. It gained possessions on every continent and was held together by the British Navy, the merchant fleet, and an endless flow of trade over the seaways leading to various parts of the world.

Is the Sea Age ended? The railroad, the motorcar, and the motor truck have made land transportation much faster and more convenient than before. The airplane can carry only relatively small loads. But it is the speed king over both land and sea. Ships can carry large loads cheaply but in other ways have rivals. This raises two questions: Is the Sea Age ended? Is a new Land Age or a brand-new Air Age beginning?

Both of those questions are too big and too complicated for yes or no answers. Today there is a good deal of argument about the future importance of land power, sea power, and air power. If we are talking about commerce, then it is certain that the sea will remain important, particularly for bulky freight. New York and Texas are on the same continent, with fine railroads and airways between them, but Texas oil moves to New York by tanker, on the sea. Airplanes may capture most of the mail and passenger business and some of the freight, but the bulk of the world's goods will continue to move on the surface, as it does now.

But when we talk of land, sea, and air power, usually we mean power for possible war. Even here we have to watch our words. Are we thinking of the transportation of war supplies? Or do we mean ways of actually carrying on fighting? Few people will deny that surface transportation of supplies by land and sea is likely to remain important. Perhaps it will sum things up to say that the world is now in the "Air-Land-Sea-Undersea Age." The sea surface is still important, but the naval powers no longer have the great advantage they had in the full tide of the Sea Age.

Resuming the journey. One who lives in North America thinks of Europe, Asia, and Africa as the "lands overseas." But, of course, to the people in Eurasia, and especially to those in the coastlands of that double continent, "lands overseas" has another meaning. To them, lands overseas are the lands that were revealed for the first time by the great voyages of discovery of Columbus and others.

We shall resume our journey through the political world by voyaging on the oceans and examining the islands they contain. We shall begin with the largest ocean, the Pacific. We shall visit among its many islands until we come to the largest "island," the continent of Australia. Although Australia is separated from the East Indies only by narrow seas, most of its people live in the south. They are of such different race and culture from the people of the Indies that we give them a distinct place. New

Zealand, another dominion of the Commonwealth of Nations, will be studied. Then we'll take up the Indian, Atlantic, and Arctic oceans and also the icebound Antarctic continent.

Finally, we shall reach the Americas, where we shall first study Latin America. Then we'll end our journey through "the geography of world affairs" by studying the United States and Canada, which most of us call home.

Lines on the World's Face

In the process of getting acquainted with the world, we first looked at the hemispheres. Then we started in the heart of Eurasia, considered its coastlands, and moved from there to Australia and the Americas. We have been chiefly concerned with the location and shape of the continents. Now we shall consider climate, vegetation, and landforms. These things enter world affairs directly (as where a mountain range forms a political boundary) or indirectly because they influence the supply of food and the growth of population.

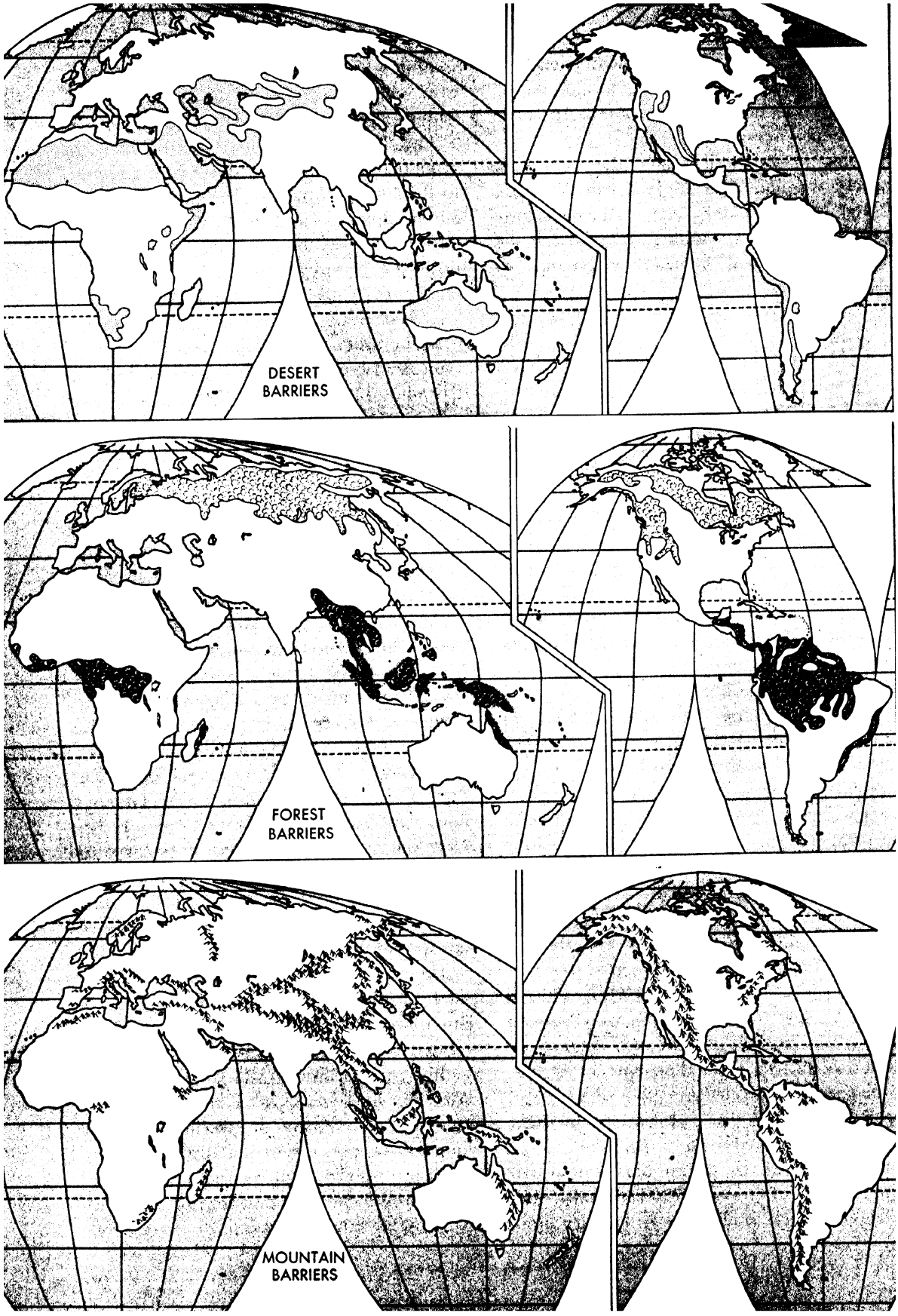
Desert barriers. The largest desert of the world stretches across North Africa from the Atlantic Ocean to the Red Sea. It separates the Arabic peoples of the Mediterranean coast from the Negro peoples of Central Africa. So great a barrier is the Sahara Desert that Central Africa trades with the rest of the world almost entirely by sea. One can fly over the Sahara and motor across it with difficulty, but there is no railroad or surfaced road across it.

The Sahara is immense—the United States could be lost in it—but it is only part of a much larger belt of dry land. Beyond the Red Sea, eastward, are the deserts of Arabia. Still farther eastward are those of Iraq and Iran. The deserts are broken, to be sure, by a few irrigated valleys, such as that of the Nile, and by mountains on whose slopes and summits more rain falls. But except for such breaks, the belt of dry lands continues eastward. It extends through the southernmost lands of Soviet Asia, into Mongolia, and as far as the Great Wall of China—almost to the Pacific Ocean.

This dry belt, extending a third of the way around the world, from the Atlantic almost to the Pacific, was one of the great barriers of the ancient and medieval worlds. In Africa it kept Europeans and Negroes apart until the Europeans learned to follow the sea route around the Sahara. In Asia it kept Europeans and Asiatics apart through most of history. The lands we think of as typically European lie north and west of the dry and rugged interior of Eurasia. Those we think of as typically Asiatic, like India and China, lie south and east.

In a few times and places, people crossed this great barrier belt between Europe and Asia. The short-lived Mongol Empire united most of the heart of Asia under one rule. During this period, Marco Polo journeyed from Italy to China. The lands about the eastern end of the Mediterranean have always been a middle ground between Europe and Asia. There the dry belt is narrowed by seas cutting into it. Mountain ranges and rivers have provided water for chains of settlements. There, since 1869, ships have passed the desert through the Suez Canal. A railroad connects Istanbul and Baghdad, and air-conditioned busses cross the Syrian Desert. Pipe lines carry oil from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean Sea. Airways from Europe to India, Australia, and the Far East cross this political hot spot of the Middle East.

There are no other dry lands so vast or so important as the one we have just described. But there are others. Those in the western United States are crisscrossed by railroads, highways, and airways. The desert heart of Australia handicaps that continent heavily, and indirectly bears on world affairs by limiting the population that can live there. Besides these desert areas, there are deserts that are locally important in southern Africa and South America.


DESERT
BARRIERS
FOREST
BARRIERS
MOUNTAIN
BARRIERS

Forest barriers. Thick, heavy forests have played somewhat the same role as deserts in marking out the major regions of the earth. To the Romans, the forests of northern Europe seemed gloomy and frightful. The mounted nomads of central Asia, unbeatable on the grassy plains, were slowed down to a walk when they entered the forests. The equatorial forests, with their dense vegetation, insect pests, and tropical diseases, swallowed up many an explorer and would-be settler. The northern forests grow for the most part in climates too severe and on soil too poor to justify clearing for farms.

Looking only at the major forest features, we see that there are two important forest belts on the earth. One belt is near the equator. Its two largest portions lie in the valley of the Amazon in South America and in the valley of the Congo in Central Africa. The Amazon forest tends to divide Latin America into two parts. One part faces the Caribbean Sea and Gulf of Mexico, and the other lies in temperate South America, south of the equatorial forest belt. The forests of Central Africa, backing up the Sahara Desert, make South Africa seem almost like an island. As a matter of fact, the sea voyage from London to Capetown is nearly twice as long as that from London to New York.

The other great forest belt covers the lands of the earth in high northern latitudes. It is separated from the shores of the Arctic Ocean by a narrow belt of grassland, or tundra. From the southern edge of the tundra, forests extend south to the cultivated lands of Canada and of the Soviet Union. People do not care to settle in this great northern forest belt. This is not so much because of its trees as because it has a cold climate and infertile soils, and it is hard to get to.

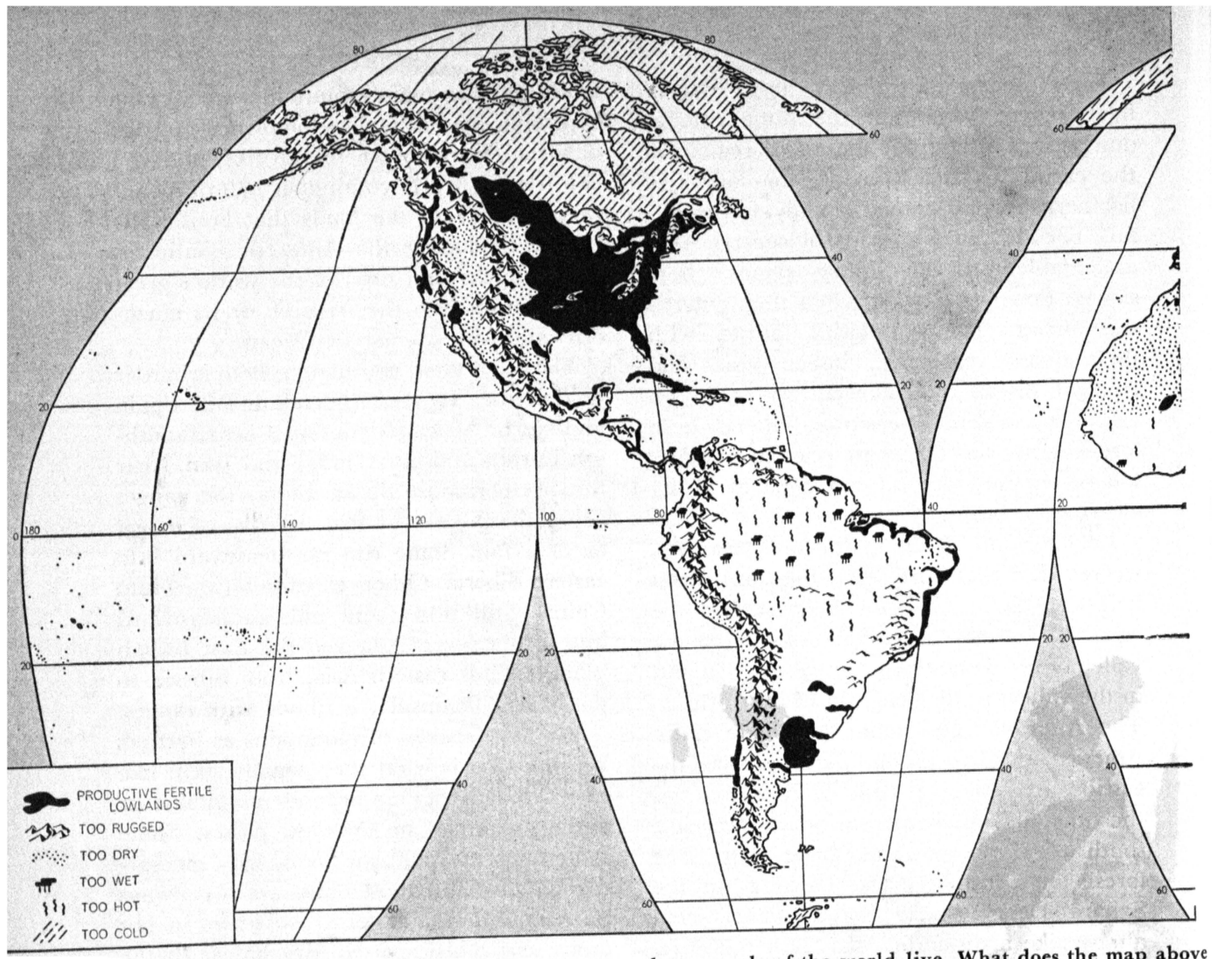
Mountain barriers. The great mountain systems will be the next feature of the world's geography to be examined. Speaking in a general way, we can say that the world has two main mountain systems. One surrounds the Pacific like the turned-up edge of a pie. Start anywhere you like, and you can trace a nearly continuous belt of mountains around all the lands that border the Pacific, including the Antarctic continent. One result is that most of the world's great plains drain into the Atlantic or its northern extension—the Arctic Ocean.

The other great mountain system is harder to describe. Its western ends are in Spain and North Africa. It continues across southern Europe and into Turkey and Iran. Near the northernmost tip of India, the ranges begin to spread out like the ribs of a leaf or of a fan. Some run northeastward into eastern Siberia. Others extend eastward into China. Still others fan out southeastward into southeastern Asia and the East Indian islands. Thus eastern Asia, from Siberia to the Malay Peninsula, is ribbed with ranges.

We have spoken of mountains as barriers because that is what they usually seem like to us. Roads detour around mountains or gather together in the low passes. Some mountains are political boundaries separating nations. But mountains are not always barriers. Mountains form cool spots in hot lands and moist spots in dry lands. In the equatorial Andes in Peru was one of the most advanced civilizations of ancient America. Mountains may yield metals to the prospector, as they did in Colorado. Many mountain ranges now swarm with tourists summer and winter.

The fertile lowlands. Take a map of the lands of the earth. Mark out the deserts, the great forests, the major mountains, and the frosty north. What is there left? Surprisingly little, as a matter of fact. An astonishing amount of the earth's surface is too dry, too hot and wet, too rugged, or too cold for dense settlement. The fertile lowlands that are not "too something" include the hearts of many of the countries of the globe.

Let's consider the North European Plain. It begins in France. An important part of



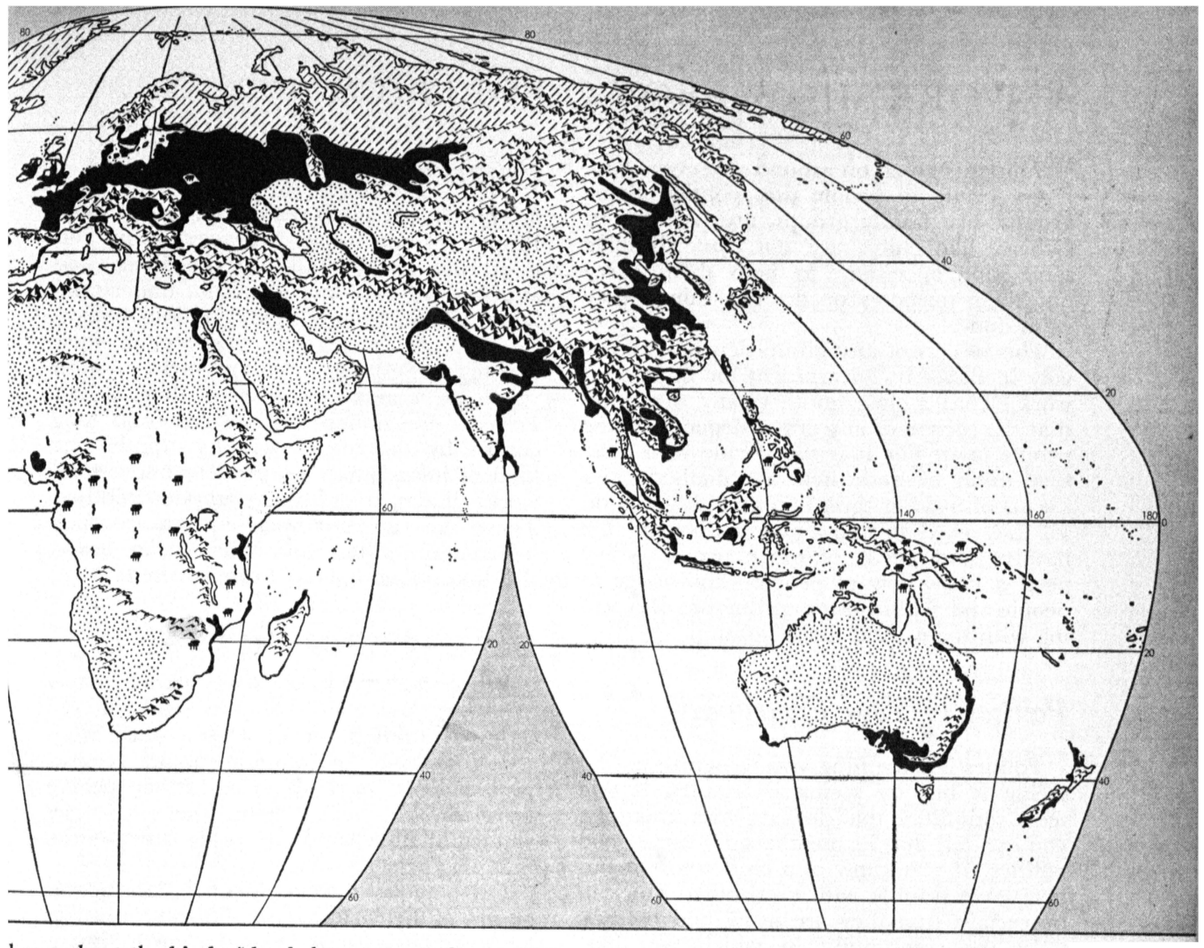
The population map on pages 372–373 shows you where people of the world live. What does the map above

it is called the Paris Basin. The very name suggests its significance to France. The fertile northern part of Belgium and all of the Netherlands lie in this European plain. So do a major part of Germany, all of Denmark, nearly all of Poland, and much of the Soviet Union. More than that, we can find bits of the European plain in southern England—the London Basin—and in the southern and most important part of Sweden. The first five of the largest cities of Europe (including the Soviet Union) lie in the North European Plain. These five are not only among the largest cities of the world, but four of them are also capitals of major countries. See if you can find out what cities these are.

The second of the world's great fertile lowlands lies in North America. It extends from the Gulf of Mexico northward until the climate becomes too cold and the soil too poor for successful farming. The lowland heart of North America forms one of the great agricultural empires of the world, as you can tell by looking at the map above.

Another smaller, less fertile, but populous plain borders the Atlantic coast of the United States. Still another great New World fertile lowland includes the Pampas of Argentina.

Although we can name a number of mountain and plateau countries, many of the world's countries have a core area which



l you about the kind of land that most people seem to prefer?

is a fertile lowland. France centers in the Paris Basin, Scotland has its Lowlands, Ireland its Irish Plain. Even Switzerland, famed for its mountains, really centers in the lower country north of the Alps, where the chief Swiss cities lie. Egypt's Nile Valley and India's Ganges Valley are the cores of Egypt and India. We shall find many other examples as we go along.

Meaty questions. We are now ready to plunge into the main part of this book. In it we shall be reading about the geography and politics of the major countries and regions of the world. Before we take the plunge, let's try to sum up the main ideas that we have already learned. If we can answer three sets of questions, we can say we have found and digested the meat of what we have read so far:

1. What is politics? Why do we have politics? Is it possible to avoid politics? How does world politics differ from domestic politics?

2. How are politics and geography related? In what ways does geography influence politics? In what ways does politics influence geography?

3. What hemispheres have meaning in world affairs? What plan will be followed in the rest of this book? What areas in the world can support large populations? Small populations? What part do climate, vegetation, and landforms play in forming these areas?

A WORKSHOP ABOUT POLITICS

Politics is going on around you every day. Every group of people uses politics. Some groups, like family groups, are permanent. Others, like clubs, are not. But all have some kind of system to help them carry out their purposes or do the things they want done.

The success of any group depends on the way it makes its government, or its system, work. That is just another way of saying that the success of any group depends on the people in it. For it is the people who must first think of and then use methods and means of making things go smoothly. To do so, they need to know and understand the natures and needs of other people. They need a know-how of people—knowledge of people and skill in using techniques of working with them. And that's politics.

Politics in Your Community

Politics is something you recognize not by seeing it but by seeing its results. If you see a committee that does its work smoothly, you can tell that its members are using good politics. If you know of a club whose members have trouble with each other, you can be certain that they are using bad politics.

In the community in which you live, groups are formed to take care of interests and needs of the whole community. Such groups may be called the school board, the health department, the city council, the town meeting. The names vary with different communities.

You may be able to visit such groups in your community to see them in action. You can hear and read about them, and you can see the results of their work.

1. How much responsibility do you think the leaders of a group have for its politics?
2. How much responsibility do you think the other members of the group have?
3. How does responsibility for politics in a democratic group differ from responsibility in an undemocratic group?
4. Name some groups in your community that work on problems affecting the whole community. Who are the people in them? What are the problems?

Politics in World Affairs

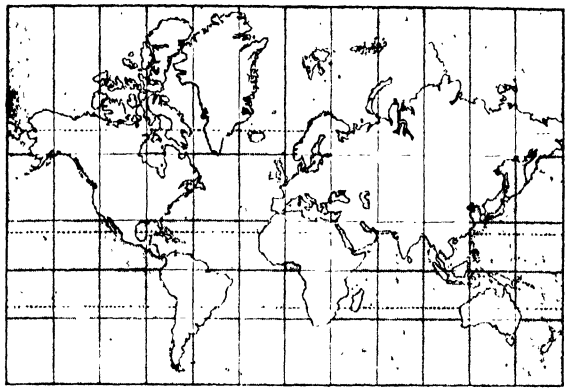
This book is about politics and geography. Peoples of the world live together in nations, and world affairs are the doings and activities of nations. We can understand better why both people and nations behave as they do when we understand their problems. Perhaps a nation lacks natural resources or makes poor use of those it has. Perhaps one nation has suffered from long control by another. Geography supplies one kind of information we need to understand world affairs, and history supplies another. There are different ways to acquire such information. One way is by using maps. But first somebody has to make them.

MAPS—PUTTING MEANING IN

People have probably always made maps. Whether they made them in sand, on the hides of animals, or on paper, they were trying to give information—about geography, politics, or both. The farther people traveled, the wider became the areas they wanted mapped and the more difficult the mapping grew.

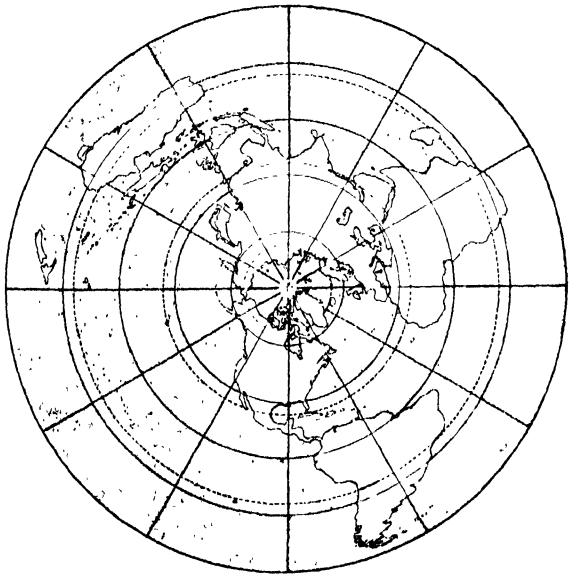
On a globe the continents, islands, and oceans of the earth can be shown accurately, for a globe is round like the earth. But a globe would be awkward to carry around, especially one large enough to give the detailed information a map can give. If you were to remove the covering of a globe and try to lay it flat, it would tear badly, and the distances and areas shown would be stretched and twisted. The eternal problem of a map maker is figuring out methods by which information shown accurately on a globe can best be transferred to a flat piece of paper. A number of such methods have been found. Map makers call them *map projections.*

Gerhard Mercator was an early map maker who struggled with the problem of what to do about showing a round earth on a flat map. You can see his answer at the top of the next page. The Mercator projection was used in making this small map. The meridians of longitude do not curve toward each other as they do on a globe. They never meet, and there are no poles.

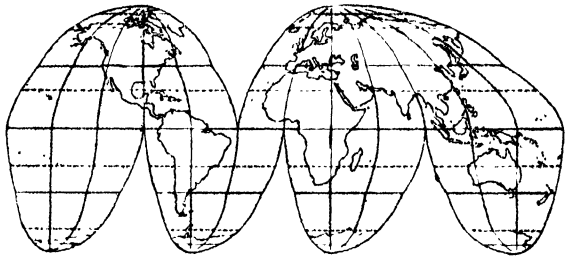


And if you compare the sizes of the continents on a Mercator map with the sizes of those on a globe, you will see what stretching the meridians apart in the polar regions does to the land masses and water areas there. On a Mercator map Greenland is stretched out until it is almost nine times as large as it should be. But in the low latitudes shapes and sizes are like those on a globe.

Now look at the map below, which illustrates another projection—the polar projection—first used by a man named Postel. A polar map can be centered on either pole, and it shows correctly the very areas a Mercator map makes errors in. But look at Australia and South America. Their shapes look peculiar, because there is error in this projection, too—it's just in a different place. Map makers call the twisting of sizes and shapes on a map *distortion.*



The next map illustrates the projection worked out by J. Paul Goode. The map is broken up, or "interrupted." It looks something like the covering of a globe peeled off. It illustrates the homolosine projection. The homolosine projection can be made by interrupting the oceans, as was done here. Then all land areas are shown fairly correctly. The distortion is in the ocean areas.



But if one wants little distortion in the water areas, the land areas can be broken.

There are many other projections people use for maps. All have some distortion. The questions are: How much? Where? The people who plan maps consider different projections, then choose the best one for their purposes. Are they planning a map for use in sea navigation? Then a Mercator projection is right. A navigator can plot his course best on a Mercator map. By following the straight-line course he outlines on the map, he will arrive where he wants to go. Do people want a map showing types of vegetation in the world? Then the homolosine projection, showing the continents with little distortion, will be useful. No map maker ever says any one map projection is good. He asks, "Good for what?"

1. Identify the projection used for the map on pages 38–39 and for the one on pages 368–369. Why were the oceans interrupted on both of these maps? Where can distortion be found?

2. On the map on page 90 the name of the projection is given. Compare the size of Europe with the size of Africa. Now compare the sizes of the two continents on the map on pages 368–369, on which the relative size of continents is nearly accurate. What distortion do you see in the map on page 90? This map is to help you locate and identify the countries in the western coastlands. How does the distortion in this particular projection prove useful?

MAPS—GETTING MEANING OUT

Besides the maps in each chapter of this book, there are others grouped together in an Atlas Section beginning on page 367.

1. Locate as nearly as you can on the merged-relief map of the world the place where you live. What do the maps on pages 38–39 and 368–369 tell you about its land surface? Locate on the maps on pages 370 to 381 the place where you live. Describe it, using only information you got from the maps.

2. On the map on pages 372–373 find the most densely populated regions of the world. Compare the average number of people per square mile in those regions with the average number per square mile where you live. Compare the population map with the map on pages 38–39. Find some densely populated places outside the fertile lowlands. Later you will find out that there are special reasons why people live in those places. Identify some of the places that are too rugged, too dry, etc., to be easily productive. Use the maps in the Atlas Section to find the types of vegetation and amount of rainfall in the densely populated regions.

3. Locate on the population map the parts of the world that are uninhabited or sparsely settled. Use the maps on pages 36 and 38–39 to explain the lack of population.

4. List the ten countries with the largest populations. Refer to the maps on pages 382–405 to locate these countries on the map on pages 38–39. What ones do you think might have trouble supporting their people? What ones could support more?

Reading Cartoons

A cartoon once was only an artist's sketch of work he planned to do. Today cartoons are a popular kind of illustration in books, newspapers, and magazines, and there are different types. The ones in this book are political. They are important in getting information and points of view about politics.

Cartoons are still only drawings in outline. Artists who draw political cartoons use symbols to help get ideas across. Uncle Sam represents the United States, a bear or the hammer and sickle means the Soviet Union, and the elephant and donkey indicate the two main political parties in the United States. In the cartoons on pages 9 and 10 find other symbols, and observe how each cartoonist used only a few to get across his point. You don't have to accept the point of view of the cartoonist. But it's important to get it.

Symbols are to a cartoonist what words are to a writer. People who know many words get more out of reading than those who don't. People who build up a knowledge of world affairs understand better the use and meanings of symbols in political cartoons. In the cartoon on page 20 the thin figure of a man stands for the hungry people in the world. But who are they? In what parts of the world do they live? Why are they hungry? The cartoon becomes more meaningful when you can answer those questions.

1. Begin to collect political cartoons. Bring to class cartoons related to the people, countries, and problems you study about. Make individual or class collections.

2. You may be able to make good cartoons yourself. Try it. The explanatory lines of print under cartoons or pictures are called legends or captions. Write some for your cartoons. Post the best cartoons.

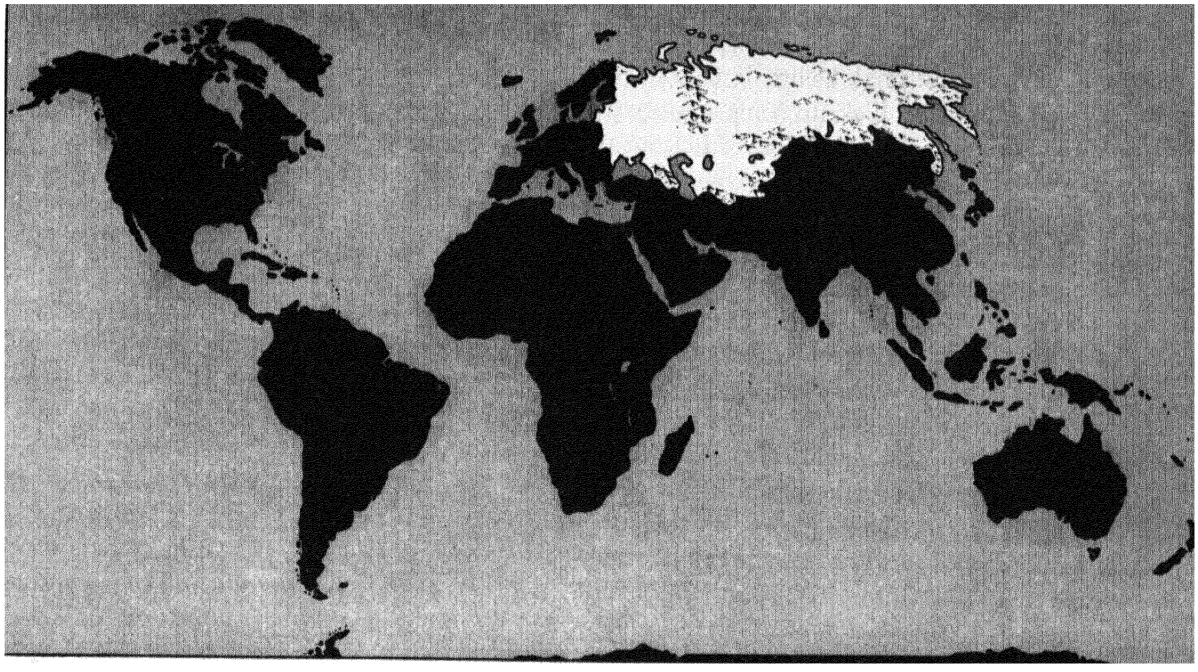
Checking Your Information

Be sure you can identify these terms:

1. compromise
2. nationality
3. population pattern
4. strategic
5. hemisphere
6. morale

Underline the political or geographic term that does not belong with the others:

1. (*a*) industrialization (*b*) politics (*c*) compromise (*d*) alliance
2. (*a*) club (*b*) nation (*c*) community (*d*) coastlands
3. (*a*) legislatures (*b*) elections (*c*) resources (*d*) constitutions
4. (*a*) coal (*b*) trade (*c*) water power (*d*) oil
5. (*a*) morale (*b*) know-how (*c*) energy (*d*) United Nations
6. (*a*) Mercator (*b*) Goode (*c*) Churchill (*d*) Postel
7. (*a*) Suez Canal (*b*) Singapore (*c*) Grand Canyon (*d*) Gibraltar
8. (*a*) deserts (*b*) mountains (*c*) forests (*d*) political boundaries



The U.S.A. Looks at the U.S.S.R.

THE LAND AND THE HISTORY

You have learned by now that the world of armed nations is something like the world of armed men of the western movies. There are rival outfits, some with the law and some "agin'" it. You belong to an outfit in which the chief force is the United States. Your outfit has certain strong ideas about the rights and liberties of individuals. There is a rival outfit in which the chief force is the Soviet Union. Already there has been bloody shooting between these outfits in Korea, and we must face the possibility that there may be more, even though we hope there won't. A good rule in these troubled times is to hope for the best but be ready for the worst. In this chapter we shall take a look at the Soviet outfit and see what we have to deal with.

Writing a chapter about the Soviet Union has not been easy. Almost anything one says about that country can be lifted out of place and given the wrong meaning. We have to say, for instance, that the Soviet Union is an immense country with great resources and growing industries. This sounds like praise, but it is only a statement of fact. There is no sense deceiving ourselves about the Soviet Union. An intelligent person should know both the strengths and the weaknesses of his opponents. If you had been landed in a tough cow town of the Old West, one of your first acts would have been to find out who the dangerous characters were and how they operated. Sheriff Garrett would have been a fool to go around saying that Billy the Kid was a bad shot.

To get true information about the Soviet Union is difficult. Very few foreigners are allowed to travel there, and very few Soviet citizens are allowed outside their country.

All news is censored before it can be sent out or in. We do pick up some information about the Soviet Union, nevertheless, and there are the solid facts of geography and history that can give us a basic understanding of this vast country, its people, and its government.

Few countries illustrate better the relationship between geography and history than does the Soviet Union. To a person without a knowledge of geography, Russian history seems just a complicated story of czars and wars without rhyme or reason. To a person without a knowledge of history, the country's present-day geography may seem bewildering. For one thing, it contains difficult names like "union republics" and "autonomous republics."

The most important geographic fact about the Soviet Union is that nearly two-thirds of its surface is an immense lowland. This lowland really begins as far west as France, and in the preceding chapter we called it the North European Plain. It widens as one follows it eastward, and in the Soviet Union it becomes hundreds and then thousands of miles wide. It reaches the Black and the Caspian seas on the south and extends to the shores of the Arctic Ocean on the north.

Within the great Russian plain there are few natural landmarks. The Ural Mountains are the best-known break in the plain, but the Urals are easily crossed and today are the center of a busy industrial region in the Soviet Union.

Among the significant marks on the surface of the great Russian and Siberian plains are the rivers. Much of Russia's history has been influenced by its rivers. Similarly, the early history of North America is full of stories about the St. Lawrence, the Ohio, the Mississippi, and other rivers. In a great land mass, rivers are the early arteries of commerce. It is only in fairly recent times that railroads, highways, and airways have been more important than rivers in North America.

Organizing the Russian plain. The early rulers of Russia had an immense land to govern. In western Europe the river basins are bounded by hills or mountains. They break that part of the continent into pieces small enough to be ruled easily, even when communication was slow. The Russian plain lacks such hills and mountains. Any government on the Russian plain was tempted to expand, as the colonists of North America were tempted to go inland. Transportation was a major problem in both places.

Government is not only a way of getting people to work together. It is also a method of organizing land. What does that mean? It means that a government, whatever kind it may be, must keep in touch with all parts of the country in order to enforce its laws. "The long arm of the law" must reach into every corner of the country. Then, if the government is democratic, there must be some way by which all people can reach the ear of the government. They must be able to telegraph, send representatives, or write to the capital city to express their wishes and tell of their needs.

We do not usually think of railroads, highways, telegraph wires, and radio stations as tools of government, but they really are. Without them modern government would be impossible. Of course, there were governments before there were railroads or highways or radios. But they did not face the complicated problems requiring prompt action that trouble a government today.

The Russian rivers. The rulers of the Russian plain could not use seagoing ships, nor did they build fine roads, as the Romans did. They depended on other means of transportation.

We have already said that rivers played a large part in the history of Russia. The Russian plain drains toward four seas—the Arctic, the Baltic, the Black, and the Caspian. The mouths of the major rivers are far apart, but their headwaters interlock. It is possible to cross the Russian plain by boat with only short land journeys between rivers.

Traders used to make a journey by river, with short land stretches, leading from the Baltic to the Black Sea, and thus to Constantinople, now Istanbul. One could leave the Baltic, go up a river like the Dvina or the Neva, then cross over to the Dnepr River and descend to the Black Sea.

During the years in which this route was busiest, Constantinople was the cultural and religious center of eastern Europe. Trade in cloth, amber, wine, and grain passed along this river route across the Russian plain. This trade had three very important effects upon the future of Russia. In the first place, missionaries from Constantinople gave the Russians their religion—the eastern branch of the Christian church. In the second place, along with religion went an alphabet based on Greek—the ancestor of the present Russian alphabet. Years before Russia drew its religion and alphabet from Constantinople, most of the rest of Europe was learning western Christianity and another way of writing from Rome.

The third thing that came with Baltic-Black Sea trade was the development of government. Profitable trade has always tempted ambitious princes. Princes from Scandinavia gained control of the Baltic-Black Sea routes. In the ninth century A.D. they founded kingdoms that were the beginnings of modern Russia.

Key points. There were several key points along the Russian rivers that were centers for the development of government. One was Lake Ilmen, in the wooded north, only a hundred miles south of the present Leningrad. Located there is one of the oldest cities of Russia, called Staraya Russa, or "Old Russ." Not far away is Novgorod. The name means "new city"—a good name once. But the city is now very old.

Farther south, on the Dnepr River portion of the route, Kiev was founded. The site of Kiev was attractive for a capital. It was on the high bank of the river, near the southern edge of the forests. There the Dnepr leaves the protecting woods and flows southeastward into the grassy steppes. Kiev was a frontier city, and the land over which its princes ruled was called Ukraine, meaning "borderland." Kiev is still a capital, no longer of an independent state but of the Ukrainian Republic of the Soviet Union.

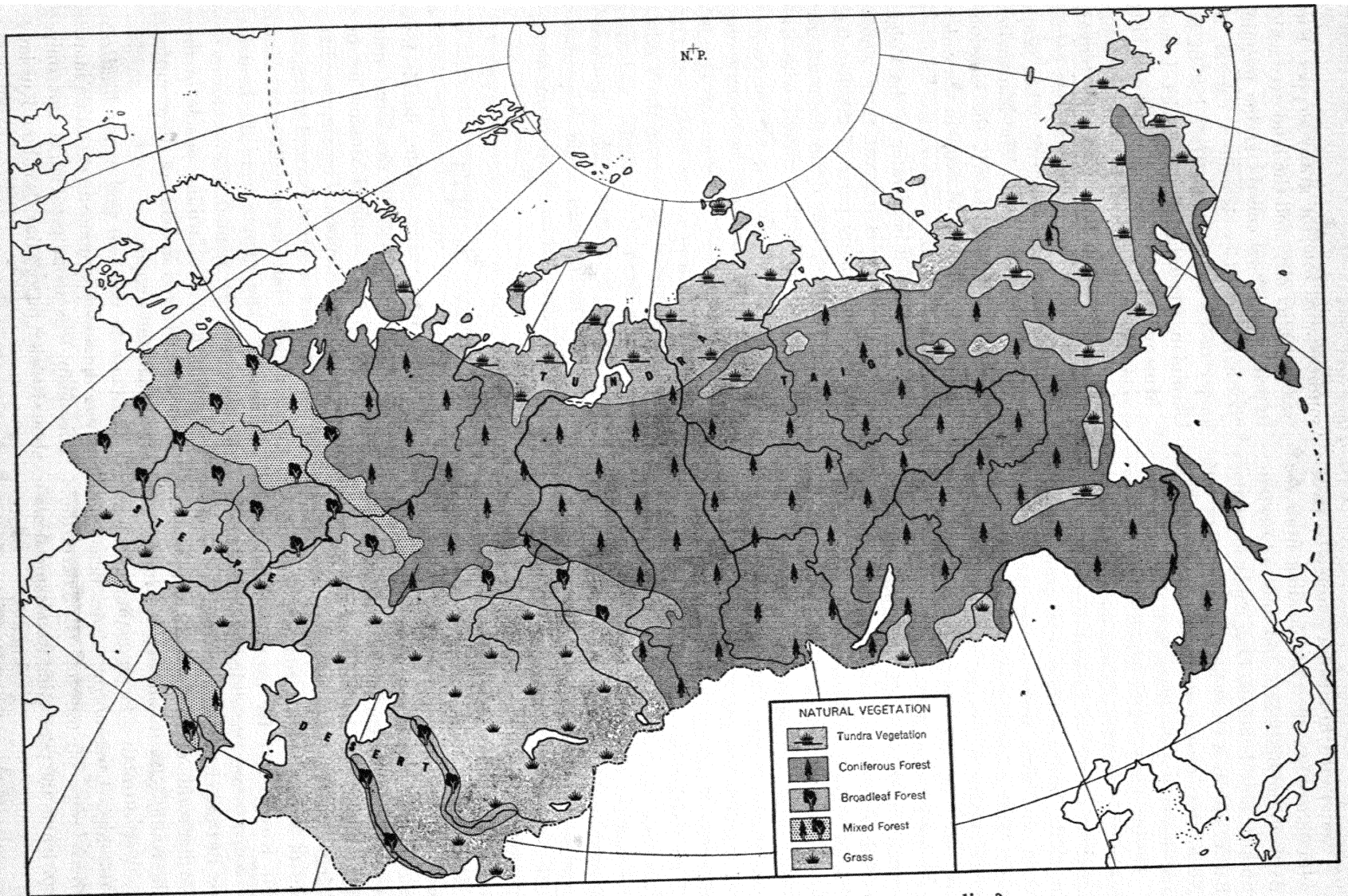
Muscovy. Quite a few English-speaking people have sung, or tried to sing, the many-versed song about Ivan Skivinsky Skivar. Near the end of this sad recital, one comes to "the Muscovite maiden" who prays nightly for the dead Ivan. The Muscovites were the people of Muscovy, the kingdom which grew up around Moscow in the valley of the river Moskva.

The Moskva is a headwater of the Volga River. The Volga is a great river whose branches reach many parts of the Russian plain. On the east, they drain the southern Urals. On the north, they mingle with the tributaries of rivers flowing to the Arctic Ocean. On the southwest they carry one close to the waters of the Don and Dnepr, the rivers which lead to the Black Sea. On the northwest, the Volga rises in the Valdai Hills not far from Lake Ilmen and the streams leading to the Baltic. Thus Muscovy, deep in the Russian plain, could draw trade and supply armies in many directions along waterways.

Forest versus Steppes

Muscovy was a forest state, but it lay near the southern edge of the forest belt. Two hundred miles south of Moscow lie the grassy plains, or steppes. The steppes, like the rivers, were a great natural transportation system, but for a different kind of transport. The steppes were the land of the horseman, the nomad. For centuries of Russian history, the farming people in the wooded lands lived in dread of the mounted warriors of the steppes.

On page 46 you will find a new kind of map of the Soviet Union—a vegetation map. This map tells us a great deal not only about Russian history but also about Russian



Compare this with the map on pages 372–373. What vegetation grows where few people live? Where many live?

agriculture, resources, and economic possibilities—possibilities for making a living. It is perhaps the best single map we have with which to summarize Soviet geography.

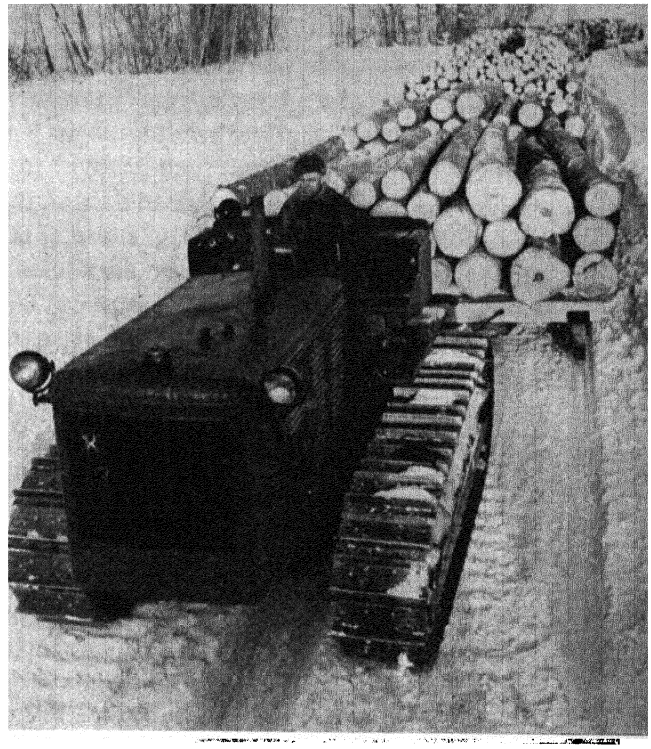
The vegetation map, you will notice, looks somewhat like a slice of bacon. The strips run east and west. Some are wide and some are thin, and some are fat and some are lean.

Along the margin of the Arctic Ocean, in the northernmost part of the Soviet Union, is a fringe of land which is too far north for trees. This treeless land is called the tundra. It is a lean strip, except where minerals may be found. Pasture for reindeer is its principal resource. The tundra is not ever likely to support many people, though here and there are ports, fishing villages, mining towns, and airfields. Later on we shall find out more about the way Soviet ships navigate along the Arctic coast, and about aviation in the Arctic.

The great forest. South of the tundra is a wide and very long belt of trees. This forest extends all the way across northern Eurasia, from Norway on the west to the Bering Sea on the east. It is very similar to the great northern forest which stretches across North America, from Alaska to Labrador. The Russians call their forest the taiga. The words tundra and taiga are now often used by English-speaking botanists and geographers.

Much of the taiga consists of the type of trees commonly called evergreens and more scientifically called conifers—cone-bearers. From conifer we get the adjective coniferous, meaning "cone-bearing." The coniferous forest of the Soviet Union gives that country a vast supply of lumber and pulpwood. The soils upon which these conifers grow are infertile, generally speaking. They are more useful for growing trees than for growing farm crops. The taiga is rich in fur-bearing animals. Pelts—furs—lured the Russians northward much as gold lured the Spaniards to Mexico and Peru.

The southern margin of the forest belt differs from the true taiga in an important way. There are more trees there of the kind called broadleaf—trees such as the maples and oaks that lose their leaves in winter. The climate is milder, as one would expect from the more southerly location. And the soils are richer, so that this land, when cleared of its trees, can be used profitably for farming. The broadleaf and mixed forests were the early home of the Russian nation. The cities of Staraya Russa, Novgorod, Moscow, and Kiev all are located there. The forest gave the early Russian farmers building material, fuel for the winters, and protection against the nomads of the steppes. The soil and climate, though not the best in the world for farming, permitted the farmers to grow the hardier grains and vegetables. Black rye bread, cabbages, and beets were mainstays of the Russian peasant's diet.



Sovfoto

Examine the trees shown here. In what part of the Soviet Union might the picture have been taken?

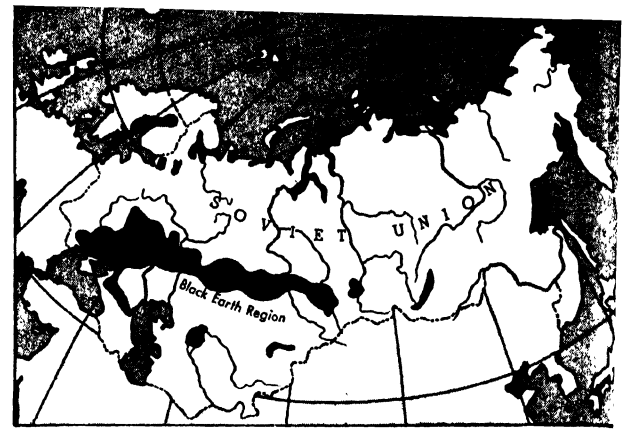
The steppes. South of the forest the climate is drier and warmer. The trees become scattered and then disappear. In North America we speak of our Great Plains. The Russians speak of the steppes.

The steppes were not friendly to the early farmers. There was little fuel or water. The rainfall was not so reliable as it was farther north. Above all, there was the danger from the mounted nomads. From the point of view of the nomads, the steppes were a broad highway. They could advance and attack, then turn and disappear. The foot soldiers and farmers were at their mercy—and the nomads hardly knew what mercy meant.

For one period of two long centuries the nomads ruled the Russians. These were the centuries immediately following the rise of the Mongol emperor, Genghis Khan. His descendants ruled most of Russia until the middle of the fifteenth century. Just as the Spaniards banded together in order to oppose and drive out the Moors, so the Russian people, and especially the people of Muscovy, organized themselves against the Mongols. The Grand Duke of Moscow became one of the most important Russian noblemen. Finally he gained the title of czar. It comes from Caesar, the family name of Rome's first emperors.

In order to protect themselves against the steppe nomads, the Russians "fought the devil with fire." That is, they formed their own bands of horsemen, and they could move as rapidly as could the nomads. These Russian horsemen made their homes in the steppes. They even took their name from the nomads' word for cavalryman, "Kazak." The Russian horsemen adopted this name. Our name for them is Cossacks.

The good black earth. On our continent early farmers avoided the grassy prairies and plains of the Middle West. The heavy sod was difficult to break, and some thought that where trees did not grow, crops would not grow, either. This was false reasoning, for wheat and the other grains are grasses. Wheat can be grown where there are no trees, as both Russian and North American farmers learned. The northern part of the Russian steppes—that is, the part that lies just south of the forest—



Where the greatest number of Russian farms are.

was found to have sufficient rainfall for wheat in most years. And it has marvelously fertile black soils. In North America the region we could best compare it with would be North Dakota. So impressed were the Russians by the soils of the northern part of the steppes that they called the region simply the Black Earth.

The main area of Black Earth begins near the Black Sea, in the region called the Ukraine. It extends eastward across southern Russia to the Ural Mountains, and beyond into western Siberia. You will find it on the map on this page. The Black Earth, after it was made safe from nomads and farmed by Russians, was turned into one of the world's great "breadbaskets."

The Growth of the Russian Empire

While Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Spaniards were exploring and settling North America, Russians were exploring and settling, too. They were going into the land that they might have called their "Wild East." The first Russian explorer crossed the Ural Mountains into Siberia in 1581. Vitus Bering, a Dane employed by the Russians, crossed Siberia, launched ships on the Pacific, and in 1741 first saw Alaska.

Siberia has an evil reputation because it was a place where Russian prisoners were sent. But its forests were full of furs, and its

fertile parts attracted many settlers. The Trans-Siberian Railway, built toward the end of the nineteenth century, made it possible for Siberian farmers to send their grain or lumber to markets.

Not all of Siberia is plains. East of Siberia's most important river, the Yenisey, the hills begin. Still farther eastward, there are real mountains. Eastern Siberia then was less inviting to settlers than western Siberia, and even today it is sparsely populated. But there were furs there, and the Russians pushed forward until they reached the shores of the Pacific.

A river becomes a boundary. At the time the Russians were advancing toward the Pacific, China was ruled by emperors who originally came from Manchuria. The Manchu emperors loosely claimed a large part of what is now eastern Siberia. The native peoples of that region were not strongly organized. The advancing Russians made a treaty with the Manchu emperors, fixing a boundary between Siberia and China. They chose a river, as people often have done when they needed a boundary and did not know just where to put it. The Russians thought that there could be no question about a river boundary.

The river that was chosen for most of the new boundary between the Russian and Chinese empires was a large one called the Amur. The treaty said that the land on one side of the Amur was to be Russian, on the other side, Chinese. But there are islands in the Amur, and nobody had thought about them. And so the question arose, "Which nation owns the islands?" The question was not very serious until after 1931. Then the Japanese invaded Manchuria and turned it into a puppet state under Japanese control. The Japanese and the Russians were rivals in eastern Asia. They had already fought one war and were unfriendly, and neither would give in an inch to the other. So the islands, forgotten by the treaty makers, continued to cause trouble until the fall of Japan in World War II ended the matter.

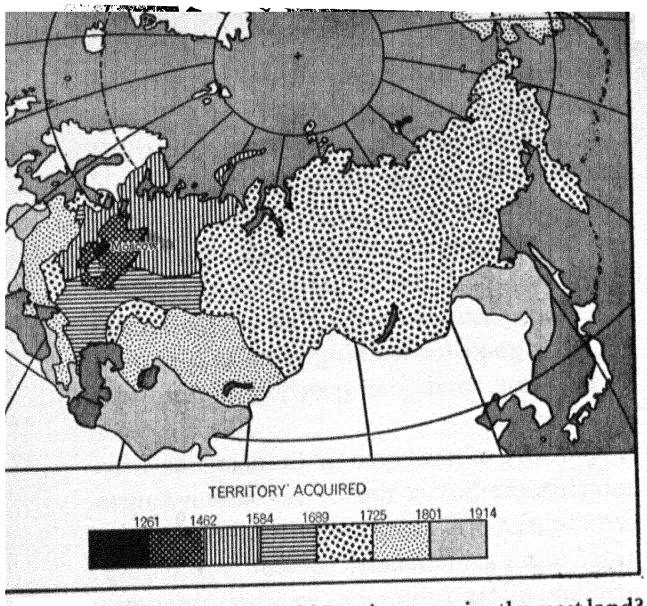
Northward progress. Russian expansion northward was opposed mainly not by man but by the forces of nature. The weak tribes that lived in the taiga and the tundra could put up little resistance. Russian traders and prospectors moved into the northland. Furs, timber, and minerals were there; but the land, even when cleared of trees, was not very good for farming. The soils proved to be poor, and the growing season was very short.

Recently a new type of pioneer has been entering the Soviet north. These newcomers are the pioneers of the industrial age: geologists, mining engineers, sawmill mechanics, airplane pilots, radiomen, weather observers, and the like. The flow of men and goods into and out of the north has increased greatly. Busy towns and cities have sprung up. But over most of the great expanse of forest and tundra, the population continues to be sparse.

Southward expansion. The southward expansion of the Russian Empire followed two main directions. One was southeastward, into the deserts and mountains of central Asia. The other was southwestward, toward the Black Sea and Constantinople.

Historically, the drive toward the Black Sea came first. The Russians wanted to drive back the Turks and gain an outlet to the Mediterranean. Black Sea ports were secured, but Constantinople and its valuable and important straits remained in Turkish hands. When Russia seemed about to seize Constantinople, other countries usually backed up Turkey. In 1854 Great Britain and France supported Turkey in a war against Russia. This war is called the Crimean War, because much of the fighting took place on a peninsula in the Black Sea called Crimea. Nearly a hundred years later, in 1947, the United States supported Turkey when that country again seemed threatened by Russia.

At the eastern end of the Black Sea the Caucasus Mountains begin. They stretch eastward in an almost unbroken wall to the



In what centuries did Russians acquire the most land?

Caspian Sea. The Caucasus Mountains shelter a large number of peoples of different languages and cultures. The mountains and the valleys near them have provided refuges for these small and isolated groups. But the Russians, pushing down over the plains from the north, were finally able to make their way through the mountains and to overcome these peoples. The boundary of the Russian Empire was pushed south of the Caucasus Mountains. Then the Russians controlled the lowland corridor that lies between Batum, on the Black Sea, and Baku, on the Caspian.

Expansion southeastward was hard, too. A desert extended eastward from the Caspian Sea to the mountains of central Asia. Mohammedans were living in this dry region, and they resisted the Russians with determination. The Russian Empire did not reach its greatest extent in central Asia until nearly the end of the nineteenth century. When the borders of Afghanistan were reached, the British in India became alarmed. A joke of the time said they became "mervous," because one of the last cities the Russians annexed was Merv, whose name later became Mary. Mary is not far north of the Afghanistan border. The Russians and British at length agreed to keep Afghanistan independent. It acted as a buffer state because it separated Russian central Asia from India, then under British rule.

The western frontier. When the Russians tried to expand westward, toward Europe, they met the strongest opposition of all. In Europe were well-organized countries, able to oppose the Russians. There great wars were fought for little gains. Much of the western frontier of Russia is open plain with no great natural barriers. Several European armies have invaded Russia. Best remembered are Napoleon's army of 1812 and Hitler's of 1941. Both times the great size of Russia and the bitterness of the winters helped the Russians to defend their country.

Russian expansion: reasons and results. What led the Russian czars to expand their territory until it covered an area as large as all North America?

One reason, of course, was the very fact that there was so much land available to them. In the great lowland reaching northward to the Arctic, eastward far into Siberia, and southward to the mountains and the Black and Caspian seas, there were no serious natural boundaries. The czars were tempted to spread their rule across it whenever they had a chance.

Then there was the fur trade. The pursuit of animals for their precious pelts led the Russians northward to the Arctic Ocean and eastward across Siberia. It even led them to Alaska, which they ruled for many years. In a cold country like Russia, furs were prized for caps, cloaks, and robes. Valuable pelts could be shipped long distances by sled, river boat, and wagon and still be sold for high profits. Russian rule followed the fur trade into the wilderness of the taiga.

Another reason was the desire for ports. Peter the Great, who became czar in 1689, had lived in western Europe and knew that Russia was a very backward country. He knew, too, that much of the wealth and progress of western Europe was due to its

sea-borne commerce. There were no railroads then, and the quickest as well as the cheapest way to move cargoes was by sea. So Peter wished Russia to have ports and fleets. Before that time, Archangel (Arkhangelsk) on the White Sea, leading to the Arctic Ocean, was the chief port of Russia. Peter secured a "window" on the Gulf of Finland, which is a branch of the Baltic Sea. There he built his capital, called St. Petersburg. Today it is called Leningrad.

The shift of the capital from inland Moscow to coastal St. Petersburg was a sign of Peter's aim to westernize Russia. But St. Petersburg, or Leningrad, is not an ideal port. It is ice-blocked in winter, and its northerly location means that it cannot serve the needs of the great southern plains near the Black Sea. So Peter and his successors sought to push their boundaries southward, as we have already seen, to the Black Sea and, if it was possible, as far as Constantinople.

On the east, Russian lands were extended without much difficulty to the Pacific Ocean. Treaties with China gave Russia the great bent finger of land which reaches down to the port of Vladivostok. The shortest railroad route from Vladivostok cut across Manchuria, which was Chinese territory. So the Russians secured railroad rights in Manchuria. They also acquired the ports of Dairen and Port Arthur on the Yellow Sea. This bit of expansion touched off a war with Japan in 1904–5. Russia was defeated and gave up its rights in southern Manchuria.

Russia had no trouble acquiring a long coast line on the Arctic Ocean, but of course most of this is icebound except for a short time in summer. Yet it is curious that one of Russia's really ice-free ports—one that can be reached all winter—lies north of the Arctic Circle. This port is Murmansk. It is kept open by warm water from the Atlantic which drifts past the North Cape of Norway. During World War II both England and the United States brought war supplies for Russia to Murmansk.

Plains, pelts, ports, and power. If we may be allowed to simplify Russian history very greatly, we may say that four words hold much of it: plains, pelts, ports, and power. The czars sought, successfully, to control and organize the great plains of the interior of Europe and Asia. They sought to expand and control the rich fur trade, which brought the pelts of fur-bearing animals in great numbers to their cities. They sought, with some successes and some failures, to acquire ports on the seas which lay so invitingly close. And they sought to build up their country into a mighty power. To the czars, power meant men and land—millions of men and millions of square miles of land. When railroads became common, the Russians built many thousands of miles of them to help hold their empire together. Russian railroads were built with the rails

A look at Kamchatka coast. Find it on the map on pages 382–383. What different seas might the man be looking across?

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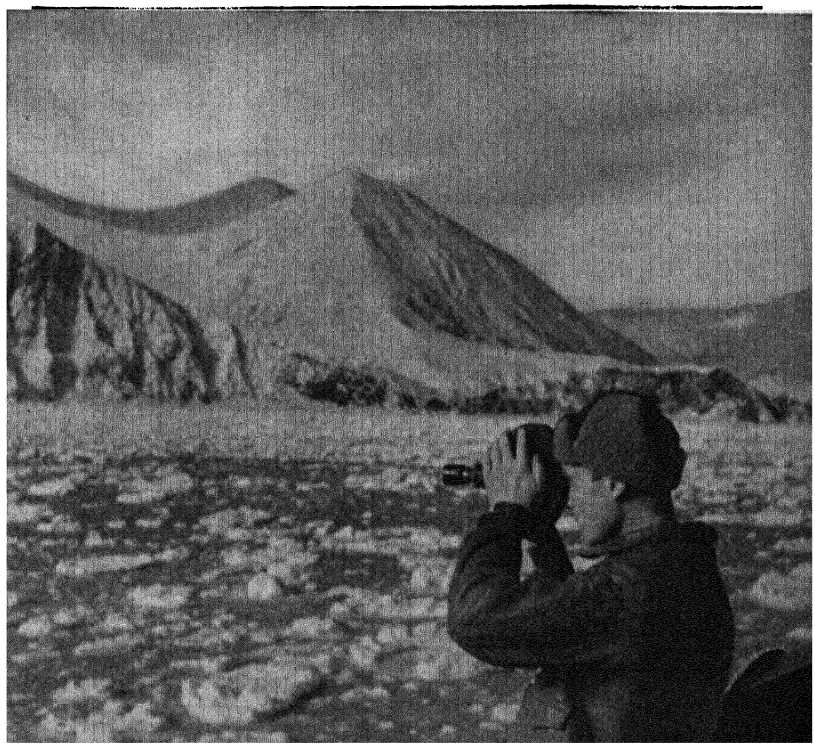
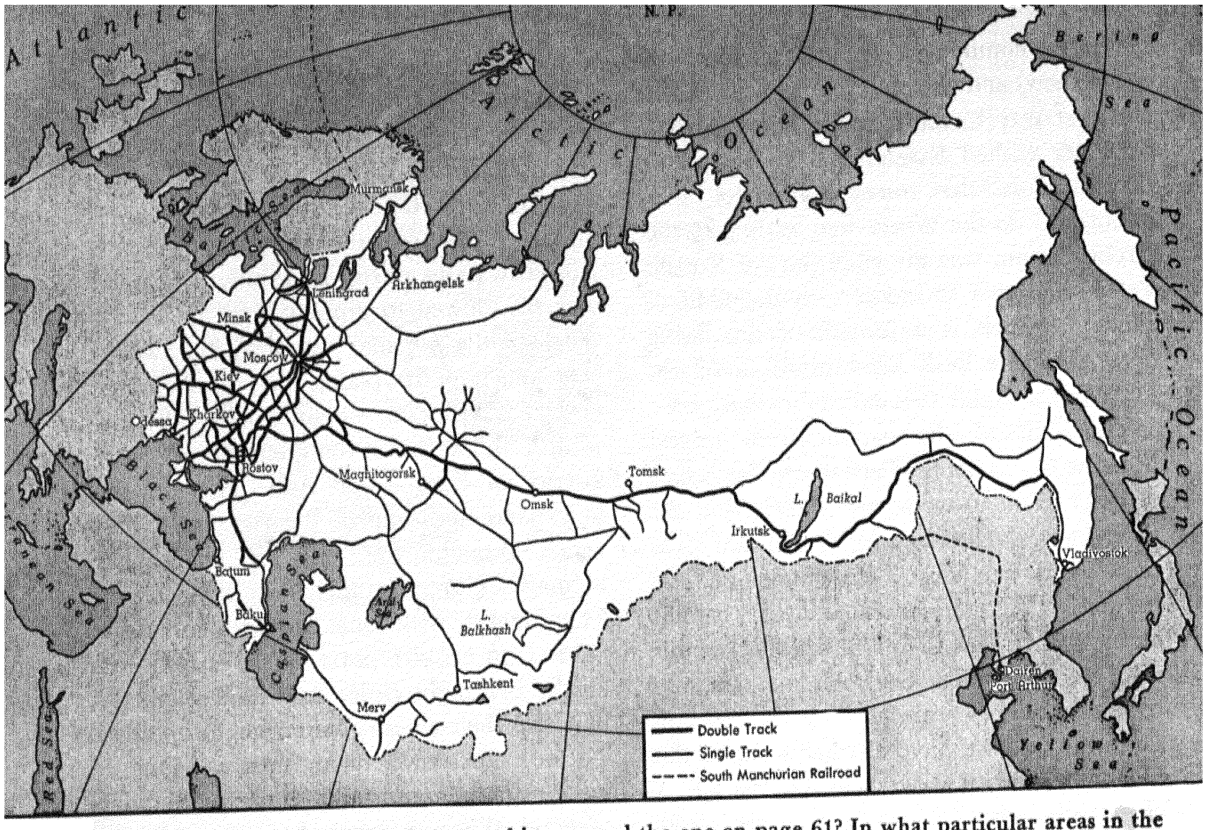




What relationship can you see between this map and the one on page 61? In what particular areas in the Soviet Union might you expect greater railroad development?

five feet apart, which is three and a half inches more than the distance between rails on a European or American railroad. No European troop train or supply train could run on Russian rails.

Modern industries were just getting a good start in czarist Russia when the Russian Revolution came in 1917. The new government—the Soviet government—knew that industry, as well as size and population, was a key to power in the modern world. For that reason, the government of the Soviet Union has worked hard to industrialize the country.

A UNION OF SOVIET REPUBLICS

Russia had two revolutions in the year 1917. The first revolution overthrew the czarist government and set up in its place a system that was more democratic. The new system lasted till November. The second revolution established a soviet government. We use the word soviet so much that it is wise to find out what it means. Soviet is a Russian word for council. The men who led the November revolution—called also the October revolution because in 1917 Russia was still using an old-style calendar unlike ours—organized "Councils of Workers and Peasants." It is from these councils, or soviets, that the term soviet republic arises. The term refers to a republic that is governed through councils of various kinds. We shall find out that these councils actually have very little real power in the Soviet Union.

The November revolution brought the Communist party into power and set up the soviet system. It finally spread to nearly

all the lands that had been part of the czarist empire. The various lands were organized into soviet republics, and the whole country was called the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. The republics are called socialist because the factories and railroads and other industries are owned by the government, not by individual persons or by companies. We abbreviate the long title of the country to Soviet Union or use the initials, U.S.S.R.

Although the word soviet means council, it has been used so much as part of the term Soviet Union that it has come to be a sort of adjective. It is no longer strictly correct to use "Russia" and "Russian" for the whole of the Soviet Union. We need a short expression, and "Soviet" is handy. So we may speak of "Soviet citizens," "Soviet art," and "Soviet postage stamps." Soviet people do this, too.

Why So Many Republics?

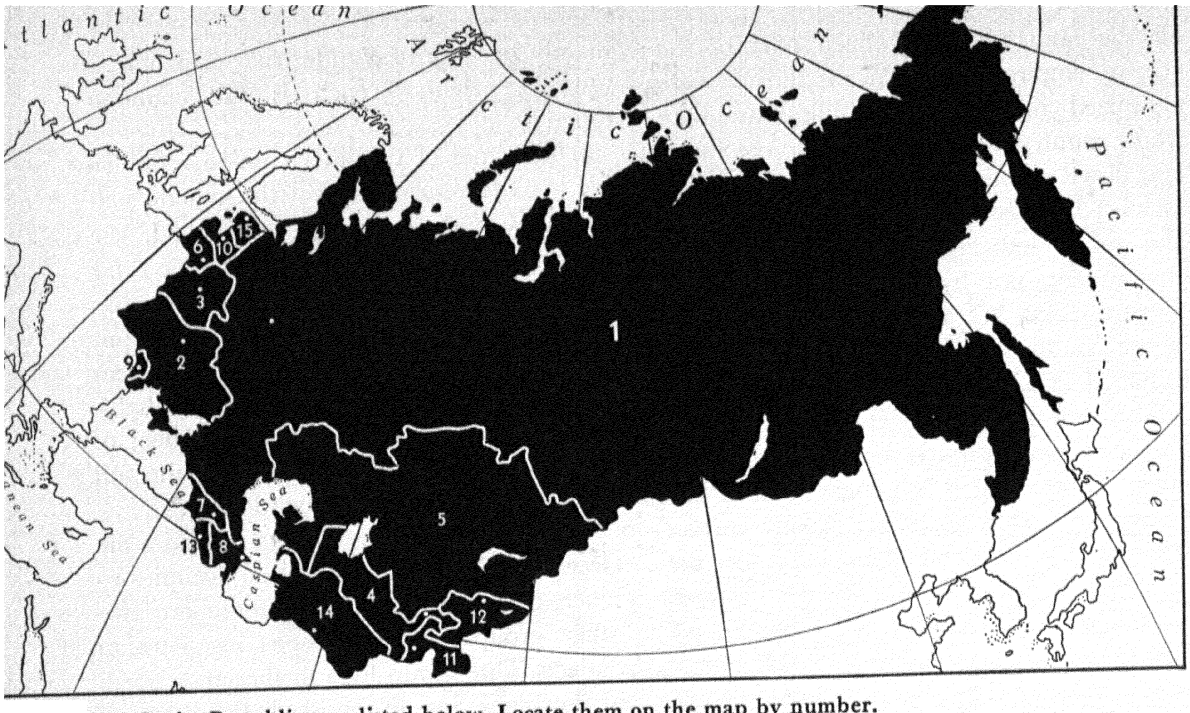
There are fifteen major republics in the Soviet Union. These fifteen are called the union republics. One might believe them to resemble the states of the United States or the provinces of Canada, but this is not correct. The union republics are based on what the Soviet government calls nationality. We have seen how the Russian Empire extended itself by conquest into lands that were not Russian in population. In the Soviet system, the principal nationalities are organized into union republics. American states and Canadian provinces are not organized in this way. They are mainly just divisions of land to which names have been given for convenience in government. The colonies along the Atlantic coast were created by the king of England at a time when there were few or no settlers and little was known of the geography of North America. Most of the newer states and provinces were created by Congress or Parliament before many people had settled in them. The only state or province that was formed mainly because of a difference in people is Quebec, where French is the common tongue.

The names of the fifteen union republics are hard to remember, but the general pattern they make is easy to understand. We see right away that one union republic is far larger than all the rest put together. It has as many people in it as all the rest put together. For short, we call this the Great Russian Republic. A majority of its inhabitants speak the main variety or dialect of Russian. We shall learn later that the full name of this republic is much longer.

Two other Russian dialects. Besides the Great Russians, whose republic occupies so much of the Soviet Union, there are two other groups of people speaking Russian dialects. One group lives in the lands north of the Black Sea, in the Black Earth region and the southern edge of the broadleaf forest. This group is made up of Ukrainians. Ukrainians are next to the largest national group in the Soviet Union. The Ukrainian Soviet Republic is third largest of the union republics in area. Its capital is Kiev, the ancient city on the river route between the Black and Baltic seas. The Ukraine is a rich land not only because of its black earth but also because of the coal and iron beneath its soil. The Ukrainians are proud of their language and culture and are not entirely content with their position in the Soviet Union.

Just north of the Ukrainian Republic is Byelorussia, third in population of the union republics. The Russian word for "white" is *byeli*. The name of this republic means White Russia. The Byelorussians speak a dialect of Russian. The Great Russians, the Ukrainians, and the Byelorussians make up about three-fourths of the people of the Soviet Union. All of them speak Russian or one of its major dialects.

The Byelorussians are sometimes confused with another kind of white Russian. During the Russian Revolution the Communists were called the reds, as, of course, they still



The Soviet Republics are listed below. Locate them on the map by number.

Name	*Population*	*Area in square miles*	*Capital*
1. R.S.F.S.R.	122,300,000	6,560,400	Moscow
2. Ukrainian S.S.R.	44,600,000	232,600	Kiev
3. Byelorussian S.S.R.	9,400,000	80,100	Minsk
4. Uzbek S.S.R.	6,300,000	157,400	Tashkent
5. Kazakh S.S.R.	7,400,000	1,061,600	Alma-Ata
6. Lithuanian S.S.R.	3,100,000	31,200	Vilnyus
7. Georgian S.S.R.	3,700,000	29,400	Tbilisi
8. Azerbaidzhan S.S.R.	3,300,000	33,100	Baku
9. Moldavian S.S.R.	2,800,000	13,100	Kishinev
10. Latvian S.S.R.	2,100,000	24,600	Riga
11. Tadzhik S.S.R.	1,900,000	54,900	Stalinabad
12. Kirghiz S.S.R.	1,900,000	76,100	Frunze
13. Armenian S.S.R.	1,500,000	11,500	Yerevan
14. Turkmen S.S.R.	1,500,000	187,200	Ashkhabad
15. Estonian S.S.R.	1,200,000	17,400	Tallinn

are. Their opponents in Russia were called the whites. Many of the whites fled from Russia after the revolution, some going to European countries, some to the Far East, and some to the Americas. These exiles became known as white Russians. To avoid confusing them with the other White Russians, it is a good idea to learn the Russian name for the Byelorussian Republic.

The central Asiatic republics. Five of the non-Russian union republics are grouped in central Asia. One of these—the northernmost—is second only to the Great Russian Republic in area. It is the Kazakh Republic. The name comes from the same word for cavalryman that was copied by the Russian Cossacks. Some of the people are nomads, and others farm the river valleys. Islam

(Mohammedanism) is the main religion in the Kazakh Republic.

The mountains which wall the Soviet Union in central Asia give rise to rivers which flow northwestward but never reach the ocean. These rivers irrigate fertile valleys inhabited by Mohammedans who came under Russian rule in the nineteenth century. The mountains furnish summer pasture for flocks of horses, sheep, and cattle. Four union republics have been formed in this part of the Soviet Union. There is no easy way to remember their names, which are the Turkmen, Uzbek, Tadzhik, and Kirghiz republics.

The Transcaucasian republics. Another group of union republics nestles south of the Caucasus range. Among the many groups of peoples who have found homes in this part of Eurasia, three were large enough to form union republics. They speak non-Russian languages. The names of two of these peoples are quite familiar to us: Georgians (or Gruzins) and Armenians. The third group of people lives in the republic of Azerbaidzhan. The pronunciation of its name twists an English-speaking tongue. This republic is important as the location of the Soviet Union's greatest oil field, Baku, on the Caspian shore.

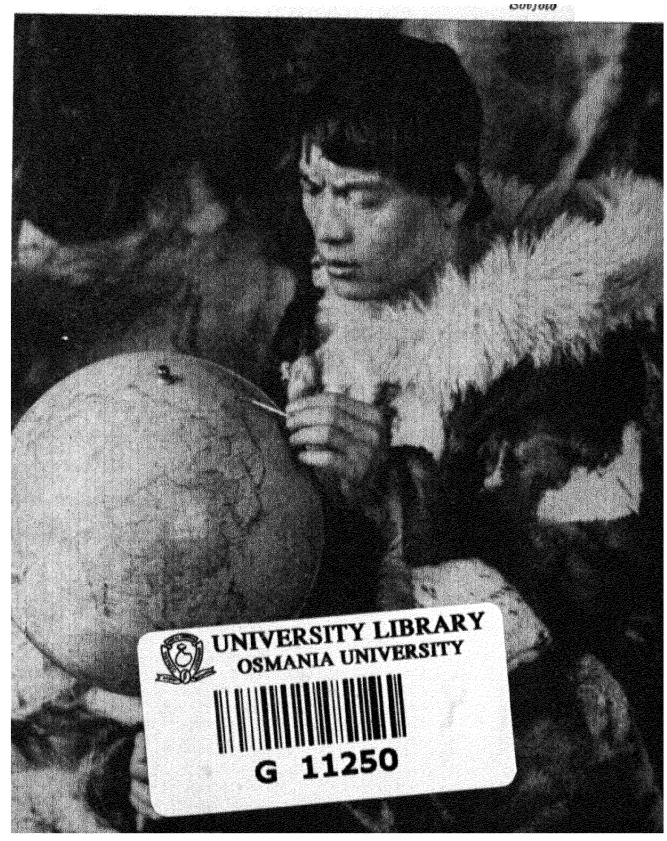
Republics of the western frontier. The third group of union republics lies along the western frontier of the Soviet Union. We have already made the acquaintance of two of them—the Ukrainian and the Byelorussian. In addition, there are four others, in which non-Russian national groups are living. From north to south these union republics are: the three Baltic states that were seized by the Soviet Union during World War II (Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, all small); and the little Moldavian Republic, which was made up in part of land that was surrendered by Romania during the same war.

The R.S.F.S.R. If you can read aloud the title of this paragraph rapidly, you have good control of your tongue. The largest of the union republics, we learned, is the Great Russian Republic. Its full title is the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic, or R.S.F.S.R. We have already learned what "socialist" and "soviet" mean. But why "federated"? Because although the R.S.F.S.R. has a population largely Russian, many non-Russian groups are united with it. Some of these are in the Far North—reindeer herders somewhat like the Eskimos in culture and in appearance. Others are central Asiatic groups not large enough to form union republics. In the far-eastern part of Siberia, an area has been set aside for Jewish colonization.

These many non-Russian groups within the Great Russian Republic are organized into three kinds of governments. Some—those self-governing in local affairs—are called autonomous republics and autonomous areas. Some—the more primitive and backward—are called national territories. All this sounds very complicated, and it *is* complicated. The Great Russian Republic is

This Soviet citizen knows something about the Arctic region he's looking at. He lives there. Why are furs important to him and his neighbors?

Sovfoto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like a ship carrying many lifeboats, or like a building with one great hall and many small rooms. The political map of the Soviet Union has to be complicated, because the country contains so many different peoples.

The Government and the People

How unified is the Soviet Union? How well do all these peoples stick together? These are difficult questions to answer. It would be useful to know the answers, for we would then know if the Soviet Union consists of two hundred million patriotic citizens or just an unwilling group of nationalities held together by force. We can only guess at answers somewhere between these extremes. There is certainly dissatisfaction with the Soviet government among the peoples of the Union. But many of them might fight for the government if it were attacked by a foreign power. People are like that. There are things that tend to hold the Soviet Union together: the immense plains, the dominant R.S.F.S.R., the railroads, the industries built up in recent years. There are forces tending the other way, especially the deep-seated feeling called nationalism. How these will work only time can tell.

HOW THE SOVIET UNION IS GOVERNED

The political map of the Soviet Union with its many republics is like the blueprint of an engine. We might say that the government is like the steam which sets the engine in motion. What happens when the steam is turned on? In other words, how does the government work?

This is a rather difficult question. It is difficult chiefly because the government *in practice* differs so much from the government *on paper.*

What the Government Is Like

The Soviet Union, like the United States, has a written constitution. The Soviet constitution, like the American, provides for a congress. The Soviet congress is called the Supreme Soviet. The Supreme Soviet is much larger than the American Congress—it has about two thousand members—but that is not the most striking difference between the two. What would amaze an American, used to the lengthy debates and important voting in his Congress, is the fact that the Supreme Soviet holds short sessions and hears speeches but has no real debates. And all the members of the Supreme Soviet always vote yes!

There are two reasons why the Supreme Soviet, in spite of its title, does little more than to vote approval of what it is asked to approve. First, much of the real work has been done beforehand by two permanent bodies. One body is called the Presidium. It might be described as a permanent committee of the Supreme Soviet. The Presidium cannot pass laws, but it can do what amounts to the same thing—it can issue decrees. The other permanent group is made up of the ministers who run the executive departments of the government. There are ministers for foreign affairs, for defense, for transportation, for heavy industry, and for other departments of government. But the chief reason why the Supreme Soviet always votes yes lies somewhere else.

The Communist party. In the Soviet Union, only one political party is legal. That is the Communist party. It is hard for Americans or Canadians to understand the Communist party. They are used to having two or more political parties contesting in an election. Anyone can join an American or a Canadian party. One does not have to pass tests or take vows. One can drop out any time one wishes and join some other party if one wants to. The Communist party is

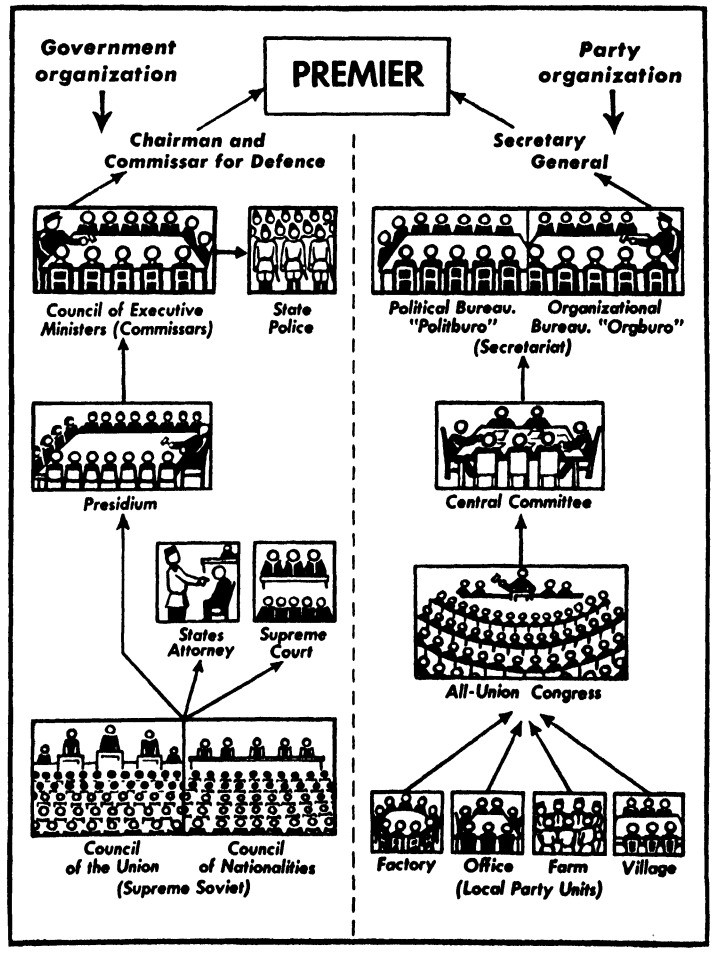
utterly different. Before a Soviet citizen can become a Communist, he must undergo training and be approved by the Party. Once a member, it is difficult for him to leave except in disgrace. The Communist party is more like a political army than like an American or Canadian political party. The members obey orders, and they are strictly disciplined.

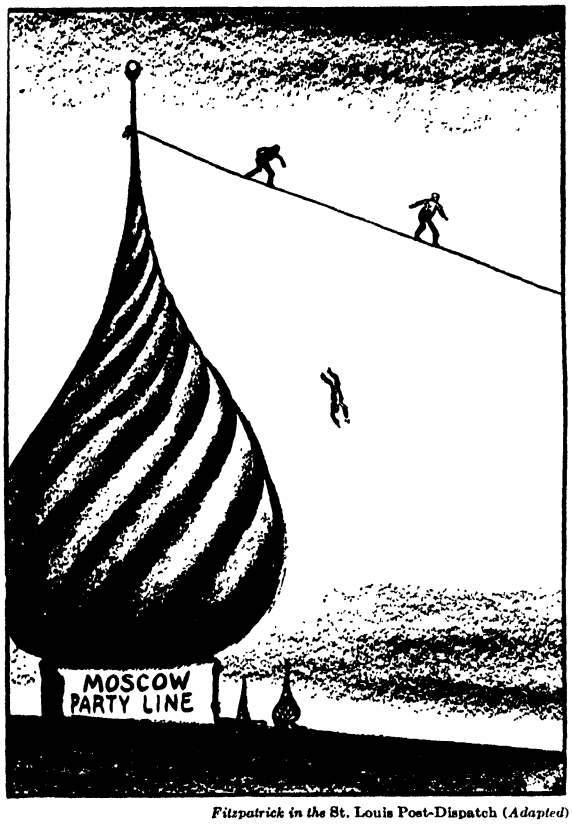
The Communist party is a strong arm of government in the Soviet Union. The higher government officials all belong to the Party. The lower officials are not all Party members. But they must be acceptable to the Party and willing to vote as they are told. Otherwise, they would not be allowed to run for office. Actually, one does not run for office in the Soviet Union. There is only one set of candidates, and the voters can only approve or disapprove that set. Few voters dare to disapprove. For this reason, people who live in countries where there are real elections say that Soviet elections are not free.

Party Presidium and police. If the Communist party runs the Soviet Union, who runs the Communist party? The Party is controlled like an army, as you have just read. Once a major decision has been reached, the Party members must accept it and carry it out whether they like it or not. This is called following the party line. In most cases, the party line is really set by a small group of members called the Presidium of the Party. Don't confuse this with the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, mentioned on the preceding page. The Presidium of the Party is much the same as the old political bureau, or Politburo. The Presidium is the ruling group of the Communist party—therefore of the Soviet Union.

But, you may ask, does not some Communist or some other Soviet citizen disobey once in a while? What makes a Communist always follow the party line? What makes a member of the Supreme Soviet always vote yes? The answer is that the Presidium is backed up by the state police. And there are said to be about a million men in the state police—a good-sized army. Every Soviet citizen of any importance is watched by the state police and its secret agents. And you would be surprised at all the people the Soviet police consider important enough to be watched: teachers, professors, engineers, factory managers, foreigners, the members of

The left column of the diagram below shows how the government of the Soviet Union is organized. The right column shows how the Communist party itself is set up to control the country. The "Politburo" and the "Orgburo," which you can find there, are now united into the Party Presidium.





Fitzpatrick in the St. Louis Post-Dispatch (*Adapted*)

The narrow path.

the Communist party themselves, and many others. The police even watch each other, and the Presidium, too! Between the police and the Party, a Soviet citizen has to walk a narrow path or, like the man in the cartoon above, fall into trouble.

Living in the Soviet Union

The people of the Soviet Union have been told over and over again by their leaders and their newspapers that their government is democratic. In fact, they have been told that their constitution is the most democratic in the world. It is probable that most of the Soviet people believe this, for they hear little about other countries except what their government wishes them to know. But a person who has grown up in the United States or in one of the democracies of western Europe or of the Commonwealth of Nations would not believe it. If he lived in the Soviet Union for a time, very likely he would not think it democratic at all. He would not like to feel that he could not criticize the heads of the government. He is used to criticizing the president or the prime minister, and he sees no reason why he should not. He would not like to follow the party line. He would like to have newspapers expressing several kinds of opinions. He would not see much sense in voting in an election when there was only one list of candidates, all of whom were sure to be elected and who, when elected, would have no real power. He would dislike many Soviet policies. He would wonder if some Soviet goals could not be reached without giving up so many liberties.

ECONOMIC LIFE IN THE SOVIET UNION

In our country, we usually think of politics and *economics* as two different things. We usually think of politics in connection with government. Economics has to do with all the ways people have of making a living. But, of course, the two are always rubbing shoulders. Our government makes all sorts of decisions on things connected with business or industry. Employers and labor-union members take active parts in politics and do their best to elect their friends and put across the laws they favor.

Control of Economic Life

In the Soviet Union, the connection between politics and economics is so close that they are practically the same thing. Other governments have had as much power as the Soviet government, but none have tried to control their people so completely. The Soviet government even controls its people's ways of making a living, or, in other words, their economic life. In the Soviet Union, the government owns or controls

business and industry. In theory at least, it runs them for the benefit of the whole people, or society. Of course, the Soviet government does not manage every last detail of business and industry in its country. Ivan Ivanoff, carpenter in Tomsk, does not get his pay check direct from Moscow. Nor does he apply to the Presidium when he wants a box of tacks. But the government in Moscow makes all the big plans and checks closely on the way the whole system runs.

The effects. The fact that the government controls the economic life of the Soviet Union has many effects upon the people. Most of us feel that the bad effects outweigh the good. The Soviet system has been made to work, with much hardship and loss of liberty for the people. But we should not fool ourselves by thinking it is weak. It is a hard-boiled system, with great industries and many people at its command.

Because the Soviet government has accomplished some things in *its* way does not necessarily mean that there aren't better ways. The Soviet government does seem to have avoided depressions, the great fear of the businessman. But it has done so only by doing away with the businessman, which is like killing the patient to cure his disease. The Soviet government also seems to have eliminated unemployment, the great fear of the workingman, but only at the cost of most of the workingman's civil liberties. There are much better ways to get the same results. It reminds one of the man who saw his wife driving a nail with a flatiron instead of a hammer, mashing her fingers and losing her temper in the process. "Don't try to drive a nail with an iron," he said. "For heaven's sake, use your head!"

The Five-Year Plans. Because the Soviet government controls the economic life of the country, it can plan far ahead. Of course, businessmen in our country plan ahead. Large industries plan several years ahead. An automobile company is always working on new models for next year and for several years to come. But a single businessman or even a group of businessmen cannot be sure about the future. An automobile company can't know how many cars it will sell five years from now. It can't know what the competition will be, or how high wages will be, or how much steel will cost. The Soviet government can't foresee everything, either. Nevertheless, it can plan much more confidently. It can do this not only because it makes the automobiles but also because it makes the steel and determines the wage rates and has no competition.

The Soviet government draws up its economic plans for five-year periods, and they are called Five-Year Plans. The plans set goals for production in all lines of industry, such as steel, coal, oil, textiles, machinery, and agriculture. The factories and farms are supposed to meet or exceed these goals. Failure to do so means severe criticism and perhaps punishment for the manager who is in charge of the factory or farm that doesn't succeed.

In theory this long-range economic planning should have important advantages. It should make unemployment impossible, because work can be planned for everyone. It should take the "boom and bust" out of economic life. It should make sure that industries are developed where they are needed. And actually Soviet planning has done some of these things. There has been no unemployment, and there has been no depression since planning began. But one should not jump to the conclusion that the economic planning of the Soviet Union is all gravy for the workingman. The working people of the Soviet Union are still very poor. They do not have as high a standard of living as American workers have.

Defenders of the Soviet system say that the low standard of living is not the fault of planning, but that it is due to other things. The government deliberately placed great emphasis on heavy industries—steel, coal, and the like. These are necessary for all other kinds of industry, but they do not directly produce things people want to

buy. The fear of war caused the Soviet government to stress the making of munitions and to keep many men in the army. And there was a war, in which the invading Germans destroyed a good many cities and factories.

On the other hand, opponents of the Soviet system say that too much governmental planning will keep production down. That will bring the standard of living down, too. They say that running too many things from the center of government lessens efficiency. The desire to work in one's own interest is not so strong as it is in a country where the people have more freedom of choice.

We can't tell whether Soviet planning will produce a higher standard of living for its workers. But it has certainly led to far more regimentation or control of people than there is in our country. There is only one main employer—the government. The worker might change jobs, but he would still be working for the government. And the government has much more power over him than any private employer would. This is especially true of the Soviet government, which works from the top down. Any active opposition to the employer—that is, to the government—by a worker would mean not merely losing his job, as it might in this country. But it would also mean receiving a visit from the police and a term in prison.

A Soviet prison is not a nice, warm jail. People who commit what the Soviet government calls crimes against the state—and this term covers a great variety of acts, many of which seem to us quite harmless—are sent to forced-labor camps. Much of the heavy construction in the Soviet Union, of roads, canals, and the like, has been done by political prisoners. Many of the forced-labor camps are in the Far North, where prisoners cut wood or mine gold for the state. Enough people have escaped from these camps to tell us that life is very hard in them, discipline cruel, and the death rate extremely high.

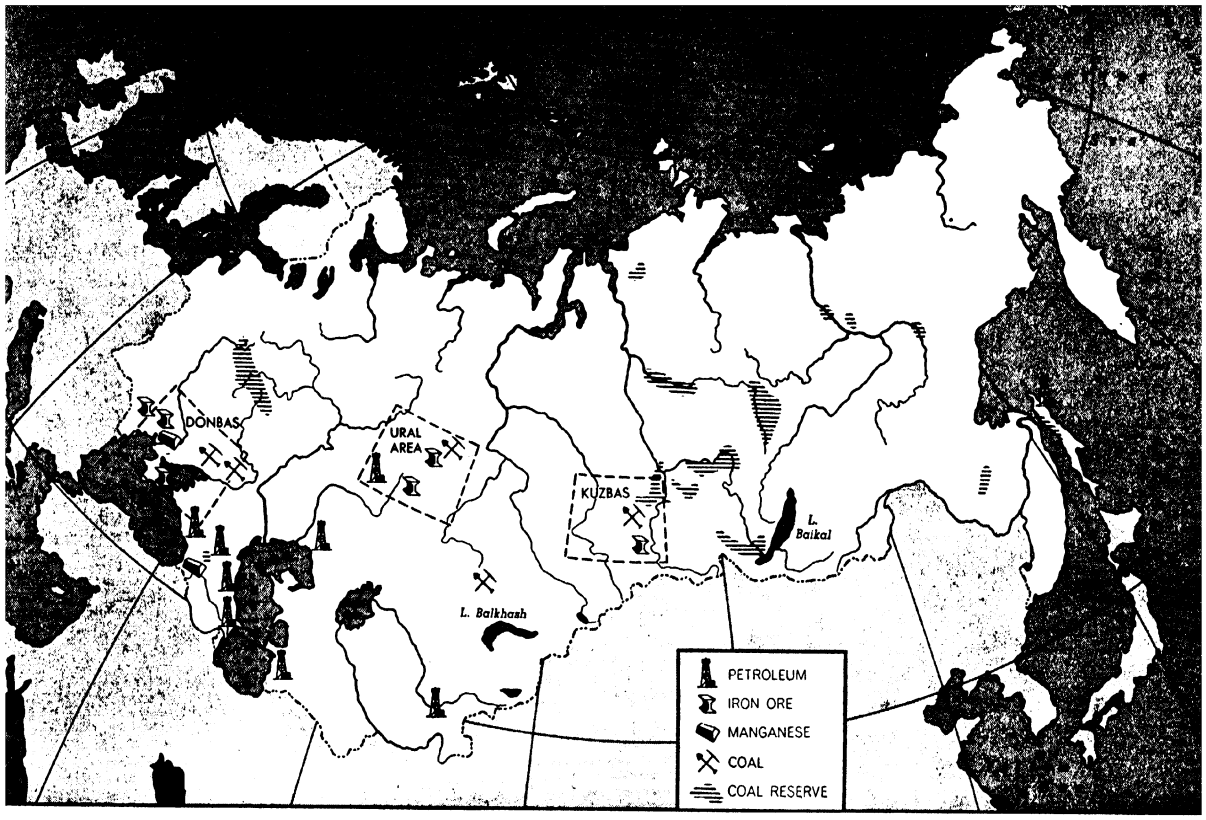
People have tried to estimate how many prisoners are held in the forced-labor camps of the Soviet Union. The true figures are of course concealed by the Soviet government. Some estimates run as high as twenty millions. Such an estimate would mean that one person out of every ten in the Soviet Union is a prisoner. Even five millions would mean that one in every forty is a prisoner. And many of these people are imprisoned for acts that we would not regard as crimes at all, but merely as the results of honest differences of opinion.

The Industrial Regions of the Soviet Union

One of the things that the study of economic geography tells us is that industry is very unevenly spread over the world. Some places sprout factories on every available piece of ground. There may then be many miles of open country before we find another cluster of factories. Does your home lie in an industrial region? If so, do you know why the region has factories? It may seem to be just a matter of chance. McShort and O'Tall started a business, and it grew into a factory.

But usually if factories are built in some region and grow prosperous there, it is more than just a matter of chance. Probably that region has some advantages over others for industry. It may have coal, oil, or gas. It may have good rail, road, or water transportation. Choosing locations for new industries today is quite a scientific matter in any country.

When a businessman in a country like ours thinks about building a new factory, he tries to find the place where he can operate with the most profit. He will inquire whether such things as raw materials and power are to be had. He will find out whether taxes are high or low and whether skilled workers can be hired. He will study transportation costs for both the raw materials and the finished product.



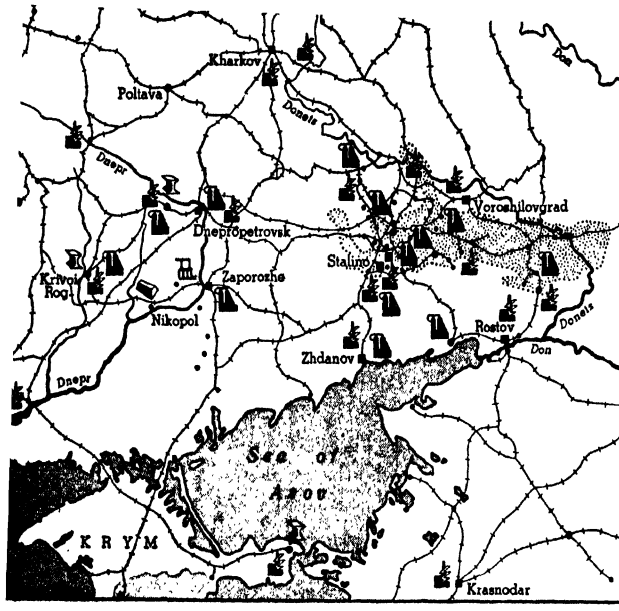
The industrial Combinats you see here are shown in detail on maps on the next two pages.

Now consider the case of a Soviet official planning the location of a new factory in the Soviet Union. He can't ignore costs and profits entirely. Governments cannot simply manufacture money—not for very long. The Soviet government cannot build locomotives out of solid gold just because it is the government. And it is not likely to ship a bulky, low-value material like iron ore for many thousands of miles before smelting it. But the Soviet official planning a new plant thinks of more than cost alone. One of the important things he has thought of has been military strategy. It was in part for military security that the Soviet government pushed the building of steel mills in Siberia.

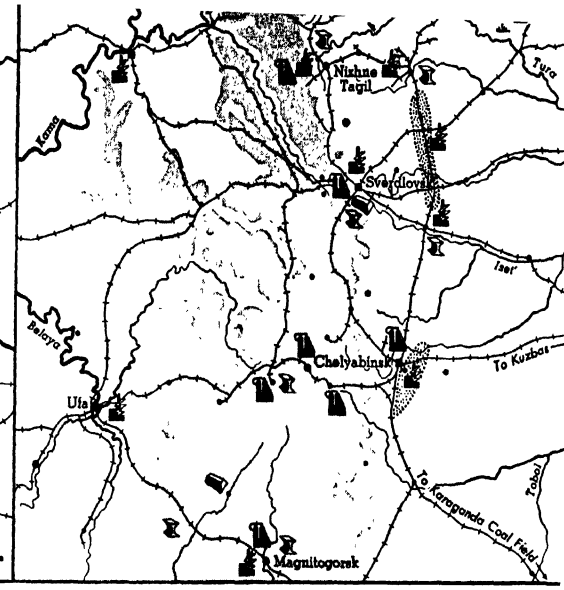
Another thing that the Soviet official might have to consider is what we might call regional development. The Soviet government has tried to spread industry somewhat evenly over the country. It has not wanted any part of the country to be entirely agricultural or too industrial. One reason for this is that the government wants the products of farm and of factory to balance each other. Another reason is that people of farm regions and people of industrial regions often disagree politically. In the United States people hear of "the farm bloc" and of "eastern capitalists." In Canada the agricultural Prairie Provinces do not always see eye to eye with more industrial Ontario. These differences are not as sharp today as they have been in the past, because industry is spreading in both countries.

Industries have sprung up in many parts of the Soviet Union. Blast furnaces and steel mills stand in parts of Siberia that not long ago were without factories. Textile mills have been built in central Asia, which is the Soviet "cotton belt." Mines and sawmills are operated in the Far North.

The Ukraine and the Urals. Many industries require large amounts of fuel. The most important of the industrial fuels is coal. Therefore we find that many important



Donbas.



Ural area.

industrial regions—like the Pittsburgh area in the United States, Birmingham in England, and the Ruhr in Germany—lie in or near coal fields.

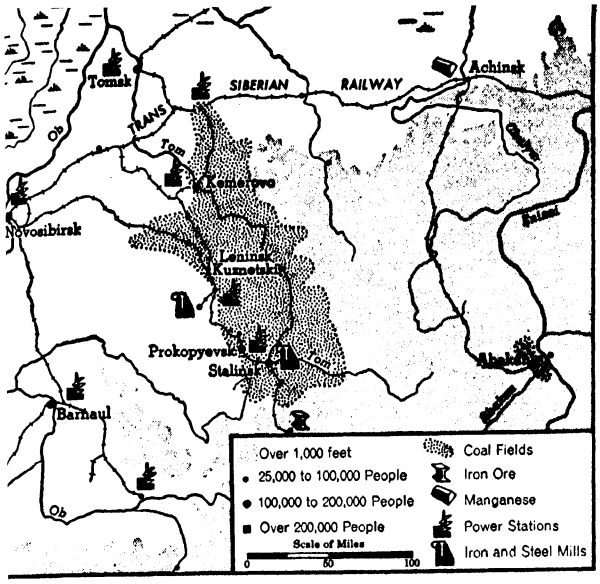
One of the industries that require enormous amounts of good coal is iron smelting. Ironmaking and steelmaking are examples of what are called the heavy industries. They require very large amounts of fuel and raw materials and turn out heavy, bulky products. In Russia before the revolution, the chief center of heavy industry was in the southwest, in the region called the Ukraine. The Ukraine is one of the richest parts of the Soviet Union. Underneath its deep, black soil are beds of coal and deposits of iron and manganese ore. The great river of the Ukraine—the Dnepr—flows over long rapids on its way to the Black Sea. These rapids have been harnessed by a dam to generate electric power.

The coal beds of the Ukraine lie in the eastern part, in the basin drained by the Donets River. The Russians, with their fondness for abbreviations, call this Donbas. Donbas was the leading iron and steel region of the Soviet Union at the outbreak of World War II. Iron ore came chiefly from Krivoi Rog, west of the Dnepr. Other iron ores are brought to the Ukraine from the Crimean Peninsula in the Black Sea. Manganese, used in nearly all steel because it helps absorb gases from the metal, is mined in the Ukraine and also in the Caucasus Mountains.

In addition to the mineral wealth, there is hydroelectricity from the Dnepr Rapids dam, which supplies industries requiring large amounts of electric power. The raw materials and fuel and power of the Ukraine make possible great industrial development in that area. They form the basis for what the Russians call an industrial Combinat, or combination.

The Soviet government was not content to leave all its heavy-industry eggs in the Ukraine basket. If it had been, the country's iron and steel industries would have been wiped out by the German invasion. Fortunately for their country, the Soviet authorities, more than twelve years before, had started new centers of heavy industry in the Ural Mountains and in Siberia.

In the Urals and Siberia there are natural resources of great value, exceeding those of the Ukraine in quantity. The chief iron deposits are in the southern part of the Ural Mountains. There one peak is called Magnet Mountain. The city of Magnitogorsk is named for it. Coal is found in the Urals also,



Kuzbas.

but it is of poor quality. It can be used for ordinary fuel, but it will not yield coke for the blast furnaces.

When the steel industry of the Urals was first planned, people thought that the nearest coking coal lay more than a thousand miles to the east. It was in the Kuznetsk Basin, drained by the Tom River. Russians call this coal basin Kuzbas. They built and improved many miles of railroads in order to haul Kuzbas coal to Ural iron and, on the return trip, to haul Ural iron to Kuzbas coal. But twelve hundred miles is a long way to haul coal and iron ore by railroad. It makes the steel which is produced expensive. In this case fortune favored the Soviet Union. Iron ores were discovered near Kuzbas, and coal was discovered in central Asia, in the Kazakh Republic, only half as far from the Ural iron mines as Kuzbas.

Thus industrial Combinats have arisen in the Urals and western Siberia. At the time of the German invasion, whole factories and hundreds of thousands of workers were moved eastward into these safer regions. In the future, this may be the main heavy-industry region of the Soviet Union.

Oil for the Soviet motors. Ships, locomotives, tractors, automobiles, and many other mechanical things can be built from iron and steel. But nearly every piece of machinery needs oil. Ships burn oil under their boilers or in the cylinders of their Diesel engines. Gasoline gives life to the automobile and airplane. Practically everything that turns or slides—wheels, axles, pistons—is lubricated with oil.

At the eastern end of the Caucasus Mountains, the Baku peninsula juts out into the Caspian Sea. This little peninsula is one of the most famous oil fields in the world. Centuries ago it was known for its seepages of oil. The oil was used as salve for the sores on camels' hides! Real production of oil for commerce goes back about eighty years. Yet this field is still the most productive in the Soviet Union, and probably several billion barrels remain underground. Baku is one of the most vital spots in the Soviet Union. Some of its oil is piped overland to the Black Sea. Some of it goes across the Caspian to the Volga and up the Volga by barge.

Several other parts of the Soviet Union look like good places to explore for oil. Soviet geologists have discovered many sites for drilling. As far back as 1936 there were forty-four oil-producing fields besides Baku. Among these new oil fields are several along the north flank of the Caucasus Mountains and a large number north of the Caspian Sea and scattered along the western side of the Ural Mountains almost to the Arctic Ocean. Oil is also found on Sakhalin Island, north of Japan.

No one knows for sure how much oil there is in the Soviet Union—not even the Russians themselves—for it is hard to judge reserves of oil until many wells have been drilled. The Soviet Union may have as much oil as the United States—perhaps more—and is using it more slowly. A great power always has its eyes on oil. The Soviet Union, like the United States and the United Kingdom, keeps a sharp watch on the Middle East and its enormous oil fields.

Should the Soviet Union be forced to turn to synthetic oil made from coal by chemistry,

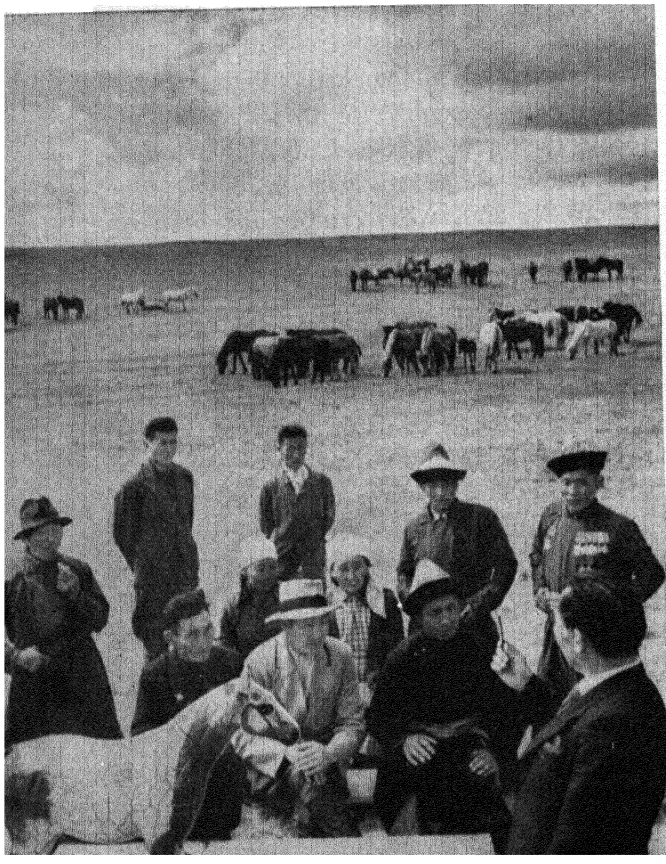
it will have abundant raw material. Soviet coal fields rival those of the United States in size. Though Donbas in the Ukraine has been the most important coal producer in the Soviet Union, the greatest reserves are in central Siberia. There perhaps a million million tons or more lie underground.

Food for the Soviet people. Russia before the revolution was a land of peasants. Industry was confined to a few cities, and the great bulk of the population lived on the land. Some lived on their own farms, and many lived on the estates of the landowners.

Fewer people in the Soviet Union live on farms than was true in the days before the revolution. This is because of the rapid industrialization and the growth of cities. But the Soviet Union still has a very large rural population. The farmers live and work in a manner unlike that of the farmers of other countries. Beginning in 1928, when the first of the Five-Year Plans was launched, the peasants and their lands were collectivized. That is, the government no longer allowed a single peasant to farm his own small tract of land. Instead, it joined the farms of a hundred or more peasants into one collective farm. In the picture below is a small group on a collective stock-raising farm.

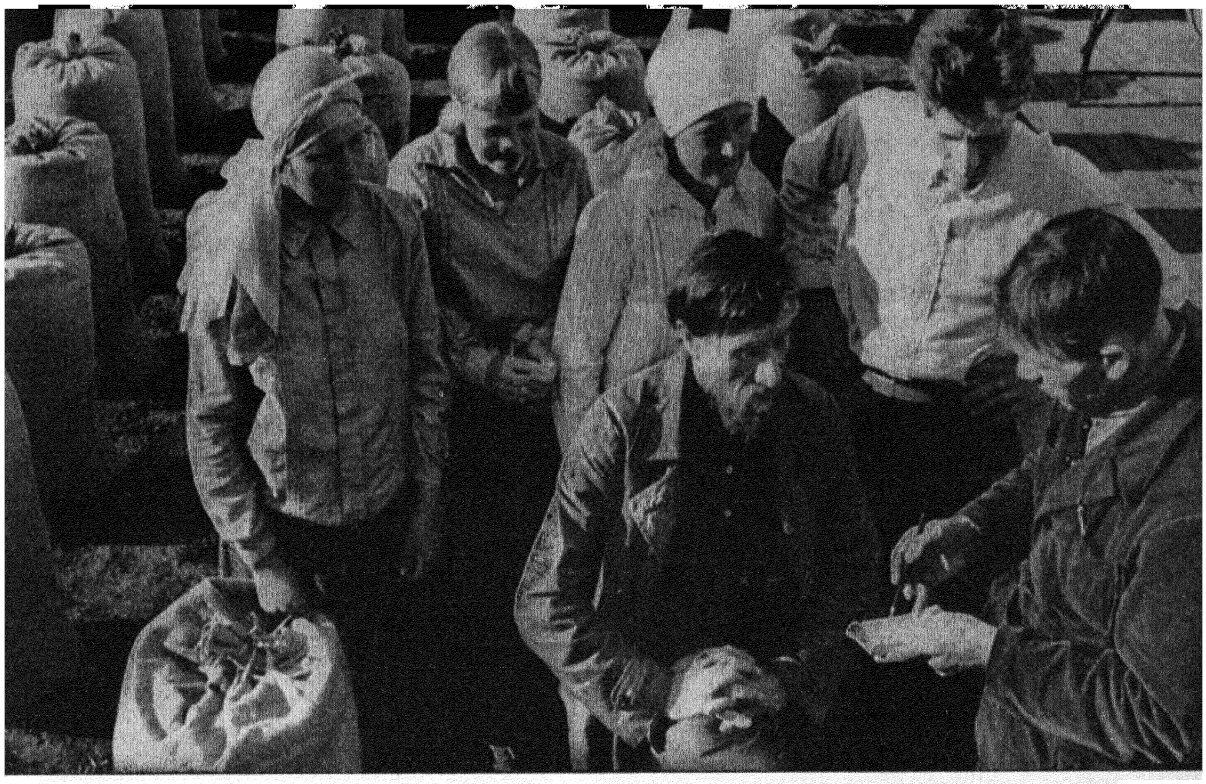
Getting a lesson in improving stock. Look at the map on page 46 and then at the land here. Where might the picture have been taken?

Sovfoto



Collectivization served several purposes. In the first place, it created larger fields, so farm machinery could be used effectively. The use of machinery for farming meant that fewer workers were needed to raise the crops. Therefore, many of the peasants could go to the cities to work in the new factories which were growing up. In the second place, the large collective farm could have an expert manager and trained agriculturists. So the food output was expected to increase. Then, by turning the farms into a sort of factory, the peasant became a worker like the factory workers. Farmers who own their own land and market their own crops are really businessmen. And communism, we have learned, does not want men in business for themselves. On a collective farm, a peasant may have his own garden and a little livestock, such as chickens or a cow. He can sell what he raises in his garden or gets from his livestock, after he has filled his own needs. But the main grain fields, pastures, and the like, belong to the collective farm. Part of the harvest goes to the government. The rest is shared by the peasants in proportion to the work they have put in.

The history of collective farming in the Soviet Union is not what the officials expected it to be. At first the peasants were very slow about joining the collectives. It meant giving up their land and their livestock. Then the government put pressure upon them to join. Thousands of peasants joined unwillingly, but before they joined, they killed and ate their livestock. They even ate their seed grain. Instead of increasing production of food, the first effect of collectivization was to decrease it. A famine



Sovfoto

Payday comes once a year for these collective farmers. Who might the man at the lower right be?

followed, in which an untold number of people—perhaps several million—died. Production gradually picked up again, and more farm machinery came into use. The Soviet Union now produces enough food for its people and usually has some wheat for export. The average Soviet citizen has more to eat than does a Chinese, though his diet is scantier and more tiresome than that of most people in America.

The population of the Soviet Union is increasing rapidly. The birth rate is high, and knowledge of sanitation and medicine is cutting down the death rate. There now are about two hundred million people in the country. Experts who deal with birth and death rates guess that there will be two hundred fifty million "Sovietians" in 1970. In most modern countries the population tends to stop growing after a while. Before this happens in the Soviet Union, there may be three hundred million people.

Can the Soviet land feed three hundred million people? For all its immense size, the Soviet Union has little more farm land than the United States. Perhaps one-tenth of the land of the Soviet Union is good for farming. Soviet scientists and officials believe their land can continue to feed its population if the farmers use the best methods of cultivation. Very scientific farming will be necessary.

Where Soviet crops are grown. The Soviet Union is about as large as all of North America. Much of this great area, we have seen, lies in zones which are rather lean. The tundra strip yields some minerals and pasture for reindeer. The taiga, or coniferous forest, furnishes a great supply of lumber and pulpwood and includes areas containing some minerals. But the land is not very suitable for farming even after it is cleared. East of the Caspian Sea is a desert. Parts of the steppes don't have sufficient

rainfall for crops. In eastern Siberia and in the extreme south there are mountains.

Three main areas produce most of the crops of the Soviet Union. The first of these areas is the wide belt of mixed and broadleaf forest. The second is the Black Earth, of the more humid northern margin of the steppes. The third is the valleys in and near the mountains of the south.

The forest belt is mainly a region of mixed or of general farming. Wheat is grown in its southern part and hardier grains farther north. Bread grains are the backbone of the Russian food supply. Flax and potatoes also are grown, and there are dairy farms, especially near the city markets.

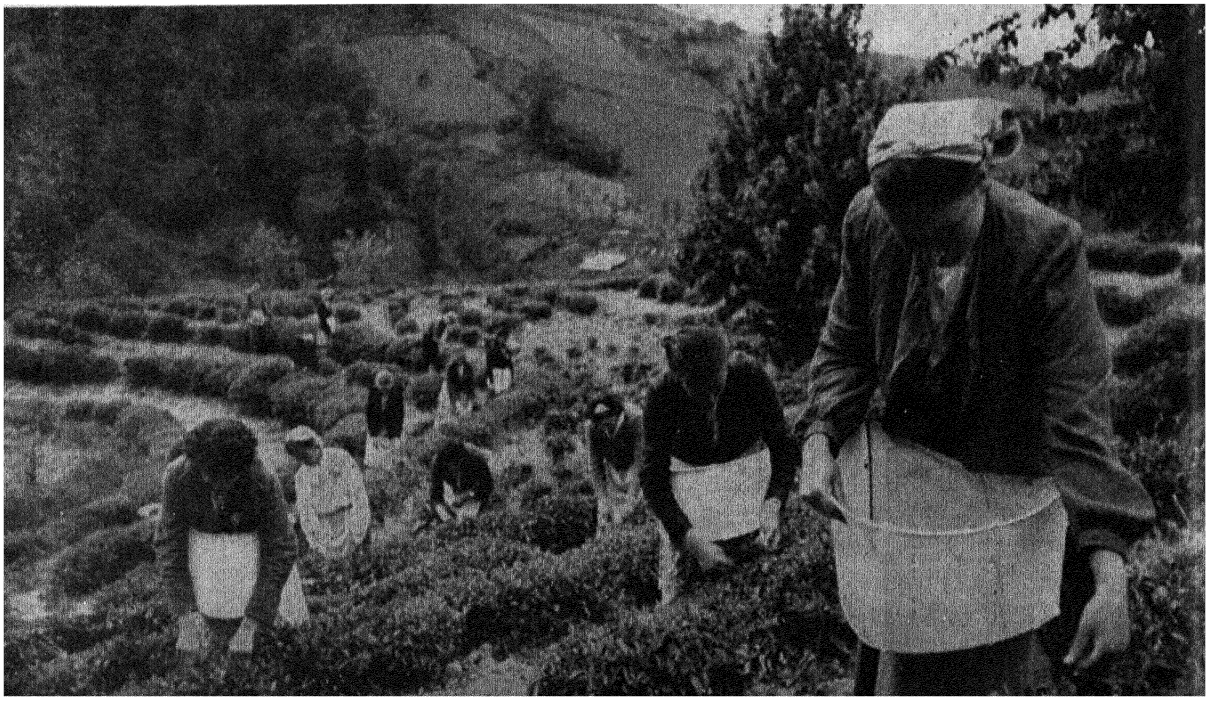
Together with the Black Earth, the mixed and broadleaf forest is a great wedge, widest at the western frontier of the Soviet Union. It tapers like a funnel's stem into western Siberia. This wedge might be called the most important part of the Soviet Union, though it includes only a small part of the total area. In it are most of the farm land and most of the great cities.

The Black Earth part of the agricultural wedge, as we have seen, produces great quantities of wheat. Sugar beets also are grown here—chiefly in the Ukraine—and cattle are grazed. South of the Black Earth, in the drier steppes, is more cattle country.

The most unexpected type of farming in the Soviet Union is to be found in and near the southern mountains. We would not expect to find tender crops like oranges growing anywhere in the Soviet Union. We think of it as such a cold country. The defeats of Napoleon and of Hitler have taught us that two of Russia's great generals are "General January" and "General February." The Russian winter is no joke. Over most of the vast Soviet Union, temperatures far below freezing prevail during the winter months. But in the extreme south, on the sheltered side of the Caucasus Mountains and in the irrigated valleys of central Asia, nearly tropical crops can be grown. In the Union Republics south of the Caucasus, such seeming strangers as tea, rice, and citrus fruits are raised. The picture below shows a Soviet tea plantation. The central Asiatic republics are the cotton belt. Their subtropical land does much to round out the Soviet Union's supply of foods and raw materials.

Tea plants grow best on well-drained soil where there is plenty of rain. What shows that these have both?

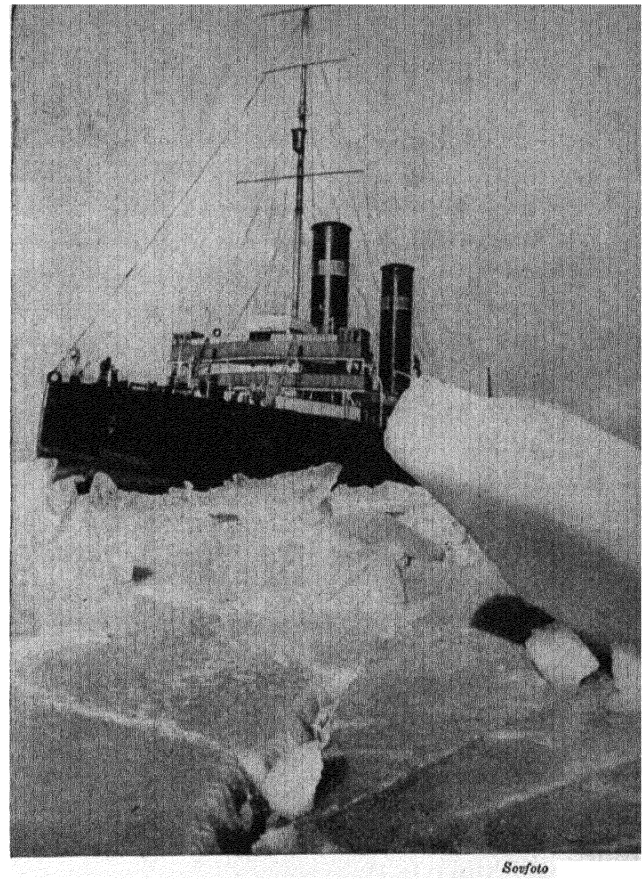
Sovfoto



The Soviet Arctic. One of the most highly publicized parts of Soviet planning and development has been the exploration and use of the Arctic region. Soviet explorers in the Arctic have found mineral deposits and have opened routes into the great forests. The people have learned to navigate along the Arctic seacoast and fly the polar airways. These explorations have both economic and military importance.

The sea route along the Soviet Arctic coast is called by the Russians the Northern Sea Route. Even before the revolution, some ships were voyaging from the Atlantic as far east as the mouth of the Enisei River, where they picked up cargoes of lumber. The Soviet government pushed the development of navigation along the Arctic coast in summer, and ships regularly visit ports along the entire distance from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Some parts of the route are open only for two months or so in the summer. This is true even for ships with icebreaker assistance and airplanes to scout out openings in the ice. But this route is very useful for opening up a part of the country otherwise difficult to reach.

Aviation in the Arctic has captured the fancy not only of the Russians but also of Americans, Canadians, and many other peoples. In imagination they have pictured airplanes by the dozen shuttling back and forth along the short routes across the Far North. Someday this may really happen. At the present, the main intercontinental air lanes lie farther south. Main-line commercial flying over the Arctic Ocean is held back in part because the Soviet Union is unwilling to have foreign planes land on its soil or fly over its territory. And it is held back in part because the transarctic routes do not connect places that are likely to supply much traffic. Take a globe and see what cities would be connected by great-circle routes across the Arctic Ocean. Do you think that many airplanes would be needed for the people who would want to travel directly between those cities?



Sovfoto

A Russian icebreaker goes about its business. A ship has to be specially constructed for this work.

There is no reason to think that the far-northern portions of either the Soviet Union or North America are likely to be the homes of dense populations, as are the more temperate regions. Severe climate and poor soil make farming difficult. Farms in the Soviet northlands are there mainly to supply fresh milk and vegetables to the people of near-by mines, lumber camps, military establishments, and other outlying settlements. The main products of these lands will probably always be lumber, minerals, furs, fish, and perhaps reindeer meat. A good many people will live in the northern lands to operate flying fields and weather and radio stations; and they will live in the towns to run the stores, amusements, and other services. Many more people may live in the Far North than is true today. Nevertheless, the population will remain more sparse than in the lands of milder climate.

THE U. S. A. AND THE U. S. S. R.

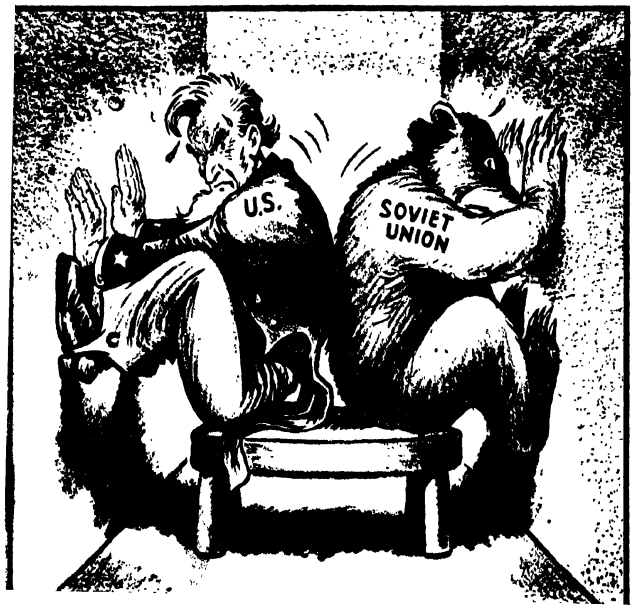
A rudder is much smaller than a ship, yet the rudder steers the ship. World politics today is like a ship with two rudders. One is the United States, the other the Soviet Union. Together they have only one-sixth of the world's population, but they are powerful and well organized—and as they steer, so the world moves. During World War II the United States and the Soviet Union steered more or less the same course. The war was scarcely over when the two countries began to differ about the course to be steered. Because they differed, the course of world affairs became crooked.

Two Great Powers

Perhaps it was natural that the two greatest powers should not agree. Once Athens and Troy were rivals, and so were Rome and Carthage. The history of Europe is written in rivalries: between England and Spain, England and France, England and Germany, and many other countries. England's name often appears because it was for so long one of the greatest of powers. If England and her rivals on the European continent could have worked together, the world would have been spared a long series of wars. The United States and the Soviet Union are now the two greatest powers. If they could learn to work together, they could insure peace for many generations to come. But working with the Soviet Union is easier said than done.

Which way?

Messner in The Rochester Times-Union



Doing business with the Soviets. Do you know anybody who has learned by burning his fingers that fire is hot, or by dropping a mirror that glass breaks? We say that such a person has "learned the hard way." Our statesmen have learned the hard way how the Soviet government does business, and the lesson has been painful. The Soviet people probably would be as friendly as most people anywhere, if we had a way to get close to them. But they are so thoroughly shut behind the Iron Curtain their government has raised that we have almost no contacts with them. It is with the Soviet government that we must deal, and we have learned at a high price that the Soviet government drives hard bargains and plays according to its own rules. Communists don't trust anybody, not even each other. They regard trust, compromise, and easy agreement as signs of weakness. Our statesmen have not been used to this hard-boiled approach. Diplomacy, which means the conduct of affairs between nations, has in the past been conducted in a more polite fashion. It has taken repeated lessons to make clear that the Soviet government regards diplomacy as a chance to make propaganda speeches.

Another feature of Soviet diplomacy that we have learned the hard way is that the Communists never let up even for a minute. They never really relax their efforts to gain an advantage over the noncommunist nations. We are always hoping to reach some permanent agreement with the Soviet Union, so that life can run along smoothly and peacefully. But the Soviet government has not done business that way. Since the death of Premier Joseph Stalin, long-time

dictator of the Soviet Union, people are hoping for a friendlier Soviet policy. But we have learned that it is necessary, in dealing with the Soviet Union or its satellites, to take a firm stand on what we believe to be right, and to have the armed forces necessary to back up that stand. We have learned that we must stand firm not just for a few days or weeks but for as many years as necessary.

This problem of doing business with the Soviets is all the more critical because the United States and the Soviet Union are by far the most powerful countries in the world. Haiti and the Dominican Republic don't always agree, but it is unlikely that trouble in their island will set the whole world on fire. But war between the United States and the Soviet Union would probably be a world war. It would probably involve most of the countries that lie between these two great powers in what we call the coastlands of Eurasia.

Which Way?

There is rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union because both are very great powers. But there is more to Soviet-American rivalry than just competition for power. These two countries have very different views on government, private property, and personal liberty. What is really at stake is the kind of world we are going to live in for years and generations to come. When the Communists have gained control of a country, they have turned its support toward the Soviet Union and away from the United States. The country's policies on government and property and liberty have become like those of the Soviet Union, not like those of the United States. So the United States is weakened just as the Soviet Union is strengthened by communist gains. But it is not just the United States that is weakened. Every other country whose people have a desire for individual rights and freedom is weakened, too.

It would be dishonest to say that all freedom-loving people in other countries like the United States in every respect. Some of them think Americans are stuck-up and money-minded, that Americans are full of prejudices, and that American business may have another big depression. But most of them also feel that the United States is a powerful force in preserving freedom and democracy, which they want preserved.

A rough test of whether a person leans toward the Soviet system or prefers one we call democratic is to ask him these questions: Do you think we can have all Four Freedoms at once? If not, are you willing to throw away one freedom to gain another? That sounds like a riddle, but it is really simple. These are the Four Freedoms:

Freedom from want
Freedom of speech
Freedom of worship
Freedom from fear

In communist thinking, complete government control of economic life is the only way toward freedom from want. To gain this control quickly, freedom of speech and freedom from fear (and to some extent, freedom of worship) are sacrificed. The last three freedoms have been lost in every country to come under communist rule, and so far freedom from want has barely been gained.

Outside the communist lands, there are some countries where none of the Four Freedoms are assured. There are some countries, especially in Asia, where life is so hard for the people that many of them feel they have little to lose if communism does prove a false guide. But there are also really democratic countries where people of all walks of life believe that all Four Freedoms are possible. They have the last three already—except for freedom from the fear of war. And they are finding ways to be free from want, without revolution and without loss of liberty. Which is the way of the future? Which way will the world swing? These questions hang over the countries of the coastlands and of the Americas.

A WORKSHOP ABOUT THE SOVIET UNION

Government and business are so closely related in the Soviet Union that the two can't be separated. Under communism, the government owns or controls all resources and all the ways of making a living. In our country, government and business are not so closely related. Generally speaking, we think most businesses and farming should be privately owned and that the government should merely regulate them when it is necessary for the public good.

We are so used to living under our own system that we don't always stop to think about it. Or perhaps we just think about its faults and imagine that some other system might be better. Of course no economic system is perfect. It's a case of trying to get the most that is good with the least that is bad, and of making improvements as we go along.

In this chapter we learned something about economic life in the Soviet Union. A good way to learn about making a living in your own country is to study business or farming in your own community.

In Your Community

How do people make a living in your community? Your class might form groups, and you could divide the study of the different ways of making a living there. Include farming if you live in a place where that is an important way of making a living. If your community is small, you can include all the business carried on there. If it is large, you can study one part of town or one kind of business. See if you can find answers to these questions about any business you choose to study:

1. Who owns the business or farm? Is it owned by one man? Partners? Stockholders in a corporation?
2. How did the business get started in your community? Who started it and when? Has it grown or changed since its beginning?
3. Who manages the business, the owner or a manager?
4. How many people are employed in this business? What are the various kinds of jobs that they do?
5. Where do the supplies come from? If the business is a farm, where do the seed and fertilizer come from? If a store, the merchandise? If a factory, the raw materials? Are fuel and power needed? Where do they come from?
6. Who buys the goods produced or sold? Are most of them sold in your community, or do they go to distant markets? Is business about the same the year round, or are there a busy season and an off season? If there is an off season, what do the businessmen, farmers, and workers do then?

Make a map of your community or of a part of it. Try to show what both the land and the buildings are used for. For instance, show homes in one color, farms in another, stores in a third, factories in a fourth, and public buildings in a fifth. Make the map large enough so you can write the name of each farm, public building, and kind of business on it in the proper place. Do you see any reasons why each is located where it is? Ask a few of the businessmen why their stores are located where they are.

After finishing your survey and making your map, try to answer these questions:

1. What sorts of activities in your community are run by private owners? What sorts of activities are run by your local government? By the state or national government?
2. If someone wanted to start a new store or other business in your community, what would he have to consider? What would he need to start the business?
3. Is economic life in your community like that of most other communities in this country, or is it unusual in some way?
4. If questions *1* and *2* were asked of a member of a community in the Soviet Union, what do you think his answers would be?

Two Great Powers

On pages 16, 18, and 21, comparisons were made between the United States and the Soviet Union. You can make some comparisons yourself, using information from various sources. You will find suggestions on the next two pages.

COMPARISON THROUGH DISCUSSION

When people exchange ideas with each other on some chosen subject or topic, they are carrying on a discussion. In a panel discussion or town-hall type of discussion, a number of people sit before a group and carry on a planned discussion directed by a chairman. Members of the audience may ask questions of the speakers. A whole class or a fairly large group of people may choose a chairman and speak or join in a discussion where all may ask questions. In any case, the purpose is always to try to find out what is right or true about the subject. In any discussion people must take care not to mistake opinions for facts.

These suggestions will help you have a good discussion:

For Speakers

1. Secure facts and information about the subject. Use the reading list on page 363. Take notes.
2. Decide what you are going to say. Plan answers to possible questions.
3. Talk in a conversational way.
4. Welcome other facts and other opinions.

For the Chairman

1. Don't act as if the whole thing were your show.
2. Keep the discussion within the time limit.
3. Keep speakers on the subject.
4. Remember the chief points made so that you can review them briefly at the close of the discussion.

Here are some subjects which you might discuss:

1. The Four Freedoms in the United States and in the Soviet Union
2. Life on an American farm and on a Russian farm
3. The working conditions and rights of industrial workers in the United States and in the Soviet Union

When you have a discussion, choose someone in the group to be an observer. Afterwards he will report not on *what* the group discussed, but on *how* it discussed. You can help each other improve your discussion.

Here are terms to know and to use in your discussions:

1. democracy
2. capitalism
3. communism
4. standard of living
5. unemployment
6. Politburo
7. economic life
8. Five-Year Plans
9. collective farming
10. personal liberty

COMPARISON THROUGH MAPS

1. You already know that the United States is smaller than the Soviet Union. But how much smaller? On the map on pages 402–403 measure the length of the United States along the parallel of latitude that runs through the center of the country, and on pages 382–383 measure the length of the Soviet Union along the parallel that runs through the center of that country. Use the scale on the maps to change the measurements to miles. Choose a meridian of longitude near the center of each country and measure there the width of each country. How do the measurements compare? How do the countries compare in shape?

2. Now look at the map on pages 38–39. Try to estimate how much of the land of the United States and of the Soviet Union is highly productive. How much of the land in each country is not? Is this lack of productivity in the countries due to the same or to different conditions?

3. The map on page 46 is a vegetation map of the Soviet Union. But it shows you the chief rivers there, too. In which direction do most of them flow? Find the outlet of each river shown. Use the map on pages 380–381 to find out the same things about the principal rivers in the United States. In the early history of each country, what advantages did the rivers give the people who settled there? From the world vegetation map determine what types of vegetation are found in the United States and the Soviet Union. How are the types distributed? Turn next to the rainfall map on pages 376–377. What relationship can you see between the amounts of rainfall in the two countries and the types of vegetation growing there?

4. Another very important comparison between the two countries hasn't been made yet—a comparison of the resources. On pages 93, 124, and 144 you will find maps which will help you size up the resources of the two countries.

So far all the map comparisons you have made have been related chiefly to the physical features of the two lands. How about the people who live there?

1. You know from looking at the figures on page 18 about how many people live in the United States and in the Soviet Union. Look at the map on pages 372–373 to see how the people are distributed in each country. In what part of each is the densest population? What information do you have about the countries which would help explain such location?

2. To what races do the people of each country belong? To what religious groups? The maps on pages 374–375 and 378–379 tell you. As you know, the people of the United States speak English. Languages, like people, are related—they belong to families, or language groups. Look at the red-and-white coloring on the map on pages 370–371. Languages spoken in areas marked with it all belong to the same language group. What is its name? What does the other coloring found in the Soviet Union mean? The names of the principal languages belonging to each language group are printed on the map in the areas where they are spoken. Find the ones in the Soviet Union.

3. You can see on the map on page 21 how Americans and Russians compare in the development of some resources. Look again at page 61. If you were to make a similar map of the United States, how would it be different from the one of the Soviet Union?

4. How well have the two peoples developed transportation? Look at page 52 and at pages 318 and 320. Which map of the United States is the map of the present Soviet railroad system more nearly like?

The fact that the United States and the Soviet Union are great powers makes it natural to compare them. But you can use maps to compare other countries and other parts of the world. Good maps are always good reference material when you know how to read them.

Checking Your Information

Copy the place names listed in column 1. Choose a description in column 2 which correctly identifies each one.

1. Moscow	*a.* an oil-producing area near the Caspian Sea
2. Magnitogorsk	*b.* one of the oldest cities in the Soviet Union
3. Kiev	*c.* the Soviet capital
4. Murmansk	*d.* Soviet cotton belt
5. Baku	*e.* ice-free port north of the Arctic Circle
6. Donbas	*f.* Combinat near the Sea of Azov
7. Novgorod	*g.* largest western port of the Soviet Union
8. Vladivostok	*h.* capital of the early Russian kingdom and modern capital of the Ukrainian Republic
9. Leningrad	*i.* industrial center in the Ural Mountains
10. Kuzbas	*j.* port at the southern end of the Soviet Pacific coast
	k. Combinat in western Siberia
	l. "breadbasket" of the Soviet Union

Choose the best ending for each sentence:

1. Tundra, taiga, and steppes are names for types of (climate, vegetation, land surface).

2. Russian expansion was encouraged by (the presence of a large amount of land without natural barriers, lack of resistance on the part of neighbors, the explorations of Bering).

3. The fifteen republics of the Soviet Union are organized according to (population, nationality, language).

4. Elections in the Soviet Union are not free, since (not all people can vote, nobody runs for office, the voter has no real choice).

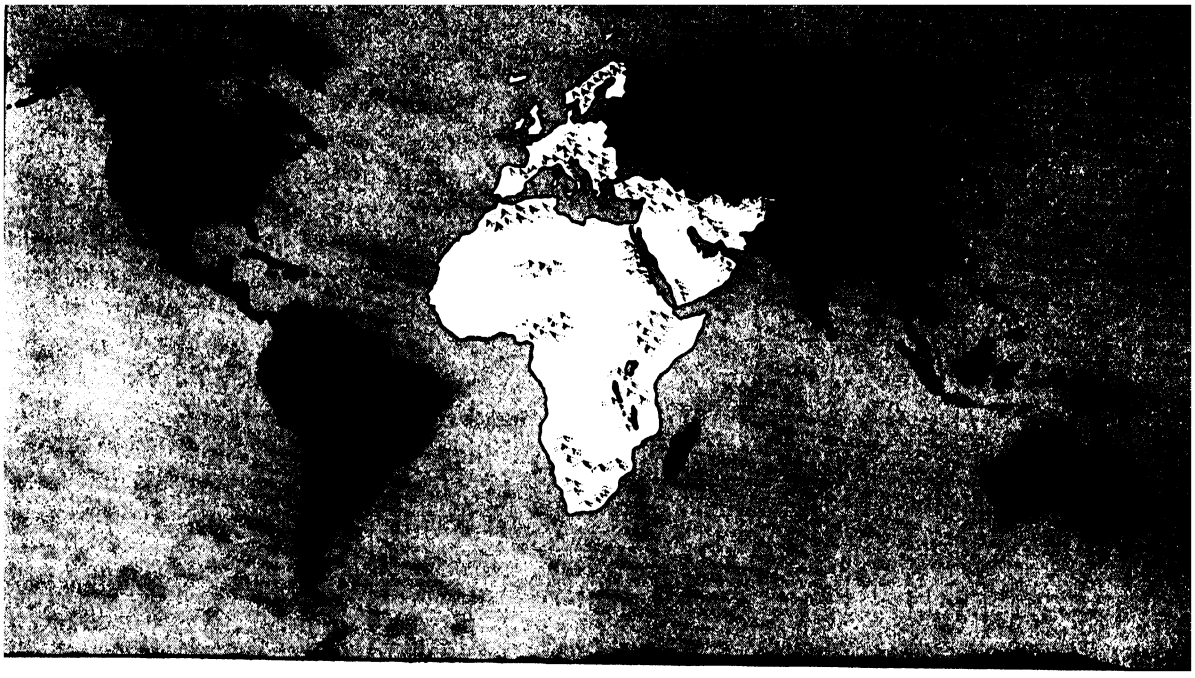
5. The Supreme Soviet differs strikingly from the United States Congress because (it has little or no debate, it always votes unanimously, it is larger).

How Do You Feel About It?

1. Without consulting a dictionary or other reference book or any person, list in order of their importance the characteristics you think a truly democratic person has.

2. Compare your list with that of others in your class. On what did all of you agree?

3. How well do you and your friends measure up to the requirements?



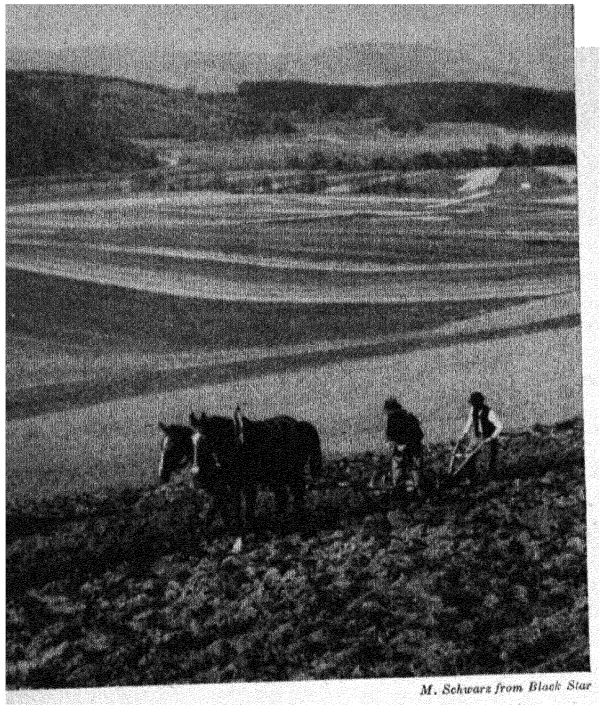
The Western Coastlands

IMPORTANCE OF THE COASTLANDS

Unlike Africa and South America, the great continent of Eurasia frays out at the edges. Huge blocks of land, such as those that make up India and Arabia, jut out into the surrounding ocean. Mountain systems reach out, making peninsulas like Kamchatka, Korea, and Malaya. And in the west a whole peninsula of peninsulas called Europe extends two thousand miles westward, between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea.

Actually, the continent of Africa itself is sometimes considered to be no more than an extension of the land mass of Eurasia. In a sense it is another of those blocks of land, like India and Arabia, that jut out into the sea. In an earlier chapter Africa was described as a gigantic tooth on the gear wheel of Eurasia. Politically, it is linked both with Europe and with the Moslem world. In any case, it seems wise to include Africa among the western coastlands of Eurasia.

On page 90 there is a map showing the western coastlands. It is a political map showing the boundaries of the countries you will be reading about in this chapter. In the Atlas Section at the back of the book you will find a complete set of merged-relief maps that show the physical and the political features of the coastlands discussed in this and the next chapter of the book. The political map in this chapter and the one in the next chapter in this book will help you locate more readily the countries you will need to find. These political maps show how politics has made geography. As you use them, you should keep referring to the physical maps and the other maps of the same areas in the



M. Schwarz from Black Star

In the coastlands you can see scenes like this.

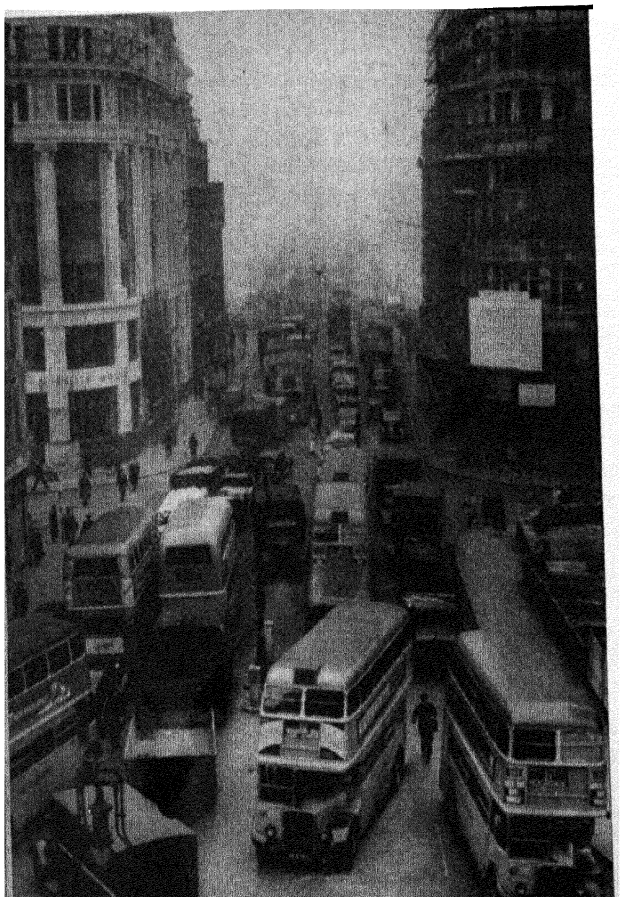
Atlas Section. They show best how geography influences politics or how in many cases geography has made politics.

The coastlands of Eurasia, including Africa, form a great belt of land that resembles a pair of ice tongs. The handle lies in Africa. The left prong reaches through Europe far to the north, beyond the Arctic Circle. The right prong reaches east and north to include the eastern coastlands of Eurasia. The belt of land included in the coastlands of Eurasia thus spans half the globe from east to west and more than one hundred degrees of latitude, from North Cape to Cape Town.

In this great belt live three-fourths of all the people of the world– sixteen hundred million persons of widely differing cultures, religions, languages, and nationalities. More than fifty countries are represented, half a

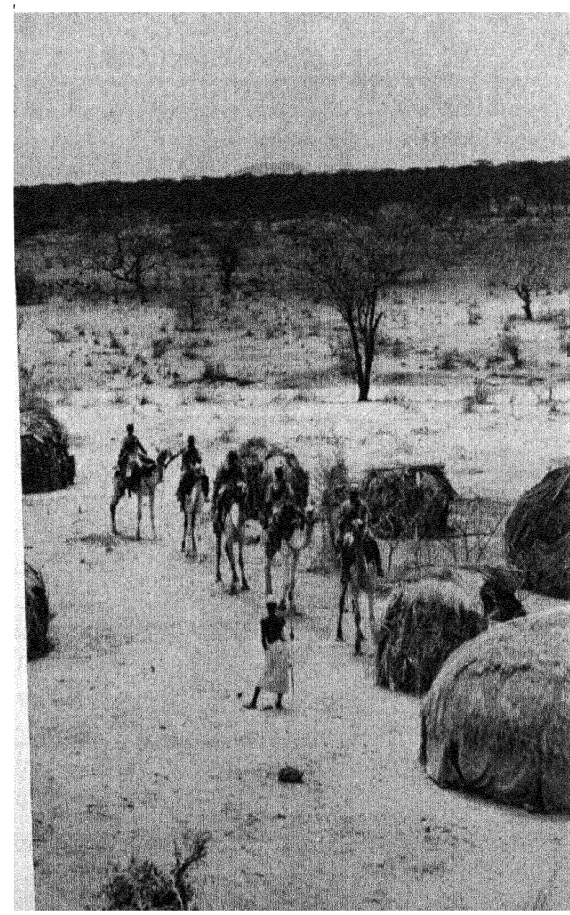
Or many old and great cities like this.

Acme



And places that look quite different—like this.

Courtesy British Information Services



dozen major religions, and many, many languages and dialects.

The coastlands of Eurasia differ greatly in climate, soils, and vegetation. There are cold, treeless areas and northern forests. There are fertile, humid, temperate lands. There are hot deserts where there is little vegetation. And there are wet tropical forests. Densely settled areas interrupt wide expanses where few people can live. Highly industrialized areas contrast with primitive regions. But all have one thing in common. All belong to the coastlands of Eurasia—all border the same great continent.

CIVILIZATION OF THE COASTLANDS

In these lands that lie between the heart of Eurasia and the sea, most of the stirring events of history have taken place. The major religions originated in this area; the leading methods of agriculture were developed here. Most of the contributions to the world's knowledge came from the civilizations that grew up in the coastlands of Eurasia. It is an important area—the most fought over and the most strategic area in all the world.

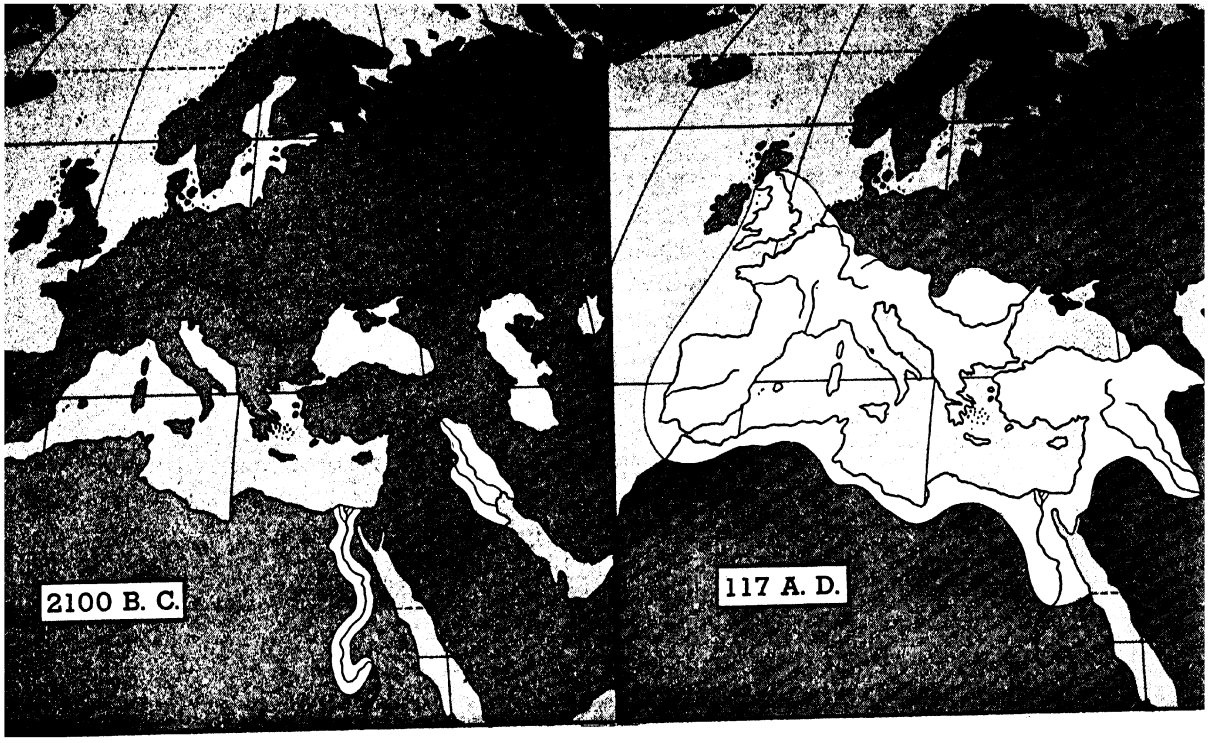
Civilization's Cradles

Certain favored areas of the coastlands proved to be good places for civilization to make its start. Here were located four of the early cradles of civilization: the Tigris-Euphrates Valley; the Indus-Ganges Valley; the valley of the Hwang Ho, in China; and the valley of the Nile, in Egypt.

What the cradles were like. What characteristics did these four areas have that caused them, in the distant past, to be favored beyond all others? For one thing, they all were protected by mountains or deserts that served to block the paths of invaders from the interior of Eurasia. There was little danger, at first, from the sea. Secondly, all four cradles developed in unforested areas, for primitive man did not have the necessary tools to clear a forest. Finally, the cradles developed in river valleys where irrigation made farming possible. In each of the four cases, of course, the civilization that grew up depended upon farming.

The cradles exchange ideas. For long periods of time the centers of civilization in the coastlands of Eurasia had little contact with one another. But little by little, partly by means of short sea voyages along the coasts and partly through the barbarian tribes of the interior, ideas and even some goods were exchanged. Rice, for instance, was first grown in India, but knowledge of it spread to China long before the beginning of recorded history. The silk industry is believed to have spread in the opposite direction, from China to India, at an early date. Wheat was grown in all of the early centers of civilization of the Old World. No one knows just where wheat got its start or how long ago. But it is often thought that it began growing in Mesopotamia—"the country between two rivers"—the valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers.

The nearness of the sea does not seem to have played a very important part in the beginning stages of any of these civilizations. But the sea became more and more important as time went on. In the coastlands of Eurasia, especially, the people made use of both land and water. The land, of course, was much more important than the sea, because on it they raised crops and animals, and from it they made their first living. But the sea beckoned them on to explore and to trade, and more and more they built ships and took to the water. And it was because these people combined the uses of land and water that civilization in the coastland regions of Eurasia reached so high a level.



Early traders and explorers carried civilization from its cradles in Egypt and Mesopotamia to lands around the Mediterranean. By 117 A.D. the Romans had carried it to all the parts of their empire, shown above.

Civilization Moves West

Strangely enough, one area that was very slow in its early development, Europe, finally grew to be the real leader of the world. Many centuries after Mesopotamian and Egyptian cultures appeared, civilization reached the islands of the eastern Mediterranean by way of Asia Minor. It spread around the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, and in favored spots small city-states began to develop. The Greek city-states of Athens and Sparta were two of them. Finally, after a long time, all of the bordering areas of the Mediterranean were united into one great empire, which was centered in Rome.

Western civilization spreads. The Roman Empire grew and spread until it included nearly all of western Europe and much of southeastern Europe as well. The Romans even conquered part of what are now the British Isles. The map on the right above shows you how large their empire was at the time of its greatest extent. But the best-developed section of the empire was the land about the Mediterranean Sea. In that part were their largest cities, their greatest trading centers, and their finest buildings. And there was the center of the whole empire—Rome, the capital city.

On the other hand, northwestern Europe seemed to be a far-off, cold shoulder of Eurasia. It had no protecting mountain ranges to stop the onrush of savage barbarian peoples from the interior of the continent. It was overrun again and again. Finally, the invaders became so strong and there were so many of them that they attacked the Roman Empire itself. They destroyed much of this great empire and even succeeded in taking Rome. For several hundred years longer the weakened empire managed to hold on at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. But it was finally wiped from the map when the Turks took Constantinople, which they renamed Istanbul. Many great cities of the Roman Empire crumbled into ruins. Only a few sparks from Roman civilization remained to light the

lamp of later European civilization, or what people of the world today speak of as western civilization.

Western civilization sweeps the world. Some might say that the light of western civilization was more like a fire than a lamp, for it swept the world in a remarkably short time, running wild, like fire in a high wind. Europeans have settled and gained control in all of the Western Hemisphere, in Australia, in large parts of Africa, and in many of the islands of the world. Most of the other jutting coastlands of Eurasia have been controlled to a large extent by Europeans, although perhaps not directly by a European power. And European ideas and goods have reached even those parts of the world that were never conquered by European armies.

Western civilization has become world civilization in all but a few parts of the earth today. And western civilization is really European civilization, although it is actually more west European than east European, for reasons we shall learn later. Furthermore, western civilization went on developing after it was transplanted to other parts of the world. The United States and Canada have made many contributions to it, and so have the countries of Latin America.

As western civilization expanded, it absorbed ideas and things from other areas. These ideas and things enriched it and made it more nearly a true world civilization. Many of the New World crops, such as maize (corn), potatoes, and tobacco, spread to the Old World. Sugar cane and rice spread from India to other parts of the world. Western civilization may have sprung originally from Europe, but it is no longer just European. In fact, Europe itself has been considerably changed by all the contacts which its people have had with the rest of the world.



Where western civilization had spread at the time when the voyages of discovery began.

BEFORE THE VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY

Before Columbus discovered America, Europe did not hold the important position in the world that it did in the centuries afterwards. In the Far East the Chinese had developed a civilization which probably far excelled that of Europe at the time of Columbus. The civilization of India, too, seemed in many ways superior to that of Europe. But Europe lay on the far edge of the then known world—it was four or five thousand miles from either China or India. This made it difficult for the people of Europe to know what was happening in other parts of the coastlands.

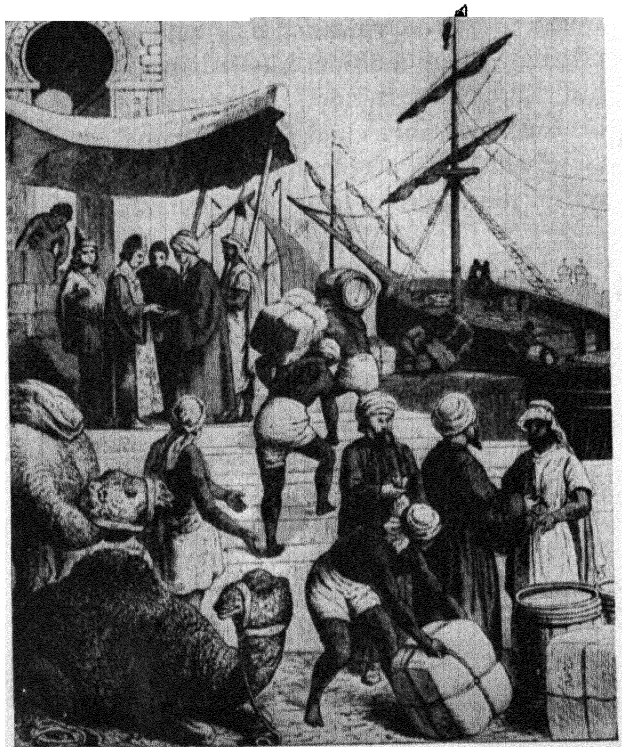
Some news leaked through the interior of the continent by way of the Mongol people, who had controlled the interior for several hundred years. In this way the Europeans are said to have learned about gunpowder, and about the first steps in printing, too.

Information was brought also by the Mohammedans, who had contact with India as well as with southern Europe. Many of our mathematical ideas came from India in this way. Our numbering system and our way of writing numbers came to us from India by way of the Arabs.

One thing that slowed down the spread of knowledge from one civilization to another was the very limited use made of the open oceans. Europeans did not know how to reach eastern Asia by sea. Coasting vessels skirted all of Europe; but they could not go beyond the eastern Mediterranean, for there was no Suez Canal. Similarly, ships loaded with goods from the Far East could easily follow the coast of Asia. But when the ships reached the Persian Gulf or Red Sea, they had to be unloaded. The precious stones, silks, and spices were loaded onto camels that carried these valuable goods overland to some port on the eastern Mediterranean or Black Sea. Such travel was very slow and expensive. Only the most valuable things could be shipped in this costly fashion. It is not surprising that most of the people of Europe got along without goods from the Orient. They got along without many oriental ideas, too.

Europeans doing business with Arabs. From the looks of things, where might the ship be docked?

The Bettmann Archive



Europe Becomes Interested in the Far East

Two centuries before Columbus' voyages of discovery, a young Venetian traveler named Marco Polo made the long trip overland from southwestern Asia to Cathay (China) with his father and uncle. Genghis Khan and his Mongol forces had conquered and united the heart of the continent. Fighting had stopped. But it was so hard to travel then, even when countries were peaceful, that it took Marco Polo three and a half years to reach Cathay.

Everything the Polos saw was very new and strange to Marco. But he must have enjoyed new places and new peoples, for he spent many years traveling about in the Far East. He lived in many different places, but he always came back to the court of Kublai Khan, a grandson of Genghis Khan. There, before an admiring audience, he would describe and tell stories about the various places he had visited.

Marco Polo seems to have had a remarkable memory. Years later, after he returned to Italy, he astonished everyone with tales of the great cities he had seen and with information about the commerce on the rivers of China. The Yangtze Kiang, said he, was the greatest river in the world, and had more commerce than all of the rivers of Christendom put together.

Some of his stories show how backward Europe was in comparison with China. He reported that the Chinese used a peculiar kind of black stone that they burned to warm their houses and to heat water for their baths. In fact, he was very much surprised at the amount of bathing that went on in China. Europeans were not used to bathing so often, and they did not

know how to burn coal or how to heat their houses satisfactorily.

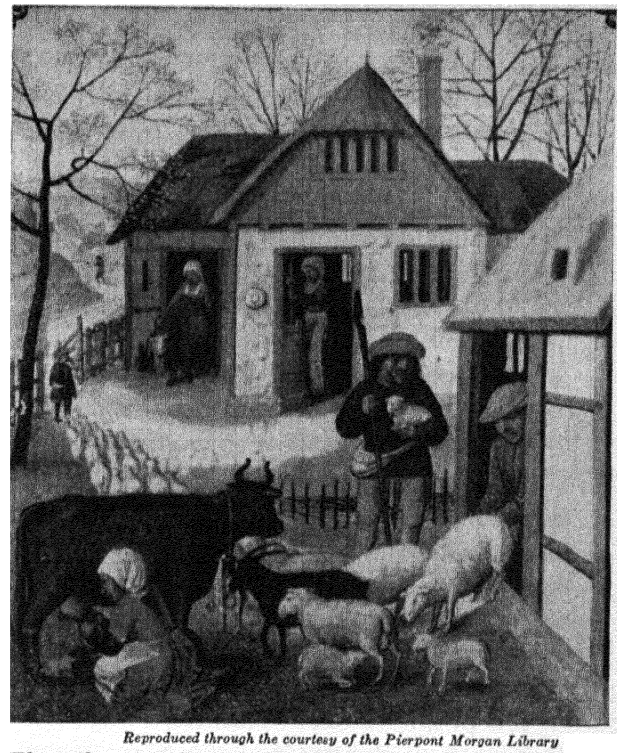
Many of the tales that Marco Polo told were about regions so little known to Europeans that they thought the stories just tall tales and refused to believe them. And many of the stories seem to have been just that. Fact and fiction were woven together in such a way that it was difficult to tell which was which. But the stories did arouse considerable interest in the Orient, and the people of Europe redoubled their efforts to trade with oriental lands.

Two Mediterranean ports, Venice and Genoa, rivaled each other to secure the greater share of this trade. Each had its own particular trade route and its own contacts with merchants in southwestern Asia. These merchants in their turn received goods from the Far East. Each of the cities prospered. But in the years that followed, merchants in western and northern Europe became interested in the trade with the East. The Portuguese looked for and found a new route to India—around Africa. Other discoveries followed. Europeans had begun to find the world outside Europe.

Europe in the Fifteenth Century

The voyages of discovery widened and enriched the culture of Europe so much that it is worth while to stop and take a special look at Europe as it was just before the voyages took place. Then we shall have something with which to compare the Europe of later periods.

The farmers. As was true in other parts of the world in the fifteenth century, most of the people of Europe were farmers. In those days a very large part of the population had to be farmers in order to feed the people. In highly developed parts of the world today, we can get along nicely with only about 10 percent to 20 percent of the people engaged in farming. But in the fifteenth century, farming methods were so poor that perhaps as many as 90 percent of all the workers had to be farmers.



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These farmers depended chiefly upon themselves.

The farming of that day was what we call subsistence crop and livestock farming, which is a type still to be found in a few of the most backward parts of Europe. In this type of agriculture people do not buy and sell farm products to any great extent. Instead, they live almost entirely upon their own farm supplies in addition to such food as they can get by hunting or fishing. Today we think of people who depend upon this type of agriculture as living a poor sort of life. It was even worse in the fifteenth century, for European farmers did not have as many different kinds of crops as subsistence farmers have today.

In spite of all this, the farmers of northern Europe were probably as well off as farmers anywhere in the world at that time. They grew an assortment of grains, such as wheat, oats, barley, and rye. They were well supplied with livestock, for besides cows and horses, they had sheep and pigs and chickens and geese. Few kinds of garden

crops were grown in Europe in the fifteenth century. The farmers raised only peas and cabbage and such root crops as turnips and beets. As for fruits—apples, pears, plums, cherries, and grapes were grown.

Farming in southern Europe was different from that in northern Europe. The people in southern Europe did not have as many field crops as did the people in northern Europe, although they did raise wheat and barley. On the other hand, they were much better off in their garden and fruit crops than were the farmers in northern Europe, and they depended especially upon such tree crops as olives and chestnuts. Pasture was not as good in southern Europe as in northern Europe; so livestock, especially cattle and hogs, was not as plentiful in the south.

The people of Mediterranean Europe had learned a good deal from the Mohammedans of northern Africa and Spain. The Mohammedans had introduced a number of new foods from Asia, including rice, citrus fruits, and sugar made from sugar cane. Previously, honey had been the only source of sweetening in all Europe. The sugar beet was not developed until several centuries later.

Commercial agriculture begins. In both northern and southern Europe a few additional agricultural products were raised to furnish the raw materials for handicrafts. In northern Europe flax was grown to make linen cloth. Hemp furnished another, but coarser, fiber. Wool was sheared from sheep to make warm woolen cloth. In the south silkworms introduced from Asia furnished still a fourth textile raw material. Information about silk is another contribution that Europeans owe to the Mohammedans who acted as the middlemen between India and the Mediterranean area. In northern Europe a few plants were grown that furnished dyes, and still others were used for making beer and ale.

Most of the agricultural products named in the last paragraph supplied industries that were largely carried on in the homes. But gradually industry moved out of the homes into factories. Then industrial raw materials, such as wool, flax, silk, dyestuffs, and grains for beer and ale, had to be supplied by the farmers. When this happened, commercial agriculture got its start. It required but a step more for the farmers to begin to drive their livestock to town and to haul their grain to the mill, where some of it might be sold to someone else. Subsistence agriculture was still most important, but by the end of the fifteenth century commercial agriculture had already made its appearance.

Manufacturing and trade. Although manufacturing was not well developed in the fifteenth century, when judged by our present-day standards, still there were areas that had become important for manufacturing. The ports on the North Sea, such as those in Flanders, were the leading centers of woolen-goods manufacturing. It was easy for them to get wool from the British Isles and easy for them to distribute woolen goods to markets along the north coast of Europe as well as in the interior. Silk cloth was made in cities such as Venice, Córdoba, and Seville (Sevilla), where the mulberry tree and silkworm could be raised. There was no cotton-textile industry in Europe at that time, nor was there for many more years to come. Another interesting line of manufacturing had developed. It was the building of wooden ships in the small harbors of both northwestern and southern Europe. And various other kinds of manufacturing had begun in a small way.

Although manufacturing was still largely done by hand, people were beginning to use some mechanical power and some fuel. Along the seacoast, particularly in northern Europe, windmills both pumped water and ground grain. Water mills were built at small waterfalls and rapids. And in the metal industries that had developed in Spain, Germany, England, and Belgium people were burning charcoal for fuel.

The workshop of central Europe. One part of Europe stood out as a leader in manufacturing and in trade and commerce during the fifteenth century. It was an area that bordered the North Sea and the Baltic Sea and stretched southward across Europe to the Mediterranean. In the north it began with Flanders, just west of the mouth of the Rhine, and extended eastward to take in the towns along the south shore of the Baltic. From this base the area narrowed southward. In the south it included the more important routes across the mountains, with their market centers and junction points. When it reached the Mediterranean Sea, the area was only wide enough to contain the two Italian cities of Venice and Genoa and possibly part of southern France. In this anvil-shaped area were most of the larger cities of the period and the best-traveled routes.

This workshop of central Europe depended heavily upon transportation. Commerce by sea was particularly well developed in protected bodies of water such as the Baltic and Mediterranean seas. There were two general routes that connected the two seas. One was by water, from the Mediterranean around the Iberian Peninsula, through the English Channel to the mouth of the Rhine, and on around Jutland (Denmark) to the Baltic. The other was by land and was made up of half a dozen lesser routes connecting the north-European ports with Venice and Genoa on the south. Venice and Genoa in turn received goods from the Orient—expensive luxury items, such as fine textiles, spices, dyewoods, and drugs. These goods had made the long caravan journey across southern Asia to Constantinople or Alexandria and then a short sea voyage on the protected waters of the Mediterranean.

In time this workshop of central Europe might have become the leading political unit of Europe. The great cities were here and the great trade routes; the greatest political power might have developed here, also. It probably would have, except that several things worked against such a development. In the first place, there was in this area only a loose confederation of city, church, and feudal holdings. The people quarreled among themselves. There was neither unity nor peace. In the second place, this part of Europe was very often the territory that countries disputed over. Many wars have been fought on the continent of Europe, and especially in this part of it.

After the New World was discovered, Europeans were not nearly so interested in central Europe and the narrow seas that bordered it. People's attention was turned to western Europe, where the lands faced the open ocean. Across that ocean were new continents and other oceans that could be used as highways to all the coasts of the world. People no longer had to depend on laborious land transportation or short sea voyages along home coasts. Long ocean voyages that could reach other lands had become possible. Many Europeans, like those shown in the picture below, had acquired a new point of view.

Sailors and ships turned to the open sea.

Culver Service



IDEAS AND POLITICS CHANGE

In Europe at the end of the fifteenth century feudalism was slowly breaking down. Under the feudal system there were many rather small landholdings, each with its feudal overlord. People on the feudal estates were not free to go and come as they pleased. They were tied to the land. When the land changed hands, it got a new overlord; but the people stayed right where they were. As time went on, some of the feudal lords began to enlarge their holdings. But sometimes two lords fought each other until neither had enough strength left to defend his lands from someone else. Then a third lord usually seized everything, and a larger political unit resulted. All this fighting was hard on the people. But in the long run they profited by it, for as the feudal system broke down, the people had a chance to move around more freely and to seek new homes.

Although feudalism began to decline even before the fifteenth century, it did not disappear rapidly. But this slow disappearance was important. For as feudalism declined, the people were freer to move wherever they wanted to go. Some went to the cities to live, and some went to the colonies in the New World. Where feudalism was still strong, the people were not allowed to go to the New World unless they were considered objectionable. Then the feudal lords were glad to be rid of them.

The Cities Play a Part

Often the cities that had developed helped to destroy feudalism. The merchants, traders, and artisans living in the cities and towns did not make their living on land belonging to feudal lords. They saw no reason why they should carry out feudal customs and feudal laws. Sometimes the people in the cities paid money to be free of the demands of feudal lords. Then a new group of rulers appeared. The strength of these new rulers came from wealth gained from manufacturing and trade rather than from farming. These men did not inherit their positions from their fathers; they got them more nearly by their own efforts.

In some cases cities fell into the hands of particularly strong feudal lords who were called kings. They were strong enough to extend their control over neighboring areas and to make the city the center of a larger unit. In a way, this is what happened in France and England. The area around Paris on the one hand and around London on the other acted in each case as a center. To each area was added, a piece at a time, the remainder of the country. In France and England the kings built their countries around Paris and London. And as the people gradually broadened their loyalties, they became Frenchmen and Englishmen.

On the other hand, where strong cities were located rather close to one another the rivalry between them was often so keen that it was difficult to form a large country. This was the case in central Europe. The rivalries between city-states there kept them small. Certainly the rivalry between the cities of northern Italy did much to keep Italy from becoming an organized country.

Occasionally something happened to cause several cities to work together against a common enemy, and then a new country might be created. This is what happened a little later in the Netherlands. The people of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and other cities around became so annoyed with the rule of Spain that they organized a federation which in time became the Netherlands.

Nations Begin to Develop

Whatever was the cause for the development and growth of larger states in Europe, the new units came to be known as nations. All of the people who lived in one nation were said to be of one nationality. The

people who were born in France were considered Frenchmen, whether their ancestors were from Brittany, in northwestern France, or from Provence, in southeastern France. And the same thing was true in England. Even those people whose ancestors were Norman French, who came to England with William the Conqueror, thought of themselves as Englishmen because they were born in England.

At first this feeling of nationality was very weak. In the fifteenth century it was beginning to be important. It was stronger in western Europe than in eastern Europe. But even in western Europe it was not so strong a force as it was to become at a later date.

With the development of the nations of Europe, national languages began to develop, too. People began to speak English, or French, or Spanish, or Portuguese. Different dialects remained in various parts of each country, and many of these have lasted until this day, especially among rural people. Where the old Roman Empire had been powerful centuries earlier, the languages had many Latin words included in them. These languages became known as the Romance languages.

As nations formed, the political picture of Europe changed. Instead of being divided into many small states, Europe was divided into units that were larger. In some cases they had reached the size that they have to this day. But the desire to grow larger and larger did not end. The various countries of Europe jostled each other for room not only at home, but overseas. Every now and then some one nation tried to control all of Europe. But the attempt always failed because the other nations would combine to keep the overly ambitious nation in line.

AFTER THE VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY

Europe today is much different from Europe as it was before the voyages of discovery. It is no longer an isolated section of the coastlands of Eurasia. Until recently it has been the very center of world affairs. Let's look briefly at the changes that have occurred in the last four and a half centuries.

Changing Scenes

Before the voyages of discovery the best-known parts of the world lay in a broad belt that began in northwest Europe and formed a crescent around lands reaching from southern Eurasia to China. In such a belt Europe was distinctly off to one side. But the whole world is important today.

If you look at a globe with, we will say, France directly under your eyes, you will notice that most of the really important land areas of the world are visible. Europe, particularly northwestern Europe, is at the center of the Land Hemisphere. And in a world in which people move around as much as we do, being in a central location is very important.

Industrial changes. Before the voyages of discovery, commerce and trade were very limited and slow. Since then, both trade and the transportation necessary to maintain trade have expanded tremendously. They have increased in amount, and the speed with which they may be carried on has increased likewise. Great ocean shipping routes have been added to the coasting routes of the fifteenth century. Ships move much more rapidly than they did four and a half centuries ago. Land travel, too, has been aided and greatly speeded up by the widespread construction of railroads and networks of automobile highways. Speed has become so important that transportation has even taken to the air. By the use of airplanes, greater speeds can be achieved than ever before. So Europe has moved to a central location on the globe; and that globe

actually seems much smaller, since travel requires so much less time than it once did.

European manufacturing changed greatly from the fifteenth century to the twentieth. At first, you will remember, only a few things were manufactured, and they were made largely by hand methods at home. When fuel was needed, charcoal was used. When power was needed beyond the amount that man or his animals could supply, people made use of the wind and small streams. All this changed, slowly during the first centuries, and then very rapidly during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Coal became the important industrial fuel. Great metal industries developed. Machines were invented that made spinning and weaving much more rapid and cloth much cheaper. Petroleum was introduced as a new fuel. Men learned how to develop hydroelectric power, and this new energy, unlike direct water power, could be taken far from the site of the power plant.

Great cities grew, and many of the people lived in them rather than on the farms. Fewer farmers were needed to feed the population, for farming had become more efficient. Furthermore, food could be brought from lands beyond the seas. For these reasons also, fewer Europeans had to work on farms, and more of them could take up other occupations.

Farming, itself, changed from the subsistence agriculture described earlier to commercial agriculture. No longer did farmers depend so largely upon what they could raise themselves. Instead they sold some of their products and bought others in exchange. Early in the colonial period, two new plants were introduced from the Americas, corn and potatoes. Both of these plants have become important crops in Europe. Later, when France under Napoleon Bonaparte was fighting England, a third new crop appeared. It was the sugar beet, developed as a source of sugar when the British fleet was blockading the continent and cane sugar was hard to get. The sugar beet has been an important crop in Europe ever since. So the agriculture of Europe changed—through the introduction of new plants, improvement of farming methods, and use of commercial fertilizers.

Political changes. The maps in this part of the book show how the political picture of Europe changed during the four and a half centuries after the voyages of discovery. The first nations appeared in the west. Several of the countries of eastern Europe did not take shape until the beginning of the present century. The powers of western Europe developed earlier because of the very fact that they were on the edge of the continent. There they were freer from the fighting and conflict that went on in the rest of Europe. And when Europe became interested in the lands across the sea, these western nations—England, France, Spain, and Portugal—found that they had front seats on the Atlantic Ocean.

These countries of western Europe were able to secure great colonial empires. And because they possessed such empires, they had great opportunities to spread their particular brand of western civilization. They have been the great maritime powers of the world, too. The rivalry between them had much to do with shaping world events during the period of colonial expansion.

Just as nations of Europe first appeared in the west, the desire of one nation to control the rest of Europe began in the west and moved eastward. First Spain, then France, and more recently Germany attempted to gain control. Each attempt failed because of the fear and ill will that grew to fever pitch among the other nations whenever one nation started an attack. Each attempt meant that the people living in the various countries developed stronger and stronger feelings of nationality. At the same time, as feelings of nationality became stronger, one thing became clear. It seemed harder and harder for European nations to forget their own narrow interests long enough to form a union for the interests of all.

There should be no feeling that the political picture of the present day in Europe is any more fixed than were those of the past. The picture will keep on developing. Change is to be expected. Nothing in political geography remains fixed for very long. You will probably see Europe change again and again during your lifetime.

New Political Faiths

The European political scene has become even more complicated since the beginning of the twentieth century. Two new political ideas have arisen. They are communism and fascism. In a sense, neither communism nor fascism is entirely a new idea. Communism has existed in many different forms for a long time, and fascism in a sense is a modern name for dictatorship. But both these ideas have had a tremendous revival in recent years. They have appeared not in just one country, but in nearly every country of Europe.

These two ideas are now struggling with democracy for supremacy in Europe. Fascism suffered a tremendous setback when Germany and Italy were defeated in World War II. But fascism still exists. Fascists still make up a strong group in some countries of Europe. But the greatest struggle today is between communism and democracy. The Communists plan to establish a number of communistic states in Europe and possibly elsewhere that will be directed from Moscow. Democracy has been trying to prevent the spread of communism. One method backed by many democratic people is to set up a federation of European nations powerful enough to withstand communism. The struggle between nations that you have just been reading about is gradually becoming a struggle between the major political faiths. But this is not the whole story, for the strong champions of these two faiths are the two great nations of the earth—the United States and the Soviet Union.

Ways of Looking at Europe

Just as the development of nations in Europe started in the west and moved eastward, so with many other things. Commercial agriculture appeared first in the west and moved gradually eastward. Industrialization developed to the highest degree in northwestern Europe. This was not only because it began there, but also because the coal resources of northwestern Europe encouraged it.

On account of these differences between one part of Europe and another, it is customary to divide Europe into three different

Sitting not so pretty.

Johnson in The American Observer *(Adapted)*



economic regions: northwestern Europe, eastern Europe, and Mediterranean Europe. The economic differences between these three regions have influenced the political geography of the continent.

Northwestern Europe. The Industrial Revolution began in northwestern Europe nearly two centuries ago. It appeared first in England and the Low Countries and spread slowly to France and Germany. In time it crossed the Atlantic and reached the United States and Canada. In one sense the Industrial Revolution, like western civilization, became world-wide. But we all know that the effects of the Industrial Revolution have been spotty.

Some areas have become much more industrialized than others. These are the peak areas. But most of the world has taken part in the Industrial Revolution only indirectly. Nonindustrial areas make a living by furnishing food and raw materials to the industrial areas. In this way they play an indirect part in the industrial world, although they are not themselves industrial.

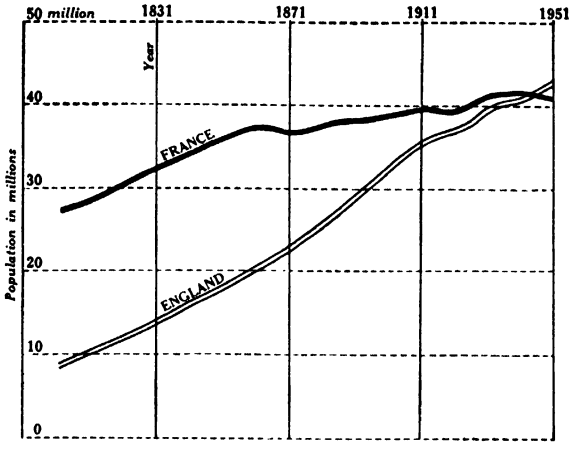
The peak industrial areas stand above the rest of the world in many ways. And they have developed traits that make them distinct. There are two outstanding industrial areas in the world. One lies in eastern North America and the other in northwestern Europe. In each case industrialization began in a few places that were near the seaboard and spread farther and farther inland. In North America the industrial area expanded westward; in Europe it expanded eastward. But in each case the original core area was near the ocean.

The industrial core of Europe was located along the North Sea Coast where the Rhine empties into the sea from the south and the Thames from the north. From this center industrialization spread to France, Germany, and Switzerland. Later it spread to northern Italy, Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Austria. Southern Scandinavia, southern Finland, and even northern Spain are all parts of the same great industrial belt. The industrial core of Europe expanded until it threatened to include all of Europe. But there are many differences between the old industrialized areas and the new ones.

In the first place, industrialization brought with it a rapid increase in population. So most countries of northwestern Europe are very densely populated. Industrialization also caused cities to grow and transportation to be improved. Both large cities and good transportation are found in northwestern Europe. When there were many more people to feed and better transportation, commercial agriculture developed. Farmers produced those things that would find a ready market in the cities. They raised garden vegetables and produced meat, milk, and eggs on their farms. Countries like Denmark and Ireland lacked the mineral resources necessary for great industries. But they could supply food which industrial countries needed. In this way they, too, helped industry to develop.

As time went on, northwestern Europe could no longer feed itself. In exchange for its industrial products, it imported food from its colonies in other parts of the world. It also got food from countries like the United States, Canada, and Argentina that had surpluses. Food was imported from eastern Europe, too. But depending upon imported food is not a satisfactory way to live. The people of northwestern Europe are always in danger of food scarcity if anything should upset normal transportation. This actually did happen in World War I and again in World War II.

People have discovered that when any area becomes industrialized, the population of that area tends to increase rapidly at first. But after a while increase is less rapid. Finally, in such an area the population may actually decrease. This is what seems to be happening in northwestern Europe. Certainly population is not increasing as rapidly as it did during the nineteenth century. On the next page the population figures for France for the



Populations of England and Wales are combined.

last century and a half bear this out. Those for England do not. The next few years should tell us whether northwestern Europe has passed its peak of development.

Eastern Europe. Eastern Europe is a newer area industrially than northwestern Europe. It is so new that in many parts of the area people are more likely to live on farms than to work in industrial plants. Eastern Europe was slow to industrialize, but not because it lacked the raw materials necessary for industries. Eastern Europe has metals, some coal, and petroleum. Also, it still has some forest resources. But eastern Europe stuck to its backward ways long after northwestern Europe had become highly industrialized.

Eastern Europe remained chiefly agricultural for two reasons. Both have to do with its location. In the first place, the area is inland, away from the sea, and during the nineteenth century ocean transportation was very important. As you know, good land transportation is really quite new in the world's history. Railroads have developed largely within the last hundred years, and automobiles within the last fifty. An area without ocean transportation or good navigable streams would naturally be slow to develop industrially.

In the second place, eastern Europe has suffered from disturbed political conditions. Where Slavic and German people live close together, there has been constant friction. The countries of eastern Europe have been controlled or influenced by one or another of the strong powers in that part of the continent—Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Germany. Many of the present nations of eastern Europe did not appear on the map until recently. The Austro-Hungarian Empire did not break up until after World War I, and then several of the countries of eastern Europe were created from its territory. During World War II all of these countries were taken over by Germany. They had no chance to be independent long.

But in spite of the constant conflict and the interior location of these countries, more and more industries are being built there. The railroads and the highways are increasing in number. The farmers are changing from subsistence farming with hand tools to mechanized farming. And the population is increasing rapidly. In eastern Europe today one can see the signs of industrialization that were seen in northwestern Europe at an earlier date.

Mediterranean Europe. Mediterranean Europe is less fortunate than the other parts of Europe. It is not nearly so well supplied with the resources necessary for industrial development. There is little coal, no oil, and only limited farm land. This part of Europe is a mountainous area with only small plains and a general shortage of rainfall. Its location, along the north shore of a warm inland sea, was a good one centuries ago. But it is not nearly so favorable today. Mediterranean Europe is a region with a rapidly increasing population, but without either the food or the industries necessary to support more people.

There are, however, several bright spots in this drab picture. There is no reason why a peaceful, well-organized Europe could not buy Mediterranean fruits in large quantities. The situation there could be like the one in America, where the eastern United States and Canada buy citrus fruit

from the southern United States and California. A warm, sunny climate is one of the great advantages of Mediterranean Europe. Its pleasant climate is already bringing some wealth in the form of a tourist industry. It can bring more.

The Mediterranean countries are not entirely lacking in metals, and Italy at least has considerable water power. What things these countries have can be put to good use. Coal is not necessary for aluminum smelting. Airplanes can be manufactured in areas that lack iron and steel mills. If the region along the Pacific coast of the United States can become industrial, so perhaps can Mediterranean Europe.

EUROPE TODAY—SIZING IT UP

The people of Europe belong chiefly to one race and to one major religion, as you can see on the maps on pages 374–375 and 378–379. In addition to this, they share the same civilization. And yet if you were to look for the most striking characteristic of Europe as a whole, it would be this—variety.

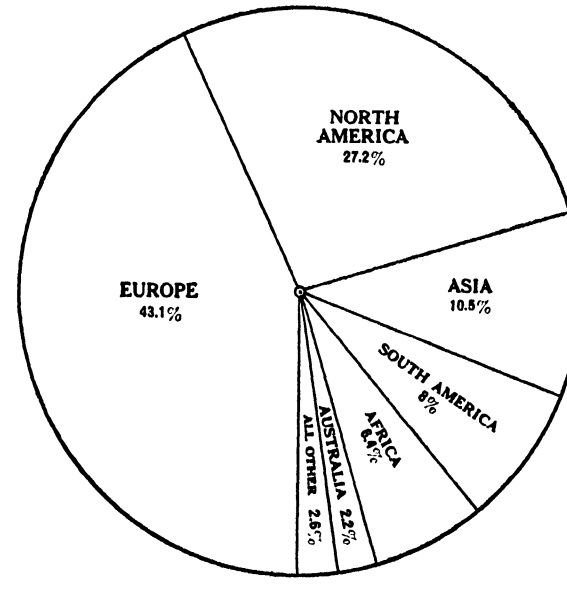
In Europe—in an area only about two-thirds that of the United States—are twenty-three states and six statelets. The people speak at least as many different languages as there are political units and have numerous dialects as well. Their customs and traditions are as different as their languages. And very small areas frequently have strong feelings of individuality.

In normal times Europe is one of the world's most productive areas. It manufactures more goods than any other part of the world. And although only a few of the people of Europe are farmers, farming is highly developed and very productive. In normal times Europe can go a long way toward feeding itself. But in order to keep up a high standard of living, particularly in the great urban centers, it is necessary to import many additional foods. Most of the imports are industrial raw materials rather than food. The exports, on the other hand, are chiefly textiles and different kinds of finished metal goods.

The people of Europe have a large overseas trade, and there is a tremendous trade among the European countries themselves. Some countries are more industrialized than others are. Some have mineral resources needed by others for their metal industries. Some have timber in abundance, whereas others have very little. Some have better-than-average food supplies and fewer persons to feed. All these differences between the countries of Europe, like the differences we are familiar with in the various parts of North America, encourage trade. In Europe the trade is called foreign trade because it moves across national boundaries. In the United States it would be classed as domestic trade because it remains within the limits of the country.

When we consider Europe's great importance in world affairs, its area seems small.

How the continents rank in amount of world trade. Here Soviet trade is included with Europe's.



But the colonial powers of Europe hold more than ten times that area overseas. Nearly half of the inhabited land on the earth is claimed by European countries, although the people of some of this land are more or less independent. All of the colonial powers together either hold or have political ties with more than 21,000,000 square miles of land outside Europe. The Commonwealth of Nations contains 13,000,000 square miles, and the French Union occupies another 4,000,000. The rest is divided among Spain, Portugal, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, and Norway.

European nations used to hold another ten or twelve million square miles. But this was lost through the creation of independent countries. Nearly all of South America, Middle America, and North America belonged formerly to four European nations. These four nations were Spain, Portugal, France, and the United Kingdom. Of their great American empires Spain and Portugal now have nothing left. France has kept only a few small islands and French Guiana. Even the United Kingdom's holdings have been greatly reduced. But the Europeans left the imprint of their civilization on all the areas they once held. These areas must still be considered as related to Europe, even though they now have no direct political ties with it.

THE BRITISH ISLES—AN ACCOUNT

Off northwestern Europe, blocking the seaways to the coast, lies a group of islands known as the British Isles. Their total area is small as land areas go—about the same as that of Norway or Italy. But their importance in world affairs has been and still is much greater than mere size would warrant. For the people on this small home base have been able by means of sea power to control large areas overseas and to build up a maritime state that is the largest in the world today.

The British Isles have not always played so important a part in world affairs. Before the voyages of discovery Europe was still largely concerned with trade in the Mediterranean Sea and along the shores of the Baltic and North seas. At that time the British Isles were merely a group of islands to the north beyond the narrow seas. They were set close enough to Europe so that European culture could reach them easily; but at the same time they were far enough away so that they often could keep out of mainland quarrels. Their island position aided in their defense. The last successful invasion of the British Isles occurred nearly nine hundred years ago.

As we have seen, the voyages of discovery changed the whole outlook of Europe. They started a chain of events that has been shaping world affairs ever since. As we have seen, too, Europe began to look outward toward the great world seas. Its North Atlantic shores were the gateway to tremendous new opportunities. And the British Isles, lying just offshore, found that they were in an especially favorable position.

The Beginnings of the British Empire

English explorers did not get as early a start as the Spanish and Portuguese explorers. Portugal and Spain had divided the world of discovery between them before England took much interest in it. But since the people of the British Isles lived on islands in the sea, and since they already made some of their living from fishing, it was natural that they should develop a still greater interest in the sea.

At first the English contented themselves with waylaying the Spanish ships returning from America and robbing them of the gold



THE WESTERN COASTLANDS
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they were carrying to Spain. Of course, the Spaniards had taken the gold away from the people of the New World in the first place. But they considered that perfectly fair, for they felt that the Indians had no rights anyway since they were not Christians. The Spaniards did resent it, though, when English ships began to attack Spanish ships and to take the gold away from them. They sent to England a huge armada, or fleet of ships, that was intended to end British sea power for good. The attempt failed. The failure was partly due to the fact that the English ships were much faster and much more easily handled than the Spanish ships.

Their first great sea victory convinced the English that the ocean was just as much theirs as anyone's. They had made a few voyages of discovery, but up to that time had established no colonies. Very shortly after the defeat of the Spanish Armada, they began making permanent settlements in North America. The English had begun to build their empire.

The development of the British Empire into the present-day Commonwealth of Nations has been going on for well over three hundred years. During this period the empire grew rapidly at one time and slowly at another. The English expanded their empire into all the oceans of the world, acquiring a bit of land here and losing a bit there. In spite of temporary setbacks, it continued to increase in size over the years until it was the world's largest and richest political grouping. Today, the total area represents one-fourth of the land surface of the globe. But changes are still taking place. One of the interesting questions of world affairs today is, What is happening to the Commonwealth of Nations? People are asking, Will it hold together? Will it continue to diminish in size? Has it already lost its outstanding position in world affairs?

How the Empire Grew

The history of the British Empire can be divided into three periods, each approximately a hundred years long. During the first period the English staked a claim to the world of discovery, in competition with Spain, Portugal, France, and Holland. During the second period English rivalry with France reached a peak, and France was finally defeated. During the third period the English reaped the harvest of having won supremacy at sea, and the British Empire became the world's greatest maritime power.

England stakes a claim. The first period of the empire's growth began with the defeat of the Spanish Armada and ended one hundred years later. During this period the English established themselves in India and in North America and acquired numerous islands in the Caribbean Sea and in the Atlantic Ocean. St. Helena, in the southern part of the Atlantic, was one of those islands. It served a useful purpose as a way station on the long trip to India. A second island was Jamaica, which became a valuable English base in the Caribbean area.

The actual area acquired during this first period of empire building was not great, but it was a start. The Indian Ocean and the Atlantic were the oceans most important to the English during that time. No lands at all were acquired in the Pacific. The holdings in India and North America did not extend far into the interior, and in both the Indian and the Atlantic oceans England had to share areas with other powers. France, Portugal, and Holland were rivals to the English in India and the East Indies, just as France and Spain were rivals to the English in North America. And in the area along the Guinea coast of Africa, England found not just a few but many rivals—all the nations of Europe.

During this period two rivals for power, Holland and Spain, were outdistanced by

England, particularly in the Atlantic. Holland withdrew from North America and continued to hold only small possessions in the Caribbean Sea and in South America. Spain gave up several islands to the English and also lost its supremacy on the Atlantic. This did not mean that England could take over Spanish holdings at will. But it did mean that English seamen could attack Spanish treasure ships whenever they found them, and that they could raid coastal strongholds from time to time. This first period was one in which the English staked a claim to the lands across the sea. The great conquests were to come later.

Rivalry with France. During the second period of the growth of the British Empire, England found itself opposed by France. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries France became the most important power in Europe. And in nearly every area where England had begun to acquire land, the French were to be found, too. In North America the French holdings in the St. Lawrence Valley and those in the Mississippi Valley stood squarely in the path of the growing English colonies on the Atlantic coast. The French and English played a bitter and cunning game with Indian princes and rajahs for the control of India. In the Caribbean, the two rivals swapped island strongholds again and again.

During a period of 126 years, from 1688 to 1815, France and England fought five wars. They were actively engaged in fighting at least half the time. The whole rivalry reached a crisis when Napoleon threatened to control all of Europe, and it came to an end with his defeat at the battle of Waterloo. France was never again a strong maritime power, and Great Britain was left supreme.

Several things happened during this long period of rivalry between France and Great Britain that have left their marks upon the political picture of the world today. The British Empire received one great blow in the loss of the thirteen American colonies. With the aid of France, this group of colonies was able to break away from Great Britain and to set up a separate country. At that time France's naval strength had reached its peak. Not only were the French able to aid the American colonies, but they were able to attack successfully one after another of the British West Indies. The people of Great Britain began to be alarmed. Their empire was disappearing—with great rapidity. Then the British Navy defeated the French in a great naval battle fought in the Caribbean. This battle restored the supremacy of the British Navy, but it was too late to save the American colonies. They were gone for good.

But the British made some gains during this period, too; and most of the gains were at the expense of the French. In North America, even before the loss of the American colonies, the Maritime Provinces and the St. Lawrence Valley were taken from France. In India, France's holdings were kept small, whereas those of Great Britain were enlarged to include nearly all of Bengal at the mouth of the Ganges Valley and the entire east coast. Gibraltar was taken during this period. As a marine base it was ideally suited for dividing the French Atlantic fleet from the French Mediterranean fleet and for keeping them from uniting against the British.

On the whole, the gains in territory made by the British just about balanced the losses. But the most important outcomes of this bitter rivalry between Great Britain and France were: France was defeated both at home and abroad, and Great Britain stood out as the most important sea power. Great Britain's supremacy on the sea was not seriously challenged again for another hundred years.

Britannia rules the waves. At the beginning of the third period of the British Empire's growth, Great Britain was in a particularly strong position. The British Navy was supreme on the sea. Continental

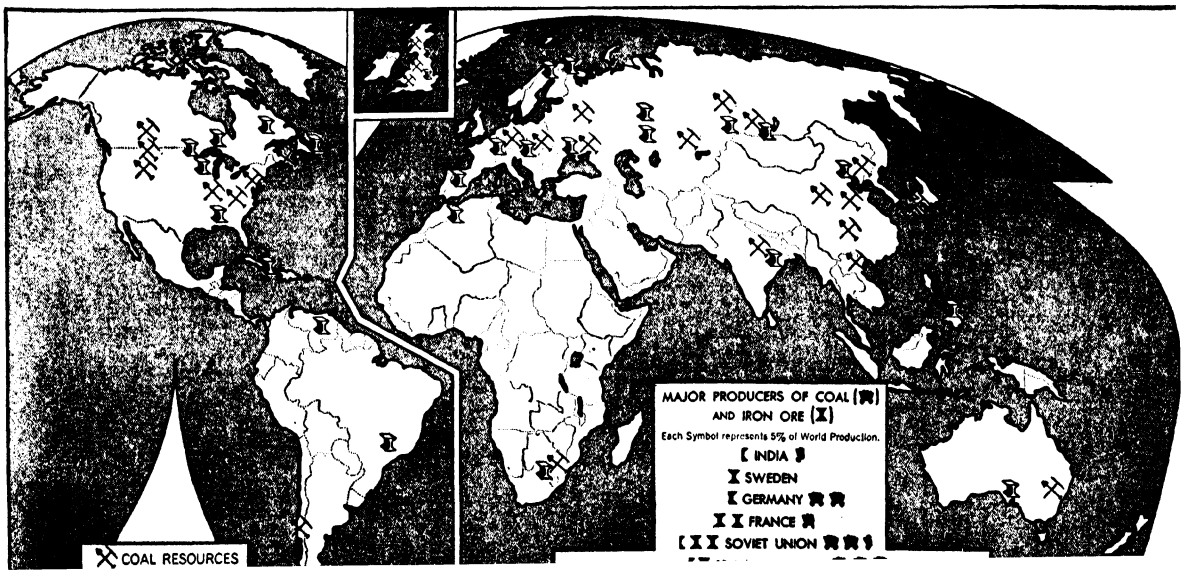
Europe was so weakened by the long years of fighting during Napoleon's time that no single power there could question the supremacy of Great Britain in world affairs. Something else put the British into a leading position. Even during the century of struggle with France great things were happening at home in England. Englishmen were making inventions—a whole series of them. These were the inventions that brought first to England and then to other parts of the world what has since been called the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution changed the methods of manufacturing from slow hand methods to much more rapid mechanical processes. Factories began to use steam power from coal and no longer depended entirely upon small water-power sites and windmills. Steam power was a tremendous improvement over the older types of power. Because the inventions for its use were made in England, the British had an advantage. They got a head start in a revolution that was to change the world as much as or more than the discovery of the New World.

Great Britain became the first great manufacturing nation in the world. Look for Great Britain on the map below. It had to be shown in an inset because otherwise it would have been impossible to indicate its coal and iron resources. There was coal in abundance in Britain to create the power to drive machines. Iron ore was there for an iron and steel industry, and Britain's ships could easily bring the cotton necessary for textiles. These same ships carried the goods that were manufactured from these raw materials to the markets of the world. The whole thing worked like a snowball rolling downhill. The head start that England got in manufacturing brought wealth that could be invested in overseas enterprises. And these overseas enterprises brought more raw materials to England to be turned into manufactured wealth. In a sense, it was a chain reaction that went on and on, piling up power and wealth for the home country.

The British Empire becomes a giant. During this third period of the empire's growth, expansion overseas went on at a very rapid rate. India, Australia, and Canada all expanded and became large British territories. New Zealand and many of the smaller islands in the Pacific were added to the empire, and so was at least one-third of Africa. The empire doubled and doubled again, until it became the

The map below shows the location of the chief iron and coal deposits in the world. What country appears to have done the most with its coal and iron resources?



largest political unit in the world as well as the most powerful. It reached into every ocean and included lands in practically every latitude. The English poet Kipling wrote:

> God of our fathers, known of old,
> Lord of our far-flung battle-line,
> Beneath whose awful Hand we hold
> Dominion over palm and pine—
> . . . . . .

The British boasted that the sun never set on the British Empire, and a bitter Frenchman said that that was because the Lord didn't dare to trust them in the dark.

During this period millions of people moved from the British Isles to the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. In spite of this, though, the population of the islands increased tremendously. At the beginning of the Age of Discovery there had been in the world approximately three million people who spoke English. This was only one percent of the world's total population at that time. Today, four hundred fifty years later, more than two hundred million speak English, and they represent 10 percent of the world's population. Not all of those who speak English today have ancestors from the British Isles, but undoubtedly a great many do. Most of those who speak English but do not have English ancestry live in the United States. But there are other such people living in Canada and elsewhere in the Commonwealth of Nations. The use of English has increased more rapidly than the English people have, and they have increased rapidly. In fact, there is no doubt that the population of the British Isles has increased much more rapidly than has the population of the world as a whole.

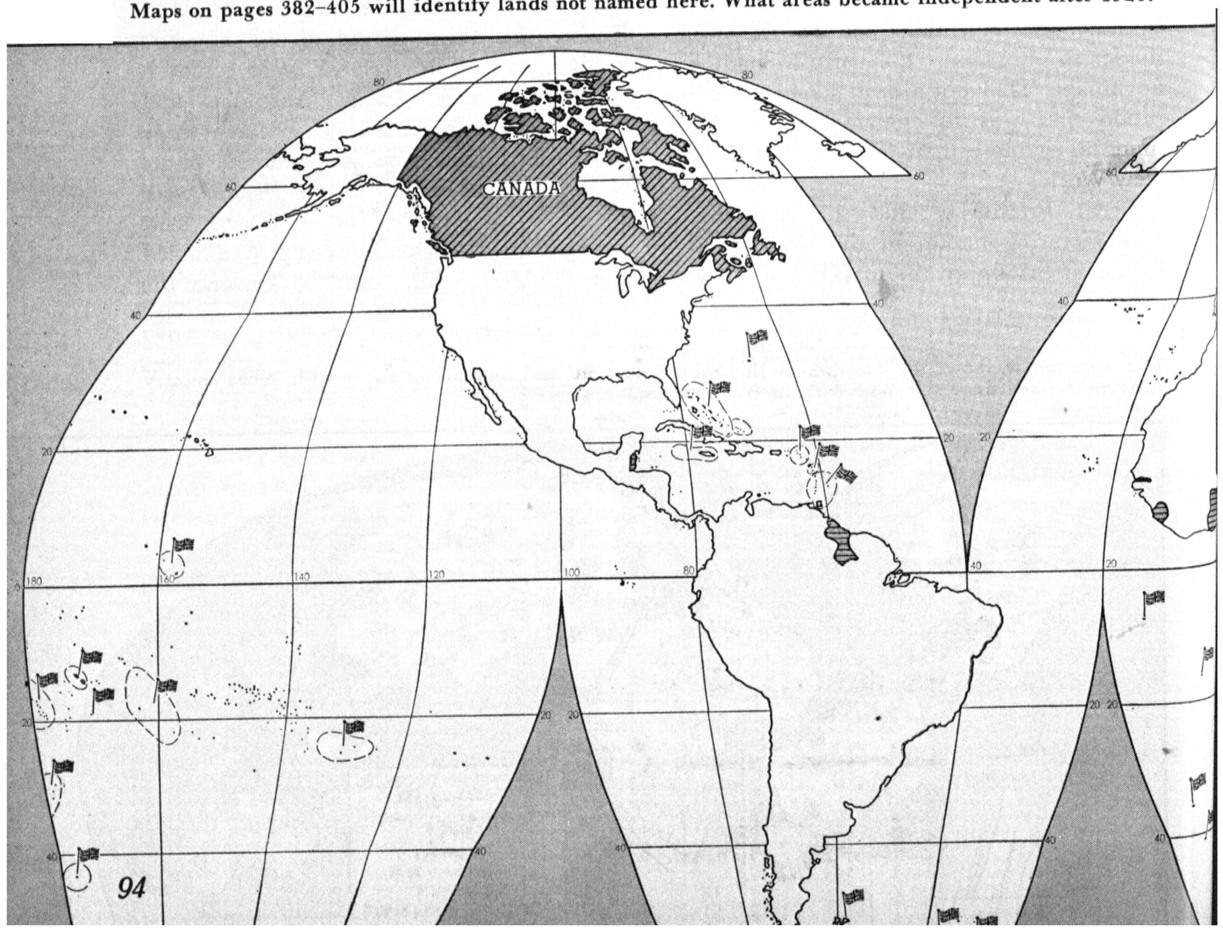
Just after the middle of the nineteenth century two things happened that were extremely important to the British Empire. The Dominion of Canada was formed in 1867; and two years later the Suez Canal, connecting the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, was opened. Probably few people at the time recognized these events as being so important as we now feel them to be. But the Suez Canal called attention to a new part of the world and involved the British people in all kinds of problems and activities. And the plan used to form the Dominion of Canada became a model for determining the kind of government other parts of the British Empire would have. It also became a model for determining their relations with Great Britain.

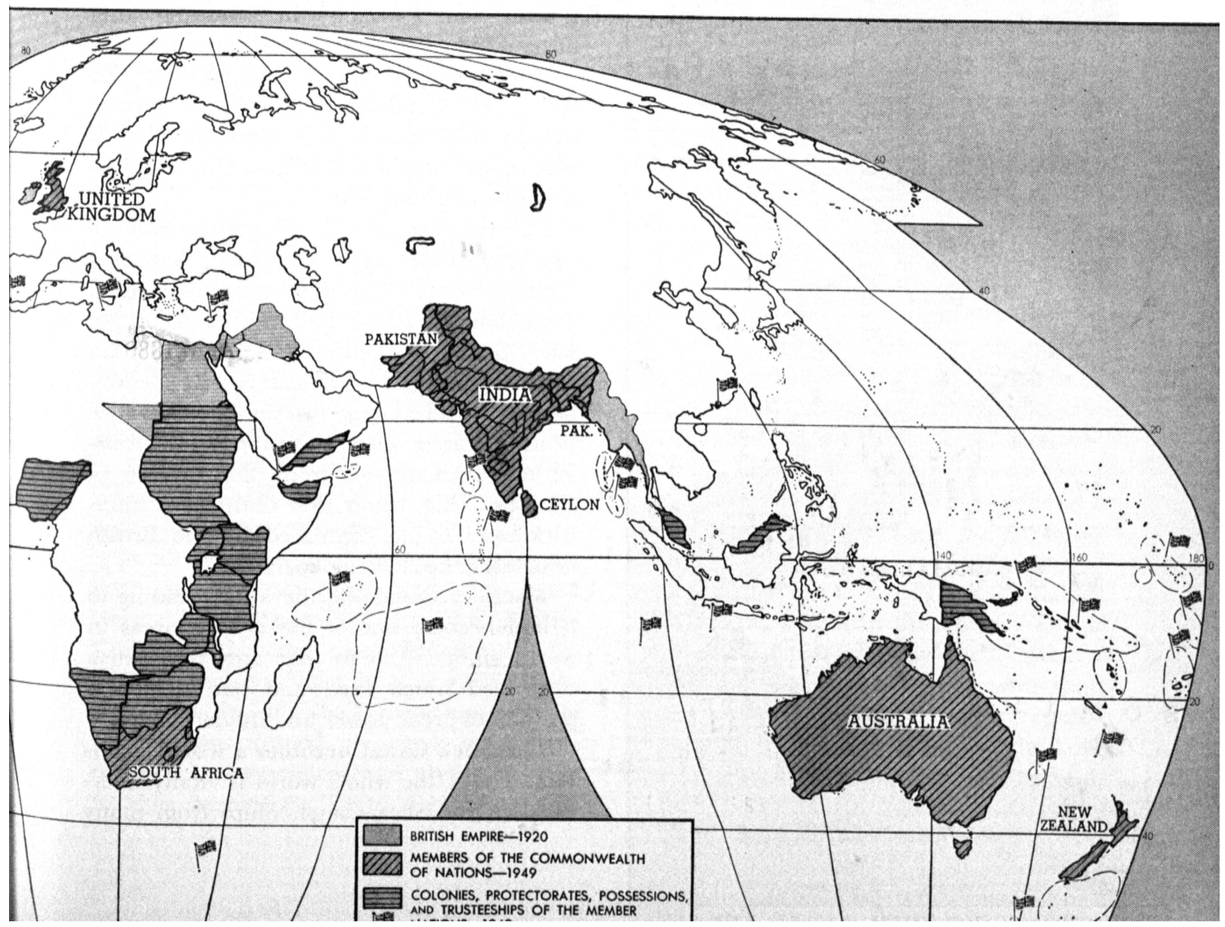
The Suez Canal. The building of a canal across the Isthmus of Suez was not a plan invented by the British, nor was it an idea they particularly favored. It had been tried a number of times before, but without great success.

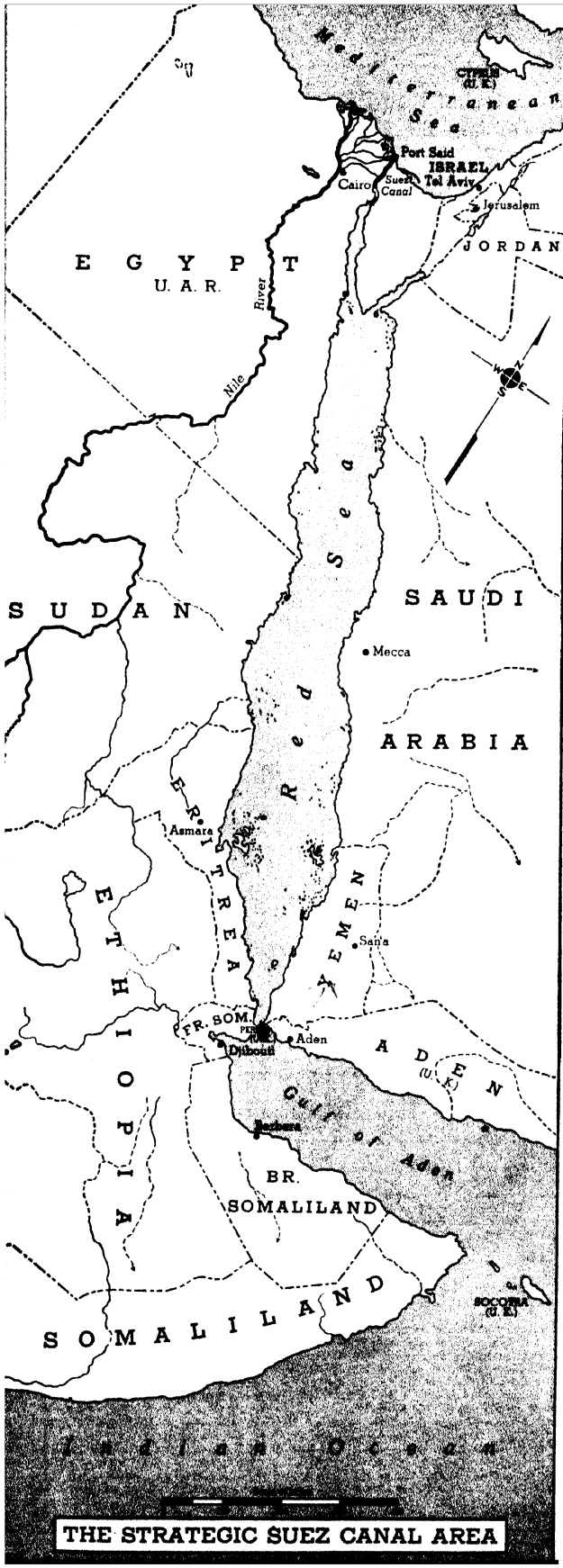
The man who got the idea for building the present canal was a Frenchman—an engineer. And it was a French company that secured a long-time lease of the land and then dug the canal.

At first the British opposed the plan. But as soon as the canal was built, they saw

Maps on pages 382–405 will identify lands not named here. What areas became independent after 1920?







THE STRATEGIC SUEZ CANAL AREA

how important it would be to them as a short route to India.

The way to the new canal was, of course, through the Mediterranean Sea. The British had been somewhat interested in the Mediterranean Sea for many years. They had already acquired Gibraltar, and also the island of Malta, which lies south of Sicily. Besides these two places, they had held a number of others for short periods of time.

It happened, too, that the British were holding important spots at the entrance to the Red Sea, which leads to the Suez Canal. One of these was Aden, on the southwestern coast of the Arabian Peninsula. The other was the island of Perim, lying squarely in the southern entrance to the Red Sea. Find these places on the map on this page.

After the Suez Canal was built, the British became more interested in the Mediterranean Sea, especially in acquiring land near either entrance to the canal. They took the island of Cyprus from Turkey. The people of Cyprus, however, are largely Greeks. The British also acquired what is now called British Somaliland, on the coast of Africa opposite Aden.

Not only did the British gain control of the lands near the Suez Canal, but they even got part control of the canal itself. They bought about half the stock of the Suez Canal Company. And from 1880 to 1922 Egypt itself was held by the British. Besides all this, Great Britain for years after World War I held Palestine and Transjordan as mandates from the League of Nations. This meant that both these countries were to be controlled by the British until each became independent.

The Suez Canal and the waters leading to it had become one of the critical areas in world affairs. And in that area the British controlled much land and had gained a position of great power and influence.

The Suez Canal becomes a world problem. Today the whole world is vitally interested in the Suez Canal. Ships from many

nations use it, but it is of particular importance to Britain and other nations of Europe that depend upon oil from the Middle East to run their cars, trucks, and busses, and even to heat many of their homes. As early as 1888, a group of nations agreed that the Suez Canal should always be kept open to the ships of all nations in war and in peace. This agreement has not always been kept, especially in times of war.

The Suez Canal became a world problem after World War II. As the British troops who guarded it withdrew, Egyptian troops took over and Egyptians also began to fill many of the positions required to operate it. Finally, Egyptians decided not to wait until 1968, when the canal lease was to expire. They wanted the canal immediately, and for two reasons. It brings in millions of dollars in revenue, and it has great strategic importance. Egypt seized the canal, but the world is not sure yet that Egyptians are willing or able to take care of it, or that they will keep it open to all nations.

From empire to commonwealth. As years passed, one part of the British Empire after another became self-governing. Thus each gained for itself an independent position within the empire. The empire was no longer made up of many dependent areas with one head. Instead, there were several equal partners. The British Empire was no longer an empire in the old sense. Something new had been created. This new organization became known as the British Commonwealth of Nations. The British Empire was gone. Since this change has had such tremendous results, let us go back and see how it all came about.

It all began with Canada. Canada was once divided into parts, and these parts were closely controlled by the British. Canadians became discontented and demanded a strong voice in their own affairs. Consequently, in 1867 the Dominion of Canada was formed, in which the people of Canada were united and given the right to rule themselves. There was to be only slight control from London. The Canadians agreed to have the same king as the people of the United Kingdom and also to have a governor-general to represent the king. But the real power in Canada was to be the Canadian Parliament, which was to be elected by the Canadian people themselves. This plan of self-government became known as the dominion plan. It solved a problem that had caused the American Revolution one hundred years earlier. Had the British been willing to give self-government to the thirteen colonies, they, too, might have remained a part of the empire.

The dominion plan did not stop with Canada. Thirty-three years after the establishment of the Dominion of Canada the idea was tried again, and the Commonwealth of Australia became a dominion. New Zealand followed suit in 1907, and the Union of South Africa became a dominion in 1910. At the time of World War I there were five dominions, for Newfoundland had been added to the others. But Newfoundland found it too difficult to support itself as a dominion, and so it became a colony again. In 1949 the picture changed once more when Newfoundland became a part of Canada.

Still the dominion idea did not stop. After World War I the people of Ireland were so determined to be independent that the British offered to make Ireland a dominion, too. This offer the Irish accepted, but many of them balked at swearing allegiance to the British king. They wanted to have a republic. This made it very awkward, for all the British dominions were supposed to swear allegiance to the king. So the matter rested for a time.

In the meanwhile the British Parliament passed a law, called the Statute of Westminster, which explained fully the position of the dominions. As is the case with many British statutes, this one merely recognized in written form what was already being done anyway. The statute said that the British Empire is actually a commonwealth

of nations, made up of the United Kingdom and various dominions and dependencies. In this commonwealth, Canada or Australia, for example, is on the same level as the United Kingdom and equal to it. The British Parliament has no power to make laws for either of them or for any self-governing dominion. The British believed after the passage of this law that British colonies might work up to become dominions, and that new dominions could be added to the Commonwealth from time to time.

After World War II several other areas within the Commonwealth wanted more freedom than they had. India wanted its independence. So did Burma and Ceylon. The Irish still weren't satisfied, and they wanted to withdraw from the Commonwealth altogether. Then the question arose whether India, Burma, and Ceylon would be satisfied to become dominions or would demand complete separation.

Finally it was agreed that republics could become members of the Commonwealth and need not swear allegiance to the king. Furthermore, it was agreed that the word British be removed from the name of the commonwealth and that it be known merely as the Commonwealth of Nations. This was done, because several of the new members, such as India, Ceylon, and Pakistan, disliked being called British. Some people today even object to the use of the word dominion. There is a feeling that it would be better to speak of the members of the Commonwealth of Nations merely as members and not as dominions.

The Commonwealth of Nations has these members at present—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, Ghana, India, Malaya, Pakistan, Ceylon, and the United Kingdom. Ireland has at last withdrawn from the Commonwealth and is now known as the Republic of Ireland. Burma, too, has decided to be separate.

So the present-day Commonwealth of Nations has developed. As you can see, it has changed considerably during the last eighty years. Each change has been another step in giving greater independence to the parts of the former British Empire. And each step has created greater equality among the members of the Commonwealth.

The Commonwealth Today

The Commonwealth of Nations is the largest political unit in the world today. One-quarter of all the land surface on the earth belongs to it, and one-quarter of all the people as well. There is, however, no central governing body, and there is no constitution that tells just how the various parts fit together. Find these parts on the map on pages 94–95.

One might liken the Commonwealth of Nations to the solar system. At its center is the United Kingdom, which, like the sun in the solar system, holds the whole structure together. Without the United Kingdom there would be no Commonwealth of Nations. The other parts would undoubtedly go their separate ways. If the United Kingdom represents the sun in the solar system, then the other members of the Commonwealth take the place of the planets. Like the planets of our real solar system, some of them are large and some small, some are near and some far away.

Holding the Commonwealth together. Now, let's see what it is that holds this solar system together. It isn't merely the strength of the United Kingdom. Nor is it common ancestry of the people, although that plays a part in some cases. Tradition is one thing that helps to hold the Commonwealth together. All of the members of the Commonwealth were parts of the British Empire at the height of its glory. The British Empire during most of the nineteenth century was the most powerful political force in the world. Some of the members of the Commonwealth are proud of their former position in the British Empire, and proud of being parts of the Commonwealth today.

Another very strong force that helps to bind the Commonwealth together is trade. Most of the member nations have a very large share of their trade with the United Kingdom. This is partly due to tradition. But it is also due to the fact that the United Kingdom is a highly industrialized region and needs the food and raw materials that are produced by the other members of the Commonwealth. The other members in turn need the manufactured goods that come from the United Kingdom, although they would like to be able to do their own manufacturing, too.

A trade agreement between the United Kingdom and the other members of the Commonwealth has helped to encourage their trade with each other. This trade agreement is known as "Empire preference," which means that the members of the Commonwealth will give one another special trade advantages. Because of Empire preference, Ireland, while a member of the Commonwealth, could sell bacon to England more cheaply than Denmark could. And because it is a member of the Commonwealth, Canada can sell cheese to England in competition with the Dutch. Ireland may continue to have some of its trade advantages even though it is no longer a member of the Commonwealth.

Still another thing that helps to hold the Commonwealth together is the importance of London as a financial center. For a long time London was the greatest financial and banking center in the world. It has also been the world's largest city. When money for business or governmental purposes is needed by one of the member nations of the Commonwealth, London is likely to furnish it. This is true particularly when such great amounts of money are required that they cannot be raised at home. The banking concerns of London have investments all over the world, but they have investments particularly within the countries that are members of the Commonwealth of Nations.

Three things, then, hold the Commonwealth together—tradition, trade, and finance. All are strong influences. But not all parts of the Commonwealth are influenced by them in the same way. For example, tradition is particularly strong in New Zealand, Australia, and English-speaking Canada. It is not so strong, of course, in India, Pakistan, and Ceylon.

Resources of the Commonwealth. Let's look now at the Commonwealth of Nations as a world power in comparison with other world powers. Let's see what advantages and what disadvantages the Commonwealth has in resources.

In the first place, since it has a population of about 500,000,000, its man-power resources are greater than those of any other power, although China's man power is almost as great, since it has a population of 450,000,000. The Soviet Union has a population of about 200,000,000 people, and the United States has only 165,000,000. It must be remembered, though, that the members of the Commonwealth are not required to support each other in case of war. All of its 500,000,000 people could not be counted upon to act together, as could the citizens of the Soviet Union or those of the United States.

We have pointed out already that the Commonwealth of Nations contains one-fourth of the earth's land surface. But the important questions are: What can this land produce? Is it as productive as other areas in the world? Land may be productive in two ways. In the first place, it may contain mineral resources. In the second place, it may be productive in quite a different way—plants and animals may grow on it. In both ways the land of the Commonwealth rates well as compared with that of other world powers.

The Commonwealth is probably the world's greatest producer of minerals. We have to say "probably," because there is no satisfactory way to add all minerals together. Some minerals are worth more to a

country than others are. For instance, the Commonwealth produces most of the world's gold and platinum, and they are of undeniable value. But it is much more important that the Commonwealth also produces substantial shares of the world's coal, copper, nickel, tin, lead, and zinc. These minerals are industrial raw materials of great importance.

Like other great powers, the Commonwealth does not have a complete supply of minerals. There is not enough iron ore for the iron and steel industry of the United Kingdom. Iron ore has to be imported from Sweden and Spain. But the greatest lack is petroleum. Supplies of petroleum come very largely from the Near East, where the British have leased important oil fields. This lack of petroleum resources within the boundaries of the Commonwealth is a great disadvantage in time of war, for petroleum is especially important in modern motorized warfare.

We have seen that in general the lands in the Commonwealth are well supplied with minerals. As for the plants and animals that can be grown there, the Commonwealth is well off, too. Wheat and livestock products are available in abundance from the members of the Commonwealth. Tropical raw materials come from the colonies in Africa, tea from India, and sugar from the islands of the Caribbean Sea. Rubber, perhaps the most valuable of all tropical raw materials, is produced in Malaya.

Weaknesses in the Commonwealth. The Commonwealth of Nations has some other weaknesses besides its limited supplies of iron ore and petroleum. One is that its land areas are widely scattered. They are in many different parts of the world. For the good of communication between various parts of the Commonwealth, the sea lanes of the world must be kept open. As long as the British Navy was the strongest naval force in the world, there was little danger of their being closed. And when a friendly power, such as the United States, has the strongest navy, the danger is not great. But when an enemy power, such as Germany in 1914 and again in 1941, threatens to control the sea, the Commonwealth finds itself in trouble. It is difficult then for the various parts of the Commonwealth to carry on their normal trade or to get together for a united defense against the enemy.

After World War II the Commonwealth developed another weakness. It was really a weakness of one of its parts—the United Kingdom. But a weakness in one part means a weakness in the whole Commonwealth, and much depends on the United Kingdom. What has happened to the United Kingdom? To answer this question, we shall have to look at that part of the Commonwealth rather carefully.

Affairs of the United Kingdom

You have probably noticed that we have been using a number of terms to name what may have seemed to you to be one thing. We have spoken of England in one place and of Great Britain in another and of the United Kingdom in still a third place. Do these three names mean the same thing? If not, just how do they differ?

Straightening out the names. If you study the map on pages 386–387, you will see that two large islands and a number of smaller islands make up the British Isles. The names of the two large islands are Ireland and Great Britain. England is a part of the island of Great Britain. So are Scotland and Wales. These three countries together make up Great Britain, and the people from this island are called British. Those from the other island are called Irish.

The term United Kingdom has had several different meanings in the past. Back in 1603 the king of Scotland became king of a second kingdom, too—the kingdom made up of England and Wales. At first the two kingdoms remained separate,

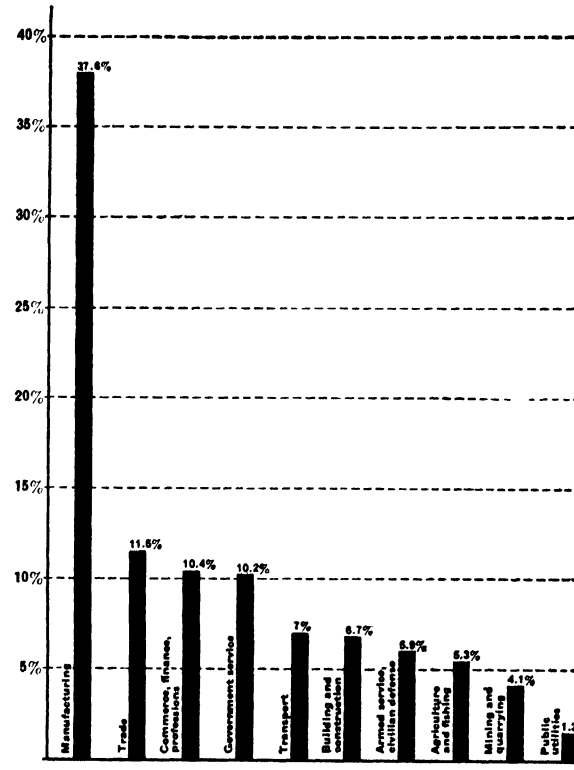
even though they both had the same king. Later, they joined to make one united kingdom—the United Kingdom of Great Britain. The new United Kingdom included Scotland, England, and Wales.

Nearly a century after these countries were united, Ireland was added to the group. The title then became the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. In 1922 another change occurred. A large part of Ireland broke away from the United Kingdom to become a dominion. Later it became a republic. Today it is called the Republic of Ireland. Once again the name of the United Kingdom had to be changed. This time it became the present-day United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. It includes four countries—England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland.

How the British make a living. The United Kingdom is one of the most densely settled political units in the world. There are, on the average, nearly 500 persons per square mile. Only two countries in Europe have a greater population density, and they lie just across a narrow sea from the United Kingdom, on the continent of Europe. They are Belgium and the Netherlands—both much smaller than the United Kingdom.

Not all the countries of the United Kingdom are populated alike. England has over 750 persons per square mile, whereas Scotland has only about 160. Northern Ireland and Wales, with a population density of a little less than 300 per square mile, fall in between. You can see, then, that England, considered alone, is the most densely peopled country in Europe.

Why do so many people live in an area as far north as the United Kingdom? They obviously could not all make a living as farmers. But of course we know that most of the people of the United Kingdom are not farmers. We know that the United Kingdom was the birthplace of the Industrial



How people in the United Kingdom make a living.

Revolution. Manufacturing got an early start there, and since it soon proved to be a profitable business, it expanded. As manufacturing expanded, the population of the United Kingdom grew with it. Today the United Kingdom is a densely settled, highly industrial area.

Nearly one-half of all the workers in the United Kingdom are employed in some kind of manufacturing plant. Many others work in offices connected with the plants. Still others are miners who dig coal used for power in manufacturing. Miners are often considered to be industrial workers. Commercial companies that buy and sell and move manufactured goods provide work for many people. So it goes. Today fewer than 10 percent of all the workers in the United Kingdom are farmers.

The densely settled, highly industrial area of the United Kingdom is very dependent upon trade. But it was not always in this position. At first the United Kingdom's

manufacturing plants were supplied largely by raw materials produced at home. There was wool from British sheep for the woolen-textile mills, and there was iron ore for the iron and steel mills. But as time went on, more and more of the raw materials came from other parts of the world. Cotton came from the United States and India. Rubber and tin came from Southeast Asia, and part of the iron ore for the iron and steel industry had to be brought from Sweden and Spain.

So it went with food. At first the farmers of the United Kingdom could feed people there quite adequately. A few foods such as sugar were imported. But as time went on and the population increased, more and more food was imported. The British could afford to do this importing because they were exporting more and more manufactured goods. Since manufacturing paid better than farming and British manufactures were in great demand, the people of the United Kingdom turned more and more to making things and selling them.

So trade expanded as industry expanded and as population expanded. But a great problem has arisen. The goods the British send out of the country take up less space in their ships than the goods that are brought in, for the exports are less bulky. More shipping space is needed to bring in food and raw materials than to ship out manufactured goods. Once, the people of the United Kingdom could ship out enough coal to help fill space in the outgoing ships. This made the cost of shipping out their products less than it could otherwise have been. But since World War II it has been hard for them to mine enough coal to supply their own needs, much less to mine enough for export. The coal is deep, and much of the mining machinery is out-of-date. The days of cheap and easy mining have passed. Since the people of the United Kingdom can no longer use coal to help fill the ships that leave their ports, they are faced with a serious problem. What they can do to solve that problem remains to be seen.

The British have problems. As long as the people of the United Kingdom were able to sell manufactured goods and to buy in exchange food and raw materials, they did all right. Because the Industrial Revolution had started in England, manufacturing got a head start there. For a long time the United Kingdom was the leader in manufacturing in the world, and the standard of living kept improving.

Then toward the end of the nineteenth century things began to happen that were not good. Because population in the United Kingdom had increased rapidly, the United Kingdom needed to sell more manufactured goods to support all its additional people. But the Industrial Revolution had spread to other countries, and they had begun to manufacture and sell goods, too. Some could sell their manufactured products more cheaply than the United Kingdom could. This was particularly true of Japan. The Japanese could afford to sell their goods at low cost because they did not pay their workers very much. In India the textile industry was growing, and Indian cotton cloth could be sold for less than the cloth made in the United

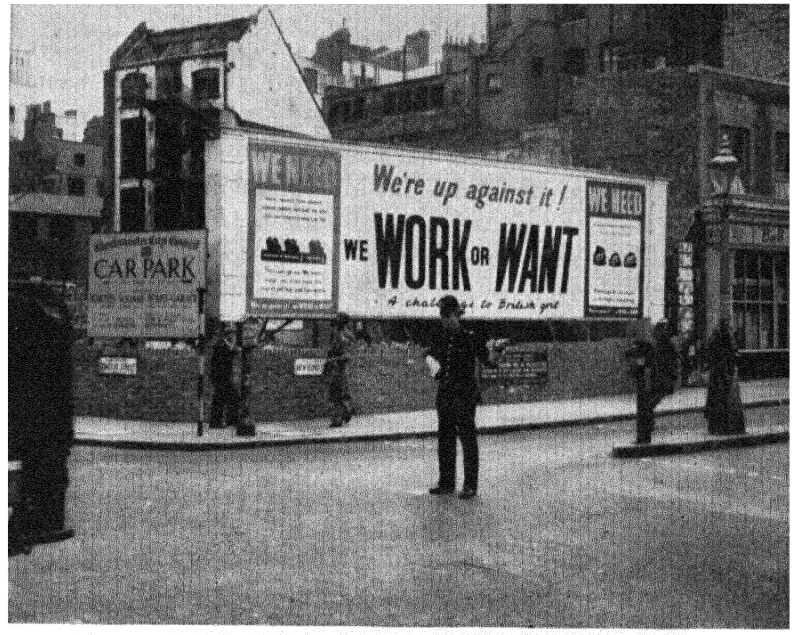
"Trying to make both ends meet."

Vicky in The London News Chronicle *(Adapted)*



Kingdom. Indian workers, like Japanese workers, received low wages. American manufacturers began to undersell the British, too, because Americans had developed more highly mechanized and more efficient ways of manufacturing. And so it became harder for the people of the United Kingdom to find markets for their goods.

It would be helpful if people were still able to leave the United Kingdom to find homes elsewhere. In the early nineteenth century, when the population in the British Isles was growing at a very rapid rate, many persons found homes in the colonies. Also, some went to the United States and others to South America. But times have changed. There are no longer so many good opportunities abroad for people who might want to leave the United Kingdom. The number of British people who go overseas has grown smaller. Hard times have come to the United Kingdom. The standard of living there has been going down.



From European Picture Service

One sign of the times in the United Kingdom.

To make matters even worse, when World War I came along, it put a severe strain on the British people. The United Kingdom, like many European countries, borrowed money to fight the war. Before all of the money could be paid back, a depression spread throughout the world. Countries wishing to sell goods could find nobody to buy them. There was no money with which to buy. The depression was hardly over before World War II began, bringing more debts and putting a much greater strain on the countries that fought it than had World War I. Trade was upset. When trade between countries is upset, a country able to grow enough food for its own people and to produce the raw materials and manufactured goods it needs is fortunate. It is in a much better position than the United Kingdom is. As we have seen, the United Kingdom cannot supply its people's needs. It must depend on trade.

For a while after World War II, the trade of the United Kingdom, and of the whole Commonwealth, was badly out of order. World War II brought many changes to the British people and to the Commonwealth. It brought problems to many people in other parts of the world, too. Times change. People and ideas must change with them. To do this often takes money, time, and hard work. It takes new ideas and new ways of doing business. The British people gave blood, sweat, and tears to help win the war and more sweat and tears to win their economic war. It now looks as if they may have won this battle, too. British industry and trade are in much better condition.

Airplanes make a difference. You have just read how the upsetting of its trade has put the United Kingdom in a weak position. Something else—a different kind of thing—has weakened the position of the United Kingdom in another way. It is the growth of air warfare.

Before airplanes were invented or used in warfare, the British found it a special advantage to live where they did. As we have

already said, the islands that were their home were close enough to Europe for European ideas and European trade to reach them easily. Yet they were far enough away so that the British could in part escape European quarrels and wars. And when wars came, enemy armies could not easily overrun the British Isles. The surrounding waters protected the islands, and British ships were always on patrol.

But in World War II much of the fighting was done in the air with airplanes. German planes made attacks from the air, and then German armies overran the countries of northern Europe. Belgium, the Netherlands, and France were taken, and then only the narrow English Channel lay between the German armies and the British Isles. German airplanes crossed the Channel easily. Perhaps if Germany had had time to do greater damage to England by air, England might have become so weak that German armies could have invaded the British Isles.

It is no longer as great an advantage for the British to live on the British Isles. The waters surrounding the islands are little protection to the British people today. In World War II German submarines working in those waters prevented ships from bringing in food that the British people badly needed. The English Channel is no protection against airplanes. Today no body of water, large or small, can keep airplanes from attacking. Modern airplanes can cross the widest oceans.

The Irish Form a Republic

Ireland is the second-largest island of the British Isles. Five-sixths of it belongs to the independent Republic of Ireland. The other sixth is, as we have seen, a part of the United Kingdom. How does it happen that one part of Ireland belongs to one country and the other part to another? Why didn't all the Irish unite to form one country?

Ireland is divided. The Irish people have had reasons for forming two countries instead of one. For hundreds of years—from the middle of the twelfth century to the early part of the twentieth—the British tried to control all of Ireland. Some of the things that happened during those years caused the people of Ireland to grow into two groups—so different from each other that it has been impossible for them to unite.

The people of Ireland, like the British, are a mixture of Celtic, Anglian, Saxon, Danish, Norse, and Norman-French peoples. But though the British and Irish have much the same ancestry, they do not have the same religion. Once, the people of England, Scotland, and Wales belonged to the Catholic church, just as all Christians did. Ireland was Catholic, too. The English, the Scots, and the Welsh broke away and became Protestant, but the Irish did not. They remained loyal to the Catholic church.

After the British began to control Ireland, it was natural that some of them should go to Ireland to make their homes. The British government encouraged people to settle in Ireland and gave them land and positions in Ireland that the people already living there felt rightfully belonged to them. The angry Irish people wanted Ireland for themselves.

Settlers from Great Britain found homes in many places in Ireland, but most of them went to the northern part. Many of the newcomers were Scotsmen, and they have since become known as the Scotch-Irish. They, of course, were Protestants. Protestants and Catholics live happily together in many parts of the world, but the Scottish Protestants and the Irish Catholics did not get along with each other. The bad feeling between them made the Irish more unfriendly to British people and to British control of their island.

From time to time the Irish tried to gain their freedom. Each time they failed, and often they were punished for trying. Bitterness between the people of the two islands

grew. But many British people had much sympathy for the Irish. People in London were quite as likely to get into a heated argument over the question of freedom for the Irish as people in Dublin were.

The Irish did not give up their struggle. By 1921 they had become so strong that they said they would not be a part of the United Kingdom any longer. In 1922, as you already know, Ireland became a dominion of the Commonwealth. The Irish people wanted all of Ireland to belong to the new dominion, but the descendants of the Scottish settlers in northern Ireland refused. They wanted to stay in the United Kingdom, and they did.

Today the Republic of Ireland is not even a dominion in the Commonwealth. The Republic of Ireland is a completely independent country. But it is still a sore point with the Irish that one part of Ireland—called Northern Ireland—remains a part of the United Kingdom. It bothers them because the island of Ireland is not one united country, but is divided into two.

How the Irish make a living. Unlike the United Kingdom, Ireland is largely agricultural. More than half its workers are farmers, and only one worker in six works in a factory. Ireland is not very densely settled, having only about 100 persons per square mile. This is fewer people per square mile than one finds in most of the other countries of Europe. The Republic of Ireland is not overcrowded and, on the whole, is more prosperous than the United Kingdom.

The Republic of Ireland is much closer to the United Kingdom in actual miles than any of the members of the Commonwealth and has much closer trade relations. Ninety percent of the exports from the Republic of Ireland go to the United Kingdom, where they are greatly needed. They are largely food products, such as beef, pork, and butter. In return, Ireland receives coal and manufactured products from the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom cannot, however, get all of the food it needs from its neighbor, nor does the Republic of Ireland buy all of its manufactured goods from Great Britain. The Republic is a good customer of the United States as well as of Great Britain.

During World War II Ireland was the only nation of the British Commonwealth to remain neutral. But many Irish citizens sympathized with the Allies and many enlisted in the British Army. Ireland aided the Allies in other ways as well.

We have seen that the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom depend on each other in trade. Since most of the causes for the bad feeling between the two countries have now been removed, the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom may become better friends in the days ahead.

WESTERN PENINSULAR EUROPE

Directly across the Channel from the British Isles lies the peninsula of Europe, tapering to the west and south. Six countries and five statelets make up a block that we shall call western peninsular Europe. Here has developed the particular brand of western civilization that has spread to so many other parts of the world. Here are the most important maritime countries of Europe, with the exception of Great Britain. And these are the countries that have done so much to spread western civilization. Let's look at them more closely.

The Iberian Peninsula

The Iberian Peninsula is a large angular knob on the western end of Europe. Because they faced the open Atlantic as well as the landlocked Mediterranean, the



Compare this map with the one on pages 372-373.

Spanish and the Portuguese were encouraged to take to the water early. Both peoples built up overseas trade and acquired land in other parts of the world. But neither the Portuguese nor the Spanish were ever able to forget the rest of Europe long enough to give full attention to the seas or the new lands they took. At times their kings were busy fighting wars in central Europe. At other times Spain and Portugal had to fight for their very existence because some neighboring state grew too powerful.

As you look at the Iberian Peninsula on the map on pages 386–387, it may seem to you that this peninsula is a natural place for one nation to develop. But it didn't turn out that way. The peninsula is a block-shaped tableland, notched about the edges by several isolated lowlands. Find them on the map above. It is in these scattered lowland areas that most of the people live. The people of each lowland feel that they live in a close-knit world of their own and have little in common with the people who live in some other lowland or with those who live on the upland. Nearly all of the people living in the peninsula are of the same racial background. But each of the separate areas has either a language or a dialect all its own. In fact, four languages have developed there—Spanish, Portuguese, Basque, and Catalan. And, as you know, two nations grew there instead of one—large Spain and small Portugal.

Spain and Portugal expel an enemy and begin a new age. Seven hundred years before Columbus' voyages, people called Moors crossed over from northern Africa to the Iberian Peninsula by way of the narrow Strait of Gibraltar. They were of many different types, but all of them were Mohammedans. These people swept over most of the peninsula rapidly, bringing with them not only the Arabic religion but also Arabic civilization. At a time when most of Europe was extremely backward, the Moors built great irrigation systems and introduced new methods in farming among the peoples they conquered. They built many fine buildings and even developed manufacturing.

But the Christian people of the peninsula disliked being controlled by Mohammedans—no matter how civilized they happened to be. In the north, where the mountains protected them, lived some Christians who had never been conquered. They led a struggle to free the peninsula of the Moors—a struggle that went on for centuries. These people of the north were able to push the Moors out of neighboring sections here or there, and so gradually the cleared area grew. Along the western edge of the peninsula the Moors were expelled at a remarkably early date. Then the kingdom of Portugal was set up, more than two hundred years before Spain was completely freed from the invaders.

In Spain the upland areas of Castile were freed early in the struggle; and finally the lowland areas of Andalucía, Murcia, and Valencia were cleared, also. The Moors made their last stand at Granada, in the mountains of southern Spain, and were defeated in January of 1492, just eight months before Columbus set sail on his first voyage of discovery.

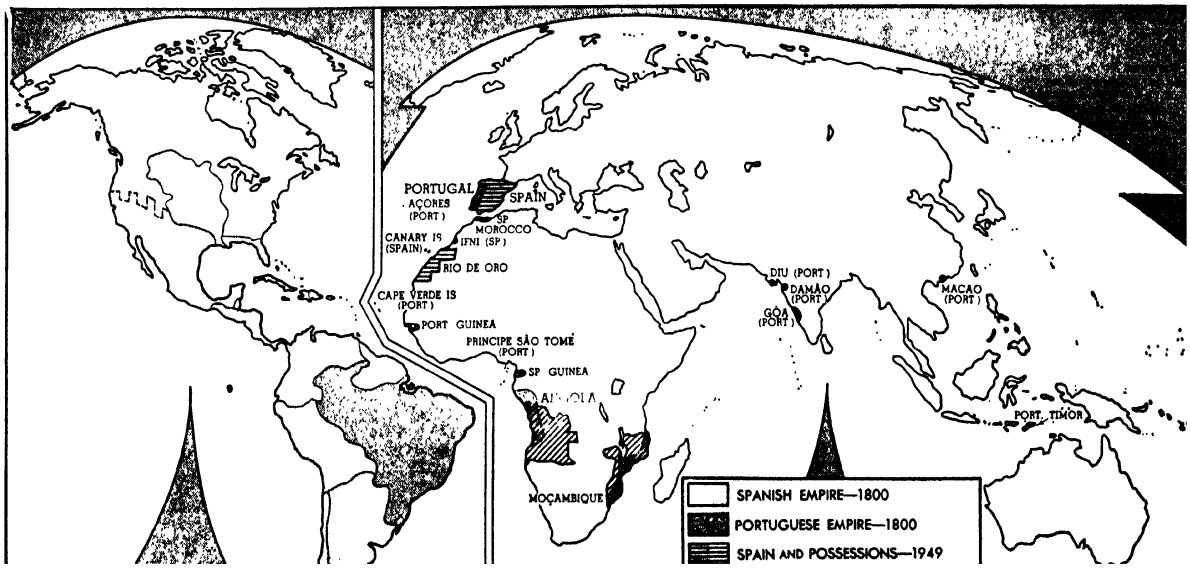
The Portuguese had already begun to explore the coast of Africa. You know how they crept slowly and carefully southward along the coast, always hoping to find a passageway eastward that would lead them to the Indies. When they reached the Guinea coast they thought for a time that they had found it, for they could sail more than a thousand miles straight east. But they were disappointed when the coast turned southward again, and it was not until they reached the Cape of Good Hope, nearly seven thousand miles from Lisbon, that the way was finally opened to the Indies.

Spain and Portugal divide the spoils between them. In general, the Portuguese explorers went southward and eastward around Africa and those of Spain went west to the Americas. To avoid trouble the two countries agreed upon a plan for dividing between them the new lands they discovered. The dividing line was drawn in the Atlantic Ocean at 46° 30′ west longitude and in the Pacific at 133° 30′ east longitude. All lands west of the line in the Atlantic and on halfway around the world were to be Spanish, whereas all lands east of this line were to be Portuguese. The line in the Atlantic split the ocean almost halfway between the Iberian Peninsula and North America. But shortly after it crossed the equator it struck the coast of Brazil near the mouth of the Amazon, leaving a fair-sized piece of eastern South America on the Portuguese side of the line. Eastern Brazil, consequently, became Portuguese territory.

For more than a century the Spanish and Portuguese explored, conquered, and began to colonize their new territories, undisturbed by the other countries of Europe. Universities were established in Bogotá, Lima, and Mexico City. Churches were built, and missionaries took Christianity to the Indians and taught them better methods of farming.

The empires melt away. If Spain and Portugal had had their way, all new lands discovered in the world would have belonged to one or the other of them. Later, other European countries wanted new possessions, too. They paid no attention to Spanish and Portuguese claims, and the two countries had to give them up. We shall see how the Dutch took the East Indies from the Portuguese. We shall also see how the English, French, and Dutch secured various toe holds in other parts of the New World.

Which of the two countries had the larger empire in 1800? Which country has the larger one today? Compare the sizes of both empires today with that of the French Union, shown on the map on pages 116-117.



In spite of these inroads, Spain and Portugal held large empires in the New World until the nineteenth century. During the three hundred years that they held these lands, their special brand of western civilization spread through Middle and South America and also through parts of the United States. But all of these lands finally broke away from Spain and Portugal. Now only a few scraps of land remain to remind us of the great empires held by the two countries in the sixteenth century.

From the map on page 107 you can find out what possessions Spain and Portugal have left. Portugal's colonial empire in Africa has possibilities for future development, but Portugal is too weak and too poor to do much with it. Portuguese Angola, even though it is near the equator, lies several thousand feet above sea level for the most part. It is a tropical area of high elevation that could undoubtedly be very productive. Other European nations look upon it enviously and like to talk about what they could do with it if they had it.

Problems at home. Portugal is one of the weaker nations in Europe today. It is a densely settled agricultural land, almost without industrial raw materials. Wine and cork are its major exports. The people have little education and are extremely poor. Portugal's problem is how to become more prosperous. An improved government and better agricultural methods would help. The Portuguese monarchy was overthrown in 1910, and a dictatorship was established.

Although Spain is a larger country—the second largest in Europe—its condition is similar to Portugal's. Spain, too, is largely agricultural, but it does have some valuable minerals. Mercury, copper, silver, and iron are mined, largely for shipment out of the country. Coal, too, is mined, but so far there has been little manufacturing.

Spain has better resources to work with than Portugal has. One would expect Spain to be more prosperous. However, the country went through a disastrous civil war, and a dictator took control. The civil war left Spain extremely weakened; it may be years before the country becomes strong.

One of the greatest difficulties Spain has is the fact that its people are not strongly united. The Catalans, the people of Catalonia in northeastern Spain, have long felt themselves to be a group set apart from the rest of the country. Their great city,

These Spaniards toss grain up into the wind to clean it. How has lack of industrialization affected them?

Robert Capa from Black Star



Barcelona, is nearly as large as Madrid, capital city of Spain, and each has a population of more than a million persons. Catalonia is the leading industrial area of Spain. The people living there have ideas different from those of people living in the rest of the country, which is largely agricultural.

The rivalry between Madrid and Barcelona tells us much about the state of affairs in Spain. In nearly every country in Europe, the capital city is by far the largest city. It is usually two or three times as large as the next-largest city, and in one or two instances it is as much as ten times as large. But in two countries, Spain and Italy, the capital city is only slightly larger than the next-largest city. Madrid and Barcelona are very close together in size, and Rome is only a little larger than either Milan or Naples. This weak position of the capital city may sometimes indicate a weakness in the government. Neither Spain nor Italy is a strong, united country with a strong, well-established government.

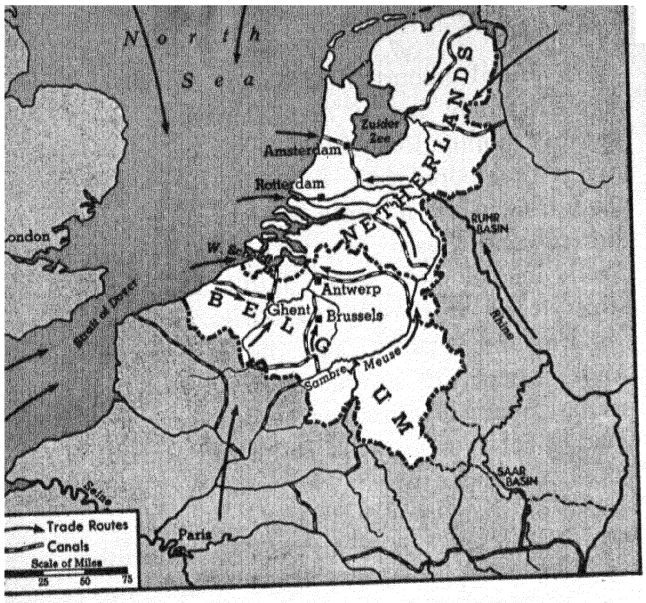
Why Spain and Portugal lost out. The question may well be asked, Why did Spain and Portugal lose the empires they once held? Their location was excellent. They had become nations before many other nations of Europe were formed. They were the first to build up their empires. Let's see, if we can, why these two countries did lose out.

It isn't surprising that Portugal could not keep its empire, for Portugal is a rather small and poor country. It is poor both in its agricultural resources and in its mineral resources. Its population has not been large, and Portugal has never been able to accumulate great wealth either from its colonies or from industrial development at home. The surprising thing about Portugal is that it has kept as great an empire as it holds today. This is due very largely to the fact that Portugal has had the backing of Great Britain.

It is not so clear why Spain failed to hold its possessions. Its mineral and its agricultural resources, although not great, are definitely better than Portugal's are. Spain's population was large as compared with the population of other European countries in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and Spain acquired great wealth from its colonies. Why didn't Spain use this wealth to develop industries at home, as England, France, and the Netherlands did? There are several reasons. For one thing, Spain acquired its wealth early and had spent it before the Industrial Revolution got under way. The Spaniards used most of their money in fighting wars in Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Then, too, Spain's wealth was largely gold brought from the Americas, and gold is very easy to spend. If Spain had received mainly products such as spices or sugar, it could not have spent them. It might then have used them to build up trade with other countries, as the Netherlands did. But gold must be spent or invested. Spain saw nothing to invest in at the time when it had the gold to invest. Later, when the Industrial Revolution came along and Spain might have invested in factories, most of the gold was gone.

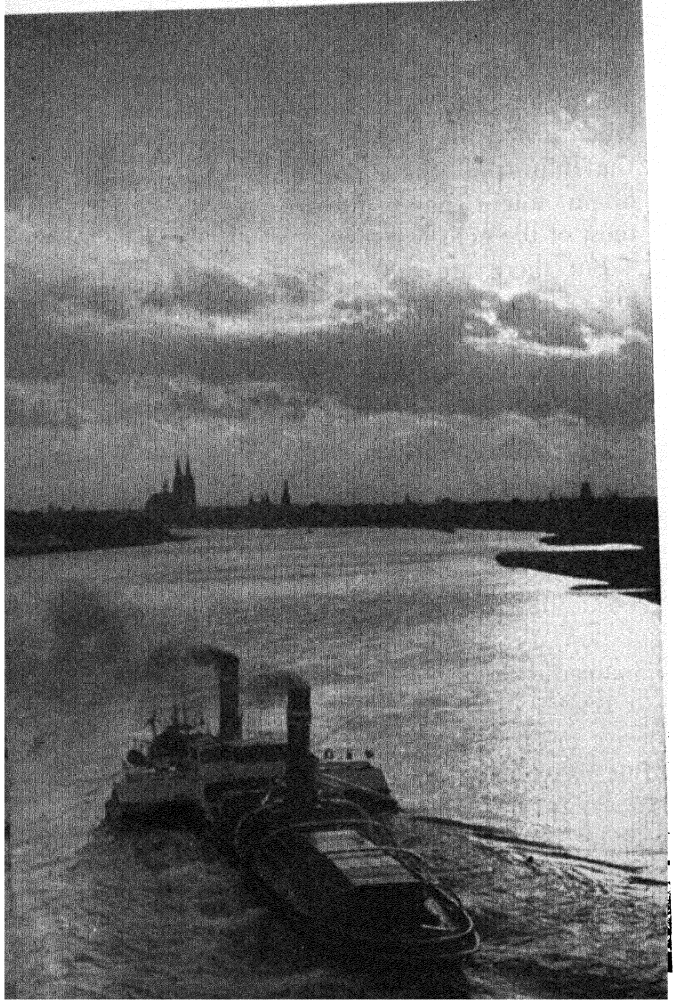
But there are other reasons for Spain's loss of empire. We have already said that Spain's population was large in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. But its population did not continue to grow. Spain had three times as many people at the end of the fifteenth century as did England, but it has only a little more than half as many as England now. Why?

It is not easy to say just why Spain fell behind other countries in the growth of population. Probably the chief reason is that Spain did not become an industrial nation as England did. Industrialization nearly always brings a rapid growth in population. But, as we have seen, Spain missed the boat as far as industry was concerned. When Spain expelled the Moors and Jews, it lost some of its ablest and most energetic people. Had they remained, it seems reasonable



At a crossroad.

The Rhine at Cologne, on its way northwest.
Courtesy German Tourist Information Office, New York



that their descendants would have helped to develop industry in Spain. But since industries did not develop in Spain, its population did not expand as rapidly as did that of most of the rest of Europe. While Europe's population was expanded to ten times its former size, that of Spain increased only two and a half times. Spain, the second-largest country in Europe, has fewer people today than has Germany, Italy, France, England, or Poland.

The Low Countries

On the northern coast of Europe, where the great North European Plain narrows to the width of a scant one hundred miles, lie Belgium and the Netherlands, often called the Low Countries.

A good place to be. Together the Low Countries occupy what is probably the most favorable location in Europe. For there the narrowing of the North European Plain brings together the east-west land routes, focusing them upon the cities of this area. There the seas bordering northern Europe grow narrow until they are only twenty miles wide at the Strait of Dover. Look at the map on this page. Ships carrying goods along the northern sea routes between eastern and western Europe have found the Low Countries convenient places at which to stop and carry on trade.

The Low Countries have another advantage. The Rhine River, running northwest through Germany, empties into the North Sea on the coast of the Netherlands. Goods and products can travel down the Rhine River to the Low Countries or up the river from the Low Countries into the interior of central Europe. Belgium and the Netherlands are at a crossroad where sea routes meet important land routes, and goods go east and west as well as north and south.

Belgium contains important iron and coal mines, and located near both the Low Countries are other important sources of coal and other minerals. You might think

that, with such advantages, the people living in this area would have formed a large, strong nation. But no such nation developed. Belgium is only a little larger than the state of Maryland, and the Netherlands is not much larger than Belgium.

A drawback. Living at a crossroad hasn't been altogether a good thing for the people of the Low Countries. The people of Belgium and of the Netherlands failed to develop powerful nations, but they had neighbors who succeeded. On one side of them is France, on another Germany, and on a third side, across narrow waters, is England. When these three are at war, the Low Countries are in danger, for they lie in their midst. Twice German armies have gone through Belgium to attack France. In World War II Germany occupied both Belgium and the Netherlands. As Allied armies tried to push the Germans back, heavy fighting took place in Belgium.

Living in a place where trade routes cross is good, but living in the path of enemy armies is another thing. Trade brings prosperity, but war destroys it and leaves in its place suffering and ruin.

The Netherlands. Belgium and the Netherlands occupy together a small area on the narrow North European Plain. You might think they would be alike, but there are many differences between them. For one thing, Belgium has more mineral resources than the Netherlands, and it is a highly industrialized country. The Netherlands, as you can see on the map on pages 386–387, has more seashore. It was the Dutch who early developed trade.

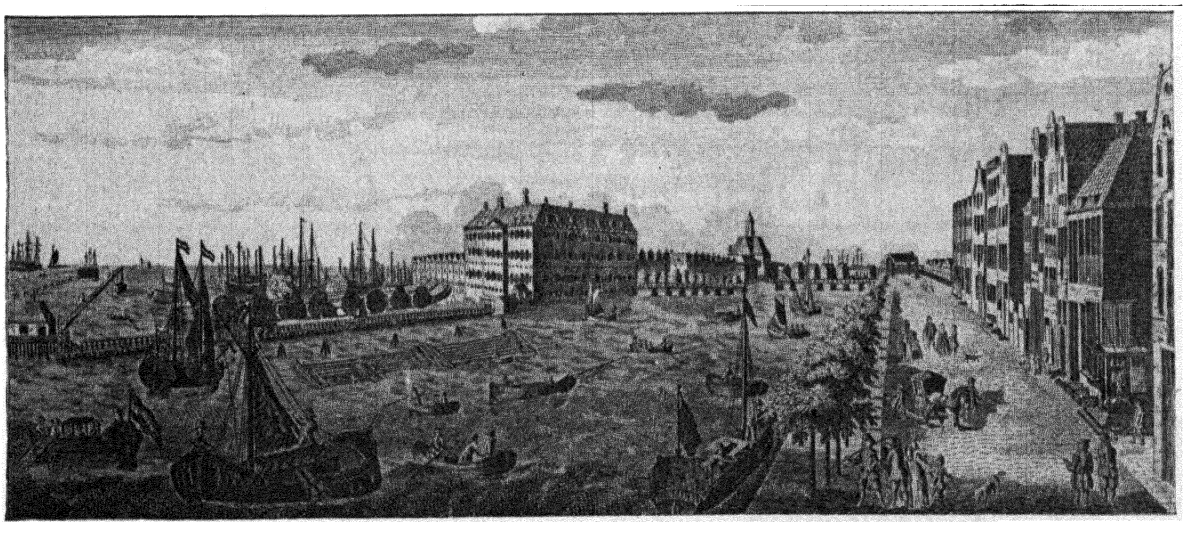
Maybe you know that at one time Spain ruled the lands that are now Belgium and the Netherlands. The Netherlands got its start as a nation when the Dutch broke away from Spanish control and became independent in 1648.

In 1648 the area of the Low Countries was already important commercially—for reasons we have already mentioned and for other reasons, too.

After their discoveries and explorations, the Spanish kept bringing back shiploads of products—mostly gold—from the Americas. Their ships usually set forth from and returned to the port of Seville (Sevilla). Portuguese ships brought sugar, spices, and fine textiles from the East Indies and India to the home port of Lisbon. Dutch traders were there ready to transfer the goods to their ships and then to carry them to other European countries. So long as the Dutch were allowed to carry on this kind of trade

The water front at old Amsterdam. Note the length of the breakwater. What buildings may be warehouses?

Culver Service



they did; but the Spaniards cut it off. When the Dutch broke away from Spain, the Spanish naturally were not friendly to Dutch traders. Unluckily for the Dutch, the Spanish for a time got control of Portugal, and so Dutch ships were ordered out of Lisbon.

The Dutch had to do something. They determined to go to the East themselves and bring back goods. This they did. In the East Indies they seized Portuguese trading posts which, with brief interruptions, they held for years. And so Dutch trade grew.

During the seventeenth century, the Netherlands became very wealthy. The Dutch did a great business in carrying things to and fro. They carried goods for other nations, and they brought materials from other lands to supply their growing industries at home. They carried timber from Norway to supply their shipbuilding industry, and brought iron and copper from Sweden. They carried spices, cotton, and silk from the Far East and sugar, rum, and tobacco from the New World. Dutch fishermen caught herring in the North Sea, cod off the coasts of Newfoundland, and even whales, in the waters near Greenland. And wool and flax were brought from the other countries of Europe for the textile industries of the Netherlands.

The colonial empire which the Dutch built up mainly at the expense of Portugal did not become as large as the British Empire for many reasons. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the Netherlands equaled or excelled England both in population and in wealth. But the Netherlands was unable to expand its home base and was constantly fighting in wars on the continent. These wars not only weakened the country at home but also held back its expansion overseas. Rivalry with Great Britain kept the Netherlands from winning any more land overseas than the East Indies, Dutch Guiana (Surinam), and a few small islands in the Caribbean Sea. The Dutch were forced out of North America and Africa entirely.

Trading is still a very important business to the Dutch, but farming is even more so. Because the Netherlands is so small, every effort is made to add to the farm land by reclaiming land from the sea. Nearly a third of the Netherlands is below sea level and is land reclaimed from the North Sea by diking and constant pumping. This work began in the Middle Ages and has been going on ever since. The Dutch are draining the Zuider Zee in order to gain more land. What is left of the Zuider Zee is called the IJssel Sea.

New land for an old country. This Dutch farmer pioneers on fertile acres once beneath the Zuider Zee.

Black Star





Wide World Photo

Find evidence here of the work and expense which helped make Antwerp one of Europe's finest ports.

The coast line of the Netherlands has changed a lot in the last four hundred years. Cities like Rotterdam and Dordrecht, that used to stand on the seacoast, now find themselves several miles inland. The Dutch have used dikes not only to reclaim land but also to defend their country. By opening the dikes, they can quickly flood the land and make it very difficult for armies to cross.

Belgium. Belgium has not been an independent country as long as the Netherlands has. The Belgians did not have as much trouble with Spanish rule as the Dutch had. Like the Spanish, most of the people of Belgium were Catholics, as they are today. The Dutch were and are mainly Protestants, and the Spanish had tried to make them Catholics. Belgium was ruled by the Spaniards and then by other peoples, too. It did not become a separate, independent country until 1831.

There are two groups of people living in Belgium. One is made up of the Walloons, who live in the southern half of the country and speak French. The other group is made up of the Flemish, who occupy the northern half and speak a language like that of the Dutch. The two groups are very jealous of each other, and there has been a strong urge on the part of the Flemish people to withdraw from Belgium altogether. Because their language is similar to that spoken in the Netherlands, it has often been thought that if such a division took place the Flemish part of Belgium would be joined to the Netherlands.

Although the Belgians never developed trading as much as the Dutch did, they carry on considerable trade. The most important port of Belgium is Antwerp, which lies at the head of the Scheldt River. There has been unpleasantness between the two Low Countries over the city of Antwerp. There has been rivalry between Antwerp and the Dutch cities of Amsterdam and Rotterdam since before the sixteenth century. Antwerp has been handicapped because, as you can see on the map on page 110, that city's approach to the sea passes through Dutch territory. The Belgians feel that as long as this condition exists, Antwerp will never have its normal share of the trade.

If Belgium has been handicapped in its maritime trade, it has had great advantages

for industrial development. Along the line of the Sambre-Meuse Valley, coal is mined in abundance. The valley is an extension of the rich Ruhr Valley field a short distance to the east in Germany. From very early times the smelting of metals has been carried on in this part of Belgium, and today it is an area of iron and steel mills, of copper and zinc smelting, and of still other metal industries.

Many people in Belgium make their living by farming, as they do in the Netherlands. And as in the Netherlands, land, being scarce, is very valuable. None of it is wasted or put to poor use.

Overseas empires. Both Belgium and the Netherlands have had tropical areas that were many times larger than the homelands themselves. All of these areas were located near the equator, and the equator actually passed through some of them. One would expect all the colonies to have been very similar. But this was not the case. It is true that they all did have wet tropical climates and somewhat similar vegetation. But there were important differences, too. Most of the possessions of the Netherlands, whether southeast of Asia or scattered about the Caribbean Sea, were islands. Only Surinam, on the northern coast of South America, is located on a large land mass. And even there the settlement is mostly coastal. Belgium's holdings lie in a single huge block in central Africa. Dutch territories are and were easily reached from the sea. They have many miles of shore line and numerous harbors. But the Belgian Congo is largely interior in its location and has only a narrow opening to the sea.

The overseas possessions of the two countries have quite different histories, also. The Netherlands has been a maritime power for more than three hundred years. Belgium began building its empire quite late. Up to recent times the colonial empires of the two Low Countries have been of nearly the same size, but they had not been developed to the same extent. The Dutch East Indies (now an independent nation called Indonesia) have five times as much trade as the Belgian Congo and five times as many people, too.

Belgium got possession of the Belgian Congo because a Belgian king took a great interest in tropical Africa. Toward the end of the nineteenth century the scramble to divide Africa among the various powers of Europe reached fever pitch. Suddenly everyone had become interested in Africa. Some people were out to get land, some were missionaries, and others were members of scientific societies. Leopold II of Belgium invested much of his personal wealth sending exploring expeditions to the Congo and helping to organize ways of developing the territory. He took possession of the Congo Basin. This area was finally recognized by the powers of Europe as the Congo Free State, but it actually wasn't free. Leopold of Belgium was its king, and it belonged to Leopold, not to Belgium. Belgium and the Congo Free State had the same king, but there was no connection between them. Leopold finally turned over the Congo Free State to the Belgian nation, and so Belgium joined the group of nations holding overseas possessions. Belgium has never been much of a maritime power, but the little country has done a fairly good job with this rather difficult tropical colony.

The French Republic

France is the largest country of peninsular Europe. It is larger than Spain and is made up of many more natural regions than Spain. Part of the country is drained by streams that flow into the northern Atlantic. This part of France is like northwestern Europe. Part of the country is drained by streams that run into the Mediterranean Sea. This part of France not only faces the Mediterranean but also has Mediterranean climate and agriculture.

Within this large area that is partly northwestern Europe and partly Mediterranean Europe, you will find half a dozen

separate regions that differ from each other physically. The map on this page will show you all of them. One, called the Aquitaine Basin, is in southwestern France—in the valley of the Garonne River. Another is the Paris Basin, in which Paris, the capital, is located. As its name shows, it is a lowland, too. Find Brittany on the map. It is a third region—a rocky one. Now locate a fourth region—the Central Massif. This is a region of hilly uplands.

Besides the four regions mentioned, you can find on the map the rather small Rhone-Saône Valley region. On the northeast border is Alsace-Lorraine, another region that is mainly lowland. Besides all these regions, there are borderlands along the Alps, Jura, and Pyrenees mountains.

A country with such different geographic regions naturally has other differences. Some parts of France are best suited to farming, others to industry. Crops differ. Climates differ. Even customs differ in various parts of France.

But these differences have not been a drawback. They have been good for France. Industry in France has not developed more than farming, and about as many Frenchmen live on farms as in cities. As for the variety in the crops grown—that is an advantage in any country. And the people of France have not been separated by the differences in their regions, as the Spaniards have been. Low divides form gateways that make it easy to pass from one lowland to another. Canals have linked the rivers of France. Railroads have helped to unite Frenchmen, too. The people of France were among the first in Europe to form a strong, united nation.

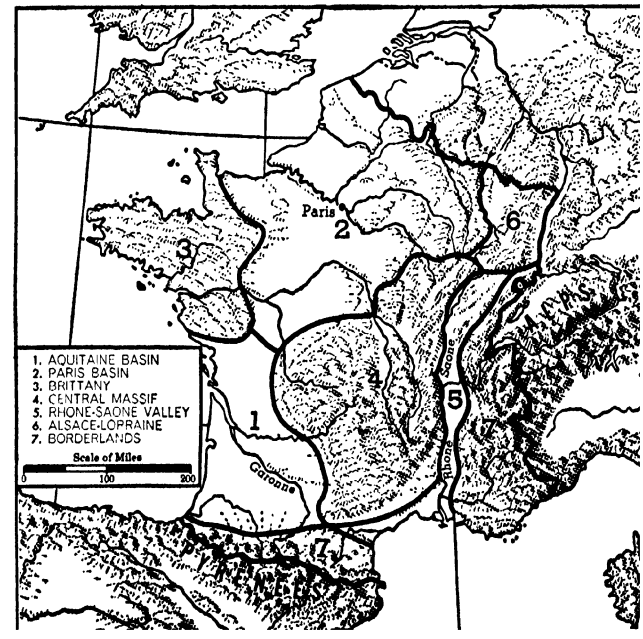
France wins and loses. Not only did the people of France form a united nation early. By the seventeenth century they also had made their country the strongest power in Europe. Its position in Europe, facing both the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, was extremely favorable. France was nearly as well located as Spain and Portugal for overseas trade, and it had a much better location for trade with the other countries of Europe. Twenty million people lived in France in the seventeenth century—more people than lived in any other European country, including Russia.

Like England and Spain, France built up an empire overseas, too. A large part of North America, several islands in the Caribbean, and a part of India were all claimed. But during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the French lost much money and many men trying to conquer the other peoples of Europe. In the end they failed. France lost most of the overseas empire it held at that time, and was no longer the strongest power in Europe.

The French Union. France has never regained the strong position it once held in Europe. But during the last half of the nineteenth century it again acquired large areas of land outside Europe. Today, in spite of its weakened condition, France controls one of the world's largest empires, called the French Union. Look at the map of it on pages 116–117.

The French Union ranks third in size among the powers of the world. Only the Commonwealth of Nations and the Soviet Union are greater in area. More than one

The physical regions of France.



hundred million persons live in the French Union, but less than half of these people live in France. The French Union ranks fifth in population among the world powers. The Commonwealth of Nations, China, the Soviet Union, and the United States all have more people.

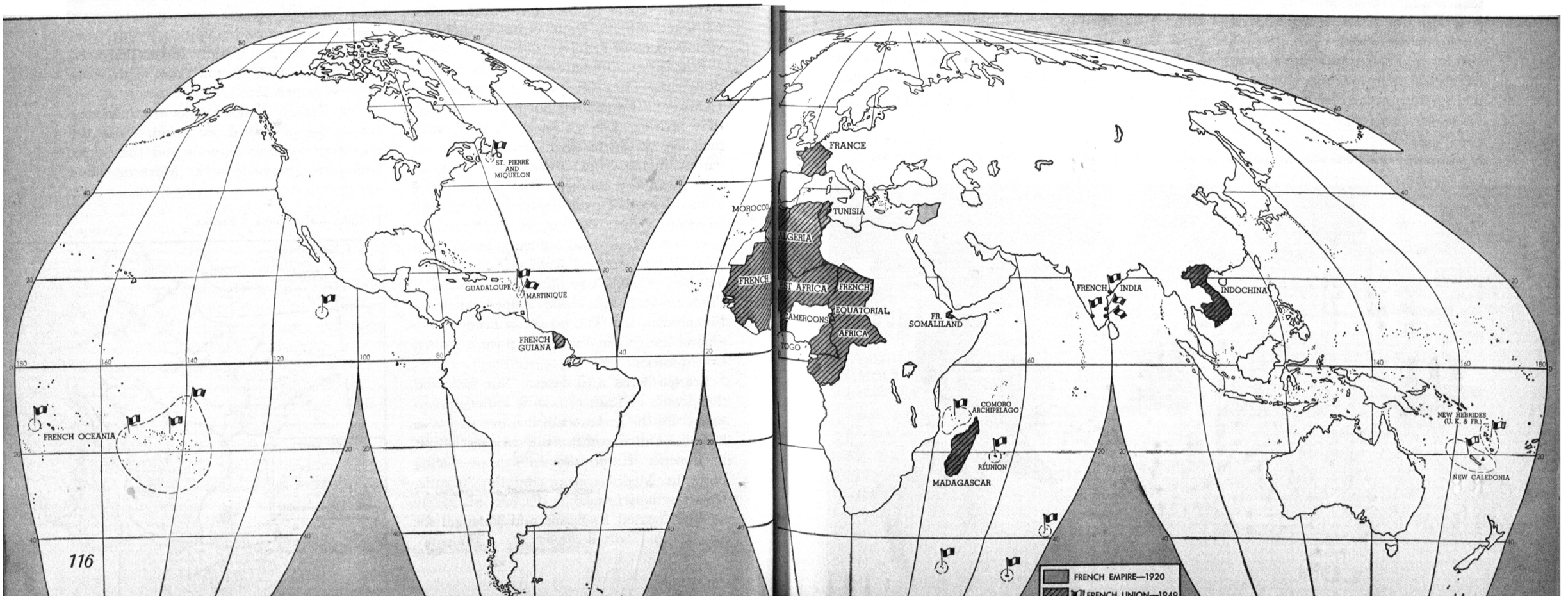
More than nine-tenths of the French Union lies in Africa. Algeria, in North Africa, is just across the Mediterranean Sea from southern France. And from there other French possessions extend southward across the Sahara to equatorial Africa at the mouth of the Congo River. The Union covers a huge area, more than four million square miles in extent. But only small parts of it have any great value as a place for people to live. More than half of it is desert. This desert cuts off the North African possessions along the Mediterranean from the equatorial regions farther south. It is easier to go from France to North Africa, even with a sea between them, than it is to travel from North Africa to the equatorial possessions.

France planned to make the French Union into a highly united empire. All possessions were to look to France as the center of the empire and to Paris as the empire's capital city. There have been no self-governing dominions in the French Union, as there are in the Commonwealth of Nations. But some parts of it were invited to send representatives to Paris to the French Parliament, French lawmaking body. The plan of the French was to develop a well-knit empire, based upon French language and customs, that would look to France as its heart.

In the French Union there is little racial discrimination, which means that there most people treat all races in the same way. They allow other people the right to have their own religion, too. Most of the people of France are Roman Catholics, but there are many Mohammedans in French Africa. The French have not tried very much to change the religion of this area. But they have worked hard to get the people to speak French. They want the Union to become French in language, literature, and customs. And the sections that do so are the ones that are rewarded with French citizenship and with representation in the Parliament. This plan of making the parts of the Union French works well in some cases. But some people don't want to change their own language and customs. They don't want to become French. Before 1949 both Syria and Lebanon broke away. Morocco, Tunisia, and part of Indochina later became independent.

Problems of France. In spite of careful planning, the French Union has many difficulties. Perhaps the greatest of all these is the position of the home country itself. France is located in peninsular Europe in such a way that it has had to fight for its life against Germany three times in the last eighty years. It has become plainer and plainer that France cannot defend itself against Germany without outside help. Since France can't defend itself against Germany, it is extremely anxious to keep

The French Union at its greatest extent. Morocco, Tunisia, and most of Indochina are now independent.



Germany as weak as possible. It is a serious problem for the French to have to live near a neighbor they fear. The problem is made worse by the fact that Germany and France depend on each other industrially.

It has been said that French iron ore is married to German coal. The boundaries between France and Germany are drawn in such a way that one of the best iron-ore deposits in Europe lies in French territory. The nearest coal available to smelt that iron lies in German territory. Either French iron ore must move to German coal, or German coal to French ore. Actually, in times of peace, both movements occur. But the greater industrial development has been near the German coal beds in the Ruhr Valley. In wartime, trade between the two countries stops, of course, and this industrial tie-up is upset. One way to prevent such trouble would be for the two countries to form a union. But it would be impossible for Frenchmen and Germans to join and form a union. Not only are there great differences in their languages and cultures, but there is also great bitterness that has come from frequent wars. Forming a United States of Europe would, of course, be another way to keep France and Germany on friendly terms with each other.

Another problem that troubles France is its birth rate. France used to be the most populous country of Europe. Now the birth rate has gone down until France has fewer people than Germany, Italy, or the United Kingdom. Many foreigners have entered France, and nearly 10 percent of the population is now non-French. At first these foreigners were almost entirely from the countries that border France. Later many came from more distant countries in Europe, such as Russia and Poland, or from places that were outside Europe altogether.

France has a third problem, too. Like other European countries, its government used to be a monarchy. It has been a republic off and on ever since the end of the eighteenth century. Since 1871 France has remained a republic, and there has been no serious attempt to overthrow the government. But French Communists, although not a majority party, have gained control of

Frenchmen have a choice of many political parties. Compare these men with those shown on page 58.

Acme





Sweigert in The San Francisco Chronicle

A heavy burden.

a very strong minority made up largely of members of the laboring group. France, like many other European countries, has the problem of keeping the Communists from overthrowing the government.

The Italian Situation

Italy is being included here with the countries of western Europe even though there is considerable doubt concerning the part of Europe to which it really does belong. Once, at the time of the Roman Empire, Italy was the very center of European affairs. Today, though Italy is a weak country, it still occupies an important position. It lies between eastern and western Europe. It extends southward into the central Mediterranean until it comes close to the great continent of Africa.

Italy yesterday. At one time the Roman Empire was made up not only of Italy but also of all the lands bordering the Mediterranean Sea. Besides, it included much of northern Europe. Roman civilization contained many of the best ideas of the early Egyptian and Mesopotamian civilizations, and of Greek civilization, also. And so, as the Romans spread their civilization among the peoples they conquered, they spread Egyptian, Mesopotamian, and Greek civilizations, too. Since modern western civilization developed from Roman civilization, we can say that the Romans provided the link between those very ancient civilizations and western-European civilization. The Italians today can be proud that these things are true.

But when the Roman Empire broke up, the Romans lost their possessions. They did not even have a united country left inside the Italian peninsula. Instead, Italy was broken up into many small sections that were not fully united until the last half of the nineteenth century.

By that time, most of the other European countries had already been united. Many of them had got possession of lands in other parts of the world. The Italians wanted some land, too, but by the end of the nineteenth century most of the best areas in the world were already claimed by other countries. Italy took Somaliland, Eritrea, and Libya in Africa. You can find these places on the map on page 90. For the most part, they are poor desert lands. Italians who wanted to find homes outside crowded Italy did not care to go to such poor places to live.

After World War I, Italy tried to make itself stronger both at home and overseas. Mussolini became dictator of Italy. The industrial cities of northern Italy were modernized, the highways and railroads were improved, and marshy areas along the coast were drained to add to the amount of farm land. The material improvements Mussolini made at home were good, but his methods of doing things were so autocratic that many Italians came to hate him and at the same time he began to show signs that he wanted a bigger empire at the expense of other countries. Italians pushed across the Adriatic Sea and around its northern end. Albania was occupied. Italian settlers

swarmed into French-held Tunisia, and Italy began to talk about taking that area by force, if necessary. The Italians also began to look enviously at Corsica, whose people speak an Italian dialect. Finally, Italy declared war upon Ethiopia, a war that Italy won easily because Ethiopia was a weak country and not prepared. The addition of Ethiopia greatly enlarged and unified Italian East Africa. And then came World War II, in which Mussolini was an ally of dictator Hitler of Germany. Italy, like Germany, was defeated and lost much that it had gained.

Italy today. Italy is a densely settled country about half as large as France, but with about the same number of people. Not only is Italy smaller than France, but much of its land is so mountainous that there is a shortage of good farm land. For these reasons, the Italians have a much harder time raising enough food for themselves than the French have. Italy's mineral resources are not great, either. There is very little petroleum or coal—those two fuel resources that are so necessary to a nation in an industrial age. A country with such limited resources finds it hard to support so many people.

Modern Rome—a contrast in old and new.
Philip Gendreau, N.Y.



Poor natural resources and a large population give the Italian people one of the lowest standards of living in Europe. Many Italians have little education, and so it is harder for them to understand problems of government. The Italian people seem to have a difficult time establishing a democratic form of government. Of course, they have not had much opportunity to get practice so far. When Italy became a united country in 1871, it was a monarchy. The monarchy was not especially strong, and after World War I it allowed fascism to develop in Italy. The Fascists soon grew very powerful, and as you know, Mussolini, their leader, ruled Italy until Italy was defeated in World War II.

Because there are so many people in Italy, and because there are not enough opportunities to make a living there, thousands of Italians left the country during the last century. Many of them went to the United States until it began limiting immigration of all kinds. Others went to Argentina. Some crossed the Italian borders into France and Switzerland. Both countries have a lower population density and a higher standard of living than Italy's. But no country wants to take in more immigrants than can fit in readily with its own people. Many countries have closed the door to immigrants, and they open that door only at certain times—and then but a crack.

Italy's future. Italy's future is not necessarily hopeless, although its problems do at times seem to be too great to be solved. Italy may lack coal and petroleum, but its mountain streams furnish hydroelectric power. Switzerland, its neighbor to



Brown Brothers

These Italian immigrants probably owned no more than they carried. But in America they had prospects.

the north, also lacks coal and petroleum, but it has made the most of hydroelectric power. Italy may be short of iron ore, but it has aluminum ore. The Italians can perhaps build up an aluminum industry, as the people of the Pacific Northwest have done. Hydroelectric power is the kind of power used in the development of this industry. The process of separating aluminum from aluminum ore takes so much electricity that the industry develops only where there is hydroelectric power. And the people of Italy have already started to work on such possibilities.

THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES

Most people know about the large peninsula in northern Europe called the Scandinavian Peninsula. There the Swedes and Norwegians live. Directly south of this peninsula is the smaller peninsula named Jutland, where another Scandinavian people, the Danes, live. And besides the three countries Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, there is another one that is considered Scandinavian, too—Finland. That is mainly because Sweden once ruled Finland—for six hundred years. Even after Finland became independent, Scandinavian ideas and influence remained.

The Scandinavians Migrate

Six hundred years before the Spanish and Portuguese voyages of discovery, many Scandinavian people developed a restless urge to leave their homelands. They moved in many directions. You have already read about the Swedish people who crossed the Baltic Sea and followed the Russian rivers until they reached the Black Sea. These Scandinavians established the first trading posts along the Baltic-Black Sea route that led to Constantinople. They also founded the kingdoms that were the beginnings of Russia.

While some Scandinavians were busy in Russia, others set out in other directions. They crossed the North Sea and the North Atlantic, visiting and conquering many places around the coasts of Europe and in the British Isles. Western Europeans called them the Northmen or Norsemen. These Northmen went on to Iceland and Greenland and even reached the eastern coast of North America. They established colonies



Brown Brothers

An artist's idea of Norsemen out on a voyage of discovery or landing for a raid.

in Greenland and Iceland. The Greenland settlement disappeared, but Iceland remained tied to Denmark until recently, when it became independent.

Because of these migrations, voyages of discovery, and raids, Scandinavians settled and left descendants in most of the countries of northern Europe—from France to Russia. Modern Englishmen are descended in part from the Scandinavians who settled in England. The Scandinavians were a barbarian people at the time of these migrations, and they were greatly feared by the more civilized western Europeans.

What Went On at Home

Although there are four different Scandinavian countries now, it was not always that way. The Danes formed their country first. It included Jutland, the plains at the southern end of present-day Sweden, and the islands at the entrance to the Baltic Sea. On one of the islands the city of Copenhagen (Köbenhavn) grew up. Because it has a fine natural harbor and is in a good position for trade, Copenhagen developed fast. It became the capital of Denmark before Columbus discovered the New World.

Even after the other Scandinavian peoples formed countries, the Danes continued being leaders among them. Denmark had the advantage of being closer to western Europe than any other Scandinavian country. Western European civilization reached it sooner. At one time Denmark controlled a union of all the Scandinavian peoples. It didn't last, though. And when it split up, it divided into two parts—Sweden (including Finland) and Denmark (including Norway). A little later, Sweden gained from Denmark the plains at the southeastern tip of the Scandinavian Peninsula. Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, grew to be an important city. Find these countries and cities on the map on page 123.

Two Countries Become Four

For four hundred years Denmark controlled Norway and Norway's colonies, too. Then in the early years of the nineteenth century a change took place. Norway was taken from Denmark and given to Sweden.

Finland was taken from Sweden and given to Russia. By this game of pussy wants a corner, Sweden became the strongest of the Scandinavian powers and Denmark was reduced to its present small size. Though Denmark gave up Norway, it kept Norway's colonies. It kept Iceland, settled by Norwegians. And it kept Greenland, too.

But Norway was never happy to be a part of Sweden, and about a century later, in 1905, it was given its independence. So it was with Finland. The Finns did not want to be a part of Russia, either, and at the end of World War I they gained their independence, too. Then there were four Scandinavian countries.

There has been a further step since World War II. Iceland, settled more than a thousand years ago, gained its independence. So, in a sense, there are five Scandinavian countries—four in Europe and one in the North Atlantic near the Arctic Circle.



Where the Scandinavians live.

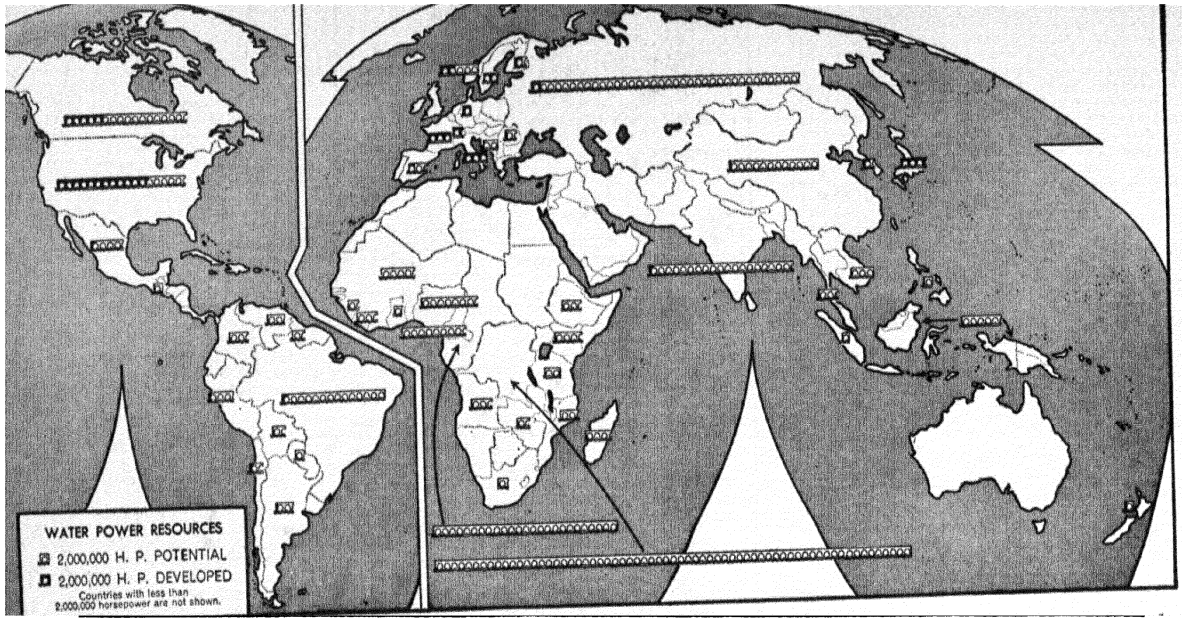
Business and Industry

As the people in other European countries began building factories and developing power to run them, the Scandinavians seemed to be at a disadvantage. They have little coal. Someday other sources of power may prove more useful than coal. But so far no country has become a great industrial nation without coal.

For a long time it seemed that Scandinavian countries could only supply raw materials to other countries that were more industrialized. They shipped iron ore and timber to such countries as Germany, Belgium, and Great Britain. And those countries bought the food which the Scandinavians could supply.

But, as you can see on the map on page 124, three of the Scandinavian countries have a great deal of water power that has been developed into cheap electricity. Electricity is not a satisfactory substitute for coal in every way, but Norway has used it to develop chemical industries. Norway has also used its hydroelectric power to saw lumber and make pulp and paper, as Sweden and Finland have done.

Sweden has developed another important industry. Sweden has very fine iron-ore resources in its far north, but the iron ore is exported. From the early days there has



Find the parts of the world having the greatest potential, or undeveloped, water-power resources. Use the maps on pages 382–405 to identify them.

also been an iron-smelting industry in central Sweden, using charcoal and local iron ores. As you no doubt know, charcoal is produced by burning wood without enough air to reduce it to ashes. This process for producing charcoal was used throughout Europe and in many places in North America as long as timber was available. But when trees grew scarce, other sources of fuel had to be used. In most of Europe and in eastern North America coal was found. It made a very satisfactory substitute for charcoal when people had learned how to use it. But in Sweden the timber resources are still great and coal is lacking, so the Swedish people continue to make iron by using charcoal. They also use some hydroelectric furnaces to smelt iron ore.

Producing Swedish steel for Swedish industries.

Courtesy The American Swedish News Exchange, Inc.



Charcoal iron has advantages over iron smelted with coke made from coal. It is usually much better iron and is in great demand when it comes to making high-grade machinery. For this reason, Sweden has developed an important machinery industry and exports such things as ball bearings, machine tools, and precision instruments to the industrialized countries of Europe. Perhaps Sweden doesn't produce enough of this machinery to make itself one of the great producers of iron and steel goods, but today Sweden is an important link in the industrial chain of Europe. For this reason, the warring powers of Europe are very anxious to have Sweden open for trade at all times.

Trade is very important to all the Scandinavian countries. They export the things they produce in abundance in exchange for imports that are largely manufactured

goods and coal. The amount of trade in Scandinavian countries is exceptionally large when you consider what small populations they have. Norway has had one of the greatest merchant marines in the world. In normal times Norwegian ships are found in most of the harbors of the world. It has been said that Norway could take its whole population aboard its own ships!

In agriculture, all four of the Scandinavian countries are primarily dairying countries. Denmark depends upon agriculture more than the others do. Finland, Sweden, and Norway all lean heavily upon their great forest resources, and Norway places an almost equal emphasis upon fishing.

Of the four Scandinavian countries, Norway, Sweden, and Finland are fairly large, ranking among the larger countries of Europe. Denmark, on the other hand, is a small country, very little larger than Switzerland. Denmark is also the only one of the four with a population density similar to that of the rest of the countries of Europe. The other three have large areas of land that are too cold and too rugged for people to live in.

Scandinavian Politics

The development of industry is important to any country, but other things are important, too. One of them is good government. It takes coal to develop great industry, but any people can develop good government if they want it badly enough to work hard for it. All four Scandinavian countries have developed governments that look after the people's needs and in which the people share the work and responsibility. Finland is a republic with an elected president. The other three Scandinavian countries have kings, but the kings have little power. The people elect representatives to go to a parliament to make the laws.

One of the things the Scandinavian governments do is to see to it that the people receive education. A greater proportion of people in the Scandinavian countries can read and write than in any other part of Europe. Any good government provides education for its people, and in turn an educated people will be most likely to provide good government.

If the Scandinavian countries could be united to make one country, that country could be an important power of Europe. But each of the Scandinavian countries much prefers to go its own separate way. Often the Scandinavian countries take a united stand on matters of foreign policy. But during World War II Sweden remained neutral rather than go to the aid of Norway and Denmark against Germany or help Finland against Russia.

Finland has perhaps the most difficult position in foreign affairs of all the Scandinavian countries. Finland has a very powerful neighbor—the Soviet Union—and once, as you remember, Finland was ruled by the Russians. During World War II Finland fought a private war with the Soviet Union and lost part of its former territory. The war was very unfortunate for the Finns. Perhaps the worst result of the war for them is that it made them worry about what the Soviet Union will do in the future. It is unpleasant to be near a large neighbor and to have such a feeling about it. Finland will no doubt be influenced in its foreign affairs by the wishes of the Soviet Union—whether Finland likes this or not.

Overseas Possessions

Only two of the Scandinavian countries have any overseas possessions. Denmark now has only Greenland and the Faeroe Islands. Denmark used to own the Virgin Islands, near the eastern end of Puerto Rico in the Caribbean Sea. But it sold them to the United States in 1917. Iceland, which was formerly ruled by Denmark, has declared its independence and is now a separate nation. Norway has a few islands in the northern and southern Atlantic, but its

only important possession is Svalbard, or Spitsbergen, where coal is mined. Find these places on the map on page 90.

These few possessions are all that are left of the lands the Scandinavians used to hold. Once, the Scandinavians occupied large parts of the British Isles, and they owned land as far west as Greenland and as far east as Russia. The Scandinavians never had a powerful hold on these lands. They never organized them in a strong empire. At the time they occupied so much land overseas, they had not even formed nations at home. The Swedes tried to set up a colony in North America in the Delaware Valley, but the Dutch and the English were too strong for them. The Swedes had to give up their Delaware settlement.

In World War II British and American troops occupied Iceland as a safety measure to keep Germany from seizing it. For the same reason, Americans occupied parts of Greenland. Greenland is a particularly bleak and icebound part of the world.

To find out why Americans feared German occupation of Iceland and Greenland, look at a globe. Where does the shortest route between eastern North America and northern Europe lie? The chief steamship lanes are south of this line because of the danger from icebergs. But airplanes need not be concerned about icebergs, so their lanes are farther north. Iceland lies only a little to one side of the shortest route between eastern North America and northern Europe. If the Germans had been able to establish an air base in Iceland or Greenland, they would have been well on their way from Germany to New York City. Both Iceland and Greenland are steppingstones between Europe and North America. Another such steppingstone is Svalbard, which is a group of islands lying nearly seven hundred miles north of the Scandinavian countries.

There is another reason why Greenland and Iceland are strategic spots. Weather conditions in Greenland and Iceland tell much about the kind of weather Europe will have a few days later. Whether for war or peace, the forecasting of weather is very important.

THE COUNTRIES OF CENTRAL EUROPE

Central Europe, as its name suggests, is surrounded by neighbors. To the north lie the Scandinavian countries. Westward across the Rhine and southward across the Alps are the maritime countries of western Europe. Down the Danube River lie the countries of southeastern Europe. And to the east is the Soviet Union. It has been a great advantage to the countries of central Europe to lie in the "center of things." But on the other hand, these countries have less contact with the sea than the countries of western Europe have. They have had less chance to become sea powers like England and Spain. And a central location has its dangers, too, as we shall see.

Only a small part of central Europe faces the open sea. Germany has a small opening on the North Sea between the Netherlands and Denmark. Poland and Germany share the southern shore of the Baltic Sea. The remaining countries of central Europe—Switzerland, Czechoslovakia, and Austria—have no seacoasts at all. Germany is the only country of central Europe that developed a strong interest in the sea and the only one that ever had overseas colonies.

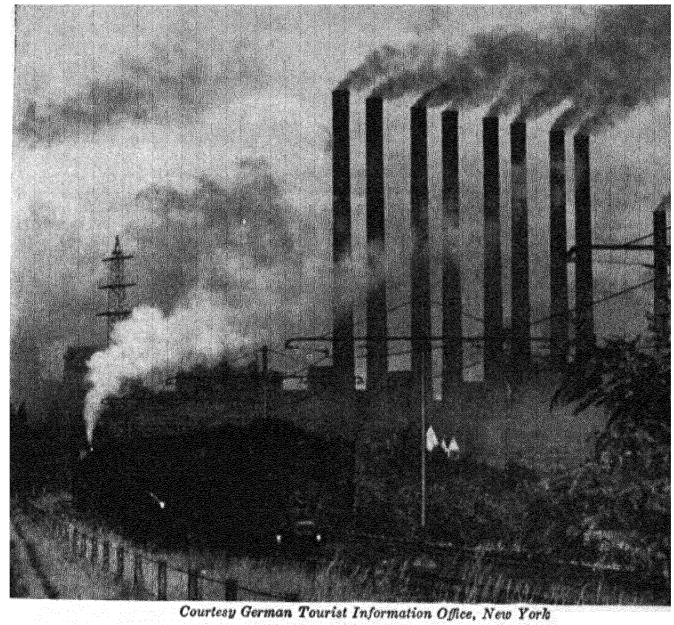
More than a third of all the people of peninsular Europe live in central Europe, jostling each other for room and building up bad feeling toward each other. Germans and Slavs share this part of the continent. Unfriendliness has developed most where Germans live close to Slavs. But Slavic peoples haven't always been friendly to each other; neither have German peoples.

Two-thirds of the people of central Europe are Germans. There are more German people in Europe than there are either French people or Italian people. The Germans far outnumber the Scandinavians, too. But great as is the number of Germans in Europe, the number of Slavs is even greater. There are many millions of Slavs in central and southeastern Europe and in the Soviet Union.

Where German-speaking People Live

In central Europe there are three nations where German-speaking people live. The three are Germany and Austria, which are almost entirely German, and Switzerland, where part of the people speak German. Of these three countries, Germany has been by far the largest and the strongest. In fact, Germany was, up until the end of World War II, the strongest country of peninsular Europe. It had held that position for more than fifty years.

Germany. There are several reasons why Germany was able to make itself so strong before World War II. The main reason is its location. Location has favored Germany, just as it has favored some other countries. Like the Netherlands, much of Germany lies on the North European Plain. Trade routes between eastern and western countries pass through northern Germany. Trade passing north and south can travel along a network of rivers. For instance, the Rhine River Valley connects with routes that lead to southern France, Switzerland, and Italy. The Danube Valley leads to Austria and to the countries of southeastern Europe. The Oder Valley reaches into Poland, and the Elbe Valley reaches into Czechoslovakia. Find these valleys on the map on page 128. Before World War II nine countries bordered Germany, and German trade and transportation could easily reach each one of them.



Courtesy German Tourist Information Office, New York

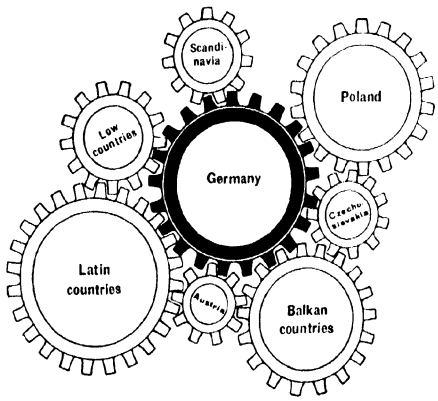
Coal brought industry to this area in Germany.

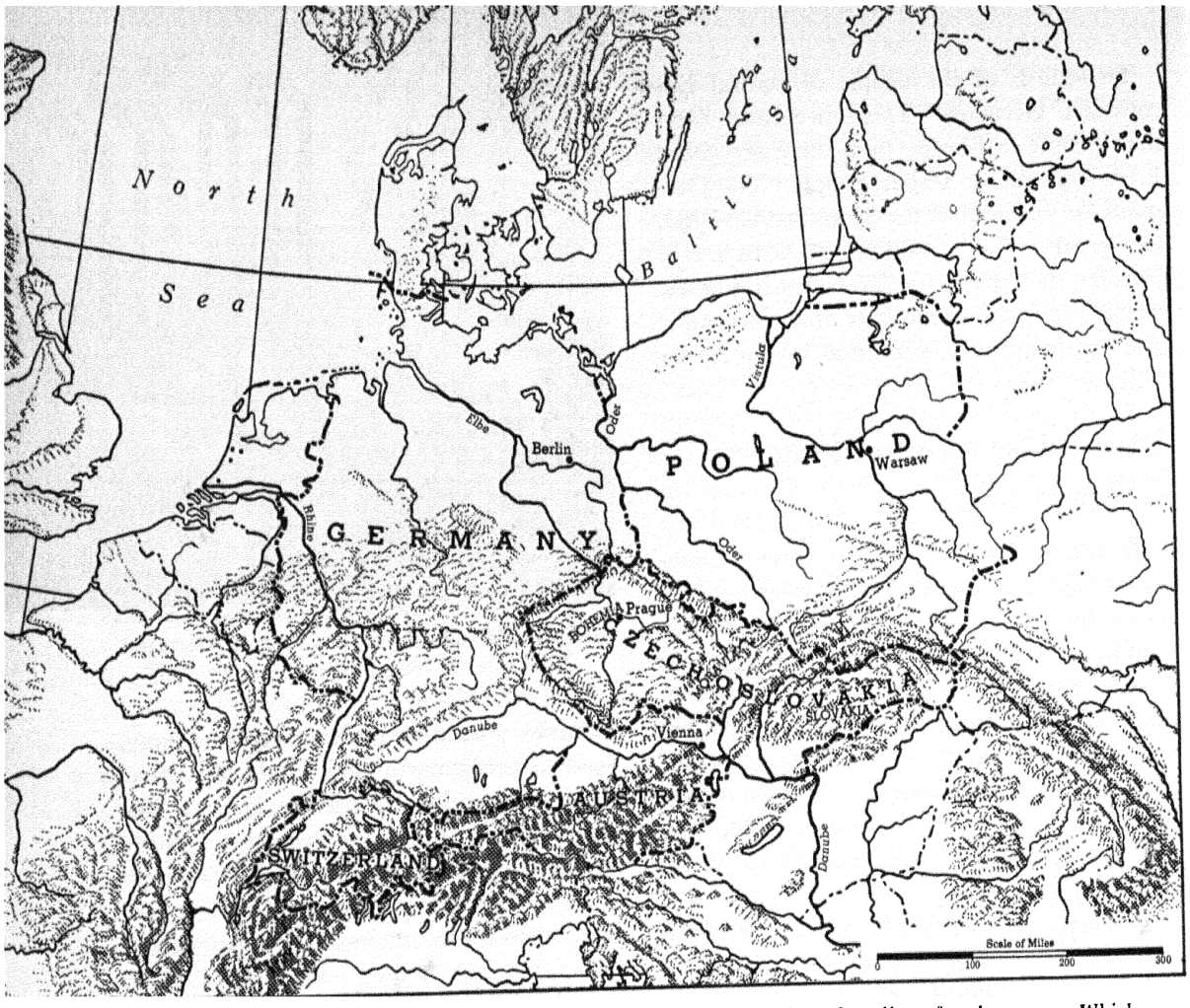
But Germany had more than a good location for trade—it had coal for the development of industry. Germany had the greatest coal resources in all Europe. In some years it led all the nations of the world in coal production, producing as much as one-fourth of all the coal mined in the world. There are a number of coal-producing areas in Germany, but the greatest one by far is the famous Ruhr Valley. In this one place more heavy industry is located than in any other place in Europe.

The Germans did not do much to build up their industry until near the end of the nineteenth century. Like Italy, Germany

The chief wheel.

Foreign Policy Association





The five countries of Central Europe. Follow with your eye the boundary line of each country. Which appears to be least protected by nature? Which appears best protected?

was not fully united until that time. Great Britain was already in the lead industrially, but Germany began catching up. Germans built industrial plants and studied ways to make the best use of their mineral resources. They manufactured fertilizer from minerals and put it on the poor soil of northern Germany to make it produce more. To improve trade, the Germans dug canals and waterways to connect with their natural waterway system and built railroads and highways, too. Just before World War II, fourteen of the countries of peninsular Europe carried on most of their trade with Germany. And a good part of the trade of the other countries of peninsular Europe was with Germany, also.

As the Germans developed their country at home, they began looking around for some possessions overseas. But like the Italians, they found out that most of the best land had already been taken. And also like the Italians, they acquired land in Africa.

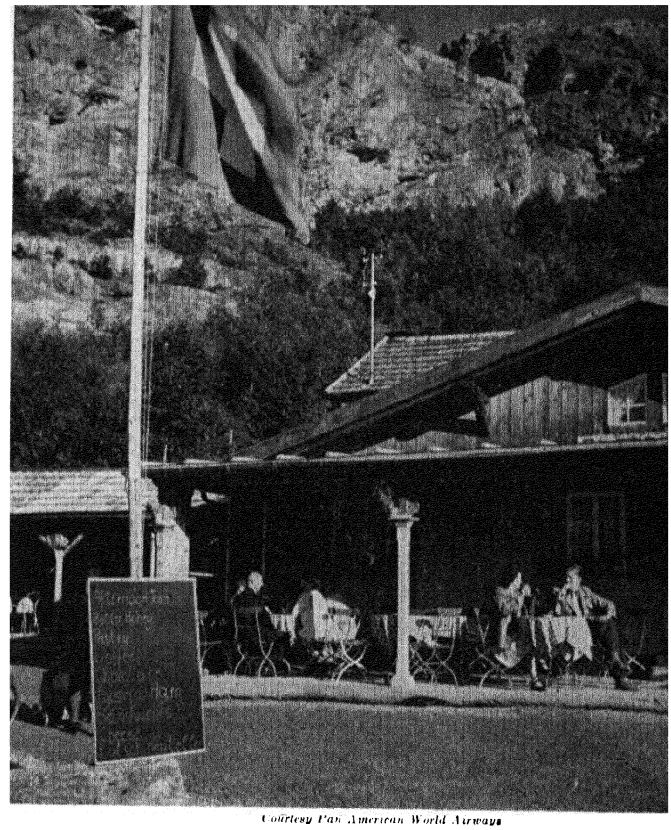
There was something about the growth of German power which alarmed other European countries. The Germans built up a strong army and developed great military as well as industrial strength. And twice, in World War I and in World War II, Germany declared war upon its neighbors. Germany found out then that its central location which was so good for trade had its disadvantages in war. In peacetime it

was fine to be surrounded by customers. But in war Germany could be closed in by a circle of enemies.

After being defeated in World War I, Germany lost its overseas possessions and part of its territory in Europe. As a result of World War II, Germany has acquired a great many unfriendly neighbors. It will undoubtedly lose more of its territory in Europe and some of its valuable mineral resources. And it is very likely that the other countries will try to weaken Germany so that it will never again be a source of danger.

Austria and Switzerland. Find Austria and Switzerland on the map on page 128. Then notice how the Alps Mountains stretch across both countries in a kind of east-west belt. But each country includes a lower area that is the real heart of the nation. Northeastern Austria is part of the Danube lowland. Vienna, the capital of Austria, is located there. The largest cities in Switzerland are located on a small plateau between the Alps and the Jura mountains. Physically, Austria and Switzerland are much alike, but they differ from each other in politics and economics. For centuries Switzerland has been an independent country with a democratic government. It has had a good government and a lot of economic prosperity. Austria, on the other hand, was a part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire until the end of World War I. It has never been able to establish a good government either as head of the empire or as a separate nation.

The Swiss have had a good government and have avoided wars. Other countries of central Europe have fought one war after another. In Switzerland, four different languages are spoken—German, French, Italian, and a little-known one called Romansh. No matter what language they speak, the Swiss get along with each other in a friendly way. They have proved that people who speak different languages can live near each other on friendly terms. Some say that the Swiss have shown what all the people of Europe might do if they could forget their differences long enough to work out their problems together.



Courtesy Pan American World Airways

Gold in the Swiss Alps—tourists' gold, that is.

Switzerland is only half as large as Austria, and a large part of it is too rough to be farmed. Still, the Swiss have made the most of what they have. Much of their land is not well suited to crops, but they have developed a prosperous dairy industry. And finding that their mountain scenery attracted visitors from other countries, they have built up a profitable tourist industry. Lacking coal, they have made great use of their hydroelectric power. Since they don't have great supplies of raw materials for use in heavy industries, they have gone in for industries requiring skilled workmanship, which they do have.

The case of Austria is different from that of Switzerland. In the Austro-Hungarian Empire were many different nationalities, religions, and languages. But the peoples living there never had a feeling of being united. And they fought in wars, while

the Swiss people avoided them. In World War I they fought on the same side as Germany and, of course, were defeated. The empire was broken up into three different countries—Austria, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary. In addition, large pieces of its land were given to Poland, Romania, and Yugoslavia, and a few smaller pieces were given to Italy.

The new country of Austria had a population of six million people—almost entirely German-speaking. The Austrians have somewhat better mineral resources and somewhat better land for farming than the Swiss have. But Austria has not become a strong, prosperous country. Just before World War II, when Germany began to seize land and to enlarge at its neighbors' expense, Austria was added to Germany.

In a number of ways the Austrian people are like the Germans. Long ago, Austria was settled by people who came from southern Germany. Austrians today not only speak German but also have the same religion as the people of southern Germany. Both peoples are Roman Catholics. In fact it has been said that the Austrians and the people of southern Germany are more nearly alike than are the people of northern and southern Germany.

But in spite of these things, the Austrians did not like being joined to Germany. Germany was being run by the dictator Adolf Hitler, and his military government took complete control of Austria. World War II followed, and Austria shared the defeat of Germany. After World War II Austria was jointly occupied by the Allies, but now occupation forces have been removed.

Where Slavs Live

Slavic people live in two countries in central Europe—Poland and Czechoslovakia. But though the people of the two countries are alike, the land is different. Find both Poland and Czechoslovakia on the map on page 128. There are several differences, most of which you can see with the help of the map.

Poland lies on a broad piece of the North European Plain. The only high land is a narrow strip of mountains or hills at the south. Czechoslovakia is largely hilly or mountainous, and it is less than half as large as Poland. Poland borders the Baltic Sea, but Czechoslovakia is a landlocked country like Switzerland and Austria. Poland is more uniform from one part of the country to another than Czechoslovakia. Czechoslovakia is made up of three very different regions—a basin in the west, lowlands in the center, and a mountainous mass in the east. Poland's shape is somewhat square; Czechoslovakia's is long and slim.

In spite of the physical differences between Poland and Czechoslovakia, the two countries are alike in many other ways. Both have mineral resources, including coal, that make industrial development possible. Both countries are somewhat densely settled, having nearly 300 persons per square mile. The United States, you may remember, has only 50 persons per square mile. The people of both Poland and Czechoslovakia speak Slavic languages. And they are both Roman Catholic in their religion, although there are a good many Protestants in Bohemia, the western part of Czechoslovakia.

There is another way in which the two countries are alike—both have had similar troubles. Bohemia, a part of modern Czechoslovakia, and Poland used to be nations of some importance and then were swallowed up by their neighbors, disappearing from the map of Europe for several hundred years. Both countries, you recall, were established again after World War I. Both suffered severely in World War II, and both are strongly influenced by the communistic Soviet Union today.

Poland. If you look again at Poland on the map, you can see how the North European Plain, on which it lies, stretches east across the Soviet Union. On the west the plain extends across Germany. You'll



Black Star

The Polish-Soviet border, where the flat North European Plain stretches as far as the eye can see.

notice that on neither side are there striking physical features to cut Poland off from its neighbors. There is no mountain or river to tell exactly where Poland ends and where Germany or the Soviet Union begins. So it is with languages, religions, and customs. There is no abrupt change in the habits of the people to help tell where the boundaries should be drawn.

The Poles had no way of keeping neighbors out of their country. German traders used to move eastward along the coast of the Baltic, setting up many German port cities and trading posts. They pushed into Poland, especially along the seacoast, and settled around and in the port of Danzig. Danzig lies on the bank of the Vistula River, near where the river runs into the Baltic Sea. Although most of the people of Danzig were German before World War II, the port was of great interest to the Poles. The Vistula River carried goods from the interior of Poland northward to the Baltic, and Danzig was Poland's most important outlet to the sea.

The Germans were not the only neighbors who pushed into Polish territory. The Russians did, too. Both the Germans and the Russians were too strong for the Polish people. It was they and the Austrians who overran Poland long ago and seized so much land that in 1795 there was no Poland left.

After World War I, when much of Poland's land was given back to it and Poland became an independent country again, Danzig was made a "free city." At the same time, people hoped that the Poles could still use Danzig as a port. The only land the Poles received along the Baltic seacoast was a narrow strip of land west of Danzig. This strip stretched from Poland to the sea like a little hallway, and it was called the Polish Corridor. It cut off the Germans living in Danzig and along the eastern Baltic coast from those who lived in Germany. Germany did not like this.

After the Germans began to seize their neighbors' lands just before World War II, they decided to break through the Polish Corridor. When the Poles objected, the Germans seized Poland. The attack on Poland aroused England and France, and World War II began.

When you know about the troubles of the Polish people in the past, you can better understand their problems today. Poland gained its independence again after World War II, but it is somewhat smaller than it was before the war started. It gained territory from Germany on the west but lost some to the Soviet Union on the east. Poland now includes Danzig and land along the Baltic seacoast.

The land that Poland received from Germany can support more people than the land it lost. The new land is better developed. It is better for farming than the land that was lost, and it has many factories and mines. Poland possesses coal and iron ore and has good prospects for industrial development. Since much of Poland lies on a plain, you would not expect it to have many sources of water power. Although Poland lacks some important minerals, the forests there furnish a plentiful supply of lumber.

Today the Poles face the future with no better prospects than they had before. They are still located between Germany and the Soviet Union. And the Soviet Union is so strong a neighbor that the Poles must conform to its wishes whether they want to or not. They are in a bad spot.

Czechoslovakia. Czechoslovakia is made up of three distinct physical regions. The westernmost part, Bohemia, is a productive agricultural area and is well developed industrially. It is a hilly region surrounded by a mountainous rim. For this reason, it is called the Bohemian Basin. The rim is lower toward the east, and it is fairly easy to pass from Bohemia to the next physical region, known as Moravia.

Moravia lies in the center of Czechoslovakia. It is lower than most of the Bohemian Basin and actually is a valley region. People who have looked for a route through the mountains of eastern central Europe have found it in Moravia. It was by going through Moravia that the Austrians were able to reach southern Poland and to seize and control part of that country for more than two hundred years. This route has been used from earliest times by European peoples for travel from the North European Plain to the Danube Valley.

Slovakia, the third region of Czechoslovakia, is a mountainous area at the western end of the Carpathian Mountains. The highest part of the mountains is in northern Slovakia. From there they slope gradually southward into a plain which is part of the plain of Hungary, south of Slovakia. Find the three regions on the map on page 128.

Although the people of Slovakia belong to the same Slavic group as do the Czechs of Bohemia, the two parts of the country are very different in many ways. Manufacturing is not so well developed in Slovakia as it is in Bohemia. Much of the land is forested, and farming is of a more primitive nature than in Bohemia. The Slovaks

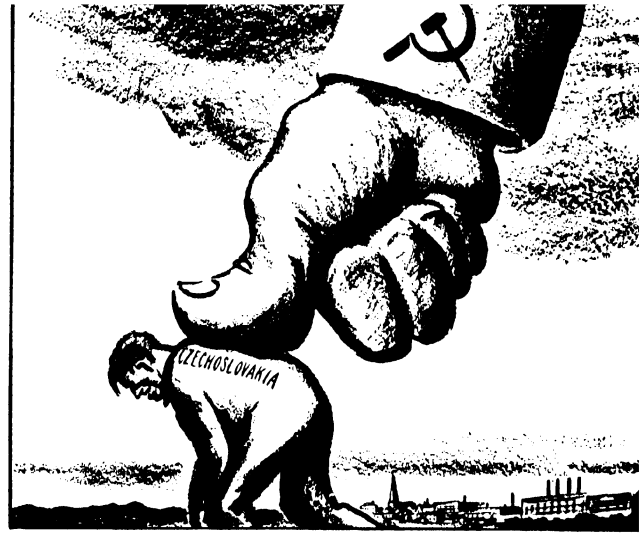
The map on page 90 shows the boundaries of today.



have not been entirely happy in their union with the Czechs. But on the other hand, they have had no desire to join the people of Hungary. Slovakia is another one of the numerous problem areas of Europe.

Czechoslovakia has resources similar to those of Poland. It possesses some coal and some iron ore, and industries are especially well developed in western Czechoslovakia. Like Poland, much of Czechoslovakia is forested, providing lumber and pulpwood.

Czechoslovakia, like Poland, had trouble with Germany because there were German settlers who left Germany to move eastward into Czechoslovakia. They settled in the mountainous edges of Bohemia where it borders Germany. As time went on, there were a great many people of German descent. When Hitler gained control in Germany, he began to say that the parts of Czechoslovakia in which German-speaking people lived should belong to Germany. He finally took the border areas away from Czechoslovakia. Later he seized the whole country, and Czechoslovakia did not become independent again until the end of World War II. Since the war Germany has ceased to be a serious threat, but the Soviet Union has forced the establishment of a communist government in Czechoslovakia, just as it has in Poland.



Fitzpatrick in the St. Louis Post-Dispatch

Under their thumb.

COUNTRIES OF SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE

Southeastern Europe is a land of jumbled mountains and productive plains. It is a region of mixed peoples who have conflicting interests. There are many nationalities, a number of political faiths, and several different religions. These many differences have stirred up trouble again and again.

Six nations—Yugoslavia, Greece, Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania, and Albania—with a small part of Turkey that extends across the straits from Asia Minor, make up southeastern Europe. All of the nations except Hungary touch the sea. But only Greece can be said to have much real interest in the sea. Four of the countries lie partly in the Danube Valley, where their best agricultural areas are to be found.

The countries of southeastern Europe have weak governments, which the people always seem to be plotting against. At the same time, the people of one country are likely to have violent hatred for the people of the next. Boundary disputes are common.

Not only do the people of southeastern Europe quarrel among themselves, but they are quarreled over by other countries, too. If you will look at the map on page 135, you can see why other countries have taken such an interest in southeastern Europe. First, find the six countries of southeastern Europe. Then notice how the peninsula juts out into the important Mediterranean region. Notice, too, that on the southeast side of the peninsula Asia and Europe almost meet. The narrow straits that here separate the two continents form one of the world's most strategic areas. Moreover, countries like Germany, Austria, and Hungary, with no outlets on the Mediterranean Sea, have long wanted to gain an outlet

through the countries of southeastern Europe. For many of the countries of Europe, southeastern Europe has been the shortest and most direct route to the trade and rich resources of near-by Asia.

Crossroads and Travel Routes

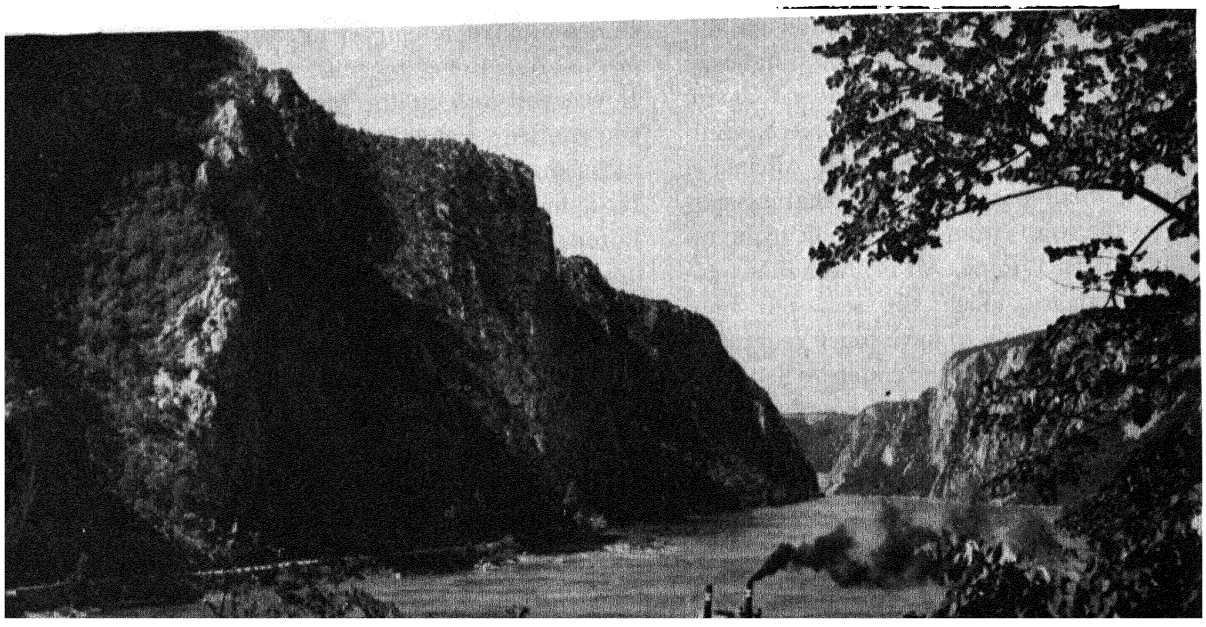
In the hill and mountain region of southeastern Europe the streams have cut a complicated design of valleys. Occasionally these valleys line up in such a way that two or more of them make a satisfactory route of travel from one part of southeastern Europe to another. Where important routes come together the larger towns are located. For this reason, the valley routes of southeastern Europe have played an important part in its politics.

The Danube River links together the countries along its course much as a string links beads. As you can see on the map on pages 386–387, it rises in southern Germany and flows southeastward to the Black Sea—more than seventeen hundred miles. The string made by the Danube has several knots along its course that prevent easy travel along the river. There is a stretch of rapids where the Danube leaves Germany to enter Austria. But the worst place of all along the Danube is where the Transylvanian Alps cut directly across the course of the river. There the valley narrows to form what people call the Iron Gate, though actually, of course, it is made of rock. It is a passageway so narrow and so steep that until recently no railroad or major highway passed through it—instead, only the roaring Danube itself.

Because of the interruptions to through travel on the Danube, and because the river does not lead directly to the Mediterranean, other routes have been more frequently used. These you can find on the map on page 135. One of the routes that was most used starts at Salonika on the Aegean Sea and follows the Vardar Valley until the headwaters of the Vardar River come near those of the Morava River near Skoplje. The Morava River can then be followed northward to the Hungarian Plain along the middle Danube. Even before recorded history this passageway was used by people moving between the Mediterranean area and the middle Danube. It has been a much more important route than the lower Danube Valley itself.

Geography made the Iron Gate a risk to Danube shipping until modern engineers went to work.

Courtesy Yugoslav Information Center



Near the point where the Vardar-Morava route reaches the Danube River, the city of Belgrade has grown up. Its location is doubly important because, as you can see on the map, another river, the Sava, enters the Danube at this point. The Sava is a long and important river that starts far to the west in mountains that are only a few miles from the Adriatic Sea. So Belgrade is very much at a meeting of the ways. Besides that, it is located at the southern edge of the Hungarian Plain, which is one of the best agricultural areas of peninsular Europe.

A second crossroads town in southeastern Europe that became the capital of a country is Sofia. Belgrade lies where valleys meet, but Sofia lies not where they meet but where they separate. Sofia, the capital of Bulgaria, is situated in a small upland basin from which routes lead out in four different directions. One route follows the river that drains the basin and runs northeastward to the lower Danube Valley. A second route leads to the northwest and joins the Morava River route, and a third follows another valley southward to the Mediterranean. The fourth route follows the Mariça River southeastward toward Istanbul and toward the plains north of the Sea of Marmara. Both Belgrade and Sofia are outstanding examples of crossroads towns.



Southeastern Europe. The arrows point to trade and travel routes.

New Nations from Old Empires

The nations of southeastern Europe are not old, as are some of the nations of western Europe. All six of them were for years a part of one or the other of two powerful empires. You read about one of the empires on page 128— the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The other empire was one built up by the Turks. The Turks were an Asiatic people who adopted the Mohammedan religion and then overran most of southwestern Asia and northern Africa. At about the same time that the Mohammedan Moors were being driven out of southwestern Europe, the Mohammedan Turks were moving in and taking possession of southeastern Europe.

The Turks pushed up the Danube River as far as Vienna, almost reaching central Europe. As time went on, the Austrians became strong enough to push the Turks back. They freed Hungary from the Turks, then took possession of it themselves. Gradually

the other parts of southeastern Europe broke away from the Turks; and Greece, Romania, Albania, and Bulgaria all won their independence. The land which the Turks held in southeastern Europe kept dwindling away until today, as you can see on the map on page 90, there is only a small piece left.

When the Austro-Hungarian Empire broke up after World War I, Hungary was made a separate country and so was Yugoslavia. A people called the Magyars invaded the plain of Hungary many centuries ago. The Magyars speak a language different from that of their Slavic neighbors—one more like that of the Finns. In Yugoslavia nearly all of the people are Slavs. The Slavs of Yugoslavia have not worked well together. Instead, the people in different sections of Yugoslavia have been rivals. This is partly because the people of Yugoslavia, like many of their neighbors, were so long controlled by outsiders. For that reason, the Yugoslavs have had very little experience in working together on their own affairs and problems.

Neighbors Move In

Even after all six of the countries of southeastern Europe became independent, they still were not free of outside influence and interference. Before World War II Italy, their neighbor on the west, kept pushing into southeastern Europe, taking over Albania completely. And the Soviet Union, where so many Slavic people live, strongly influenced the affairs of the Slavic countries of southeastern Europe, especially Bulgaria. Germany bought a large part of the goods exported by southeastern Europe and supplied most of the goods southeastern Europe imported. During World War II Germany took complete control of the countries of southeastern Europe, taking from them great supplies of food and mineral raw materials.

Since World War II neither Germany nor Italy has been strong enough to take any part in the affairs of southeastern Europe. But the Soviet Union has taken their place. Shortly after World War II communistic leaders and their followers were in power in most of the countries in southeast Europe.

CONCERNING THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA

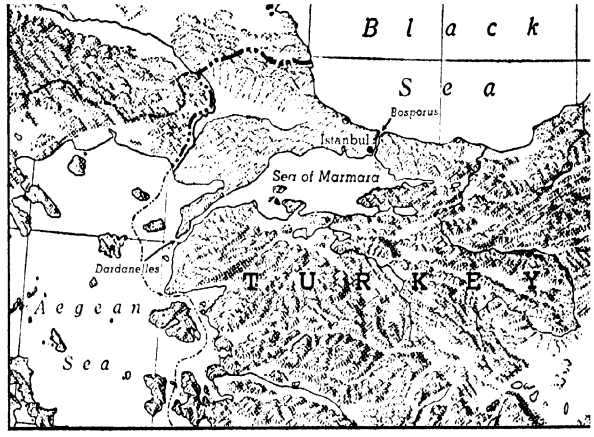
The Mediterranean Sea is a great landlocked body of water separating Europe from Africa. Its name means "in the middle of land," and that is where it is. Its only natural opening to the oceans of the world is through a strait at the western end so narrow that a Spaniard can easily see the African shore less than ten miles away. More than two thousand miles to the east of the Strait of Gibraltar, at the other end of the Mediterranean Sea, is a second passage even more narrow that leads to the Black Sea and separates European Turkey from Asiatic Turkey. This passage is not just one strait. It is really a strait, then a sea, then another strait—the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmara, and the Bosporus. It leads to another landlocked body of water—the Black Sea—which takes a sailor well into the heart of the continent of Eurasia. The combined water area of the two seas is just about the same as the area of peninsular Europe. Both seas have been important in world affairs. In fact people have sometimes wondered whether the Mediterranean Sea has not been about as important in world affairs as peninsular Europe.

When the Sea Was a Center of Things

If men in ancient times had never learned to navigate ships, the Mediterranean Sea would have kept the peoples of Europe and Africa separated. There would have been no way for them to communicate with each

other. And the only way the peoples of Europe and Asia could have communicated with each other would have been by routes north of the Black Sea.

But you know how, instead, the peoples living in or near the Mediterranean ventured out across it. And you also know how in this way people spread the civilizations of the Nile Valley and Mesopotamia along the shores of the Mediterranean until Europe became civilized, too. People passed back and forth on the Mediterranean from Asia Minor to Greece and all along the African shore. Traveling on the sea was much easier than traveling in the deserts of northern Africa. And when city-states growing up around the Mediterranean became rivals, people crossed the water to fight each other, and ships attacked each other on the sea. Then Rome outdid the other city-states and added land to its empire until the whole shore line of the Mediterranean was included. For several hundred years Rome kept the whole Mediterranean area united, and the civilization of the western world centered there. Western civilization developed to its highest degree in western



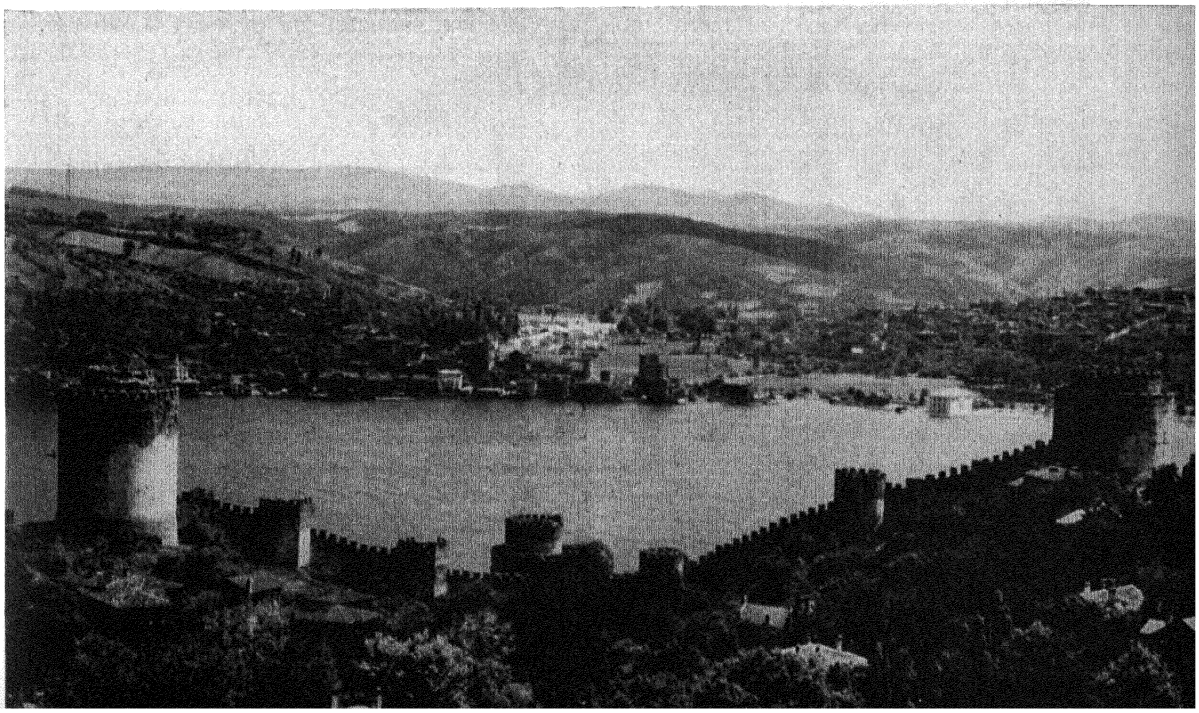
The Straits.

Europe. But it was born in the valleys of the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates rivers, and it grew up in the region surrounding the Mediterranean Sea.

After the Roman Empire broke up, the Mediterranean area never was united again. The Moslems started moving west and took possession of northern Africa. Christianity spread widely over Europe, and the Mediterranean Sea lay like a moat between the Christians and the Moslems. The people of each religious group claimed to have the

The Bosporus from the Istanbul side. What here indicates the strategic nature of the strait?

Courtesy Turkish Information Office



only true faith. And at both ends of the Mediterranean they fought each other. Christians drove the Moors out of Spain, and crusaders battled the Mohammedan Turks for the Holy Land.

The Crusades, as you remember, encouraged trade to grow between Europe and the East. As western Europeans became more and more interested in trade, the Mediterranean again helped to link Europe and Asia, just as it had done in ancient times. The easiest way for traders to carry goods from Asia Minor to western Europe was, of course, to take them across the Mediterranean Sea.

But after Europeans discovered ocean routes to the East, they were less interested in taking goods across the Mediterranean Sea. Ports along the Mediterranean lost their important trade as ports on the Atlantic picked it up. At the eastern end of the Mediterranean the Turks kept growing stronger. They pushed across Asia Minor and far up into southeastern Europe, as you already know. They closed the old trade routes to the East, but it didn't really matter, anyway. Europeans wanted, and found, better routes.

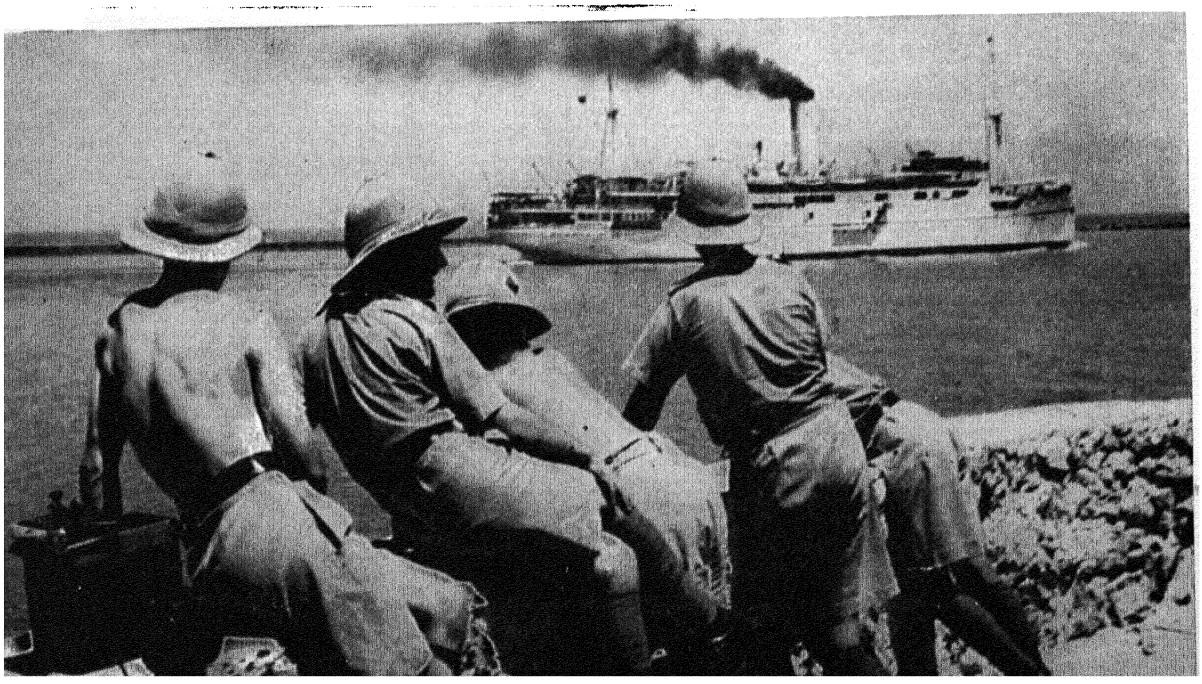
The Mediterranean Sea Today

The Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama reached India by a new ocean route around Africa in 1498. European traders began looking for business not in and around the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, but in ports around the world. And for nearly four hundred years after Da Gama's discovery, the Mediterranean Sea seemed to have lost its special and important place in the affairs of Europeans. Europeans were going places—all over the world—and the Mediterranean was a dead-end sea.

Then in 1869 the Suez Canal, which you read about on pages 95–97, was finished. The Mediterranean wasn't a dead-end sea any longer—ships could go on through—to India, to China, to Australia, or wherever they pleased. Right away the countries of western Europe took a new interest in the Mediterranean, in its islands, and in all of the lands that bordered it. Especially the British pricked up their ears, because they had important possessions in the East. And as the Turks began to lose their hold on land at the eastern end of the Mediterranean, Europeans moved in. They began to

Egypt is independent, but during World War II British soldiers helped to guard the Suez Canal.

From European Picture Service



occupy parts of that area, which, as they saw, had suddenly become strategic to them. France first acquired Tunisia and Algeria in northwestern Africa, and later moved east into Syria and Lebanon. Great Britain controlled Egypt and Cyprus, and later the countries then called Palestine and Transjordan (now Israel and Jordan). Italy seized Libya. By the end of World War I, European nations controlled all the lands bordering the sea except Turkey. Asia Minor and the part of Turkey in Europe across the straits are now all that is left of the formerly great Empire.

But the European powers did not keep their control of the Mediterranean shores. Egypt claimed its independence; Syria and Lebanon claimed theirs. Jordan, Palestine, Libya, Tunisia, and Morocco all followed suit. Only a few dependent areas remain.

The people of the Mediterranean area all live in much the same climate. They also have much the same agriculture. But they differ in their ideas, and they differ in their politics. Only once in its whole history has this area been united under one government. Today it looks as if the number of small, independent countries along the Mediterranean is going to increase.

Recently the Mediterranean area has become even more important in world affairs. The Soviet Union has been making a strong attempt to reach and control the eastern Mediterranean. Two communist states, Yugoslavia and Albania, lie on the Adriatic Sea, which leads to the eastern Mediterranean. The Soviet Union would like to control the entrance to the Black Sea. However,



De Con from Ewing Galloway

France no longer controls Syria, but its language is seen in the streets of Damascus.

the western powers, including the United States, have been making a united effort to prevent Russian expansion into this area.

Strategically, the Mediterranean is extremely important today. It is a way for maritime powers of western Europe to reach and protect southern Europe. It is also a way for them to reach the rich oil resources of the Middle East. And as long as the entrance to the Black Sea is held by Turkey, a power now friendly to western Europe, a way is open to reach the southern Soviet Union if that becomes necessary. Most of the independent Mediterranean countries favor the democratic countries of western Europe rather than communist Russia. The United States, in particular, is very anxious to see that they continue to favor those countries.

THE LANDS WE CALL THE MOSLEM WORLD

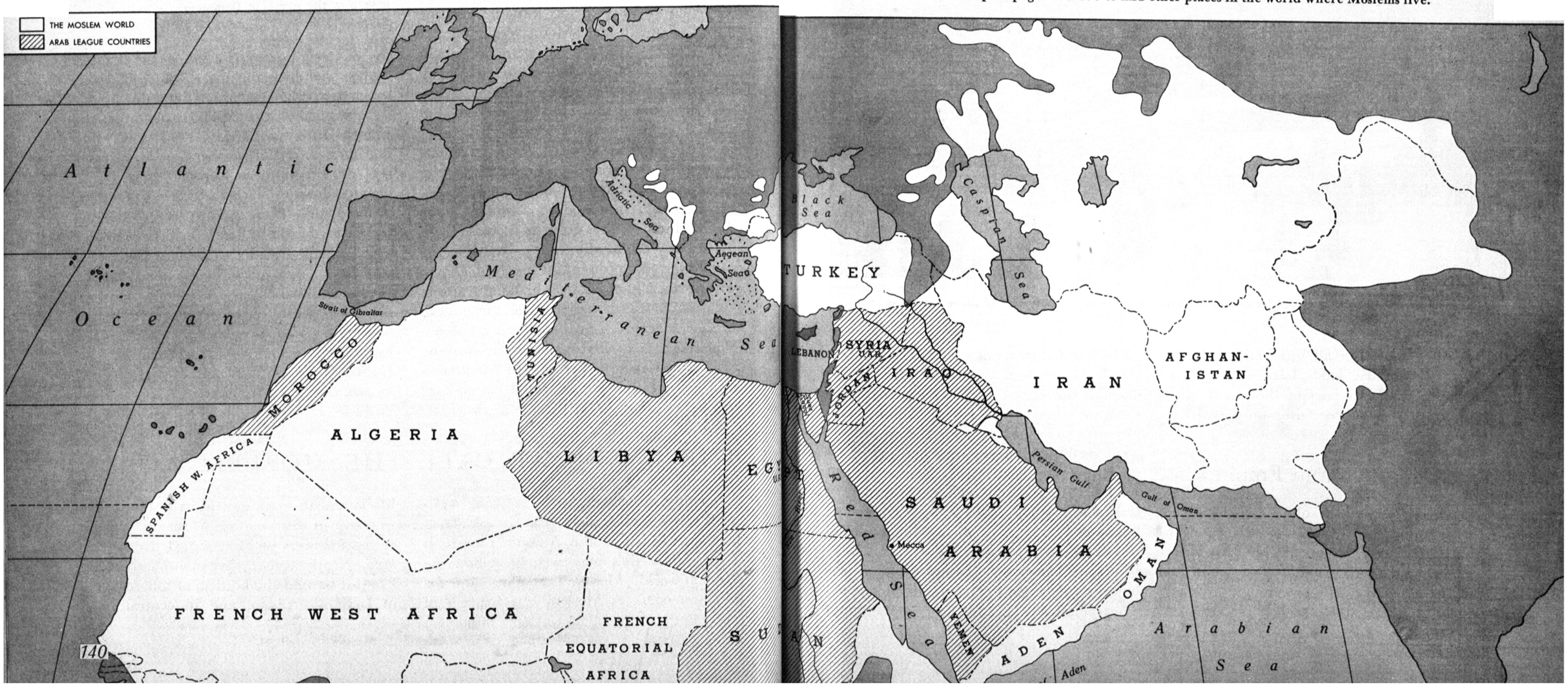
Starting in central Asia, stretching westward across southwestern Asia and on across northern Africa to the Atlantic Ocean, is a huge area that may well be called the Moslem world. Moslem is another name for Mohammedan. A Moslem is a believer of Mohammed's teachings. Most of the people who live in this area are Moslems. Not all of the followers of Mohammed live in this area. Nearly as many live elsewhere. Many live just beyond the borders of this region—in India, in China, and in central Asia.

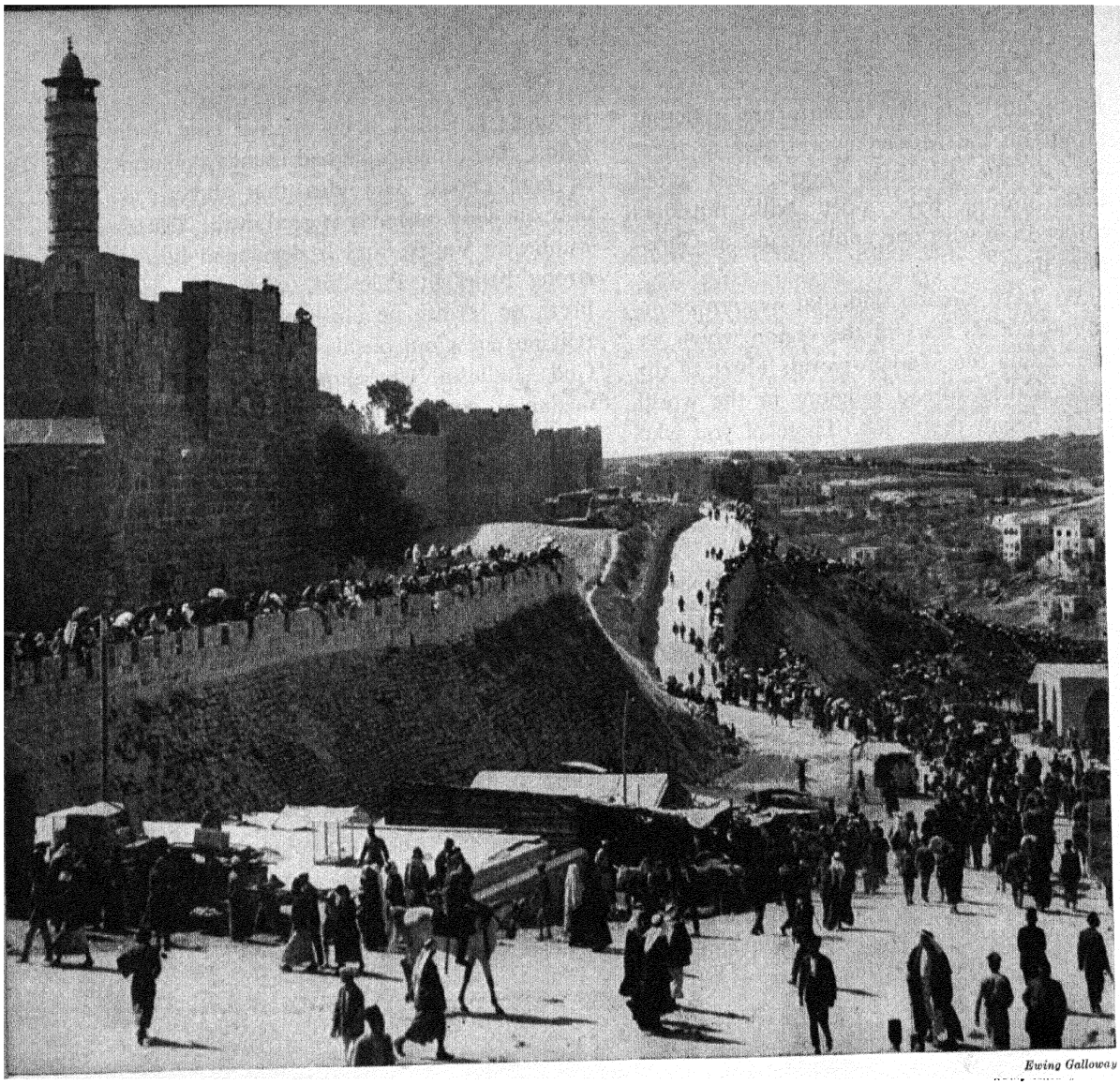
Many others live far off—in the East Indies, in the Philippines, and on the east coast of Africa. A few are living in southeastern Europe, reminders that once Mohammedan Turks occupied that area, too. Look at the map of the Moslem world at the bottom of this page and the page opposite.

The Moslem world is for the most part an area of desert and steppe. It is as large as the Soviet Union, and there are about as many people living there as in the United States. But they are not spread out evenly over the region. In some sections, such as the delta and flood plain of the Nile, a great many people live, whereas in the desert wastelands there is often no one at all. Although most of the people in this region are followers of Mohammed, they belong to a number of different races and they speak many different languages. There are Moslems who belong to the Caucasoid race, as most Europeans do. There are Negro Moslems. And there are Mongolian Moslems. But having the same religion has not held the people of this area together any better than believing in Christianity has held Europeans together. There are different groups in the Moslem world, just as there are in the Christian world, and often these groups have sided with outsiders rather than with one another, just as Christians have.

We have already said that western civilization got its start in the region which we are calling the Moslem world. Three of the most widely spread religions in the world today began there, too. Those of you who remember Bible stories will recall that centuries before Christ was born Hebrew prophets taught a belief in just one God. Before that time people had usually believed in many gods. The idea that there was only one God probably started in the Tigris-Euphrates Valley, and it developed into a strong belief in Palestine, where the Hebrew, or Jewish, people lived. Three great religions grew out of this early belief in one God—Judaism, Christianity, and Mohammedanism or Islam. As we have seen, Christianity spread into Europe by way of Rome and Constantinople. Islam became the leading religion in the region we are

Use the maps on pages 382–405 to identify the parts of the Moslem world shown here which are not part of the western coastlands. Use the map on pages 378–379 to find other places in the world where Moslems live.





Ewing Galloway

At Easter the streets and walls of Jerusalem fill with pilgrims to the holy city of three religions.

discussing now. But all three faiths- Judaism, Christianity, and Islam—had their beginnings in that part of the world, and the people of all three faiths think of Jerusalem as a holy city.

A Religion and an Empire

Judaism is a much older religion than Christianity, and Islam is much younger than Christianity. About six hundred years after Christ lived, Mohammed began to preach in Arabia. His new religion spread widely, as more and more people adopted his beliefs and then passed them on to other people. Islam moved eastward toward India and the East Indies. It moved northeastward into Russian Turkestan and Chinese Turkestan in central Asia. Westward its followers conquered and converted people across northern Africa and then southward across the Sahara toward central Africa. The Moors who conquered Spain were a part of these Mohammedan peoples from northern Africa. The Moslems spread their religion and acquired new land—so much land that it made an empire. The capital city for this large, loosely knit

Mohammedan Empire was Baghdad, located in the Tigris-Euphrates Valley.

Some time later, the Turks of central Asia, who had been converted to Mohammedanism, swept into Asia Minor and into southeastern Europe. They took Constantinople, which they renamed Istanbul, and the possession of this city and the land about it gave them control of the whole eastern end of the Mediterranean. The Turks moved across northern Africa, too. Their empire, the Ottoman Empire, at one time extended from the Persian Gulf to Poland and from the Caspian Sea to Algeria, in Africa. Their capital city was Istanbul, at the strategic water passage between the Mediterranean and Black seas. And the heart of their empire was in Turkey, which has a climate more humid than is the case in most other parts of western Asia and North Africa.

As you have already read, the Ottoman Empire gradually grew smaller as countries in southeastern Europe became independent and as European countries took Turkish land. Then in World War I the Turks sided with Germany, and because the German side was the losing side the Turks lost still more land. The capital city was changed from Istanbul to Ankara, which is more centrally located in Turkey.

Today European powers do not control as much of the Moslem world as they once did. Egypt, Libya, the Sudan, Morocco, and Tunisia are now independent nations in North Africa, and Algerians have fought for their independence unsuccessfully at great cost in life and money, both to themselves and to the French. There has been strong anti-European or anti-Western feeling among the Arab populations of some of these countries.

The other large independent areas of the Moslem world are in southwestern Asia. The largest are Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and Turkey. None of the independent countries are very strong, and in every case the people depend considerably upon European and American power and money.

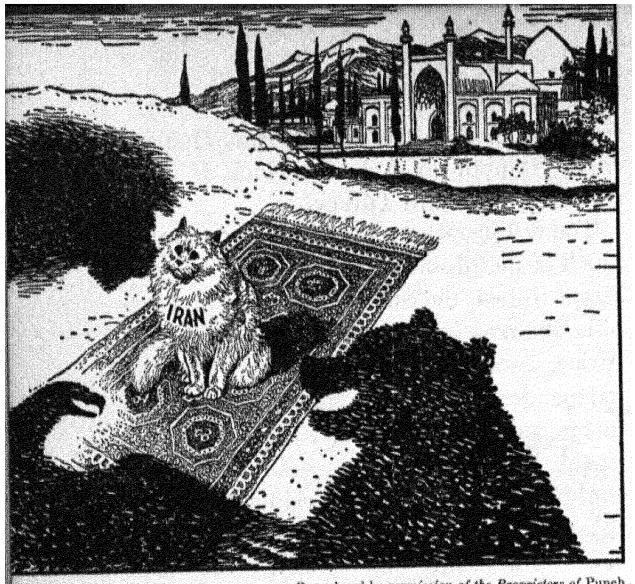
The Outlook Today

What are the chances that the countries of the Moslem world will develop into nations strong enough to get along without outside aid and interference? Actually, the resources of the Moslem world are not great.

Farmers of Saudi Arabia learn American ways of getting the most from poor farm land.

Courtesy Arabian American Oil Company





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Pussy has the corner—on oil. Explain the symbols.

Good agricultural land is extremely scarce. There is very little industrial development, and there is very little coal for use in developing industries.

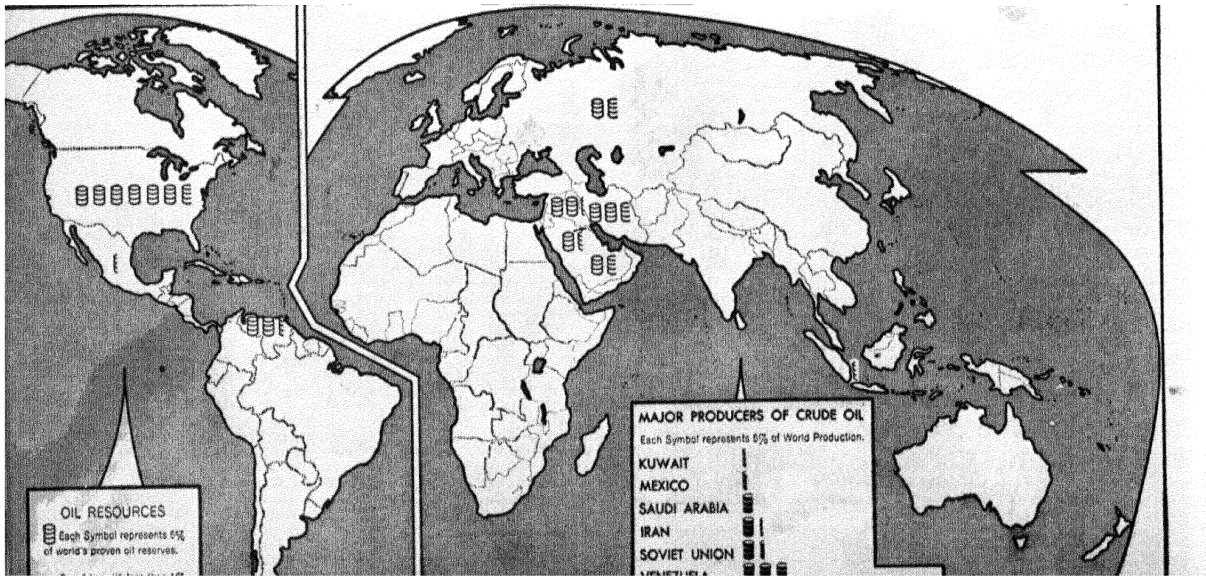
There is one extremely valuable mineral resource in the Moslem world—oil. But oil is exactly the kind of resource that can be handled in a way to do little good for the people who have it. If the countries that own the oil in the first place have no way to produce it and no way to use it, they must get outsiders to do it for them. There are many outsiders ready and anxious to do this favor for the oil countries of the Middle East. The difficulty is to make sure the outsiders pay enough for the privilege.

Another difficulty is the danger that the outside countries may quarrel over who is to have the privilege of producing the oil. The country with the oil may find itself in a difficult position if powerful countries quarrel over its oil. American and British oil companies have leased vast oil territories in Iran, Iraq, and Saudi Arabia. But the Soviet Union lies near at hand and would like to have some of the oil, too.

It has been shown repeatedly in the past that outright political control often follows where there is much economic control. So the oil countries of the Moslem world have to watch carefully or they may lose their independence. They are not particularly afraid of the British, as they once might have been, but they are very much afraid of the Soviet Union.

The eastern Moslem countries must see to it that their rich petroleum resources are not taken from them without a just and fair return. For when their oil supplies are gone, these countries will be forced to fall back on other, more permanent sources of

Where the oil is. Compare the production of each major producer with its resources.



income. They should receive fair prices for their oil, and the money received should be wisely invested to improve irrigation, to build railroads, and to construct better highways. But there is a very real danger that, instead, the money will be wasted and that these countries will be left with nothing to show for all the oil they once had. The map on page 144 shows the location of their present oil resources.

Perhaps one good way for the people of the Moslem world to develop strong nations is to learn to work together in matters that concern all of them. In 1944 Iraq, Egypt, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Transjordan, and Yemen formed a union called the Arab League. It was named that because most of the people living in those countries are Arabs. So far, the League does not include Turkey or Iran, partly because the people of these two independent countries do not use the Arabic language. But Libya, the Sudan, Morocco, and Tunisia have become members of the Arab League.

In many Moslem areas still held by European powers, the people are making moves to get their independence. This is partly because the European powers have been weak since World War II, and the people in the Moslem areas know it. It is also partly due to a growing feeling on the part of the people of the Moslem world that they must either take a stand for themselves or be swallowed up piecemeal by the rest of the world. Some Europeans are alarmed at the prospects of what could be done if the 150,000,000 people who live in the Moslem world were united. And there are nearly 100,000,000 more Moslems who live outside the Moslem world who might join and work together with those who live inside it.

Egypt: occupying a key position. Egypt is one Moslem country that has been independent for more than thirty years. But still Egypt is far from satisfied, for the fertile Nile Valley swarms with people who need new land. This fact explains much about



© Screen Traveler from Gendreau

English and Arabic show up in a Cairo street sign.

Egyptian affairs. If you look at Egypt on the map on page 90, you will notice that south of it is an area which is almost three times as large as Egypt itself. This area was called the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan up until 1955 because the area was held jointly by Egypt and the United Kingdom. Egypt did and still does want to annex the area, but it has become, instead, a free nation.

The Egyptians would like to possess the Sudan for two reasons. One is that the Nile River runs through it, and they would like to have greater control of that important river. The second reason is that the Sudan is not very densely settled. It would provide a good living place for some of the crowded millions who now are living in Egypt. But the Sudanese do not want to be a part of Egypt. They want to have a country of their own. However, many different kinds of people live in the Sudan, and they have many different points of view. It may be hard for such a country to hold together, especially when a strong, aggressive neighbor wants to expand.

Egypt has a very strategic position. It controls the area through which the Suez Canal was cut. When the canal was built, Egypt agreed to lease, or rent, the land for ninety-nine years. The lease should expire on November 17, 1968. But as you know, Egypt has already seized the canal, and if the Egyptians continue to hold it they will control one of the world's most active and important trade routes.

Egypt is likewise strategically located on the airways of the eastern part of the Moslem world. In Egypt the routes to the Orient cross the busiest route to South Africa. One of the world's greatest air bases lies just west of Cairo and is used by the British in flying either to Malaya or to South Africa. It is valuable also to the French in flying to Indochina and to Madagascar, and it is valuable to the Dutch in flying to their few remaining possessions in Southeast Asia.

Israel's flag goes up at United Nations headquarters.



Palestine: hot spot of the Middle East. Palestine has been one of the troublesome areas in the Middle East. Three thousand years ago Palestine was the homeland of the Jews. Since it was located near the leading route between the valley of the Nile and the valley of the Tigris-Euphrates, it was repeatedly attacked and subdued by stronger nations. There had been no independent Jewish state for twenty or thirty centuries until 1948. But there has been a Jewish religion, and that religion tells about the time in the past when there was a Jewish state. So the Jews wherever they were living thought longingly of the time when Palestine was their homeland.

Since the beginning of the present century, the Jews have been working to have Palestine declared a refuge for Jews. Particularly, they wanted a place for those Jews to go who were being mistreated in the countries where they were living. The plan to make Palestine a home for the Jews is called the Zionist movement, because Palestine was called the land of Zion. People who believe in the plan and who work for it are called Zionists. Great Britain, which held Palestine as a mandate after World War I, agreed to this plan. But the British did say that they thought the rights of the Arabs in Palestine should be considered as well as the rights of the Jews. Almost as soon as the arrangement was made, trouble arose. The Arabs had been living in Palestine for more than a thousand years. The sudden pouring of half a million Jews into this area, in addition to those who already lived there, created terrific tension between the Arabs and the Jews.

The whole matter has been made worse since World War II, for there are thousands of Jews in Europe who would like to find new homes. The Jews of Europe were horribly mistreated by the fascistic governments during and before World War II. These Jews have a good reason to want to get out of Europe and to find new homes. As more and more Jews came to Palestine,

though, and as more and more wanted to come, the Arabs became alarmed. Not only were the Jews numerous, but they had more money and education than the Arabs and they quickly took the lead in many ways.

The whole problem was finally laid before the United Nations, and it was decided to divide Palestine into two states, an Arab state and a Jewish state. The Jewish state has been named the Republic of Israel. At last, in 1948, there was established a true Jewish state in the homeland of the Jews.

The trouble was not ended, however, when Israel was formed, for Israel now has the very serious problem of getting along with unfriendly Arab neighbors. And it has other problems, too. Israel is a small area, about the size of the state of Massachusetts, and it has a population of nearly two million. Furthermore, there are a million or so more Jews waiting to go to Israel. How can so many people be supported in a semi-arid land, where the basic materials for industrial development are lacking?

Even the United States has become involved in the problems of Palestine. In the first place, there are many Jewish people living in the United States. Some of them are actively interested in the Zionist movement. Large amounts of American money have been invested in Israel, and the Zionists are extremely anxious that the United States back up the Jews in their struggle with the Arabs. But the United States values also the good will of the Arab states. This is partly because of the tremendous oil resources in the Middle East and partly because these states form a block of power at present unfriendly to the Soviet Union. The United States wants at all costs to keep the Soviet Union out of the Middle East and the Mediterranean.

AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

South of the Sahara Desert, Africa is primarily the home of the Negro. Few Negroes live in the Sahara Desert, for they have been pushed southward by the Moslem groups from the north. The Negroes of central and southern Africa do not control their own land. There are only a few areas in the part of Africa that lies south of the Sahara where the native peoples rule. Among these are Liberia, Ethiopia, and Ghana. Most of this part of Africa is under the control of Europeans.

Central and southern Africa, separated from the rest of the world by desert and ocean, existed for centuries almost without contact with the main centers of civilization. A few ideas filtered through the Sahara and up the Nile River to central Africa, but they made little lasting impression upon the people. Negroes were caught and sold into slavery from the earliest times, but very few of them ever returned to their homes to relate what they had seen. On the whole, Africa, except its northern fringe, was unknown to Europeans until after the voyages of discovery toward the end of the fifteenth century. Its interior remained almost unknown until well along in the nineteenth century.

When outsiders did come, they found little political development in central and southern Africa. In most places the people were organized into small, weak tribes. When Europeans tried to conquer Africa, they discovered that these weak tribes could be both an aid and a stumbling block. On the one hand, the small separate tribes were usually easily overcome; but on the other hand, overcoming them was a never-ending job. There were no strong key positions to seize—positions giving the Europeans control of large areas. The situation was very different from the one the Spaniards found in Mexico and Peru, where a few major conquests gave them control over large areas of land.

Climate and Politics

Whether the people of Africa had formed small weak tribes, or, in some cases, powerful ones, depended partly on the place where they lived. Differences in climate make three different kinds of living places in central and southern Africa—the desert, the tropical forest, and the grasslands.

On the map on page 36 you can see that much of Africa is desert. The desert areas could not furnish a living for many persons, so the population there was small, as it is today. The few people who lived there were scattered about in widely separated oases. No single oasis was large enough to become a powerful country or state, and it was almost impossible to join a number of oases together. There was too much desert land lying in between.

Although the Sahara is by far the largest desert area in Africa, the Kalahari Desert in southern Africa is an even poorer place to live in. There are no important oases there. The only inhabitants of the Kalahari Desert were a very poor and primitive people who had been pushed out of better areas by stronger tribes. These people were divided into extremely small tribal groups.

The part of Africa covered by tropical forest is shown on the map on pages 380–381. The people living in the tropical forest were divided into small tribes, too. Heavy vegetation made it hard for invaders to enter such areas, and if anybody did come to attack, the people living there could easily find places to hide. The people living in the tropical-forest regions did not form large, powerful groups. They did not organize themselves any more than the people of the deserts did.

Lying between the desert and the tropical forest is an area that is more useful than either of them. It is the "small bush" country, a land that is neither so dry that vegetation is scant nor so wet that a heavy forest grows. It is a land so full of game that the people there are hunters as well as herders and farmers. In the "small bush," trees grow along stream courses or scattered in clumps here or there, but there is no continuous forest. Between the trees grow grasses on which herds of animals graze. Many of them are wild animals, but some are cattle belonging to the native owners, who count their wealth in livestock.

It was in the "small bush" that the people developed native states and organized into the strongest groups. Some of these groups were examples of what the Negroes could accomplish in the way of powerful fighting organizations. They overwhelmed both the first British and the first Dutch forces that invaded their homes, but they were finally overcome because they didn't have firearms and the European people did.

Similar strong fighting groups developed in the Sudan, the grassland region south of the Sahara. It was these groups of Africans that helped to build up the slave trade. They raided Negro villages in the Sudan or in the edges of the forest. Then they sold the captives either to the Arabs to the north or to the Europeans who anchored their ships off the African coast. Millions of Negroes were taken from their homes to be sold into slavery. This drain on the population of Africa went on for years, and it held back Africa's development.

Early Exploration and Coastal Trade

When Europeans first began to explore the African coast, they found it to be extremely inhospitable. They had to pass nearly two thousand miles of waterless desert coast before reaching Cape Verde, meaning "green cape." The Portuguese gave it that name because it was green with vegetation. After that the coast changes rapidly to a forest-fringed stretch with very few good harbors. This forest-fringed coast extends for another two thousand miles. Some of the Europeans who stopped along

this coast caught strange diseases and died. Going into the interior of Africa was an extremely risky business. The Portuguese, who were the first Europeans to explore the coast of Africa, soon changed their regular routes of travel so as to avoid the mainland of Africa. Their ships stopped at the Madeira Islands and at the Cape Verde Islands, where sailors found healthier conditions, and then struck out boldly for the Cape of Good Hope, more than four thousand miles away.

Africa, according to the agreement made between Spain and Portugal, was in the part of the world belonging to the Portuguese. The Portuguese seized the small Moslem states along the east coast of Africa. They explored the middle and lower Zambezi Valley in southern Africa, made at least one crossing of the continent from Angola to Mozambique, and made an attempt to Christianize the Congo Valley. After this brave start, Portugal fell into difficult times, and Portuguese exploring and trade suffered. As we have seen, the Dutch took over much of the Portuguese East Indies trade and many of the Portuguese way stations as well. But the Dutch spent very little time and money in exploration or in attempts to Christianize the African people.

During the last half of the sixteenth century, nearly every maritime power of Europe sent ships to the Guinea coast of

Africa south of the Sahara.



Africa. There were British ships, Spanish ships, and Dutch ships. And there were ships from France, Sweden, and Denmark. The attractions that drew all these ships like flies to the Guinea coast were gold, ivory, and pepper. When plantations were established in the New World, slaves were added to the list of attractions, and the ships gathered even more thickly than before.

At first the ships anchored offshore, but later the traders picked the favorable coastal spots, where they built trading posts. The whole Guinea coast from Senegal to Nigeria was dotted with the forts and factories of rival powers. (Here the word factory does not mean a place where manufacturing is carried on. It is another name for a trading post.) Even today the Guinea coast is a patchwork of small political units.

Not many of the countries that carried on African trade held land permanently in Africa. Portugal and Spain kept only scattered patches. Today nothing is left of the Netherlands' previous holdings, but a million or more people of Dutch descent still live in the Union of South Africa. Great Britain and France were left at the middle of the nineteenth century as the chief powers in Africa, and to them the greater part of the continent belongs to this day.

How One Modern City Got Its Start

While the Dutch were still interested in Africa, they started a settlement there which has become a large modern city. By the time ships going to the East reached the southern coast of Africa, the sailors badly needed fresh supplies of food and water. So near the Cape of Good Hope the Dutch set up a place where the ships could stop for help. In 1652 they sent one hundred men there to produce meat and vegetables for Dutch sailors. The climate near the Cape was similar to that of the Mediterranean region, and many of the same crops could be grown in both places. The settlement the Dutch made was named Cape Town.

As more Dutch colonists went to Cape Town to live, they began to push farther inland and also eastward along the coast. Toward the end of the seventeenth century several hundred Protestant French joined the Dutch at Cape Town. These people, the Huguenots, were more familiar with Mediterranean agriculture than were the Dutch. It is to these people that South Africa owes the introduction of grape growing. By the end of the seventeenth century one thousand Europeans were living near the Cape of Good Hope.

The British Come

The little Dutch colony, ten thousand miles from home at the far end of Africa, grew slowly but steadily all through the eighteenth century. It included more than Cape Town and was called Cape Colony. Near the end of the century Napoleon and his French armies overran the Netherlands and other parts of Europe, and the Dutch were unable to maintain control of their African colony. The British took it over and later decided to keep it. And so the Netherlands lost its only possession in Africa, just as it had previously lost its holdings in North America. In each case Great Britain's maritime strength gave it an advantage over the Netherlands.

During the early years of the nineteenth century a few British colonists went to Cape Colony to live. But they were greatly outnumbered by the people already living there who were descended from the earlier Dutch and French settlers. These people were the Boers, who spoke a language called Afrikaans, a Dutch dialect. The British colonists settled along the southeastern coast of Africa, as the names Port Elizabeth, Kingwilliamstown, Cambridge, and East London suggest.

The Boers did not like either British control of Cape Colony or the British settlers

who came there to live. They became more dissatisfied when they found out that the British were going to outlaw slavery in the colony. The Boers had used slaves to help them clear land and build settlements. The British were being highhanded and unreasonable, the Boers thought. Ten thousand Boers decided to move away from Cape Colony and to "trek," or migrate, inland.

These ten thousand trekked northward across the Orange River during the 1830's and established what eventually was known as the Orange Free State. In a second trek, the Boers moved across the Vaal River to establish the Transvaal state. Both the Orange Free State and Transvaal were independent Boer republics from about the middle of the nineteenth century until its end.

In the meantime the British colonists had settled Natal and were pressing in against the Boers from the east as well as from the south in search of new farm lands. When gold and diamonds were found in Boer territory, the British poured into the Dutch states in great numbers, and fighting broke out. The fighting became a war, and the two Boer states, the Orange Free State and Transvaal, were forced to give up their independence and become British colonies. A few years later, in 1910, these two Boer colonies joined Natal and Cape Colony to form the Union of South Africa. The Union of South Africa was the fourth dominion created in the British Commonwealth. Find it on the map on page 90.

The Union of South Africa

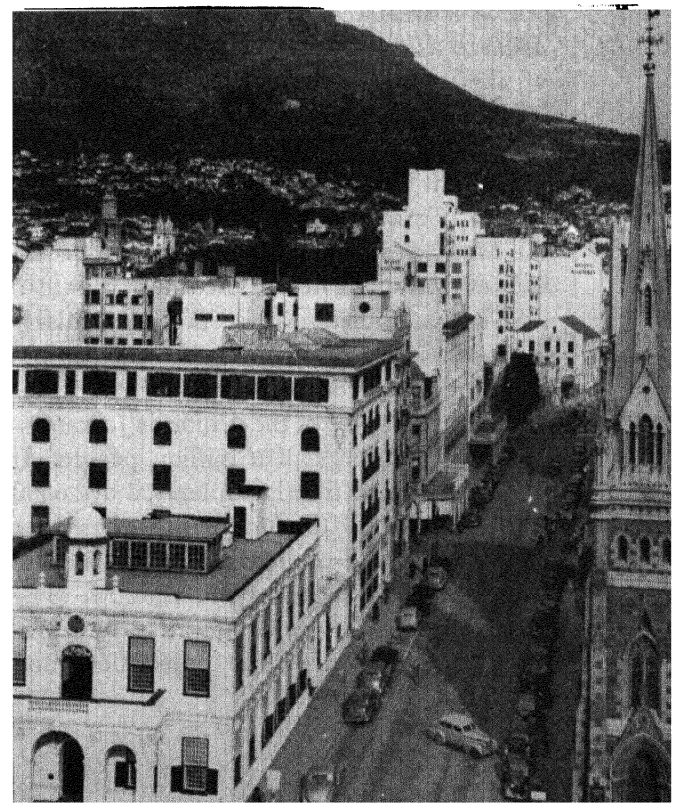
Although the Boers lost their independence, their language is still one of the official languages in the Union of South Africa. The other one is English. The two languages are taught in the schools and used in legal matters and are understood almost everywhere throughout the Union. Furthermore, the Union has two capitals—one at Pretoria, in the Dutch Transvaal, and one at Cape Town, where many British live. Parliament, the lawmaking body, meets in that city, and the law-enforcing branch of the government has its headquarters at Pretoria. The distance between the two cities is nearly one thousand miles.

The Union of South Africa is a self-governing nation, a member of the Commonwealth of Nations. As such, it does not belong to any outside power, and it has complete control of its own affairs, as Canada and Australia have. When Great Britain declared war against Germany at the beginning of World War II, most of the dominions did the same. But the vote to do so in the Union of South Africa was very close. There is a strong group in the Union that does not want to back Great Britain.

Almost fourteen million people live in the Union of South Africa, only one-fifth of whom are of European ancestry. Most of the remaining people are Negroes, but there is a small but important group of Asiatics, too. They are largely people from India, brought in long ago to work on the sugar

Cape Town. What shows this is not America?

Deane Dickason from Ewing Galloway



plantations. Although the Negroes outnumber the other people, they have little voice in the government, are given few civil liberties, and do not control the business in their country. In the Union of South Africa there is probably more unfriendly feeling between people of different races than there is in any other part of the world.

There is little prospect right now that the people of European descent in the Union of South Africa will change their attitude toward the Negroes. Giving equality to the Negroes would mean giving the country back to the people to whom it originally belonged. That is not very likely to happen.

It is not just the Negroes who are treated unfairly in the Union of South Africa. The people of European ancestry have not treated fairly the people from India, either. The Indians are found mostly in Natal, where they form a rather small group. They are definitely better off than the Negro groups. However, the feeling caused by the treatment of the Indians has been bad enough to cause unpleasantness between India and the Union of South Africa.

The population of the Union of South Africa is scattered over an area nearly twice as large as that of Texas. As in Texas, part of the coastal area is warm and humid, whereas the interior is drier and higher. But there is a small area, situated at the cape, that has a climate unlike that of any part of Texas. This climate is like that of the Mediterranean region of Europe. People of European descent find the interior plateau and the Mediterranean section particularly suitable places for making their homes because of the agreeable climate.

The largest city of the Union is Johannesburg, with about half a million people. It is located on the interior upland above 6000 feet in elevation. Johannesburg is the center of the great gold-mining industry, which to a large degree supports the country. The farmers of the Union cannot at present produce enough to feed the population, and many doubt that they ever can. For this reason, the Union of South Africa must depend upon selling its mineral exports in order to buy the various commodities it needs from the outside world. As we have seen before, it is often a risky business for a country to depend too much on its mineral wealth. It is especially bad to rely on gold. If gold should cease to be as important to the world as it is now, the Union of South Africa would be in a very difficult position.

Fortunately, the Union has other minerals of more lasting value than gold. Both coal and iron ore are present, and some industrial development has resulted from their use. But it is hard to find markets for iron and steel beyond the limited needs of the Union itself. It would probably be almost impossible for the Union to market its iron and steel in competition with other countries that are nearer to markets. During a war, when the demand for such things is very great, the Union has no trouble finding markets for its iron and steel. But in normal times, when the demand is not so great, the iron and steel industry of the Union is at a great disadvantage.

The Scramble for Africa

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century, European peoples suddenly began taking a new interest in the large continent that lay so close to theirs. Parts of Africa had already been taken by some European countries. There began a scramble for the rest of it. Once, Europeans had been interested mainly in the coastal areas of Africa. Most of the interior was unknown and unclaimed by European nations. But in the last part of the nineteenth century, European nations became interested in the interior of the continent. They sent their traders, miners, missionaries, and government agents to lay claim to African land. Three of the European countries that wanted some part of Africa were the newly formed

nations Italy, Germany, and Belgium. You have already found out how Belgium got possession of the Belgian Congo. Germany obtained Southwest Africa, Tanganyika, and some pieces of the Guinea coast. Italy claimed Libya and parts of eastern Africa along the Red Sea. It also claimed some land on the tip of Africa bordering the Gulf of Aden.

It was not long before the European countries were having trouble with one another over their claims. France wished to control a broad band across northern Africa from the Gulf of Guinea to the Red Sea. Portugal wanted to extend its holdings in Angola and Mozambique so they would reach across the southern part of the continent at about 15° S. latitude. Germany hoped to reach inland from Southwest Africa, making a union with Tanganyika. Leopold, king of Belgium, wanted to extend the Congo Free State to the upper waters of the Nile River. Italy wanted to round out its holdings in eastern Africa by acquiring Ethiopia. And besides all this, Great Britain planned to acquire a continuous belt of land from the Cape of Good Hope to Cairo, Egypt.

The British Get the Lion's Share

Because it was defeated in World War I, Germany was forced out of Africa entirely. Southwest Africa was given as a mandate to the Union of South Africa. Most of Tanganyika became a mandate to the United Kingdom, which at an earlier date had acquired Northern and Southern Rhodesia. Germany's holdings along the Guinea coast were divided between the United Kingdom and France. Germany no longer has a square inch of African territory, although there are several thousand persons of German ancestry living in the former German colonies.

In 1936 Italy, as you know, seized Ethiopia, only to lose it in World War II. Today Italy holds only Somaliland, and that area, too, may become independent soon.

Great Britain carried out its plan to own a continuous stretch of land in Africa from Cape Town to Cairo. But this plan didn't work out very well. Egypt demanded and got its independence and would have liked to extend its territory to include the former Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

British holdings in Africa have effectively blocked the ambitions of other European countries to unite lands they hold in Africa. Because the British held the Nile Valley, France was unable to attain its goal of holding a belt of land across northern Africa. Portugal could not join Angola and Mozambique because the British held the plateau of the Rhodesias. Belgium reached inland as far as the upper waters of the Nile, but was blocked from further expansion by the British holdings of Tanganyika and Uganda.

Today only six European countries own land in Africa. France holds the largest area — as you can see on page 90, nearly four million square miles. Great Britain follows, with nearly as much land if the Union of South Africa is included. Great Britain's share, though a trifle smaller than France's, is much more valuable, for large parts of the French land are either desert areas or wet tropics. Belgium ranks third in the size of its African holdings, with nearly one million square miles. The Portuguese own about three-quarters of a million square miles of land, and the Spanish a little over one hundred thousand square miles. As we have said, Italy holds only a small part of Africa today and may lose even that.

Are Colonies Worth Having?

One might very well wonder whether the scramble for Africa was worth all the money, effort, and trouble it cost. What good are the colonial possessions to the home countries? They have been good for several things. In the first place, they have

proved to be sources of valuable minerals and industrial raw materials. And then, people never know when something of great value may be discovered in a colony, or when some known mineral deposit will suddenly become very important. The uranium deposits of the Belgian Congo, for example, suddenly became a great deal more desirable and valuable when the atomic bomb was developed.

In the second place, some parts of the colonies are suitable as places for the surplus population of the European countries to go to live. Not all of the areas are suitable for settlement. But there are many areas in Africa which are high above sea level, and in such places Europeans can live quite comfortably.

Finally, colonies became very fashionable during the nineteenth century, and no country in Europe felt that it could afford not to have them. This may seem to be a silly reason for wanting colonies, but it is a reason, nevertheless. Only recently have the European countries been asking themselves whether they can afford the luxury of having colonies. In a great many cases they have found that more money has gone out to support the colonies than has come in from the colonies.

Africa and the Future

The division of Africa was completed by the end of the nineteenth century, but there have been changes from time to time since then. Changes have taken place in the areas still held as colonies by European countries. Algeria now sends its representatives to the French Parliament. The Union of South Africa is a separate nation in the Commonwealth of Nations, and it controls Southwest Africa. Other parts of Africa are well on their way to independence. It looks as if the people of Africa are going to be allowed to have more self-government and greater liberty. But the process has only just begun. In most parts of central and southern Africa, a small minority made up mainly of people of European descent manages the affairs of a land where most of the people are Negroes.

A WORKSHOP—THE WESTERN COASTLANDS

In this chapter you read about more countries than you will in any other part of the book. If you look closely at the area included in the western coastlands, shown on the map on page 73, and then at that area on the political map on page 90, you'll see why. Count the nations in the European part of the western coastlands and compare their combined size with the size of the Soviet Union. The people of each nation form their own national groups; we speak of them as being of certain nationalities—French, Greek, etc.

Turn to pages 374–375 and look at the map there. Most Europeans—no matter what their nationality—belong to what race? To what other race do some of them belong? Race has nothing to do with nationality. Compare the political map on page 90 with the race map to prove this. Race and religion are not connected, either, which you can see by comparing the map on pages 374 375 with the one on pages 378–379. Finally, race has nothing to do with language, either. Find proof of that by looking at the maps on pages 374–375 and 370–371. But language and nationality are connected. Often—not always—a language is named after a nation. Find on the language map names of such languages. Find some exceptions.

In Your Community

If a race map of the world like that on pages 374–375 had been made in 1492, what coloring would have been used for all of North America? Where is that coloring left on the map today? What caused the change?

People of what nationalities first set up colonies in North America? What religion

did they bring? Why do Americans, who are descended from many different nationalities, speak English?

You probably already know what races are represented in your community. To what religious groups do the people belong? If the community is so large that you can't name the churches there, the telephone directory will give a complete list. There may be many churches whose people belong to the same large religious group. Classify the churches, using names of religious groups found on the map on pages 378–379. Where did the religions that are in your community today begin?

If you knew the ancestry of the people in your community, you would find that most or all of them had either changed their nationality or had ancestors who did. The United States census may tell you how many people in your community are native-born but of foreign parentage. It may also tell the number of foreign-born people living there and the countries they came from.

1. In what way can people change their nationality?
2. Do you know people who have changed their nationality?
3. Do you know people who are able to speak another language besides English?

Reading Graphs

On page 18 is a member of the graph family—a *pictograph.* Pictures of men used as symbols to represent numbers make it easier to compare the population of four countries. Any graph makes figures or numbers easier to understand because it uses symbols to make figures tell a story. Other graphs are named for the symbols they use. For instance, on page 87 is a *line graph.* A line graph is useful for showing changes over a period of time. This one compares the population of two countries from 1800 to 1950. The top line shows the years, and the scale at the left gives population figures.

On page 88 you saw a *circle,* or *pie, graph.* A circle graph is good for showing percentages that add up to a total. On page 101 there is still another kind of graph—the *bar graph.* Bar graphs show how large or how great something is at a certain time or even at different times. This one shows in percentages how many people there are in different types of work in the United Kingdom. Bars in a bar graph may run vertically, as in this one, or horizontally.

You can use figures to make a point or tell a story by means of a graph. You have to choose the kind of graph which is best suited for doing the job you want done. You may need to change your figures to round numbers, since that is the kind used in most graphs. Arrange the figures according to size or the time when they were taken. You may decide to use a line graph. In that case, you may use the base or the top line of the graph to show the time covered and the vertical line to show the numbers that you need to use. If your figures are small, you may want to start with zero. If they are large, start with a number near your smallest figure. You will have to fit your numbers and figures into the space you have. Rule your paper or use graph paper.

Find the figures and information indicated below. Decide what point you could make with them and what kind of graph you could use. Make one or more graphs showing:

1. The population of your community in ten-year periods from 1900 to 1950.
2. The total area of Africa, given on page 398, and the areas of the parts of Africa still held by the countries of France, Great Britain, Belgium, Portugal, and Spain, given on page 153.
3. The populations and areas in square miles of the United States, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and the Netherlands, given on page 366. Several points could be made with those figures. Different people in the class may want to do different things.
4. The amount of developed and undeveloped water power in any two or more countries, shown on the map on page 124.

Bring to class examples of different kinds of graphs. Classify them as to kind, and make a display of them. Display also the best ones done in your class.

Europeans Spread Out

The civilizations that started in China and in India are two of the oldest in the world. Neither spread so widely as eastern Mediterranean civilization did. Eastern Mediterranean civilization spread into Europe, then elsewhere. Europeans caused it to spread.

MAPS SHOW WHERE

Look at the set of three maps on pages 76–77. In what directions did Europeans spread their civilizations between 117 A.D. and 1415 A.D.? If you were to make a fourth map showing places Europeans had reached two hundred years later, what places would you show? To see how far Europeans finally took their civilization, look at the maps on pages 94–95, 107, and 116–117. Compare the area of each of the four home countries shown with the areas of the overseas lands they either once controlled or still control. Still other European possessions are shown on the maps on pages 90, 171, and 269.

MAPS SHOW SOME RESULTS

Wherever European peoples gained possessions, they introduced their ways of governing. You have seen on the maps on pages 94–95, 107, and 116–117 places where people are still being governed with European ideas. In all places where Europeans have been most successful in spreading their civilization, European languages are spoken. Find these places on the map on pages 370–371. Don't mistake the language groups for languages.

Another part of the Europeans' civilization was their religion. Many people in the world have learned their religion from the Europeans. Compare the religion map, pages 378–379, with the language map. What similarity can you see between the spread of European languages and the spread of their religion?

Europeans have had and still have great influence on world affairs because they have moved out into the world and engaged in its affairs. Why were Europeans so successful? The following paragraphs will help you answer that. You'll want to talk them over.

A Favorable Position

There are certain places in the world where human beings find it difficult to live and other places where they find it easier. Europeans have certain natural advantages, and they have made the most of them.

IN THE CENTER OF THINGS

Remember the drawing of the Land Hemisphere on page 29? Look at it again, noticing particularly the position of Europe. What advantage can you see that this position gave Europeans in the Age of Discovery? What advantage does it give them for trade? Look at the population map on pages 372–373. Since it is people who buy goods, where does it appear likely that the biggest markets would be? How is Europe located in relation to them?

THEIR LONG-TERM WEATHER

You can all remember days when the weather you had was a great help to you, and days, too, when it interfered with what you wanted to do. Weather can be wet, dry, hot, or cold. It can be clear, cloudy, calm, or stormy. If you could think of all the kinds of weather people living where you live have had every day, not just for days or even for months, but for years, you would be thinking of something more than weather. Weather considered over a period of years becomes climate. And if you knew how that weather had helped or hindered the people over that same period of years, you could tell how they were affected by their climate.

There are types of climate, just as there are kinds of weather. Europeans have a favorable one—a humid, middle-latitude climate. What makes their climate what it is? What makes any climate what it is?

Since the temperature of a place is part of its climate, anything that influences its temperature influences its climate. For this reason, latitude, or distance from the equator, helps determine climate. The farther away from the equator a place is, the more the sun's rays slant as they fall on the earth, and the less sunlight or heat the place receives in any year. This is one of the things people have in mind when they speak of low-latitude or tropical, middle-latitude or temperate, and high-latitude or polar climates.

Altitude influences climate, too, for temperature falls as altitude increases. Temperatures in high mountains are low even in countries in low latitudes.

Winds also have a part in determining climate, for, like latitude and altitude, they affect the temperature. Winds raise or lower temperature because they move warm air to cold places and cold air to warm places. Along the equator winds are so light that the region is spoken of as the calms, or doldrums. But in the middle latitudes the most frequent

winds are the westerlies. They blow steadily eastward over the oceans and warm the western sides of continents in the winter and cool them in the summer. Such western coastlands have what is called a marine climate. In the same latitudes, interiors of continents and coastlands which do not receive the westerlies off the oceans have a continental climate. In such a climate winters are colder and summers hotter than they are in a marine climate.

Winds have another influence on climate—they carry moisture. Warm air carries more moisture than cold air, and if warm air is cooled, rain may fall. Besides lowering temperature, mountains affect climate in another way, because they cause air to rise, cool off, and drop its moisture. An area may have a climate with much more moisture than it needs for agriculture without irrigation; in other words, it may have a wet climate. If it has a little more moisture than is needed, then the climate is called humid. Climates with less rain are called semiarid, and those with very little rain are called arid.

1. Find on the map on page 90 the parallel of latitude that runs through Europe near its center. Using the map on page 269, see where the same parallel cuts through North America. But the countries of western Europe have milder climates than areas in the same latitude in eastern North America. Account for that.
2. Look at the map of France on page 115. On it, as on some other maps in this book, the map maker sketched the hills and mountains as they would appear to someone looking down on the land. What part of France do you think is coolest? Why?
3. Using the map on page 36, compare the amount of desert land in Europe with that in other parts of the world. Using the map on pages 376–377, compare the distribution of rainfall in Europe with that in the rest of the western coastlands.

Taking Advantage of Advantages

If the total population of the world could be distributed over the total land area, the average number of people per square mile would be about 41. Using the figures on page 412, find out what the average number of people per square mile is in Europe. How can so many people make a living on so little land?

USING THE LAND

Look at the map on pages 38–39 and compare the land of Europe with that of the rest of the western coastlands in its usefulness for farming. Europeans make good use of all available land, and as you saw in the picture on page 112, have even succeeded in extending it. Even so, you know that not all Europeans are able to support themselves by farming.

DEVELOPING INDUSTRY

To make a living, the people of Europe have made the most of other natural advantages. On the map on page 93 you saw how many of the major coal- and iron-producing regions in the world are European. What does the map on page 124 tell you about the way Europeans have taken advantage of their water-power resources?

The map on page 144 shows that Europeans lack one important resource. What have they done to make up for this lack?

Be Sure You Aren't Mixed Up

To think clearly about geography and world affairs, you need to know the correct meaning of certain terms and the location and significance of particular places. Be sure you know:

1. What these terms mean:
   a. western civilization
   b. federation
   c. "Empire preference"
   d. dominion plan
   e. minority group
   f. Moslem world
   g. Judaism
   h. Islam
   i. Zionism
   j. mandate
2. The difference between:
   a. Great Britain and the United Kingdom
   b. Israel and Palestine
   c. Ireland and the Republic of Ireland
   d. Bohemia and Slovakia
3. The location and the strategic importance of:
   a. Istanbul
   b. Suez Canal
   c. Malta
   d. Ruhr Valley
   e. Belgrade
   f. Egypt
   g. Iran, Iraq, and Saudi Arabia
   h. Gibraltar
   i. Greenland and Iceland
   j. Danzig

Things to Do

Carry out several or all of the following suggestions:

1. Draw a cartoon to illustrate one or more of these subjects:
   - *a.* The resources and the weaknesses of the Commonwealth of Nations
   - *b.* The attitude the Irish took toward the Commonwealth
   - *c.* Why Spain lost its empire
   - *d.* The problems of the French
   - *e.* The disadvantage of the location of the Netherlands, of Poland, or of Finland
   - *f.* Sources of Egyptian dissatisfaction with the British
   - *g.* The scramble for Africa
2. Choose one or more of the following for discussion:
   - *a.* Similarities and differences between the French Union and the Commonwealth of Nations
   - *b.* Reasons for dissatisfaction in the Union of South Africa
   - *c.* Mountains and rivers as boundaries between the countries of the western coastlands
3. Using a piece of string, measure in inches on a globe the distances from London to Bombay, India, from London to Singapore, and from London to Sydney, Australia, by way of the route around Africa. Measure the distances between the same places by way of the Suez Canal. Multiply the number of inches by the number of miles to an inch, shown by the scale on the globe. How many miles are saved by using the Suez Canal to make each of the trips? If you have a special measuring tape to use with your globe, your measuring will be easier.

Checking Your Information

Choose the word or words among those in parentheses which best complete each of the following sentences. Be ready to defend your choice with facts:

1. The strongest political ideas in Europe today are (fascism, communism, democracy).
2. In the twentieth century, European hold on foreign territories has (remained the same, increased, lessened).
3. The people of the southern and eastern Mediterranean region are similar chiefly in (religion, language, race).
4. The majority of the people of central and southern Africa are (self-governing, controlled by people of European descent, without government).
5. Europeans have found Africa difficult to settle chiefly on account of its (size, climate, well-organized people).

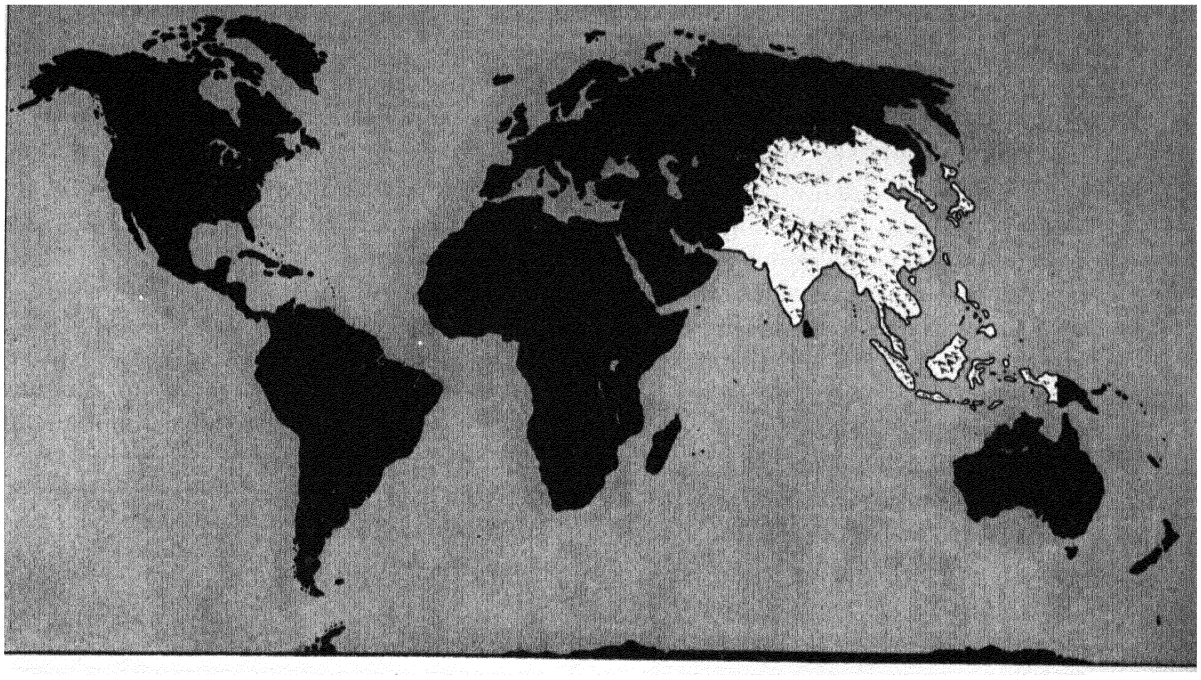
Copy the items listed in column 1. Choose the name in column 2 which correctly identifies each one.

Column 1	Column 2
1. A landlocked body of water	*a.* Turkey
2. A country with two capitals	*b.* Poland
3. A colony that once belonged to a king	*c.* Union of South Africa
4. A waterway touching seven countries	*d.* France
5. A country that owns a third of Africa	*e.* Egypt
6. A modern country once destroyed by its neighbors	*f.* Black Sea
7. A country divided by the sea	*g.* Italy
8. A coastal city that became an inland city	*h.* Venice
9. A continental country with an island capital	*i.* Belgian Congo
10. The only independent country of Moslem North Africa	*j.* Danube River
	k. Denmark
	l. Rotterdam
	m. Baltic Sea
	n. Cape Town

How Do You Feel About It?

Read and think over carefully the following questions. Try to be very fair and remember that opinions should be based on facts. Write out your answers and give them to your teacher.

1. If you had your choice, what part of the western coastlands would you like most to see? Why?
2. You all know people who feel unfriendly to certain individuals simply because of their nationality. Do you believe it fair to judge individuals on the basis of the national group they belong to? Why?



The Eastern Coastlands

WHERE THE MONSOON WINDS BLOW

Half the world's people. A billion people, more or less, live in the eastern part of the coastlands of Eurasia. This is approximately half the people of the world. How do so many people come to live there, and what part do they play in world affairs?

We shall first look at the eastern coastlands as a whole, from India around to China and Japan. Then we shall take up the three major parts separately: First, India, with its four hundred million people, now divided into two countries. Next, Southeast Asia and the islands of Indonesia. Lastly, the Far East, with five or perhaps six hundred million people living in China, and with a hundred million more in Korea and Japan.

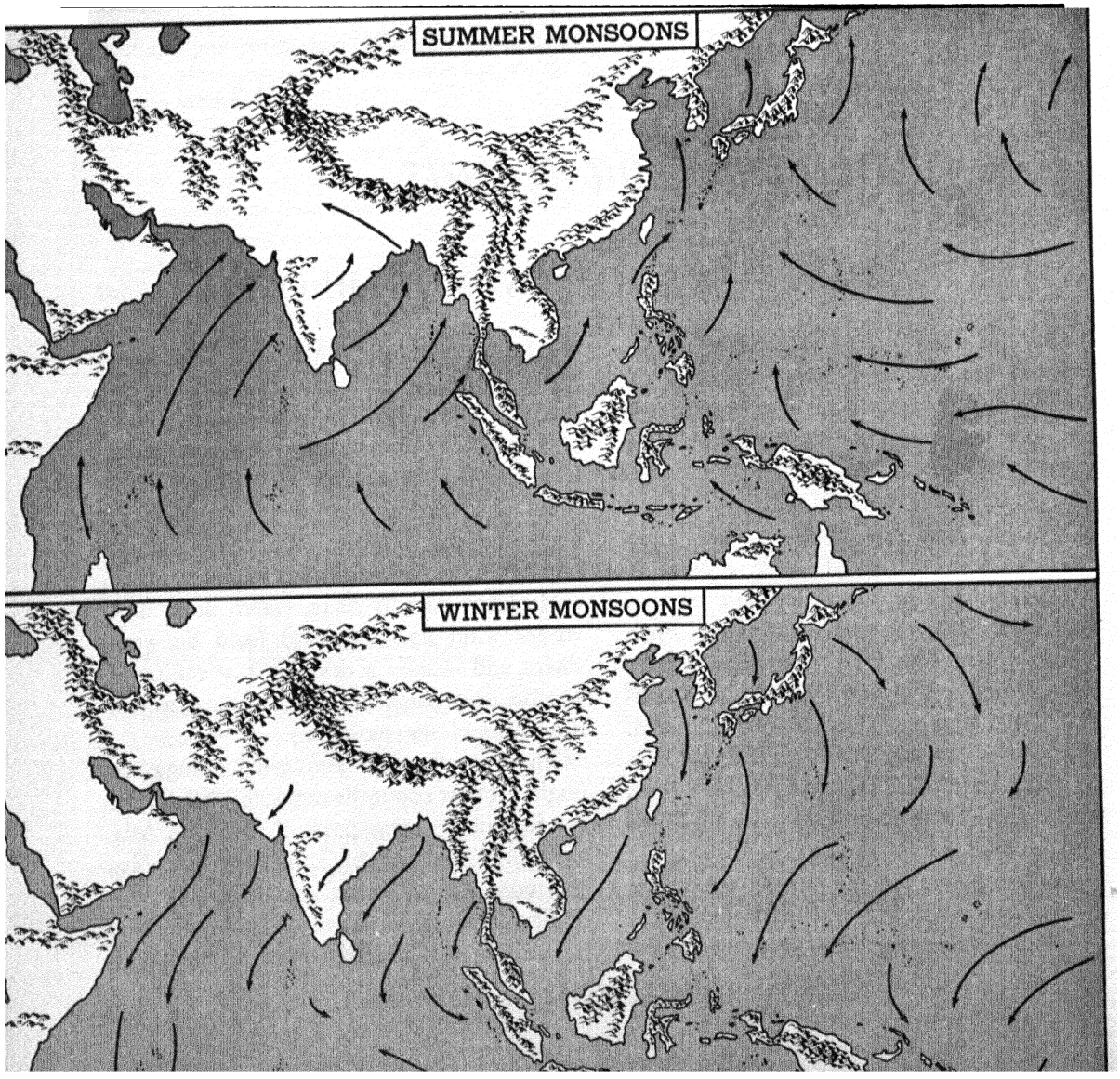
Another name for the eastern coastlands is Monsoon Asia. It is not hard to understand the underlying cause of the monsoon winds. In summer, land heats up more rapidly than water does. The air from the ocean is cooler than the land toward which it flows. This summer air is moist and heavy from having been over the sea. If it is lifted or forced to rise over mountains, it cools and the moisture falls as rain or, in high altitudes, as snow. But in winter, land cools more rapidly than water does. The winter wind flows outward from the continent and usually is dry. Look at the maps on the next page. They show the seasonal directions of the monsoons.

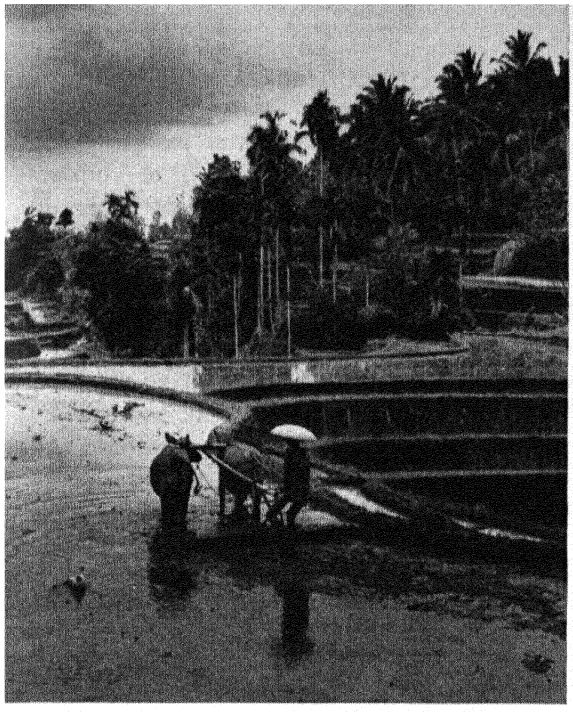
There are a few additional things we ought to know about the monsoon climate. In the first place, some parts of Monsoon Asia are almost unbelievably rainy. For example, the moist summer monsoon air off the Bay of Bengal is forced to rise over a range of hills about two hundred miles northeast of

Calcutta. During the summer months it rains there almost without stopping. One town has four hundred fifty inches of rain a year, and most of that during the summer. That town has as many *feet* of rain as most North American towns have inches. But one can find some corners of Monsoon Asia that have relatively little rain during the very months that this hill town has so much. One of these relatively dry places is in the heart of Burma, around the city of Mandalay. Mountain barriers drain the summer monsoon of much of its moisture before the winds reach the basin of Mandalay.

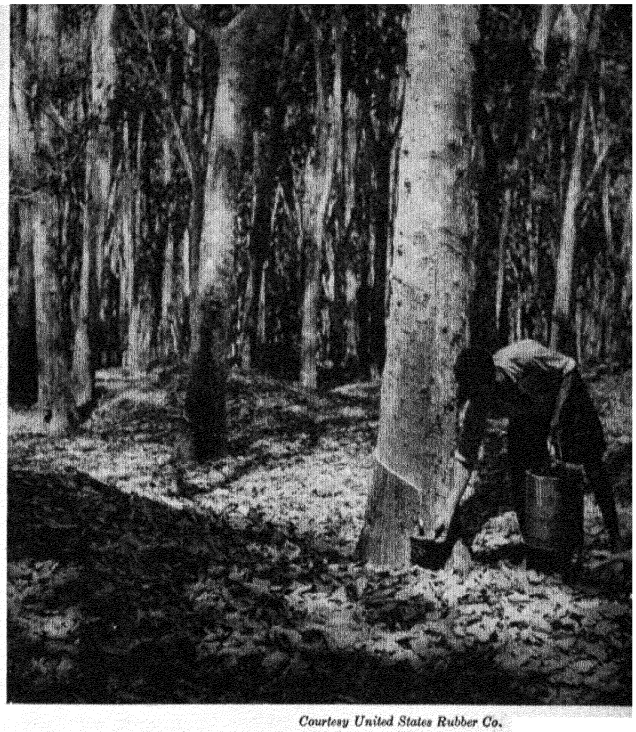
In most of the monsoon lands, winter is the dry season, but there are exceptions to this rule. Some coasts and islands of Monsoon Asia are rainy in winter, because the winds from the continent cross water before reaching them. The west side of the islands of Japan has one of the cloudiest, rainiest, snowiest winter climates on earth. The wind, almost bone-dry when it leaves the Asiatic mainland, picks up moisture from the Sea of Japan. The moisture is forced from the wind by the mountains of Japan, and when that happens either rain or snow falls.

On the maps below, you see the mountain barriers which monsoon winds encounter.





Deane Dickason from Ewing Galloway



Courtesy United States Rubber Co.

Rice—millions of tons—grows in Monsoon Asia. And rubber—millions of pounds—is produced there.

Man and the Monsoons

But why so much talk about climate? What has it to do with world affairs? Well, the monsoon climate is important because it permits so many people to live by farming. Most of Monsoon Asia has summer heat, and it has summer rain so abundant that crops grow rapidly and yield heavily. Rice, which yields the most food per acre of any of the grains, can be grown in the valleys of most of Monsoon Asia. Monsoon Asia is a land of farmers—farmers tilling garden-size plots mainly with hand tools. It is by intense hand agriculture that Monsoon Asia supports most of its billion people.

The civilizations of Monsoon Asia have been called vegetable civilizations. We could contrast them with the "animal civilizations" of the desert nomads or the Eskimo hunters, and the "machine civilizations" of western Europe and of North America. Monsoon Asia has vegetable civilizations in more than just one sense of the term. First of all, the production of vegetable foods is the principal occupation of the people of Asia. Far more people can be fed if they will eat the products of the land themselves than if they first feed the crops to animals and then eat the meat. The aim in Monsoon Asia is to get the most food per acre, even if this means living mainly on rice or other cereals.

In a second sense, Monsoon Asia has vegetable civilizations because some of its most important exports are agricultural. Rubber, jute, tea, coconut oil, manila hemp, and quinine are some of the well-known export crops of Monsoon Asia.

In still a third sense, the term vegetable civilization applies to Monsoon Asia. Peasant farmers are deeply attached to their lands. They seldom wander far from their native villages. They feel a strong loyalty to their family, which lives generation after generation on the same land. The peasant wants sons to help him with his work while he lives, and to till the family land after he is gone. The nomad, on the other hand, will pick up and move to new pastures on a

moment's notice. And the North American of the Machine Age has somewhat mixed feelings about moving. He loves to travel, as a rule, and he may go thousands of miles in search of a better job. But usually there is some part of his country that he thinks is a little better than the rest.

Since most of the people of Monsoon Asia are peasant farmers, deeply attached to the place of their birth, it is not surprising that change comes to them slowly. The first people of Monsoon Asia to have picked up mechanical methods enthusiastically were the Japanese. Even in Japan, half the people remain on the farms in spite of the growth of industry.

European people invented and developed machines to a much greater extent than Asiatics did, and these machines helped Europeans to rule or at least control much of Monsoon Asia. Only a few countries of Monsoon Asia remained independent in the early twentieth century. The rest were colonies. And of the independent nations, only Japan, the first to westernize its industries, its army, and its navy, was rated as a major power at the beginning of World War II.

The end of World War II found Japan in complete defeat. It also found the colonial peoples of Monsoon Asia anxious to be free from foreign rule. India, Pakistan, Burma, Ceylon, Indonesia, and the Philippines are now self-governing, and other colonial areas now have more self-government than they had before the war.

The Machine Age has poked its nose into almost every country in Monsoon Asia. Instead of slapping the nose, most of the governments are now asking the Machine Age to come all the way in. They feel that industries are needed to raise standards of living, to provide work, and to protect the independence they have gained or hope to gain.

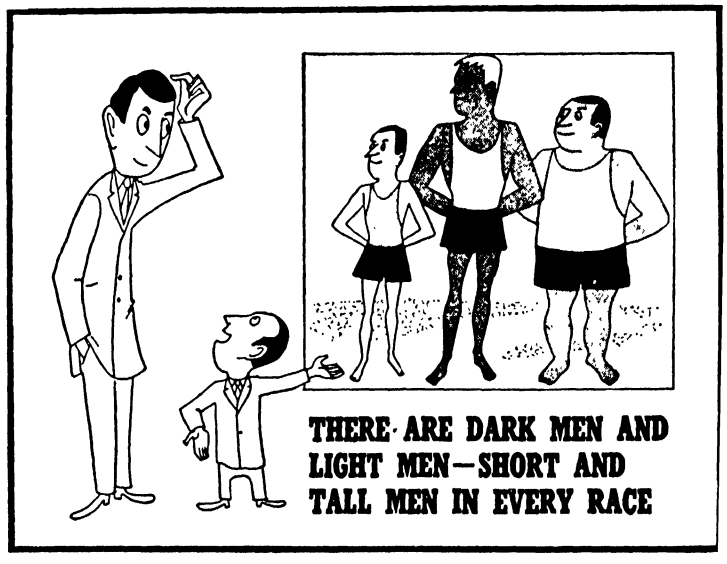
Race, Speech, and Faith

People of Monsoon Asia live in areas having about the same kind of climate. Most of the people make their living by farming. This does not mean that the people are all alike. Many things make them different. One of these things is race. By "race" we mean man's physical or biological features, not his language or civilization. Among the physical features by which races can best be distinguished are kind of hair—straight, or wavy, or curly—and shape of the head—long and narrow (when viewed from above), or short and round. These and other physical features of mankind are found to have many variations. One can describe "the typical Swede" as tall, blond, wavy-haired, and narrow-headed. And one can describe "the typical Filipino" as short, brown-skinned, straight-haired, and roundheaded. But if one traveled overland from Sweden toward the Philippines, one could find almost every degree of variation between the two types of men.

The two main races. When we talk about the two main races of Monsoon Asia, we are talking in general terms about a very

In all the world no two people are exactly alike.

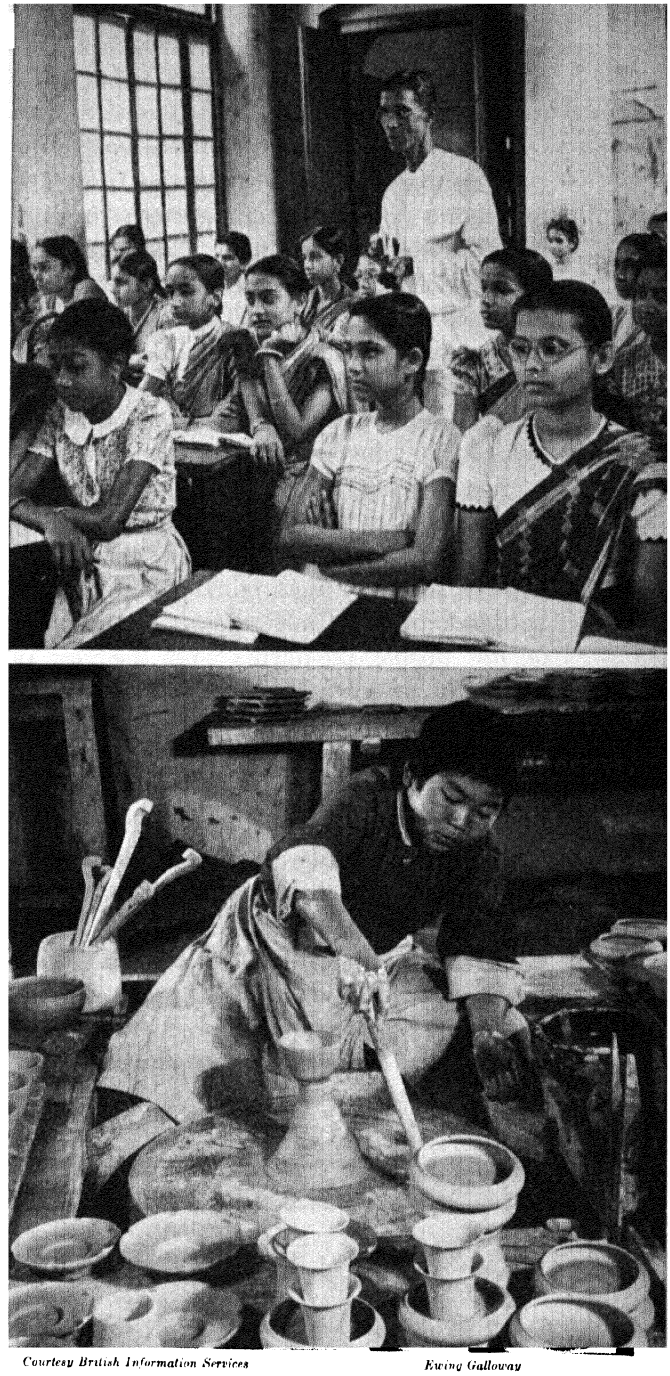
Courtesy National Labor Service



complicated subject. The two main races of this region are called the Caucasoid and the Mongoloid. It is hard to describe the Caucasoid race. Someone has said that the Caucasoids are all those men that can't be called something else! There are short and tall Caucasoids, narrowheaded and round-headed Caucasoids, and Caucasoids of every skin color from white to dark brown. Wavy hair is common, but everyone knows straight- and curly-haired Caucasoids, too. About all we can say is that the Caucasoid race includes not only the blond people common in northern Europe and the swarthier people of southern Europe, but also the brown-skinned people of India. In India you will find some people little darker, if any, than a southern European is. You will also find in India many people who combine brown skin with the hair and features of a European.

It is easier to describe the Mongoloid race. Among the Mongoloids straight, black hair and very dark eyes are almost universal. Round heads are the rule. The skin varies from dark brown to a yellow so pale that it is almost white. The popular notion that all Mongoloids have slanting eyes is fiction. If you look at people of the Mongoloid race, in real life or in photographs, you will nearly always find that their eyes are about as straight as a white person's. The eye opening may be a different shape. Mongoloids are the main race in the Far East and in Southeast Asia, as you can see on the map on pages 374–375.

The locations and past migrations of these two main races of Monsoon Asia have been influenced by the great pattern of mountains, forests, and deserts of the Asiatic continent. Put your left hand, palm down and with fingers pointing to the right, on your desk. Spread your fingers as widely as you can. Bend your thumb back, too. There you have a rough picture of the mountains and plateaus of eastern and southern Asia. The back of your hand represents the high plateau of Tibet. The wrist is the knot of mountains where India, Afghanistan, and the Soviet Union come close together. The fingers represent the many ranges that spread out from Tibet, eastward into China and southeastward into Southeast Asia. The



Courtesy British Information Services *Ewing Galloway*

The people of India in the upper picture are mostly Caucasoid in race. The boy workman is Chinese. He's a Mongoloid.

thumb could stand for the range that separates India from Burma.

Northwestern India is rather dry, like the adjacent parts of Afghanistan and Iran. The mountains of this northwestern frontier have neither dense forests nor glaciers. Caucasoid peoples from the Iranian plateau migrated down into India from time to time through many centuries. In northwestern India one finds the most clearly Caucasoid peoples of that land. The Himalaya Mountains on the north, with their immense peaks and snow fields, kept the Caucasoids out of Tibet, which is a Mongoloid country. On the east, the rainy, heavily forested mountains of the Burma border kept the Caucasoids out, and most of the people of Burma and the rest of Southeast Asia are Mongoloid. Countries of the Far East—China, Korea, and Japan—are peopled almost entirely by Mongoloids. Japan's first people, though, were the bearded Ainus, a remote branch of the Caucasoids, who survive in very small numbers in the northern island of Hokkaido.

Many languages. The word race is often mixed up with language. We hear people talk of the Italian "race," or the Slavic "race," or the Chinese "race." But language is, of course, a human invention, just as a ship or a sewing machine is, and not part of a person's physical make-up. People of very different physical races—Caucasoids, Mongoloids, Negroids—may speak the same language, as is true in the United States. On the other hand, people of the same physical race may speak different languages, as is true in Europe and in Canada.

One hesitates to say just how many languages there are in Monsoon Asia. There are two chief language groups, but people in the same language group may not be able to understand each other. English and German, for example, belong to the same language group and are very close relatives within their group, but people who speak English and people who speak German can't understand each other. Then there are many dialects, or forms of the same language. A man from Peiping and one from Canton are both Chinese, but they speak different dialects and cannot understand each other. There are several hundred languages and dialects spoken in Monsoon Asia. The map on pages 370–371 shows you where the principal languages are spoken.

The chief language groups of Monsoon Asia are called scientifically the Indo-European and the Sino-Tibetan. Indo-European languages extend all the way from the British Isles to northern India, and of course have been transplanted to the Americas. Most people who speak Indo-European languages are Caucasoids in race, but this is by no means an absolute rule. The Sino-Tibetan languages are found in China, Tibet, and parts of Southeast Asia. Most people who speak Sino-Tibetan languages are Mongoloid in race, though there are millions of Mongoloid peoples, such as the Japanese, who belong to other language groups. There are, we see, roughly similar patterns of race and language in Monsoon Asia, though race is physical and language is part of culture. The reason probably is that the same barriers of mountain, forest, and desert that guided the migrations of

Anyone can learn any language.

Public Affairs Committee, Inc.



the races also guided the spread of the languages.

We can trace the relationships between languages in two ways. One is by the resemblance between their words. In India, a *rājā*, or, as we say, "rajah," is a king or ruler. In Latin, the word *rex* means the same, and you can see some resemblance between the two. The French speak of a *regime*, which means a period of rule. The French Revolution overthrew the old *régime* and set up a new one. In English we speak of "regulations," which is a sprout from the same root word. There are many such connections between the languages of India and Europe. On the other hand, the Chinese word for ruler is *wang*, which is entirely different.

Another way to trace relationships between languages is by resemblances in their grammar. Indo-European languages change the form of words to show changes in meaning. Chinese, on the other hand, does not. For example, there has been a political party in China called the Kuomintang. This name is really three words, placed side by side. *Kuo* means country, *min* means people, and *tang* means party. We translate this into English as "the Nationalist Party." The word "nationalist" is a fine example of the way Indo-European languages change the form of a word to show different meanings. The core of the word is "nation," of course. We add "-al" and make it the adjective "national." We add "-ist," and the word applies to persons. And we don't need to stop there. We can go on adding syllables—through "nationalistic" and "nationalistically"; and, if we needed to, we could even say "unnationalistically."

Some of the Sino-Tibetan languages have still another difference from the Indo-European. In Chinese, for example, most common words have only one syllable. The Chinese make one sound serve for many meanings by changing the tone of voice. In English it does not change the meaning of the word chew if you raise your voice, lower it, or keep it on an even tone. In Chinese *chu* means many things. It can mean "bamboo" if you raise your voice at the end. It can mean "master" if you let your voice drop.

In addition to these two main language groups, we might just mention three others. In southern India, languages of the Dravidian group are spoken. In the East Indies, the Philippines, and the Malay Peninsula, Malayan languages are the rule. The Japanese and Korean languages belong to still a third language group, though both languages have borrowed many words and their system of writing from China.

Language and politics. Speaking the same language makes it easy for people to get together. We quickly forget that a man is foreign if he speaks our language, but he remains a stranger if he does not. So it is not surprising that there is a relationship between nations and languages. The political map of Europe today looks very much like the language map. The names of the countries on the political map are often similar to the names of the languages spoken there.

Look at the political map of Europe on page 90 and at the language map on pages 370–371. See how many names on the two maps are similar. But as we learned when we studied the political geography of Europe, it is too simple to say that nations arose just because people spoke certain languages. In the first place, there are some nations in which two or more languages are important. Switzerland and Canada are well-known examples. Having the same interests can bind people together even when they speak different languages. If people have been thrown together by the facts of geography or the events of history, they may work together to form a government and only later develop a national language. In France, for instance, there are two main dialects of French, and there are some people who speak other tongues like Basque and Breton. But in the many generations France has

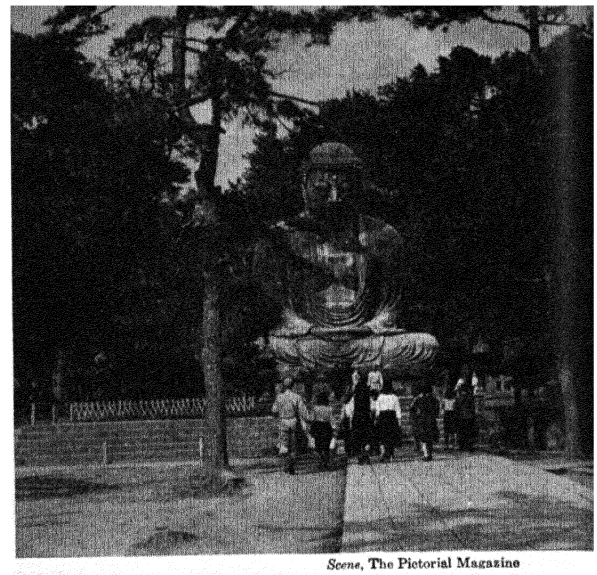
existed, a standard French has developed, understood almost everywhere in the country.

In Monsoon Asia, we see developing a rough resemblance between the language map and the political map. The people of Japan speak a language called Japanese. The Koreans speak the Korean language. There are many dialects of Chinese, but a standard Chinese language is understood over much of China. Compare the political map on page 171 with the language map on pages 370–371. You can see the similarities that have been mentioned.

The case of India is different. There the political division into the Republic of India and Pakistan followed religion, not language.

Great religions. Monsoon Asia has given birth to two great religions and been invaded by three others. Religion has been a strong political force in this part of the world. Look for Monsoon Asia on the map on pages 378–379. There you will see where each of the religions is found.

The oldest of the major religions of Asia is Hinduism. Hinduism was brought into India by early invaders across the northwestern frontier, from the highlands of southwestern Asia. These invaders were Caucasoid in race, and they spoke Indo-European languages. Hinduism never spread far from India, but for a time it was practiced in Southeast Asia and the East Indies. The East Indian island of Bali, favorite of tourists, has a Hindu religion to this day. In India itself there are more than two hundred fifty million Hindus. Hinduism is difficult to describe in a few words. Later in this chapter we shall try to explain what it is.

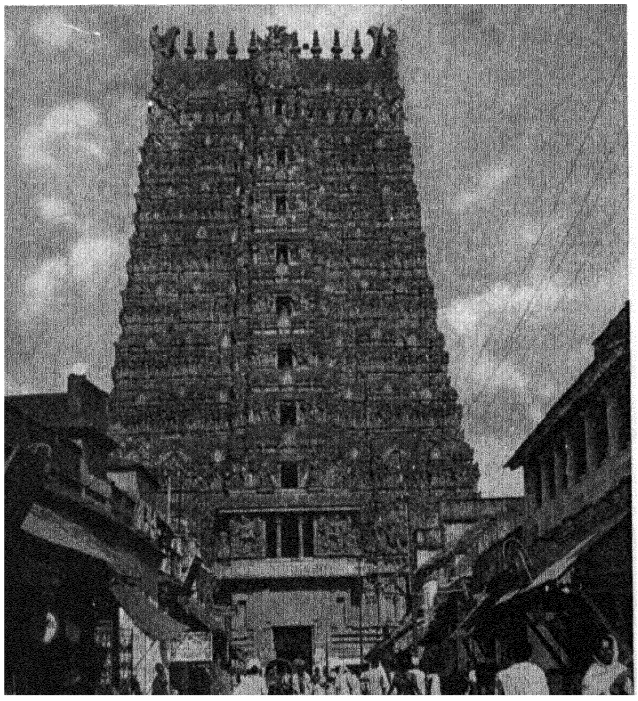


Scene, The Pictorial Magazine

And millions of Buddhists visit the shrines and temples of

Millions of Hindus worship in temples like this.

Deane Dickason from Ewing Galloway

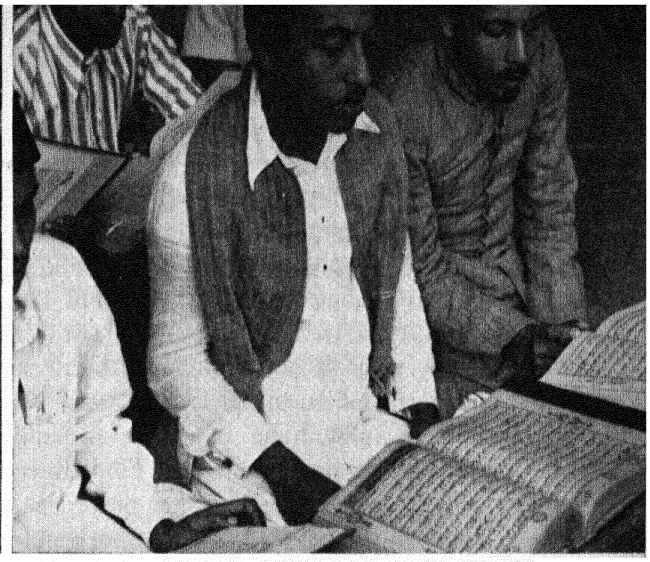


About five hundred years before the time of Christ two new religions arose in Monsoon Asia. One arose in India. This was Buddhism. For a time Buddhism replaced Hinduism as the major faith of India, but it finally died out in the land of its birth. But Buddhism spread past the natural barriers that had stopped migrations of men. It became the religion of Tibet, Mongolia, Burma, Siam (Thailand), Indochina, and Korea. It spread to China and Japan, but there it shares a place with other religions.

At about the same time that Buddhism arose in India, Confucius was teaching in China. Some say that Confucianism is a code of ethics—that is, a set of rules for good behavior—rather than a religion. Confucianism deals more with this world than with a future life. Among hundreds



Ewing Galloway



Deane Dickason from Ewing Galloway

ddha. There are Shintoists bowing before their shrines, and Moslems following the words of Mohammed.

of things that Confucius said, one can be translated like this: "Until I understand this world, how can I understand the next?"

The Japanese have two main religions. One is Buddhism. The other is Shinto. Shinto, it is sometimes said, is a code of duty toward one's ancestors and toward the emperor rather than a true religion. Most Japanese practice both Buddhism and Shinto.

Another great religion of Monsoon Asia is a much later arrival. This is Islam, which spread eastward from southwestern Asia by both land and sea. By land it was carried into northern India, where it replaced Hinduism in some places. It also spread into central Asia and western China. By sea it spread to the Malay Peninsula, the East Indies, and the southern part of the Philippines.

Christianity is older than Islam, and a few Christian outposts sprang up in Monsoon Asia in the early centuries after Christ. But Christianity was not very important in Monsoon Asia until after the great European voyages of discovery. Most of the Filipinos were converted to Christianity by their Spanish overlords, who voyaged to the islands across the Pacific from America. The Republic of the Philippines is the only country of Monsoon Asia in which Christianity is the leading religion. There are several million Christians in India, and smaller numbers in many of the other lands.

The spread of religions is not like the spread of races or of languages. "Ideas are light baggage," wrote Ellen Semple, a famous geographer. Buddhism climbed over the Himalayas, Islam crossed central-Asian deserts, Christianity crossed the Pacific in tiny Spanish ships. A few earnest missionaries can change the faith of thousands. A religion, once established, can become a political force, as we see clearly in India.

INDIA: SUBCONTINENT OF EURASIA

India, like Monsoon Asia of which it is a part, has many characteristics which give it unity. The unity is so strong that we continue to speak and write of India as if it were one country, even though it now consists of two countries, the Republic of India and Pakistan. But India's differences are so great that it is a wonder that only two countries arose there when British rule ended. Like Europe, India is really a

subcontinent of Eurasia—a small continent attached to Eurasia. Like Europe, it has been held together from time to time, usually by a conqueror or very strong ruler, and then has broken apart. India has an even better claim to the title of subcontinent than Europe has. Like Europe, India is a great promontory jutting out from the mass of Eurasia. But Europe is not set apart by difficult and continuous barriers. India is cut off on all its land frontiers by mountains, and some of these are the highest mountains on earth. Find these mountains on the map on the next page.

The northern wall of India is the Himalaya Mountains. The name comes from words meaning "home of the snows," for the Himalayas, though subtropical in latitude, are hung with glaciers. Even the passes are higher than the tops of mountains of the United States. A pass of seventeen thousand feet is considered low in the Himalayas. Deep snows clog the trails for most of the year; and even after one gets across the main range, one reaches only the high, cold plateau of Tibet.

On the northeast, India is separated from Burma by mountains which are not extremely high, but which are so rainy that the forest growth is very dense. During World War II it was necessary to build a motor road through these mountains. This road had to be hacked through forests and out of steep mountainsides. In spite of the large amount of work and money that went into its construction, this road was abandoned after the war because the cost of maintaining it would have been more than the peacetime traffic justified.

Most of the northwest side of India—the side bordering on Afghanistan and Iran—is also lined with mountains, but this side of India has little rainfall. The mountains have neither the heavy snows of the Himalayas nor the dense forests of the Burmese border. The northwest side of India is the easiest side to enter, and many invaders have found it so. The people who brought the Hindu religion to India came from the northwest. Later, Alexander the Great and his Macedonians entered India from this direction. In the eighth century A.D. the first Moslem invaders reached India. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries Moslems from Afghanistan ruled nearly all of India. Finally, in the sixteenth century, at the same time that Europeans were venturing into the Indian Ocean by sea, another group of Moslems broke into India. They were called the Moguls, because they were in part descended from Genghis Khan's Mongols. They, too, entered from the northwest and founded an empire which lasted until the British arrived. The northwest of India thus became the most strongly Moslem portion.

India and the Indian Ocean

In the earlier centuries of Indian history, it was the northwest land frontier that was the most significant. But the sea frontiers were also significant, even before Vasco da Gama reached Calicut in 1498. The Arabs were then the chief traders on the Indian Ocean, with an outpost as far away as Malacca on the Malay Peninsula.

The Portuguese, who had better ships and arms than the Arabs had, took the Indian Ocean trade away from the Arabs. But other Europeans followed the Portuguese to the East—the Dutch, the English, and the French. Then came more than a century and a half of struggle on sea and on land—on the Atlantic and on the Indian oceans, in Europe, and in India.

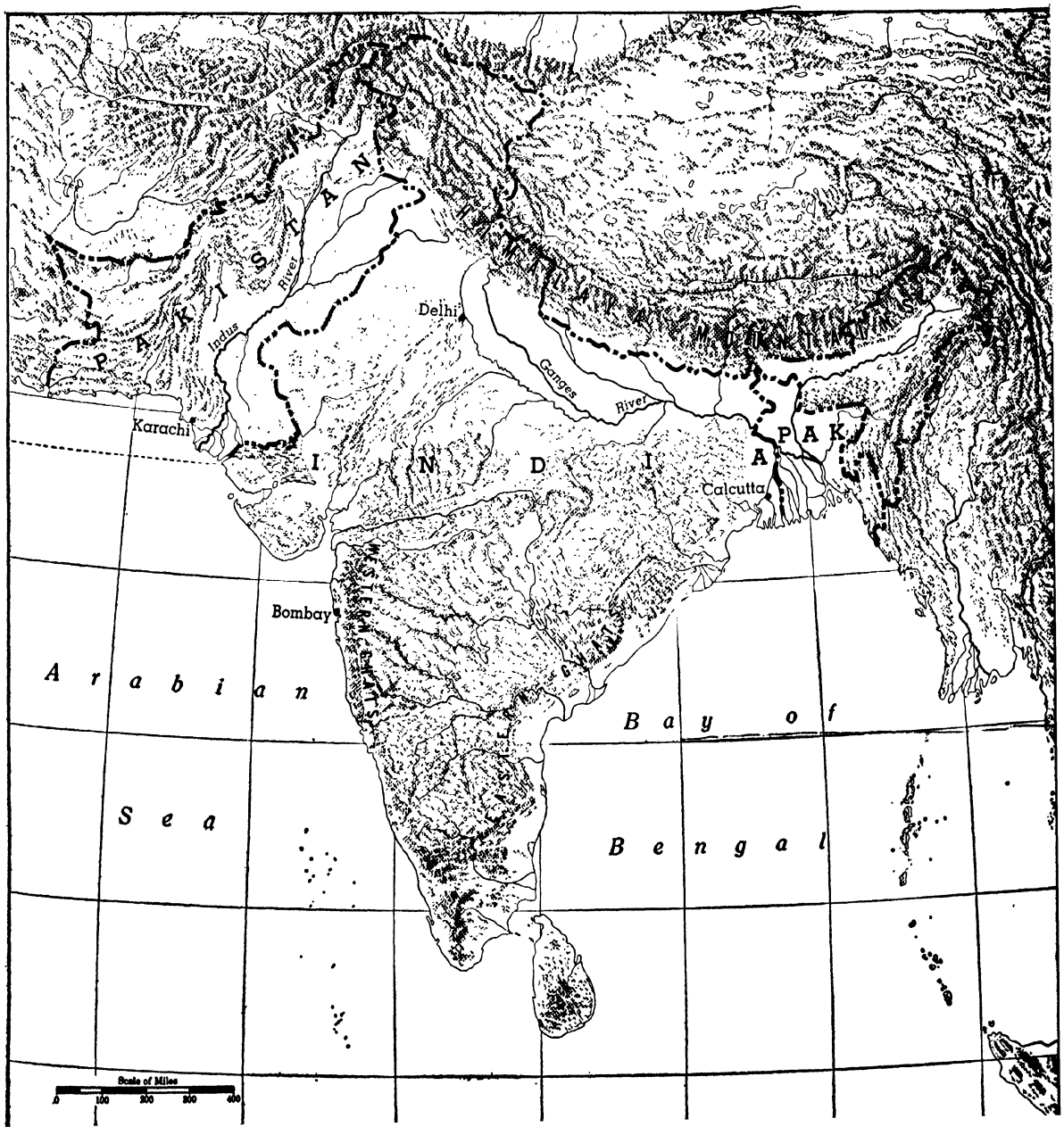
With the coming of European ships, the sea became India's most important frontier. The cheapest way to send freight for long distances is by ship. Large ships propelled by steam engines made it possible for people to send more freight more cheaply. Because of sea trade, Bombay and Calcutta grew to be the largest cities of India.

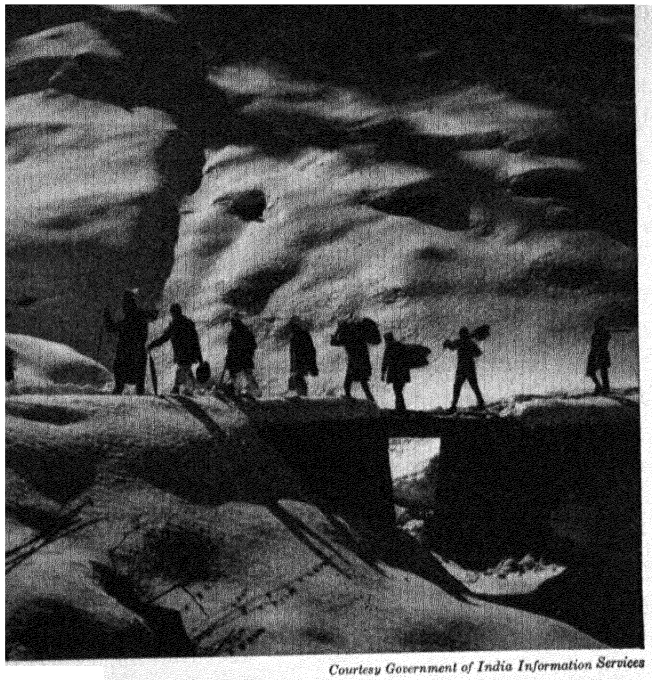
By the early nineteenth century, the Indian Ocean was almost a British lake. The

British held colonies, strategically placed, from Cape Town to Australia. The Dutch held the large and rich East Indies, but they had become dependent upon the British Navy for protection. The French and the Portuguese still had colonies, including some ports in India itself, but they no longer challenged the British. India was the keystone of an arch of territory under British rule that stretched from Africa to Australia. The British lands around the Indian Ocean made up three-fifths of the British Empire in area and included four-fifths of the people.

India now consists of two independent countries, linked together in the Commonwealth of Nations. The Indians are therefore on their own in world affairs, as they have not been for two or three centuries. But their location has not changed. They still face the greatest land mass in one direction, and world-circling oceans in the other.

See how mountains cut India off from the rest of Asia.





Courtesy Government of India Information Services

Travel is hard where the Himalayas lie in the way.

Inside India

Contrast is the word that characterizes India's physical geography. Look again at the map on page 169. There you can see the highest mountains in the world, the Himalayas, where mountaineering resembles polar exploration. The foothills of the Himalayas end in the plain built up by the Indus and Ganges rivers and their tributaries. The Indus portion of the plain is dry. The summer monsoon reaches it only after a long spiral turn across India and brings it little or no rain. The Indus, which furnishes water for irrigation, is the Nile of India, and its valley is India's Egypt. As one journeys eastward down the Ganges toward Calcutta, however, the climate becomes more humid. Calcutta, during the summer monsoon, has weather as sultry as you could find any place in the world. The Indus-Ganges Plain is crowded with people in those parts where crops can be grown either by irrigation or with nature's rain.

The southern part of India, called the peninsula by geographers, is largely a plateau. The western slopes of the plateau, known as the Western Ghats, face the full force of the summer monsoon as it comes off the Arabian Sea. The Western Ghats are very rainy, but the interior of the plateau is rather dry. Narrow coastal plains fringe the shores of the peninsula.

There are great contrasts in the people of India, too. We have seen how invaders swept into India from the dry northwest frontier. Most of these invaders were Caucasoid in race and spoke Indo-European languages. It is not surprising that in the northwestern part of India we find the people who look most like Europeans. Indo-European languages spread clear across the Indus-Ganges Plain and southward into the plateau. But in the central and southern parts of the plateau, as you can see on the map on pages 370–371, an earlier language group, the Dravidian, survives.

The invaders from the northwest brought India's two greatest religions. Hinduism, the earlier religion, spread over nearly all the subcontinent. Islam practically replaced Hinduism in the northwest and is strong in parts of the Ganges Valley. But Hinduism remains the principal religion in the plateau.

Two-thirds of the working people of India are farmers, tilling small plots of land by hand. On the whole, they do not get as high yields as do the Chinese and Japanese. One reason for this is that the people of India use less skill in fertilizing the soil. In China and Japan every scrap of fertilizer is returned to the soil. In India there are millions of cattle, but much of their dung is burned for fuel.

The crops of India vary with the climates. In the far northwest, where the winters are cool and summer rainfall is light, wheat is the main food crop. In the better-watered and warmer sections, rice takes the place of wheat. In the drier interior of the plateau the main food crop is millet, a type of cereal like the sorghums grown in parts of the United States.

The eastern coastlands.



Arctic Ocean
Laptev Sea
East Siberian Sea
Kara Sea
SOVIET UNION
ASIA
MONGOLIA
CHINA
INDIA
Pacific Ocean
Indian Ocean
Bay of Bengal
South China Sea
Philippine Sea
Sea of Okhotsk
Sea of Japan
Bering Sea
Coral Sea
Tasman Sea
AUSTRALIA
ANTARCTICA
Arctic Circle
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
Equator
International Date Line
Miller Cylindrical Projection
Antarctic Circle
THE EASTERN COASTLANDS
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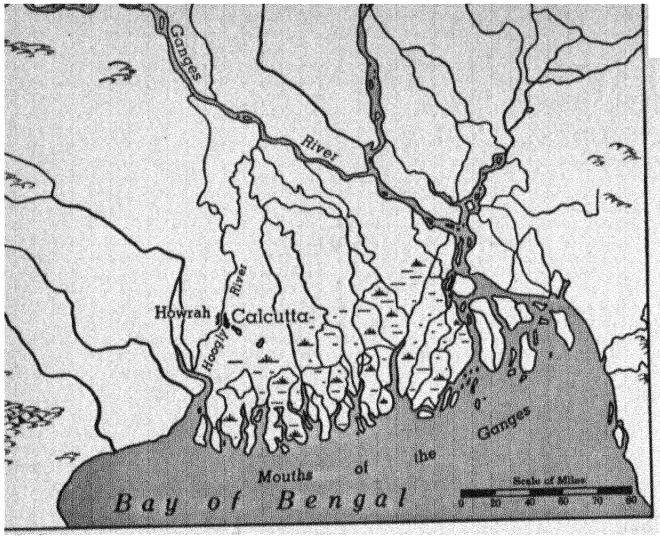


Both home and foreign trade easily reach Calcutta.

Some cities of India. Every city in the world lies at a meeting place of trade and travel routes. Nearly always these routes follow ways that nature has made easier than others. Rivers, mountain passes, arms of the sea, and other natural passageways help determine where cities will grow up. The natural riches of climate, soil, and minerals help determine how large the cities can grow.

India's largest cities are Calcutta and Bombay. Neither grew large until modern times. Both Calcutta and Bombay were small until the opening of sea trade with Europe. On the map on this page you can see that Calcutta lies near the mouths of the Ganges and is the outlet for the trade of most of northeastern India. Calcutta has a rather poor site on the Ganges Delta, but its general location is so good that it has outgrown other Indian cities. Bombay, on the map on page 171, has a fine bay for a harbor and is on an island that is swept by the summer monsoons. Its location makes it cooler than an Indian city would be expected to be. But it is somewhat difficult for Bombay to carry on trade with the interior of India. The Western Ghats lie in the way.

The key city of India, politically, is Delhi. Delhi was a capital city before the British came to India. The British for many years had their capital at Calcutta. That was natural, for Calcutta is a seaport, and it was their sea power that kept the British strong in India. But in 1912 they moved their capital to New Delhi, a spacious city near old Delhi. New Delhi is now the capital of the Republic of India. It lies on the westernmost large tributary of the Ganges River, and is, roughly speaking, near the middle of the Indus-Ganges Plain. New Delhi is also near the northernmost corner of the hills and plateaus which make up central and southern India. Thus, Delhi and its neighbor, New Delhi, while not in the center of India, can be said to have favorable locations.

Karachi, now the capital of Pakistan, has a general location somewhat like Calcutta's. It lies near the mouth of the Indus and is an outlet for the trade of the Indus Valley, as Calcutta is for the Ganges Valley. But Karachi is built on a bay, not on a river bank, as Calcutta is. Calcutta's population is three-fourths Hindu; Karachi's is strongly Moslem.

Religion and patriotism. In India there is a close connection between religion and politics. India was divided into two countries because there were two main religions. Elsewhere boundaries have sometimes been drawn to fit languages. But in India, as in Ireland and Palestine, an attempt was made to draw boundaries to fit religions.

The two main religions of India are Hinduism and Islam. Hinduism, we have already learned, is the older of the two. It is a hard religion to describe. It might even be called a group of religions. Some Hindus are very intellectual about their religion, while others are noisy and superstitious and worship idols.

It has been said that to be a Hindu, one must obey the priests, accept one's caste, and believe in the idea of karma. The first is easy to understand. Caste requires a little explanation. The four great castes are the priests (called the Brahmins), the warriors, the merchants and peasants, and

the servants. The great castes are divided into lesser castes, of which there are more than two thousand. A Hindu is born into his caste and cannot change it. He is not supposed to marry a person not belonging to his own caste.

We can understand caste better if we think back to the Middle Ages in Europe. In fact, we can understand many things about India more easily if we realize that it is a country that is just growing out of its Middle Ages. In Europe in the Middle Ages there were many well-educated people, but most of the people were uneducated and superstitious, as they are in India today. In Europe in the Middle Ages many workers belonged to guilds made up of people doing the same kind of work. A son followed the occupation of his father. Society was divided into classes. It was very difficult to rise above the class to which one was born. Caste in India resembles European society in the Middle Ages. The Hindu caste system almost certainly will break down—just as the old classes in European society broke down, and for similar reasons. These reasons are the rise of cities, the development of new kinds of work, the growth of public transportation, and increasing contacts with other parts of the world.

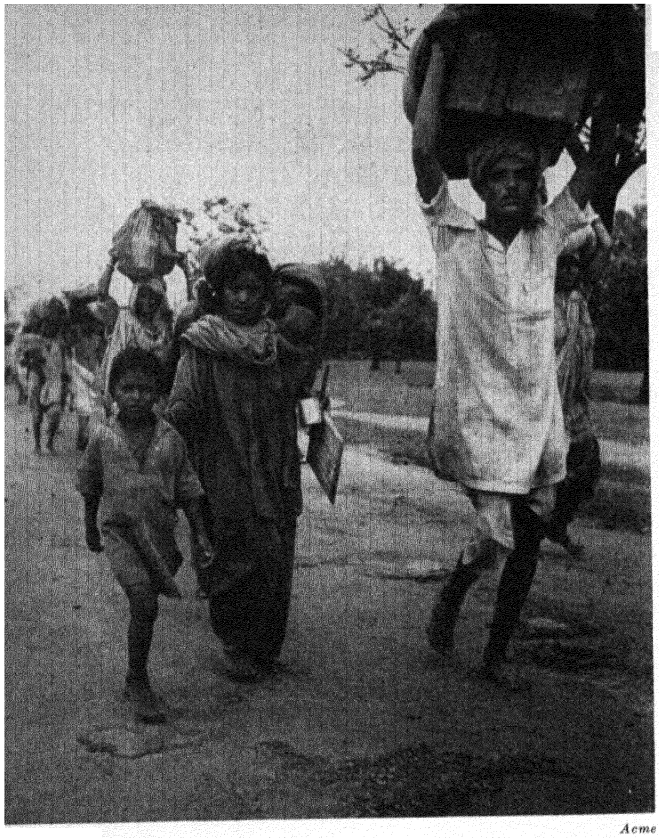
"Karma" means two things to the Hindus: the duties they must perform on earth, as members of Hindu society, and the reward of being born again if they are dutiful Hindus. The idea of karma undoubtedly has helped to make people contented with life under the caste system. They feel that though they cannot advance in this lifetime, there is hope for the next.

The second great religion of India is Islam. Islam was brought into India by invaders from the Moslem world, as you already know. There are nearly a hundred

In this community in India Hindus and Moslems get along in friendly fashion.

Dungan from Piz





Acme

Moslems who heard a band of Sikhs was coming.

million Moslems in India. Not all of them are descended from the original invaders. Many of them are Indians who were converted. Islam is a more democratic religion than Hinduism is because it has no caste system. Because of this, and because it was the religion of the conquering invaders, many Hindus were converted to it. Most of India's Moslems live in the north, in the plain of the Indus and Ganges. Two areas have particularly large numbers of Moslems. One is the Indus Valley and the surrounding territory. The other is far to the east, near Calcutta, in the province called Bengal.

There are a number of other religions in India. One which should be mentioned is Sikhism. Sikhism might be described as a rather democratic form of Hinduism. Like Islam, Sikhism has no caste system. Most of the Sikhs live in the part of India called the Punjab, which is drained by the Indus and its tributaries. The Sikhs were directly astride the new boundary between Pakistan and the Republic of India when India was partitioned. Fighting broke out between the Sikhs and their Moslem neighbors. After many lives had been lost, a hasty exchange of populations took place, and there were many hardships. Most of the Sikhs left Pakistan, and many Moslems left the Republic of India.

India Yesterday and Today

We have been talking as if India had once been a unified country, and then had been divided into two parts. This is really misleading. India has never been unified in the way the countries we live in are unified. India has been more like Europe. That is, it has consisted of a large number of pieces which sometimes have been united temporarily by conquerors.

The British were the latest of the conquerors, and under their rule India developed considerable unity. But it was never really a united country or nation, with one patriotism and one system of government.

When the Europeans first reached India, they found it a complicated patchwork of small- and medium-sized kingdoms. The Europeans fought wars and made treaties, not with India, but with individual kingdoms. They discovered that one Indian king could be persuaded to fight with them against another. It was this process of playing one Indian state against another that made it possible for a very small number of Europeans to conquer and rule vast Indian populations.

How the British ruled India. There is a well-worn saying that the British acquired India in a fit of absent-mindedness. This is not really true, of course. The British nation as a whole may have paid little attention to the conquest of India. But the men who carried out the conquest knew very well what they were doing. It was a trading company, the British East India Company, that really conquered India.

This company was founded in 1601 for trade in the Indian Ocean. At first it held only some ports in India, but later it acquired more land and conducted itself like a government. In 1773 the British government stepped in and took over part of the company's authority. By this time the conquest of India was well advanced. The company lasted until 1858, when the government took complete control of India.

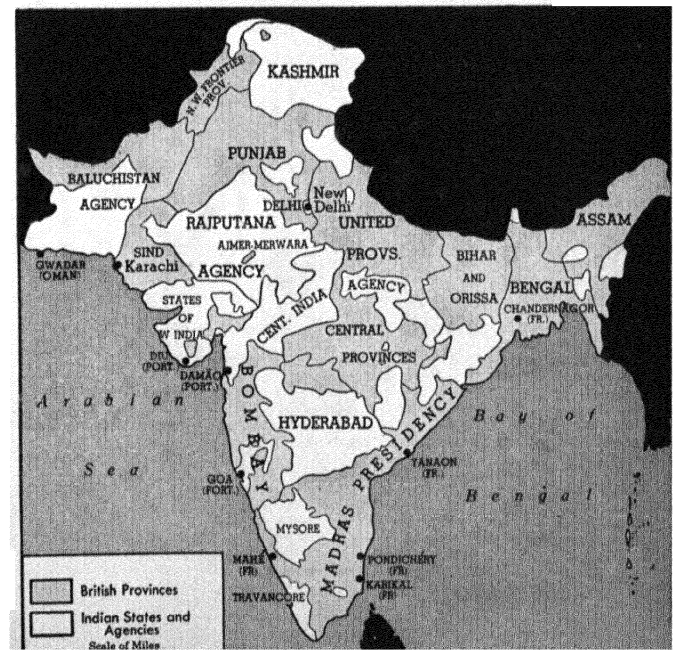
The British are famous for the varying methods they used in dealing with the different parts of their empire. The empire grew through the activities of traders, explorers, and missionaries, as well as of military men and officials. Each British colony was governed with an eye to its local peculiarities. A friendly king would be left on his throne, while an unfriendly one would be deposed. Friendly native rulers were given every honor. They kept all the pomp of their rank and were saluted like mighty monarchs. But usually there was a quiet British adviser who saw to it that the native ruler knew which side his bread was buttered on. This was called indirect rule. If the native king did not listen to this adviser, he might find himself no longer king. A rival might gain the throne, or the British might take over and rule directly.

The British methods of using direct and indirect rule in India resulted in its division into eleven provinces and many hundreds of Indian states. The provinces and native states were intermingled in a complicated pattern. Most of the great plain of the Indus and Ganges was divided into several provinces and ruled directly. The coasts of the southern peninsula were also mostly under provincial rule. But intermingled with the provinces were the native Indian states. Three-fifths of India's area and four-fifths of India's people were in provinces; the remainder, in native states. You can see this on the map at the right.

The number of native states has varied from time to time, but near the close of the period when Britain ruled there were five hundred sixty-two of them! Hyderabad, most populous native state, had sixteen million people. Some of the five hundred sixty-two states were of "postage-stamp size"—each covering an area of a square mile or two, holding a few hundred people, with revenues of a few dollars a year. Under the present new Indian governments, the number of native states is being reduced.

The British ruled the nearly four hundred million Indians with about a hundred thousand British officials and military men. This means that there was one British person for every four thousand Indians. How could so few rule so many? We have already seen that one Indian ruler could be turned against another, and that is part of the story. The surviving Indian kings owed their survival to British favor. In addition to the friendly native rulers, there were thousands of ordinary Indians who were ready to serve the British. The staff of the government was partly made up of many Indians. At first they held somewhat unimportant positions, such as clerkships. Later they worked at the very highest levels. The army enlisted thousands of Indians. In time, the officer ranks were opened to Indians, and some Indians rose

India in 1947, before two countries were formed.



to be generals. But the mass of the Indian people was kept completely disarmed. Arrests with little regard for what we call civil liberties were made if the people became unruly. Thus the British ruled India, by using Indians to rule each other and by resorting to direct force when necessary.

The bright side of British rule. The British East India Company existed primarily to make profits for its owners, so it is hardly surprising that it did very little for the good of the Indians. After the company was deposed, India was ruled by the British government for nearly ninety years. In those years, the British had a varied record. They did some things which helped and some things which harmed India. Let us try to tally the score, roughly.

One of the good things to come out of British rule was the reduction in the number of famines. In spite of a great increase in India's population, the food supply was also increased. The distribution of food to famine regions was greatly improved. Under British rule, India was provided with a network of railroads which excels that of any other Asiatic country except Japan. Thus the likelihood that people would starve in one province while food accumulated in another was cut down. Great irrigation projects were carried out, and part of the increasing population was provided with land.

The British brought a greater degree of internal peace and law and order to India than it had known for centuries. It is true that the government was not democratic, yet it was no more despotic than the native governments which had gone before. The British introduced modern education. This was partly for selfish reasons– the British rulers and businessmen needed educated clerks—but such education helped modernize Indian thinking. The language used in the schools was English; the ability to read a western language led Indians to study western books. So ideas of freedom and democracy found an entrance to India.

The British government used this method of relieving an Indian famine in Bengal.

Courtesy British Information Service



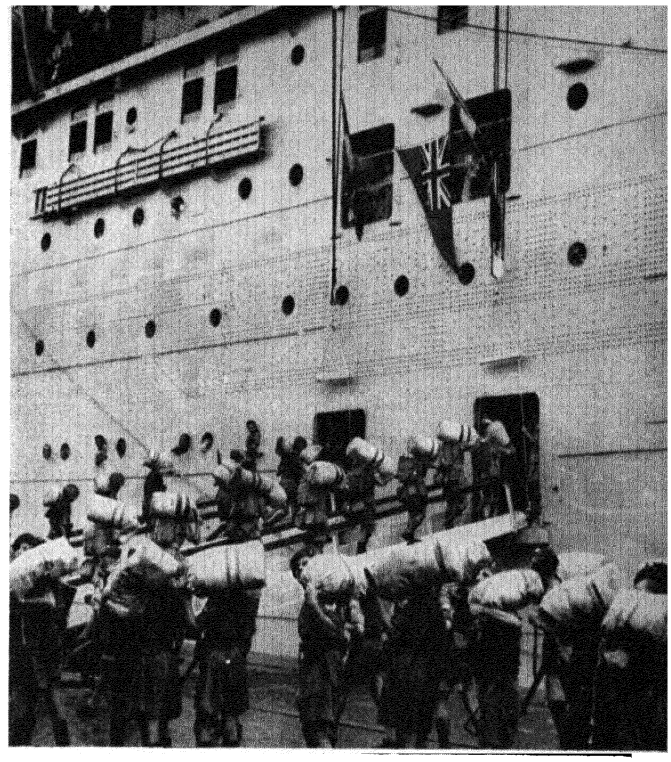
The British trained a modern army– for their own purposes and at India's expense, to be sure. But this army provided India with disciplined, modern forces. The Indians who held positions in the British government gained experience which has been useful to India. Under constant pressure from Indians, the British introduced little by little the forms of democratic government. Although the British always kept a veto in reserve, they *did* allow Indians to learn about voting, parliamentary procedures, and the responsibilities of public office. And, finally, the British left India peacefully. India gained independence without a revolution.

The dark side of British rule. How about the other side of British rule? There are certainly many black pages. There were many arrests and widespread use of police forces. Democratic reforms came very late. Education was for the few rather than the many. And when the new governments of Pakistan and the Republic of India were formed, most of the citizens were illiterate. It is difficult enough to keep democratic government going when nearly everyone can read and write.

All this adds up to saying that the British rulers of India were not supermen. They saw in India a chance for profitable trade, and it was this aim that determined many of their actions. They delayed giving independence to India, and finally granted it only under pressure from the Indians. But it is doubtful whether any other people would have left a better record than the British, and many might have been still more harsh. Perhaps the best lesson we can draw is that it is very difficult if not impossible for one country to rule another country successfully.

E pluribus duo. We have learned the following things about the political geography of India:

First, India is a subcontinent like Europe. In languages and religions it is even more complicated than Europe. Europe is divided into many countries. India has been held together by British rule in recent centuries. Partly because of the long period of British rule, India now stands as only two countries—"two out of many"—not as a patchwork quilt of many native kingdoms.



Courtesy Government of India Information Services

Independent India said good-by to British troops.

Second, the boundaries of the two new countries in India were determined mainly by religion. While Moslems and Hindus are found living together over much of India, there are two main areas where Moslems are most numerous. One is in the northwest, in the region of the Indus. The other is in the northeast, in the province of Bengal. These two regions, more than a thousand miles apart as the airplane flies, form the two parts of Pakistan.

Indians dreamed of independence from Britain for many years. The chief organization working for independence was the Indian National Congress. This congress was founded many years ago as a sort of forum, or convention, where India's problems could be discussed. The congress finally became a political party devoted to the idea

of self-government. It is not a branch of the government like the American Congress.

The desire for self-government led a great many kinds of people to join the Congress party. There were wealthy businessmen who wanted to be free from British economic ties. There were men like Nehru, who wished to develop India for the benefit of the mass of poor people. There was Gandhi, who would have liked to turn away from factories and restore the native handicrafts of the people.

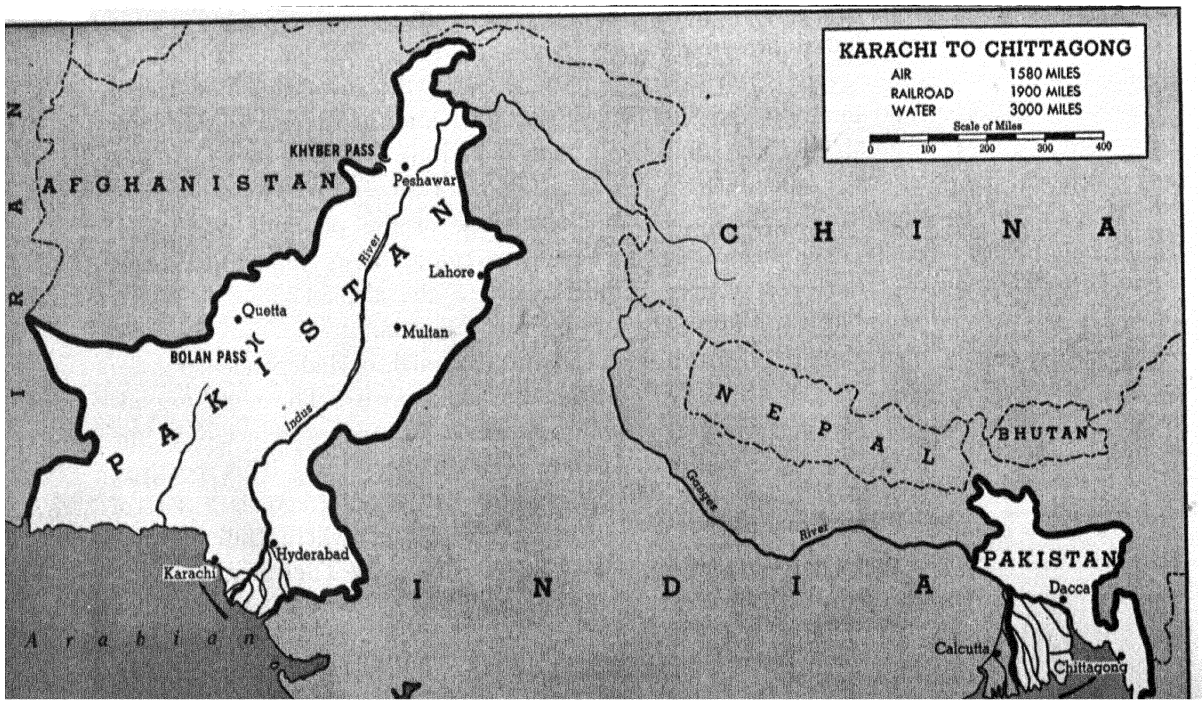
Gandhi was an extreme pacifist—a person opposed to fighting and war. His method of peaceful resistance was well adapted to conditions in India. The Indian people were unarmed and so were sure to suffer if violence broke out and troops were used. But by breaking laws, then submitting quietly to their arrest, the followers of Gandhi could greatly embarrass the British government. There were far too many Indians for all of them to be put in jail. Though the British did imprison some Congress leaders, in the long run the leaders were freed and became founders of the Republic of India.

The Congress party included followers of all the main religions. Some of its presidents were Moslems. But the majority of its members were Hindus. Many Moslems feared that once self-government was gained, the Hindus would control the country. So there grew up a rival party called the Moslem League. Its main aim was the partition of India into two countries, one to be called Pakistan, where Moslems would dominate. It was impossible to divide India so that all Moslems could be in Pakistan and all Hindus in the other part.

Pakistan is one of the most peculiar countries in the world. The western part is larger in area and has a higher proportion of Moslems than the eastern part. Its seaport, Karachi, is the capital of Pakistan. But the eastern part, in Bengal, actually has more people than west Pakistan. The people of east Pakistan are about fifteen hundred miles by air from their capital, Karachi, and more than three thousand miles by sea. The figures on the map below tell us about the great size of India as well as about the immense gap in distance between the two parts of Pakistan.

Not only is east Pakistan fifteen hundred miles from Karachi, but also it has no large

Pakistan, a nation split in two. What problems might such a split cause?



cities of its own. The chief city of Bengal is Calcutta, in which Hindus are much more numerous than Moslems. Calcutta, moreover, is the port for the Ganges Valley, which is in the Republic of India. For these reasons, Calcutta and its surroundings were cut out of east Pakistan and left with the Republic of India.

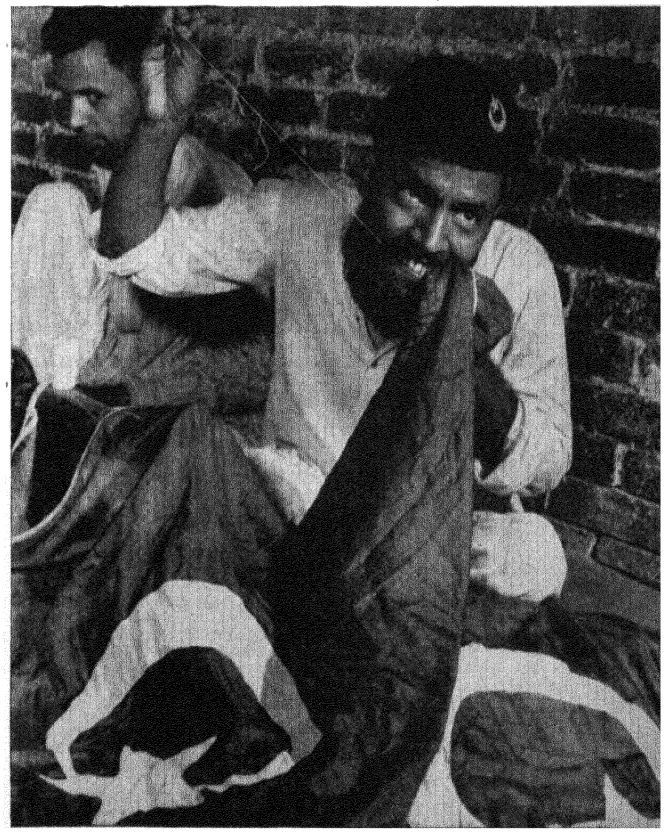
If the Hindus and the Moslems had lived in sharply divided parts of India, partition into two countries would have been relatively easy. Unfortunately, in many parts of India the two religious groups are intermingled. Hindus and Moslems live in the same villages. The mixing is so great that the division into two countries had to be a rough operation. When the partition was made, there was a great deal of rioting and bloodshed in the mixed areas. Many Moslems fled from the Republic of India, and many Sikhs and Hindus fled from Pakistan. But there still are millions of Moslems and non-Moslems living near each other in the same community. Religious toleration is therefore necessary if the people of the new countries are to live together in peace.

The whole story seems somewhat like the one about Solomon and the two women who claimed one child. Solomon, you may remember, ordered the baby cut in two. If you don't know what happened next, see the Old Testament, I Kings 3:16–28. In the case of India, neither claimant would give in and the cut was made. Countries, fortunately, are not so delicate as human bodies. The two countries probably will survive their operation. It is to be hoped that they can get along with each other peaceably, as close neighbors.

The New Countries Face the Future

The greatest problem the new Indian governments must face does not arise from religion or from partition, nor is it the result of British misrule. It is the problem of a dense and rapidly increasing population.





A couple of modern Betsy Rosses. Above, a new flag for the Republic of India; below, for Pakistan.

Photos by LIFE *Photographer David Douglas Duncan* © TIME, *Inc.*

What the census shows. When the first census was taken in India, in 1872, the count totaled a little more than 200,000,000. The census of 1941 showed a population of 390,000,000. Part of this increase is due to more complete counting in 1941, but most of it is a real increase. In recent years India's population has been growing at a rate of five million a year. This growth is faster than that of the Soviet Union; and India is already very crowded, while the Soviet population still has space in which to expand.

In much of Monsoon Asia population increase is raising serious problems. The rapidly growing populations are making it difficult to raise standards of living. And only by raising its living standards can a backward country become a really great modern nation.

One may think that the solution is for many Indians to leave their crowded countries for less densely populated lands. But migration does not seem to be the way out. For one thing, most countries to which Indians might go have immigration laws which limit the number of people let in. Even if this were not the case, the problems of migration would be unbelievably great. The population of India is growing at the rate of fourteen or fifteen thousand a *day!* For this many people to leave India each day, it would be necessary for a ship the size of the *Queen Elizabeth* to sail from an Indian port every day. And the ship would have to be jammed as the *Queen Elizabeth* was when carrying troops during World War II. Who would pay the immense costs not only of transportation but also of settlement in the new land? Migration could help only a little in relieving population pressure in India. When we think of the similar problems of other parts of Monsoon Asia, it seems clear that some other solution must be found.

In Europe, the Americas, and the Soviet Union, another kind of migration has provided opportunities for many millions of people. This has been migration to the growing cities. The proportion of people living on farms has decreased. In the United States today, only about one out of every six of the workers is a farmer or farm worker. Pioneering on new lands has practically stopped. The cities have been the frontiers for people who have left the farms. A single American city, New York, is the home of about one out of every nineteen Americans. Montreal is the home of about one out of fifteen Canadians, and about one-sixth of all the people of Great Britain live in London.

Perhaps the migration of people to the cities does a country harm as well as good. A prosperous farm population gives stability to a nation. But the peasants of India are certainly not a prosperous farm population. They are desperately poor. If industries could be developed which would employ many millions of them and which would produce goods India needs, both the factory workers and the remaining peasants might be more prosperous. At first there probably would be an increase in the population, for there would be better sanitation in the cities and so fewer deaths. But in time the rate of increase might fall off. City people marry later and have fewer children, generally, than rural people.

Improvement in Indian farming is possible, too. There is not a great deal of new land to be found, but the land now in use could produce more food. Better fertilization, better livestock, and better seeds—these and other things might give India more to eat. Indian agriculture is like that of Europe two or three centuries ago. But if the population continues to grow at its present rate, all the improvements that are made will be swallowed up without raising living standards very much.

Does manufacturing always raise living standards? Factories provide such a great variety of desirable things for us in this country that we are likely to feel that they automatically raise the standard of living.

But no factory has yet produced the most fundamental of our needs—food. Factories will not raise the standard of living very much if the first essential of good living—wholesome and abundant food—is not available from the farms. What factories can do to increase the production of food is to turn out tractors, plows, and chemical fertilizers for use on the land.

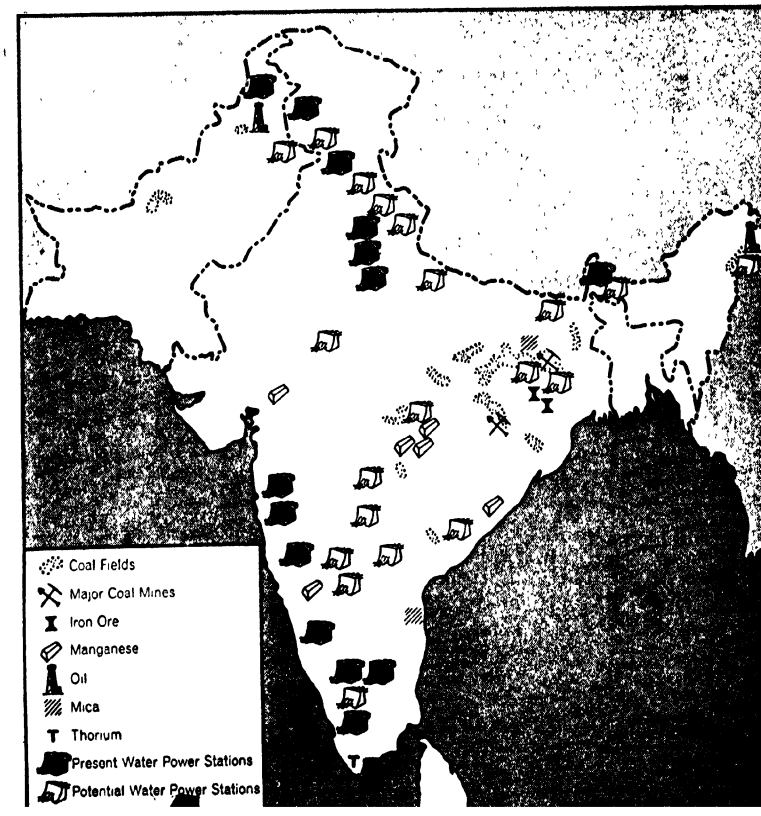
Nor will factories raise the living standard very much if they are operated at starvation wages. It would not help the people very much, if at all, to turn India into a gigantic sweatshop. The people might just about as well remain struggling peasants. There is great danger in countries like India, China, and Japan that labor will be paid just enough to live on. Nevertheless, even in India there are some labor laws and labor organizations. It may be a long time, though, before American ideas about what a worker ought to be paid are common in Monsoon Asia.

There are other reasons why manufacturing may fail to raise the standard of living in a country. Manufacturing may not do so if a country has to borrow so much money from foreign countries to get factories started that the interest payments are a constant drain. Manufacturing may not raise living standards if all the profits from it are spent abroad. Manufacturing will not raise the standard of living if it operates behind tariff walls so sky-high that a domestic product costs several times what a similar product could be sold for if imported. Nevertheless, in spite of all these limitations, it is likely that there will be a rise in living standards as Monsoon Asia becomes more industrialized.

Industries in India. Have the two Indian countries the resources for the development of big industries? The answer seems to be that the larger, the Republic of India, does have resources which will support much manufacturing. Pakistan is poorer in industrial resources than the Republic—unless some new discoveries are made there. Look carefully at the map at the bottom of this page.

In the first chapter of this book we learned that one key to industrial strength is the use of mechanical energy. How do the two countries stand in resources which yield mechanical energy? Coal is moderately abundant in the Republic of India; Pakistan has only a little coal. The total amount for both countries may be ninety billion tons, which sounds like a great deal. And it is more coal than exists in some countries that have built up important manufacturing industries, including Japan, France, and Australia. It is very much less coal than there is in the United States or the Soviet Union, or in Canada, Germany, or China. So far as we now know, there is not much oil in either part of India. Both countries have a little oil, and of course they are

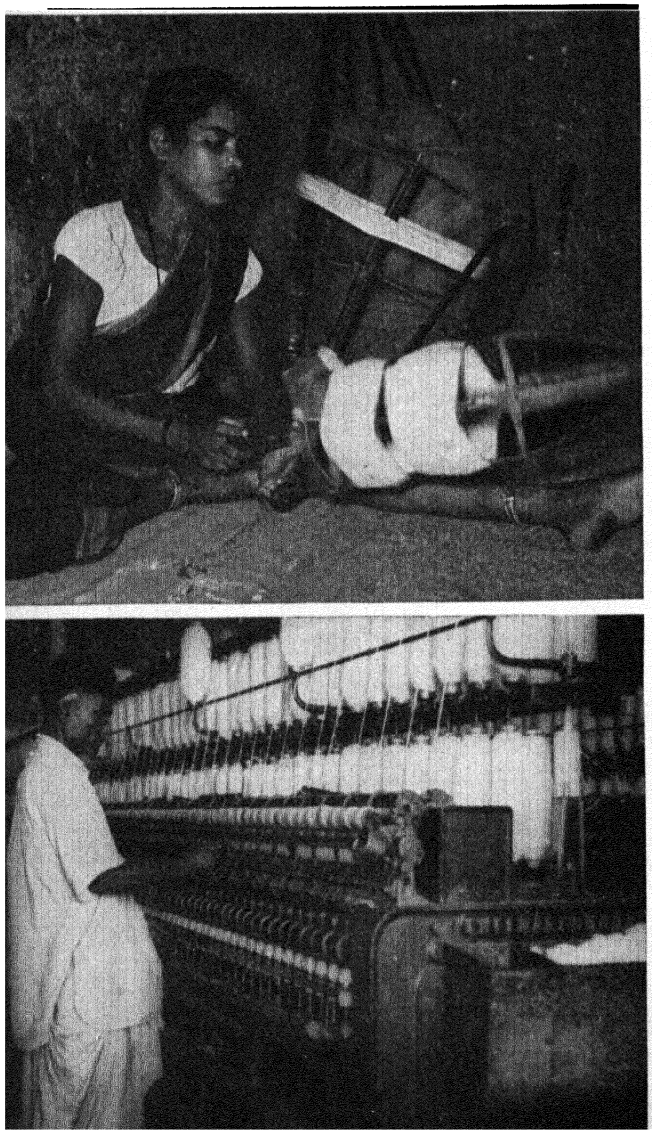
Resources of the Republic of India and Pakistan.



close to the mammoth fields around the Persian Gulf. Water power will be abundant when the rivers in India are harnessed. The rushing rivers of the Himalayas, if dammed, could furnish electric current for the cities of the Punjab and the Ganges Plain. Near India's southern tip is a native state called Travancore, in which the largest known deposits of thorium are found. Thorium and uranium are two important sources of atomic energy. There is said to be more energy stored in the thorium of Travancore than in all the oil fields of the United States.

Home spinning and factory spinning in India.

Photos by Dungan from Pix



The subcontinent of India is rich in one vital industrial material, iron ore. In fact, India is a world leader in iron reserves. The biggest iron deposits are in the Republic of India. In the hills west of Calcutta, in the northeastern corner of the great plateau, Indian industrialists have erected a gigantic iron and steel plant. Both coal and iron are found in this region. Before the iron and steel industry came, it was one of the most primitive parts of India and the home of forest tribes. The Indian plateau also produces manganese, most important of the metals that are mixed with steel. And India leads in the production of sheet mica, a valuable electrical insulation.

India has agricultural raw materials, also. Both countries of India are big cotton producers, although most of the Indian cotton crop has shorter fibers and is of lower grade than that of Egypt or the United States. Cotton spinning and weaving, both by hand and by machines, are important industries in India. India also produces jute, rubber, coconut and other vegetable oils, and leather, though up to the present most of these have been exported and have not been used in India.

But industry requires more than resources and raw materials. Labor, capital, and markets are necessary. Both parts of India have millions of workers. Workers who are skilled are quite scarce. Still scarcer are men with professional knowledge—engineers, chemists, and the like. University education in India in the past has produced more men fitted for law or politics than for the building and operating of factories. This lack of skilled people is a handicap, but it can be overcome. Skills spread rapidly when there is an opportunity to learn and to use them.

Both parts of India are poor countries now. There are a few rich rulers and rich families, but most of the people have barely enough to live on with no extra money to save and invest. The poverty of India's

people hits Indian industry in two ways. First, there is not as much capital for the founding of industries and businesses as there would be in a richer country. Second, the individual Indian has a purchasing power of only a few dollars a year. India, like China, has four hundred million customers, but most of them can buy only necessities, like cloth and a few low-priced bits of merchandise.

But there is in India a good market for such things as rails, railroad cars, steel beams, nails, hardware, light bulbs, other simple electrical goods, and building materials like cement. Really cheap radios and bicycles would find many buyers. Though not many Indians can buy the more expensive things now, the number of the people who can will almost certainly increase.



Ewing Galloway

A hardware dealer is all smiles. Business is good.

Foreign trade for India. Let's look back along the road of thought we have been traveling: We have found out that industrialization will help the Indian countries to become stronger nations, better able to stay independent in a troubled world. We've learned, also, that industrialization may help the Indian countries raise the standard of living of their people and perhaps help solve their population problems. We've seen that the Republic of India has substantial resources for industry but that Pakistan is not nearly so rich as the Republic, though it has water power and cotton and jute. We have found out, too, that both parts of India are still rather poor in capital and skilled labor and that the poverty of the people cuts down the domestic market for manufactured goods. But India, at the time it was divided, was one of the ten leading industrial countries.

The Indian countries also are important in trade. Up to the present, they have sold chiefly raw materials. One of these is jute, from which gunny sacks are made. Jute fiber comes from the inner bark of a shrub. The Ganges Delta leads the world in the production of jute fiber, and most of the jute land is in east Pakistan. The Indians are the greatest exporters of tea in the world, and they sell millions of hides from their herds of cattle. Some of their cotton reaches world markets, and most of their mica and manganese is exported.

As the Indian countries grow more industrialized, their need to trade will not necessarily decrease. In fact, industrial India may import and export more goods and more kinds of goods than at present. India has long bought rice from Burma and will buy more and more petroleum from the Middle East. Specialized machinery will be needed for Indian factories. In order to pay for such imports, the Indians must export more of their own goods. In addition to its traditional exports, such as jute, tea, and leather, an industrialized India may be able to sell manufactured goods in the lands that neighbor it around the Indian Ocean.

Trade can never be like travel on a one-way street. Goods must move both ways. To sell goods for money is not the real purpose of trade. The real purpose of trade is to exchange goods for goods, or goods for service of various kinds, so that people

get what they want and give what they do not need. Money is just a means of making trade more convenient. The baker could pay for his newspaper by giving the newsboy a bun, but it is easier to give him a nickel. Besides, the newsboy might not want a bun; he might want a chocolate bar. So, in world trade, America may want Indian jute and mica, but India may want oil from Iran, not American goods, and Iran may want American tires and typewriters. Such a three-way swap would be hard to arrange without the convenience of banking systems, money, and credit.

If a country continually exports more than it imports, and if it does not balance things by spending money abroad, two things happen. In the first place, the country that has a continued surplus of exports collects gold. For example, the United States has been receiving gold from most of the countries of the world. But the United States does not need more gold. The gold can only be buried in a heavily guarded spot in Kentucky. In the second place, and even more serious, trade will begin to shrink. Foreign countries can no longer buy. Trade—the swapping of goods so that everyone has more of what he needs—breaks down.

America and India. People who live in lands where the standard of living is high, where there is personal freedom, and where wars have not destroyed property are fortunate. They are likely to shrug off the plight of others who are less fortunate. They are likely to say, "We ought to do something about it," but the comforts of life make it easy to forget. But the more fortunate people have a great stake in the future of those who are less fortunate. History shows that selfish countries have often lost out, partially or completely.

World affairs cannot be very stable if the world is permanently divided into two parts—one consisting of the comfortably well-off people, the other of miserably poor people. The poor and crowded people are



Shoemaker in the Chicago Daily News *(Adapted)*

On his own!

not likely to blame themselves for their misfortunes. They are more likely to envy those better off. It is, therefore, of the greatest interest to the relatively comfortable people of North America that the billion people of Monsoon Asia gain higher living standards. It is extremely important to American peoples that Asiatic peoples preserve and increase their freedoms. Democracy does not flourish in poverty.

Geographically, too, the people of North America cannot avoid taking an interest in the future of the Indian countries. When India was under British rule, its strategic location and its resources were at the command of the British government. Now, the two Indian countries run their own affairs. They can choose their friends. They can remain neutral in a war. So however we look at it—with an idealistic hope that all the people of the world can live better, or with a hard-boiled view of geography and strategy—we come to the conclusion that North America has an interest in India.

What can we do about the problems of India? To stimulate trade would be highly

desirable. Education of Indians, in practical subjects like engineering and in the ideals of democracy, may be very valuable. Investment in Indian industry, if it is done without pumping wealth out of the Indian countries, will help. Direct relief in times of food shortage may be necessary. Perhaps the most important thing of all is to support the Indian governments in world affairs, if they need support to preserve the independence they sought for so long. We need to remind ourselves that in the speedy modern world the Indian countries are no longer remote from us, even though they are on the other side of the earth. There are airplanes already in existence that can fly from New York or Montreal to Delhi or Karachi nonstop.

SOUTHEAST ASIA: A MIXING BOWL

Southeast Asia is a rich, green salad mixed in a finely carved bowl. It is a region of mountains and valleys. The mountains squeeze heavy rainfall out of the summer monsoon, and, where winter winds blow across water, out of the winter monsoon, too. So it's a land of green mountains. The valleys where people have settled produce two or even three rice crops a year.

Southeast Asia is a human and cultural mixing bowl. The principal race is the Mongoloid, but there are also Caucasoid peoples in Southeast Asia, and in some remote mountains there are peoples of Negroid race. The languages of India and China have mixed in that part of the world, just as Indian and Chinese cultures mixed there. The main religions are Buddhism,

The green countryside of Southeast Asia stretches out in valleys, hills, and mountains.

Deane Dickason from Ewing Galloway

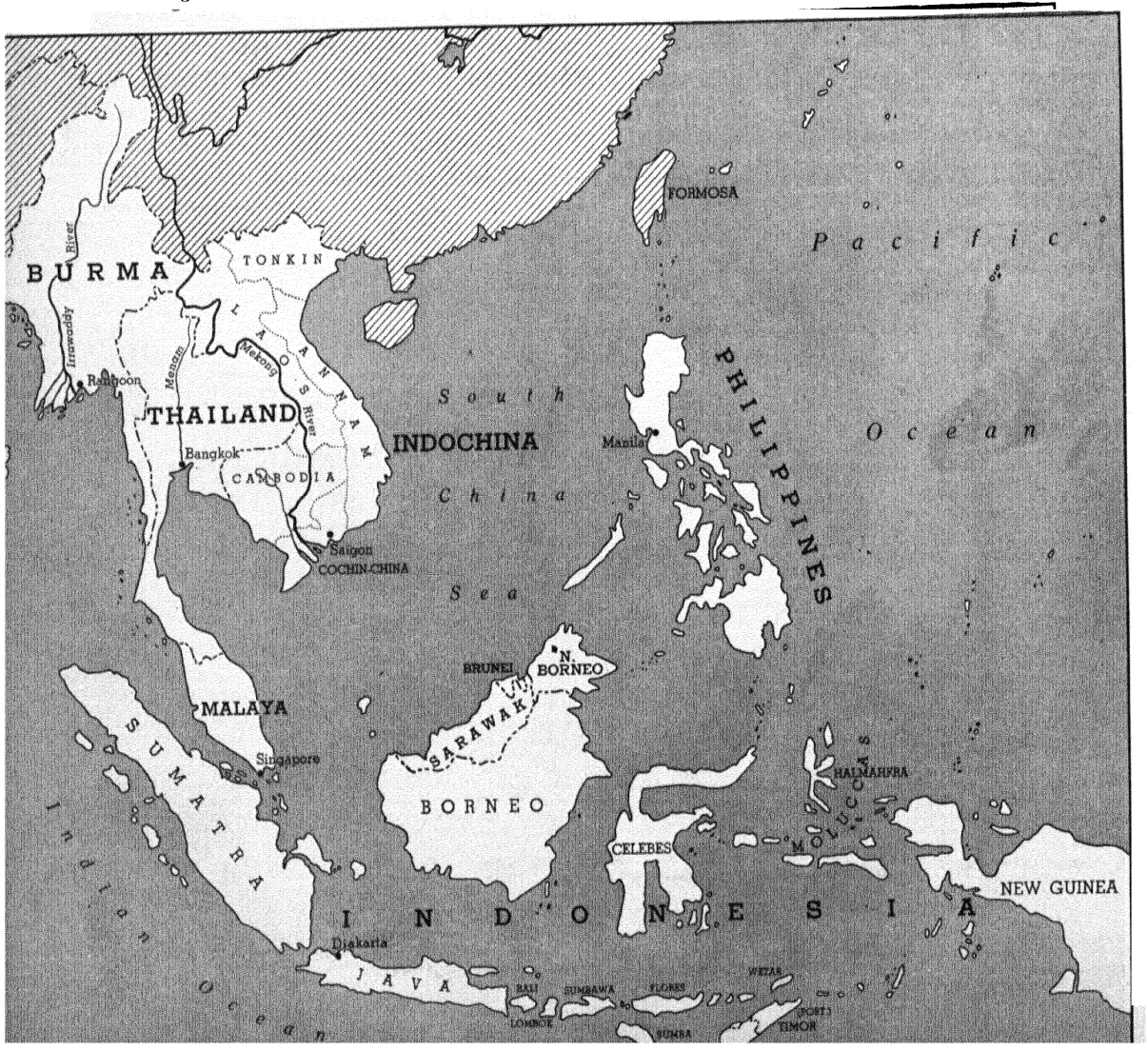


on the Asiatic mainland, and Islam, on the Malay Peninsula and the East Indian islands. The Filipinos were mostly converted to the religion of the Roman Catholics by the Spaniards. Their nation is the only one in all Monsoon Asia where the people are chiefly Christian. The maps on pages 370–371, 374–375, and 378–379 show the extent of all these mixtures.

Southeast Asia could be called a mixing bowl for another reason. It is the place where the ambitions of nations have mixed. In ancient times, the rulers of China and India tried to get possession of this land. Later, Arabic traders entered Southeast Asia, seizing outposts at strategic points. Then came the Europeans—first Portuguese and Spanish, then Dutch, British, and French. Much later, Americans replaced Spaniards in the Philippine Islands. Finally, for a few years during World War II, the Japanese occupied the whole region of Southeast Asia. Only Siam escaped European rule, and even Siam had to submit to Japanese occupation in World War II.

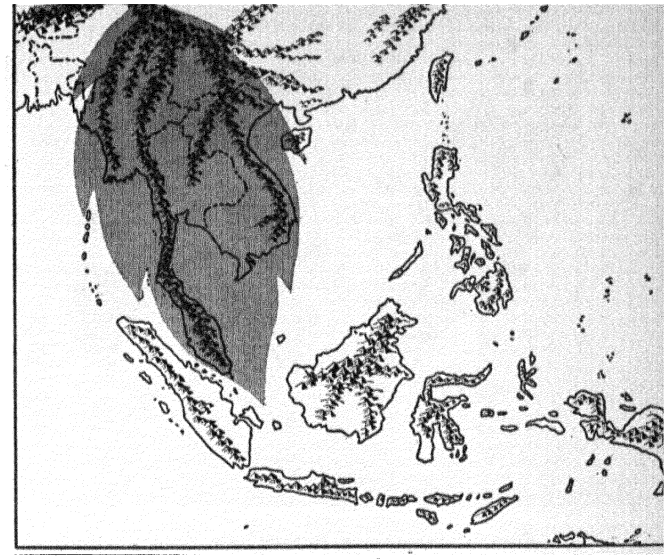
But the control of the countries of Southeast Asia by outsiders is coming to an end. Burma and Indonesia are now independent, Thailand (Siam) is free. The Philippines became an independent republic July 4, 1946. In other colonies, greater degrees of self-rule are being sought and obtained.

The region called Southeast Asia. Some boundary changes in Indochina are described on page 195.



The Carved Leaf

We compared the natural features of Southeast Asia to a carved mixing bowl. We can carry the thought farther and say that the pattern carved on the bowl is a leaf. The leaf hangs downward, as you can see on the map on this page. The stem is the knot of mountains in the part of Asia where India, Burma, and China come together. Spreading out southward from this stem are the ribs of the leaf—the mountains that divide Southeast Asia into its major parts. Continuing southward, these mountains form the slender Malay Peninsula and the many islands of the East Indies. As you read the following paragraphs, refer to the map on this page along with the one on page 186.



Mountains make ribs in Southeast Asia.

Mountains. The first rib of the leaf, starting from the west, is the mountain system that divides India from Burma. The basin to the east, drained chiefly by the Irrawaddy River, is the heart of Burma. The Irrawaddy, "from Rangoon to Mandalay," as the song runs, is Burma's chief artery.

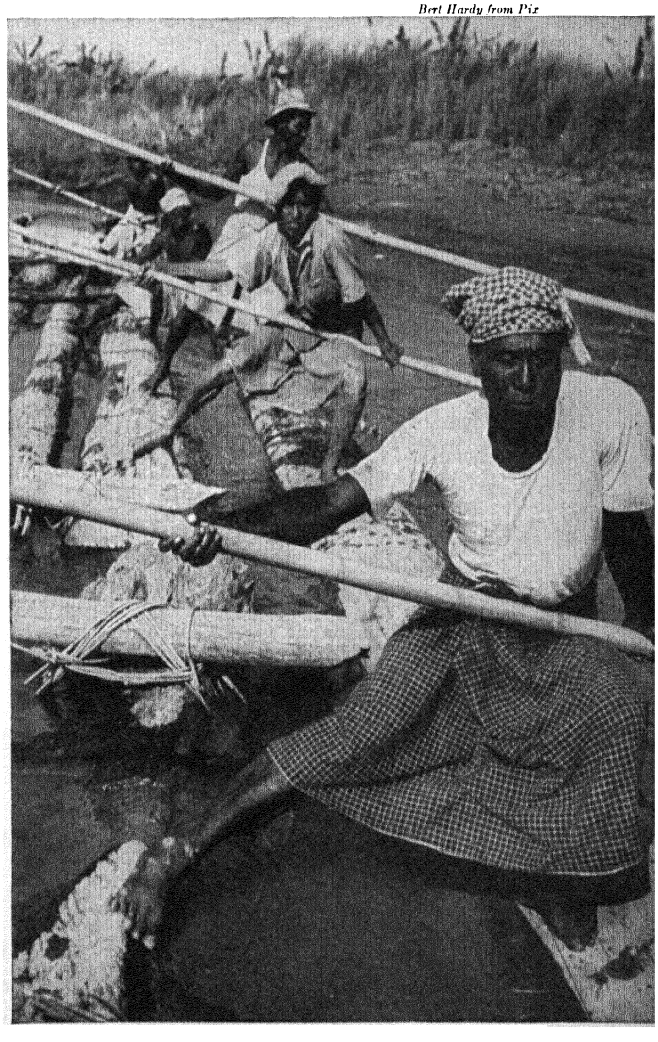
Other mountain ribs lie along the border of Burma and China and extend into northern Thailand. The core of Thailand is a basin drained by a river commonly called Menam—a name that simply means "river."

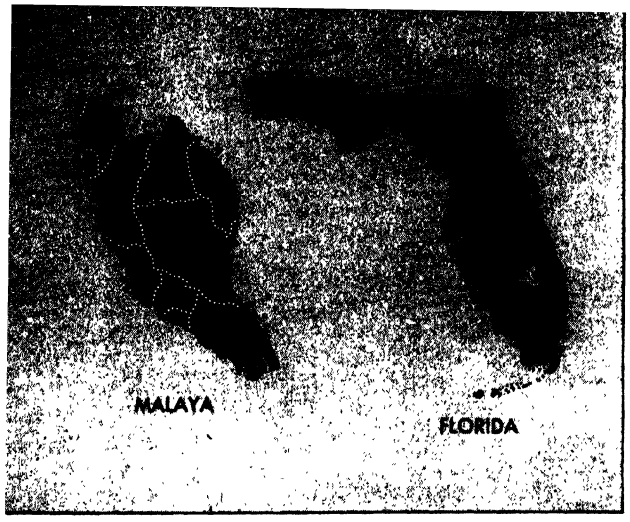
Another mountain rib runs down the center of Indochina. West of this rib is Southeast Asia's greatest river, the Mekong. The Mekong rises in Tibet and flows for many miles through western China before it enters Southeast Asia. Its basin is divided between Thailand and Indochina. Such a division is a source of trouble, because Thailand claims territory that is now held by Indochina.

Peninsula and islands. The low mountains of the Burma-Thailand border extend south to form the Malay Peninsula. The southern part of this peninsula belongs to the Federation of Malaya, which is about

Burmese muscle moving timber down the Irrawaddy.

Bert Hardy from Pix





About the same size, but see how Malaya is divided.

the size and shape of Florida. The Federation of Malaya consists of eleven political units and is now an independent nation. At the tip of the Malay Peninsula is the island of Singapore, separated from mainland Asia only by a narrow strait. Singapore is one of the British colonies.

The islands of Southeast Asia form the largest group of islands in the world. If we include as part of their area the seas and channels between them, these islands occupy more of the globe than does the United States. Some of the single islands are very large. Sumatra is larger than California. Borneo is larger than Texas. New Guinea is larger than Texas and Oklahoma combined. Politically, this island realm falls into five portions. Some of it is under Dutch rule. The Philippines and Indonesia are independent republics. The northern coast of Borneo is British, and eastern New Guinea is Australian. Portugal holds two bits of land on the island of Timor.

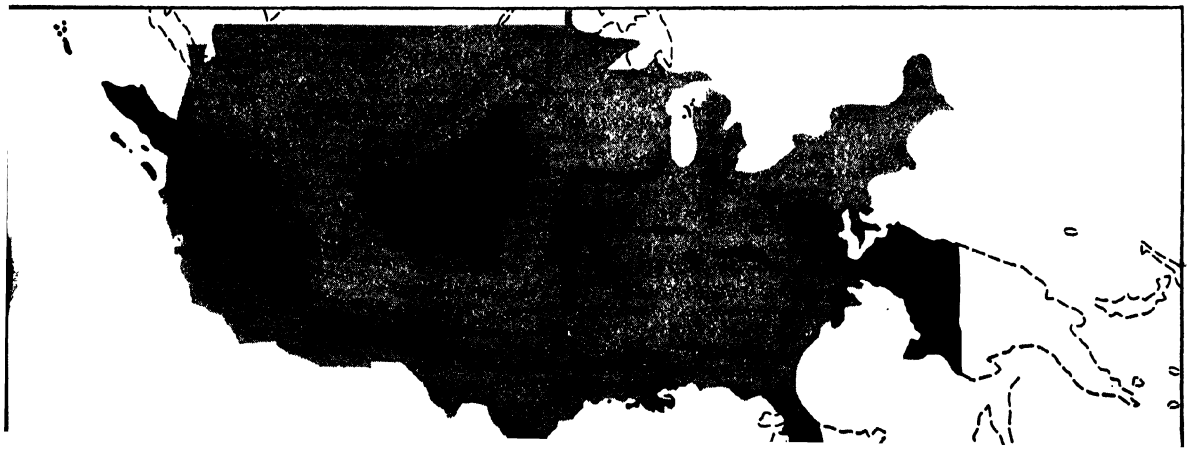
Goal and Barrier

Southeast Asia has played two parts in world affairs. Because of its agricultural and mineral wealth, it has been a goal both for migrating peoples and for expanding empires. But it has also been a barrier, separating India from China and the Indian Ocean from the Pacific.

Invaders and influences. The early invaders of Southeast Asia were more interested in its agricultural possibilities than in its minerals. They saw in its fertile lowlands an opportunity to cultivate rice and to support growing populations. Rice is the staff of life in most parts of Southeast Asia. Bountiful crops of this food are raised in the warm climate of this region. Some of the countries of Southeast Asia—Burma, Thailand, Indochina—normally produce a surplus of rice over their own needs, which is unusual in Monsoon Asia.

In the period of history before the Europeans came, some of the strongest influences on Southeast Asia came from India.

The islands of Indonesia spread east and west over more space than forty-eight of our states do.



Among these influences were both Buddhism and Hinduism. Buddhism is still the chief religion of the mainland—Thailand, Burma, and Indochina. Hinduism survives on Bali, in the East Indies. Indian rulers built palaces and temples in Southeast Asia. The best known are the ruins at Angkor, in Indochina.

From the north, or Chinese, side came other influences. For example, the chief race in Southeast Asia is the Mongoloid. The languages of Burma and Siam contain some Indian words, but both languages belong to the same language group as Chinese—the Sino-Tibetan. Some Chinese emperors received tribute from the kings of Southeast Asia.

In modern times India and China have again "invaded" Southeast Asia. Millions of Indians and Chinese live there—some as merchants, others as laborers. Some have gone to the cities to engage in trade, for the native peoples of Southeast Asia are not very keen at business. Others work in the tin mines and on rubber plantations. The Indians are mostly in Burma and Malaya. The Chinese in Southeast Asia number seven or eight millions. In Malaya they make up about half the population. In the city of Singapore there are more people in the Chinese group than in any other. The Chinese are numerous also in the Philippines, Indochina, Thailand, and the East Indies.

Barriers and bottlenecks. Southeast Asia was also a goal for Arab traders, and after the Portuguese bested the Arabs in the sixteenth century, it was a goal for Europeans. But before we take up the period of European empire building, let's consider how Southeast Asia has been a barrier on both land and sea.

The mainland portion of Southeast Asia, as you already know, has rugged mountain ribs which spread southward from the eastern end of the Tibetan plateau. These mountain ribs are therefore right across the path of anyone going overland from India to China. The going is made harder by dense forests nourished by the heavy rains. Not until World War II made them necessary were there motor roads from India to Burma and from Burma to China or a railroad from Burma to Siam.

The seaways are much easier to travel than the land ways, but there are obstacles to sea travel, too. First, there is the long, narrow Malay Peninsula, which reaches southward nearly a thousand miles from its root near Bangkok, Thailand, to its tip near Singapore. The island of Sumatra, also a thousand miles long, lies across the main sea routes. Java, more than five hundred miles long, stretches eastward from the end of Sumatra. A chain of smaller islands extends east from Java toward New Guinea. New Guinea itself is fifteen hundred miles long, or long enough to reach from New York to the Rocky Mountains of Colorado.

Nowhere in Southeast Asia are there such complete barriers to sea travel as there were at Suez and Panama before the canals were dug. But almost always a ship traveling in the waters of Southeast Asia has to make a detour to get around an island or a peninsula, often going hundreds of miles out of its direct course. The chain of peninsulas and islands creates gateways or bottlenecks, where sea routes come to a focus. Such bottlenecks obviously are important in commerce and in naval strategy.

The most important of the bottlenecks have been the Strait of Malacca, which lies between the Malay Peninsula and Sumatra, and Sunda Strait, which lies between Sumatra and Java. It is easy to see from the map on page 171 that ships going to China from the Indian Ocean would pass through one or the other of these straits.

The key British city of Southeast Asia was Singapore. The key Dutch city was Batavia. Batavia—now Djakarta (Jakarta)—and Singapore are strategic points. But it should not be thought that these cities are like Gibraltar. Gibraltar is a fort and naval base, but not an important trading

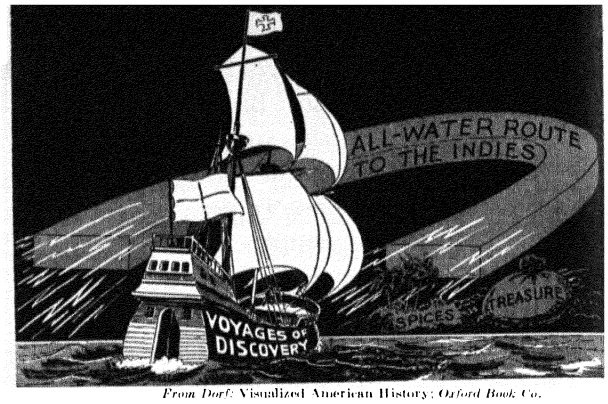
center. Singapore, on the other hand, was a flourishing port for a hundred years before a naval base was built on the same island. Jakarta likewise is a commercial port. The main Dutch naval base was in Java, but five hundred miles away.

This is not to say that naval strategy has been unimportant in Southeast Asia. The Portuguese drove out the Arabs; and then Europeans—Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French—fought with each other. But, as we have already said, the Indian Ocean became a British lake in the nineteenth century. British naval leadership in the Indian Ocean was unchallenged. Large fleets and bases were not necessary. It was not until after World War I, when Japan had become a first-rank naval power, that the British seriously considered building a gigantic naval base on Singapore Island. The base was completed shortly before Japan entered World War II, but it was captured by the Japanese within a few weeks. The British were engaged in a desperate war with Germany and did not have enough ships and airplanes and men to defend Singapore.

The Wealth of the Indies

Columbus, as everybody knows, sailed west to find "the Indies." "The Indies," to Columbus and to other people of his time, meant just about all of Monsoon Asia. Columbus was seeking gold, jewels, spices, and other rich cargoes. Ocean trade really began with luxuries. Only precious things could make the high cost of transportation worth while. Sailing ships could carry only a few tons of cargo, and it took months and even years to make a single voyage. And there was risk of shipwreck and piracy on the way.

In John Masefield's poem "Cargoes" the first stanza tells of a quinquireme (an ancient type of rowing vessel) carrying things like ivory, sandalwood, and peacocks. The second stanza describes a Spanish galleon



From Dorf: Visualized American History; *Oxford Book Co.*

The magnet that first drew the ships.

returning from Panama, laden with precious stones and cinnamon. Then the third stanza brings us down to date with a bump. It pictures a steam freighter with its cargo of coal, iron goods, cheap merchandise, and lead.

With the passing of sailing ships and of trade in spices and precious stones, the romance of the sea has fled, it seems. But along with the sailing ships other things have disappeared, too—scurvy, pirates, and (to a high degree) loss of life in shipwrecks. The steamship is so much more efficient than the sailing vessel that it can carry profitably cargoes of cheap staple commodities from one end of the earth to the other. There is more real wealth—if we measure wealth in usefulness—in a tanker full of oil than in a galleon carrying gold and jewels.

Columbus, of course, never reached "the Indies." The islands he explored became known as the West Indies. Halfway round the world lie the East Indies. The Portuguese discovered them in 1510, after voyaging across the Indian Ocean. The East Indies became famous as islands where spices grew. To this day one group of islands, the Moluccas, just west of New Guinea, is shown on some maps as the "Spice Islands." It seems odd that the search for spices should take Europeans halfway round the world in their tiny ships. It may have been because the European diet was monotonous in the Middle

Ages. Today we give spices very little thought. But we would feel that something was missing if pepper, nutmeg, ginger, and the like, were taken from our pantry shelves. As for soft drinks—flavorings by the ton, many of them from the tropics, go down our throats every year.

From pepper to petroleum. Spices are still exported from Southeast Asia, but they are no longer a major item. New products have been added. Coffee—still sometimes called java—and tea are raised there. Sugar became an important product. Quinine, until recently the only drug for treating malaria, was introduced into Southeast Asia from the Americas. But the biggest boom of all came with the Machine Age, because the Machine Age brought demands for petroleum, rubber, and tin cans.

Petroleum has been found in three main islands of the East Indies—Java, Sumatra, and Borneo—and in Burma on the Asiatic mainland. Southeast Asia produces about 3 percent of the world's petroleum. This is not a very large percentage, but it means a great many barrels of oil. There are no large oil fields elsewhere in Monsoon Asia, so these fields are very important. Toward the end of World War II, Japan kept most of its navy in the waters of Southeast Asia, to be near the supply of fuel.

Tin is a metal that's much abused. The humble tin can causes people to make jokes about brides whose knowledge of cooking begins and ends with the art of can opening. A popular low-priced automobile for years had the nickname of tin lizzie. But tin is really a valuable and somewhat expensive metal. It is valuable because it resists rust and because it can be spread thinly over a steel surface. The tin can is a steel can, with the merest film of tin on the surface to keep the steel from rusting. As for cost, tin before World War II sold for about fifty cents a pound. The price rose after the war. Fifty cents a pound amounts to one thousand dollars a ton. If a tin lizzie had really been made of tin, it would have cost far more than an automobile made of steel.

Tin ores of commercial value are found plentifully only in a few parts of the world. Southeast Asia is the most important of these. It produces about two-thirds of the world's supply. Japan's conquest of Southeast Asia in 1942 caused a tin famine in the rest of the world. Tin was rationed, and war industries got most of it. The tin coating on cans was made much thinner. Coffee and preserved fruits appeared in glass jars. Tin was, and is, more important than gold.

It was in the production of rubber that Southeast Asia became spectacularly important. Most of us have heard the story of how wild rubber seeds were smuggled from the Amazon forest and cultivated in greenhouses in England. The seedlings were then set out in Ceylon. From Ceylon rubber was taken to Malaya and the East Indies. Laborers were brought in from India and China to work on the rubber plantations. So successful was plantation rubber that it almost completely replaced wild rubber. Before World War II Southeast Asia produced more than nine-tenths of the world's supply. Rubber has hundreds

Malayan rubber—modern magnet—drew these ships.

From European Picture Service



of uses, but the most important, as one would probably guess, is for making the tires upon which the modern world rolls.

When the Japanese cut off the supply of rubber from Southeast Asia during the war, there was grave fear that American wheels would stop rolling. American industry depends heavily upon trucks, and American workers depend upon busses and automobiles for transportation. Armies and air forces needed millions of tires. Strangely enough, it was the work of German chemists that permitted the United States to keep its wheels rolling. These chemists found out how rubber could be made from coal, oil, and other raw materials. Synthetic rubber from petroleum was produced in the United States in time to replace natural rubber in the manufacture of tires. But it took nearly two years of frantic building of complicated plants to do it.

Trade and empire building. It was the prospect of profitable trade that lured Europeans into the Indian Ocean. It was because of their trading activities that they came to control colonies. You already know that the British East India Company conquered India, ruling that subcontinent for about two centuries before the British government took over.

In Southeast Asia five European nations have held colonies. The Portuguese discovered and explored the region, pushing the Arabs from the key trading posts. But the Dutch bested the Portuguese, and all that remains of Portugal's possessions in Southeast Asia is a part of the island of Timor. The Spaniards claimed and held the Philippines as a result of Magellan's voyage around the world. Spain held its Philippine colony until its war with the United States in 1898.

Dutch, British, and French all secured important colonies in Southeast Asia. Malaya, Burma, and northern Borneo became British. Indochina became French. Most of the East Indies became Dutch. The modern name for the Dutch East Indies is Indonesia.

Only a few Europeans went to live in the colonies their countries held in Southeast Asia. But these Europeans controlled the government and business of the millions of people who lived there. Mines and plantations were developed into very profitable enterprises. In some of the colonies much was done to open up the country. Roads and railroads were built, and harbors were improved. But in spite of such improvements, the native peoples were discontented under foreign rule. They felt that the Europeans were making profits from native labor. They knew they were not masters in their own houses. Revolts broke out in Java and Indochina after World War II. Britain gave independence to Burma, and Indonesia became independent of the Netherlands. The United States made good its promise of freedom for the Philippines. The movement toward independence in Southeast Asia will continue until someday nearly all of that part of the world will be self-governing, unless it falls under the domination of the Chinese Communists.

Burma's Hills and Valleys

Westernmost of the countries of Southeast Asia is Burma. As you can see on the map on page 186, the axis of Burma is the valley of the Irrawaddy River. In this valley live most of the true Burmese. Only about two-thirds of the people of Burma are Burmese. The rest belong to a number of different groups, with picturesque names like Chin, Kachin, Karen, and Shan.

The valley of the Irrawaddy has two major lowlands. At its mouth is the delta, in a region of heavy rainfall. Rangoon, chief port of Burma, stands in the delta. Midway along the course of the Irrawaddy is a much drier lowland, the inland basin around the city of Mandalay. Both the delta and the Mandalay lowland have had their turns as the dominant political areas of Burma. The British, who conquered Burma in the nineteenth century, favored

the delta. Since their power and their commerce depended on ships and shipping, they made the seaport, Rangoon, their capital.

During the early years of World War II, Burma was the back door to China. When the Japanese closed China's front doors, facing the Pacific, the Chinese hastily built a road down to the Burmese border. This narrow, hazardous road carried supplies into the wartime Chinese capital of Chungking until 1942, when the Japanese invaded Burma and closed the back door, too. Then an airlift was organized, and men and freight were flown from India to China over the dangerous mountains of northern Burma.

Soon after the end of World War II, the British granted independence to Burma. The Burmese Republic kept Rangoon for a capital. Among the problems facing the new Burmese Republic was how to deal with the one-third of its citizens who were not Burmese. The country has a solid core of Burmese people along the Irrawaddy River, but the border hills and valleys are filled with other peoples. It is, on a small scale, a mixing bowl like all Southeast Asia. This makes the politics and government of Burma quite complicated.

Thailand's Independence

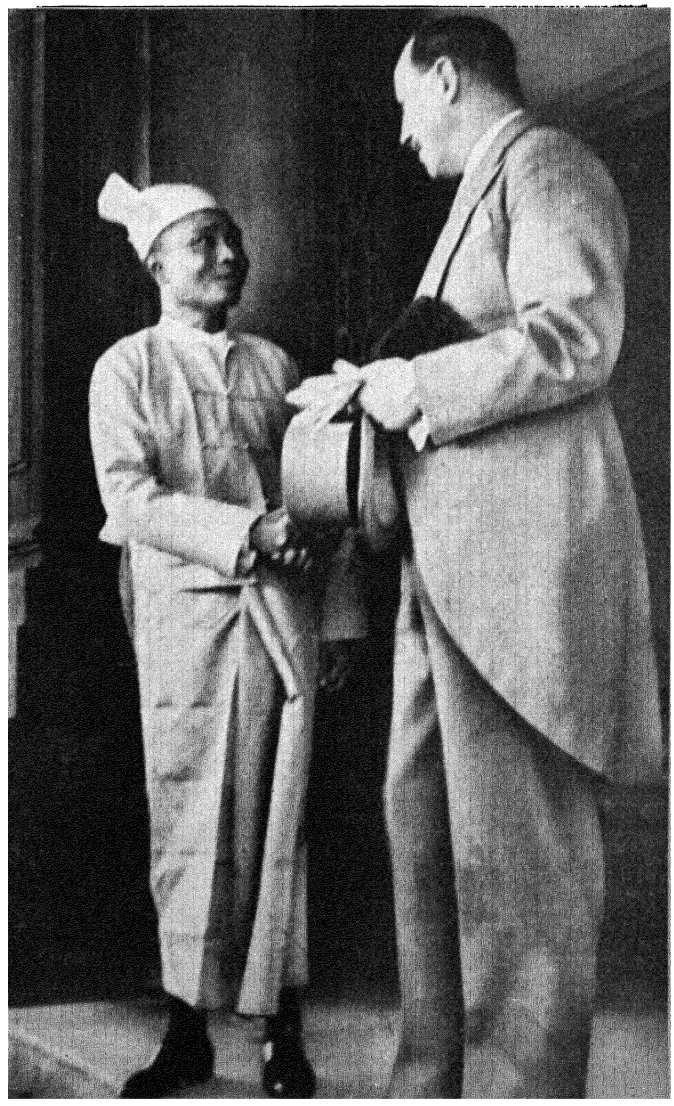
Among the countries of Southeast Asia, Thailand stands alone as never having been a colony of Europeans. The native name for Thailand is Muang Thai, which means "the land of the free," and the people living there are called the Thai, meaning "free men."

Although Thailand has never been a colony of Europeans, its independence has often been in peril. Many times in its history Thailand was invaded—by Burmese, from the west, or by Cambodians, who live along the lower Mekong River, to the east. Look at the map on page 171, and see how the position of Thailand might lead to its invasion.

A buffer state. In the nineteenth century, Thailand's neighbors were overcome by the British and French. The British took Burma and the Malay Peninsula. The French occupied a group of states lying east of Thailand, a group now called Indochina. Thailand was being squeezed from three directions, the strongest pressure being from the French. Ninety thousand square miles of land – nearly as much as in the state of Oregon—were lost by the Thai to the French. French gunboats once sailed up the river to the Thai capital, Bangkok. Thai independence seemed about to end. But the British intervened, not from love of Thai freedom, but from fear of

The British governor departs. Good luck to Burma!

Wide World Photo



French expansion. Britain had no desire to see the French flag flying next to its colonies of Burma and Malaya.

So Thailand preserved its independence, because the country was a buffer state between British and French possessions. Buffer states are too weak to maintain their independence by themselves. Neither do they depend upon a single powerful friend. They owe their survival to their location between two strong but jealous powers, neither of which wants the other to annex the buffer state.

Some buffer states gain a degree of protection because of natural barriers. Afghanistan and Switzerland are examples of mountainous buffer states. Others, like Belgium, have little natural protection. But in this age of air power and mechanized armies, no buffer state can rely upon its natural defenses. For that matter, no country, large or small, can rely upon nature for its defense.

Thailand and the airways. Singapore is the hub of the seaways of Southeast Asia, but Bangkok is the hub of the airways. The reason for this is easily seen on the map on page 171. Bangkok is a central point from which airways to China, the Philippines, Malaya, the East Indies, and Australia radiate. It lies south of the high mountains of northern Burma and western China—the dreaded "Hump" over which planes carried supplies from India to China during World War II. The Malay Peninsula is no barrier for an airplane, and so Bangkok has become an airway center.

Bangkok has been the capital of Thailand about a hundred fifty years. Before that there were many other capitals, but all of

You might think this a part of America. A part of America is here—an American clipper at Bangkok airport.
Courtesy Pan American World Airways



them have been along one great river or its tributaries. This river is the Menam Chao Bhraya, shown on many maps simply as the Menam. The Menam is Thailand's Old Man River. It rises in the northern mountains, but its lower course is through a broad, flat valley very suitable for the cultivation of rice. As wheat meant food to ancient Rome and means food to modern Europe, so rice means food to Southeast Asia.

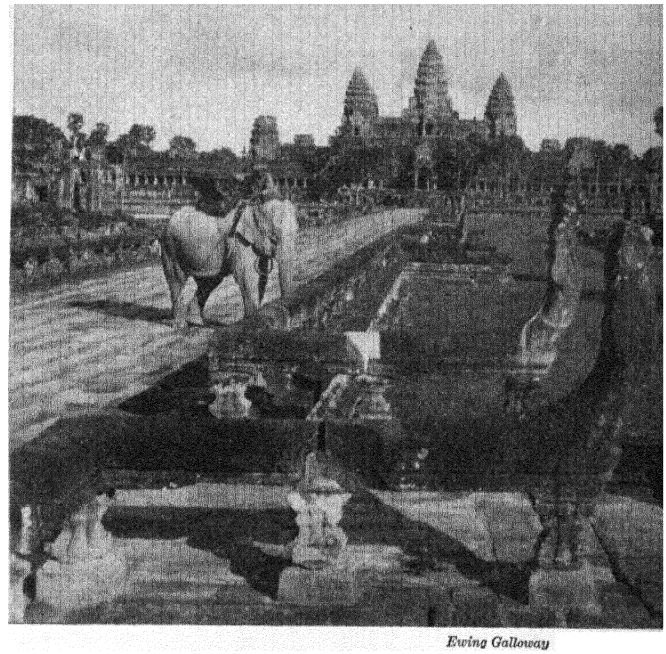
Five Lands of Indochina

Maps show the eastern part of the mainland of Southeast Asia as Indochina. The name, Indochina, describes the location between China and the Indies, and also the culture, which has ties with China as well as with Southeast Asia. But Indochina is not an ancient name. It is relatively modern and covers five lands or regions that were brought together under French rule. The map on page 186 shows them.

The northernmost land of Indochina is Tonkin. The core of Tonkin is the fertile river bottom in which the chief city, Hanoi, stands. Southward from Tonkin the mountains stand closer to the sea. A long, narrow region called Annam extends along the coast. Its chief city is Hué. Tonkin and Annam are the most Chinese-like in culture of all the Indochinese lands.

The mountains of Annam end at the edge of a broad delta. In all of Monsoon Asia, deltas are important farm lands and centers of population. This one is no exception. It is the delta of the Mekong, the longest river in Southeast Asia. This delta region, called Cochin-China, was France's first foothold in Indochina. Its chief city, Saïgon, became the major center of French influence.

Tonkin, Annam, and Cochin-China are now grouped under the native name of Vietnam. Vietnam therefore is the whole eastern part of Indochina, facing the South China Sea. West of Vietnam are two other lands, Cambodia and Laos. Vietnam is now



Ewing Galloway

Ruined Angkor — once a center of Asiatic politics.

divided into a Communist north (called Vietminh) and a non-Communist south.

Upstream from Cochin-China along the Mekong is one of the largest lowlands in Southeast Asia. This lowland is called Cambodia. Cambodia was long an independent kingdom. The Cambodians, the Thai, and the Burmese were the "Big Three" of this part of the world and often warred with each other. Cambodia is best known to the outside world on account of a ruined city called Angkor, or Angkor-Thom, whose temples even today are astounding both in size and in architecture.

Last and least known of the lands of Indochina is Laos. Laos lies north of Cambodia and west of Annam, on the side of the mountains sloping westward to the Mekong. It is the most remote and least developed part of Indochina. Its people are related to the Thai. Like Cambodia, Laos has been a bone of contention between Thailand and France.

The five lands of Indochina have been held together by French authority, but Indochina is in a part of the world where changes of boundaries are to be expected. Politically, the cement hasn't set.

Malayan Mixture

The mixing that is typical of Southeast Asia can be best seen in the Malay Peninsula. A little of everything has been stirred in there. Most of the land is divided into the eleven states of the independent Federation of Malaya. But Singapore, which is by far the most important port and business center, is a separate British colony. Malaya is plainly a barrier which diverts sea trade and naval power in the direction of Singapore. It is also one of the richest parts of the tropical world. Although forest-clad mountains rib its interior, Malaya has fine roads, productive rubber plantations, and rich tin mines. It has been immensely profitable as a British possession.

The native Malay people live by farming, and they have not been eager to work on plantations or in the tin mines. So workers were brought to Malaya from India and from China. If the population of Singapore is included with that of Malaya, the Chinese are in a slight majority. Native Malayans come next, Indians third. A relatively small number of British formerly controlled the region.

The Malay Peninsula, with its mixture of Chinese, Malayan, and Indian peoples and of rubber plantations, tin mines, and native farms, is a complicated region to govern. To work out a plan for independent government was certainly not easy. Nevertheless, the British granted independence to Malaya in 1957.

Indonesia

A big group of big islands—and many small ones, too—lies off the coast of Southeast Asia. The largest part of the group forms the Republic of Indonesia, formerly the Dutch East Indies.

More than half the people of Indonesia live on the island of Java, which is the political and economic heart of the country. Find Java on the map on page 186. Java holds the world's record for density of population. Java is about as big as the state of New York—roughly, fifty thousand square miles. On Java live nearly fifty million people. New York State has fourteen million. If the people could be evenly spread over Java, there would be a thousand people living on every square mile of land. But not every square mile is habitable, of course, for Java has mountainous areas and other wastelands.

A rapid increase. When the Dutch counted the people of Java in 1815, there were about four and a half million. Today there are more than ten times that many. Java's increase in population is remarkable in several ways. Until recently it has been mostly rural. Instead of flocking to cities, the new people stayed in the farming villages. Jakarta, largest city of Java, had only half a million people a generation ago. Nowadays, of course, the cities are growing rapidly. Jakarta may have as many as two or three million inhabitants now.

Another remarkable thing about Java's increasing population is that the land has somehow been made to support so many. The reasons why it does are partly natural, partly due to man.

Nature gave Java fertile soils and a productive climate. Java has a backbone of mountains. Many of these are volcanoes. Thirty-five of them are active. Heavy rains fall in the mountains, and fresh, fertile volcanic soils are washed down into the plains. The lowlands have natural conditions favorable for rice. They never have a frost or even cool weather. Wherever cultivation of rice has spread in Asia, population has increased. Rice, grown in flooded fields, is safe from drought and needs little fertilizer beyond what the water brings. And when it comes to numbers of calories per acre, rice is hard to beat.

The great increase in the population of Java came during Dutch rule. The Dutch stopped native wars. They built roads and railroads. They introduced some modern



Official United Nations Photo

Citizens in a community in Indonesia talk over their problems. Compare this picture with the one on page 6.

hygiene. But the Dutch did not give the people of Java much chance to govern themselves, and after World War II, the Javanese revolted.

The Outer Islands. If the population of Java continues to grow—as it almost certainly will—where will the people go? Most of the other islands of Indonesia—the Outer Islands, as they are called—are less densely populated than Java. Sumatra, the great island west of Java, has only fifty or sixty people per square mile—about a twentieth of the population density of Java. Borneo, north of Java, now has only eleven people per square mile. Sumatra and Borneo are less fertile than Java but could support denser populations than they now have.

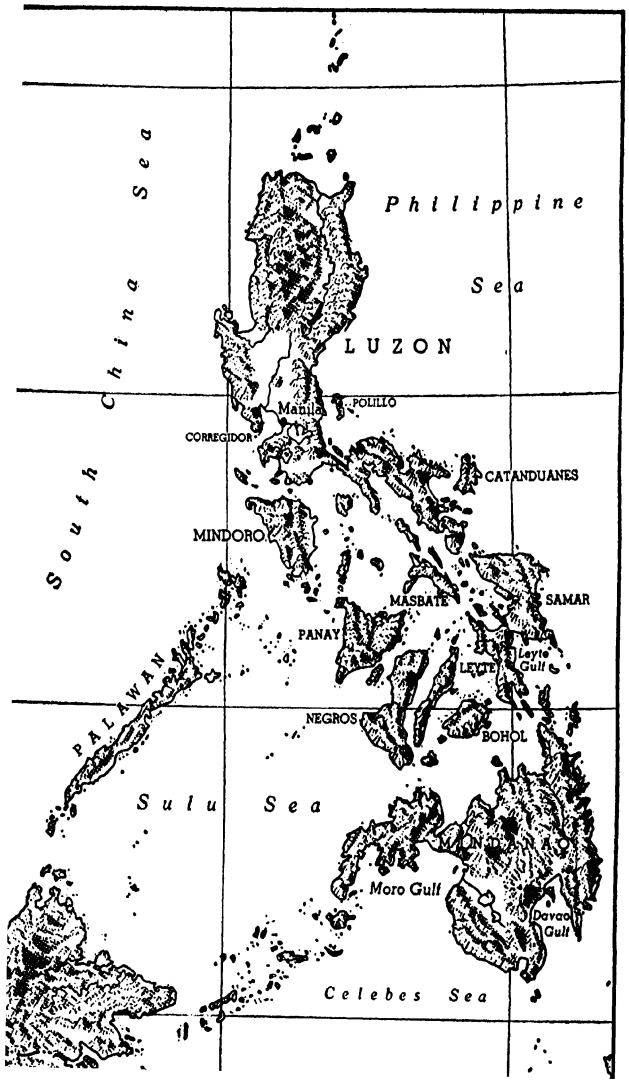
Under Dutch guidance, many Javanese settled on the Outer Islands. Colonization has not been easy, because rice fields must be prepared carefully, and there must be dams and ditches for flooding them. The Javanese, too, are home-loving people and do not like to move away from their ancestral villages. Colonization has helped, but not solved, the population problem of Java. More than a thousand people would have to migrate each day to keep up with the Javanese increase in population.

The Republic of the Philippines

To many people in the United States the Philippine Islands seem very real and near. Such places as Bataan, Corregidor, and Leyte have been woven into the story of American history and are only too familiar

to many American men. It is hard to realize that when an American fleet under Admiral Dewey sailed into Manila Bay on May Day, 1898, Americans had to hunt through their atlases to find out where Manila lay. The ignorance about the Filipinos was so great at that time that a leading American statesman said that the United States should annex the islands from Spain in order to Christianize the people. Actually, 95 percent of the Filipinos were already Christians. The first converts were made in 1521, when Magellan discovered the islands. The Philippines, as you already know, are the one country of Monsoon Asia in which Christianity is the chief religion.

Notice how little level land the Philippines have.



When we studied India, we mentioned the old saying that Britain acquired India in a fit of absent-mindedness. That is hardly true, but it is very true that the United States acquired the Philippines and held them for forty-eight years through an odd, roundabout chain of circumstances. The war between the United States and Spain, in 1898, was brought on by conditions and events in Cuba. But it so happened that Spain still held, among the remnants of its former immense empire, not only Cuba and Puerto Rico in the West Indies but also other islands half a world away. These were the Philippines and many of the small islands of Micronesia, east of the Philippines. When the war ended, the United States had gained its ends in Cuba and had acquired the Philippines and Guam on the far side of the Pacific. The map on this page gives you an idea of the nature of the Philippines.

American policy from the beginning aimed at eventual independence for the Philippines. The chief argument was not so much *whether* the Philippines should be independent as *when*. Although most of the Filipinos had long been Christians and civilized, they had had no experience in modern government.

Independence Day for the Philippines was July 4, 1946. Only two years less than a half century had passed since the Spanish-American War. By 1946 a majority of the Filipinos had been born and raised under American rule. Granting independence to the Philippines was not entirely a generous act on the part of the Americans. There were selfish reasons, too. The sugar growers of the United States hoped to cut off imports of sugar from the Philippines, which had reached nearly a million tons a year. American producers of butter and of cottonseed oil hoped to restrict imports of Philippine coconut oil. American organized labor wished to keep out Filipino labor. American isolationists thought that, by pulling out of the Philippines, the United

States could keep out of the troubles of Asia. But the main thing is that, for both selfish and generous reasons, the Philippine Islands became the independent Republic of the Philippines.

A word about Micronesia. The Spanish traded with their Philippine colony until about 1800 by sailing ships across the Pacific. As their "Manila galleons" sailed westward, pushed by the trade winds, they passed through the cloud of small islands east of the Philippines known as Micronesia. Through this contact the Spanish got possession of many of the Micronesian islands, and they used Guam, the largest island of the group, as a stopping place to get food and water. After the Spanish-American War the United States annexed Guam, so that it might be used as a steppingstone to the Philippines. Guam is still an American possession. The rest of Spanish Micronesia was sold by the Spaniards to the Germans. The Germans lost their islands in Micronesia to Japan in World War I. Japan lost them to the United States in World War II. Now they are held by the United States in trusteeship for the United Nations. You'll find Micronesia on the map on page 242.

Some Philippine facts. The Republic of the Philippines consists of seven thousand islands, but only about twenty of these islands are large enough to be shown on a small map. The total area of the Philippines is a little greater than that of Arizona. Two islands—Luzon in the north and Mindanao in the south—are much larger than the rest. These two islands together have two-thirds of the land of the whole archipelago. The population of the Philippines is now larger than twenty-one million, which is greater than the population of New York State. Since much of the land is mountainous and the chief occupation is farming, there is much crowding of people on small bits of land.

Most of the people of the Philippines are Mongoloid, as is true in neighboring lands. But in some of the less accessible mountains there are small, dark people who are called Negritos.

The chief languages of the Philippines belong to the Malayan group, as do those of the East Indies. Many Filipinos learned Spanish from their Spanish rulers. Later, many learned English under American rule, and English is the favorite foreign tongue. But the official language of the Philippine republic is Tagalog, the main Filipino speech of Luzon and some neighboring islands.

Although nearly all the Filipinos are Christians, there are two groups of them that are not. One is made up of pagan tribes. They live for the most part in mountainous areas. The other non-Christian group lives in the extreme south of the archipelago. About half a million Filipinos belong to it. Members of this group are called the Moros, and the Moros are Moslems. For many years the Moros resisted foreign rule—first that of Spain and then that of the United States.

The Republic of the Philippines faces life. The Republic of the Philippines is like a young man or woman who has just become of age. It can run its own affairs now, and it finds that life is full of problems. The most immediate problems of the Republic are economic, or at least related to economics. World War II caused much damage. Prices in the Philippines became inflated, rising to great heights. The population has continued to grow rapidly. The new republic needs to provide new jobs for the growing population and, where it can, to find new land upon which more farms can be established. Although the Filipinos have living standards above the average for Monsoon Asia, most Filipinos are extremely poor. There is considerable resentment against prosperous foreign businessmen, including Chinese and American businessmen. There have been revolts of poor peasants. To solve the economic problems will take time, and of course it will not be easy.

The defense of seven thousand islands—or even just the main islands—is a problem, for the Republic of the Philippines cannot now afford a large navy or even a large air force. Fortunately, the problem of defense is made easier by the fact that in the Pacific today there is only one great naval power, the United States. That power is pledged to defend the Philippines. From the viewpoint of the United States, the Philippines are a transpacific friend. Geographically they are somewhat like the British Isles, for they are located off the coast of Asia as the British Isles are off the coast of Europe. If the United States will continue to be a protector, but will not interfere in Philippine domestic affairs, a long-lasting friendship may be established between the two countries.



Shoemaker in the Chicago Daily News

Uncle Sam will be watching.

CHINA: A TROUBLED GIANT

We have spoken of China as a giant because it is not only the largest country in the world in population but also the second largest in area. But China has many problems. Right now the most serious is the division into two governments—the Nationalist, which governs Formosa and represents China in the United Nations, and the Communist, which rules the mainland.

Why do we call China, Japan, and Korea the Far East when they are west of us and, in the Air Age, not really so far away? The reason, of course, is that the term originated in Europe. The Europeans, for the most part, reach China and its neighboring countries by journeying eastward. As you know, even before Columbus sought Japan by sailing west, the Portuguese were exploring a route to the Indian Ocean around Africa. In 1498 Vasco da Gama reached India. A dozen years later other Portuguese navigators came upon the East Indies. Then the Portuguese pushed northward, establishing trade with China and Japan. The Portuguese still hold a port in southern China—the city of Macao, now very unimportant.

From the European point of view, there were three "Easts." The Near East consisted of the lands around the eastern end of the Mediterranean. The Middle East covered the countries bordering the northern Indian Ocean. The Far East meant the lands beyond the Indian Ocean. These three terms are not very definite. One can never be sure what countries are meant when one reads of the Near East or the Middle East. The Far East is what a geographer would call eastern Asia.

The Far East could be reached by going straight west from North America, but if you will use a piece of string to measure the globe, you will find that the shortest routes from North America to eastern Asia lead far northward. Steamer routes from west-coast ports like San Francisco or Vancouver pass close to the Aleutian Islands. The shortest airways from New York or Chicago to Tokyo or Shanghai cross Canada and Alaska. Both ships and airplanes

may detour by way of Honolulu—for better weather or to pick up passengers in the Hawaiian Islands—but they are adding many miles to the journey when they do so.

World War II taught Americans and Canadians that the Far East is really neither far nor east from them. Professor Warren Smith, of the University of Oregon, once said that the United States, Canada, and the Far East are all on the same side of the Pacific—the north side.

Most Populous of the Big Five

China is one of the Big Five in the United Nations. That means that China has a permanent place on the Security Council of the United Nations and has the veto power, like the United States, the Soviet Union, Great Britain, or France. In one respect, China is the biggest of the Big Five. It has by far the largest population.

No one knows what the population of China is, exactly. There never has been an accurate census. Guesses range from fewer than three hundred million to as many as six hundred million. Most of the guesses lie between five hundred and six hundred million. If the true figure is somewhere in this range, China has more than twice as many people as the Soviet Union and three times as many as the United States. Only if most of Europe should unite into one country or if the two parts of India should rejoin would there be a country rivaling China in population. In area, too, China is gigantic. China is larger than the United States and second only to the Soviet Union among the Big Five.

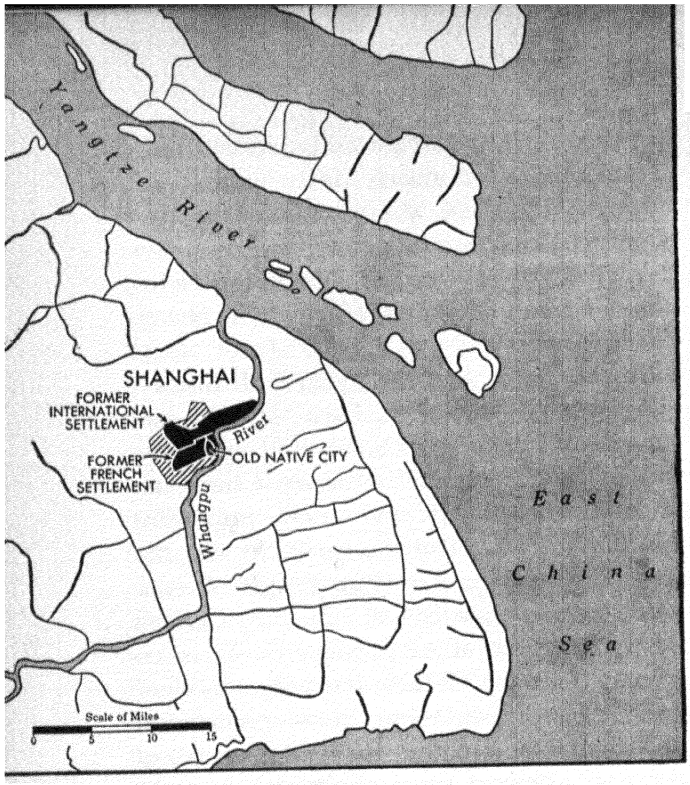
Although China is the most populous of the Big Five and is second largest in area, it has lagged behind the others in economic development. This has been a source of political trouble and war. The standard of living of most of the Chinese people is very low. In transportation and industry, China lags far behind India or Japan. The country has been torn by foreign and civil war most of the time for nearly forty years. Yet through all these years of poverty and trouble, China has managed to keep alive its civilization. We might change the saying about England to read "There will always be a China!"

In its four thousand years of history, China has sometimes been strong and united and sometimes weak and split into pieces. For much of its history China has been the strongest and most important country in its part of the world. It was the "Big One" of the Far East. People all over eastern Asia regarded the emperor of China as the greatest of earthly rulers. It is no wonder that the Chinese felt very confident and self-satisfied about their civilization and their place in the world. But events of the past hundred years or so have brought a great change to China. Europeans seized footholds in Chinese seacoast cities. Then the Japanese modernized their country and made it the leading Asiatic power. China had a revolution that overthrew the emperor and set up a republic. But the republic had a troubled career full of civil war and invasion. Then the Communists seized control of all China except the island of Formosa. Nevertheless, if history is a good guide, China will survive its troubles and become a great power in its own right.

Our aim in reading about China will be to learn about the people, politics, resources, and basic geography of this country that has weathered so many of the storms of history.

Three Rivers of China

The Chinese language, we learned, has many one-syllable words, like *chu* and *ching* and *pei* and *nan*. Most of the ordinary objects and colors and numbers have one-syllable names. But when the Chinese wish to express more complicated ideas, they often combine one-syllable words. One such combination sounds to us like *shan-shui*.



Shanghai. Notice the network of canals.

Shan is the word for mountain. *Shui* is the word for water. The combination, *shan-shui*, is the Chinese word for scenery.

That mountains and water make scenery is easy to understand. It becomes easier to understand when we find out that most of China is hilly or mountainous and that the most fertile lands of the country are the plains built by the rivers. Mountains, hills, rivers, and river deposits make up much of the landscape of the main part of China. It is remarkable that a country so full of mountains can at the same time be so full of people.

The river from the west. The three great rivers of China rise in the west and flow eastward into seas which border the Pacific Ocean. Looking first at the south of the map of China on page 206, we see a great river called the Si. *Si* means "west." It may seem odd at first that the great river of extreme South China should be called the West River, but to the people of southern China, the Si is the river that comes from the western hills. From their point of view, it is the West River.

The Si empties into the sea near Canton, the chief city of southernmost China. Canton lies close to the Tropic of Cancer and has a long, humid summer and a short, very mild winter. The Si, like the Mississippi, has built a fertile delta. In the Si Delta, with its almost tropical climate, two crops of rice can be grown each year. A square mile of the rich farm land of this delta may support more than two thousand people—about four to every acre.

Son of the ocean. The greatest of Chinese rivers rises in the mountains of Tibet and flows eastward through the center of China. This river is the Yangtze. It is sometimes called the son of the ocean because of its great size. The Yangtze is one of the world's mightiest rivers. Only the Amazon is more easily navigated deep into the heart of a continent. Ocean freighters can go six hundred miles up the Yangtze. As many people live in the drainage basin of the Yangtze as in the whole United States.

Let's make a quick trip up the Yangtze, pointing out some places of major importance in China's geography and history. We enter the broad mouth of the Yangtze at high tide, for there are shoals to cross. Then we travel upstream in our ocean liner until we come to a very minor tributary which enters the main river from the south. This sluggish tributary is the Whangpu. It forms the harbor of Shanghai, for it is better sheltered than the broad Yangtze. Shanghai is one of the largest cities of Asia and, if given peace and world trade, might grow to be the largest city in the world. Shanghai lies at the meeting point of river and ocean traffic, at a central spot on the Chinese coast. A situation better suited for city growth in an era of world trade is hard to imagine. Shanghai has never been the capital of China, nor was it very important in China's past. World commerce has largely been shut off since the Communists gained control, and Shanghai is not now prosperous.

Our large passenger liner does not go above Shanghai, but freighters and river steamers ascend easily. Soon we leave the delta, and hills appear. Two hundred miles west of Shanghai lies Nanking. The name Nanking means "southern capital," and this city has been a modern capital of China and the capital of several emperors in the past. China has had a number of capitals. A little later on we shall see the reason for some of the shifts.

Four hundred miles upstream from Nanking, the river Han enters the Yangtze from the north. Clustered about its mouth are three cities. The best known of the three is Hankow, whose name simply means "Han mouth." This is as far as ocean freighters usually go. The valley above Hankow is broad and open. For many miles there are rice fields, and this productive region is sometimes called the rice bowl. During World War II, the Japanese often raided this region at the time of the rice harvest.

We go on up the Yangtze until we are a thousand miles from the ocean. Now we reach one of nature's great surprises. The Yangtze, still a great river this far from the sea, flows through two hundred miles of gorges. In some places the mountain walls rise steeply from the water's edge. The swift current of the gorges can be breasted only by especially high-powered river steamers. Before the day of these steamers, all the traffic was carried upstream in junks hauled by ropes. This stretch of gorges helped keep the Japanese out of Chungking, the wartime capital, which lies farther upstream. The Yangtze, dropping swiftly through the gorges, is able to furnish an immense amount of electric power if China is ever rich enough to harness this river.

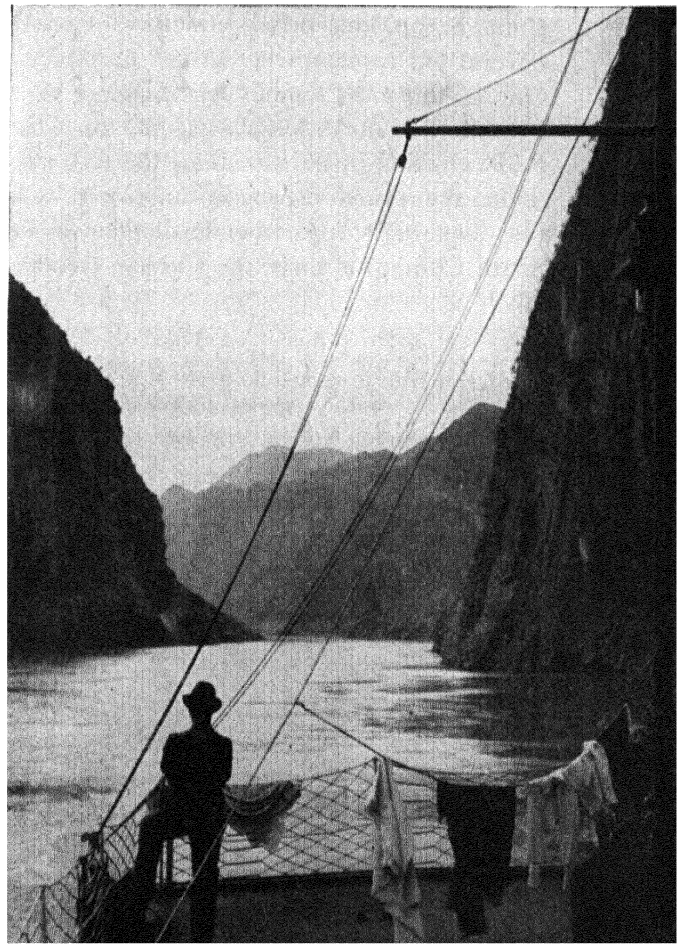
Our journey will end at Chungking. This city lies in the populous province called Szechwan, or "four branches"—so called because of its four rivers. Szechwan, though it has as many people as France or Italy, was seldom visited before World War II. During the war, China's capital was moved to this retreat. The Burma Road was built to provide a back door, and airplanes by the score flew the "Hump," as the mountains of the Burma-China border were called. After the war ended, the capital was moved away and Szechwan dropped out of the headlines, but it probably will never return to its old isolation.

Beyond Szechwan lie the mountains of the Tibetan border, and back of them is the cold, dry Tibetan plateau.

China's "Big Muddy." The third of China's great rivers is a different kind of river, in a different kind of landscape, in a different kind of climate. This is the Hwang Ho, or Yellow River. Its drainage basin lies in North China, while those of the Si and Yangtze are considered to be in South China. North China is drier than South

Yangtze gorges. Compare them with the Iron Gate.

Bosshard from Pix



China and has shorter summers and much colder winters. Rice, the staple food of South China, is rare in North China. Wheat and other hardy grains are raised instead. North China suffers more often from droughts than does South China, and in spite of its drier climate, it often suffers from floods during the summer. North China is a harsher land than South China, yet it was the original home of Chinese civilization and has great possibilities for future industrialization.

The Hwang, like the Yangtze, rises in the mountains of Tibet. But there is little other resemblance. Instead of being a wonderful waterway, the Hwang is too shallow for navigation except on rafts and small craft. Its upper valley, in the northwestern part of China, is a treeless land of uncertain rainfall, with a peculiar kind of soil called loess, blown down from the deserts of Mongolia. Where there is water, this soil is very fertile. It was in this northwest corner of China that the culture and political life of China began, long before the time of Christ. Several old capitals were in the northwest. One of the most famous was Sian.

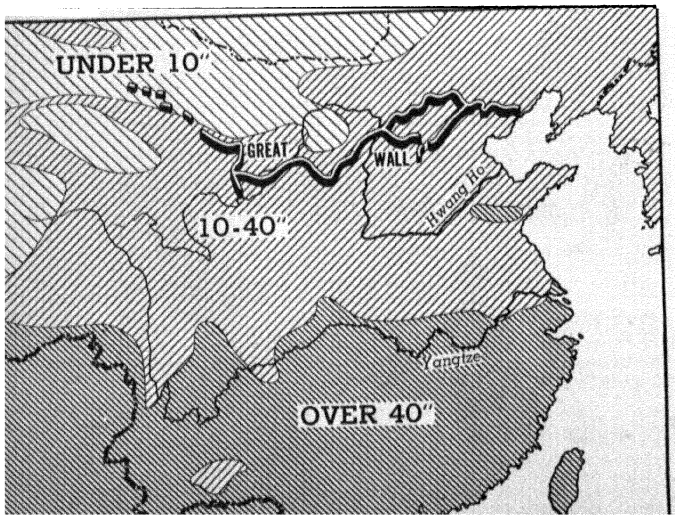
From this northwestern cradle, the Chinese extended in all directions the territory under their rule. Especially important was the expansion into the fertile lands of South China, for there the Chinese farmers could settle. Expansion to the north and west, into Mongolia and other areas, led into dry lands inhospitable to Chinese farmers. The Great Wall of China, begun more than two thousand years ago as a defensive barrier against the nomads, lies in the climatic zone that separates the good farm lands of China from the steppes of Mongolia.

The Chinese, when they were strong enough, ruled much of Inner Asia. On the other hand, people who came from Inner Asia have also ruled the Chinese. People from Mongolia conquered China and ruled that country for about a hundred years after 1280 A.D.

The northwest may become again a very important part of China. In two provinces of similar name—Shansi and Shensi—are the largest coal beds of eastern Asia and the best in that part of the world. There is as much coal in Shansi and Shensi as in Germany, and roughly half as much as in the great Appalachian field of the United States. When conditions in China permit these coal fields to be developed, they will pour a black flood of energy-stuff down into the rest of the country.

The Yellow River Delta. The Hwang leaves the northwestern hills near the city of Kaifeng. Kaifeng is therefore a stronghold much fought over in the past. Below Kaifeng the whole appearance of the country changes. One enters the largest delta in the world. This delta has been built by several rivers, but most of it is the Hwang's work. On the north, the delta extends beyond Peiping and Tientsin. On the south, it touches the delta of the Yangtze. Placed on the Atlantic coast of the United States, it would extend from New York to Georgia. It is all very flat and low except for a mountainous peninsula called Shantung, which juts out into the Yellow Sea. At least seventy-five million people live in this great delta plain. This one part of China has more people than Germany has and nearly as many as Japan.

The Great Wall protected land best suited to farming. The figures show annual inches of rainfall.



The delta of the Hwang and its neighboring rivers is the site of North China's two leading cities. The more important, historically, is Peiping. Peiping means "northern peace," but this city used to have another name. It was Peking, the "northern capital." Peiping, or Peking, was the capital of China most of the time from the Mongol conquest in 1280 A.D. until 1927. At that time the Kuomintang, or Nationalist party, moved the seat of government to Nanking on the Yangtze. It was in Peiping, then known as Cambaluc, that Marco Polo visited Kublai Khan, one of the Mongol emperors. Peiping also was the capital of the Manchu conquerors, who made it into one of the most picturesque cities of the world.

Peiping is an inland city—most of its rulers were landsmen from Mongolia and Manchuria—and the coming of modern commerce demanded a port. There is no very good harbor near Peiping, but a shallow river provides some shelter, and there the port of Tientsin arose. It is now about as large a city as Peiping. There are other ports in the neighborhood of Tientsin, and on Shantung Peninsula, and in southern Manchuria. It is a reasonable guess that, given peace, these cities of North China and southern Manchuria may become places where coal and raw materials meet and industry flourishes.



Ewing Galloway

Freight entering Tientsin by rail may leave by sea.

Key Areas of China

Mark Twain once wrote an imaginative story in which Tom Sawyer and Huckleberry Finn went up in an airship. As they journeyed eastward from their Missouri home, Huck was looking at a political map on which the states are shown in different colors. He told Tom that they ought to be over Indiana by now, but couldn't be, for the land below was green and Indiana was shown as pink.

Political maps are useful when you understand what they mean. They do not mean that a country is all alike, uniform from edge to edge, like the color in which it is printed. A geographer likes to think of a country as a group of *regions*. If you think it over, you will see that your own country, or your own state or province, is not all alike. There are different regions—some level and some rough, some dry and some humid, some populous and some with few people.

There are various ways of dividing countries into regions. It is common to divide the lowlands of the United States into crop regions—the cotton belt, the corn belt, the wheat belts, in particular. In this book we divided the Soviet Union into east-west strips determined by soil and vegetation. China, which is a country full of hills and mountains, is often divided into its major lowlands and the mountains that separate them. We have already made the acquaintance of a number of China's main regions:

1. The delta of the Si River, in which Canton stands.

2. The delta of the Yangtze River, in which Shanghai stands.

3. The "Rice Bowl" of the middle Yangtze, above Hankow.

4. The basin of Szechwan, above the gorges of the Yangtze. Chungking is located there.

5. The delta of the Hwang and some neighboring rivers, where Peiping and Tientsin are located.

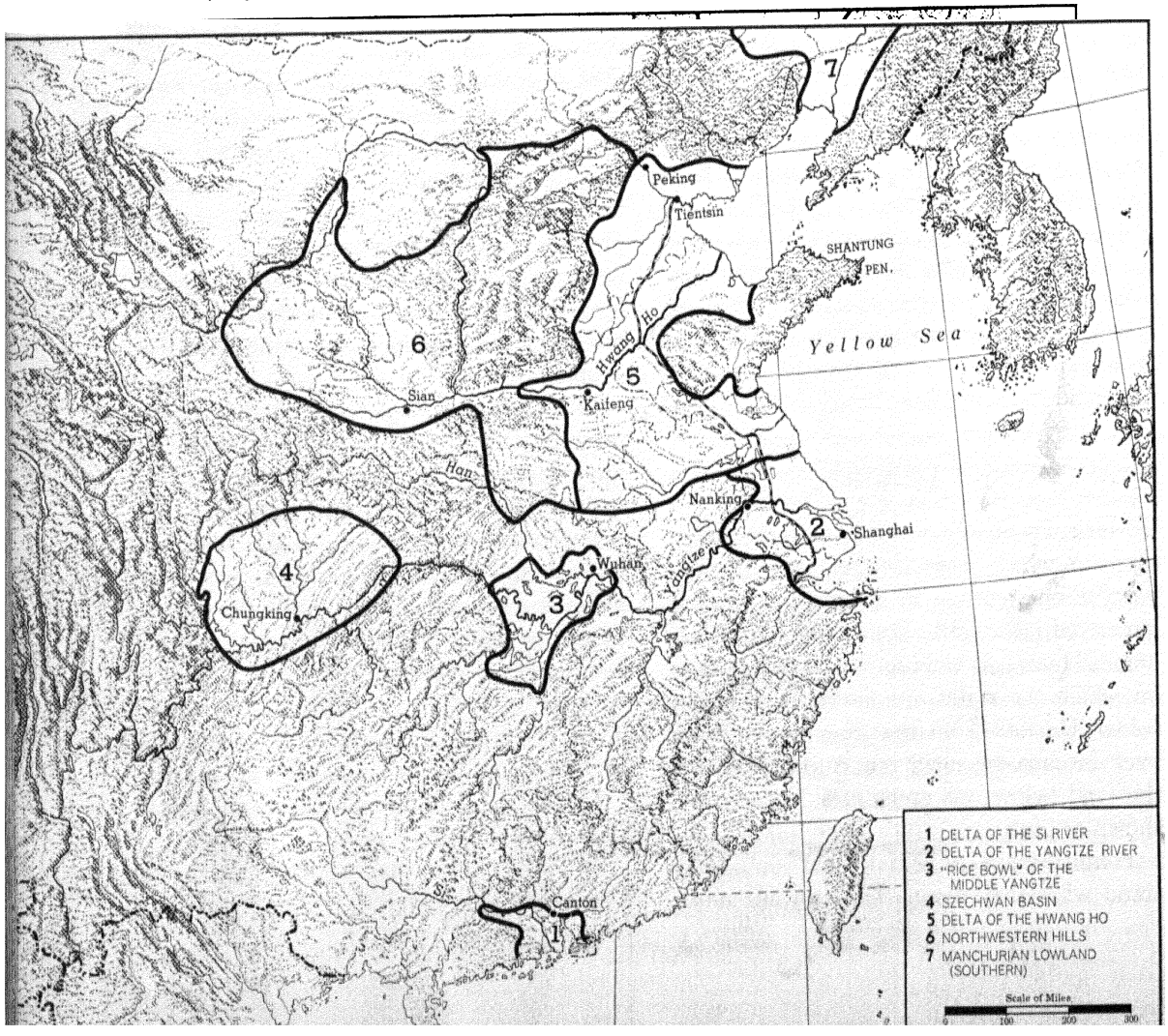
6. The loess-covered hills of northwestern China, where Sian stands and where the greatest Chinese coal fields are found.

The first four of these key regions are in South China, the last two in North China. China has one other key region, the Manchurian lowland, which we will come to soon. Find all of the regions on the map below.

The key areas in politics. Any populous region might be a key area in politics—and most of them have been, at one time or another. In China, all the six regions we have mentioned, and the Manchurian lowland, too, have had their turns at being key political areas. Region 6—the northwestern hills—was, as we have said, the first home of Chinese culture and the Chinese Empire. Like some other early homes of civilization—Egypt, Mesopotamia, and the Indus River Valley—this region is made up of dry land where irrigation is an important part of farming.

From this home of the northwest, the Chinese emperors spread their rule in all directions. They gained control of the delta

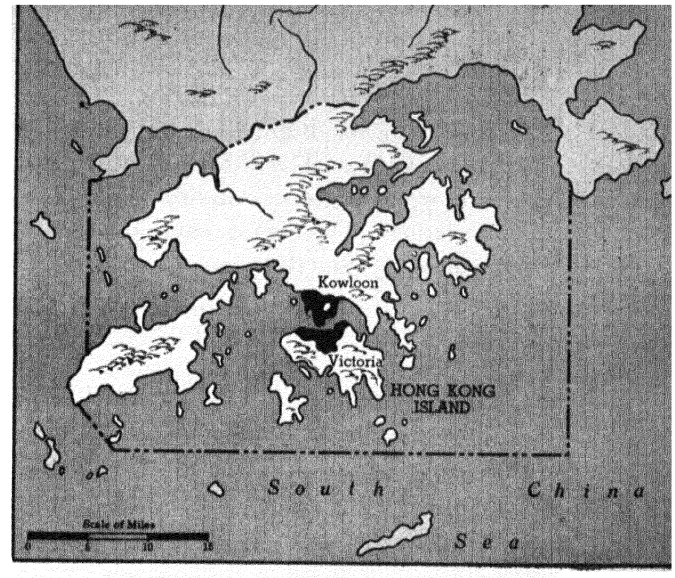
The key regions of China.



of the Hwang and also the Yangtze Valley. The Chinese Empire had its ups and downs, sometimes carrying its power westward into central Asia, north into what is now Siberia, and south into Southeast Asia. At other times it lost territory and several times it fell apart.

Mongols and Manchus in the north. In the thirteenth century A.D., the Mongols broke through the Great Wall and conquered China. They built their capital at Peiping in the north, to be near their homeland and their source of soldiers and to be able to live in a familiar climate. At the same time they were in the Hwang Delta Plain, which was one of the key areas of conquered China. After the Mongols there was a line of Chinese emperors called the Mings, some of whom ruled from Nanking, on the Yangtze, and others from Peiping, in the north. Peiping likewise attracted the Manchus, who conquered China from the north in the seventeenth century. After the overthrow of the Manchus in 1911, Peiping remained the capital during the first sixteen years of the republic.

Europeans reach the south. The first European trading vessels to reach China came in 1517. These were Portuguese, coming up from the East Indies. The first part of China they reached was the extreme south, near the mouth of the Si River. This little fact has had surprising results. The emperors, far north in Peiping, had no desire to have Europeans butting into their realm. The Europeans were forced to trade through Canton, in southern China, and even there they were greatly restricted. But Canton thus became the loophole through which European, or western, ideas penetrated into China. In later years many Chinese left the port cities of southern China to settle or work abroad. Most of the Chinese in the United States and Canada either are Cantonese or are descended from Cantonese. The millions of Chinese in Southeast Asia came mainly from southern China, also. These Chinese sent back or brought back



Hong Kong colony and its boundary.

news of other countries, and Canton became China's window to the world. The imperial court in the far north remained very conservative. But revolution brewed in the south.

Hong Kong. The Europeans, we have learned, found it difficult to trade in China in the way they were accustomed to in Europe. Moreover, they wanted to sell opium in China; but the Chinese government wished to keep the drug out of the country. The differences between the foreign traders and the Chinese government led to a war between Great Britain and China in 1840. As a result of the British victory, an island off the Chinese coast was ceded to Britain, and a few ports were opened to foreign trade.

The island was Hong Kong, which lies off the Si River Delta about a hundred miles southeast of Canton. Under British rule Hong Kong became the site of a prosperous city. The prosperity was due in part to freedom of trade. Hong Kong served as a transfer point for cargoes for China and other far eastern countries. You can see the extent of the Hong Kong colony on the map on this page. In part the colony's prosperity was due to the peace and security provided by foreign rule during long years when there was unrest in China. The Chinese today resent the foreign ownership of

Hong Kong and hope that it may be returned to China. The British have leased a portion of the Chinese mainland opposite Hong Kong. This lease runs until 1997, but it may be ended at an earlier date.

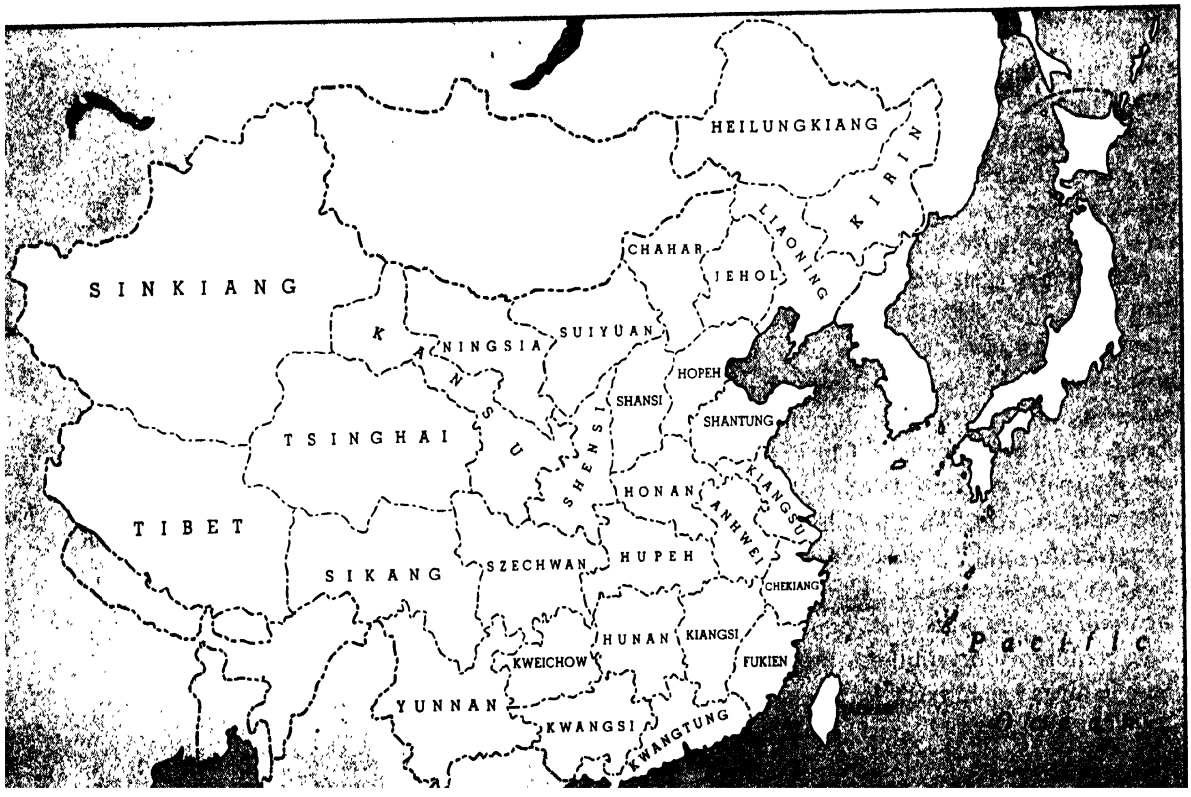
China and Its Borderlands

The core of China is the part that lies south of the Great Wall and east of Tibet. This is the part of the country that we often hear called "China Proper." The Chinese object to this term because it seems to suggest that other parts of the country are not properly Chinese. Most of the people of China live in this core land, for it is the part best suited for agriculture, the mainstay of Chinese life. Although the core land has less than half the area of China, more than four-fifths of the Chinese people make their homes there.

The Manchu conquerors divided China into provinces, for local government, and these provinces were kept by the republic after the revolution in 1911. The number of provinces was changed from time to time, but the core land usually was divided into eighteen. It is difficult to learn their names, although many of them have very simple meanings. One of them is "South of the Lake" (Hunan). Another is "East of the Mountains" (Shantung). Still another is "The Four River Branches" (Szechwan). All the Chinese provinces are shown on the map on this page.

North and west of this Chinese core are the borderlands of China. Except for one part, Manchuria, the borderlands are much less productive than the core of the country and are far less heavily populated. Nor are all of the people of the borderlands Chinese. Many of them belong to other groups, like the Mongols and the Tibetans. Chinese rule over the borderland peoples has sometimes been firm and strong, at other times weak or absent. To see where the borderlands are, look at the map which you will find on page 210.

The provinces of China. The Communists have changed some names and boundaries.



Manchuria. In the extreme northeast of the Chinese realm, north of the Great Wall, is a region we call Manchuria, because it was formerly inhabited by the Manchu tribes that invaded China in 1644 and ruled it until 1911.

An American writer on Asian affairs has very aptly called Manchuria a cradle of conflict. Manchuria is like a cradle in its landforms, for it consists of a central lowland which is almost surrounded by mountains. The whole is roughly rectangular, again like a cradle. The principal entrance into the Manchurian lowlands is from the south, along the valley of a river called the Liao.

Manchuria was the cradle out of which came the Manchus who conquered China three centuries ago. In modern times, Manchuria has twice been the cradle of conflicts. The first of the modern conflicts was between Russia and Japan in 1904–5. Most of the battles of the Russo-Japanese War were fought in Manchuria.

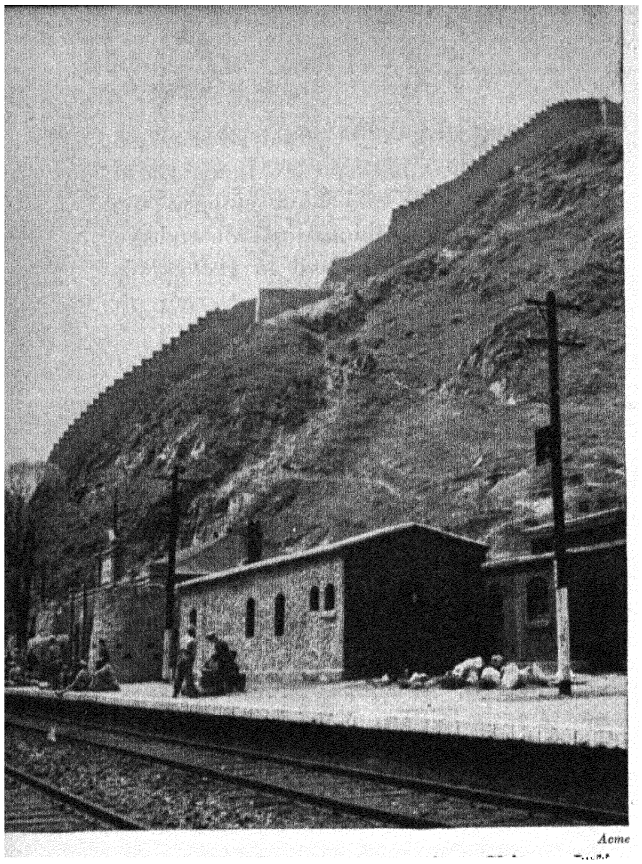
It is Manchuria's location and its wealth of farm land, forests, and minerals that make it a center of trouble. But these same things led the Russians, the Japanese, and the Chinese themselves to build many miles of railroads. Manchuria is the one part of China to have good land transportation. The railroads opened up the country for settlers. Millions of Chinese, plus some Koreans, Japanese, and Russians, have poured into Manchuria in the present century. The old Manchu population has been swamped, and Manchuria is now overwhelmingly Chinese. The railroads also permitted the use of Manchuria's coal and iron, and the shipment of Manchuria's surplus food.

The second major conflict in Manchuria broke out in 1931, when the Japanese invaded Manchuria. It is still called the "Manchurian Incident," but this incident is considered to have been the real beginning of the war between Japan and China and, some historians claim, of World War II. For, it is argued, if the great powers had stopped Japanese invasion of Manchuria in 1931, they might also have stopped the Italian invasion of Ethiopia in 1936 and the German invasion of Poland in 1939. This is a hard thing to prove, but it seems to make sense.

To the Japanese, Manchuria offered many things which their military leaders thought worth grabbing. There was a surplus of food, which hungry Japan desired. Soybean cakes from Manchuria could be used to fertilize Japanese fields. Coal, iron, and timber could be produced. Strategically, the control of Manchuria gave Japan a huge base on the mainland of Asia from which it could press against Siberia, northern China, or Mongolia. Many Japanese went to Manchuria on business or for government and military reasons, but few of them settled there on the land. The population remained overwhelmingly Chinese.

Inner and Outer Mongolia. Manchuria is a humid land, where Chinese can farm, but most of Mongolia is steppe or even desert. Climatically it is Asia's Great Plains. Parts of it might raise grain, especially if machinery were used, but very little of it is suitable for the hand-tool farming of Monsoon Asia. In fact, it is a bit of a stretch to include Mongolia in Monsoon Asia, for the rain-bringing summer monsoon just barely reaches it. The cold, dry winter monsoon of China has its breeding place in Mongolia and near-by Siberia, however.

Mongolia is divided into two parts, called Inner Mongolia and Outer Mongolia. Inner Mongolia is on the south, inside China. Outer Mongolia is on the north, adjoining the Soviet Union. These names seem natural if you think of Mongolia from the point of view of the Chinese. To them Inner Mongolia is close at hand, just outside the Great Wall. The boundary between Inner and Outer Mongolia runs through the driest part of the land, the Gobi Desert, famed for the dinosaur bones and eggs which have been found there.



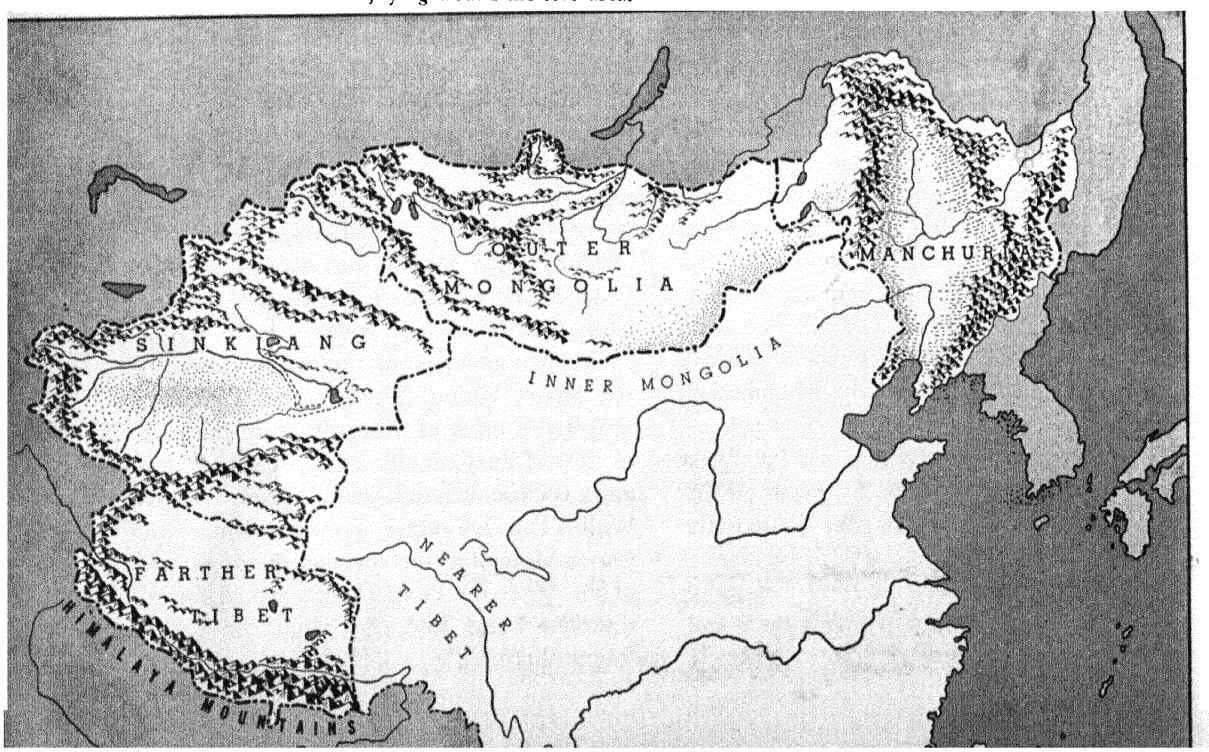
Inner Mongolia seems close to these Chinese. It lies just over the Great Wall at the top of the hill.

On some modern maps, you may have difficulty locating Inner Mongolia. The government of the republic divided it into four provinces, and their names—Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan, and Ningsia—appear on many maps in place of Inner Mongolia. Moreover, a good many Chinese farmers have pushed north of the Great Wall, into the river valleys and more humid places. There are now more Chinese than Mongols in Inner Mongolia.

Outer Mongolia, on modern maps, appears as an independent country. It may be called the Mongolian Republic or just Mongolia. The relation of Mongolia to China has varied a great deal in the course of history. Strong Chinese governments have ruled the Mongols. Weak Chinese governments have retreated behind the Great Wall and left the Mongols alone. And for about a century after 1280 A.D., you will remember, Mongol emperors ruled China.

When the Russians pushed their frontier across Siberia, they became neighbors of

China's borderlands, lying around the core area.

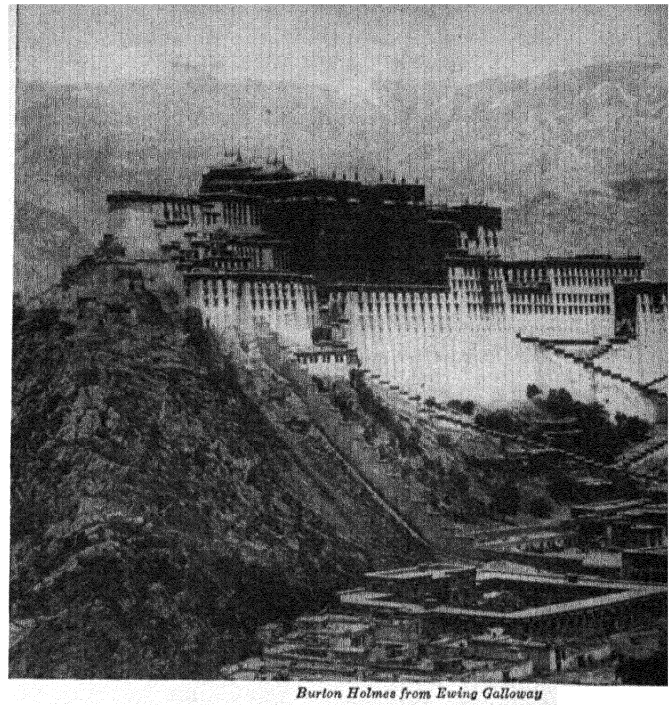


the Mongols. Especially after the Trans-Siberian Railway was built close to the Mongolian border, Russian influence increased. At the same time, Chinese influence decreased. In 1945 the last ties to China were cut, and now Outer Mongolia is the Mongolian Republic, closely associated with the Soviet Union. The extreme northwestern part of Mongolia, called Tannu Tuva or the Tuvinian Republic, was quietly annexed to the Soviet Union.

The new dominion. Southwest of Mongolia lies a vast region of high mountains and desert valleys called Sinkiang, which means "the new dominion." Sinkiang is the innermost core of the largest of the continents. Of all lands, it is the most remote from the sea. Politically, it has been one of the Chinese provinces—the largest by far; it would make nearly three Texases. Its population, however, is not Chinese, except for a few government men and merchants. Most of the people speak languages called Turki and are Moslems. Chinese control and Soviet influence meet in Sinkiang.

Nearer and Farther Tibet. Tibet is a geological masterpiece. It is the highest large plateau on earth. Along its southern margin are the Himalayas, the highest mountains on earth. Eastern Tibet—Nearer Tibet from the Chinese point of view—is a land of spectacular deep valleys. Their walls rise ten thousand feet above the rivers that drain them. Western Tibet—Farther Tibet—is a plateau ridged with mountains. Much of it is so high, cold, and dry that even nomads find it difficult to survive there.

Politically, too, Tibet is remarkable. At times it has been under Chinese rule. At times it has been completely or almost completely independent. Farther Tibet has been the more independent, with a loose tie to China. Nearer Tibet, a land of both Chinese and Tibetans, is shown on many maps as two Chinese provinces—Chinghai and Sikang. Chinese rule has been strongest in the towns and valleys, with the Tibetan mountaineers living in their traditional ways.



Burton Holmes from Ewing Galloway

Every Dalai Lama made his home here.

Farther Tibet has been a political curiosity—one of the world's few countries ruled by priests. For nearly seven hundred years the Buddhist monks have been the ruling class in Tibet. The top man politically has been the Dalai Lama, who lives in an imposing monastery in Lhasa, a capital city twelve thousand feet above sea level. When a Dalai Lama died, a search was made for a baby boy born at the same instant. This baby became the new Dalai Lama.

The Tibetans have owed their relative independence to the nature of the land they live in. It has been a hard country for a conqueror to enter, and there has not been a great deal to make the cost of conquest seem worth while. Nevertheless, even this high and sparsely populated plateau country cannot isolate itself from world affairs. There are no really isolated countries any more.

Chinese People and Government

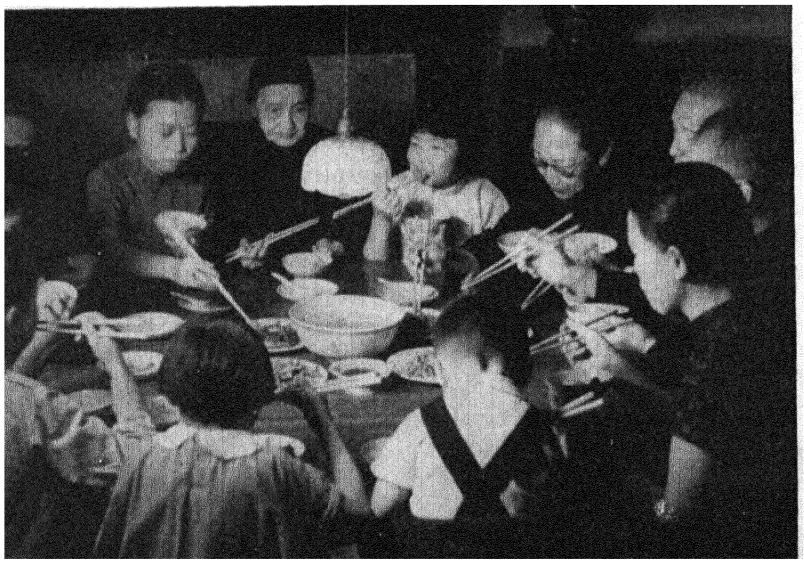
After our tour of China's borderlands, let's return to the main part of the country, where most of the five or six hundred million people live.

You have already found out that India has been, for most of its history, a political patchwork held together from time to time by conquerors. You know, too, that the Indian subcontinent has many languages and religions. In contrast with India, China has been politically united a great deal of the time for several thousand years, though there have been periods like the recent past when it was not united. Although China has a large number of spoken dialects, all China uses the same written characters. Moreover, as we have said, a standard Chinese called Mandarin is understood over much of the country. China has several religions—Buddhism, Taoism, Confucianism, Islam, and Christianity, to name the main ones. But religious differences in China are not so serious as they are in India.

It would be risky to claim that geography has made it easier for China to unite than for Europe or India, for it is no more (though no less) a geographical unit than is Europe or India. It is true that China is a great block of humid, middle-latitude land cut off to a considerable degree by mountains and dry regions. But we have already said that China has six or seven key areas which could easily have formed independent countries, as similar key areas did in Europe.

It's fairly easy to guess who the various members of this family are. They all feel they belong together.

People of Western China, *Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc.*



To sum up centuries of history in a nutshell, it seems likely that China's long record of being a united country can be traced to three things. First, China had some energetic rulers who pulled the country together. Second, feudalism, which once existed in China, declined early there so that it became easier for one ruler to unite the people. Third, there grew up in China a culture and a social system which had very strong influence on the people.

There are a number of common ideals, or values, which are accepted by nearly all Chinese. Perhaps the most fundamental of these is the idea of duty. Most people have some sense of duty, but few have given it as high a value as have the Chinese. Chinese society, when it was in good running order, had a whole web of duties, or right relationships, of father to son and of son to father, of ruler to subject and of subject to ruler. Such a society was very stable. It also was rigid; too rigid, probably.

The strongest sense of duty felt by a Chinese is duty toward his family. That means all the family, not just father, mother, and children, as in our families. "All the family" includes not only all the living members of the family but all the dead and future generations as well. The strong feeling of family duty has some good points. It means that the poor members are protected by the wealthier ones. It means that the old are respected by the young. But it has its faults, too. People get jobs because of family connections, not because they are intelligent or efficient. And the intense loyalty to the family tends to overshadow loyalty to the country.

When Chinese society has been at its best, with the web of right relationships strong, China has been well governed for its times. But at other times, government weakened, corruption crept in, and emperors lost their thrones.

It so happened that just as western nations and western ideas were knocking at China's door, China was in one of its politically weak periods, with the Manchu rulers losing their grip. Strong rulers might have held China together and adopted the new ideas from the west, but the rulers were not strong enough. There was a revolution and a long period of unrest and trouble.

"Face." There are some other things about Chinese society of which we often hear. One of them is "face." "Face" might be defined roughly as "dignity" or "respect for oneself and for others." Everyone wants to have "face." No one wants to "lose face" by being caught in an embarrassing position. A student with low grades loses face. In our country he may try to hide his grades or say he doesn't care. But in the Orient loss of face is taken very seriously. Japanese students have been known to commit suicide because they failed examinations. When an American or Canadian, who doesn't take loss of face so seriously, makes friends or does business with an Oriental, he should be very careful not to embarrass his friend or business associate in any way. To make a man lose face in the Orient is to make an enemy. To help a man gain face is to make a friend.

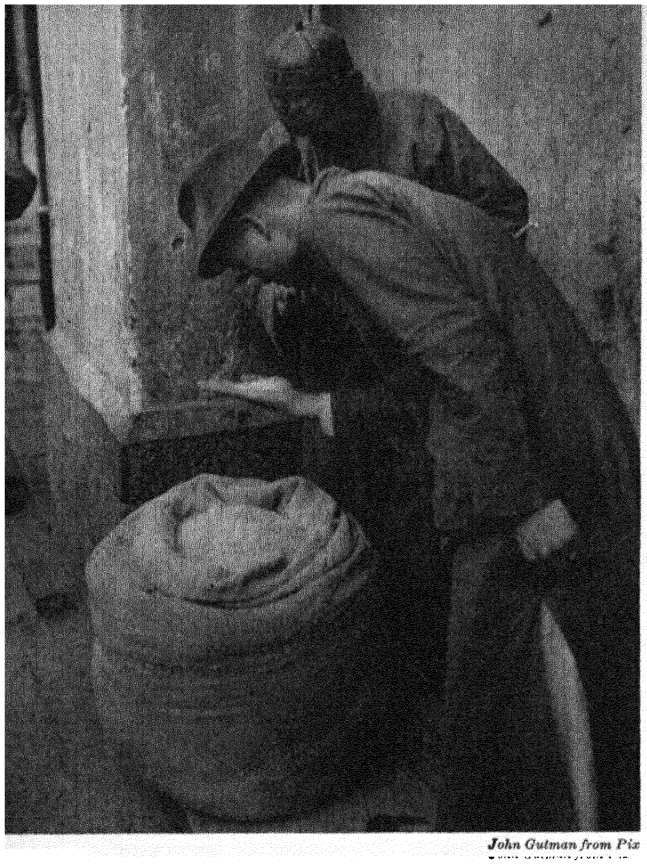
"Squeeze." One problem that most Chinese governments have had to face is the age-old custom known as "squeeze." Squeeze at its best is rather like getting a commission for selling something, but in China it is more widespread. A cook squeezes a few cents on the food he buys for his employer. This sort of squeeze is regulated by custom, and by the employer's wrath! But squeeze in government easily turns to graft. It may mean stealing army supplies and selling them. During the troubled years of civil war, the Chinese republican government had much difficulty over such acts of corruption.

The three people's principles. Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the chief leader of the revolution against the Manchu rulers in 1911, believed that China's future government should be based on what he called the three people's principles. These three people's principles are nationalism, democracy, and the people's livelihood.

Nationalism. At first thought, it may seem odd that nationalism should be one of the great principles, when we seem to have too much nationalism in the world already. But in China there has been need for more intense national patriotism. Many men have put love of money or family above love of country. The old Manchu imperial government was overthrown in 1911, but no strong new government arose to command the loyalty of the four hundred million Chinese. The invasion by the Japanese did much to instill national patriotism in the Chinese, and the people learned that national matters outweighed local matters. Nationalism, or patriotism, will probably be the first of the three people's principles to be achieved.

Democracy. It is easy to see why democracy was chosen as the second of the principles. China had never had a democratic government, as we understand it, or a freely elected government. Up to 1911 China had been ruled by emperors who appointed officials to help them rule. Sun Yat-sen liked democratic methods and wished China to have a constitutional government. But it is no easy matter to begin a democratic government in a country which has known only the rule of an emperor. After the revolution in 1911 there was too much unrest for the establishment of elected governments. Having democratic politics when people are desperately poor is hard. They are then more interested in getting something to eat than in free elections and the orderly processes of lawmaking.

The people's livelihood. So we come to the third one of Dr. Sun's principles, the people's livelihood or means of support. National patriotism and democracy aren't enough if the people are underfed and in poverty. Hungry people will trade the right to vote for a bite to eat, if it comes to a bargain. So a basic problem in China, as in



John Gutman from Pix

This farmer sells his rice on a small local market.

many other parts of the world, is to raise the standard of living. In China, as in India, this must be done in a land that is already extremely crowded.

We don't know for certain how rapidly the population of China is increasing. So many wars and floods and famines have occurred that population may not have increased very much in recent years. But we do know for certain that a period of peace in China will lead to an increase of population, for it will permit progress in public health and in flood and famine relief.

Famines in China have had many causes. The principal natural causes have been drought and flood. It is difficult to make nature behave, but something can be done. Dikes and dams and irrigation can reduce floods and drought. Then there are famines which are due to lack of transportation. There may be plenty of food in one district and famine in another—if no way to carry the surplus is available. A man carrying food on his back or in a wheelbarrow eats up half his load in a few days and of course must use the other half for the trip home. But when a country has roads and railroads, food can be better distributed. Then, also, there are local famines caused by war, for crops may be destroyed or eaten by the warring armies. If China has peace, much can be done to reduce the danger of famine.

But the principle of the people's livelihood will not be fully realized until China develops its natural resources and acquires industries. Education is necessary, also. A better livelihood requires trained farmers, mechanics, engineers, and scientists. China has made much progress since the Revolution of 1911, but the task ahead is still very great.

Nationalists and Communists. The political party that Dr. Sun founded was called the Kuomintang, or Nationalist party. The republic that Dr. Sun and his party founded had a troubled career. For a long time there was civil war with many "war lords." The war lords were men who seized power in some part of China during the revolution and ruled independently. A few war lords were good rulers, but most of them were cruel and corrupt. Then, in 1927, came a split in the Kuomintang between the true Nationalists and the Communists. This split led to an even more serious period of civil war. The Nationalists never had a chance to put the three people's principles into practice. The war with Japan used up much of their resources. Subsequently an Allied decision permitted the Soviet Union to occupy Manchuria, which was China's most industrialized area, at the close of the war with Japan. Manchuria became a base for the Chinese Communist armies. Meanwhile, the Nationalists had lost a good deal of popularity by their inefficiency and their inability to make good the three people's principles. An American attempt to get the Nationalists and Communists to work together in what is called a coalition proved to be unsuccessful. The upshot was

that in 1949 the Nationalist government lost the mainland of China to the Communists but retained the island of Formosa. At the time of writing, the Nationalist government on Formosa is regarded by the United States as China's true government. It represents China in the United Nations.

China's Resources

China has a vast number of intelligent and hardy people. People are one of China's greatest resources—people who can learn all the skills in the world if they have a chance at education. But people, because of their very number, are also one of China's greatest problems. It is difficult to educate so many people, or to raise enough food so that they can rise above a mere bare living.

Coal. Among the mineral resources, China has one of great value. That is coal. To the best of our knowledge, China has about as much coal as Germany had before World War II. China stands about fourth among the countries of the world in coal resources. Germany, before World War II, ranked among the top countries of the world in industrial production. There is no good reason why China should not in time rank high also, although it is never likely to be a close rival of the United States or the Soviet Union.

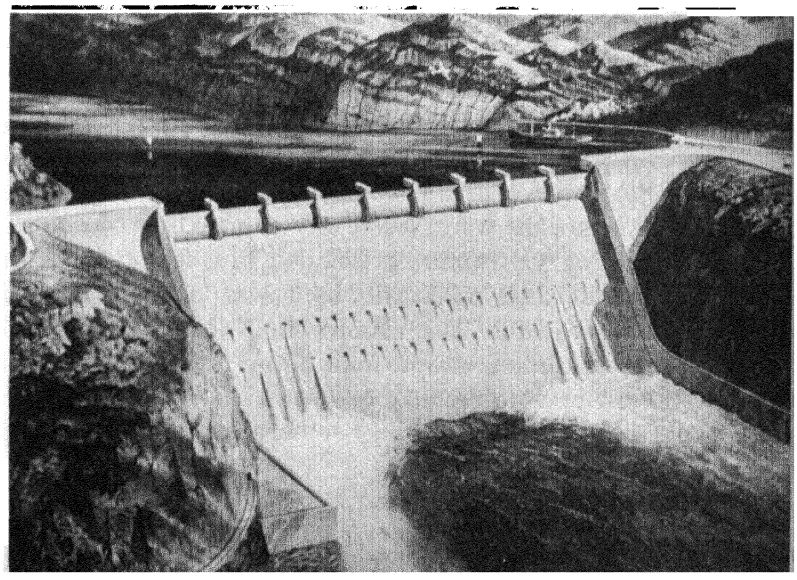
China's greatest coal beds lie in the north, in the hilly provinces of Shansi and Shensi, west of Peiping. There are also large coal beds in Manchuria. If a peaceful and unified China develops centers of heavy industry comparable to Pittsburgh, very likely they will be in the north. Unfortunately, China does not seem to have much iron ore. The biggest of its known deposits are in southern Manchuria. This is another reason why the northern part of China is likely to have the heavy industries. It may be necessary for China to import iron, perhaps from as far away as India. Locate China's coal beds on the map on page 93.

Grand Coulee on the Yangtze. No large oil fields have yet been found in China, though little of the country has been carefully prospected. But China, though it may not have much oil, has a vast amount of another source of energy: water power. Little of China's water power is now in use, but if its water power were developed, that country would rank well up toward Canada and the United States.

Because so much of China is hilly or mountainous, water-power sites are widespread. But the biggest ones lie in the west, where great rivers plow through the mountains. The most exciting prospect for hydroelectric development is in the gorge of the Yangtze, through which we passed on our imaginary journey. In this gorge the whole of the great river cuts through two hundred miles of mountains, descending three hundred feet on the way. If this tremendous flow were harnessed, power equal to that generated at Grand Coulee Dam could be produced. Large ships, lifted past the dam by locks, could ascend to Chungking, in Szechwan Province. To build such a dam on the Yangtze would cost several billion dollars, and at present China does not have this much money to spare.

A sketch of a proposed dam in the Yangtze gorges.

Acme



To borrow it for this one project, when China needs so many other things, would be unwise. But a "Grand Coulee on the Yangtze" probably will arise in time.

Between the U.S. and the U.S.S.R.

China is important for its own sake, but also because it is part of the rim of Eurasia, between the United States and the Soviet Union. We have seen that the Soviet Union faces the coastlands by land and the United States faces them by sea.

Not for a great many years has China been a truly free country, free from outside domination. The Chinese hoped that the expulsion of the Japanese invaders would bring peace, unity, and progress. But this hope was dashed when China became involved in a civil war between the national government and the Communists. At this same time, Communists were competing with non-Communists for power in Europe. While Europe was being split into a communist eastern and a noncommunist western part, China was being split into a communist north and a nationalist south. But such a split could hardly last in China. China is really one country, with one culture and a long tradition of unity. The Communists and the Nationalists were fighting for the whole of China, not for just a part of it. The struggle was bound to end in one party's pushing the other out. Five years after World War II, the Communists had pushed the Nationalists out of the main part of China and faced the problem of governing that huge, densely populated country.

There is a long tradition of friendship between China and the United States. The United States has often helped China when it was stricken with famine or when it seemed that European powers might try to divide it into colonies.

But when the Communists came to power in mainland China, they turned toward the communistic Soviet Union. Chinese soldiers were sent by the Communists to fight against the American and other United Nations troops in Korea.

As we write this book, the future is uncertain. There are some big questions that only time can answer. Will the Nationalists on Formosa or the Communists on the mainland come out on top? If the Communists remain in power, will they continue to be the servants of the Soviet Union, or will they take a more independent line? Is there any way that friendship between the United States and China can be restored, or are these two countries to remain enemies for a long time? Can China become a truly independent great power, able to steer its own course in world politics? The answers that history gives to these questions will be tremendously important, not only to Asia but to the whole world.

KOREA: HERMIT KINGDOM TO HOT SPOT

Korea used to be so little known to the world and tried so hard to isolate itself that it was known as the hermit kingdom. But the rest of the world has a way of intruding itself into a country's isolation. In fact, Korea's effort to isolate itself was never very successful. The country is so located that it cannot escape from world affairs. Find Korea on the map on page 171. It has a central location in the Far East—close to Japan and touching China and the Soviet Union.

In the many centuries of Chinese domination of eastern Asia, Korea often was under a loose sort of Chinese suzerainty. That means that the Korean rulers kept their thrones and managed their country's affairs, but paid tribute and owed allegiance to the emperors of China. But by the end of the nineteenth century China was weak,

and other great powers were active in the Far East. Russia was pushing overland, building the Trans-Siberian Railway and securing leases on land in Manchuria. Both Europeans and Americans were seeking opportunities for trade in the Far East, including Korea. The Japanese, modernizing their country, thought of the Korean peninsula as a big dagger pointed toward Japan. It was a dispute over Korean affairs that touched off the first war between China and Japan, in 1894–95. The Japanese victory ended Chinese influence in Korea, but the Russians were just around the corner. Ten years later, the Japanese and the Russians fought, chiefly in southern Manchuria. The victorious Japanese took over the Russian leaseholds in southern Manchuria and proclaimed a protectorate over Korea. Five years later, in 1910, Korea was annexed to Japan and remained a Japanese possession until the end of World War II.

The Rule of the Japanese

Japanese rule in Korea was efficient but at first very severe. Later it became somewhat wiser and more tolerant, but the Koreans never liked it. The Japanese regarded themselves as superior to the Koreans, and nations or individuals that think themselves better than others are seldom loved. Japanese businessmen in Korea prospered, but few of the Korean people shared their prosperity. The population increased, but the standard of living did not. Most Koreans longed for independence.

Korea is not a small country, although it is dwarfed by its gigantic Chinese and Soviet neighbors. It has an area of about eighty-five thousand square miles, or, roughly, an area like that of the state of Utah. It is densely populated, with about twice as many people as there are in the state of New York. Much of Korea is mountainous; and the mountains bear forests, yield water power, and contain iron, gold, and other minerals. The most mountainous parts are the north, bordering on Manchuria, and the eastern side of the peninsula, facing the Sea of Japan. The chief lowlands face either west toward the Yellow Sea or south. A strait about a hundred miles in width separates Korea from Japan.

Because of its rougher landforms and more severe climate, northern Korea is less populous than southern Korea. Speaking very generally, we might say that the north has more natural resources and more heavy industry and water power. The south produces more food but has more people to eat it. The capital, Seoul—pronounced almost like the English word "soul"—lies near the center of the west coast, in a lowland draining toward the Yellow Sea.

Since World War II

World War II promised independence for the Korean people, whose culture and patriotism give them unity. Most unwisely, the United States and the Soviet Union decided to divide Korea for the period of military occupation. Had this been purely a military occupation, long enough to drive out the Japanese and put the Koreans in power, no great harm might have been done. But the differences between the United States and the Soviet Union in ideals and methods of government, and their growing rivalry all over the world turned the military occupation into a long-term business. Although Korea had belonged to Japan, the people were not Japanese and had not taken an active part in the war. Yet their country was occupied just as if it were enemy territory and just as if it had waged war against the Allies.

To make matters worse, the line adopted as a boundary between the military forces of the United States and those of the Soviet Union was a parallel of latitude—the thirty-eighth parallel. In the western part of North America, the boundary between Canada and the United States follows a parallel of latitude—the forty-ninth. We all



Courtesy Army Signal Corps

After World War II Korea welcomed Allied Armies.

know that the forty-ninth parallel is a very peaceful and generally satisfactory boundary. But North America is not the Far East. The forty-ninth parallel between Canada and the United States is satisfactory for several reasons. For one thing, it was adopted before many settlers had gone to the Far West. The boundary was there when they moved in, and they adapted themselves to its presence.

Again, trade and travel in North America have tended to move east and west more than north and south. This was especially true after the transcontinental railroads were built. Finally, Canada and the United States have for many years "agreed to agree" and to make it easy for people to cross their common boundary. None of these conditions applied to the thirty-eighth parallel military boundary across Korea. The Koreans had long been a unified people, and the boundary cut them apart. There was much north-south trade and travel. Seoul, the capital, was only thirty miles south of the boundary. And there was certainly no intent on the part of the Soviet government to bring about harmony between North and South Korea. The Communists only waited for an opportunity to attack South Korea.

Whatever its future may be, Korea will always be in the middle of far eastern affairs. It can never hope to be a hermit country. Korea illustrates the amphibious nature of the coastlands—belonging to both land and water. Its land boundary faces the Asiatic continent. Its long coasts face the seas which adjoin the Pacific.

JAPAN: GREAT BRITAIN OF ASIA?

Before World War II, when Japan was a growing industrial and naval power, people often called Japan the Great Britain of Asia. Some of the reasons for making such a comparison are obvious. Both countries are on islands. In both cases the islands lie just offshore from populous continents. Great Britain has been able to trade with European countries in peace and to blockade them in war. Japan is favorably located to trade with or blockade far eastern countries.

In manufacturing and in maritime activity both Great Britain and Japan were prodigies. England was the first highly industralized country in the world. Japan was the first in Asia. Manufacturing in both England and Japan began with textiles, and their textiles found markets far and wide. Both countries built ships—merchant ships and warships. Their merchant marines and navies were among the largest in the world. Thousands of seamen and fishermen sailed in and out of their ports.

But there are strong differences as well as resemblances between Great Britain and Japan. For one thing, the people of Britain

began manufacturing with water power but shifted to coal as a source of energy. After Watt had improved the steam engine and others had adapted it to railroads and ships, coal powered British industry. It operated British railroads, drove British ships, and furnished a major British export. Coal was shipped out in coal-burning British freighters, protected by coal-burning British warships. It helped pay for the many imports of food and raw materials that the British Isles required. Oil has replaced coal as a fuel for ships, and the British no longer export much coal. But coal remains the great industrial fuel of Britain.

Japan, on the other hand, is relatively poor in coal. Japan just about met its coal requirements from its own mines, but that was only because Japan consumed far less coal than Great Britain, Germany, or the United States. Japan had to import coking coal from China for its iron and steel industry. Hydroelectric power, of which Japan has much more than Britain, met the need for energy only in part. All in all, British industry used about three times as much mechanical energy as did Japanese industry before World War II. That is a rough measure of the industrial strength of the two countries.

Neither Great Britain nor Japan has enough iron ore for its needs. Neither has the oil it requires for its ships, motorcars, and aircraft. Neither produces the cotton it needs for its large textile industry. Neither is self-sufficient in food, though Japan comes closer to it than Britain. This is because most of Japan has a subtropical climate permitting the growth of rice. The bleaker British climate favors the raising of livestock and hardy vegetables—which yield less food per acre.

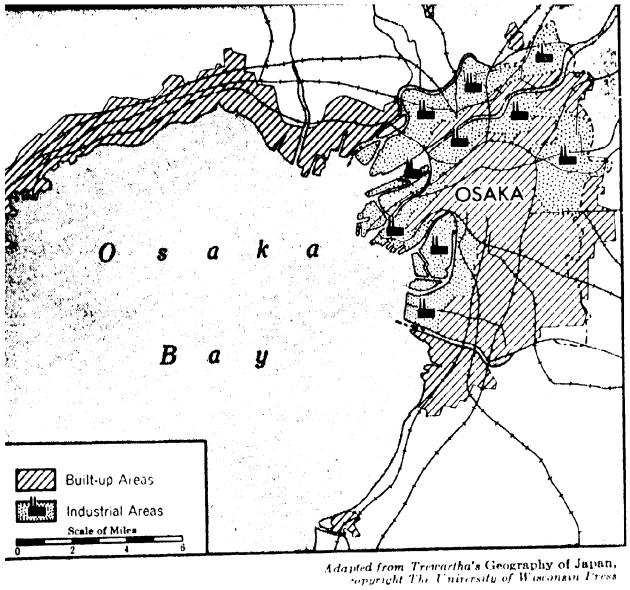
To sum up all these facts, Japan has limited coal resources, relatively abundant water power, and a large population. It is in some respects more like Italy than like Great Britain. One might say that Japan ranked between Italy and Great Britain in national strength before World War II. This ranking helps to explain both the great successes and the final defeat of Japan in the war.

Japan's Geography

Japan occupies one of the necklaces of islands that adorn the Asiatic coast. These island chains are mountainous and contain many volcanoes. Japan today consists of four main islands and a number of smaller ones. The largest of the islands—Honshu (which means "the mainland")—is about the size of Britain or the state of Utah. Japan's biggest cities and a large majority of the Japanese people are on Honshu. Look for Honshu on the map on page 222, and find there the other islands named below.

The Inland Sea. South of Honshu are two smaller islands—Kyushu and Shikoku. Together with the southern prong of Honshu, these islands enclose a picturesque sea called simply the Inland Sea. The Inland Sea is Japan's Aegean Sea, historically. What might be called the classical period of Japanese history centered about it. The first Japanese to reach the islands are supposed to have landed on Kyushu, not far from the narrow straits that lead to the Inland Sea. The early Japanese spread their settlements over the southern islands and around the Inland Sea. In southern Japan severe cold weather is rare. The lightly built Japanese house is well adapted to this region, as is Japanese farming, which centers on the rice crop.

One part of the Inland Sea region gradually climbed to political power. This was the group of valleys at the eastern end of the sea, where the cities of Osaka and Kyoto stand. Compared with other valleys in Japan, these are large valleys—that is, they are a few hundred square miles in area. The valley bottoms are intensively farmed and support millions of people. Moreover, this eastern end of the Inland Sea was and is a center of transportation routes, both over



Adapted from Trewartha's Geography of Japan, copyright The University of Wisconsin Press

An industrial center and a good port, besides.

land and on the sea. It became the key area of Japan's classical period, and Kyoto—the name means "eastern capital"—was the emperor's capital for eleven centuries. If we call the Inland Sea Japan's Aegean, we might call Kyoto Japan's Athens. Today Osaka is larger than Kyoto, but that is because modern industry and commerce have been pulled to Osaka and its port.

Northward progress. When civilization flourished on the shores of the Aegean, Italy was still a frontier region. As Japanese culture flourished in southern Japan, northern Japan was still a frontier. The Japanese had found a primitive race on the islands when they first landed. These Ainu, or "hairy barbarians," were, oddly, a remote branch of the Caucasoid race. They had wavy hair and flourishing whiskers, quite unlike the straight-haired, smooth-faced Mongoloid Japanese. The Japanese slowly pushed back or absorbed the Ainu, until today only a few thousand survive on the northern island of Hokkaido.

In their northward progress from the Inland Sea, the Japanese came upon the largest lowland of their island realm. This is the plain of Kanto (or Kwanto), in which Tokyo stands. The Kanto Plain is little larger than the state of Connecticut, yet it contains fifteen million people. One Japanese in five lives on this plain. Tokyo is the largest city of Asia.

If Kyoto could be called Japan's Athens, Tokyo could be called Japan's Rome. Just a few years before the Pilgrims landed in Massachusetts—in 1615, to be precise—the feudal lords of Kanto became the most powerful family in Japan. The emperor remained in Kyoto, but the real government was that of the lord of Kanto. He was called the shogun, the "great barbarian-destroying general," and his palace was in Yedo, which is now called Tokyo. It was to the shogun in Yedo, not to the emperor in Kyoto, that Commodore Perry presented his country's demands for the opening of Japan. The shogun gave in to the American demands, but this act weakened his power over Japan. He was overthrown, and in 1868 the emperor was restored to actual power. The emperor moved from Kyoto to Yedo, which was renamed Tokyo—which is "Kyoto" with the syllables reversed.

South and north in Japan. Japan has such a great north-south extent that it has a variety of climates. If Japan were placed along the Atlantic coast of North America, it would reach from Nova Scotia to Georgia, not counting some small Japanese islands which extend even farther south than the four main islands. Southern Japan has the long, warm summers and short, cool winters of the Carolinas and Georgia. Tokyo, near the middle of the country, has a climate somewhat like that of Washington, D.C. As one goes northward from Tokyo, the winter temperatures become colder. When one crosses over to the northern island of Hokkaido, one is in Japan's New England, which has heavy snows and temperatures that fall below zero. Summer temperatures are somewhat uniform all over Japan, but the summer is shorter in the north. The Japanese, by breeding quick-growing strains of rice, are able to cultivate their favorite cereal even on Hokkaido.

Although the climates of Japan resemble those of the Atlantic coast of North America,



From European Picture Service

You can see western dress as well as eastern on the streets of Tokyo—and both in the same family.

the distribution of people and industry does not. In North America the most densely populated region is the urban belt around New York, in southern New England, in Pennsylvania, and west to the Great Lakes. South of the Potomac River one finds no immense cities, but rather a great agricultural belt containing a number of flourishing small and medium-sized cities. Factory industries first became important in New England, then spread to the Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes regions, and only in the present century became important in the South.

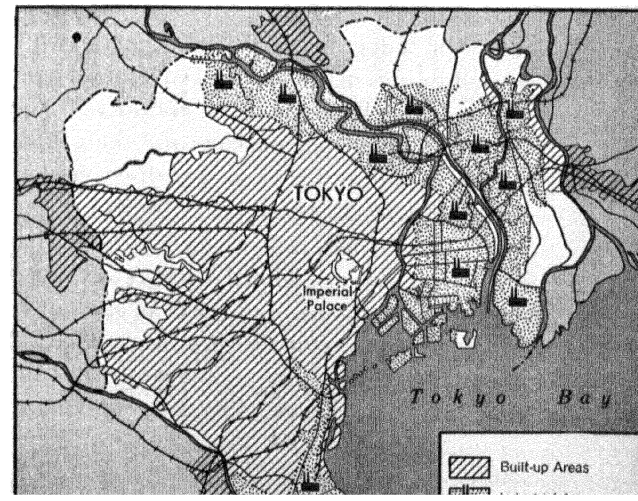
In Japan the situation is just the reverse. Washington is the *southernmost* very large city of the Atlantic coast of the United States. Tokyo, in about the same latitude as Washington, is the *northernmost* very large city of Japan. In fact, there are only a few medium-sized cities north of Tokyo. Most of Japan's industries are in the Tokyo area or farther south. The Pittsburgh of Japan is Yawata, a steel-mill city on the island of Kyushu.

In North America the crowded Northeast looks to the South for some of its food, particularly fats made from cottonseed and fruits and vegetables. In Japan the great cities of the south are supplied with some of their food needs by the north. Northern Honshu has surplus rice and fruits, and Hokkaido yields dairy products.

One can guess some of the reasons for these differences between northern and southern Japan. In Japan settlement began

A large part of the Japanese capital is industrial.

Adapted from Trewartha's Geography of Japan, copyright The University of Wisconsin Press





How are these islands like the Philippines?

in the south and slowly progressed northward. The Japanese crops, such as rice, tea, and silk, were best adapted to the subtropical southern climate. And the Japanese mode of living in thinly built, almost unheated houses made a northern climate most unpleasant. Thus modern commerce and industry found their markets and their labor supply in the south. Coal was discovered in the south, chiefly on Kyushu. (There is coal in Hokkaido, too, and a steel industry has grown up there.) There were many good harbors in the south, but fewer in the north. Moreover, the first Europeans landed in the south. And it was to the south that the chief overseas routes extended—to China, to Southeast Asia, and through the Indian Ocean to Europe. Even after transpacific trade began to flourish, ships that voyaged via Hawaii found that southern Japan was about as near to American ports as was northern Japan.

Other islands. When Perry reached Japan about a century ago, not many Japanese lived outside the core areas of Kyushu, Shikoku, and southern and central Honshu. Northern Honshu was a frontier land, and only a few thousand Japanese and Ainu lived on Hokkaido, the northernmost and second largest of the four main islands.

When you look at the map at the left, you can see why the map maker thought the outline of Japan like that of a leaping deer. Honshu makes up most of the body. Kyushu is the hindquarter. From Kyushu two parallel chains of islands (so close together that on small maps they seem to be one) stretch southward to form the hind legs. These islands, usually called the Ryukyus, are inhabited by people much like the Japanese who are known as Okinawans. The largest island of the chain is Okinawa, and on it the last major landings of World War II before the final surrender were made. Both Japan and China have claimed the Ryukyus. Japan has ruled the northern Ryukyu Islands for several hundred years, the southern ones since 1876.

The forelegs of our jumping deer are attached to its body, Honshu, in a peculiar place—about halfway down the chest! Near Tokyo there begins a chain of islands, rather widely spaced, which runs southward almost to the Tropic of Cancer. Japan took possession of these islands in the latter part of the nineteenth century. All of them are small and are volcanic in origin. One of them is only too well known as a result of a desperate but successful landing made by the United States Marines during World War II. This is Iwo Jima.

Hokkaido forms the head of our leaping deer, and the antlers are one long island and

a chain of small ones which extend northward. The long island is called Sakhalin. It is in the latitude of Newfoundland. After the end of the Russo-Japanese War in 1905, the Japanese annexed the southern half of Sakhalin, which they called Karafuto. (A few Japanese had lived on the southern tip of the island for a long time.) In spite of a severe climate, Karafuto gained in population until about four hundred thousand Japanese lived there. Some farming was possible there; and coal, timber, and fish were natural resources. The Russian half of the island contained petroleum. Before World War II the Japanese were permitted to lease some of the oil fields. At the end of World War II the Russians repossessed the entire island.

The other antler is formed by the Kuril Islands. The Japanese called them Chishima, which means "thousand islands," though there are only thirty-two of them. *Kuril* is the Russian name and means "smoke," for there are active volcanic craters. The Kurils are as bleak as the Aleutians and almost as sparsely populated, but they guard the Siberian coast and so have strategic value. The Japanese formally became their owners in 1875, and the Russians took them over after World War II.

Formosa and Micronesia. Other, more distant islands came into Japan's hands. After Japan's war with China in 1894–95, the large island of Formosa was annexed. You can find it on the map on page 171. Taiwan is the name used by the Chinese and Japanese. *Formosa* is a Portuguese word and means "beautiful." The name is appropriate for this island on the Tropic of Cancer, with its fertile western plain and its towering mountain range along its eastern side. Except for a few natives, mostly in the mountains, the population is mainly Chinese. The island is now under the control of the Chinese Nationalist government.

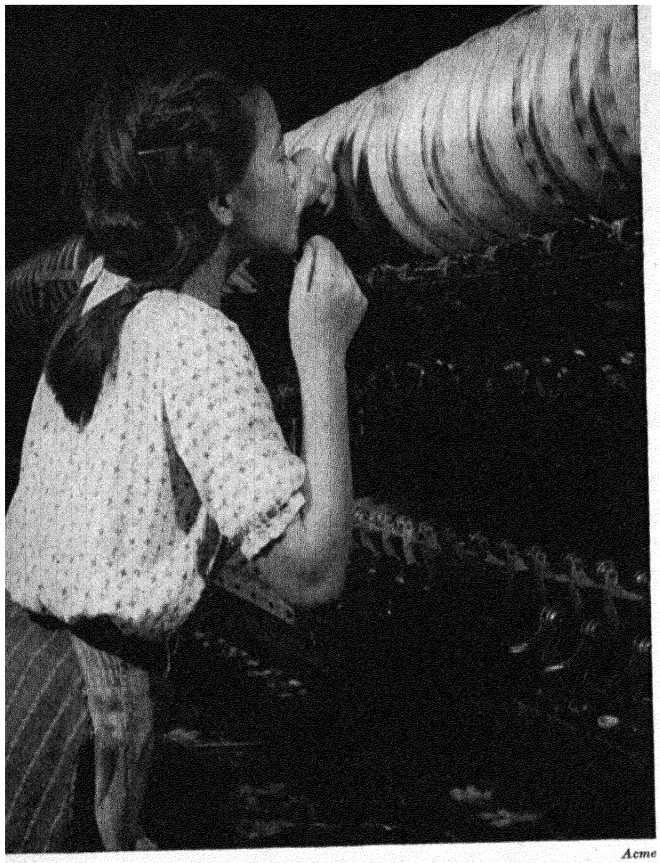
The last islands to fall to Japan were in Micronesia, far south of Japan and east of the Philippines. We have already had a brief introduction to these islands and will meet them again in the next chapter. Most of Micronesia was once held by Spain, as we have said. You recall that the United States took Guam. Germany acquired the other Spanish islands, and then the Japanese ousted the Germans in World War I. Japan retained the islands under a mandate of the League of Nations. Key islands like Eniwetok and Saipan were captured by American forces in World War II. All the former Japanese islands of Micronesia are now held by the United States in trusteeship under the United Nations.

Continental expansion. The expansion of Japan was not confined to islands. In the early part of the present century Japan annexed Korea, the large peninsula that is a bridge between Japan and Asia. In 1931 Manchuria was brought under Japanese control as a puppet state. In 1937 a major invasion of China was launched. We have already read about these continental areas.

Modernization in Japan

Japan was the first Asiatic country to try to modernize itself. Japan had a little contact with Europeans after the Portuguese pioneered the sea routes to the Indian Ocean and Far East. But the rulers of Japan did not like the European influences, and for about two centuries they rigidly closed the doors of their country against foreigners. Only a handful of Dutch traders, penned up on an island in Nagasaki Harbor, were allowed to do business with Japan. This long period of seclusion came to an end in 1854, when the American commodore, Perry, sailed his fleet to Japan and forced the Japanese to sign a treaty opening the country to commerce.

In industry and government. A few years later, the Japanese started a program of modernization that affected their whole future. Heavy industry was built up from nothing, since Japan before Perry was in an age of handicrafts. Some light industries



Acme

Modern machines prepare silk thread for weaving.

were modernized, with large factories and the best of machinery. Other light industries were a mixture of old and new. Much of the work was done in the homes, but a little machinery was used. Agriculture was the least modernized of occupations, yet even in agriculture changes occurred. In particular, the Japanese reduced silk production to a science. Silk worms were carefully bred and reared, and the silk fibers were unwound by machines. Until synthetic fibers were perfected, Japanese silk was sold in immense quantities to the United States.

Alongside this modernization of industry went a modernization of the Japanese Army and Navy. The Japanese had been tremendously impressed by the power of Perry's ships, small though they would seem today. From the Japanese point of view, a modern army and navy were necessary for defense—and for the first twenty or thirty years after Perry's trip to Japan, this probably was very true. But the possession of military power often tempts a nation to use it. Japan's war with Russia in 1904–5 perhaps started as a defensive war. But the war on China, which began in Manchuria in 1931, was certainly one in which Japan started the attack.

The Japanese government was modernized to some extent, but the changes were slight. There was a congress or parliament, called the Diet; and the highest political officer was the premier. But two things kept the Japanese government from being truly democratic. One was the emperor, whom the Japanese believed to be a god. The other was the special position of the Army and Navy. Instead of being under the control of civilians, as they are in most western countries, their leaders could by-pass the premier and go directly to the emperor. The premier could not form a cabinet unless the Army and Navy approved of his choices for ministers of war and navy. This meant that the Army and Navy could control the civilian officials if they chose. In the stormy years of Japan's war with China, leading up to the attack on Pearl Harbor, it was the military officers who called the tune to which Japan danced.

Militaristic adventures. The Japanese had many explanations for their war in China and, later, for their war against the United States and Great Britain. They pointed to their rapidly growing population and to the immigration restrictions imposed by many countries. They pointed to their need for export markets and the restrictions on Japanese goods adopted by many countries. It is perfectly true that Japan had some just grievances. The United States would not give Japan even a tiny immigration quota, and Japanese long resident in the United States could not become naturalized. But the military men made the mistake of thinking they could wipe out these grievances by force. They thought they could secure colonies, control markets, and turn Japan into a superpower.

The invasion of Manchuria in 1931 led to a quick Japanese victory. But the attack

on the main part of China beginning in 1937 was met with sturdy resistance. The Japanese could command the coasts, rivers, and railroads, but away from these easy means of transportation, the Japanese were no stronger than the Chinese. And they were far less numerous. The war in China dragged on for years. Then while Europe was boiling with Hitler's wars, the Japanese military men decided on a colossal gamble. This was no less than to attack both the United States and the Commonwealth of Nations and conquer all of the Far East and Southeast Asia. Then they planned to form a "Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere" with Japan at the head.

What happened is still recent history. The Japanese bit off far more than they could chew. Furthermore, they aroused the hatred of most of the Asiatic peoples they conquered. Even in countries like Burma that were glad to lose their European masters, the Japanese were not liked very long. The strain of winning and defending vast territories was too much for Japan. Even before the atomic bombs burst, many Japanese knew that the war was lost. Looking backward, one can say that Japan's use of force lost that country its chance to be a real leader in Asia. Where force failed, a sort of Asiatic good-neighbor policy might have succeeded. The Japanese military leaders thought they could give orders to half a continent and half a billion people. They failed.

Problems of Postwar Japan

When you read about China, you found out about Dr. Sun's three people's principles, upon which he thought the future government of China should be based. These principles were nationalism, democracy, and the people's livelihood. China still has not achieved the things Dr. Sun worked for, though national patriotism has been growing.

Suppose we try applying the three principles to Japan. Japan, obviously, knows all about nationalism. It is one of the most nationalistic countries in the world. From one end of the country to the other, the Japanese are much alike in culture and strongly united in national patriotism. But the Japanese have much to learn about democratic government, and they have great problems to solve before the people's livelihood is assured.

Society and government in Japan. Because a person's mind can only take in so much at one time, we find it necessary to divide knowledge or learning into subjects. There is so much to know about the universe that men have to specialize in order to master the information about some part of it. Many doctors specialize—in diseases of the brain, heart, nose, throat, and so forth. Professors specialize—in mathematics, history, philosophy, and so forth. This dividing of the fields of learning is necessary, but it has drawbacks. For instance, we often find ourselves studying the geography, history, economics, and government of the countries of the world as if they were unrelated subjects. But of course they are all related. A country is one kind of human society. Living in a country is one way in which people live together on the earth. Government is one activity of that society. The economic life of the country is another. And that country, of course, is spread out over a piece of the earth, so it has its geography.

Since the human mind is limited, we can't expect to describe and discuss everything about a human society at once. The works of a clock are mystifying unless we study the parts one by one and see how they fit together. The working of a human society like a country is much more complicated than that of a clock. In fact, the most careful students don't agree on just what makes a society tick.

Japanese society illustrates very well the close relationship between government and other activities of the people. Family life, religion, education, and government in Japan are intergrown like old grapevines.

One result of this intergrowth was that Japan could be easily united for war and later it could surrender and accept military occupation by its recent enemies with amazing obedience.

Life with father. One of the first principles of Japanese life is that the *group* is more important than the individual. Take the human group called the family. In America, we have such things as family pride, family spirit, and family reunions. The heads of the family punish the children when necessary. But we think of the family as a sort of starting place for grown-up life. Each child expects to have more freedom as he grows older, until finally he leaves home to make his own living and start his own family. Moreover, in America men and women have about the same rights.

Japanese family life is a far more rigid affair. In the Japanese family father is boss. He is not expected to help with the housework or take his wife to the movies. The house is run for his comfort by his wife. And the second most important person in a Japanese home is not the mother but the eldest son. Only in the poor peasant families, where men and women work together in the fields, is there something like equality between the sexes.

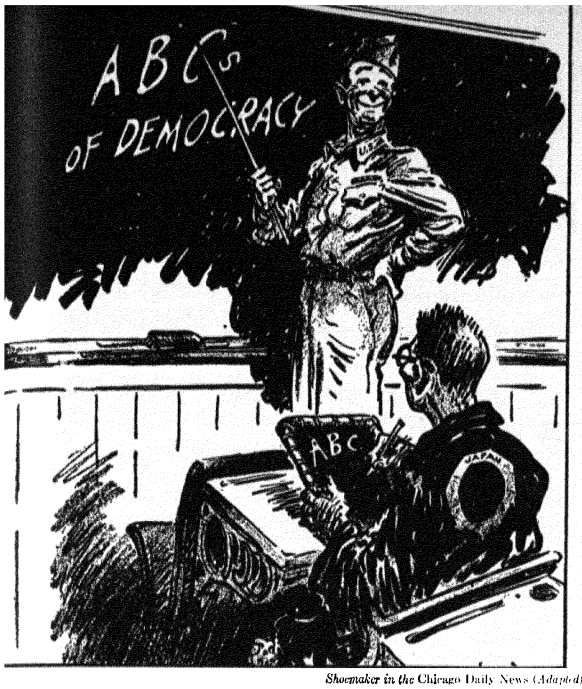
The superior position of the man of the house is reflected in the former position of the emperor. The Japanese, we have said, are united by their culture and patriotism. They think of themselves as a people separate from all others. It is almost as if they were one gigantic family. And the father of this national family is the emperor. The emperor was supposed to be a descendant of the gods, and so his fatherly authority was backed up by his divine authority. It was only after the end of World War II that the Japanese emperor gave up his claim that he was a god.

Both the ordinary family, with the father at the head, and the nation, with the emperor at the head, made demands on the individual Japanese. They demanded loyalty, obedience, and submission to decisions made by those with authority over them. Japanese young people, for example, did not, and in many cases still do not, choose their own wives and husbands. Marriages were arranged by the families through a mutual

The young ones snooze, sister does homework, mother and her assistant sew, and father relaxes over the news.

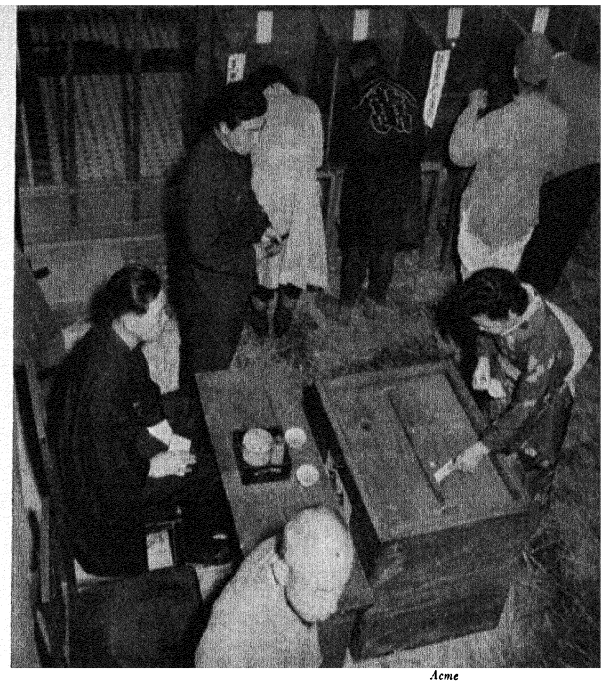
Horace Bristol from Black Star





Shoemaker in the Chicago Daily News *(Adapted)*

Getting the ideas.



Acme

Putting them into practice—voting day in Japan.

friend called a go-between. Young people then accepted the mates chosen for them. Most of the life of a Japanese was controlled either by customs or by the decisions of the group to which he belonged. The result was a society which offered a good deal of security in return for obedience. But it had little place for people with ideas of their own and desires for personal freedom.

In such a rigid society, it is not surprising that the government was undemocratic. True, there were a parliament, a premier, and a cabinet. There were parties and elections. But authority was so important in Japanese life that the military leaders and the police had great power. In the years just before the war, one could even be arrested for having dangerous thoughts. Only in village government was there much real democracy.

One of the aims of the United States and its allies ruling in Japan after World War II was to lay the foundations for real democracy. The emperor gave up his godship, women were permitted to vote, and the power of the Army and Navy was ended. It is too soon to tell for sure whether this democratic vaccination took. It is unlikely that the old ways will entirely disappear. It was a Japanese, speaking of his own country, who used the phrase, "Great ships change course slowly." But also it is unlikely that all the seeds of democracy will fall on stony soil. Some of them are almost sure to sprout. But, as in all of Asia, the success of democratic government may depend upon whether or not the people can make a living. When people are hard pressed for money and food, they may become impatient with the slow processes of democracy. They may rush after a leader who says he can make things right in a hurry.

The population problem. Japan has about the same area as California and is even more mountainous. But it has eight or nine times as many people. Japan is one of the world's most densely populated countries. Although Japan has much more rain than California, five-sixths of Japan is hilly, mountainous, or otherwise not suitable for many inhabitants. Most of the ninety million Japanese people live on the remaining one-sixth.

If we divide the number of square miles in the whole area by the total population of

Japan, we find that there are about five hundred people for every square mile. This is a very high population density. It is more than ten times that of the United States, though it is exceeded by some European countries (Great Britain, Belgium, the Netherlands) and by the island of Java. But it gives us a more striking picture of the crowding in Japan if we find out how many people there are in relation to land that is fairly level. The figure is then about three thousand per square mile, or five per acre. Even Great Britain does not have that many people in relation to the amount of land that might be farmed.

An increasing population. Not only is Japan a very crowded country, but the crowding is increasing. The Japanese, compared with the people of western Europe or the United States, have a high birth rate. The death rate in Japan has fallen since the opening of the country to western methods. As a result, the population has increased from about thirty million at the time Commodore Perry knocked on the door to about ninety million today. If the population continues to grow at this rate, in ten or fifteen years it will be a hundred million, which means it will have tripled in about a hundred years. This is not extraordinary for a developing country. The population of England increased more than threefold during the nineteenth century. The population of the United States grew from five million in 1800 to seventy-five million in 1900—an increase of fifteen times the number in 1800! What makes the growth of Japan's population a problem is that the country was fairly full of people when the rapid increase began. Also, the ways in which England took care of its increasing numbers are scarcely open to Japan today. These were migration overseas, intense industrialization, and expanding foreign trade.

It is true that Japan had colonies before World War II. Some of these colonies were heavily peopled when the Japanese took them. Korea and Formosa supplied Japan with some food. But they did not offer much chance for Japanese colonization, for they had dense populations of their own. Bleak Sakhalin, the southern half of which was Japanese before the war, is climatically like Newfoundland and could not attract many settlers. Hokkaido might hold a million or two more Japanese, but even so it would not take care of the increasing population for more than a few years.

Migration to lands beyond the Japanese empire is barred in nearly every case by immigration laws. One wishes that such laws had been applied more tactfully. The United States, for example, flatly barred Japanese immigration in 1924. This law aroused great indignation among the Japanese, who felt that it branded them an inferior people. Meanwhile, Europeans were being admitted to the United States on a quota basis. To have given Japan a small quota would have done no harm to the United States and would have saved Japan's face. However, a small quota would have done nothing to solve Japan's population problem. One can hardly expect the United States or any other country to welcome millions of immigrants just because people are crowded elsewhere. Wholesale migration is not the answer to population problems.

Manufacturing, trade, and city growth. One thing that was happening to the Japanese people before World War II was that more and more of them were moving to the cities. There they worked in factories, engaged in trade, or took up one of the many occupations that city life requires. The rural population of Japan actually declined a little between 1930 and 1940, but the city population continued to grow rapidly. In twenty years, from 1920 to 1940, the cities of Japan increased their populations by more than seventeen million people, which far exceeded the number of people who migrated to the colonies or to foreign lands.

Manufacturing and trade are the main foundations of city life. Other city jobs, from running stores to manicuring poodle dogs,

rest upon these foundations. Manufacturing and trade are twins. Factories must market their products, and trade requires products to be marketed. Manufacturing also requires mechanical energy (that is, fuel and power), human energy (management, labor, and technical know-how), and raw materials. Japan, we have already learned, is rich in one of these ingredients. That one is labor. Japan's greatest industrial asset is "millions of busy fingers." In addition, Japanese have acquired a great deal of business and technical skill. Energy sources are not abundant. Japan's coal mines and falling waters met about nine-tenths of the energy needs before the war, but they weren't enough for large industrial expansion.

Raw materials for Japan's industry are a problem. Japan has an abundance of only a few. One of them is silk. Another is sulfur. In nearly every other raw material, Japan has to import at least part of the needed supply. The mainstays of heavy industry—iron ore—and of light industry—raw cotton—come largely from abroad. They have to be paid for. Japan has to export something to get money to pay for imports.

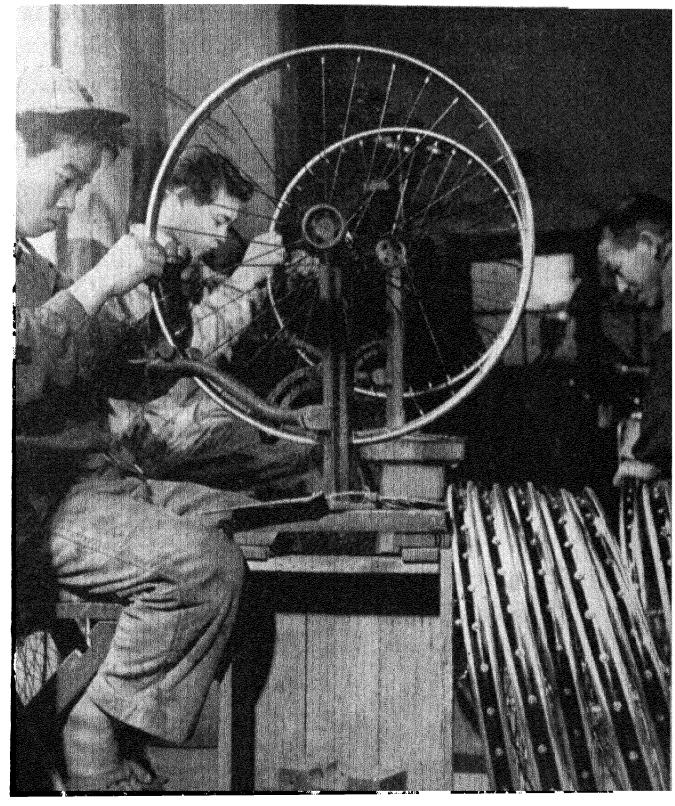
In order to export, there must be markets. It was in finding markets that Japan met its greatest difficulty. Japanese goods were cheap—whether they were cotton cloth, bicycles, rubber dolls, or Christmas-tree lights. But this very cheapness was a reason why foreign countries often opposed their purchase. They wanted to protect their own industries. "Made in Japan" became an unpopular label. Restrictions of various kinds slowed the growth of Japanese trade.

The defeat of Japan in World War II seemed to some to offer an opportunity to settle "the Japanese problem" once and for all. Japan surrendered unconditionally. The Japanese colonies, gained over a long period through force, were taken away. The Japanese merchant fleet and Navy had been almost entirely destroyed during the war. Japan's foreign trade had disappeared. From now on, some thought, Japan will be both powerless in world affairs and unimportant in world trade.

Unfortunately, world affairs seldom can be settled once and for all. It is impossible to settle "the Japanese problem" or any other international problem that way. World politics, like domestic politics, is an endless series of adjustments and settlements. Problems that seem to be settled have a habit of bobbing up again. So with Japan. Japan was completely defeated, and Japanese industry and commerce were at a halt. But the victorious nations, when they occupied Japan and took over the rule of eighty million people, found themselves up against the old problem: How are the people going to eat? Half of them live in cities and cannot raise their own food. The best farm lands are already crowded. So the military government imported food with borrowed money, and then faced the question of how to make Japan self-supporting.

The solution to this problem is anything but simple. It is possible to reclaim some land in Japan, and to improve farming

Bicycles are being built, and so is Japanese trade.



practices. But how far these methods can go is uncertain. Japanese industry will have to be revived and Japan permitted to regain some of its foreign trade. It will take something like a Solomon's wisdom to make things come out right.

From Enemy to Ally

Why is it that the United States has long been the friend and ally of one island kingdom, Great Britain, and recently the enemy of another, Japan? A simple explanation would be that it is a matter of race. British and Americans belong to the same race, while Japanese and Americans do not. Unfortunately this explanation is not a good one. Americans fought Germans, who are of the same race; Americans were allies of the Chinese and Filipinos, who are of the Mongoloid race. Differences in race may increase national enmities, but they are seldom real causes of them.

Perhaps it is language, rather than race? Are the English-speaking nations friends because of a common speech? This may be true to some extent. But it does not explain the American friendship for French, Filipinos, and many other people who do not speak English as a native tongue. Nor does it explain the historical fact that the United States and Great Britain fought against each other in two wars and only became friends gradually and, one might almost say, unwillingly. Even today you can find Americans who are anti-British largely from force of habit, as some are Democrats or Republicans because their grandfathers were.

The most important thing in bringing countries together is having the same interests. Probably the strongest common interest is defense. Having the same ideals and speaking the same language make it easier for two nations to act together. But common interests are a stronger influence, which explains why nations as unlike as Norway and Ethiopia found themselves on the same side in World War II.

During the American Revolution and the War of 1812, the United States and Great Britain had conflicting interests. But the smoke had hardly blown away after the War of 1812 when they began to discover some common interests. In particular, the doctrine named for President Monroe was supported by the United States and Britain. To Americans, the Monroe Doctrine was a "hands off the Americas" warning to European powers. To the British, it was a sort of open-door policy to prevent other European powers from carving out spheres of influence in the New World. Freedom of trade was the British policy, and the Monroe Doctrine fitted in. This was one step in the slow hatching of Anglo-American friendship. This friendship did not become full-fledged until the two nations wound up on the same side in World War I. Both then realized—the United States a bit late—that a German victory would be dangerous to them, for it would create a powerful and ambitious state on the continent of Europe. Common ideals and a common language have made it easy for them to work together, once they forgot the past and realized their common interests.

But what about Japan? Japan was a country which was actively expanding its power and territory, and it was in a part of the world in which the United States has a strong interest. Japan threatened to close the China door that the United States wished to keep open. The United States had decided to grant the Philippine Islands their independence, but it did not wish them to become Japanese colonies or to be controlled by Japan in any way. Japan threatened to upset the far eastern apple-carts of half a dozen nations. From the Japanese point of view, other nations had all the apples and did not wish to share.

Since the end of World War II, the United States and Japan have found that they have a common interest in stopping communist expansion. Japan has long feared Russian expansion in Asia. Mainland China

fell to the Communists. The Korean war broke out. The far eastern situation became clearly perilous. A defense agreement between Japan and its former American enemies was signed in 1951. China, remembering the war with Japan, fears the revival of Japan as a major power. Most Americans would like to be friendly with both China and Japan, and even with the Soviet Union if possible. They would like to see the countries of the eastern coastlands free, democratic, and prosperous—the three people's principles come true. But they realize that it may be a long time before this can happen.

A WORKSHOP ON THE EASTERN COASTLANDS

You recall reading about how winds affect climate. The very fact that people often speak of the eastern coastlands as Monsoon Asia gives some idea of the significance of the winds in that part of the world. You can see on the map on page 160 the directions in which the monsoons blow across the Arabian Sea. Early Arabic traders found out when they could make use of the direction of the winds to sail to India and back, or to the east coast of Africa and back. The Arabs found out, too, that the winds blow in one direction for a whole season. They used their word for season—*mausim*—to name them, and from that name we get our word monsoon.

Monsoons no longer control the course of ships. But more than any other thing, they affect the weather and climate for the millions of people in the eastern coastlands.

In Your Community

What affects the weather where you live? Answering the following questions will help you decide:

1. In what latitude do you live? Would you call it a low, middle, or high latitude?
2. Do you live in a mountainous area? In what part of the continent do you live—on one of the coasts, or in the interior?
3. Try to locate your community on the map on pages 376–377. What is the annual rainfall? If the area you live in has less than 10 inches of rainfall a year or more than 60, how can you account for either the very small or the very large amount?

KEEPING UP WITH THE WEATHER

1. Read the daily temperatures recorded on a thermometer at your school. Place a thermometer outside a window in a place protected from the direct rays of the sun. Take the temperature reading at the same time every day, or at the same times if you take more than one a day.
2. Record the readings on a chart or graph, which you can make on wrapping paper.
3. If possible, take barometer readings also, and record them. They will give you an idea of coming weather. When the reading falls rapidly, stormy weather is likely. When the reading rises and remains at a high level, fair weather is indicated.
4. If you are able to get daily weather reports, compare the high and low readings given with those you took. What other information does the weather report give?

WEATHER BUSINESS

All people have an interest in the weather, but some have more interest than others.

1. What people in your community are especially concerned with weather conditions? Has weather caused special problems there? How have people tried to solve them?
2. Use a reference book to find out about the work of the United States Weather Bureau. Try to find out what weather station is nearest you. What groups of people profit especially from weather forecasting?
3. Try to secure a number of different weather maps. What kinds of information are shown on them?
4. In what situations might weather be of political importance?
5. See if you can find out the meaning of each of the following terms: thunderstorms, tornadoes, hurricanes, typhoons.
6. Collect as many weather proverbs or sayings as possible. Usually they are in verse.

What's Going On in the News?

Everywhere in the world things are continually happening. Very often things happen because people make them happen. A whole community or a whole nation may be affected by what a few people do. What affects one nation may affect other nations and perhaps the whole world. World affairs are taking new turns constantly.

People keep up with changing world affairs by keeping up with the news. Newspapers, news magazines, news broadcasts, and newsreels help to keep people informed. Not all news is important in world affairs. People can learn by experience how to tell the important from the unimportant.

1. Examine the latest issue of a newspaper. Clip accounts of news you consider important in world affairs. Bring them to class. If possible, a number of newspapers should be represented in the class. Explain the choices of articles you made. If different newspaper accounts of the same news are brought in, compare them. What differences do you find?

2. How did the position in the paper and the space given the news stories you clipped compare with the position and space given other news? If there was a difference, how can you account for it?

3. Locate the places mentioned in the news stories or given in the date line at the beginning of each article. Are there stories in which the geographic background is of particular interest?

4. Make or secure a world map which you can place on a wall. Begin to choose each week four or five news events which the class considers the most significant in world affairs. Use pins or some other means to mark on the map the places concerned. As the weeks pass, notice what parts of the world are marked most and what parts least.

5. Prepare and deliver to your class a "radio broadcast" of an important current news event. Give it in the style of any radio news commentator or in your own style.

6. Choose a news story concerned with some part of the eastern coastlands. Report it to the class, giving geographic information about the place or places mentioned, and additional information, if possible, about persons or people in the story. Use maps, pictures, cartoons, and perhaps graphs to make your report interesting and clear.

7. Start a "Who's Who" of outstanding people in the news, using a loose-leaf notebook. Write a short biographical sketch of each person you include. If possible, secure pictures to accompany the sketches.

8. Read some newspaper editorials. How do they differ from news stories? Write an editorial giving your view on some current problem or event in the eastern coastlands.

9. Conduct a current-events quiz in the form of a radio quiz program. Cover the news of one week or of several. Include questions concerning the identity of both persons and places in the news.

Civilizations That Endured

On the map on page 169 you can get a good view of the Indus River Valley, where one of the oldest civilizations in the world developed. And on page 171 you will find the Indus River and also the Hwang Ho in China, whose valley was another cradleland of civilization. When Europeans in search of trade reached the eastern coastlands, they found them heavily populated, with civilizations as advanced as theirs and in some cases even more advanced. Europeans gained control of parts of the eastern coastlands. The people living in those parts were not able to resist European methods of control, but they adopted only a part of western civilization.

1. How do the maps on pages 370–371 and 378–379 indicate a limited influence of western civilization upon the people of the eastern coastlands?

2. How does the term "vegetable civilizations" indicate a lack of western influence?

SOME REASONS

It has been estimated that in 1650, when Europeans had already begun colonizing lands abroad, there were about 330,000,000 people living in Asia, as compared with about 100,000,000 in Europe. Many of these 330,000,000 lived in the eastern coastlands. Using those figures and figures given in the Appendix showing populations of the continents today, compare the population of Asia with that of Europe in 1650 and today.

1. What effect did the dense population in the eastern coastlands have upon European settlement there?

2. How did the dense population in the eastern coastlands make it easier to preserve the civilization already developed there?

Using the map on pages 368–369, compare the latitude of the eastern coastlands with that of Europe. Keeping in mind the various things that affect climate, decide what places in the eastern coastlands would be disagreeable for Europeans to live in.

The fact that the civilizations in the eastern coastlands were old and well established made preserving them easier. Religion is an especially significant part of those civilizations. You recall the influence of Hinduism.

1. Use information in reference books to compare the ages of Buddhism, Hinduism, and Confucianism with those of Christianity and Islam.
2. Find out what some of the teachings of Buddha or of Confucius were. What influence would the teachings have on a people or nation that followed them?

OLD CIVILIZATIONS—NEW NATIONS

Plan to give some special attention to the new nations that have developed in the eastern coastlands since World War II.

1. Organize a round-table discussion on "Understanding India and Pakistan" in which all members of the class have a part. Divide into small groups and choose one of the following divisions of the subject for special work, or choose some other one the class may want to include. Prepare carefully and plan together how to present your ideas and information most interestingly. Be ready to ask and to answer questions.
   a. the significance of location, climate, and landforms
   b. the people, their number, religions, and manner of living
   c. the British in India
   d. Gandhi as a man and as an Indian leader
   e. India—new nation of 1947—compared with the United States—new nation of 1783
   f. the resources and industries of India and Pakistan
   g. present problems of India and Pakistan
2. Compare the two island nations, Indonesia and the Republic of the Philippines, in the respects listed below. Use a display of maps, pictures, or charts and posters that you make to show the comparisons.
   a. location, size, and principal parts
   b. population and religion
   c. control by foreign countries
   d. strategic importance
3. With the help of the political map on page 171, identify Burma on the map on page 187. Notice how mountains cut Burma off from its neighbors. Find as many examples as you can to show how Burma's geography has influenced its politics.

OLD CIVILIZATIONS—OLD COUNTRIES

The peoples of three countries of the eastern coastlands kept their independence for a long period of years and did not fall to the control of Europeans.

1. The independence of Siam can best be explained by the use of a map. Why?
2. What conditions helped the Chinese to form a united country? How did Chinese ideals help to preserve Chinese culture and Chinese independence?
3. How did the social and religious beliefs of the Japanese strengthen their government?

Although these countries have long been independent, they have other problems.

1. Look at China on the map on pages 372–373, and use the map on page 206 to identify the parts of China where most of the people live. Compare the population map with the one on page 210 to see how few people live in the borderlands. What does a study of the maps tell you about the importance of flood control in China? What other means could be used to raise the standard of living there? What natural advantages does China have? What difficulties lie in the way of its progress?
2. What problem do both the Chinese and the Japanese have? In what way has Japan progressed beyond China? What handicaps do the Japanese have?

DEPENDENT PEOPLES

On the maps on pages 171 and 186 identify the parts of the eastern coastlands that remain dependent. Who controls them? What strategic importance do they have?

Things to Do

Choose some of the following activities to carry out by yourself or with others in the class:

1. With the help of a dictionary, see if you can find the original meaning of each of these words: calico, madras, cashmere, jute, khaki, puttee, bungalow, thug, bandanna.
2. Draw five squares—each to represent a square mile of land in one of the following places: India, China, Java, the United Kingdom, the United States. Use figures given in the Appendix and on page 196 to find the average population density in each place. Use figures of people or other symbols in each square to indicate the population density of each place, allowing one symbol for fifty people.
3. On an outline map of the eastern coastlands locate and name as many deltas as you can. Mark on the map important cities that developed near or on the deltas. Account for their growth.
4. Using the rainfall map on pages 376–377 and the map on page 160, account for the heavy rainfall on the west coast of India, in East Pakistan, in northeastern India, on the west coast of the Philippines, and on the south coast of Japan.
5. Write a brief paper giving an explanation of one of these quotations: "Democracy does not flourish in poverty." "Poverty anywhere is a threat to prosperity everywhere."

Checking Your Information

Copy the following sentences and underline the word or words that give the correct meaning to each one:

1. An airplane on its way to Rangoon is grounded at Manila. It is (north, east, west, south) of its destination.
2. A steamer sailing directly from Karachi to Canton will pass (Calcutta, Singapore, Shanghai, Osaka).
3. A tourist in Jakarta engages flight to Bangkok and Delhi. The general direction of the flight will be (north, northeast, south, northwest).
4. A student in America uses a map to locate Korea. He finds it between (India and Pakistan, China and Japan, Burma and Indochina).

Explain the significance of each of the following in world affairs:

1. Manchuria
2. Korea
3. Singapore
4. Sun Yat-sen
5. Travancore
6. Southeast Asia
7. Shansi and Shensi
8. Commodore Perry
9. Gandhi
10. Shanghai

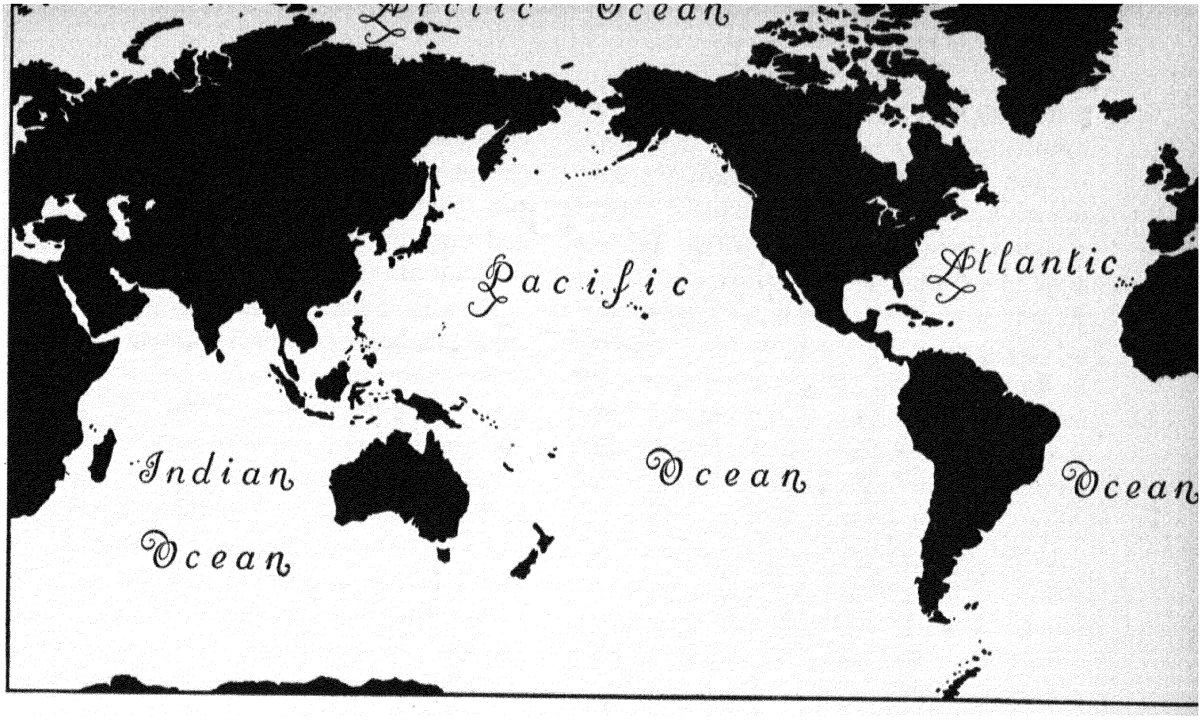
Match each item in the first column with the one in the second column which correctly identifies it:

1. jute center of the world	*a.* Indonesia
2. capital of Indonesia	*b.* Hong Kong
3. former Dutch East Indies	*c.* Sinkiang
4. British-held colony in China	*d.* Ganges Delta
5. Chinese borderland	*e.* Honshu
6. most densely populated area of its size in the world	*f.* Viet Nam
7. center of heavy industry in India	*g.* Jakarta
8. eastern Indochina	*h.* Himalayas
9. air center of Southeast Asia	*i.* west of Calcutta
10. highest mountains in the world	*j.* Western Ghats
	k. Bangkok
	l. Java
	m. Cambodia

How Do You Feel About It?

Copy these sentences and mark them true or false according to the way you feel about them. This is not a test on which you will receive a grade.

1. India received more benefit than injury from British control.
2. The importance to world industries of the raw products of Southeast Asia has justified European control there.
3. The standard of living is higher in the United States than in China because Americans are better workers.
4. Peoples of western civilization are naturally more democratic than those of eastern civilization.



The Oceans in World Affairs

THREE-FOURTHS THE EARTH'S SURFACE

Nearly three-fourths of the earth's surface is covered with the salt water of oceans. Do these "wandering fields of barren foam" play a part in world affairs? Or are they rather just the filling between the continents?

A first fact about the oceans (aside from the well-known one that they are liquid and the continents are solid) is their continuity. In a sense there is only one ocean, as we can see clearly if we look at the southern half of a globe. A ship launched at any port of any ocean can voyage to any other port (if it is ice-free)—unless war or some other human barrier interferes. A ship can voyage over an endless number of routes. It would be possible for a freighter to tramp round the world for its entire lifetime and without ever covering exactly the same route twice.

Sea transportation is the cheapest way of sending freight. A railroad locomotive must have power to haul a train up hills, and the railroad company must build, maintain, and pay taxes on its tracks. An airplane must have power not only to pull its load but also to lift it and keep it aloft. A ship travels on a roadbed provided by nature—one that has no hills or mountains. The water carries the weight of the load, and the ship's engine merely needs to push the ship forward against the resistance of the water. Because a ship floats and is supported by the water, it can be very large. The size of ships is usually limited only by the freight and passengers that are to be carried, by the depth of harbors, and by the length of docks.

A ship, then, is a cheap means of carrying large cargoes to wherever navigable waters

reach. In competition with land and air transportation, a ship has two handicaps. In the first place, it is relatively slow, though a modern freighter can make a speed of sixteen knots or so, which exceeds eighteen land miles an hour. Secondly, a ship can go only where navigable water reaches, and so cargoes sent by sea must be transferred to trains or trucks for delivery inland. The picture at the bottom of the opposite page shows a point where water transportation ends and land transportation begins, and where just the opposite is true, also.

How the low costs of sea transportation affect the flow of commerce has been well brought out by Eugene Staley, a writer on economics. He points out that it costs about three times as much to send wheat by rail from Kansas City to New York as it does to ship the same quantity of wheat by sea from New York to Liverpool. It costs only a little more to ship rubber from Singapore to New York by sea—a distance of ten thousand miles—than it does to send it from New York to the tire factories of Akron, Ohio, by rail—a distance of five hundred miles.

Highway or Barrier?

For freight, then, the oceans today are more a highway than a barrier. The feeling that the oceans are barriers may be based on experiences of people in former times. We all heard when we were young about Columbus, the prejudices he had to overcome before he got his ships, and the fear of his seamen that they would fall off the edge of the earth. We learned, too, about the slow and difficult voyage of the *Mayflower* across the Atlantic, and we are likely to forget that the *Queen Elizabeth* makes this same crossing every week.

But the oceans still serve as barriers. Though they unite all the continents in some ways, they also separate them. For a cargo of wheat, New York may be nearer (in terms of cost) to Liverpool than it is to Kansas City. But you and I are not wheat. For most passenger travel and personal contacts, land travel is more convenient, although no cheaper, than sea travel. Busses and trains run much more frequently than ships do, and they usually take us closer to the place we want to reach.

Even for freight, ocean shipment, though cheap, has some drawbacks. Ocean transport is most advantageous when one is shipping large amounts of bulky cargo, like wheat, oil, coal, cement, and lumber. For smaller articles, or for smaller quantities, the advantage is not so great. This is because the total cost of shipping anything is not just a matter of freight rates but includes such things as crating, trucking, dock charges, and insurance. For moving your household goods, say, it is easier and possibly cheaper to have a truck roll up to your front gate and load and carry the things to their destination than it would be to send them by water. To send them by water, it would be necessary to crate them, truck them to a dock, load them onto a steamer, ship them, and then go through similar complicated steps to get them to your new home.

The seas and oceans, then, are both highways and barriers. Although the Greeks, Phoenicians, and Romans made the Mediterranean into a great highway, the Atlantic remained to them an impassable barrier. Until 1492 the Atlantic remained a barrier to everybody but the Vikings. Their crossings in the Far North led to no important commerce. Soon after Columbus sailed over the Atlantic, the Portuguese crossed the Indian Ocean. It was not long until Magellan had sailed across the Pacific. In less than thirty years, the principal oceans of the world had been crossed.

Because the seas are both highways and barriers, they sometimes connect parts of the same nation and sometimes form boundaries between nations. All in all, they are more likely to form boundaries than connections, but there have been some important exceptions. The Roman Empire surrounded



U.S. Coast Guard Official Photo

An ocean may be a barrier, as it is to the men above. It may also be a highway; look at the scene below.

Courtesy U.S. Maritime Commission



the Mediterranean Sea, which was criss-crossed by Roman ships. The Commonwealth of Nations is even more completely maritime than the Roman Empire was. Its mother country is on an island, and its "life lines" cross the sea.

Even where the sea forms a boundary, it is not necessarily the hardest boundary to cross. It is far easier to cross the Atlantic Ocean than to cross the Himalaya Mountains or any of the boundaries of the Soviet Union.

Sea Power and Sea Command

Admiral Mahan, an American naval officer, was a famous authority on sea power. At first thought, it seems odd that so land-minded a people as the Americans should have produced a great writer about sea power. But it was the very fact that Americans think of their country as a land power that caused Admiral Mahan to write about the sea. The British had no need of such a prophet.

Mahan taught that sea power has been one of the most important forces in history, but what he taught has often been misunderstood. Sea power to Mahan meant much more than warships. Navies are necessary to sea power, but they are by no means the whole of it. Even if a nation had a large, first-class navy, with courageous sailors and officers and plenty of fuel and other supplies, it still might not have real sea power. What sea power really means is the ability to command the seas. And what does the expression "command the seas" mean? It means the ability to use the seas in time of war and to keep an enemy from doing so. It means keeping the seas safe, or fairly safe, for one's own and friendly ships, while capturing, destroying, or blockading the enemy's ships. And when we say "ships," we mean not only warships but also troop transports, supply ships, and plain, ordinary freighters. In short, the country that has sea command is able to use the oceans as highways. But to the country that lacks sea command in times of war, the oceans are barriers.

The use of sea power. Sea power and sea command do not in themselves win wars, but they may make victory possible. This has been shown most impressively in the history of Britain. In World War II, for example, many people, including Hitler, expected Britain to surrender soon after the fall of France in 1940. A less courageous leader than Churchill might have given up. Germany had a much larger army and air force than Britain, and most of Europe was already under Hitler's heel. But although Britain had lost Europe, it still had the rest of the world to draw on, *provided* that ships could keep bringing to Britain the food, munitions, gasoline, and men that were so vitally necessary.

What happened is recent history: In the "Battle of Britain" the German air attack was beaten off by the Royal Air Force, which had excellent planes and the benefit of radar. The Germans never dared launch an invasion across the English Channel. They themselves admitted that British naval strength was a major reason for not trying. The British spent every cent they could raise on overseas purchases of ships, weapons, and supplies. Most of the other peoples of the Commonwealth of Nations raised armies and trained aviators. Later on, American soldiers came to Britain. In spite of attacks from German submarines, command of the seas was maintained. An army and an air force were built up in Britain. Finally the Allies landed in France and advanced to a victory in Germany.

It was a slow process. Sea power nearly always works slowly. It might have failed for one of a dozen reasons, for sea command does not automatically produce victories. The Russian invasion of Germany from the land was likewise important in Germany's defeat. Even Admiral Mahan, had he been alive, would not have claimed that sea power by itself won the war. But without sea power

and sea command, the land attacks on Germany would have been stymied. The German submarines did their best to turn the oceans into barriers, but Allied sea power was able to keep them open as highways.

The source of sea power. It was not the British Navy alone that made Britain a great nation. Britain and its navy grew great together. Britain had the skillful and enterprising people and the industries to build and man a strong navy. It had a merchant fleet and an overseas trade that needed naval protection. If Britain had to send an army overseas—to Portugal during the Napoleonic Wars, to Egypt during World War II, for examples- the navy could protect its supply lines. But supply lines are useless without supplies to send over them. British trade and industry could provide the supplies.

In the same way, American industrial skill and strength built up the United States Navy in World War II and provided the merchant ships and the bulging loads of supplies that went to all the battlefields.

A nation can be strong in industry but weak in sea power if it lets its navy run down. But no nation can be strong in sea power if it is not strong industrially. To sum it up: Industrial strength is needed to build a navy and merchant fleet and to provide cargoes. A navy, if strong enough and skillfully used, may give command of the sea. Command of the sea means command of a highway extending around the world. Command of the sea gives *mobility*, or the ability to move, to a nation's strength. That strength can be applied in distant lands when danger threatens, not just kept at home for a last-ditch defense. Sea power is to a nation what reach is to a boxer or to a basketball player.

What bases are good for. There are of course limitations to sea power. It can't perform miracles. One of the limitations is the cruising range of ships—the distance ships can go without refueling. The amount of fuel a ship needs depends in part upon its speed. A slow freighter can carry fuel enough for a trip halfway round the world. But a warship must be speedy to overtake or to escape enemies. When running at full speed, it uses up fuel very rapidly. The small and very fast ships, like the destroyers, have the shortest cruising ranges.

If a navy has almost perfect command of the sea, it may send tankers after its warships to refuel them when necessary. But there is always a risk that tankers, which are slow and unarmored, will be sunk. Generally, a fleet of warships will not dare to get too far away from a base where it may obtain fuel and other supplies. If a ship is severely damaged, it must return to a base for repairs. A base, then, is a place where ships get supplies and repairs and where their crews can rest.

Bases are necessary to sea power, but bases by themselves are not sea power. The American people have perhaps been overly base-conscious. They felt that Pearl Harbor

But bases aren't enough.

Shoemaker in the Chicago Daily News



protected their Pacific coast. After December 7, 1941, they realized that it was not Pearl Harbor itself but the fleet based there that really counted. A feeling of fright swept the cities of the Pacific coast in the first few days after the attack on the Pacific fleet at Pearl Harbor.

Too many bases? In the Pacific, as we have already learned, most of the islands called Micronesia passed from Spain to Germany and then to Japan. This gave Japan scores of possible bases in a most important part of the Pacific, between Hawaii and the Philippines. These Japanese-owned islands often were called Japan's unsinkable aircraft carriers. Since it took months to prepare an expedition to capture a single island, many Americans thought, "How can we ever capture all of Micronesia? It will take a thousand years and a million men." What actually happened was that within two years after the disaster at Pearl Harbor the United States Navy had gained command of the Pacific. The capture of only four or five of the Japanese islands of Micronesia provided the advanced bases the Navy needed. Meanwhile, the other Japanese islands, cut off from Japan by American command of the sea, "withered on the vine," as the saying goes. Find the Caroline Islands on the map on page 242. On the Truk Islands there, one of the strongest of the Japanese bases was cut off without being directly attacked. The lesson is not that bases are useless or even that they are unimportant, but that a fleet without a base is much better than a base without a fleet. A strong fleet with a few strong and well-placed bases is ideal.

New Forces in Sea Command

Since the beginnings of World War I, two developments have had great effects on sea power. One of these developments is the submarine, invented a long time ago but first used importantly in World War I. The other is the airplane.

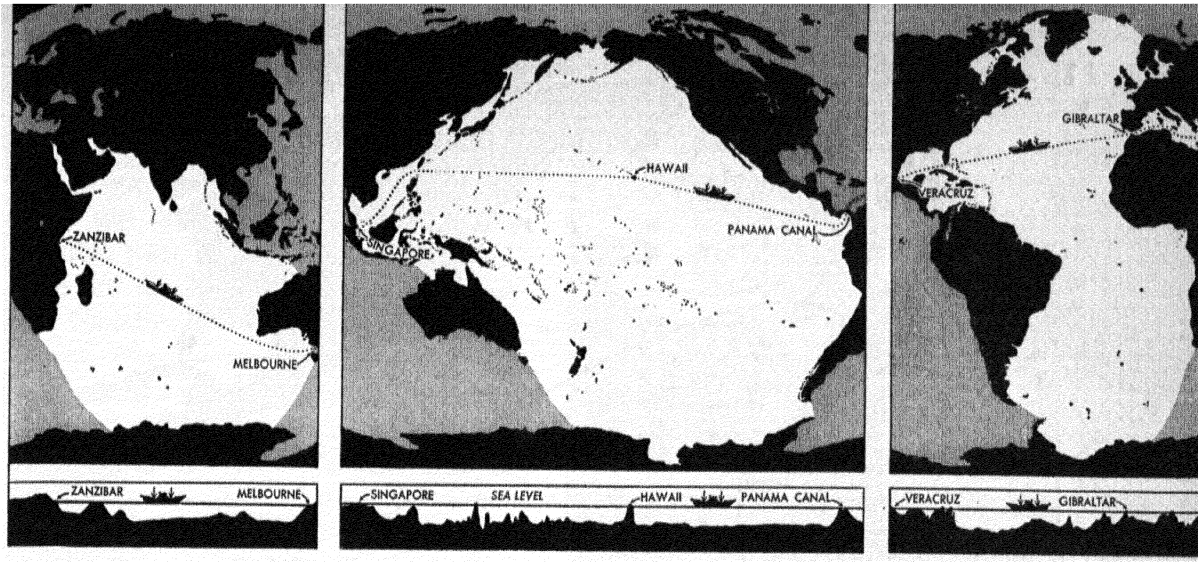
Under the sea. The submarine helps prove our point that the aim of sea power is to command the sea, so that supply lines will be safe. The submarine, as it has been used most widely, attacks merchant ships rather than warships. Sherman tore up supply lines on his march through Georgia. A submarine does the same thing at sea. In both world wars, the supply lines to Britain were never in very great danger from German surface ships, as they were from German submarines. Although Great Britain and the United States were greatly superior to Germany in surface ships, Germany was superior in submarines and very nearly took command of the sea.

Above the sea. The airplane threatens the old ideas about sea power in two very different ways. First, there is the possibility of sinking ships from the air. The warships in Pearl Harbor were sunk in this way. But where it is possible to concentrate enough antiaircraft guns and friendly planes, surface ships are fairly safe.

Second, there is the possibility that long-range bombardment of the cities and industries of a country may do so much damage that navies and supply lines and land armies cease to be important. If the cities and factories of a country can be wiped out from the air, all the warships and ground forces it possesses will not be able to defend it.

Those most in favor of long-range bombardment believe that a country should put most of its defense money into big and fast airplanes. In case of war, they would "git there fustest with the mostest" airplanes. "Give us airplanes big enough to carry atomic bombs anywhere in the world," they say, "and who cares about the command of the sea?"

Many military men hate war as much as do civilians, but it is their business to plan for future emergencies. The question, "Is sea power useless in the Atomic Age?" is one that they are debating vigorously. We can't hope to answer it here. But it does seem



Compare the sizes and shapes of the Indian, Pacific, and Atlantic oceans, shown above. Below each map the ocean floor is shown in outline, or profile. By looking at the profiles, you can tell how it looks beneath the oceans along the paths traveled by the ships. The ocean depths had to be greatly exaggerated.

reasonable to say that the navy, long called the first line of defense, is now the second line—which doesn't mean it is useless. The first line is in the air—the air force.

All of us would like to live in a world in which there would be no need for weapons, in which wars would be impossible. Some sort of world government seems necessary before this can be true. Such a world is worth hoping for and planning for. It may be in the making. In the meantime, the world of today seems to demand of nations that they heed Oliver Cromwell's famous command: "Trust God and keep your powder dry."

We turn now to the various oceans—the salty three-fourths of the world. There they lie, all the continents in their grasp. For better or worse, in peace and in war, the sea winds blow and the waves roll.

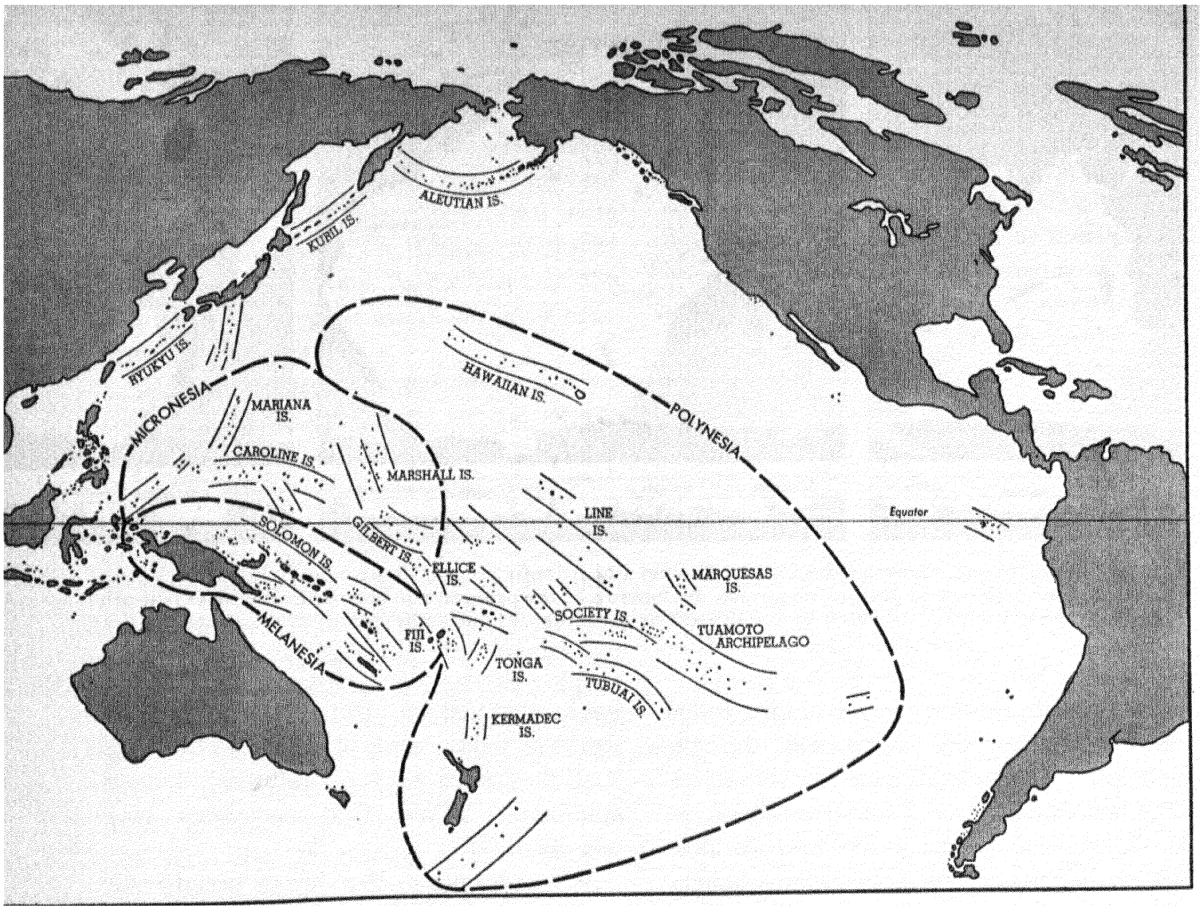
THE ISLAND WORLD OF THE PACIFIC

One-half of all the water of the world is in the Pacific Ocean. One-third of the whole earth's surface is Pacific Ocean. "The Pacific is a whale of an ocean," wrote Professor George Cressey. Compared with the Pacific, the Atlantic is merely a large porpoise. Compare the sizes of the two oceans on the map on this page.

At the equator, the Pacific extends halfway round the globe. If you hold the globe so that the coast of Ecuador is just visible on the right, Singapore and the Malay Peninsula are just visible on the left. Twelve thousand miles of water lie between. The Pacific Ocean is nearly as large north and south as it is east and west. It stretches from the Bering Strait to the shores of the Antarctic continent.

This largest of oceans has more islands than do all the other oceans combined. They number into the thousands. At first glance, a map of the Pacific islands is like the starry sky—a confusion of tiny points. We are likely to lump these tiny points together as "South Sea Islands," and to despair of ever finding Tahiti or Bikini in that island Milky Way.

If we look at the Pacific islands more generally, they don't seem so confusing. A map like the one on page 242 helps us to see how they are arranged. This map shows the major *trends* of the island groups—that



The dashed lines show the outlines of the island divisions in the Pacific. The solid ones show the trends.

is, the general directions in which the islands are lined up. It is somewhat like what we would see if the ocean were pumped dry. Then, instead of small islands poking above the water surface, we would see long lines of mountains crossing the ocean floor. What each of the ocean floors looks like is shown on page 241.

The first thing we would notice is that some parts of the Pacific have few islands or none at all. The northern and eastern parts are almost without islands. If you sail southwest from San Francisco, you go twenty-four hundred miles before you reach the first island group, Hawaii. But beyond Hawaii the islands are much more numerous, and as one approaches New Guinea, one finds them large and close together.

The next thing we would notice is that there is a fairly general direction in which each of the island groups lies. Most of the groups are lined up from northwest to southeast, roughly. A seaman would say more precisely that the general direction is from west-northwest to east-southeast. The Hawaiian Islands follow this general trend. So does the great island of New Guinea, which looks somewhat like a vulture, head to northwest and tail to southeast, perched upon the long Cape York Peninsula of Australia.

Look at the map and pick out island groups that are more or less parallel to the Hawaiian chain. You will find among them the Solomons, the Society Islands, and many other islands. You will find only a few island groups that do not follow the Hawaiian trend. The most important of the other trends is that of New Zealand and some islands north of it. New Zealand lies roughly north and south in its greatest extent.

High and Low Islands

If we sorted out the Pacific islands as we might sort buttons or marbles, we would find that there are three main kinds. First, there are the large islands of complicated rock structure, like New Zealand, New Guinea, New Caledonia, and Fiji. Some of these islands are rich in minerals. New Caledonia, in particular, produces nickel, chromium, and iron. Next to Canada, it has the most productive nickel mines in the world. Some of these large islands, like New Guinea, are still very wild. Others, like Fiji and of course New Zealand, are now quite well developed.

Second, there are the high volcanic islands. Some of the volcanoes are active, but most of them are not. The volcanoes that are no longer active may have deep valleys cut into their sides, so that they hardly look like volcanoes any more. The best known of the islands with active volcanoes is the large island of Hawaii, which has on it the crater of Kilauea and the cone of Mauna Loa. Inactive or extinct volcanic islands are very numerous—Oahu, site of Honolulu and Pearl Harbor, and Tahiti, most romanticized of South Sea Islands, are among them. These high volcanic islands often collect heavy rains from the trade winds which rise over their mountains, and they have fertile soil in their valleys. A wide variety of tropical crops can be grown: sugar cane, pineapples, breadfruit, taro, yams, and so forth. But useful minerals are rare. On this page are drawings of the two kinds of volcanic islands.

Third, there are the low, coral islands. There are thousands of these in the tropical oceans. They have been built by coral animals on top of platforms of some kind of rock. Many of the coral islands have bases

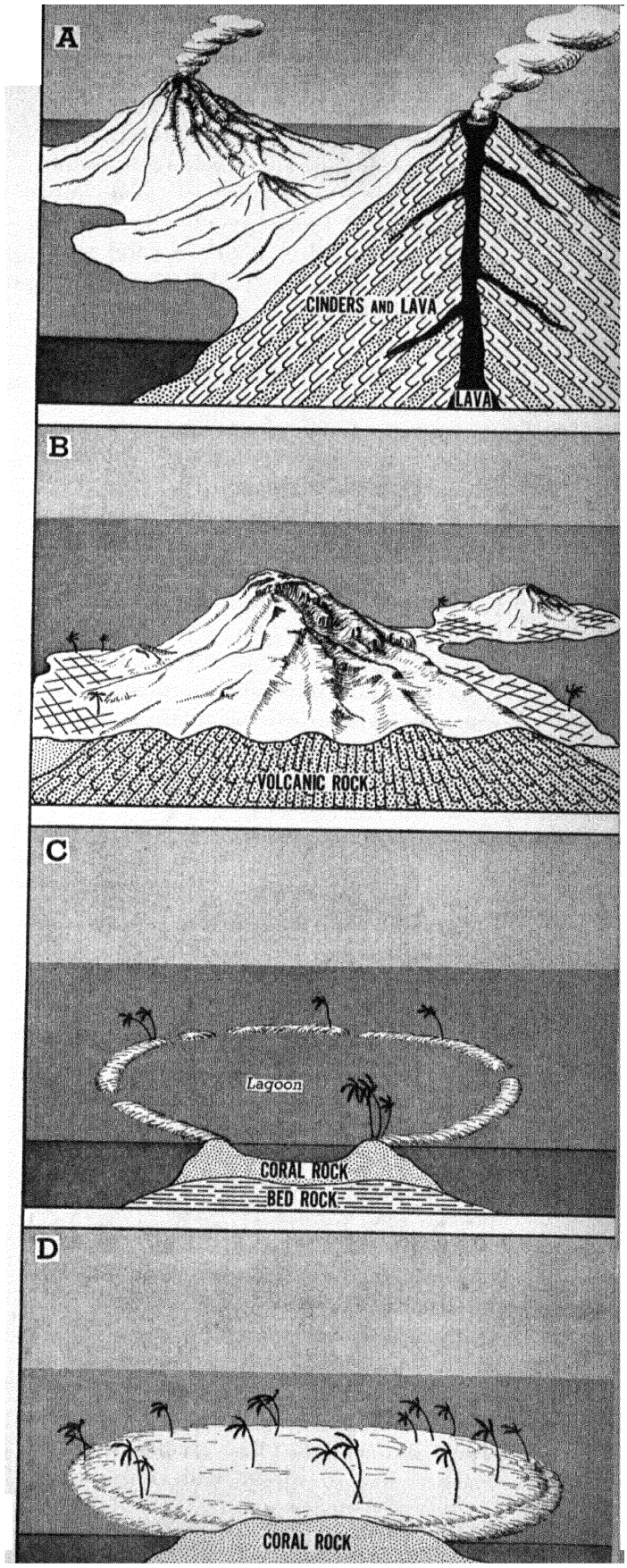


Fig. A, at the right, shows an active volcanic island, B an inactive one. The squared patches indicate plantations. Fig. C shows a coral atoll with a lagoon, and D a coral island without one.

of volcanic rock, but the part that shows above the surface of the sea is coral. Some of the coral islands are merely reefs, awash at high tide. Others, called atolls, are chains of coral islets around a lagoon. It was in the lagoon of Bikini, a coral atoll, that atomic bombs were tested on anchored warships in 1946. Eniwetok, another atoll, is now an atomic testing station. Some coral islands have no lagoons, perhaps because they have been raised up a bit by movements of the earth. The two lower drawings on the preceding page show the two kinds of coral islands.

The coral islands are small, and they usually support only a few people, who live on fish, coconuts, and a few other foods. For commerce, the islands usually have little to offer except copra, which is dried coconut meat. A few of the coral islands yield a valuable mineral—phosphate rock—which is widely used for fertilizer. Others have been turned into air bases for military or for commercial planes.

People of the Islands

Let's turn now to the people of the Pacific islands, first to the native peoples and then to those who have come in recent times.

The native peoples of the Pacific islands belong to three groups, and the islands are frequently classified on this basis—Polynesia, Melanesia, and Micronesia. The best known of the Pacific peoples are the Polynesians. The native Hawaiians are Polynesians, and so are the people of Tahiti, the native Maori of New Zealand, and the people who carved the stone images on Easter Island. The map on page 242 shows how widely the Polynesians are spread in the Pacific.

Physically the Polynesians are a mixed race. Some scholars think they originated in India and were Caucasoid, or white. They believe the Polynesians migrated eastward through the East Indies into the Pacific, and so mixed with other races. Their languages are all related, and people from one Polynesian island soon learn to speak with people from others. One Polynesian word from the Hawaiian language is known to almost everyone. That is *aloha*, which means something between "love" and "friendship" and is also used for "welcome" and "good-by." It is most fitting that this word should be widely known, for one of the finest characteristics of the Polynesians is their friendliness, their *aloha* for strangers.

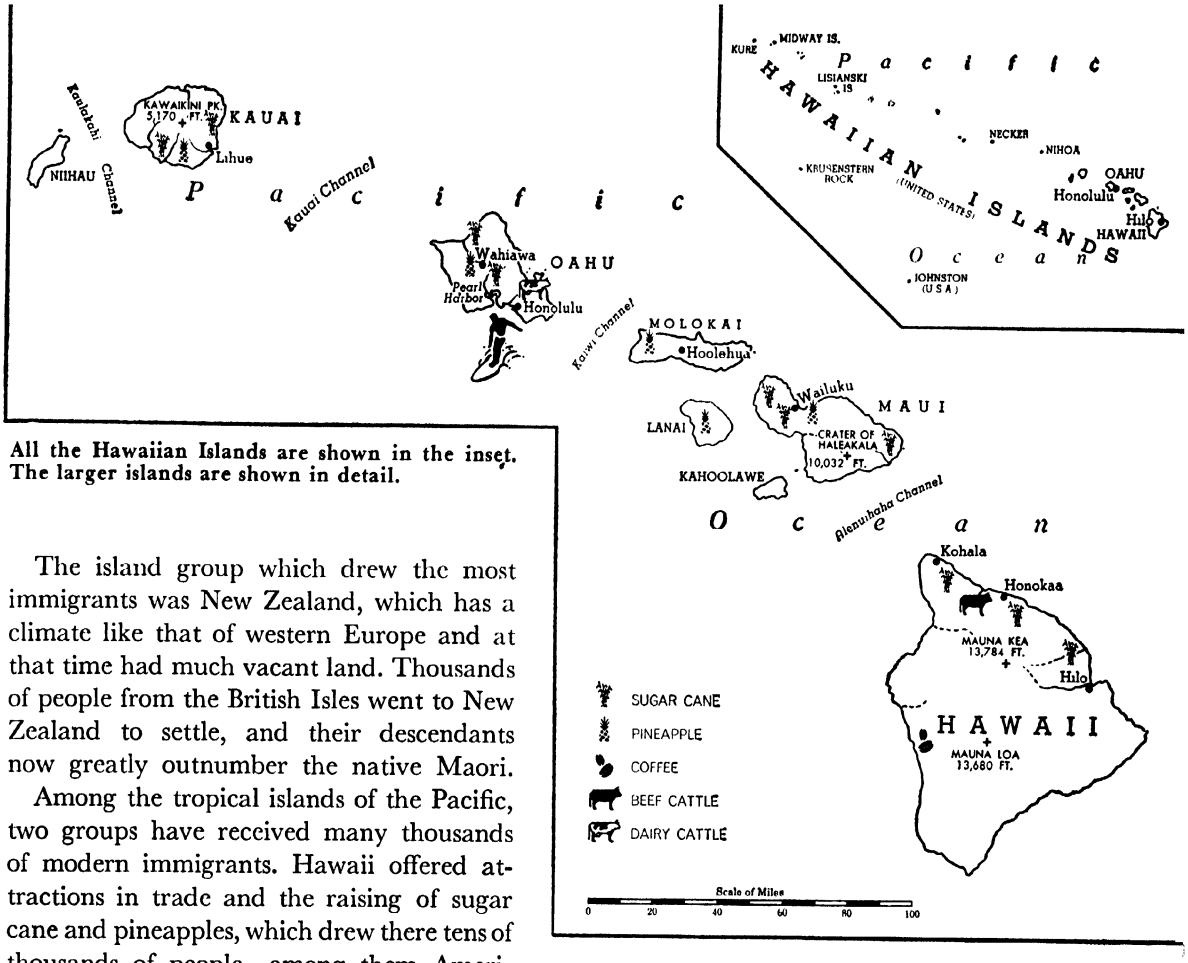
A second group of Pacific islanders is the Melanesians. Physically, they are Negroid, with curly hair and dark skins. They might be called the Pacific Negroes, and plainly they are related to the Africans, thousands of miles away. Perhaps there was once a Negroid race all across southern Asia.

The Melanesians are the most numerous of the Pacific island peoples. They differ a good deal among themselves. The Fijians are large, impressive-looking people, who are rapidly taking on civilized life and who served with distinction during World War II. The people of New Guinea are much less advanced in culture. They are quite primitive in ways of life, for the most part; yet many American and Australian soldiers found them friendly, loyal, and helpful during the war.

The third group of Pacific peoples is the hardest to describe, although we have read about their islands before. They are the Micronesians, living on the islands east of the Philippines and south of Japan. Some are quite like the Polynesians, others show some Melanesian features, and still others show signs of Filipino ancestry.

Modern Migrants

Only a few foreigners, mostly explorers, had seen the Pacific islands up to a hundred and fifty years ago. Then whalers visited the islands, a few traders dropped off ships to start business there, and missionaries began to go to the Pacific.



All the Hawaiian Islands are shown in the inset. The larger islands are shown in detail.

The island group which drew the most immigrants was New Zealand, which has a climate like that of western Europe and at that time had much vacant land. Thousands of people from the British Isles went to New Zealand to settle, and their descendants now greatly outnumber the native Maori.

Among the tropical islands of the Pacific, two groups have received many thousands of modern immigrants. Hawaii offered attractions in trade and the raising of sugar cane and pineapples, which drew there tens of thousands of people—among them Americans, Chinese, Japanese, and Filipinos. The native Hawaiian population was greatly outnumbered, and real Hawaiians are hard to find. But thousands of people have part-Hawaiian ancestry. Economic ties with the United States became very strong during the nineteenth century and finally led to the annexation of the islands. The strategic position of the islands, twenty-four hundred miles off the California coast, made them highly desirable to the United States. During World War II, hundreds of thousands of soldiers and sailors passed through the Hawaiian camps and bases. All this economic and military activity turned Hawaii from a South Sea paradise into a busy modern community. In 1959 Hawaii became our fiftieth state. The best-known base is at Pearl Harbor.

The second tropical-island group to receive many immigrants in recent years is Fiji. Much sugar cane, some pineapples, and a good deal of gold are produced in Fiji. Because workers were needed, people were brought from India, and today there are about as many Indians as Fijians in the islands. "Little India of the Pacific" is what one author calls Fiji. You can find the Fiji Islands on the map on page 242.

Scattered through the Pacific islands are many Chinese. On many a small island, the only foreigner may be a Chinese merchant. Scattered among the islands, too, are missionaries. Government officials are mostly to be found on the larger islands, and they visit the outposts once or twice a year by ship. But the radio and airplane are penetrating the Pacific islands and reducing their isolation from the rest of the world. Even remote Pitcairn Island, the home of the descendants of the *Bounty* mutineers, has its radio station.

The Scramble for Islands

Many maps of the Pacific show dotted or colored lines about groups of islands, indicating the country of which they are possessions. Before World War II the islands of which we have been speaking—that is, Polynesia, Melanesia, and Micronesia—were divided among seven owners. Japan was eliminated through defeat in the war. The six that are left are the United States, Great Britain, France, New Zealand, Australia, and Chile. This list would be longer, of course, if we included islands close to the Asiatic and American coasts.

The scramblers. Chile has the fewest Pacific-island possessions. Chile owns Easter Island and also a few other islands nearer South America. Each of the other five has a considerable number of islands. The principal American possessions are Hawaii and most of Micronesia, the latter a trusteeship under the United Nations. The United States also holds some of the Samoan chain and a number of smaller islands. British, French, New Zealand, and Australian islands are mostly south of the equator. The British holdings are especially widely scattered, from the Solomons to Pitcairn.

The scramble for Pacific islands took place mainly in the nineteenth century. Earlier than that, the Pacific was a sort of no man's land, too remote to be of much concern. Whales, sandalwood, guano fertilizer, copra, pearls, and a few other desirable things aroused an interest in the Pacific islands. Some of the islands, of no economic value, seem to have been picked up just because they were there for the taking. Naval bases were not an important consideration until the present century, when the United States began to realize the strategic position of Hawaii and the value of Pearl Harbor. Japan's interest in Micronesia was more military than it was economic, though sugar was raised on some of the islands and phosphates quarried on one of them.

With the coming of transoceanic aviation, there was a new scramble for islands, though only a little one compared with that of the nineteenth century. Neglected little islands suddenly became of interest as possible landing places. Lying near the equator, southwest of Hawaii, were a number of small, uninhabited islands. Most maps showed them as British, but a little study of history indicated that the United States might also have a claim to them. Hastily, some of these uninhabited islands were "colonized." Boy scouts from Honolulu did good deeds—from the American point of view—by living for months on three tiny coral islets near the equator.

On Canton Island, which later became an air stop of some importance, British colonists arrived first. Americans, arriving by Coast Guard cutter, landed later. "I claim this island for the United States of America," said their leader, so the story runs. A British officer, who had walked down to watch the landing, replied, "In the name of His Majesty King George VI, I protest." But then he added, "Come on up to the shack and have a cup of tea." In such friendly fashion, British and American colonists lived side by side on Canton Island, two flags flying over this ring of coral sand. And the two countries agreed to joint occupation for a period of fifty years.

Repairing some damage. The native peoples of the Pacific islands have lost much in the last hundred years. Many lost their lives on account of the new diseases brought by the white men. Many lost their ancestral lands to the foreigners. Their whole way of life was upset. The native peoples needed medical care and practical education, but it was difficult to provide such things on tiny islands separated by hundreds of miles of sea. World War II hit many islands hard. Only a few were damaged by actual fighting, but some of those that were battlefields were almost swept bare by artillery fire and bombing. Other islands lost much of their level land for airfields. Life on the islands

was turned topsy-turvy by the presence of hundreds of soldiers and sailors and by the "easy money" paid native peoples for their work. After the war, the whole population of Bikini was removed to permit the atomic-bomb tests.

For a good many years, there has been a guilty feeling that the white rulers should do more to help their Pacific peoples. It has been clear, too, that there ought to be coöperation among the countries that rule the Pacific islands. In 1944 Australia and New Zealand agreed that they would seek to form a South Pacific commission, to work for the welfare and education of native peoples and on problems of trade and transportation. Such a commission has now been formed, with the principal island-owning countries as members. Its work will be slow, but little by little the benefits as well as the drawbacks of civilization should spread among the Pacific islands.

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

There is a kind of world map that hangs in many schoolrooms that has the United States near the middle. On the right are the Atlantic, Europe, and Africa. On the left are the Pacific and Asia. And down in the lower left-hand corner are Australia and New Zealand. The custom of drawing maps with north at the top puts these two countries in an obscure place. They are always thought of as being down under, though there is no top or bottom to the world. It would be just as correct to call south "up" and put the Arctic Ocean down under.

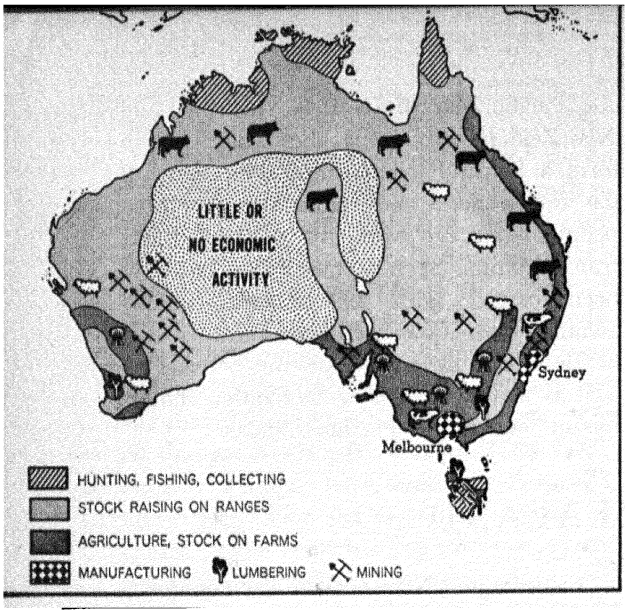
Even Air Age maps, centered on the North Pole, are rough on the lands of the Southern Hemisphere. On these maps Australia and New Zealand become misshapen blobs near the edge of the map, while North America appears in beautiful shape near the center.

To be sure, the Northern Hemisphere *is* more important than the Southern—because of its greater land area, better resources, and larger population, and because it plays a more important part in world politics. Australia, though it has about the same area as the United States, has fewer people than the city of New York. New Zealand, though it has about the same area as Great Britain, has fewer people than Los Angeles. And, as we shall see, it is unlikely that either country will ever be able to hold a very large population. Nevertheless, the people of Australia and New Zealand are energetic, democratic, and forward-looking, and they proved very valuable allies in both world wars. In quality, if not in quantity, they are among the leaders of the world.

Island or Continent?

In the geographies of a generation or two ago, Australia was sometimes called the largest island in the world. Today we usually call Australia a continent. This promotion from the rank of island to that of continent seems just. Australia has grown from a colony to a nation, and from an unimportant political position toward that of a middle power.

Australia is the smallest continent in area and, except for icebound Antarctica, in population. But it is larger than Europe if we leave out Soviet territory, and it is only a little smaller than the United States. In population, however, the differences between these lands are great. Australia has only nine or ten million inhabitants. This is a small population for a country with an area of about three million square miles. The small size of the population is not due entirely to the newness and remoteness of this land. Australia received its first settlers more than a century and a half ago, and steamships have brought it closer to Europe than North America was in the days of sails.



How Australians make a living.

The chief reason for the small population of Australia is climatic. Much of Australia is dry, and a great deal of the interior is desert. Even the tropical north, which seems on the rainfall map to be a humid land, has a long dry season. Dryness, Australia's curse, affects most of its interior and many of its coasts. The parts of Australia that have the best climates for settlement are three: first, a belt one or two hundred miles wide along the eastern and southeastern coasts; second, the southwestern corner of the continent, near Perth; third, the island of Tasmania. The population map, on pages 372–373, shows that most of the people live in those three humid sections. All the big cities are there. The

Sheep drovers, taking sheep on a long trek to market across southeastern Australia, stop for a snack.

Courtesy Australian News and Information Bureau



semiarid parts of Australia have big sheep and cattle ranches. A good deal of the interior is too dry for any agriculture, as you see on the map on page 248.

Australia, then, is a continent in area, but only the fringes of the continent have climates suitable for dense populations. It might be going too far to call Australia a coastal country, but it is true that Australian commerce and industry focus on the great cities on or near the coast. Overseas trade means a great deal to Australia. Much of the wool, wheat, and meat it produces is shipped overseas.

The Other Britain

If a hole could be bored straight through the earth from London, it would emerge in the Pacific Ocean a few hundred miles southeast of New Zealand. New Zealand is nearly halfway round the world from the British Isles. Yet of all the lands of the world, few are more alike and more closely related than Great Britain and New Zealand. They have about the same area. They are somewhat alike in climate, both being humid and temperate. Green pastures nourished by plentiful rains are characteristic of the rural landscapes of both lands.

Great Britain and New Zealand have similar people. Nearly everyone in New Zealand, except the native Maori people, is of British ancestry. This is also true, but not quite to such a degree, in Australia. Of all the countries of the Commonwealth, none is more loyal to the mother country than New Zealand, although it is the farthest away.

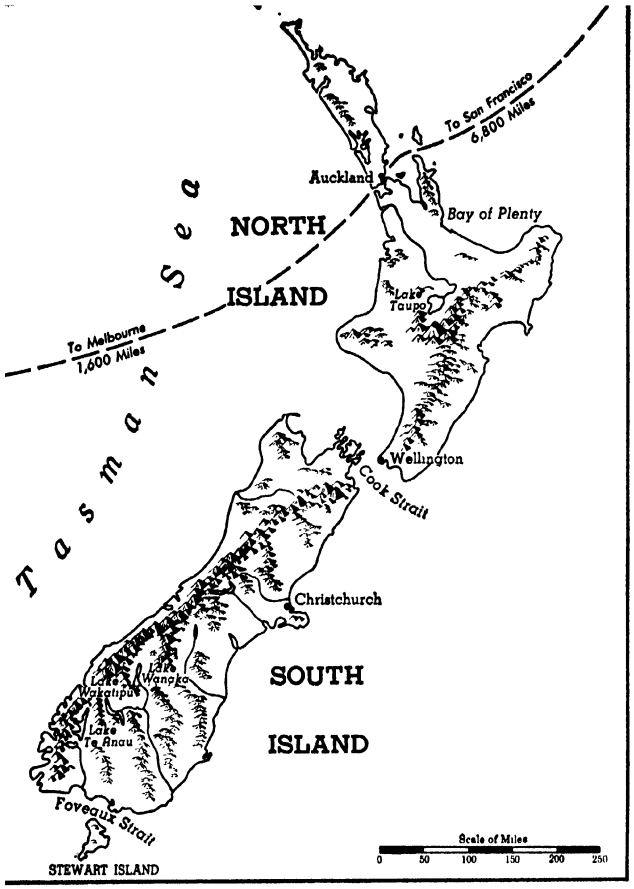
But there are differences, too, between the Britain of the northern Atlantic and this "other Britain" of the South Pacific. The northern Britain is densely populated and has many great factory cities. New Zealand has only about two million people, and industry is still in early stages of growth. Agriculture is now a minor occupation in Britain. New Zealand's agriculture supplies the bulk of the country's export trade. Britain is New Zealand's best customer for such things as butter, mutton, and wool. New Zealand, in return, is a steady buyer of British manufactured goods.

Looking Forward

Australia and New Zealand have always been forward-looking countries. They are newer even than the countries in North and South America. Their histories are short and on the whole peaceful. The people tend to be cheerful and ambitious. What does the future hold for these progressive lands?

We have already seen that Australia and New Zealand probably never will have populations so immense as those in the lands of the Northern Hemisphere. Some people have said that Australia, since it is almost as large as the United States, could hold as many people; but this obviously is not so. The humid and easily habitable part of Australia is only a small fraction of the whole continent. Though most of New Zealand has plenty of rain, many hills and mountains cut down the amount of land that is habitable. No one can tell accurately how many people a country might hold. But careful students usually have decided that Australia's population capacity is perhaps twenty or thirty millions and New Zealand's five millions or so. These figures assume that the standard of living will be somewhat like that of the present—that is, about like that of the average American or Canadian.

One of the great aims of people all over the world is to raise standards of living, or at least not to lower them. There would be no sense in reducing the standards of living in Australia and New Zealand in order to crowd more people into those lands. On the whole, it would be better for the world if Australia and New Zealand continue to produce meat, wheat, and dairy products for export to countries that are more crowded.



A close-up of New Zealand.

Rising industries. Although we think of Australia and New Zealand as farming countries, they have important cities and growing industries. In fact, more people live in the cities than on the farms and ranches.

Some of the industries of Australia and New Zealand are what we call processing industries. Milling wheat into flour, making yarn and cloth from wool, and refining sugar are some examples. But especially in Australia more complicated industries have arisen. During World War II Australia made airplanes, motors, guns, ships, and many other things. Australia has two large steels mills, with modern equipment.

The industries of Australia and New Zealand of course depend upon sources of energy. Australia has substantial amounts of coal and lignite. The chief beds are conveniently located in the same states as Sydney and Melbourne, the two largest cities. New Zealand has a relatively small amount of coal but has a good deal of water power. No important oil fields have been discovered in either country.

The end of isolation. The day of Pearl Harbor was as important for Australia and New Zealand as it was for the United States. The two countries of the South Pacific had never been strongly isolationist. They came quickly to the side of Britain in both world wars. But they had been isolated. And they had lived on the shores of an ocean that had been pacific, or peaceful, in fact as well as in name as far as they were concerned. Japan's war with Russia and Chile's war with Peru had never come remotely near the southwest Pacific. The British Navy seemed all the defense Australia and New Zealand would ever need, although they had small armed forces of their own.

The Pearl Harbor attack was immediately followed, we know, by sea and land attacks on the Philippines, Singapore, and the East Indies. Singapore was forced to surrender to the Japanese in a few weeks, and among the prisoners taken were thousands of Australian troops. Soon Japanese bombers soared over Darwin, a small but important port in northern Australia, and did heavy damage. The Australians and New Zealanders awoke to find that "the Far East" was really the near North.

At that time neither the British nor the Americans had many ships or men to send to the defense of the southwest Pacific. The Japanese came closer and closer to Australia, invading the Australian territories in New Guinea and occupying the Solomon Islands. Tiny Japanese submarines even entered Sydney Harbor. A glance at pages 388–389 will show you why the Australians had anxious days. Australian troops defended New Guinea bravely, but what really stopped the Japanese was a series of naval battles.

Most of the ships that fought the battle of the Coral Sea and the later battles

among the Solomon Islands were American. This fact doesn't detract from the courage and ability of the Australians and New Zealanders. Man for man, they were equal to anyone. What the war in the southwest Pacific does prove is that the principles of sea power we studied earlier in this chapter are true. That is, countries like Australia and New Zealand could be defended only by sea power. (In the Atomic Age, perhaps no country can be defended in any way, but we are speaking of conditions in 1942.) Only a great industrial country could build the ships to stop Japanese sea power. Brave land defense of single islands could not stop the Japanese as long as they held sea command.

As a result of World War II, the United States found itself drawn close to Australia and New Zealand, which to many Americans had formerly seemed as far away as the moon. Now Americans, Australians, New Zealanders, British, French, and Dutch are working together in a South Pacific Commission to study problems common to the islands of that part of the world. The Pacific Ocean will never again seem as wide as it did before the war.

THE INDIAN OCEAN—PAST AND PRESENT

Many an American and Canadian child has been told that if he dug a hole straight down through the center of the earth, he would come out in China. He would actually come out in the southern Indian Ocean, for that is where the antipodes of North America lie—that is, the place on the globe directly opposite North America.

The Indian Ocean is by now no longer a stranger to us. We met it first when we read about the Moslem world, for on its northwest side the Indian Ocean is bordered by Moslem countries. In fact, the Moslem Arabs were the sea kings of Indian Ocean trade until the Portuguese arrived.

We met the Indian Ocean again when we studied the section of Africa south of the Sahara. Africa was the great continent (second largest in the world) that kept Europeans out of the Indian Ocean until Vasco da Gama's remarkable voyage in 1498. Africa is five thousand miles long from north to south. Ships from Europe had to go around it to reach the Indian Ocean until the Suez Canal was opened in 1869.

Our next encounter with the Indian Ocean was in the chapter "The Eastern Coastlands." India is the key land of the Indian Ocean region. Southeast Asia and the East Indies enclose the Indian Ocean on the northeast, forming gateways through which trade funnels.

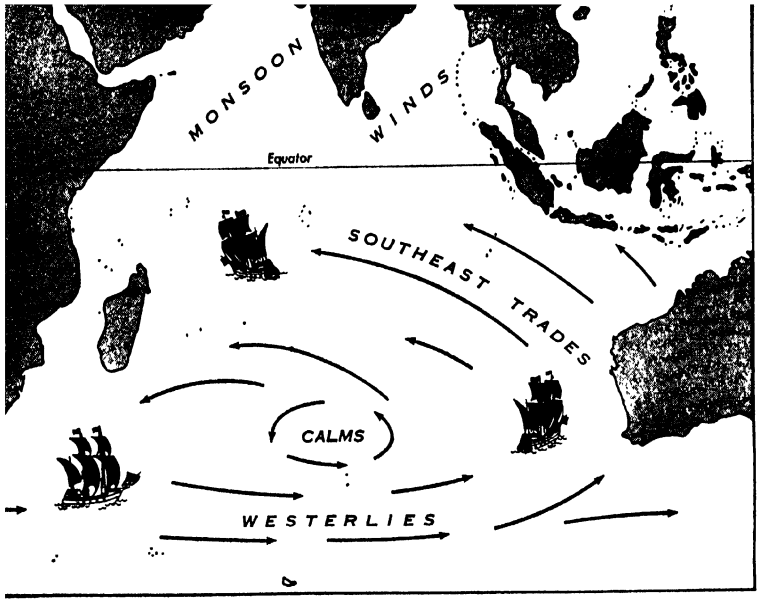
The Indian Ocean touches another land on its southeast side—Australia. We in North America think of Australia as a transpacific country. It is true that the most populous part of Australia is the eastern, or Pacific, coast. But Australia's busiest trade routes cross the Indian Ocean and lead to Suez and on to Great Britain. The most important approach to Australia by air from Europe follows the northern shores of the Indian Ocean, reaching Australia at Darwin, in the Northern Territory. So Australia is an Indian Ocean country as well as a Pacific Ocean country.

On this, our last visit to the Indian Ocean in this book, we will try to point out some ways in which that ocean has influenced world affairs.

Winds of History

We might say that much of the history of the Indian Ocean has been written by its winds, for by the time steam replaced sails the British controlled the seas and the great struggle for India was at an end.

Arab sailors and traders commanded the Indian Ocean, we learned, when the first



Winds in the Indian Ocean once influenced ships. The ships influenced trade, and trade influenced the politics of nations.

of the European ships arrived. The Arabs, you recall, named the monsoons. "Monsoon" comes from an Arabic term for "season," because the monsoons are winds which blow for a whole season of the year. In going from their ports on the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea across the Arabian Sea to India, the Arabs waited for the summer monsoon. By June a current of air is blowing toward India from the west and southwest, and in these winds the small Arab vessels made good time.

Perhaps you have heard the expression, "Time is of the essence," meaning in plain speech "Time is important," or "Hurry up!" In the early days of Indian Ocean trading, time was not of the essence. Favorable winds were the essential things, even if one had to wait months for them. And that was what the Arabs had to do. Their return from India to their home ports was made in winter, when the seasonal winds had reversed themselves and were blowing out of India toward the west and southwest. Similar seasonal changes of wind made it possible for the Arabs to cross the Bay of Bengal to their ports on the Malay Peninsula.

When the Portuguese had finally brought their ships around the Cape of Good Hope, they, too, faced the problem of finding favorable winds. The southern part of the Indian Ocean doesn't have such great seasonal shifts of wind as the northern does, because it is farther from the continent of Asia, with its extremes of temperature. The winds of the southern Indian Ocean follow the same general pattern throughout the year: from west to east in the southern middle latitudes—the westerlies, and from east to west in the tropics—the trade winds.

The Portuguese, getting local advice, worked north along the East African coast until they caught the southern edge of the summer monsoon. Like the Arabs, they waited for the winter monsoon to blow before they started their return trip.

The Dutch, who came later, discovered a new way to travel over the Indian Ocean. They boldly followed the westerlies across the wide southern ocean until their ships were off the west coast of Australia. Then they turned north and were carried by the trade winds toward Java. Returning to Europe, they followed the trade winds. The Dutch discovery of the steady circuit of the winds in the southern Indian Ocean was a reason why Dutch headquarters were in Java instead of farther north. It also explains why there are some Dutch place names on the west coast of Australia.

Capes and Straits

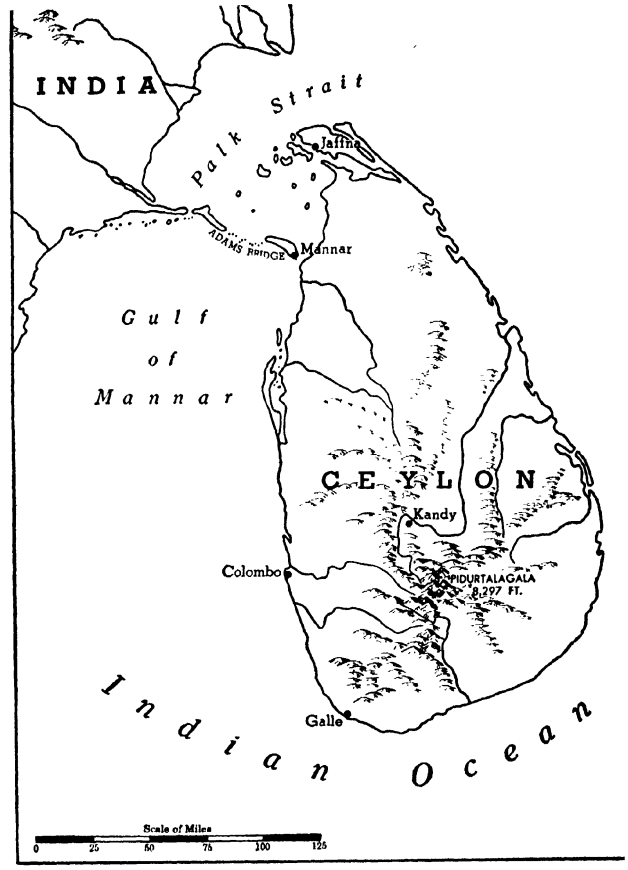
If the winds of the Indian Ocean have played a great part in its history, so also have its capes and islands and straits. Arab sea power held two strategic straits, or gateways, on the west—the entrances to the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea. On the east, the Strait of Malacca, between Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula, was under Arab control. The Portuguese first bested

the Arabs at their ports in India and then took from them the control of the strategic straits.

The Dutch founded Cape Town, near the southern tip of Africa, as a supply base for their ships before and after the long voyages across the southern Indian Ocean. At the other end of the voyage, as we have learned, was Batavia, near the straits between Sumatra and Java. More than a century ago, the British took Cape Town, and later—in 1910, to be exact—they formed the Union of South Africa. But a form of Dutch called Afrikaans is a major language of the Union of South Africa.

A man-made strait, the Suez Canal, provides the Indian Ocean with its most important gateway. The canal, as you recall, was built by a French company. And until recently, the headquarters for the canal's business were still in Paris. Since the Egyptians did not want to wait until 1968, when the canal's charter would expire, they seized the canal in 1956, thereby nearly upsetting the peace of the world.

The Suez Canal has many nicknames, ranging from "that ditch in the desert" to "the jugular vein of empire" or "the British life line." Perhaps the canal is not that important to the British, but certainly the route has always been one of the main arteries of sea power and one of the world's busiest sea lanes. Who actually owns the canal is not so important to the world as who controls it.

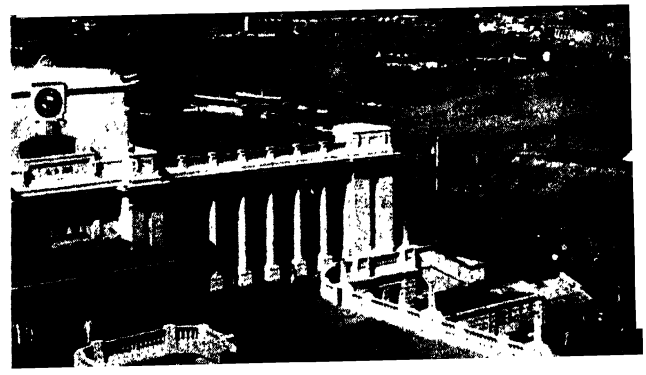


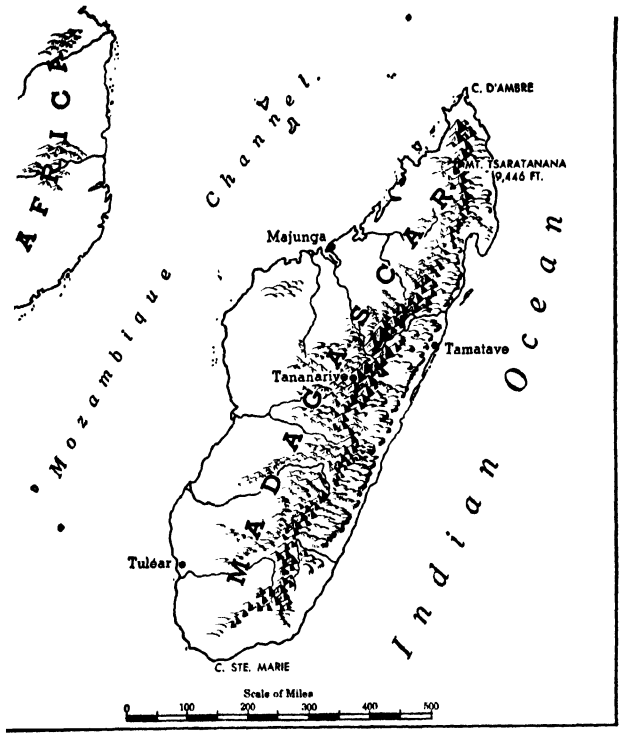
Use the bar scale to find the length and the width of Ceylon in miles.

Most ships enter and leave Ceylon at Colombo, seen on the map above and in the picture below.

Two Large Islands

There are two large islands in the Indian Ocean, Ceylon and Madagascar. From its location, we could guess that Ceylon would be involved in almost all the affairs of the Indian Ocean region. As you can see on the map on this page, Ceylon looks like a pendant hanging from India, about midway between the Red Sea and the Malay Peninsula. The strait between Ceylon and India is not navigable for ocean vessels, and so ships must go around Ceylon. Every





Find the length and width of Madagascar in miles. It looks smaller than Ceylon does on page 253, but only because it was mapped on a different scale.

power that has traded or fought in the Indian Ocean has eyed Ceylon, and most of them have at one time or another made use of its harbors.

The Arabs traded in Ceylon. In fact, Arab sailing craft from the Maldive Islands still call there. The Portuguese followed the Arabs. The name of Ceylon's chief port, Colombo, is a Portuguese spelling of a native word which reminded them of the name of Columbus. The Dutch ruled the island for awhile. British and French struggled over Ceylon, and it became a British colony. Little by little it gained more self-government, until now it is an independent member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

Madagascar is so near to Africa that we usually think of it as an outlier of that continent—if we think of it at all. But the chief language of the people of Madagascar is a branch of the Malayan group of languages which was carried clear across the Indian Ocean. Madagascar is a gigantic island. Its area almost equals that of Texas. France laid claim to Madagascar many years ago, but it was not until 1885—sixteen years after the Suez Canal was opened—that the French actually occupied any part of the island. It is now a French possession. Of its four million inhabitants, only a few thousand are Europeans.

Madagascar broke into the headlines for a few brief weeks in World War II. The Japanese had captured Singapore and opened a sea route to the Indian Ocean. Japanese submarines entered that ocean, sinking ships off the African coast. The channel between Africa and Madagascar had become an important sea route for the supply of Allied armies in Egypt and in India. At that time the French officials in Madagascar belonged to a group that was friendly to Germany and Japan. It was suspected that Japanese submarines could get supplies at the French naval base on the island. A British expedition landed and, aided by Frenchmen who opposed the colonial officials, occupied the island. Within a few days, the trouble was over and Madagascar was no longer "news."

THE ATLANTIC OCEAN AND THE ARCTIC

Lying to the west of Eurasia and Africa is a body of water that is nearly as large as those two continents together. It is known as the Atlantic Ocean. For centuries this great ocean cut off the Old World from the New so completely that, although both areas were inhabited, the people of the Old World knew nothing about the people of the New World.

Today this same ocean has almost the opposite effect. Its present tendency is to bind its bordering countries into one great family—the Atlantic family of nations. These nations feel close to one another for

the very fact that they do border the same ocean and can now easily cross that ocean by ship and by plane. The Atlantic nations feel close, also, because most of them are largely the product of western civilization. It was the people of the maritime nations of western Europe who crossed the Atlantic to colonize the New World. The old blood ties are still strong, even though much of the New World is now politically independent. There is not the same tie between Africa and the rest of the Atlantic world. Only a few parts of Africa have secured their independence and are ready to take their places at the "family" councils of nations.

In many ways the history of the Atlantic Ocean is much like the history of the Mediterranean Sea. In the first stage of the Mediterranean's history this sea served only as a barrier between the peoples on the opposite shores. The Mediterranean was no longer a complete barrier after the first men crossed it with boats. This may have happened two or three thousand years before the Christian Era began. The Atlantic continued being a barrier until nearly a thousand years after Christ was born. Then fishermen began to visit the Grand Banks, and Norsemen began their island hopping—Ireland to Iceland, Iceland to Greenland, and Greenland to North America.

Later the Portuguese began to venture out into the dark Atlantic, where they colonized the Madeira Islands and the Azores. This happened during the first half of the fifteenth century. It was during this century, too, that the Portuguese began to feel their slow, cautious way southward along the coast of Africa. Finally Columbus, in a burst of daring, sailed straight across the Atlantic at one of its widest places, and the dreaded "Ocean Sea" began to lose its mystery.

It is important to our story that it was Europeans who first began to explore the Atlantic. There were other people living around the shores of this great ocean, but neither the Indians of the New World nor the Negroes of Africa had acquired the necessary skill in boatbuilding and in navigation to hazard long voyages like those across the Atlantic. Had the highly civilized Mayas of Yucatan become a maritime people, they might have discovered Europe several hundred years before the Europeans got around to discovering America. The Mayas could have followed the Gulf Stream and used the westerly winds of the North Atlantic to make a crossing. Similarly, it might have been possible for the Negroes of the Guinea coast of Africa to make the narrow crossing to South America. They, also, could have used favorable winds and currents. But they did not do it. It remained for Europeans at the northeast corner of the ocean to make the first crossings.

Today the Atlantic is in the stage reached by the Mediterranean at the height of Greek civilization five centuries before the birth of Christ. At that time several maritime powers had appeared in the Mediterranean, and together they had spread the civilization of that period about the shores of the great inland sea. But at this period of Greek civilization, no one power was able to control all of the land bordering the Mediterranean. It remained for the Romans to achieve this at a later period.

Today the shores of the Atlantic have become as closely connected with western civilization as the shores of the Mediterranean were with Greek and Roman civilization. But no one power has been strong enough to control the whole Atlantic shore line. The British during the last century played a part in the Atlantic like that of the Phoenicians or the Greeks in the Mediterranean. The British Empire was the strongest maritime power in the Atlantic and a great trading and colonizing power, just as Phoenicia was at a much earlier period in the Mediterranean. Whether any nation will play the part of Rome is not yet clear. Some people think that it will be the United States. It is too soon to tell. History may not repeat itself in this instance.

The Misshapen Atlantic

The Atlantic has the most irregular shape of any of the world's oceans. Whereas the Pacific and Indian oceans are nearly round and regular in shape, the Atlantic is long in proportion to its width. It winds between the land masses of the earth, making an open or sloppy **S**. Neither the northern nor southern limit of the Atlantic is definite. Some geographers include the Arctic Ocean with the Atlantic. They say that the Atlantic really starts at Bering Strait, crosses the North Pole, and winds up in the Weddell Sea on the shores of Antarctica.

Near the equator the Atlantic becomes so narrow that Cape São Roque, the northeast shoulder of Brazil, is only about 1700 miles from Freetown, in Africa. Since the distance at this point is so short—about the same as the distance of a flight from New York to Denver—airplanes frequently cross the Atlantic here in flying from South America to Europe. During World War II, American and Canadian airplanes also used this route to fly supplies to North Africa. Because of this waist, or narrows, in the Atlantic, the ocean is really divided into two parts, the North Atlantic and the South Atlantic.

The two Atlantics, North and South, are very different from each other. These differences have political importance and are, therefore, worth considering. The South Atlantic, as you can see on the map on page 235, has smooth shore lines with few large seas or gulfs that reach into the neighboring land areas. The North Atlantic, on the other hand, has a very irregular outline. It has numerous bays, seas, gulfs, and straits. These irregularities are important because they are so useful to man.

The Strategic North Atlantic

Many of the irregularities of the North Atlantic shore line are pouch- or pocket-shaped. Only by passing through narrow openings can ships enter them. Those openings are particularly important to man, for shipping lanes meet there, and it is possible for ships and airplanes from a few well-located naval bases to control the shipping lanes.

Examples of naval bases located on the shores of narrow straits are numerous. British-held Gibraltar guards the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea. The United States Naval Base at Guantánamo Bay in Cuba guards the Windward Channel, one of the entrances to the Caribbean Sea and the Panama Canal. In the foreground of the picture at the left you can see part of the American naval base built on the irregular coast of the bay. In the past Copenhagen was able to make use of its position on a strait to dominate the entrance to the Baltic Sea. There are several other examples that you may recall.

Such strategically located naval bases are not so important as they once were. When they could

United States ships anchor in the waters of Guantánamo Bay.

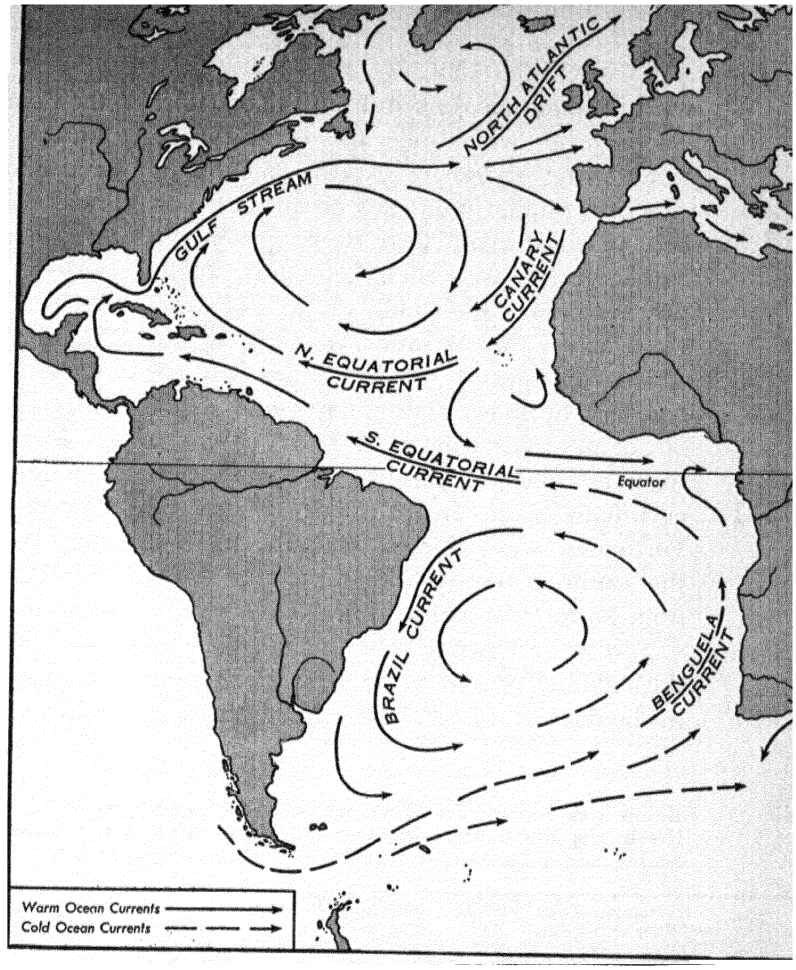
Courtesy Department of Defense



be attacked only by ships at sea or perhaps by way of a narrow land approach, they could be easily defended. But the airplane has made such bases much more vulnerable to attack. A naval base can quickly be put out of commission if it does not have the air strength to keep away enemy planes. A strong and strategically located naval base is not so vitally important as it once was, but it may still be extremely useful.

The irregular shore line of the North Atlantic, with its many narrows and numerous islands, contains strategic spots sought after by the competing maritime powers of the western world. Some of these spots have changed hands repeatedly. For example, there are the Virgin Islands in the West Indies. They belonged to Spain for nearly two centuries, then to Denmark for two more centuries. The United States bought them in 1917, during World War I, to prevent their being sold to the Germans. The Germans were supposed to be preparing to use them for a submarine base. Guadeloupe and Martinique, two small islands southeast of the Virgin Islands, had even more checkered careers. They changed hands seven or eight times after their discovery by Europeans.

The North Atlantic touches more areas of world importance than the South Atlantic does. The northern ocean lies between two of the world's most populous and productive regions, and is crossed by connecting transportation routes. Furthermore, more land drains into the North Atlantic than into the South Atlantic. These northern areas are richer in food and mineral resources than are those of the south. For these reasons and for many others, the North Atlantic is the world's busiest ocean.



Compare this map with the one on the following page. What currents appear closely related to what winds?

Winds and Currents

The North Atlantic and the South Atlantic are similar in one respect, however. In both parts there is a great circulatory movement of the water. In the North Atlantic the movement is clockwise. A huge eddy, or current, that carries warm water from tropical America moves across the Atlantic to warm the shores of northern Europe and returns cool water to the tropics. A similar eddy in the South Atlantic rotates in the opposite direction, warming the coasts of northern Brazil and helping to cool the coast of South Africa.

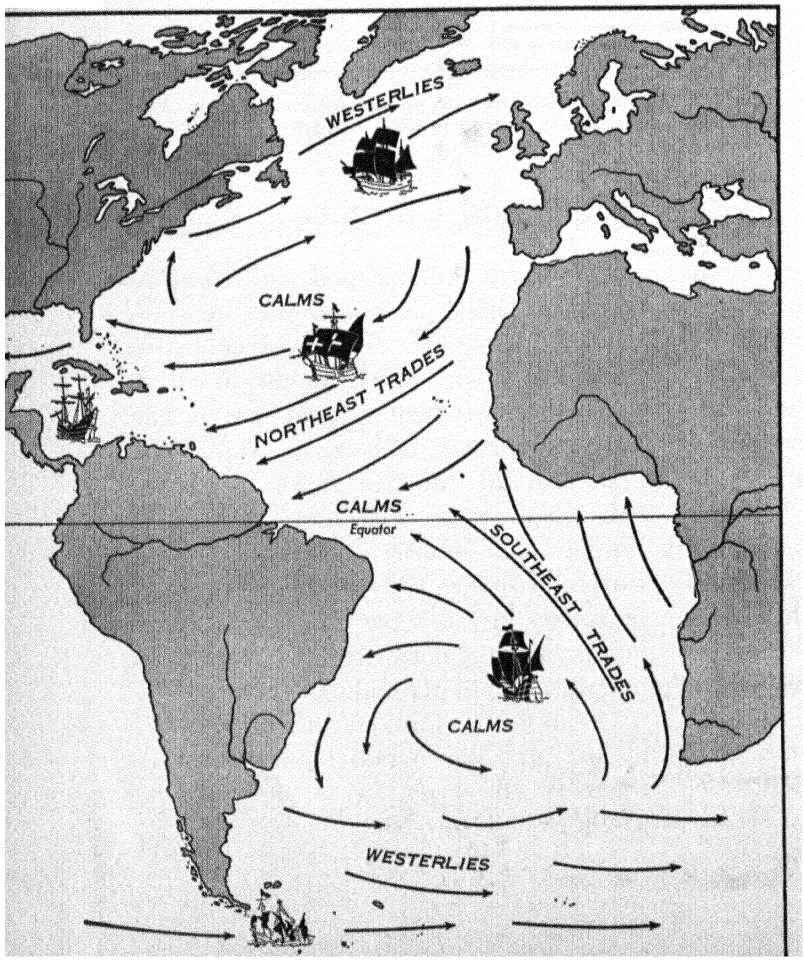
Ocean currents are set in motion largely by the prevailing winds blowing over the water. Each ocean has a belt of trade winds which blow from the east at about

ten to twenty-five degrees from the equator. These trade winds pile the ocean water against the shores of North and South America. Similarly, in each ocean there is a belt of winds about forty degrees from the equator called westerlies. Columbus caught the northern trade-wind belt to sail westward across the Atlantic just north of the Tropic of Cancer. On his return voyage, however, he sailed farther north and so got out of the trade-wind belt. Then, using the westerly winds, he reached the Azores and eventually Spain. In the South Atlantic the Portuguese were able to take advantage of the southeast trade winds in carrying slaves from Portuguese Africa to Brazil.

The westerly-wind belts in both parts of the Atlantic proved to be a mixed blessing in the days of sailing. In the North Atlantic they made the westward crossing from Europe to North America particularly slow and often hazardous. The Pilgrims required more than two months to cross from Plymouth, England, to Provincetown, Massachusetts—a distance of about three thousand miles. On the other hand, Columbus more than a century earlier sailed from the Canary Islands to San Salvador, in the Bahamas, in less than half that time.

The strong westerly winds of the South Atlantic made a westward trip from the Atlantic to the Pacific difficult, whether the ship passed through the Strait of Magellan or rounded the Horn. Many a ship was lost in the stormy seas that surround the southern tip of South America. Many a sailing vessel had to make several attempts before it could succeed against the westerly winds. Indeed, rounding the Horn was so difficult that ship captains from Boston and New York often preferred to sail eastward around Africa to reach the Orient. The return trip was made by crossing the Pacific and rounding the Horn from west to east. On such a trip a sailing ship could use favorable winds to help.

Below you can see the Mayflower crossing against the westerlies in the North Atlantic, the Santa Maria using the northeast trades, and a Portuguese trading ship the southeast trades.



Ship lanes in sailing days. Before the days of steamships, captains in the Atlantic made active use of the known facts about the wind belts and ocean currents. In crossing to the New World, ships from Europe used the trade winds and the equatorial current caused by these winds. Even on trips to Philadelphia and New York, ships often swung far enough south to stop at Bermuda. On the other hand, ships returning to Europe picked a more northerly course, using other currents, the Gulf Stream and North Atlantic Drift, as well as the westerly winds, to make the crossing.

In the early days, of course, most of the shipping lanes met at Middle America and the West Indies. The northeast trade winds made an ideal pathway that led directly to Middle America. Here were established the first colonies and the strongest forts. This area quickly became the key area of the New World, fought over by the British, French, Dutch, and Spanish for more than two centuries. The Spaniards valued Middle America so highly that they concentrated most of their strength there. They funneled all of their trade with Spanish America through the ports of Middle America. Even their Pacific trade with the Philippines was brought to Middle America, hauled overland, and reshipped from Atlantic ports.

Because many routes of travel led to the West Indies, great interest developed in certain strategic islands and harbors there. After the voyages of discovery, the Spaniards began systematically to lay claim to the islands in the West Indies. The other maritime powers of Europe, however, were not willing to allow all of this plunder to go to their rival. The French, British, Dutch, and even the Swedes and the Danes jostled each other for island holdings. This extreme interest was due partly to the desire for tropical products like sugar and spices. But it was also due to the desire for bases along important trade routes.

Ship lanes today. After the middle of the nineteenth century, several important changes took place. Steamships took the place of sailing vessels, and so winds and currents became less important. Great-circle routes began to determine the location of ship lanes. Coaling stations became important, for a steamship could not go on indefinitely without new supplies of coal, as a sailing vessel could. Hitherto unimportant islands became possible coaling stations and were, therefore, quickly grabbed by European powers if they had not been claimed earlier.

The Atlantic Ocean is like the Mediterranean Sea, only much larger. To see this clearly, you have to turn a map of the Mediterranean so that the sea appears to run north and south, with Gibraltar at the south end. Both the Atlantic and the Mediterranean are long and narrow, with natural openings at only one end. The Atlantic has an opening to the north, but it is blocked by ice most of the year and is not of very great use. The opening to the south leads in two directions. In one direction—east of the Cape of Good Hope—lie the Indian Ocean and southern Asia. In the other—west around Cape Horn—lies the Pacific. Until after the middle of the nineteenth century all shipping that was to pass on to the oceans beyond the Atlantic had to use one or the other of these long trips into the Southern Hemisphere.

After the middle of the nineteenth century the Suez Canal was opened, and a great change in the shipping lanes resulted. Ships that had been going around the Cape of Good Hope to enter the Indian Ocean could now pass through the Mediterranean. In this way they shortened their voyages by thousands of miles. The building of the Suez Canal has lessened the importance of the South Atlantic and increased that of the Mediterranean. The Atlantic Ocean had acquired a new, man-made outlet.

In 1914 another canal was opened, the Panama Canal. This new gateway, likewise, changed the pattern of the shipping lanes and increased the importance of the whole Caribbean area. It is now no longer necessary for vessels out of New York to round the Horn or to circumnavigate the globe in order to reach the Pacific coast of the Americas. The canal is of minor significance to most European countries, and it is of little use to Brazil or Argentina. But it is of tremendous importance to the countries of North America. And it is very important, too, to the west-coast countries of South America.

Since the building of the Suez and Panama canals, the Atlantic Ocean has changed from an ocean with only a southern outlet

to one with two man-made gateways. Both of these gateways are north of the equator and have, therefore, increased the importance of the North Atlantic. They have done much to keep that ocean the world's busiest. If Brazil, Argentina, and the Union of South Africa had not become important nations, the South Atlantic might have become a quiet back street among the ocean thoroughfares of the world. But these Southern Hemisphere countries keep the shipping lanes of the South Atlantic as busy as they were before the canals were built.

Arctic Politics

Although the Arctic Ocean is in one sense an arm of the Atlantic, its political geography is in many ways distinct. Very few people live on the shores of the Arctic Ocean, and there is little prospect that the areas there will become important commercially. But the Arctic is a frontier between North America and the Soviet Union and is, therefore, of strategic importance. As a result, the United States and Canada are interested in the Arctic and in seeing to it that they have men and equipment to defend its shores.

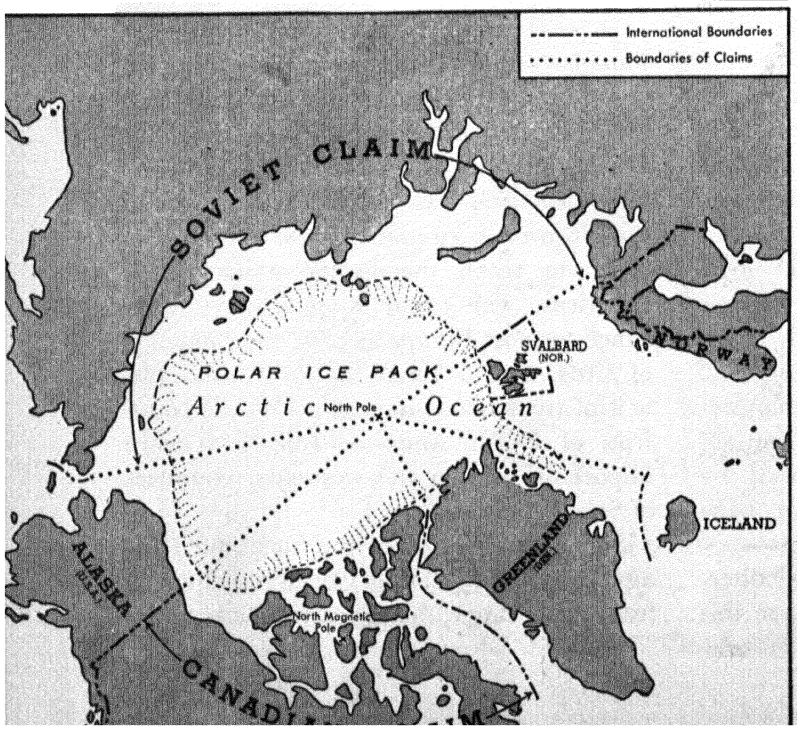
Until the Air Age there was very little travel over the largely frozen waters of the Arctic Ocean. And, for the most part, the lands of the Arctic were left in the undisturbed possession of a few wandering tribes of nomadic people until very recently.

Canada began the modern rush for Arctic real estate in 1907. In that year the Canadians laid claim to any known or yet-to-be-discovered lands between Canada and the North Pole. This rather surprising claim was something new in politics. It did not depend upon settlement or even discovery, but upon the principle that near-by islands should belong to the country that held the shore. It was a new idea, but at the time no one cared very much. It did not seem to be very important.

The idea the Canadians introduced was important, however, for it came to be used by other powers. The Russians, like the Canadians, held a large piece of the Arctic Ocean shore line, so they, too, laid claim to any islands lying between the mainland and the pole.

Between the Canadian land and that claimed by the Soviet Union there is a small wedge of the Arctic north of Alaska that might be claimed by the United States. But the State Department of the United States has not looked upon any of the claims with any favor. The State Department holds that the only way a country can justifiably claim any new territory is to settle its citizens there. Since no one is living in most of these areas, the United States refuses to acknowledge that they belong to any one country more than to another. There the matter rests

The dotted lines show Arctic areas claimed by various countries and the dashed lines show boundaries that are now recognized. Can you tell what projection this is?



for the time being. It is the sort of problem that might eventually be settled by the World Court of the United Nations.

There is one part of the Arctic, though, where there is little doubt as to which country holds the land. This is the section that lies between northern Europe and northern North America. Here Norway holds Svalbard and Jan Mayen, and Denmark holds Greenland. Most of the world has recognized the claims of these two Scandinavian countries.

It is doubtful whether there is much additional land to be found in the Arctic Ocean anyway, much of which is filled by a large polar ice pack. But the really critical thing about the Arctic is not the possibility of finding new land. It is the possibility of establishing air routes. When one looks at a globe with the North Pole directly in front of one's nose, it is easy to see that the shortest air distances between many of the cities of the Northern Hemisphere cross the Arctic or come very close to it. This is particularly noticeable when one is measuring distances from such inland cities as Chicago and Winnipeg to inland cities of the Soviet Union, such as Moscow. In this case the shortest line of flight really crosses polar regions. But the air routes from cities of eastern North America to the cities of western Europe do not cross the Arctic Circle. Nor do the air routes between cities of the western United States and Canada and the Orient. The air routes swing far to the north, but they do not cross the Arctic Ocean or come within twenty degrees of the North Pole.

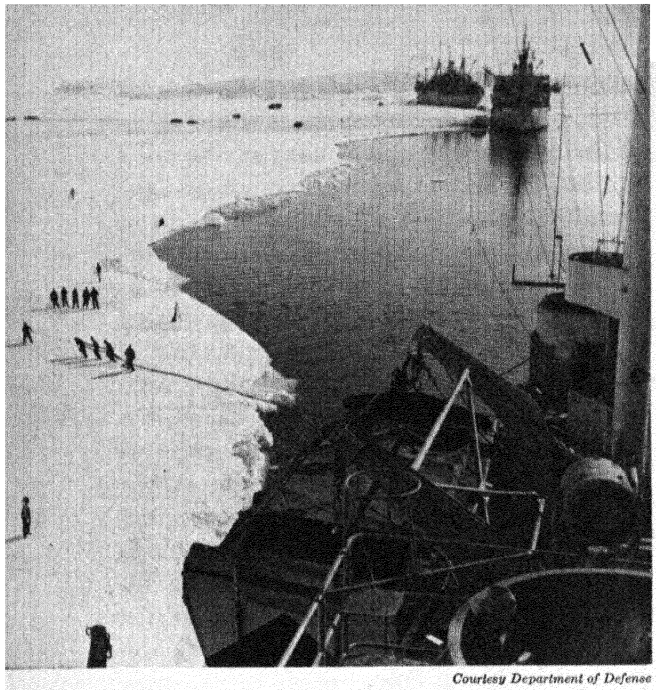
ANTARCTICA—NEWEST CONTINENT

At the opposite end of the earth from the Arctic Ocean, if one can speak of an end on a globe, lies the continent of Antarctica. Admiral Byrd has called Antarctica a sleeping princess. This continent, nearly as large as South America and twice the size of the United States, is much the most isolated land in the world. It is more than two thousand miles from the nearest large cities—Cape Town, Buenos Aires, and Melbourne. And it is three or four times as far from the great powers of the North Atlantic. To complete its isolation, it is surrounded by the stormy, iceberg-strewn seas that slowly circle Antarctica in a great clockwise rotation.

So difficult to navigate are the Antarctic seas that nobody crossed the Antarctic Circle until about the time of the American Revolution. Many geographers had imagined that a great land mass existed far to the south, but actual proof of its existence was very slow in coming. Little by little, ships brought back reports of land south of the Antarctic Circle. This land usually proved to be islands in the Antarctic seas. But finally, about one hundred years ago, a report was made of a long mountainous coast that could be nothing but a part of a continent.

The continent was covered with ice—ice that bordered the sea in cliffs that were several hundred feet high. In some places the ice extended beyond the land in huge shelves that floated on the sea. Occasionally this shelf ice broke off in large chunks that floated out to sea. Chunks of shelf ice have been described that were as large as the state of Maryland. It was not until 1895 that a party actually made a landing on the mainland of Antarctica, so difficult was it to reach its shores. And this party did not loiter. It made its brief visit in January during the height of the short Antarctic summer and left before the ship could be frozen fast to the sea ice that forms just as soon as summer is past.

Since that day, there have been numerous Antarctic expeditions, but relatively little is known about Antarctica even now. We

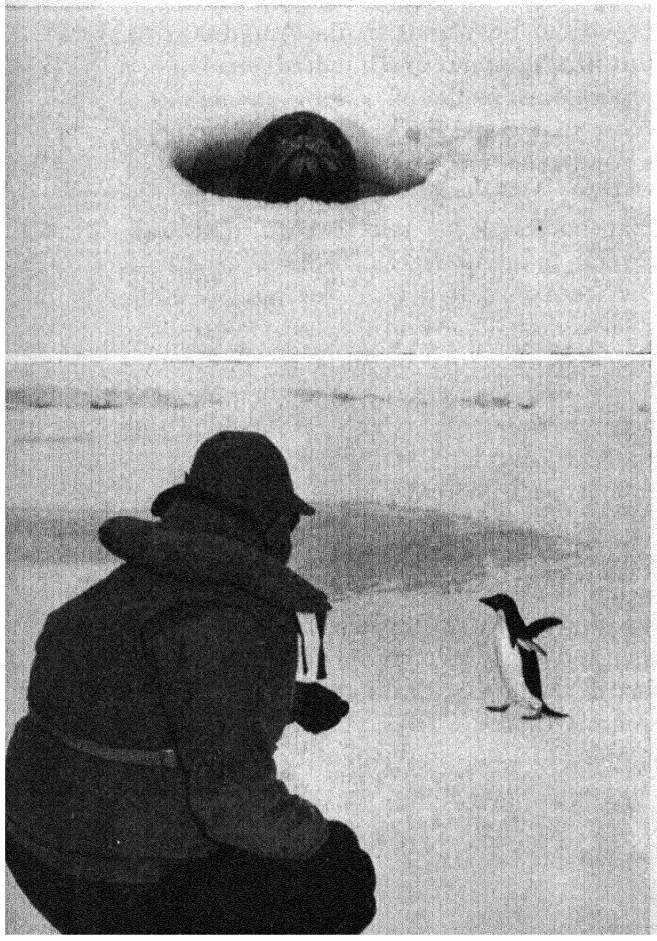


Courtesy Department of Defense

Unloading a cargo ship on the Antarctic shore.

A seal takes the air and a penguin takes a walk.

Courtesy Department of Defense



do know that the plant and animal resources of this continent are very limited. Penguins and seals live along the coasts, where they can catch fish in the icy sea. No large animals of any sort live far from the coast. We know that most of the land is covered with ice. But we know only a little about the rocks that lie buried beneath that ice or perhaps are exposed in mountains that rise above the ice. Great coal seams have been found, and it is likely that many other minerals might occur—even oil and possibly uranium. But these resources await future mining. No one wants to do it now.

Antarctic Pie

Tomorrow's mining often depends upon today's territorial claims, as the world has so often witnessed. It often pays to grab a piece of land first and then see what can be found there. Consequently, many countries have hastened to stake a claim to a share of Antarctica. And the pattern of these claims is the wedge pattern just described for the Arctic. Since the lines of longitude come together at the pole, the result is a kind of huge pie cut into a number of wedges, or sectors.

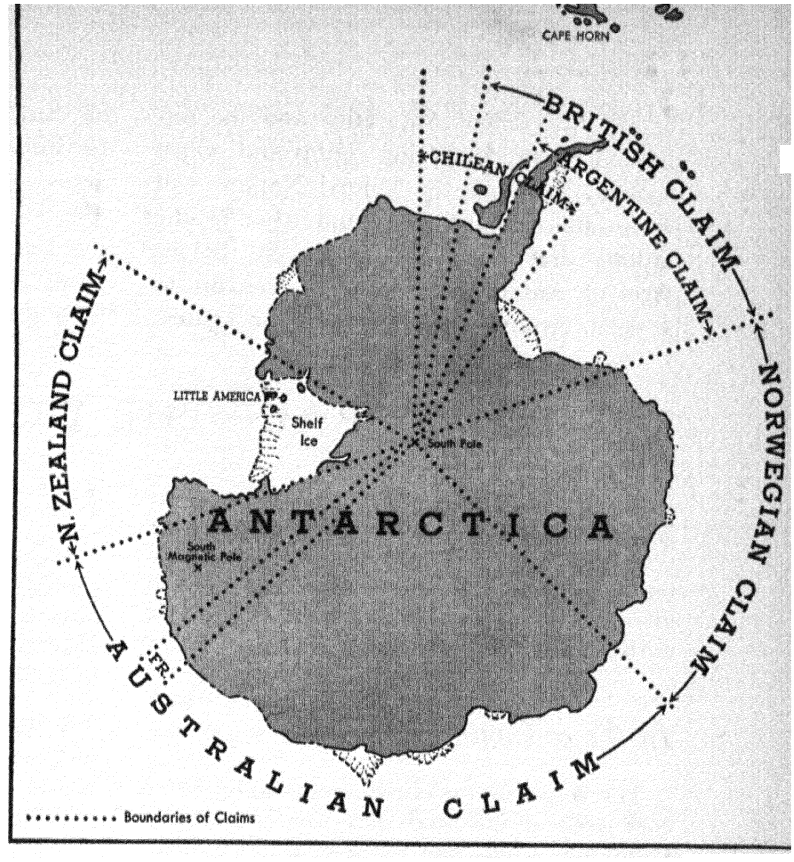
Antarctica is different from the Arctic. In the Arctic there is an ocean nearly surrounded by land. Antarctica, on the other hand, is land surrounded by water—lots of water—miles and miles of it. Of course, no country owns the seas that border Antarctica. Nevertheless, nations that hold land anywhere near Antarctica have claimed the land between their possessions and the South Pole. On that basis the Commonwealth of Nations has laid claim to more than half the Antarctic pie. The United States does not recognize these claims any more than it recognized similar claims in the Arctic.

The United Kingdom itself does not have its name on the map of Antarctica at all. But Antarctic land is claimed by the Falkland Islands and Dependencies, a crown

colony administered by the United Kingdom. Australia has laid claim to a large sector of Antarctica, and so has New Zealand. Because Frenchmen had a share in the exploration of Antarctica, a small piece of that continent has been reserved for France. And Norway claims a fair-sized piece based both on island holdings in the South Atlantic that are near Antarctica and on explorations on the continent itself. The first man to set foot on Antarctica was a Norwegian, and the first man to reach the South Pole was a Norwegian. Norway could not very well be left out.

All of this seems very nice and orderly so far, but there is trouble afoot. It occurs chiefly over the Falkland Islands sector and because of the fact that the United States will have nothing to do with sector claims at all. In the first place, Argentina thinks that the Falkland Islands belong to it. In the second place, both Argentina and Chile feel that since their southern lands in Tierra del Fuego are the nearest lands to Antarctica, they should have a share in the pie. Unfortunately, their claims not only overlap the Falkland Islands claim, but overlap each other. Naturally, this makes for bad feeling all around. Recently the Soviet Union has asked to have a share in Antarctica. The Russians point out that they played an important part in exploration and feel they should have a share, too.

So far, the United States has not asked for any particular sector, although there is an unclaimed piece that might be claimed. This piece was left by the other powers in the hope that the United States would take it and at the same time recognize their sectors. So far the United States has recognized no claims on the part of anyone. But a settlement of Antarctic land titles cannot be put off indefinitely. Exploration is going forward rapidly. Semipermanent settlements such as weather stations are being set up. The question of political ownership will have to be decided soon.



The claims to the Antarctic pie make uneven wedges. The British claim includes that of the Falkland Islands. Why?

Antarctica and the United Nations

The suggestion has been made that it might be wise to turn Antarctica over to the United Nations to be held as common territory for the good of all the member nations. Suppose that Antarctica proved to be rich in mineral wealth and that wealth belonged to all the member nations of the United Nations. Then perhaps they would not leave the organization readily if things did not go to please them.

Acting in line with this thought, the United States has made just that suggestion

for the disposal of Antarctica and the settlement of the conflicting claims and points of view. Whether the United Nations will accept this responsibility, and whether the nations that have laid claim to various parts of Antarctica will agree, remain to be seen. Antarctica is far from the centers of world activity. It probably will always be isolated as compared with other land areas. But the disposal of its land is a question that can be very significant. It is the last great unowned land in the world. Shall we fight over it, or can we use it to help guarantee world peace?

A WORKSHOP ON THE OCEANS

If you live in the interior of the continent, you may think oceans have little to do with your affairs. But all people, no matter how far away from the oceans they may be, are affected by them. No community can be entirely cut off from them.

In Your Community

You recall that ocean currents may either cool or heat the land they touch, and you know how winds blowing over water moderate the temperature of land that is near by. But no matter where a community is, it has one direct connection with the oceans: All rainfall comes directly or indirectly from the oceans and returns there.

Every community has other connections with oceans. The following questions will help you think of connections yours has:

1. What foods sold in your community come from the ocean? How did they reach your community?
2. What other ocean products can you think of which are used in your community?
3. Are there goods produced in your community directly useful to people working or living on or near the oceans?
4. How many people do you know who are or have been sailors or marines? Where have they been stationed?
5. What ocean is nearest you? Is there a river near you which has an outlet on an ocean? Did the river influence the growth of your community?

If you live in or near a seaport or along the shore of an ocean, the water affects you in many other ways. Wherever you live, collect all the information you can about the oceans and your affairs.

Use Your Head

People have always exchanged ideas, and probably there have always been people who have tried to influence the thinking of others. How carefully do you examine what you hear or read?

1. Do you consider the source? For example, which of the following do you think would give the most reliable account of the bombing of Pearl Harbor? Why? How would you rate the other sources?
   a. an eyewitness account
   b. a newspaper account the day after the bombing
   c. a newspaper account ten years later
2. Are you able to separate facts that serve to back up general statements from those that do not? Which of the facts listed below back up this general statement: "The Northern Hemisphere is more important than the Southern"?
   a. It has a larger population.
   b. Maps sometimes show Australia and New Zealand in an obscure position.
   c. In the past Australia and New Zealand could be defended only by sea power.
   d. The Northern Hemisphere has more resources than the Southern.
3. Can you study a group of facts and draw a conclusion from them or make a general statement based on them?

Consider these facts, true of Australia in 1947. What conclusion do you draw?

   a. The total population of Australia was 7,580,820.
   b. The principal Australian cities were Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Adelaide, Perth, and Newcastle.
   c. The populations of the above cities in order were 1,484,434; 1,226,923; 402,172; 382,604; 272,586; 127,188.

4. Are you able to tell a statement of opinion from one of fact? Which of the following statements are opinions? Facts?

a. Oceania is a name sometimes given the islands of the western Pacific.
b. Antarctica will probably always be isolated as compared with other land areas.
c. A ship on the Pacific Ocean can be farther from land there than on any other ocean.
d. An island should belong to the country to whose shore line it lies closest.

Speaking of Oceans

On page 241 you saw the outlines of the large oceans in the world. In the margins of those oceans, helping to connect them, are many smaller bodies of water called seas. Which of the following do you know? Find them on a map or globe. Which are almost entirely surrounded by land?

1. Beaufort Sea
2. South China Sea
3. Bering Sea
4. Caribbean Sea
5. Yellow Sea
6. Barents Sea
7. Japan Sea
8. North Sea
9. Red Sea
10. Black Sea
11. Baltic Sea
12. Weddell Sea

See if you can find other seas.

UNDER THE WATER

The three profiles on page 241 give you an idea of the uneven underwater surface of the oceans shown. Under the oceans are ridges, gently sloping elevations, and extremely deep places called *deeps*.

You know the shapes of the continents—the largest land areas that lie above the surface of the water. In many places the edges of continents slope gently down beneath the water forming what are known as *continental shelves*. Some of the best fishing grounds in the world are the shallow waters above continental shelves. And in the shelves there may be mineral deposits.

1. Use reference books to get information about the fishing grounds north of Japan and the ones called Grand Banks and Dogger Bank. What countries use them? Try to find out how the use of fishing grounds and the control of sealing have made politics for some countries.

2. The United States has declared that it controls the resources of the continental shelves close to its coasts and the coasts of its territories. Can you think of any political questions concerning such areas that might arise between countries?

OCEAN WATERS MOVE

On page 257 you saw the names and the directions of the chief currents, or permanent movements of water, in the Atlantic Ocean. Another kind of movement of ocean waters—the regular rise and fall of the water level—is called the tide.

Tides are caused by the gravitational pull of the moon and sun—chiefly the moon—on all water surfaces of the earth. Tides are greatest along ocean shores. As the earth turns on its axis, the water on the side toward the moon is pulled in a direction away from the earth—causing a high tide. On the side opposite the moon, the earth is pulled in a direction away from the water—causing a second high tide. As places on the earth reach either position, people along ocean shores say, "The tide is in."

1. Many governments in the world publish tables giving minute-by-minute information about the tides in ports and oceans over the world. In what way are such tables useful to navigators?

2. People have wanted to harness the tides to produce water power, but there are very few places where it is practical to do so. Can you think of any use tides may have in the ports or in the rivers they enter? What harm may they do?

Things to Do

Choose some of these things to do. You may want to work individually or in groups.

1. Are you interested in sea navigation? Below are some terms sea navigators commonly use. Use a dictionary or other reference book to find their exact meanings.

a. breakwater
b. dock
c. jetty
d. pier
e. quay
f. starboard
g. port
h. forecastle
i. stern
j. bow
k. knot
l. dead reckoning

2. If possible, find out from persons who have crossed the equator at sea and the international date line how both events are recognized or celebrated.

3. On an outline map of the world locate and name the strategic ocean passes. Be ready to explain why you consider these passes strategic, and be prepared to tell who controls them.

4. Find in the Appendix the names of the fifteen largest cities in the world. Locate them on a world map in a recent atlas. How many are in the Soviet Union? In the western coastlands? In the eastern coastlands? In the New World? How many are seaports? Of the remaining cities, how many have easy access to the sea?

5. What large seaport is located nearest your home? What conditions have helped make it a large city?

Checking Your Information

Which geographic name or term in each of the following groups does not belong with the others?

1. Monsoons, westerlies, antipodes, trades
2. Darwin, Colombo, Sydney, Perth
3. Malaya, Ceylon, Madagascar, Java
4. Svalbard, Little America, Greenland, Iceland
5. Polynesia, Melanesia, Indonesia, Micronesia
6. Freighter, tanker, sector, destroyer
7. Calms, Gulf Stream, North Atlantic Drift, Brazil Current
8. Bay, cape, gulf, strait

Can you figure out the answers to the following:

1. A number of years ago, a ship on its first voyage struck an iceberg, received a long cut on its starboard side, and sank shortly afterward. When the ship called for help, its position was given as 41° 46′ N., 50° 14′ W. Where was the ship?

2. A ship left the harbor of a city that until recently was the largest in the world. Passing through an arm of the sea, it sailed southwest on open water, taking advantage of the south-going current. Near the next-to-the-largest continent in the world, it called at two groups of islands north of the equator and at one island south of it. Proceeding southwest, it arrived at its destination—22° 57′ S., 43° 08′ W. Trace its route on a globe or map.

Using a map or globe, identify these places:

1. The largest island on which Melanesians live and one politically divided in two.
2. A dependent group of islands laying claim to a portion of land on a neighboring continent.
3. A man-made strait dividing two continents and connecting the two largest oceans in the world.
4. The largest seaport on the eastern coast of the smallest continent in the world.
5. An area where a continuous band of water completely encircles the earth—unbroken by any continent.

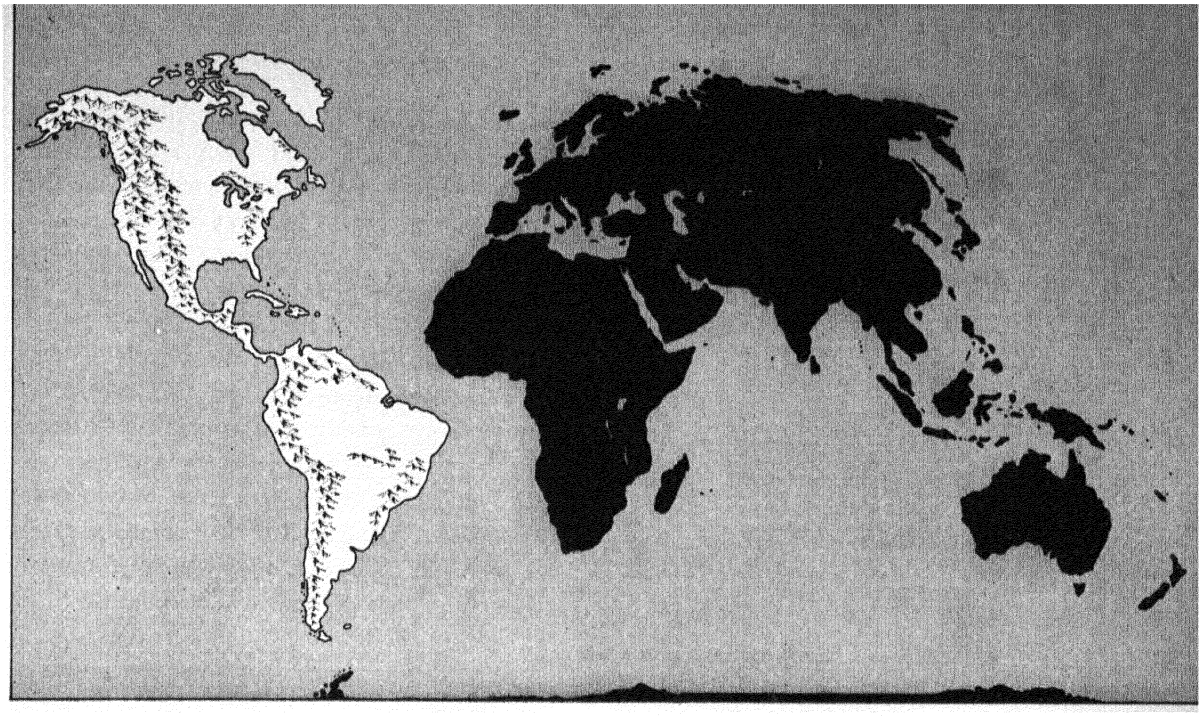
Choose the word or words that best complete each of these sentences:

1. A country that at all times can use the oceans as highways has (a first-class navy, strong bases, command of the seas).
2. A chain of coral islets around a lagoon is (a reef, an atoll, a profile).
3. A lagoon is (a volcanic crater, a shallow water body largely surrounded by land, a beach).
4. A continued motion of ocean water in a given direction is called (a wave, a tide, a current).
5. Tides are caused by (the sun and moon, storms, the stars).

How Do You Feel About It?

Talk over the following statements in class. Express your ideas about them and explain why you feel as you do.

1. The oceans should be kept open to all countries at all times.
2. Strategic ocean passes should be under international control.
3. Civilized peoples of the world should feel responsible for improving the condition of uncivilized or backward peoples.
4. The United States is justified in not recognizing the various claims made to Antarctica.

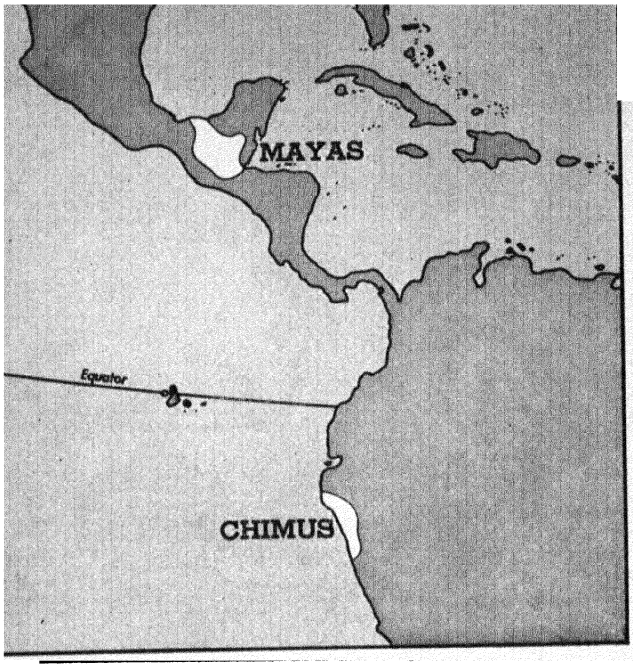


The American Nations

LATIN AMERICA IN WORLD AFFAIRS

When Columbus first landed on one of the small islands in the Bahamas, people were there to greet him. Obviously, someone had discovered the islands before he had. Of course, as you know, he did not expect to find an uninhabited area. He thought that he had reached the Indies and that these people were, therefore, Indians. That was before anyone knew that two unknown continents and a second great ocean lay to the west between Europe and Asia. When the people of Europe discovered the error, they gave the honor of having found the new lands to Columbus, although they named them for someone else. But Columbus was certainly not the original discoverer. Someone else, or some other people, had found these lands long before.

The Indians, who were the real discoverers, came to America so long ago that no one knows for sure who they were, just how they came, or when they came. There are many theories about these original people of the Americas. Some people think that they came from northeastern Asia to North America by way of the Aleutian Islands and Alaska. And it is true that the Indians of the New World do look very much like the people of northeastern Asia. Other people think that early seafarers may have crossed the southern Pacific by way of the many islands there and so reached the western shores of South America. There are other ideas. But the best conclusion seems to be that the first people, whoever they were, came a long time ago, and that others have come from time to time since then, possibly by several different routes. Europeans, we know, were among the last of these immigrants to the New World.



Cradlelands of civilization in the New World.

Indian Civilizations

That people have lived in the Americas for a very long time we are now certain. Not only have men been there thousands of years, but they had been there long enough by the time the Europeans came to be well settled in all parts of the Americas. There were no large empty areas, and most Indians everywhere were thoroughly used to living in the places where they were found by Europeans. We know this is true because they usually did things that were well suited to the regions where they lived. In the Arctic, for instance, they not only killed seals for food but also used them for all sorts of things. The whole culture of the Arctic Eskimos depended upon the seal. In the same way, the Indians of the Great Plains depended upon the American bison, or buffalo.

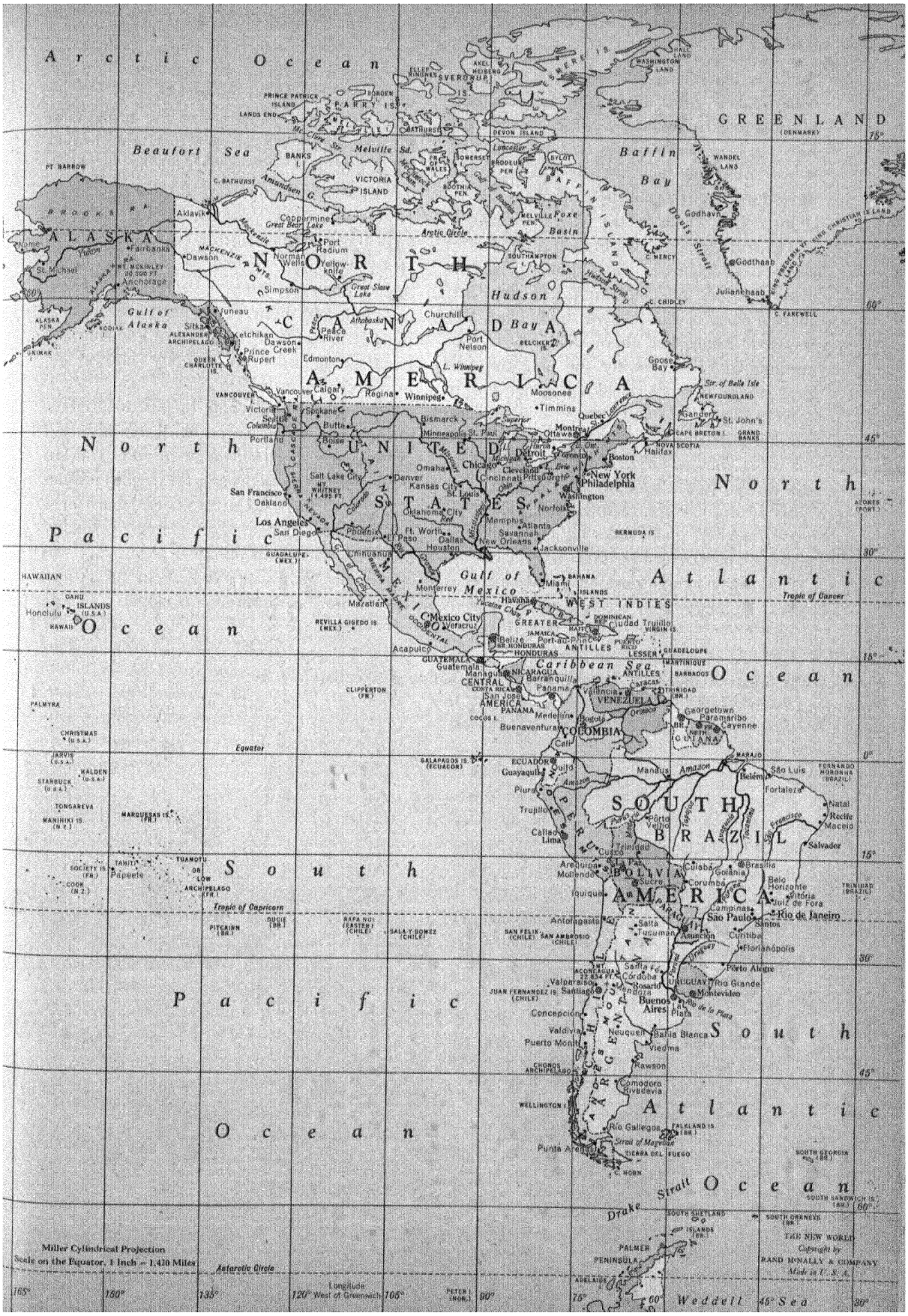
The Indians of tropical America had lived in their area long enough to find out how to cultivate maize, or Indian corn. They had learned to cultivate a number of other typically American crops, too crops such as sweet potatoes, squash, beans, and manioc. In fact, the Indians had lived in the Americas so long that years before Columbus came some had developed an advanced culture. Their civilization had risen and decayed several times before the voyages of discovery. No one knows how old the civilization may have been, only that it was very old.

Two Indian cradles. Actually, when we say civilization we are wrong, for we should say civilizations. Just as there were several cradles of civilization in the Old World, so there were at least two and possibly more in the New World. Look at the map at the left. One civilization– the Maya—was located in Central America where Guatemala and Yucatan have their common boundary today. Another– the Chimu—was located in Peru along the desert coast.

The Chimu center of civilization reminds us in many ways of the cradles of the Old World. It was protected from other areas by high mountains and by deserts. It was an unforested region similar to the Old World cradles, but unlike them it occupied several small valleys rather than one or two large valleys. As in the valley cradles of the Old World, irrigation was used to make farming more productive. The ancient Peruvians were clever engineers. They built elaborate irrigation systems to water the dry lands that bordered the little streams. And they built great cities of sun-dried brick, much as the people of ancient Egypt and Mesopotamia did.

You remember how the people of the Old World followed their rivers out to the open sea and so became seafarers. The Peruvians did, too. They built rafts from balsa—a light, strong wood—and equipped them with matting, or cotton, sails. They sailed these boats up and down the coast and fished in the bountiful waters off the Peruvian shores.

The ancient Chimu civilization of Peru reminds us of the Old World civilizations in many ways. It always pleases geographers when they can find that people behave


Arctic Ocean
GREENLAND (DENMARK)
Beaufort Sea
Baffin Bay
Hudson Bay
NORTH AMERICA
UNITED STATES
ALASKA
Gulf of Alaska
Pacific Ocean
North Atlantic Ocean
Gulf of Mexico
Caribbean Sea
WEST INDIES
MEXICO
SOUTH AMERICA
BRAZIL
BOLIVIA
VENEZUELA
COLOMBIA
ECUADOR
PERU
CHILE
Pacific Ocean
South Atlantic Ocean
Drake Strait
Weddell Sea
Arctic Circle
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Tropic of Capricorn
Antarctic Circle
Miller Cylindrical Projection
Scale on the Equator, 1 Inch = 1,420 Miles
Longitude
120° West of Greenwich
THE NEW WORLD
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similarly in regions that are alike. It makes geographers think they can describe geographic conditions under which people are likely to do certain things. It would be nice if we could say that all early civilizations developed under the same conditions.

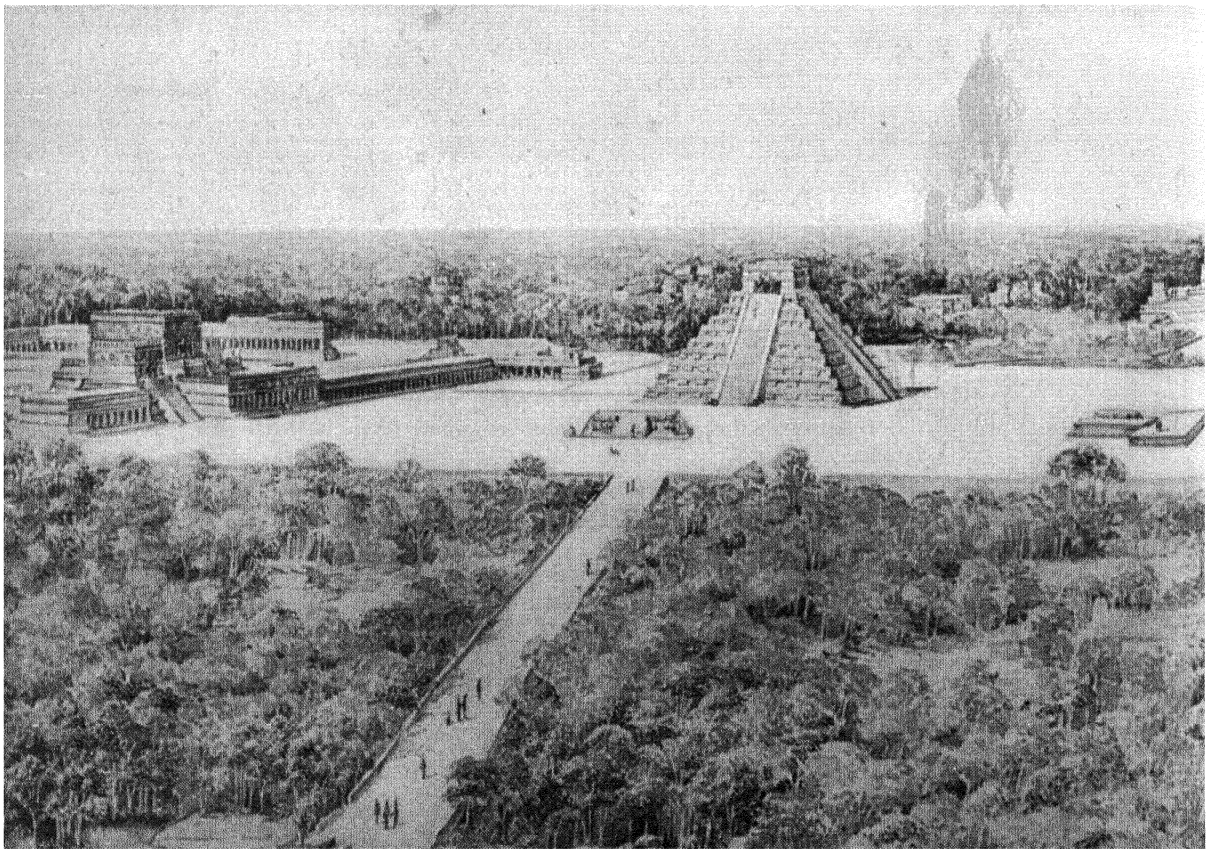
But when we study the Maya civilization of Central America, we find that conditions there were different from those in all the other cradles of civilization. In the first place, part of the Maya homeland was forested. Then, too, there were few surface streams to furnish water for irrigation. In fact, there was no need for irrigation in many places, because there was enough rainfall for crops without it. The sea was not far away, but as far as we know the Mayas did not go to sea or show any interest in it. This is most embarrassing. Just when we set up a good set of rules for early civilizations, along comes one that just doesn't fit.

The Mayas have puzzled people in many ways. It seems very strange that an early civilization could have developed in the midst of a tropical forest. In the picture below you can see some of the broad and neatly marked-off areas which the Mayas cleared of trees in order to build a city. How did these people manage to clear the land? How could they produce enough food to feed so many when farm land was so hard to clear? Why did people as clever as these never show any interest in the sea? These questions and many others have been worrying scientists for years. A lot of guessing has been going on. But nobody knows the answers for certain.

Apparently the people of the two Indian cradles had some contact with one another. At least they must have known other Indians who acted as go-betweens, for in both cradles the people knew about and used corn as a staple food. In fact, corn, though probably first cultivated in Central America, was eventually grown everywhere in the Americas where agriculture developed. It was

The highly civilized Maya Indians built stone buildings like those you see here.

Courtesy Carnegie Institution of Washington



grown in New England and in northern Argentina. And it was grown by the many tribes located between those widely separated areas. Corn was as widespread a crop in the New World as wheat was in the Old. Today, both crops are world-wide.

There were many other crops that were grown both in Central America and in Peru—such crops as sweet potatoes, manioc, peanuts, gourds, squash, several sorts of beans, tomatoes, pineapples, avocados, papayas, and cotton. But in spite of many similarities, the two Indian cradles were strikingly different. Let us look at them more closely.

The Maya civilization. The Mayas, as we have said, lived in a heavily forested region—a region of poor tropical soils. There they practiced a shifting type of cultivation like that used in many tropical forested areas today. Trees were girdled—that is, the bark was cut all the way around. Girdled trees died, and then they were burned to make clearings in the forest. The Mayas raised their crops for several years in these clearings until weeds threatened to take over the clearings or until the soil was worn out. Then the Indians moved to a new place, and another forest grew up in the old clearing.

Little natural ponds dotted the forest of the Maya country. These ponds, called sinkholes by geographers, are often found in regions with limestone rocks. And limestone is the common bedrock in the Mayan region. These ponds were a source of water in a land where surface streams were few.

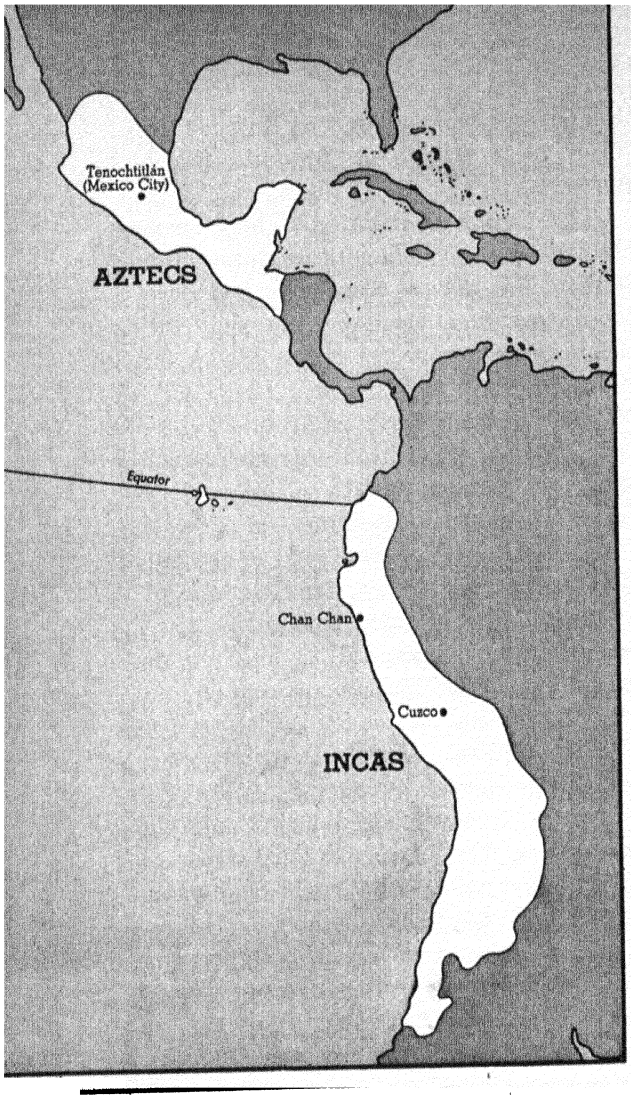
In addition to the crops grown in the fields, there were products that the Mayas could gather from the forest. Both cacao, from which we get chocolate, and rubber were forest products known to the Mayas. And there were several kinds of nut trees, too. The Indians were as poor in domesticated animals as they were rich in plant foods. They had only dogs and turkeys, both of which they ate occasionally but not commonly. The Mayas were not great meat eaters, and what meat they did eat was likely to be wild game from the near-by forest.

The Chimu civilization. The Peruvian Indians had a different agriculture from that of the Mayas. Since they had developed irrigation, they did not shift their fields every few years, as the Mayas did, but remained near them. Their soil—washed down and deposited by the streams—was good to begin with. Besides, it was continually being renewed by silt dropped by streams which came from the Andes.

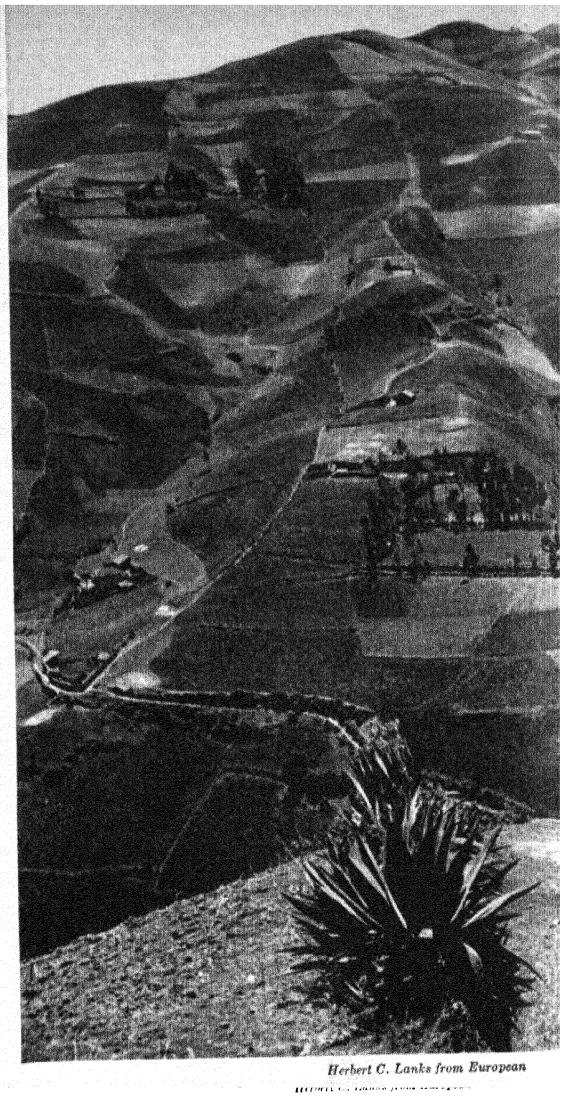
When all the available land of the lowland had been occupied, the Chimu people extended their irrigated land to the lower slopes of the Andes and far up into the mountain valleys. This process went on until the terraces on the mountainsides reached high elevations. Modern scientists have called this staircase farming.

As the Chimus moved higher into the mountains, they found additional resources. They found animals that could be domesticated, and they found the potato. The potato was native to the high Andean plateaus, but the Chimu people found that they could grow it near the coast, too. It became an important crop in Peru long ago. Today, it is grown widely in many parts of the world. Because the potato became so important in Ireland, it is now known to most of us as the Irish potato. It should, of course, be called the Peruvian or Andean potato. One thing is clear: the white potato has been worth much more to the world than all the gold of the Peruvian Indians.

The Chimu Indians were richer in domesticated animals than the Mayas were. There are several animals in the Andes that are related to camels and sheep. Like sheep, these animals have a wool that can be shorn and woven into cloth. Two of these animals, the llama and the alpaca, were domesticated by the Indians of Peru. The llama was a particularly useful animal, for it could be used as a beast of burden and it was also a source of wool and meat.



The Aztec and Inca empires extended this far.



Herbert C. Lanks from European

People still farm steep Andean slopes.

Two highland states. As we have seen, civilization in Peru did not remain on the seacoast. At a very early date, the coastal Indians moved inland and up into the Andes. But their capital city remained in the lowlands at Chan Chan, near the modern city of Trujillo. Finally a strong, warlike people from the Andean upland conquered the Chimus. They did it by cutting off the source of water from Chan Chan and by starving into submission the Indians living there.

A new civilization developed. And this time it was centered in the high Andes. The Indians continued to irrigate their land and to develop their great engineering ability. They terraced the mountainsides to make more land suitable for cultivation. They built bridges and extensive roads or footpaths to link the various parts of their country. They built great buildings of stone and strong forts. These mountain people remind one of the Romans in many ways, except that they had no written language, as the Romans had. Like the Romans, they were able to bring a large area under their control. But the Indian empire of the Andes did not border an inland sea, as the Roman Empire did.

This Indian empire was called the Inca Empire because its rulers were called Incas. You can see on the map on this page how

much territory it included. At one time this empire stretched more than two thousand miles in the Andes of western South America. It reached from Ecuador in the north to central Chile in the south. The empire extended to the coast, too, but its heart and capital was at Cuzco. Cuzco is located in a lovely valley far up in the Andes at ten thousand feet above sea level. It was an interesting city when the Spaniards first found it, and it still is.

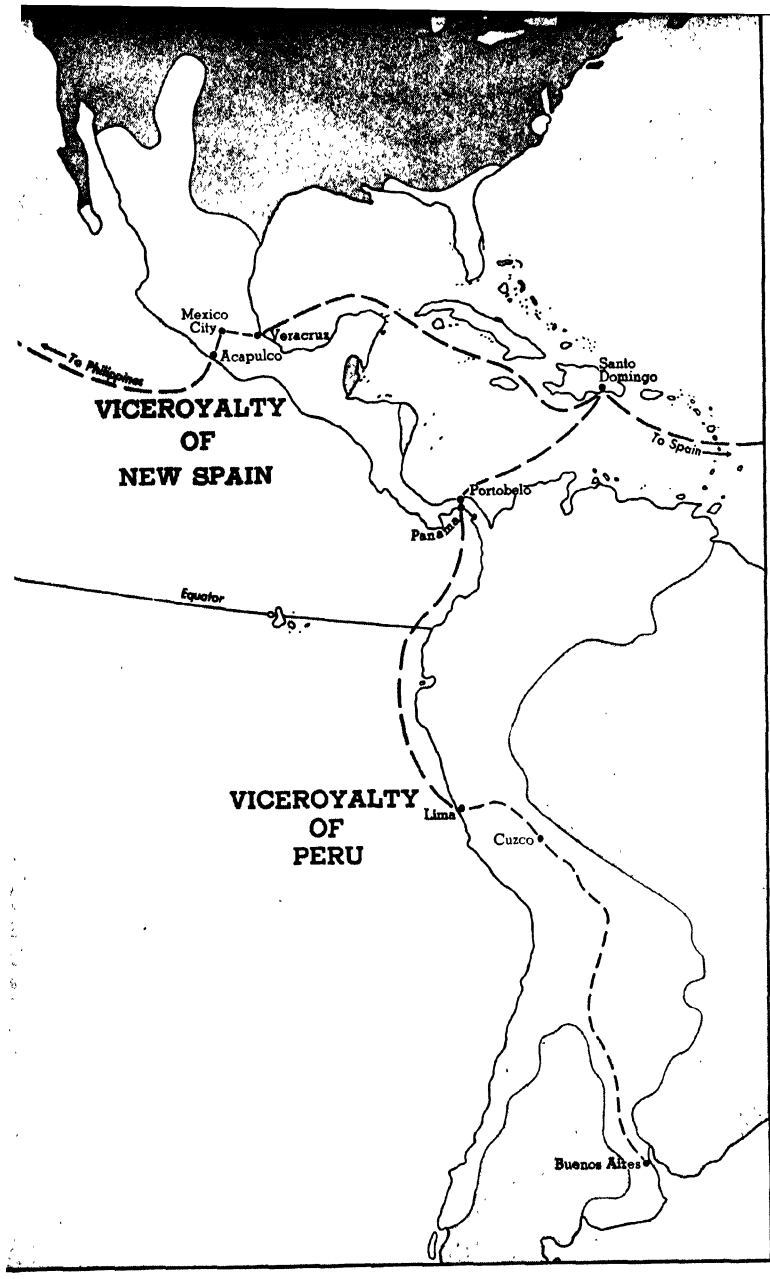
We have just seen how civilization in Peru left the lowland and became centered in the highland. So it was in Mexico. In time the Maya civilization declined and was replaced by the civilization of the Aztec Indians. It was centered in the Mexican plateau near Mexico City. These highland people, who were more warlike, were able to dominate the lowland Mayas. The ancient Mayan cities in Guatemala and Yucatan were abandoned. A new strong power was established in the high plateau, and this power was able to control much of southern Mexico and large parts of northern Central America.

When the Europeans came, these two Indian empires, the Aztec in Mexico and the Inca in Peru, were the best-developed areas in the whole of the New World. In those two areas, Mexico and Peru, Indian civilizations had reached their peaks. Nearly three-fourths of all the people of the Americas lived there. Indian cities with their accumulated wealth in gold and silver were built in these areas.

The Colonial Period

During the fifty years that followed the discovery of the New World the Spaniards were extremely busy. Their accomplishments are truly amazing. First they began to explore the shores of the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, and to take over the many islands from the weak Indians who lived on them. Then Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Panama and discovered the great ocean that lay beyond the Americas. Magellan and his men passed through the Strait of Magellan and by sailing completely around the world proved beyond doubt, if there was any doubt, that the world was round. Cortés conquered the Aztecs of Mexico and began to establish Spanish settlements among the Indians in that country. The Spaniards explored much of South America, traveling up the Paraná River to what are now Paraguay and Bolivia. One explorer, Orellana, crossed the Andes from Quito and followed the Amazon from its western sources to the Atlantic. Pizarro took Cuzco, the capital of the Inca Empire, and so secured the key to the whole of Andean South America. The Spaniards made hundreds of settlements, from Mexico in the north to Paraguay in the south, and carried great quantities of gold and silver back to Spain. All this happened before the British, French, and Dutch were ready to start on their own colonizing ventures in the New World.

Spanish colonial government. After the Spaniards conquered the Indians, they set up colonial governments. Governors were sent from Spain to rule the Indians. These governors were called viceroys—a name meaning "instead of the king." The viceroys represented the king of Spain and ruled the Indians in his place, and the governments they set up were called viceroyalties. New Spain, the northern viceroyalty, had its seat of government at Mexico City, once called Tenochtitlán. Tenochtitlán was the Aztec capital long before the Spaniards came to the New World. Lima was the seat of government for the viceroyalty of Peru. You can see both viceroyalties on the map on the next page. Lima, a new, Spanish-built capital, was nearer the coast than Cuzco, the Inca capital. The Spaniards, like the ancient Chimus, chose a coastal location for their capital. And Peru once more lived close to the sea. Even to this day, Peruvians of European descent live almost entirely in communities near the coast. Upland Peru is mostly Indian.



The dashed lines show trade routes in and from the viceroyalties.

The Spanish viceroy who lived in Mexico City governed a tremendous territory. He ruled most of present-day Mexico, the West Indies, most of Central America, and even the Philippine Islands, ten thousand miles to the west across the Pacific Ocean. To hold this vast territory together, a carefully worked-out system of trade was developed. A fleet of ships plied back and forth across the Pacific between Acapulco, Mexico, and Manila in the Philippines. At Acapulco goods intended for Spain were unloaded, then hauled up the rocky trail to Mexico City and carried down another difficult road to Veracruz, on the Gulf of Mexico. At this point things to be shipped from Mexico were added to those from the Philippines, and the whole lot was loaded onto ships that made the final trip to Spain.

Another elaborate trade system helped to hold Peru together. Goods from Lima were sent by ship up the west coast of South America to the city of Panama. They were then hauled across the Isthmus of Panama on mules and stored at Portobelo, a port not far from the Atlantic entrance of the present Panama Canal. At Portobelo, ships were loaded for the trip to Spain. But before they made the Atlantic crossing, they were joined at Santo Domingo or Habana by the ships from Mexico. The joint fleet was then convoyed by Spanish warships across the Atlantic in order to guard against British, French, and Dutch raiders.

Since all the trade of Spain with the New World and even with the Philippines was funneled through Middle America, ports grew up there. Two important ones developed on the Atlantic side of Middle America—Portobelo and Veracruz. Two similar ports developed on the Pacific side—Panama and Acapulco. Find all four ports on the map on this page.

The Isthmus of Panama was so vital to Peru commercially that it was tied to Peru politically. From an early date Panama was considered to be a part of the viceroyalty of Peru and a part of South America rather than of Middle America. The Isthmus had

a significance in the early colonial period that it has only recently regained—with the building of the Panama Canal. There was a time between the early colonial period and the present when the Isthmus of Panama was not very important.

As the Spaniards explored farther and settled more territory, the areas they governed expanded. Mexico City became the capital for settlements as far away as New Mexico and South Carolina. And Lima, capital city of the viceroyalty of Peru, spread its rule across the Andes to Paraguay and even to the little settlement at Buenos Aires.

Lima held tight control over all the viceroyalty of Peru, and goods going to any part of it had first to pass through Lima. This meant that supplies for Buenos Aires could not be sent directly to that port, as would seem to be natural. They had to go first to Portobelo, then to Lima, and finally across the Andes to Buenos Aires. So the ocean voyage had to be interrupted by land hauls in two places—in Panama and again in Peru. As you know, loading and unloading a boat is expensive. The price of goods in Buenos Aires was sky high, and no wonder.

Why did the Spaniards adopt such a clumsy and expensive system? There were two reasons. In the first place, Lima was the capital of Peru, and officials in the capital liked to have control of the trade to all parts of the viceroyalty. In this way they could keep in better touch with what went on. Furthermore, Buenos Aires was small. One or two ships could carry all that was needed there during the early days. And one or two ships were very likely to be waylaid by buccaneers. It was much safer to send the cargoes along with the convoys to Panama.

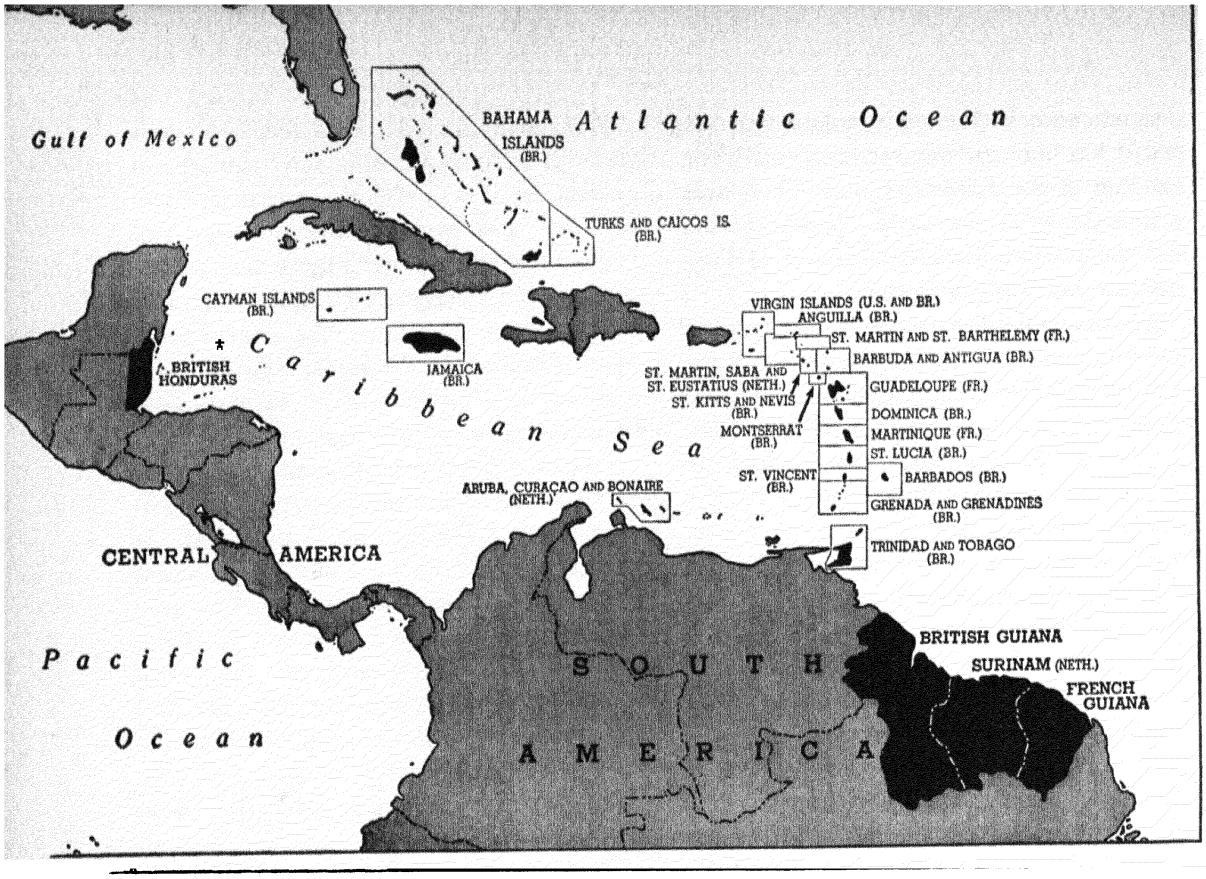
Because their system of trade with Spain was so expensive and so laborious, Buenos Aires merchants frequently bought supplies from smugglers. A feeling of dissatisfaction with the home country grew up that finally led to the independence of South American colonies. But that is another story.

Peru soon proved to be too large and varied a territory for even the Spaniards to govern. So it was divided into three viceroyalties. The new viceroyalties were still huge, but they were much more manageable than the old viceroyalty of Peru, which had covered more than half the continent of South America. In the north, New Granada was set up. Bogotá was its capital. New Granada included the area where the present countries of Venezuela, Colombia, Panama, and Ecuador exist. In the south, the viceroyalty of La Plata was established. It governed all the territory east of the Andes and south of Brazil. Present-day Argentina and Paraguay, and parts of modern Bolivia, were cut from this viceroyalty. Peru itself retained a strip of land along the Andes and the west coast of South America, reaching from present-day Peru to southern Chile.

Brazil, the Guianas, and the West Indies. We have seen how the Spanish holdings in South America happened to take the form they had in 1800. In the meantime, the viceroyalty of New Spain (Mexico) was expanding. You can see on the map on page 107 that New Spain grew until by 1800 it reached far north in western North America. The Spanish holdings extended eastward to the Mississippi River and beyond that river in a strip called Florida that lay along the Gulf coast. Not all of this territory was actually settled by Spain. But there were Spanish missions and settlers in Florida, California, Texas, and New Mexico. They were all governed from Mexico City, the capital of New Spain.

But to return to South America—what about Brazil and the Guianas? Let's see what had been going on there.

You recall how Spain and Portugal divided the world of discovery between them, completely ignoring the remaining countries of Europe. The dividing line, you remember, was drawn at 46° 30′ west longitude. This division gave Portugal a large share of eastern South America, a share named Brazil for brazilwood, the red dyewood that



Areas colored black are lands in the Caribbean region still associated with European nations.

is found there. As time went on, Brazil expanded westward. Some territory was added in exchange for the Philippines, which Spain wanted. Early settlers of São Paulo, which you can find on the map on pages 398–399, pushed westward into southwestern Brazil, extending Portugal's claim to land. But much of interior Brazil was added because it could be fairly easily reached by way of the Amazon River. The Brazilians kept pushing westward until nearly half the continent was theirs.

Though Spain and Portugal had an arrangement dividing the New World between them, England, France, and Holland never agreed to respect it. They had not been consulted, and they did not consider such an agreement binding upon them. Consequently, they made many attempts to take Brazil from the Portuguese. But each country was finally forced to settle for a piece of Guiana rather than a share of Brazil proper. You can see on the map above what part of Guiana each country holds today and what each part is called.

People thought once that the Amazon and Orinoco rivers joined their waters somewhere in the interior of South America, and that a large island existed between the joined rivers and the ocean. This island was called Guiana. No one knew just how large it was, and each of the three countries that tried to take Brazil from the Portuguese agreed to have a part of Guiana instead.

There is some truth in the idea of Guiana's being an island. It is bounded by water—by the ocean on one side and by rivers on the other. If you will look at the map on pages 398–399, you will see that the Rio Negro, a large tributary of the Amazon, is joined to the headwaters of the Orinoco River. But this junction is much farther inland and upstream than was supposed. Guiana is really a part of mainland South America, the only part that is still linked to European powers.

Guiana was considered to be a very attractive area in the early days. The Pilgrim Fathers are supposed to have considered settling there. Later on, the Dutch said they preferred a piece of Guiana to New York and the Hudson Valley. The Guianas have not turned out to be worth as much as was expected. But they are all that is left of the hopes of England, France, and the Netherlands of having empires in South America.

England, France, and the Netherlands fared much better, however, when it came to dividing the islands of the West Indies. Jamaica fell to the British, western Hispaniola fell to the French, and many of the smaller islands were parceled out to the British, French, and Dutch. Even Denmark held a few of them. As you know, many of the islands changed hands again and again. To this day the political map of the West Indies is very spotty.

There was a time when the islands of the West Indies were very important as hiding places for the British, French, and Dutch buccaneers. They lay in wait in some sheltered bay, living off the wild cattle to be found on most of the islands. Occasionally they would fare forth to pounce upon Spanish shipping. For more than two hundred years these buccaneers, later called pirates, made life miserable for the Spaniards.

Although the other nations, either by means of direct military attack or through the action of the buccaneers, kept up a constant sniping at Spain's possessions, still a few islands remained. Cuba, the largest of the West Indian islands, remained in Spanish hands until 1898. So did Puerto Rico. The story of how Spain finally lost these islands is so much a part of United States history that it is no doubt an old story to you. There is no need to retell it here.

An Independent New World

The term Latin America today refers to the countries of the Americas that are south of our border– that reach from Mexico south to the tip of South America. You have just read a description of Latin America as it was in 1800. Right after 1800 the immense colonial empires of Latin America suddenly began to shrink in size and to break away from Europe. The century was hardly well started before Spain's colonies began to rebel. Revolutions flared from Mexico in the north to Argentina and Chile in the south. And when they were over, not one bit of territory on the mainland of either North or South America belonged to Spain.

Portugal's colony, Brazil, became independent in a different way. In Europe, the powerful Napoleon Bonaparte had taken control of Spain. When he threatened to control Portugal, too, the Portuguese royal family decided to move to Brazil. For ten or fifteen years the Portuguese Empire was governed from Rio de Janeiro. When things in Europe had quieted down, the Portuguese king moved back to Portugal, but Brazil remained separate from Portugal. A Brazilian kingdom was set up with the son of the Portuguese king as its monarch, and

The big wind.

From Dorf: Visualized American History; *Orford Book Co.*



Brazil declared its independence. In this way Brazil, like the Spanish colonies, cast off its European political ties. Finally, toward the end of the nineteenth century, Brazil changed its form of government from a monarchy to a republic. So Brazil joined the family of independent republican nations of the New World.

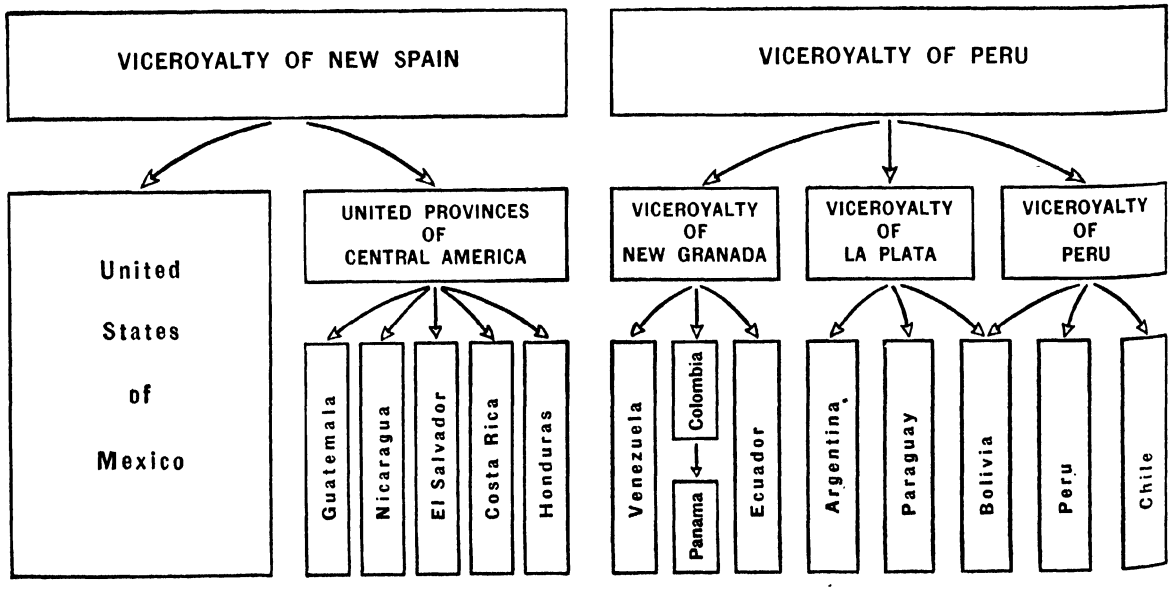
Shaping the map of modern Latin America. There was a great difference in what happened to Spain's colonies and to Portugal's. Brazil remained a single country. Spain's colonies broke up into small units. First the two large viceroyalties broke up into four smaller viceroyalties, and then the smaller viceroyalties separated into still smaller units. In Middle America, for instance, New Spain promptly divided into the United States of Mexico and the United Provinces of Central America. Later, the United Provinces in turn divided into five separate republics—Guatemala, Nicaragua, Salvador, Costa Rica, and Honduras. Six countries appeared where once there had been only the one viceroyalty called New Spain. Spain continued to hold Cuba and Puerto Rico until the end of the nineteenth century.

In Spanish South America the situation was much the same. New Granada, the northern viceroyalty formed from Peru, was renamed Greater Colombia. But it lasted only a short time and finally split into Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador. Panama remained a part of Colombia until 1903, when with the aid of the United States it broke away and became a separate country. In similar fashion the viceroyalty of La Plata broke up into three countries—Argentina, Bolivia, and Paraguay. And the viceroyalty of Peru split into two countries, Peru and Chile. Some of its land went to Bolivia. So, in place of three colonial viceroyalties in South America, nine independent countries appeared.

Perhaps all this will be clearer if you look at the diagram below. In this diagram you can see how present-day countries of Latin America are divisions of larger units that existed in the past.

Two countries, Ecuador and Bolivia, had the misfortune to be alternately a part of first one viceroyalty and then another. Ecuador, or Quito as it was called in colonial days, was governed alternately from Lima and Bogotá. Consequently, the people

This is the family tree of modern Latin American countries. By following the direction of the arrows, you can see how the viceroyalties of New Spain and Peru were divided into five smaller sections, and how four of them were then divided into still smaller ones.



of Ecuador had no great love for either of their distant rulers, and when the opportunity came, set up a separate country of their own. Bolivia was known as Charcas in its colonial days. Charcas was ruled alternately by Peru and by the viceroyalty of La Plata. After the wars for independence a separate country was formed, and Charcas became Bolivia. It was named for Bolivar, who was one of the outstanding heroes of the revolution.

By this time somebody may have noticed that no mention has been made of Uruguay. Uruguay is a special case. From early times both Spain and Portugal had claimed the northeastern shore of the Plata estuary across from Buenos Aires. Forts were built and from time to time destroyed by each of the powers. No clear-cut decision as to the ownership of the area had ever been reached. So when Argentina and Brazil became independent nations, they continued Spain's and Portugal's dispute over this territory. The argument grew hot and heavy, but the matter was finally settled by creating a separate country that was called Uruguay. Uruguay, the smallest country in South America, is a buffer state between two larger powers, just as Belgium is in Europe.

The boundaries between nations in South America have not remained fixed any more than have those of Europe. Ecuador has lost territory to its neighbors—Colombia, Peru, and Brazil. Bolivia used to extend to the Pacific coast, but was forced to give up its sea frontage to Chile. So it went. The South American countries jostled each other for space, the larger or stronger ones like Brazil, Argentina, and Chile expanding at the expense of their smaller neighbors. Boundary disputes have been numerous in South America. There have been several wars fought because of them.

While the South American republics were settling their boundary problems, Mexico, north of them, was having a difficult time of its own. The new republic of Mexico was only a dozen years old when a large piece called Texas broke away from the government at Mexico City to set itself up as a separate country. When Texas became a part of the United States, there was war between Mexico and its neighbor to the north, and Mexico lost even more of its territory. California, Utah, Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas and parts of Oklahoma, Kansas, and Colorado were formed from the territory formerly a part of Mexico. When the United States annexed more than half of Mexico's territory, it forfeited much good will in Latin America.

What went on in the Caribbean. Even in the Caribbean area there were considerable changes from time to time during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. As Spain became less important as a colonial power, the Caribbean area ceased to be as significant to the world as it had been. Spanish treasure ships no longer sailed from Portobelo and from Veracruz. Piracy was no longer encouraged by the maritime nations of Europe. They got together to put an end to it, and it was gradually stamped out. But most important of all, hard times came to the sugar industry.

Two things happened to the sugar industry. First, beet sugar began to be able to compete with cane sugar, particularly when it was protected by a sugar tariff. Sugar beets were a new source of sugar. They were developed in Europe during the Napoleonic Wars so that people could have sugar in spite of the blockade by the British fleet. All during the nineteenth century beet sugar was sold more and more in the European sugar market. Finally, cane sugar could no longer make a profit.

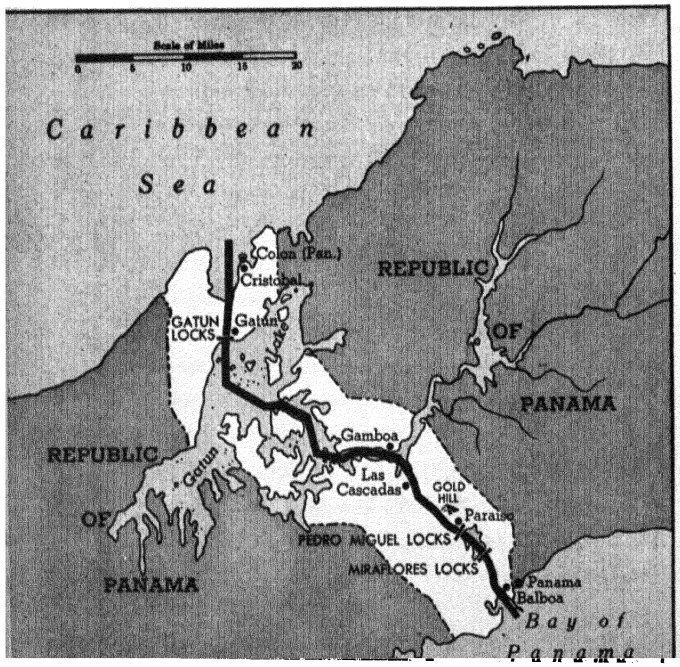
The second thing to happen was that the nations of the world finally outlawed slavery. One after another the European powers and the United States and other countries of the New World freed their slaves. And when they did so, the old slave plantation system was doomed. The Caribbean became a sort of back eddy of the world's busiest ocean. It was a charming place, loaded with historical

atmosphere; but it was of very little importance. A few islands changed hands from time to time. In 1898 Spain was forced out of the Caribbean area and out of the New World altogether. The map on page 276 shows you the land in the Caribbean area still owned by European countries.

After a century or so of inactivity, new life came to the Caribbean. A new sugar industry developed in Cuba that was far more efficient than the old one. In the eastern lowlands of Central America the banana industry was established. It turned out to be a second industry to depend upon markets in the United States. It was established in considerable part by United States money, too.

But the thing that had the most far-reaching effect on the Caribbean was the plan to build a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. Just as in the case of the Suez Canal, the idea was not entirely new. A French company actually began work on a canal, but finally gave up the idea. The United States then took over. In 1914 the canal was completed, and the many islands of the Caribbean took on added importance because they guarded the entrance to the canal. The map on this page shows the canal zone in detail.

Which entrance to the Panama Canal lies farther east—the Atlantic or the Pacific?

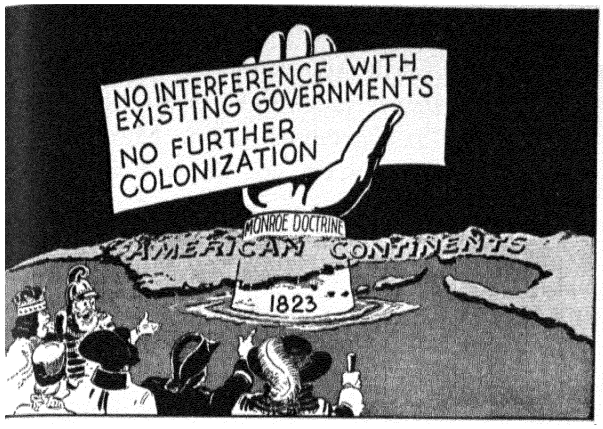


So vital is the Panama Canal to the United States that it cannot afford to have an enemy nation anywhere in the Caribbean area. Today, those islands of the Caribbean that are not independent are divided among the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands. These nations have been friendly powers for more than a century. So although the Caribbean area is extremely strategic, there has been no fighting there within recent times. The United States is by far the strongest power in the Caribbean and is also much the most interested power.

The Monroe Doctrine. During the last days of the revolutions in Spanish America, the United States took a step that has had far-reaching effects. President Monroe of the United States delivered a message to Congress in which he stated the policy the United States would carry out concerning Latin America and the rest of the New World. Briefly, what he wanted to do was to guarantee protection to the countries of the Americas. There was to be no further colonizing by European powers in the New World. There were to be no attempts made to regain the colonies that had become independent.

Although this statement was made by a president of the United States, it could not have meant much without the backing of Great Britain. It was directed mainly against a group of nations in Europe called the Holy Alliance—Prussia, Russia, Austria, and France—that was planning to back Spain in an attempt to regain its colonies.

At first, the young Latin American republics were delighted with the Monroe Doctrine. Their independence was practically guaranteed by the United States and Great Britain. And the British fleet was powerful backing, indeed, in those days. The smiles that the Latin Americans turned toward these two friendly powers were broad and beaming. Ten years later Great



From Dorf: Visualized American History; *Oxford Book Co.*

No trespassing!

Britain took the Falkland Islands away from Argentina, and the United States did nothing about it. At this point, the smiles on the faces of the Latin Americans began to fade.

A few years later the United States annexed half the land that had belonged to Mexico. Then the smiles disappeared altogether. The United States and Great Britain began to interfere in Central American affairs. It seemed to the Latin Americans that the Monroe Doctrine saved them from the continental powers of Europe with the sole purpose of allowing the United States and Great Britain to gobble them up a piece at a time. The United States has had a hard time convincing the Latin American countries that it is really a friend after all. The Pan American Union has been a step toward better understanding, and so has President Franklin Roosevelt's Good Neighbor policy. Of these we shall hear more later.

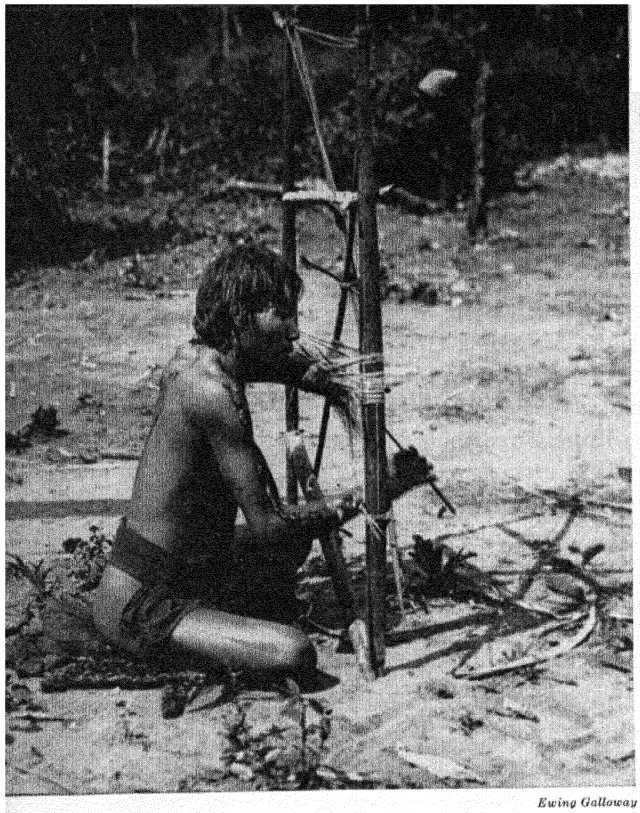
Latin America in the Modern World

Latin America today is full of contrasts. The climates there include most of the varieties known to geographers, from wet tropical lowlands to tundras. There are large plains and great mountain ranges. There are areas of small hills and little flood plains. The twenty independent countries of Latin America include large ones like Brazil and small ones like Haiti. Weeks of strenuous travel are required to reach some areas. Other parts lie on the world's most traveled routes.

The people themselves and their activities show further contrasts. Each of the three major races is well represented in Latin America, as you can see on the map on pages 374–375. The Mongoloids are represented by the Indians, the original Americans. They are especially numerous in the long mountain belt stretching from Chile to Mexico, where so many of the Indians lived before the Europeans came to Latin America. The Caucasoids are represented by the people of European descent—Spaniards, Portuguese, English, Germans, French, Italians, Dutch, and many others. They are scattered all through Latin America, but are found mainly in southern South America in southern Brazil, Uruguay, Argentina, and parts of Chile. The Negroids are also well represented. Slavery was introduced to Latin America early in the colonial period, and the Negroid people became very numerous, particularly in the Caribbean lowland areas and in northern and coastal Brazil.

From the beginning of the colonial period, 450 years ago, racial mixture took place in Latin America. Today in many Latin American countries, blended people of two or more races are more numerous than those of any single race. In both Chile and Mexico more than half the people are mestizos, which means that they are people of mixed American Indian and European ancestry. This is true of at least half a dozen other countries of Latin America—Honduras, Panama, Salvador, Nicaragua, Venezuela, and Paraguay.

People in the United States have said in the past that their country is a melting pot where various peoples of the world can become Americans. But the melting-pot idea has been carried even farther in Latin America than in the United States. Racial tolerance is greater there than in the United States. Indeed, racial mixture has gone so



Ewing Galloway

far in many Latin American countries that it is very difficult to collect census figures about racial backgrounds there. Many of the people actually do not know whether they have a mixed racial ancestry or not.

Latin America is a land of contrasts in still other ways. There are great modern cities like Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro that are centers of wealth. These cities are fine examples of the western civilization that developed in Europe and was transplanted to the New World. On the other hand, there are many areas where Indians live much as they did before Columbus discovered the New World. There are areas that have rapidly increasing populations, expanding industries, and high hopes for the future. Parts of Brazil, Argentina, and Chile are examples of areas like this. These areas seem young and vigorous. But there are other overpopulated areas that seem to be old and lacking in vigor. Several Caribbean

Above: Western civilization means nothing to some South Americans. Below: To others it means much.

Acme



islands fall into this class. So far the islanders have found no answer to their many problems. But that doesn't mean that an answer doesn't exist.

There are areas in Latin America where food is produced in abundance. There are the meat, wheat, and corn of Argentina; the coffee, meat, and chocolate of Brazil; the sugar of Cuba; the bananas and coffee of Central America. These parts of Latin America are lands of abundance—lands that can be relied upon to help feed Europe in times of stress. On the other hand, there are some countries of Latin America that cannot feed themselves, and in those countries foods make up a large part of the imports. Many islands of the Caribbean, for example, have so many people that they cannot possibly produce the food they need. This is particularly surprising in areas that have climates that permit year-round growing of crops. Latin America is a land that is rich and poor, new and old—a land of feast and famine. This land of contrasts is also a land of strong and weak political units.

The countries of Latin America. There are twenty countries in the Latin American family of nations. They range in size from Brazil, larger than the United States, to Haiti, smaller than Belgium. Three hundred countries the size of Haiti could be fitted into Brazil's vast area. Even Argentina, the second largest country of Latin America, could be fitted into Brazil three times and still leave room enough for Cuba or the state of Pennsylvania.

Brazil is not only the largest Latin American country, but it also has the largest population of the Latin American countries. Still the great size of Brazil leaves plenty of room for many more Brazilians in the future. Brazil is actually one of the most thinly settled countries of Latin America. It has only a third as many people as the United States. But Brazil's population has doubled and doubled again during the last fifty years. At that rate Brazil might in the future become one of the most populous countries of the world. It is already one of the largest.

Three countries of South America and one country in Middle America stand out above the others in world importance. They are Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, commonly called the ABC countries of South America, and Mexico, southern neighbor of the United States. Each of these countries has developed at least a part of its area to a high degree. Mexico and Chile are much more Indian than the other two. Their people mix European ideas with Indian ideas.

In Brazil there is a blend of several races. There are Caucasoids, Indians who are Mongoloids, and Negroids; and there are many people who are mixtures of two or more races. But due to the fact that neither the Indians nor the Negroes of Brazil had an advanced culture to begin with, Brazil has a European-style civilization. Its language and customs are Portuguese.

Few Negroes were taken to Argentina in the early days of that country because sugar was not an important crop in the parts that were first settled. Although times have changed and sugar is now raised there, Negroes are still not found in Argentina in large numbers.

Latin America's future. What of the future for Latin America? It is hard to prophesy. Some people feel that the next century will bring a golden age to Latin America. Others think that Latin America is doomed, that the cream has already been removed from the Latin American milk. They say that the natural resources of Latin America have been wasted by centuries of ignorance and misuse. Let us look at the facts and see whether we can arrive at conclusions that are not so contradictory.

Latin America has always had and probably will continue to have its share of the world's mineral wealth. The area is well supplied with metals—as you can see on the map on page 284. Many of them are important metals, necessary to the world's industrial development. Both Brazil and



The chief mineral resources of Latin America. Symbols show location of resources, not quantity.

Venezuela, for instance, have great iron-ore resources. Bolivia has tin, tungsten, and antimony. The Guianas have bauxite, the ore from which aluminum is made. Chile and Peru have copper. Mexico has lead and zinc.

Petroleum has been found in several of the Latin American countries, and there are good prospects for further finds. Coal, it is true, is missing in most countries. There are no large supplies anywhere in Latin America. This lack of coal has made it hard to develop a large iron and steel industry. But who knows how long the presence or lack of coal will be as important as it is today? Perhaps atomic energy will change things. A number of the Latin American countries have good water-power resources. The Latin American countries may not be overwhelmingly strong in minerals, but they cannot be said to be weak.

What of the food resources? Can Latin America expect to feed a population that is rapidly increasing in some areas? Soil-erosion experts claim that bad agricultural practices are rapidly destroying some of the best agricultural land of Latin America. According to them, starvation on a large scale is just around the corner. What are these bad agricultural habits, and what can be done about them? One of the bad practices is overgrazing. Too many animals are raised on the grasslands, and so the natural pastures are being destroyed. If the land slopes, erosion begins and the soil is carried away. The very same problem occurs in the United States. In fact, it is a problem to be faced in many parts of the world.

Another bad farming habit people in Latin America have is planting crops on hillsides that are too steep. Often no attention has been given to such ideas as terracing and contour plowing. In contour plowing the rows are made to go around the hillsides rather than up and down. When hillsides are plowed like that, water cannot run down the slopes so rapidly and so can't carry away so much of the soil. In Latin America there is need, too, to restore the fertility of the soil by adding mineral fertilizers and manures. But Latin America seems to be no worse off than other areas in these matters. All the world must watch its natural resources, or it will starve.

It is true, of course, that large parts of Latin America are either too dry or too mountainous to be good food producers. From Mexico in the north to Chile in the south there is a continuous belt of rugged land. This belt includes many small productive areas, but no large ones. Then, too, many parts of eastern Brazil are rugged.

But eastern South America has extensive plains that are or could become very productive. Latin America is lucky as compared with most other large areas because it has little desert land. The dry areas of Latin America are usually small, and many of them can be irrigated readily.

Sometimes people look at the map of South America and point out the vast, almost empty area of the Amazon Basin. Here is a huge area, they say, almost untouched as yet. Surely it could feed millions and millions of persons. As proof, they point to Java to show what can be done with the wet tropics. Java is an island about half the size of Ecuador, yet it supports as many persons as there are in all Brazil. The Amazon Basin is at least thirty times as large an area as Java. Could it support thirty times as many people, or one and a half billion? Probably not. For one thing, the soil of the Amazon Basin is remarkably poor, except where it is renewed annually by floods. It is not similar to Java's rich volcanic soil. It could not produce enough food to feed so many people.

Latin American politics. Like many other parts of the world, Latin America has trouble with its politics. A dictator is likely to gain control of a country where a few privileged persons are very wealthy and most of the people are extremely poor. Dictators are nearly always narrow-minded and corrupt. The only way to get rid of them is by revolution. Revolutions have been so common in Latin America that it may surprise you to learn that some of the countries do have good, stable, democratic governments.

We have already spoken about the racial tolerance in Latin America. Still, the Indian and mestizo countries of the Andes and Central America have been ruled by a white minority for centuries. Fortunately, there are signs in those countries that there is going to be a better deal for the Indians, whose ancestors owned the land in the first place.

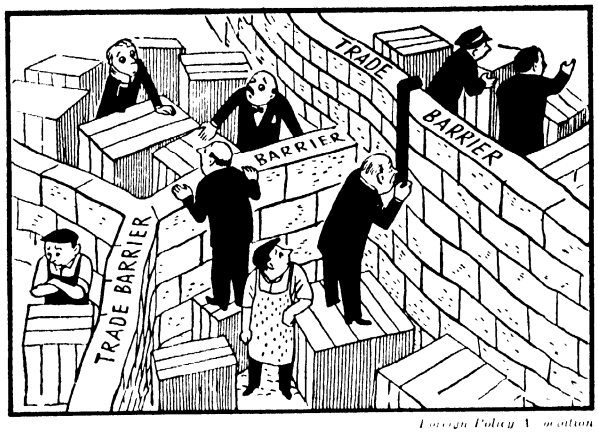


Reg Manning. Courtesy McNaught Syndicate, Inc.

He's seen them blow their tops.

Part of the difficulties of Latin American countries come from outside rather than from inside affairs. There are, for example, twenty Latin American republics surrounded by twenty sets of tariff walls. That means that trade cannot flow freely between those countries, but is subject to taxes. These taxes are planned to protect home industries of one kind or another. In most Latin American countries manufacturing is not well developed. The infant industries there require protection from the large manufacturers of the United States and Europe. But twenty sets of tariff walls hamper trade between the Latin American countries. Each country tries to build up its infant industries, but there is only a small home market to support the industries. If there were fewer countries in Latin America and fewer tariff walls, there would be larger markets for Latin American goods.

We might make this matter of tariffs a little clearer by comparing Latin America with the United States. There are just about as many Latin Americans as there are



Blocking the traffic.

people in the United States. But the people of Latin America can't trade back and forth with each other as easily as the people of the United States can. Everywhere a Latin American looks, he sees a tariff wall. Much the same situation can be found in Europe, and you know it makes trouble there, too.

The division of land into separate countries has probably been carried too far in Latin America. People who know the history of Europe find it easy to understand how small countries developed there. But why should Latin America have divided into small countries? Latin American political units were larger all through the colonial period than they are now. The division of Latin America into small units has come about since the wars for independence. It indicates weakness on the part of the Latin American governments, rather than tradition. There has been some talk of reuniting groups of Latin American countries, particularly those of Central America. But so far nothing has come of the idea.

Pan Americanism. About fifty years ago a great plan was unfolded. It was a plan that was intended to do wonderful things for the Western Hemisphere. All of the countries of the New World were invited to form a league known as the Pan American Union. A more recent name for this league is the Organization of the American States. People believed that the twenty-one republics of the Western Hemisphere have common problems and interests. Having common problems and interests would make it wise for them to act together. Canada, too, was asked to join, but did not do so because Canada was already a member of the Commonwealth of Nations. Countries, like people, cannot belong to too many organizations at once, especially if the organizations have interests or aims that might conflict with each other.

The twenty Latin American countries and the United States joined the Pan American Union. But getting the countries to pull together has been a more difficult matter than getting them merely to join. The Latin American countries have long been suspicious of the United States the "colossus of the north," as they often call it. Since the United States is much the strongest country in the Organization of the American States, it is only natural that the other countries should have such a feeling. They fear that the United States—just because it is big—will try to dominate the whole group. The United States has been trying to convince the others that it has only the best intentions and will not throw its weight about. This Good Neighbor policy, as President Roosevelt called it, has been a step in the right direction.

One great difficulty with the Pan American Union idea is that the Western Hemisphere is not really a unit. The city of New York is nearer to almost any city in Europe than it is to the two largest cities of Latin America. Rio de Janeiro is five thousand miles and Buenos Aires six thousand miles from New York by sea. They are slightly nearer New York by air. Moscow is nearer to New York than Rio de Janeiro is. On the other hand, the two large Latin American cities are almost as close to Europe as they are to New York. They have no reason to feel that they belong to the same part of the world as New York, except that all belong to countries that revolted against Europe. The Western Hemisphere is not a true hemisphere. It is long and narrow. Many

parts of it are nearer to other world areas than they are to each other.

Some people think the chief purpose of the Organization of the American States is to stimulate trade. Those people are mostly United States businessmen who think it would be nice if they could sell more United States manufactured goods to the Latin Americans. Unfortunately, unless the Latin Americans can sell their own surpluses to someone, they cannot buy North American manufactures. In the case of Brazil, the exchange works well. The United States buys coffee and sells manufactured goods. But in the case of Argentina, there is no satisfactory basis for exchange. Argentina has meat and wheat and corn for export. These are things that the United States does not need—things that the American farmer does not want to see compete with his own products. Argentina finds a better market for its exports in Great Britain than it does in the United States. It is therefore necessary that Argentina buy many manufactured products in Great Britain, if trade is to continue. The Organization of the American States cannot change these basic facts.

Sacks of Brazil coffee being shipped out pay for United States motors being shipped in.

Ewing Galloway



But the Organization of the American States is a very useful organization. It gives the countries of the Western Hemisphere a good chance to get together and thresh out their difficulties. The Organization, or OAS, has improved relations between the Latin American countries and the United States. It has given the countries of the New World a feeling that they can and will pull together for their common good. The Organization of the American States serves a useful purpose as long as people don't expect the impossible. It cannot unify all of the countries of the New World into one large superstate.

Latin America in the Air Age. Until very recently most of Latin America has had a poorly developed overland transportation system. The islands and coastal areas could, of course, be approached from the sea. Many areas have been reached by river boats. But most inland areas, away from the great rivers, have been difficult to reach. Even today, 450 years after settlement first began, South America's population is largely distributed around the edges of the big continent. This is chiefly because it is difficult to reach the interior. During the last century, the building of railroads, which did so much to unite various parts of the United States, was scarcely begun in Latin America. The wide use of the automobile during the last fifty years has brought to the countries of Latin America only a skeleton of highways.

What of the Air Age? The Air Age has just begun, but already the effects upon Latin America have been very great. The tremendous three-mile-high wall of the Andes can now be crossed with relative ease by the airplane. Remote spots in the Amazon Basin can be reached in a matter of hours rather than weeks. Population centers on high plateaus, like Bogotá and Medellín, need no longer be cut off from the outside world by tropical lowlands. The airplane has linked



Ewing Galloway

Airplanes fly in and move freight and people from places where roads don't go.

Latin America together and tied it to the outside world.

In many parts of Latin America the change from slow and difficult travel by pack train or dugout canoe to fast and easy travel by air has been sudden. The in-between steps were skipped altogether. In the United States, the airways link cities already in existence and compete with an already well-established rail and highway system. But much of Latin America has no rail and highway network. In Latin America new airport cities may develop where no cities existed before. These may have no outside links except by air. It will be interesting to see what happens.

CANADA—LARGEST AMERICAN COUNTRY

If you will look at North America on the map on pages 402–403, you will see that the continent is divided roughly into three relief areas. There is a wide belt of western mountains and plateaus stretching from Alaska to southern Mexico. It makes up about a third of the continent. There is another lower belt of highlands in the east, and in between the two upland belts lies a great lowland plain. If you look more closely at the lowland plain, you can see that two good-sized bodies of water cover large parts of it. They seem to bite big chunks out of either end. In the north is

Hudson Bay. The streams that drain the northern part of the plain empty into it. In the south the Gulf of Mexico receives the streams that drain the southern part of the plain.

In the midst of the great central lowland of North America lies a group of lakes—the Great Lakes. Which way do these lakes drain? Tributaries of the Mississippi reach headward to within ten miles of Lake Michigan, but they fail to reach the lakes. Likewise, tributaries of the Nelson River, in Canada, reach to within twenty-five miles of Lake Superior. But the Great Lakes, as you know, do not drain either to Hudson Bay or to the Gulf of Mexico. They drain to the east. And that fact has been very important both to the United States and to Canada.

The St. Lawrence River, which carries the water of the Great Lakes eastward to the Atlantic, is the most strategic river of North America. Its deep, navigable estuary reaches Montreal, nearly a thousand miles from the open Atlantic. And the drainage basin of the St. Lawrence is made up of a number of large lakes that reach far into the heart of the continent. The St. Lawrence is doubly important, for its waters help to make a great inland empire surrounding the Great Lakes. It also furnishes an eastern outlet for that empire. Facing the east is important, because it was from Europe that the immigrants came who settled North America. And Europe was the area that developed the greatest foreign trade with eastern North America.

The St. Lawrence Valley was a ready-made gateway by which Europeans could enter North America. Its drainage basin should normally have been the heart of a nation. But politics has upset nature's plan. Instead of one nation centered in the St. Lawrence drainage basin, there are two that are interested in it. The waters of the Great Lakes, which look as if they were meant to unite a great industrial region, are instead split by an international boundary. On the map on pages 394–395 trace the international boundary through the Great Lakes and down the St. Lawrence River. The job of dividing this great basin has been very thorough, but matters could be worse. Suppose the two powers that share the St. Lawrence Valley were unfriendly. Life in that part of the world would then be dangerous as well as inconvenient.

How did this state of affairs come about? It all goes back to the colonial ambitions of the maritime powers of Europe. Early in the seventeenth century France, England, and Holland turned their attentions to North America. They did so because the Portuguese and the Spaniards were already well established in South and Middle America. Of those three north-European powers, France held the best location in North America, for the French had the mouth of the St. Lawrence. They built a fort at Quebec, where there were high bluffs that made it easy to prevent enemy ships from proceeding up the St. Lawrence. The French followed the river inland to the Great Lakes and across low portages to the Mississippi River. They built forts and trading posts at strategic spots all the way from Quebec to New Orleans.

The Dutch held the second-best location on the North American continent, for they had the Hudson Valley. The Hudson Valley makes a second gateway to the Great Lakes region, but in the early days this gateway was locked. In the Mohawk Valley were located the towns and villages of the powerful Iroquois Indians. These Indians were the best organized of all the Indians of eastern North America. As you know, the Iroquois were friendly with the British and Dutch. But they were still not willing to allow European settlers to live in the Mohawk Valley or even to pass through it in order to settle farther west. So the Hudson River–Mohawk gateway remained locked until the end of the eighteenth century. The Iroquois Indians were not overcome until the time of the American Revolution.

At first the English did not hold any of the really strategic areas of North America. They held Hudson Bay and Newfoundland, and they had settled several spots along the Atlantic coast of what is now the United States. Between New England and Maryland was a stretch of land which the Dutch and the Swedes fought over. The Dutch defeated the Swedes, but were in turn conquered by the English. So the Middle Atlantic colonies of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware became a part of the English holdings. A continuous belt of English colonies reached from New England to Georgia.

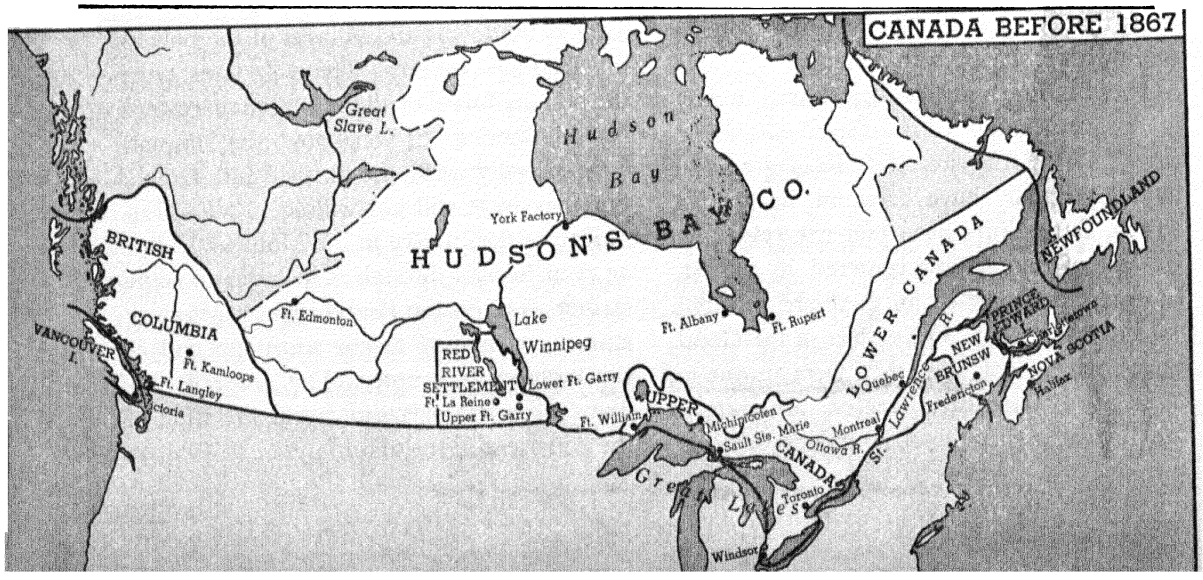
Then the rivalry for eastern North America turned into a struggle between England and France. The struggle started, you may remember, just before the eighteenth century. It was carried on in many parts of the world, but most of the fighting took place in Europe. It is what happened in North America, however, that interests us at this point. Early in the struggle the British acquired the French colony of Acadia and renamed it Nova Scotia. Finally, in 1759 the British took the key city of Quebec, and shortly France had to give up all of its part of eastern North America.

This would seem to have been a chance for the British to organize a strong overseas possession centered in the St. Lawrence waterway. But they did not. The reason was that the revolt of the American colonies to the south interfered. They broke away from England, and the Great Lakes became the dividing line between the United States and the British holdings to the north. The men who chose the Great Lakes to mark the boundary between the two areas probably thought that they had done well. They had picked something definite on the map. There could be no question as to the location of the Great Lakes.

Canada Becomes a Nation

After the American Revolution the northern part of North America remained British, but there was little unity among the British holdings. The British part of the St. Lawrence Valley was divided into two colonies, called Lower and Upper Canada. Lower Canada, so named because it was lower in elevation than Upper Canada, was made up of the French-speaking settlements along the St. Lawrence from Montreal to Gaspé. Upper Canada was a newer, British-speaking colony. It was settled partly by people who remained loyal to the British Empire during the American Revolution. When their homes and lands were seized by the successful revolutionists, the British Loyalists found new homes in Canada. In that way they helped to make Canada British.

When Canada was a collection of colonies.

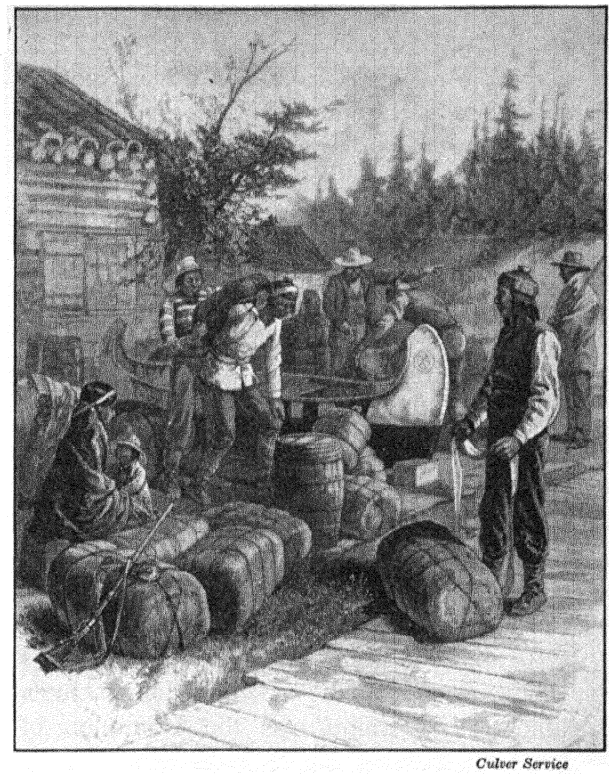


Other British colonies in Canada. Look at the map of the British colonies in Canada, which you see on the opposite page. You will notice that there were four separate British colonies in far-eastern Canada near the mouth of the St. Lawrence. Newfoundland was the first British colony established in the land that is now Canada. Although Newfoundland was originally just a large island in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, it now includes Labrador to the north.

Nova Scotia was a second British colony in the east. It was an area that had been settled by France and then lost to England in 1713. Originally it included all of the land from Maine eastward to Cape Breton Island. But after the American Revolution, Nova Scotia was split into two colonies. Part of it was called New Brunswick. New Brunswick was a Loyalist colony set up for Loyalists who had lost their homes in the American colonies.

The fourth of the far-eastern colonies was called Prince Edward Island. Like Newfoundland, it was located on an island. Find these four far-eastern colonies on the map on page 290. Compare them with the provinces of the same name on the map on pages 410-411. Prince Edward Island was first settled in 1803, when Lord Selkirk established eight hundred settlers there. The settlers were mostly from Scotland.

In addition to the four eastern colonies and the two called Upper and Lower Canada, there were three western colonies. One was located in the Fraser Valley and was called British Columbia. Another was located on Vancouver Island, and Victoria was its center. As we shall see, the colony on Vancouver Island eventually joined British Columbia. Between the far-western colonies and Upper Canada—now Ontario—lay a second colony established by Lord Selkirk. It lay in the Red River Valley, northwest of Minnesota, in a part of the present province of Manitoba. At first, it was, perhaps, the most out-of-the-way colony in North America.



Culver Service

Furs drew traders across Canada.

North and west of Upper and Lower Canada lay the domain of the Hudson's Bay Company. The fur company's lands included all of the area to the west not occupied by the western colonies. The Hudson's Bay Company had been established in 1670. It had absorbed the territories of the other fur companies, French and British alike, until it held more than half of present-day Canada. The company's chief concern was the gathering of furs. It was not anxious to have permanent farm settlements in its domain, for they interfered with the company's control of the fur trade.

The great land that we think of as Canada could hardly have been more disorganized than it was. There were nine different colonies, and in many cases fur traders and farmers were trying to establish themselves in the same territory. Lower Canada was almost entirely French in speech and customs and Catholic in its religion. Upper Canada was largely English-speaking and Protestant. The four maritime colonies of the eastern

part were isolated from the other colonies and from each other. They paid little attention to Canadian affairs. They lived in little worlds all their own. What ties they had with the outside were more likely to be with England, across the sea, than with the other British colonies of North America. And so it went. Lord Selkirk's colony in the Red River Valley was a several weeks' journey from Montreal. In fact, it was much easier to reach from Montreal by passing through the United States than by going through Canada. The two colonies in far-western Canada were usually reached by rounding the Horn, a long and hazardous voyage.

In spite of all these differences and in spite of their great difficulties in transportation, some of the colonies joined in a union. This union was the Dominion of Canada. It was the first dominion to be formed in the British Empire. We have seen how the dominion idea that began with Canada grew until the organization known as the Commonwealth of Nations resulted. Canada is the second-strongest power in the Commonwealth.

Provinces and territories. The Dominion of Canada began in 1867 with only four provinces—Quebec (Lower Canada), Ontario (Upper Canada), Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. The last two joined only with the definite understanding that a railroad would be built that would link Halifax with Montreal. This railroad, the Intercolonial Railway, was built within the next ten years. Within the six years following the forming of the dominion, three more provinces were added—Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, and British Columbia. Manitoba was the name of the province that included Lord Selkirk's Red River Valley settlement.

British Columbia was made up of the two west-coast colonies. They, like Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, wanted a railroad. They wanted to have a way to reach eastern Canada without having to round the Horn or make a long overland journey with horses. The railroad, the Canadian Pacific, was completed in 1885. Then people could cross Canada, from Halifax to Vancouver, entirely by rail. Railroads tied Canada together just as they tied the United States together.

One British colony decided not to join Canada at that time. That colony was Newfoundland, the oldest of them all. Newfoundland remained a crown colony for some time and then became a dominion. Later Newfoundland gave up its position as a dominion because it was not strong enough financially. A colony has a right to expect financial help from the mother country. A dominion is supposed to be able to pay its own way. Newfoundland tried to pay its own way, but it failed. So it went back to being a colony of the United Kingdom. In 1948 Newfoundland changed its mind again and voted to become a part of Canada. It makes the tenth province of Canada.

In 1875 Canada had seven provinces. But it also had acquired the huge domain that formerly belonged to the Hudson's Bay Company. Canada acquired the Hudson's Bay Company's lands in 1869 and set up the Northwest Territories in its place. In eastern Canada this territory began at Height of Land, the divide between waters that flow into Hudson Bay and waters that join the St. Lawrence. The Northwest Territories continued northward to the Arctic and westward to the Pacific, broken only by the provinces of Manitoba and British Columbia. Both of those provinces were much smaller than they are today.

At first the Northwest Territories made up more than half the area of Canada. But as time went on, the area of the Northwest Territories was slowly divided up. Two new provinces were created between Manitoba and British Columbia. They were called Alberta and Saskatchewan. A large piece of the Northwest Territories was removed to make them. Then, too, the Yukon Territory was set up as a separate territory. A little later more land was taken from the Northwest Territories to extend the provinces of

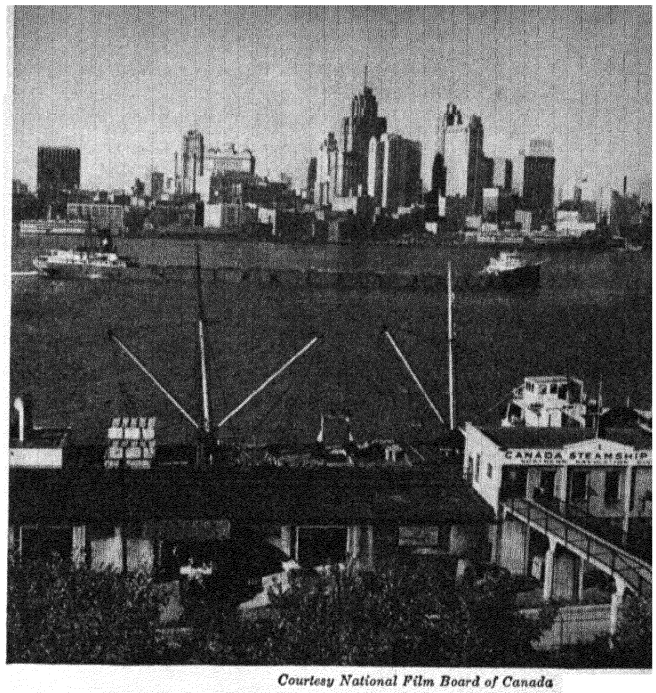
Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec northward. Today, Canada's provinces vary in size from Quebec, twice as large as Texas, to Prince Edward Island, about the size of Delaware. But the largest piece in all Canada is still the Northwest Territories, for in spite of their losses, the Northwest Territories are still more than twice the size of Quebec. They make up more than one-third of the whole country.

Regions and Politics

It is hard to discuss the domestic politics of Canada as a whole. The country is too large. It is better for our purposes to break it up into political regions. That is wise because the problems of one region are not always the same as those of another. Policies that may help one region may harm another. Conflicting problems are typical of large countries, and Canada is no exception to the rule. The regions of Canada were made partly by the natural conditions of the country and partly by their history. Some regions include several provinces. Look at the map on page 296, which shows the provinces and also the political regions of which they are a part.

Nine-tenths of Canada's people live in less than one-tenth of the area. They live in a narrow belt less than two hundred miles wide along the southern border of the country. Six of Canada's largest cities lie within fifty miles of the border. And in some cases, the cities are actually a part of an urban area that extends on both sides of the international line. Examples of such cities are Windsor and Niagara Falls.

The part of Canada where one-tenth of the people live on nine-tenths of the area is the northland. One of the things that most Canadians have in common is their feeling for the northland. The northland appeals to the imagination of French-speaking and English-speaking Canadians alike—to the people from Quebec and to those from British Columbia. In the three million or more square miles of the Canadian northland, there is space. There is room to get away from the crowded cities of the south, and opportunity to explore thousands of miles of wilderness. The northland is the land of the miner and the trapper, and a great many stories have been written about it. The stories have been used for books, magazines, and movies that are popular in the United States as well as in Canada.



Courtesy National Film Board of Canada

From the Windsor water front one can see Detroit.

Lying mainly in the northland, and surrounding Hudson Bay to the east, south, and west is a huge area of old, hard rocks that the geologists call the Canadian Shield. This area owes its name to the fact that it is shaped like the shields used by the knights of the Middle Ages. The Shield makes up nearly half of Canada, and it even extends across the border into the United States in an area south and west of Lake Superior and also in the Adirondacks. The Shield is an area of poor soils, many lakes, few people, and miles and miles of trees. No large cities are found there, and even farms and villages are scarce.

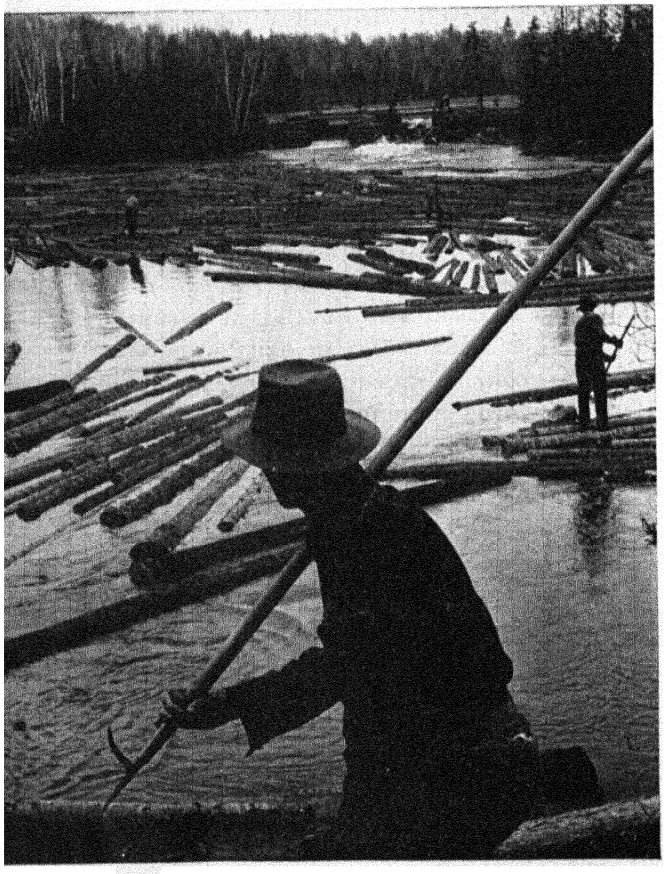
Poor as this area is in many ways, it is of great value to Canada. It was the land to which the Hudson's Bay Company came



Acme

Above: Testing for uranium-bearing ore, a new Canadian resource. Below: An old Canadian resource, but still No. 1 on the list.

Malak from Pix



seeking furs more than two centuries ago. Much of the area is still prime fur country. But the region is valuable for other reasons, too. There is a lot of timber, particularly in the southern part. Even where the trees are small, they are valuable for pulpwood. Paper, lumber, and wood pulp rank high in Canada's list of exports. Though other parts of Canada also produce these things, much of the output comes from the Canadian Shield.

The Canadian Shield is of value in still a third way, for it is a shield studded with minerals. All through the colonial period Canada was considered to be a poor land where only fish and furs could be found. How different was Latin America, especially Spanish America, where there were quantities of gold, and legends of more gold to be found! But today Canada—the poor land of furs and fish—produces far more gold than all Latin America put together. A large part of this gold comes from the Canadian Shield.

Canada has other minerals besides gold. And we know that other minerals are often more useful than gold is. From the Canadian Shield come huge supplies of nickel. Nickel is used chiefly to make steel tougher and stronger. Nickel is found in only a few parts of the world. It is important, therefore, that Canada produces nearly 85 percent of the world's nickel. From the Shield also come large supplies of lead, zinc, copper, platinum, cobalt, and silver.

For years it was thought that most of the iron ores of the Shield were located south of the border in the United States. Some people in the United States were pretty smug about it. It was tough on Canada, but lucky for the United States. Recently, large finds have been made in Canada, and it now looks as if American supplies of high-grade ore might be nearing exhaustion. Americans may come to think it lucky for them that Canada, with large supplies of iron ore for export, is near. Canadians are considering ways to use some of the ore themselves.

The Canadian Shield appears to be a huge storehouse of buried treasure. There are even large supplies of uranium there—source of atomic energy. But perhaps the greatest value of the Shield is yet to be discovered, for it is a huge area and is only partially explored to date. What unknown treasure may yet be found in this great wilderness of lakes, trees, and rocks can only be guessed. The trees grow smaller northward across the Shield, but there is no reason to think that the mineral resources do.

The Canadian Shield has long been considered one of the worst places in the world in which to travel. Between the waterways marshy areas abound. The waterways, with their myriads of lakes, are frequently interrupted by rapids and waterfalls. In such territory canoes are the best means of summer travel, just as dog sleds are when the waterways are frozen in winter. It was no wonder that the job of surveying and mapping this vast area seemed nearly hopeless. It looked as if the Canadian Shield might remain a sort of never-never land for generations to come.

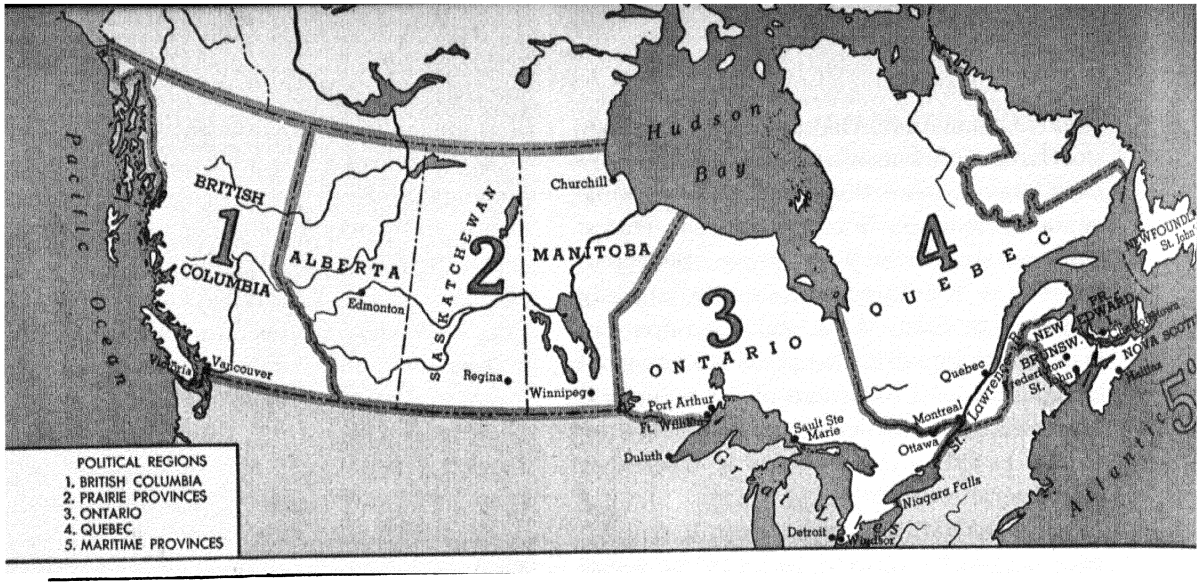
Then came the modern airplane, with its pontoons and skis that made it possible to land on the lakes in winter or summer. The airplanes carried cameras that made the mapping of large areas accurate and fast. Today the work of mapping and prospecting in the Canadian Shield is going forward rapidly. Prospectors and their equipment can be flown into the most out-of-the-way regions at the beginning of the summer. They can be called for in the fall before the ice forms on the lakes. Even during the winter the frozen lakes can be used as landing fields. The Canadian Shield is no longer a region of primitive transportation. Literally thousands of ready-made landing fields dot its surface, and its great wilderness is being civilized by modern airplanes and radio.

The rest of Canada makes a bordering belt surrounding the Shield to the east, south, and west. The bordering belt is narrow and sometimes missing in the east. There are places where the old, crystalline rocks of the Shield reach the north shore of the St. Lawrence, or where they cross over into the United States. The belt is much wider in the west. In the west there is a stretch of younger rocks more than a thousand miles wide.

These planes use snow-packed runways when they carry freight to the Canadian northland.

Courtesy National Film Board of Canada





The political regions of Canada.

The Canadian Shield helps to separate some of the political regions of Canada. And now let's see what the various political regions are and how they developed.

Eastern-border regions. The eastern-border regions of Canada are three in number. Each has a distinctive character of its own. They are the Maritime Provinces, farthest east; Quebec, in the lower St. Lawrence Valley; and Ontario, in the upper St. Lawrence Valley. The boundaries of Quebec and Ontario include large parts of the Canadian Shield. But the people of those provinces live almost entirely south of the Shield. The Maritime Provinces include Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. Newfoundland probably will be considered to be a fourth Maritime Province eventually. The people of the Maritime Provinces are more interested in farming and fishing than in manufacturing. There is, however, an iron and steel industry at Sydney, Nova Scotia. And there are many pulp mills there where wood is converted into wood pulp. Wood pulp is eventually made into paper.

The people of the Maritime Provinces are mostly of British ancestry. But there are a few French-speaking Canadians among them. The Maritime Provinces are Canada's New England States. The Maritime Provinces of Canada are more like northern New England than southern New England. Southern New England is much more highly industrialized.

The St. Lawrence Valley, lying between the Maritime Provinces and the Canadian Shield, is divided into two regions. Downstream the area is part of the Province of Quebec, formerly called Lower Canada. Upstream it is part of Ontario, formerly called Upper Canada. Although Quebec and Ontario share the Canadian part of the St. Lawrence drainage basin, the differences between them are striking.

Most of the people of Quebec speak French. To be sure, the French-speaking people of Quebec are not very different from the British. They came originally from Normandy and Brittany, in northern France. Their homeland was just across the Channel from the British Isles, and they are of the same racial stock as the British. In spite of this, these two groups of people are frequently at odds in Canada. It is not just that one group speaks French and the other English, and that one group is Roman Catholic and the other Protestant. The two groups often vote against each other in political matters. The French-speaking Canadians are not so interested in the Commonwealth of Nations or in England as are the English-speaking Canadians. Quebec is likely to be isolationist in international affairs.

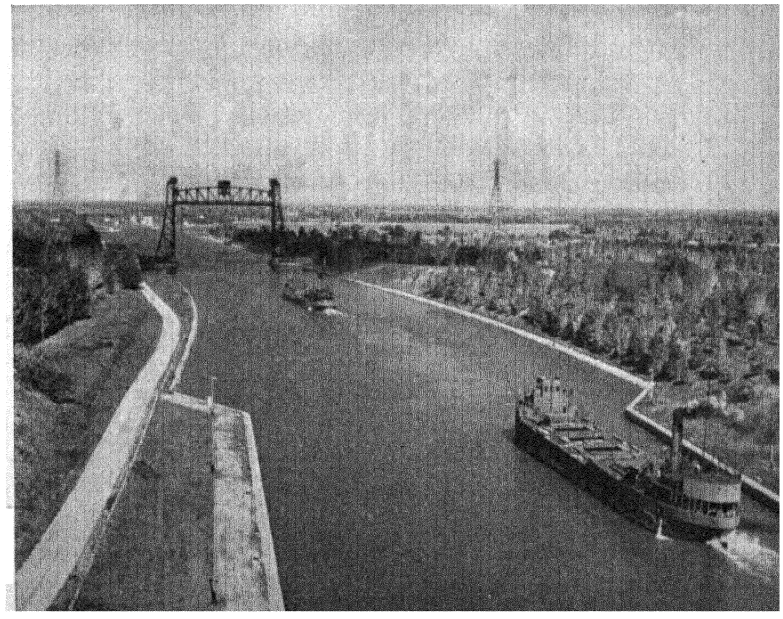
French-speaking Canadians are a very interesting people for many reasons. One interesting thing is that their population has increased very rapidly. It is thought that the original French immigrants numbered no more than six or seven thousand and that there were no additions to this group from the outside after the beginning of the eighteenth century. During the two and a half centuries that have passed since then, these people have multiplied until there are now four and a half million of them. One million persons of French Canadian ancestry live in the United States, and three and a half million live in Canada. This means that there are now at least six hundred times as many people of French Canadian ancestry as there were at the beginning of the eighteenth century. They seem to have increased at a more rapid rate than any other people in the world. This rate was more rapid than the rate in western Europe during the same period. France, the home country of these Canadian people, did little more than double its population during the same time. English-speaking people of the world may have increased twentyfold. But Canadians of French ancestry have increased about six hundredfold.

Of course, no one expects the French-speaking Canadians to continue to increase at this tremendous rate. It is, however, easily possible that they may eventually outnumber other Canadians. Today, Canadians of French ancestry make up less than a third of the population of Canada. But since they are increasing at a much more rapid rate than other people of Canada are, they may someday reach the point where they can outvote the people of the other sections of the country. This does not mean that Canada would then necessarily be pro-French in international affairs. French-speaking Canadians consider themselves the original Canadians—in fact, the only true Canadians. Their loyalty is definitely for Canada. But it does mean that Canada might very well become more isolationist in its foreign policy and less firmly attached to the Commonwealth of Nations.

Since many of the people of Quebec and Ontario live along the St. Lawrence waterway, they are greatly interested in problems connected with the river. Although nature did a good job in locating the St. Lawrence waterway as a gateway into North America, the construction job was far from perfect. The surface of Lake Superior is six hundred feet above sea level, and there are many interruptions to through travel from the head of Lake Superior to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. There are three main obstacles to through water transportation. One is where Lake Superior empties into Lake Huron over the rapids called Sault Ste Marie. Another is where Lake Erie waters drop over Niagara Falls on their way to Lake Ontario. And still another obstacle is a series of rapids between Lake Ontario and the present head of navigation at Montreal. Canals have been built at Sault Ste Marie and around Niagara Falls, and it is now possible for

These boats are by-passing Niagara Falls. The water passage you see is the Welland Canal, connecting Lake Erie and Lake Ontario.

Courtesy National Film Board of Canada



lake vessels to make the trip from one end of the lakes to the other. But it is not possible for large vessels to complete the trip down the St. Lawrence to the sea. Between Lake Ontario and Montreal, the St. Lawrence makes a descent of nearly 250 feet over a series of rapids. If a number of big dams and locks were built that would permit the passage of large vessels, ocean steamers could reach the lake ports on both the Canadian and American sides of the Great Lakes.

Such a plan has long been in the minds of some Americans and Canadians. It would seem to be entirely possible and well worth the expense, particularly since enough power could be generated at the dams to pay for the cost of their construction. But people and politics have interfered with the plan. Canadians would like to build the waterway. They are eager to do so, because they have so much to gain from its construction. When the waterway is built, iron ore from northern Quebec can be brought quite cheaply to Great Lakes steel ports like Chicago, Hamilton, Cleveland, and Buffalo. Not only that, but the farmers of the Prairie Provinces can use the waterway to ship their grain to market. So Canada wanted to go ahead with the plan.

The United States, on the other hand, was more reluctant. Many Americans felt that the waterway would help only a small part of our country and might really harm other parts. However, the Canadians finally warned us that if the United States would not join them in building the waterway, they would build it alone. After all, the United States could not afford to let this happen. So the two nations have joined forces.

By 1958 ocean-going vessels of 27-foot draft were to be able to reach all the Lake Erie ports. Further improvements would be needed to allow ships this large to reach the Lake Michigan and Lake Superior ports. When they are made, the Great Lakes–St. Lawrence waterway may become one of the busiest waterways in the world.

One drawback to use of the St. Lawrence waterway is that it is closed by ice for more than a third of the year. The lakes themselves rarely freeze over, but the narrow passages between them do. Even Montreal, largest of Canadian ports, is usually closed to ocean travel from the first part of December until late in April. This means that ships using the Great Lakes waterway must find something to do in other parts of the world for a few months or lie idle until the ice goes out of the channels. It is a problem that seems to have no solution, but no doubt the Great Lakes ports will prosper in spite of this drawback.

The western-border region. Though Ontario suffers because of its interior location and because of its lack of direct water communication with the ocean, the Prairie Provinces suffer more. They make up a huge region whose people are intent upon producing as much wheat as they possibly can and in getting it out to world markets as cheaply as possible. There are three ways by which wheat may move from the Prairie Provinces to the outside world. One way is westward over the Canadian Rockies to the cities of Vancouver and Prince Rupert, in British Columbia. A second way is by the railroad that runs northward to Churchill on Hudson Bay. You can find these places on the map on page 269. The third way is eastward by rail and lake to Atlantic ports in either Canada or the United States. Since most of the grain finds its market in Europe, the eastern route is the one most used. Naturally a Great Lakes–St. Lawrence waterway which could be used for ocean-going shipping would be a great help to the Prairie Provinces.

For this reason and for other reasons, the people of the Prairie Provinces have been very active in politics. Most of the farmers of the region raise only one crop—wheat. People who specialize in one crop have all their eggs in one basket, and they suffer more from calamities of one sort or another that happen to farmers than other farmers

do. These calamities may range from drought, grasshoppers, plant diseases, and storms to world-wide depression and a falling off of markets and prices. When some disaster strikes, and lean days come, these farmers want the government to assist them. In fact, such assistance is often necessary if farmers are to remain on their farms at all. In a region of risky farming like the Prairie Provinces, the people are likely to ask for government support of many kinds. The Hudson Bay Railroad, agricultural experiment stations, and various farm-credit arrangements have all come about because the voters of the Prairie Provinces wanted them.

The Prairie Provinces may not always be so completely agricultural as they are now. They are rich in sources of energy as well as in good soil. For years geologists have known that there are vast stores of coal beneath the wheatlands of the plains and along the edge of the Canadian Rockies. But most of this coal is so poor and the distances to markets are so great that only a little of it has been mined. What coal is mined is used in near-by areas. Eastern Canada finds it cheaper to import coal from the United States than to use coal from the plains or the Rockies.

More recently the geologists have come up with another find. They have discovered oil beneath the flat, dry plains that border the Rockies. Oil is, of course, in great demand. The world has lived in constant fear of running out of oil for the last twenty-five years. In Alberta enough oil has been found to make it definitely worth while to look for more. People think that all of this belt where the western plains meet the Rockies may be a good place in which to find oil. It is a continuation of the plains of Wyoming and Montana, where much oil has already been produced and more may be found.

Alberta wheat fields have sprouted oil derricks and signs pointing to oil fields.

Courtesy National Film Board of Canada



Unlike coal, oil can be transported to markets rather cheaply. A pipe line has been built to carry oil from Edmonton, in Alberta, to the shores of Lake Superior. From there tankers can carry the oil through the locks at Sault Ste Marie and on down the lakes to markets in eastern Canada and the United States. But fuels have a way of attracting industries to them as well as of going to market. Since the Prairie Provinces are rich in fuels, the time may come when that area will throb with industry. The Prairie Provinces may become a Canadian inland empire like some of the inland areas of the Soviet Union.

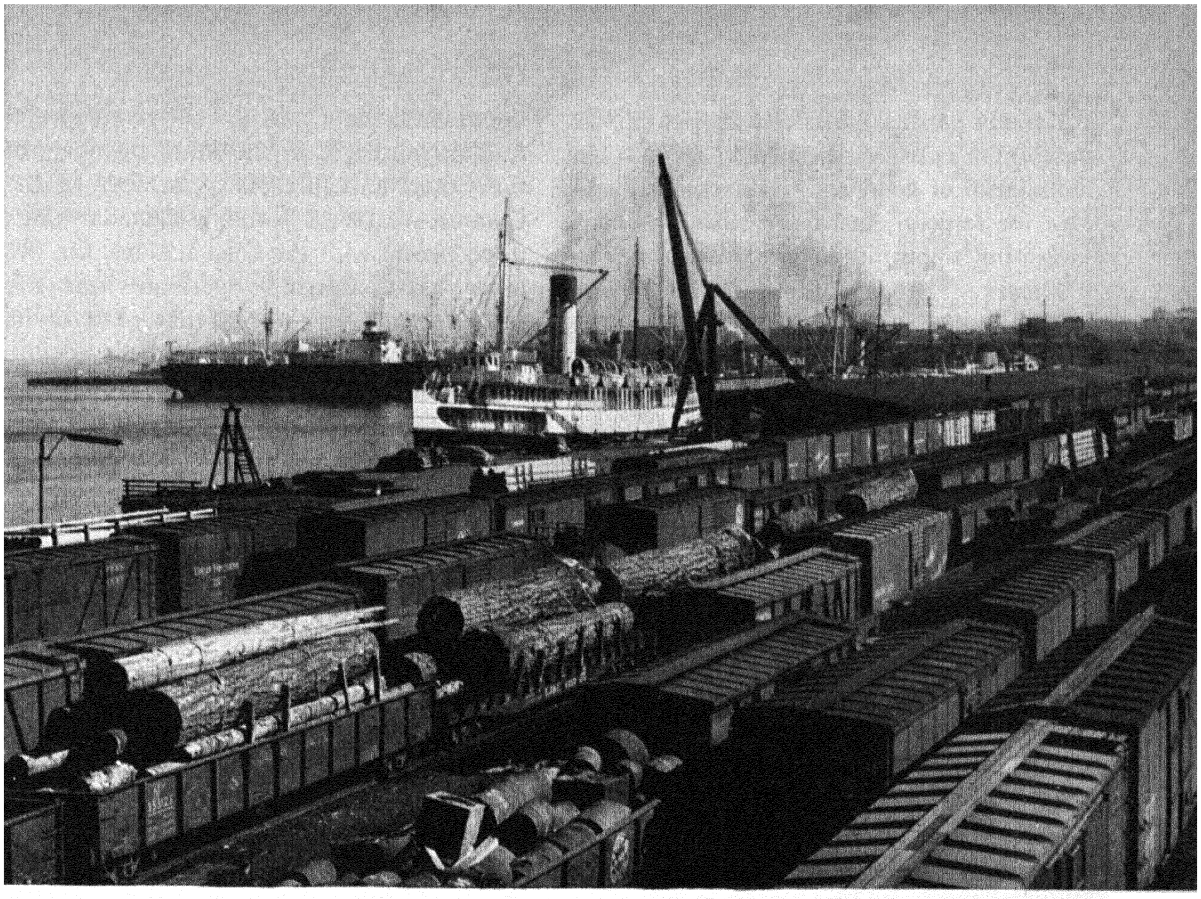
The Pacific region. Between the Prairie Provinces and the Pacific coast lies a belt of mountains that extends northward beyond the Arctic Circle. In the north is the Yukon Territory, and in the south lies British Columbia. British Columbia is joined to the Prairie Provinces and to eastern Canada by two railroads. One is the Canadian Pacific, which has its western terminal at Vancouver, and the other is the Canadian National, which has its main western terminal also at Vancouver and a branch terminal at Prince Rupert. The Yukon Territory has no rail connection with southern Canada. There is a short line from Whitehorse to Skagway on the Pacific, but it is necessary to go on by ship from Skagway to Vancouver. Furthermore, Skagway is in Alaska, and that means that persons or goods traveling between Skagway and Vancouver have to cross an international boundary. That is somewhat annoying, but it is not a serious matter, since the United States and Canada are friends.

During World War II a highway was built as an inland route to Alaska. The Alaskan Highway was of particular interest to the United States. It was a means of reaching Alaska in case the sea approaches to that territory were blocked by the Japanese. For that reason the United States took an active part in the highway's construction. But the highway is an equally useful link between the Yukon Territory and the southern part of Canada.

Canada has always been very much interested in the Atlantic and in the British Isles across that ocean. The ancestors of most of the Canadian people came from countries on the other side of the Atlantic, most of them from countries in northern Europe. Canada is linked with Great Britain as a fellow member in the Commonwealth of Nations. Furthermore, a large share of Canada's trade is with Great Britain. But through the British Columbian ports of Vancouver and Prince Rupert, Canada has a back door to the oceans of the world. It is a very useful back door. Canada's Pacific ports are never closed by ice and so can be used when Montreal is icebound. Some grain is shipped from these Pacific ports by way of the Panama Canal to Europe. Canada's back door means that the country is not only an Atlantic power, but a Pacific power as well. Canada's situation is much like that of the United States. Both countries face the Atlantic, but both countries have a growing concern in Pacific affairs.

Facing two oceans is both an advantage and a disadvantage. It is a disadvantage because it increases the amount of shore line that could be attacked from the sea. But the advantages probably far outweigh the disadvantages. Very few of the world's powers can boast of being able to use both the Atlantic and the Pacific with almost equal ease. The United Kingdom is wholly in the Atlantic, and its ships must cross a great many miles of ocean before reaching the Pacific. In fact, there is only one country in all of Eurasia that can use either ocean, and that country is the Soviet Union. But in the New World every independent mainland country from Canada in the north to Colombia in the south, with the single exception of Salvador, faces both the Atlantic and the Pacific.

Unlike the United States and Canada's sister nations, Australia and New Zealand,



Courtesy National Film Board of Canada

Ships and railroads meet in Vancouver, at Canada's back door on the Pacific.

Canada holds no island possessions in the South Pacific. But Canada is vitally concerned with what goes on in the Pacific, and the port cities on the Pacific coast are growing in importance.

Canada as a World Power

Canada is the largest country in the New World. It is larger than either the United States or Brazil, and ranks next to the Soviet Union among world powers that are essentially all in one piece. Like the Soviet Union, Canada has a high proportion of Arctic land that is of uncertain value as a home for civilized man. Time alone will tell whether such areas can be intensively used.

Unlike the Soviet Union, Canada has only about fifteen million people and ranks among the smaller powers of the world in population. In the New World alone there are four countries that have more people than Canada's fifteen million. Those countries are the United States, Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina. But like many other young countries, Canada has a population that is increasing rapidly, partly because of natural increase and partly because of immigration. The population of Canada has increased from three and a half million to fifteen million since Canada became a dominion less than one hundred years ago. But experts disagree upon how long this increase can be expected to continue. One expert thinks that Canada's population will level off at about twenty million. Another estimates that Canada may eventually hold one hundred million. Canada's population total may very well catch up with that of Argentina or Mexico, but it is not likely ever to overtake that of either the United States or Brazil.

Canada has been a land of opportunity in two ways. There has been until recently an abundance of good agricultural land available for settlers. And there have also been increasing opportunities for industrial employment. The agricultural lands of the eastern-border regions have been filled nearly to capacity. There is not much more room for expansion in those areas as far as farming goes. But the St. Lawrence Valley provinces of Quebec and Ontario, particularly Ontario, have rapidly growing cities and industries. The population of Quebec and Ontario is growing steadily, and makes up half the population of Canada.

In the Maritime Provinces, on the other hand, the population is increasing very slowly. Actually, there are fewer people on Prince Edward Island today than there were in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Industrialization has not developed enough in the Maritime Provinces to make up for the declining opportunities in agriculture there.

The Prairie Provinces had a period of extremely rapid population growth. Pioneers started moving into those areas after the building of the transcontinental railroads in the last part of the nineteenth century. Population increase was particularly rapid before World War I, when thousands of immigrants poured into the Prairie Provinces to occupy the good wheatlands. But the better agricultural lands of the Prairie Provinces are now taken, and the population has not increased as rapidly recently as it did before World War I. Industrialization of the Prairie Provinces might cause the population to increase rapidly again.

Canada's Trade Triangle

Canada is in the nice position of a girl with two boy friends. Belonging to the Commonwealth puts Canada in a special position so far as trade is concerned, because it has special trading privileges with the rest of the Commonwealth. As one of the dominions, Canada also gives special trading privileges to the other members of the Commonwealth. As a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, Canada wants to coöperate with the sister nations. On the other hand, Canada's position near the United States has meant that most of its trade is actually with that country.

For years Canada has been able to steer a course that has kept most people satisfied and that has been quite profitable to Canada. The exports—largely agricultural products, timber products, and minerals—have been divided about equally between the United States and Europe. The imports—mostly manufactured goods and coal—have come largely from the United States. Canada sells more to Europe than to the United States, but buys mostly from the United States. Sometimes, however, the triangle of trade does not work so well. The money that Canada gets from selling in Europe is not worth as much as the money it must pay for United States goods; then Canada finds it is increasingly difficult to pay for the things the country imports from the United States. Still, Canada has been so prosperous since World War II that Canadians have little need to worry. The trade triangle has not caused much difficulty so far.

At first Canadians, like Latin Americans, did not feel sure of the good intentions of the United States. But as time went on, the feeling between the two countries grew better and better. The long 4000-mile boundary seemed less and less important. This proves that having a good boundary between two countries is not just a matter of picking a line wisely and surveying it carefully. It is the feeling on each side of the line that really counts.

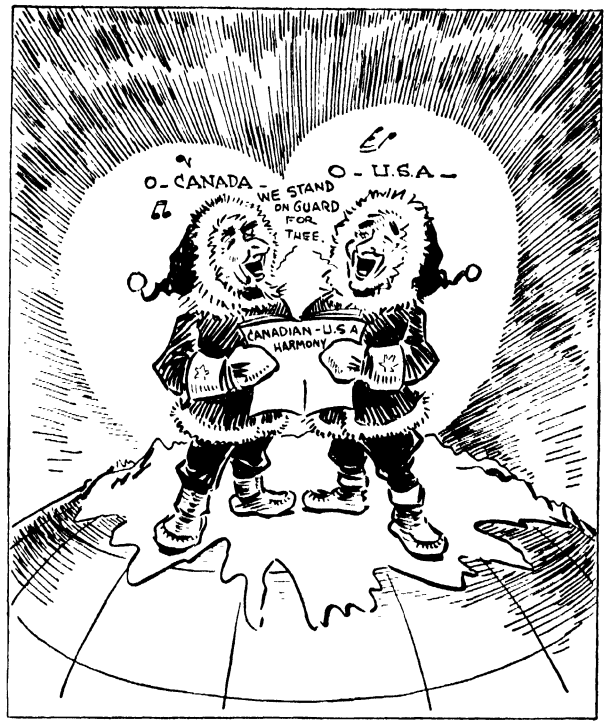
Still, Canada has its problems, for American money, movies, and tourists pour across the border. So it is difficult for Canada to maintain its own individuality. The people of the two countries are alike in so many ways already that there is a very natural tendency for them to become even

more alike. Since there are more than ten times as many Americans as there are Canadians, it seems the result in the long run would be likely to have a strong American flavor.

A Canadian once said in speaking of the relations between the two countries, "With so much in common we have often declined to learn the primary things in each other's history, and sometimes we have behaved with the brutal frankness of blood relations." Blood relations sometimes get into terrific quarrels. But in the long run they usually stick together against the outside world.

Canada and the Soviet Union

It has been pointed out earlier in this book that the United States and the Soviet Union are like two grindstones, and that many of the other countries lie like grain between the grindstones. The European countries, China, and the two nations in India are areas that lie between the two great power centers. Most of these in-between lands are a part of the coastlands of Eurasia. But Canada, too, is in their position. Until very recently, Canada was bordered by the sea and the United States. As long as Great Britain ruled the sea and the United States remained friendly, all was well. But now that the Arctic region is no longer no man's land and can readily be crossed by air, Canada has a new neighbor across the North Pole. That neighbor is the Soviet Union. And it has suddenly become apparent that



Callan in The Toronto Daily Star

And no sour notes!

Canada is one of those lands that lie between the grindstones called the United States and the Soviet Union.

The possible threat of the Soviet Union has thrown the United States and Canada even closer together. They have their common defense to think about. Both countries are interested in studying the details of Arctic warfare. The two countries have taken similar stands in world affairs, and they often vote similarly in the Council of the United Nations. The man who drew the cartoon above had these things in mind.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Most American histories suggest that the United States is of direct British descent. That is, of course, only partly true, for the area that was to become the United States was far from being wholly British. France laid claim to the Mississippi Valley and Great Lakes area as early as the seventeenth century. Spain claimed the Gulf coast and much of the Southwest. Actual British settlement occupied only a narrow belt along the Atlantic seaboard. That belt makes up less than one-tenth of the area of the United States today.

The English were far in the lead, however, when it came to numbers. Of the several million persons in British colonies

at the time of the American Revolution, probably three-fourths were British or of British ancestry. The remaining 25 percent were German and Swiss, French and Dutch, and many other nationalities. But still the British colonies were overwhelmingly British. And the French and Spanish colonists who were scattered to the west and south over areas that eventually were to become a part of the United States amounted to a mere handful.

So it isn't wrong for histories to say that the United States descended from the British Isles. The British colonists were numerous enough to set up British laws and customs. More than that, the British colonies made up the core area to which the rest of the country was added a piece at a time. But it should not be forgotten that there were other influences as well as those from Britain. In the United States a distinct culture has been built that is both British and continental European in background. But out of the mixture has come something that is wholly American. There is no other culture quite like it.

The Atlantic Seaboard

The Atlantic-seaboard rivers of the United States are all short as compared with the Mississippi or the St. Lawrence. No one of them extends all the way through the Appalachian barrier. But the Atlantic-seaboard rivers do have one fine characteristic in common. Every important stream on the Atlantic slope empties into an estuary. There are no deltas along the whole eastern coast of North America. Estuaries usually make good harbors. Deltas are particularly bad, for their shallow waters and shifting, forked channels make navigation hazardous. This is especially true for sailing vessels.

From Cape Hatteras on the North Carolina coast northward, the estuaries are not only numerous but also deep. Chesapeake Bay, Delaware Bay, New York Harbor, Narragansett Bay, and Boston Harbor are all good ship anchorages. Most of the British colonies grew up about one or another of the many estuaries of the Atlantic coast. There were Massachusetts Bay Colony, New Haven, and Rhode Island in New England. There were Penn's colony on the Delaware and Lord Baltimore's colony on the Chesapeake. There was Jamestown on the estuary of the James River in Virginia. But the Dutch picked the finest estuary of them all when they planted their colony on the drowned mouth of the Hudson River.

As time went on, the little colonies on the estuaries fanned out until there was a continuous belt of settlement from southern Maine to Georgia. But the largest towns were the port towns of Philadelphia, Boston, New York, and Baltimore. These places are still the largest cities of the Atlantic coast.

From the beginning, most of the colonists lived on the coast between Cape Hatteras and Cape Cod. If you'll look at the map on the next page, you'll notice that there are three major embayments, or indentations. The map looks very much as if someone had taken three bites out of a sandwich. The northern embayment is north of Cape Cod. There is another one south of Cape Hatteras. But it was in the middle bite, where the estuaries are especially deep, that most of the people lived at the time of the American Revolution. About a half million people lived along the coast north of Cape Cod. Another half million lived in the coastal belt of the southern embayment. But there were three million who lived between Cape Cod and Cape Hatteras. The area between those capes is still one of the most densely settled areas of the United States.

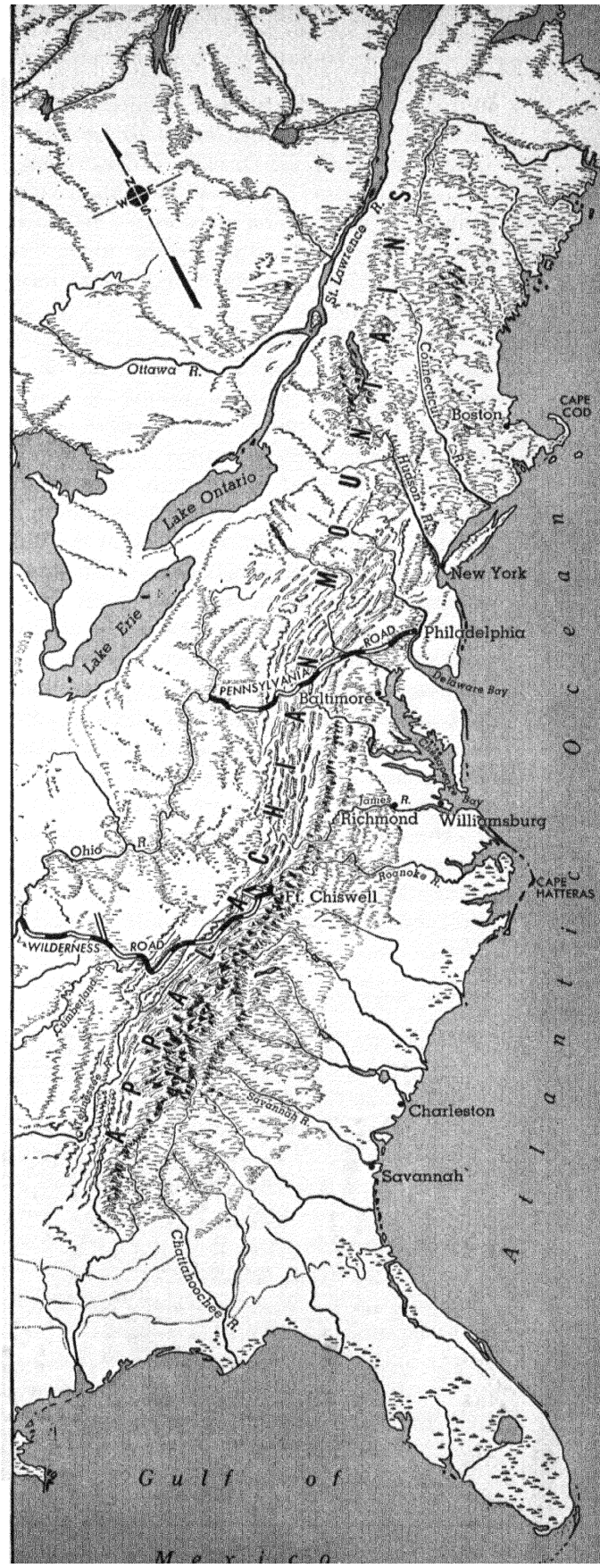
In 1790 the people of the United States still lived mostly east of the Appalachian Mountains. But the land belonging to the United States reached westward to the Mississippi River. The country was then about one-third as large as it is now. There were large unsettled areas west of the mountains that were turned over to the government of the United States to manage. These areas

were divided into two blocks—one north of the Ohio River and the other south of Kentucky. The northern block of land was called the Northwest Territory. From that area five states were carved in the years that followed. They were Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. And three states came from the southern block—Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi.

Settling the Land

The people who settled the Atlantic seaboard were, as we have said, mostly from the British Isles. But in spite of that fact, they had many different ideas about the way the land should be settled and about the way it should be owned. Some people thought that each family should have a small piece of land. Others thought that families should go together and form communities in which land would be held jointly. Still others thought that there should be people who owned large amounts of land. These people would provide work for many others. Such ideas and many others were carried out in different parts of the land. They have come down to us through the years, and many of them can still be recognized in different parts of the country.

Three ideas about the way land should be divided and settled were used over and over again. They appeared so often that they became more important than the others. In New England the land was divided into townships, or towns, and towns became typical of that region. The town idea was changed somewhat and then used widely in many other parts of the United States. The newer townships differed from those in New England, as we shall see later. In the South another idea developed—that of the plantation. It, too, spread over a wide area.



The Atlantic seaboard. You can see here how rivers aided settlers both east and west of the mountains.

But it was in the Middle Colonies that the most important land division of all appeared. There the land was broken up into small individual farms. The small individual farm is the most typical land division in the United States today. Let's consider the town, the plantation, and the small individual farm more carefully.

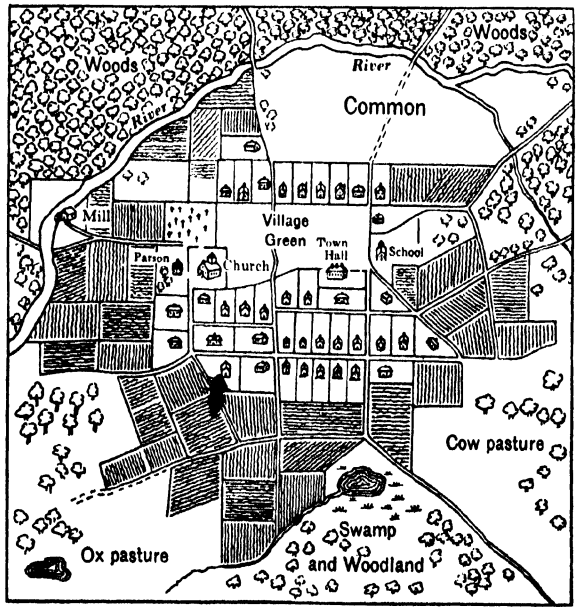
The New England town. A favorite plan in New England was to survey or lay out a plot of land of perhaps twenty to thirty square miles and give it to a group of people to settle. The settlers formed a corporation that held the land in common. Somewhere in the territory given to the corporation a village center was laid out. Look at the diagram of a town shown below. There was a central village green. And facing the green were the church and cemetery, the school, and the town hall. Farther away was a common where the village livestock could be pastured. The house lots of the settlers were located near the village center, often facing the green, or on streets that were near the green.

The farm lands lay scattered beyond the village. Each family usually owned several plots of ground. People often drew lots to find out what plots they were to have. The parcels of land were divided up as fairly as possible. They might be made up of different kinds of land in order that each farmer could have a portion of each kind of land in the town. In a New England town there were two kinds of landownership. Individual settlers owned plots that made up the farm land. The whole community owned the village green, the common, the church, the school, the town hall, and the cemetery.

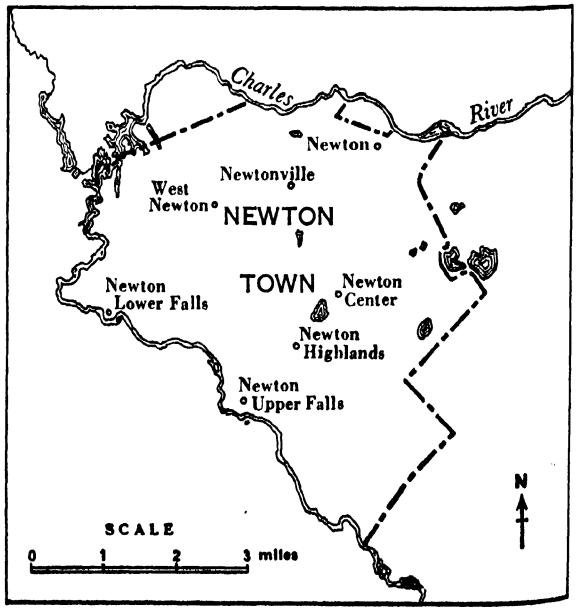
As time went on, occasionally a new village grew up at some point in the town. So in New England a town—or township—is larger than a village and may include several villages as well as the land that lies between them. Newton Town, in eastern Massachusetts, used to contain the villages of Newton, Newton Center, Newtonville, West Newton, Newton Highlands, Newton Upper Falls, and Newton Lower Falls, as you can see on the diagram at the right below. They have since all become the city of Newton, which is really a continuation of Boston.

The town, or township, system spread westward across New England and into northern New Jersey, parts of Pennsylvania, and southern New York. We shall find that it was used in a greatly changed form in the settlement of the Middle West.

A New England town, or township.



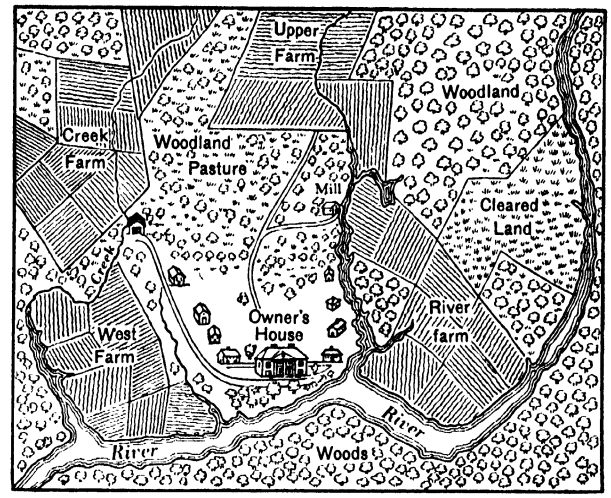
One after later development.



The southern plantation. South of the Mason and Dixon line an entirely different system developed. There the land was granted to a single individual, or owner, rather than to a group, as it was in New England. Sometimes the grants of land called plantations included thousands of acres, but more often they amounted to less than five hundred acres. On those grants of land there was a large home for the owner of the plantation, and there were smaller houses for the workmen, as you can tell by looking at the diagram on this page. There were often other buildings, too, such as a gristmill, a sawmill, a forge, and a blacksmith shop.

Each plantation had to care for the daily needs of its people. It produced the food and furnished the shelter for its workers. The clothing they required was made on the plantation, and the materials necessary for making clothing were raised there. The workmen at first were white settlers from Europe who were too poor to buy land. After five years or so they were given land elsewhere in the colony and were free to settle a farm of their own. After Negro slavery was introduced, Negro workmen replaced white workmen on the plantations, and so slavery and the plantation system were linked together.

Although the plantation cared for the daily needs of all its inhabitants, its chief purpose was to produce some crop that could be sold for cash. In Maryland and Virginia the cash crop was tobacco. In South Carolina the cash crops were rice and indigo. Not until about the time of the American Revolution did cotton become important as a plantation crop. Its greatest development as a plantation crop came during the first half of the nineteenth century. Rice and indigo are hardly ever grown any more in the south-Atlantic states, and tobacco is no longer grown on plantations. In fact, plantations themselves are much less common than they were and are rapidly disappearing from the scene.



A plantation.

Township versus plantation. Since the New England town and the southern plantation are so important, let us compare them further. We have already said that a plantation belonged to one man or family, whereas the New England town was a joint project. It belonged to twenty or thirty families. As might be expected, politics on a plantation were determined by the owner. His word was law, and he represented the plantation in the politics of his county or colony. In New England, town affairs were decided at town meetings, and elected representatives took the wishes of the towns to the colonial assemblies. On page 310 is a copy of an old print showing a very early town meeting.

The New England town, or township, idea was tried out repeatedly in other parts of the colonies. But it took hold in only a few places, for most people did not like the idea of owning land jointly. Even in New England community property was eventually divided up and farms were unified. Individual farms all in one piece became the rule. But the town as a political unit still exists in New England, and the town meeting still settles all local affairs in rural areas.

Just as the township system was attempted in Georgia and in other places in the South, so the plantation system was found occasionally in the North. In Rhode Island a plantation system was established that included

slavery. In Pennsylvania huge blocks of land were granted by the Penn family to men who wanted to mine and smelt iron ore. These iron plantations were very similar to the tobacco plantations of Maryland and Virginia. The only real difference was that iron rather than tobacco was the cash product. The workers were more likely to be white people than Negroes, and consequently slavery did not become strongly established in Pennsylvania.

In the Hudson Valley the Dutch system of granting land in large blocks resulted in something which was very similar to the plantation system. Some proprietors, or patroons, owned thousands of acres of land. They rented small portions of that holding to individual farmers. The patroon did not make his money by selling a cash crop, but by collecting rents from the farmers who occupied his land. As you can see, the patroon system had things about it that were like both the plantation system and the one in which people lived on small individual farms.

The small individual farm. In New England as well as in the South, there were many independent farmers living on small farms. They did not live either in definite towns or on plantations. It was in the Middle Colonies, however, that small farms were most numerous. The small individual farm has always appealed to the American people. A man who runs his own farm has a chance to manage his own affairs.

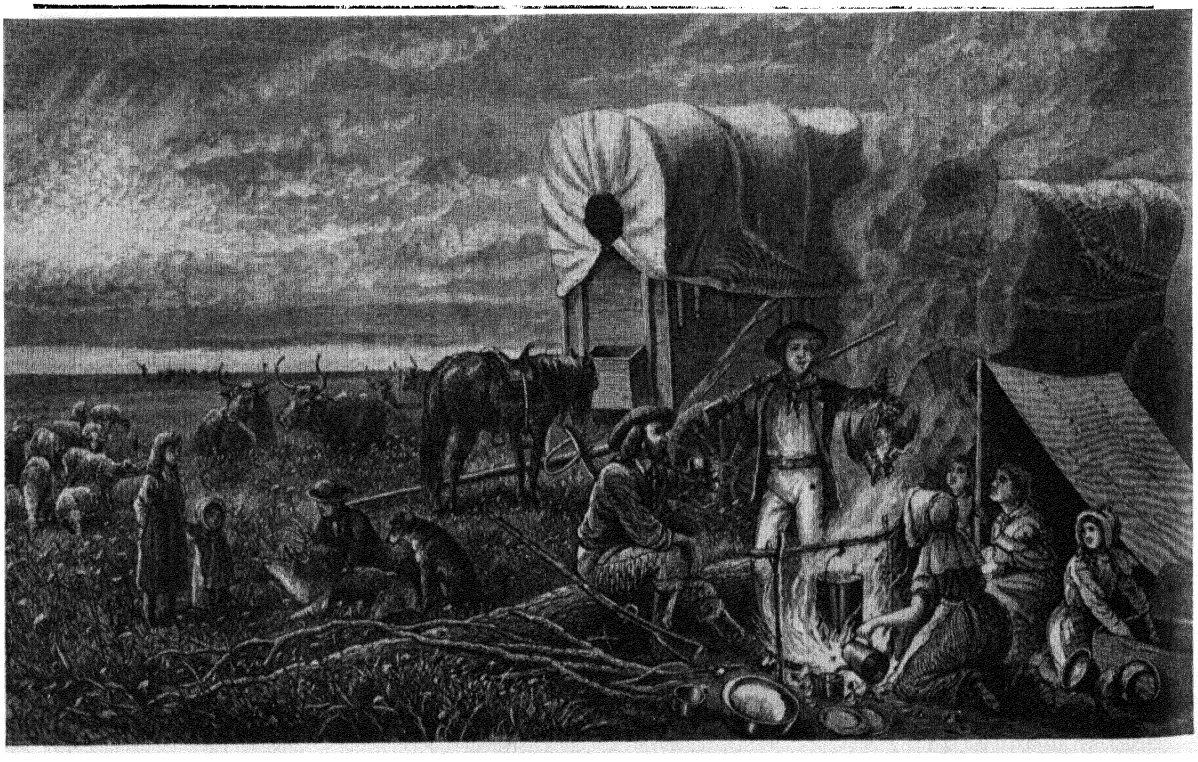
At first the farmers produced only enough for themselves. But as population increased and transportation improved, they produced more things to sell. The small individual farm was so commonly adopted throughout the United States that it became the most common kind of land settlement there.

Westward Ho!

Many of the colonists had no sooner set their feet upon the North American continent than they were seized by an irresistible desire to go farther inland. To be sure, there were dangers enough. Indians disputed

Tired feet, tired backs, but courage and lots of endurance—these things made the "Westward Movement."

Culver Service



the way. Mountains, forests, and swamps made travel difficult. But still people pressed forward. Since they landed on the east coast of North America in the first place, their general direction of migration was westerly.

The movement of the Americans west was one of the largest migrations ever to take place. Millions of people took part in it. And it lasted more than three hundred years. During the first century and a half of colonization, people filled in the land between the Appalachians and the Atlantic coast. They crossed the Appalachians and reached the eastern tributaries of the Mississippi. Then there was a pause while the American Revolution was being fought. After that, the migration continued as people like those in the print on the opposite page turned west. It did not stop until Americans had reached the Pacific coast and filled in most of the vacant places between.

The Westward Movement, as this great migration has been called, meant that during most of American history there has been a part of the country called the West. The West was a land of pioneer settlement. Often there were Indians and perhaps foreign nations that still claimed the land. In contrast with the West there was the East, where the land was well settled and there were cities and towns. In the East the Indians no longer disputed possession of the land. At first the East was much stronger than the West politically. But as time went on, the West became stronger and stronger. The West began to clamor for an outlet to the sea—and got it. Westerners began to clamor for roads, canals, and railroads in rapid succession. They got those, too. In time the western block of voters became large enough to elect an occasional president and to have a strong voice in governmental affairs. Let's go back and investigate this Westward Movement more carefully.

The Appalachian barrier. Eastern North America is split in two by a belt of highlands known as the Appalachian Mountains. This belt of highlands begins on the Gaspé Peninsula just south of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It forms a mountainous belt through Quebec and New Brunswick, through the northern part of New England, and into New York State. In New York the highland is broken by several lowlands. We might think of these as one forked lowland. The end of the handle of the fork is at the city of New York, at the mouth of the Hudson River. The two prongs reach west and north from Albany—one toward Montreal and the other toward Buffalo. In both cases they reach the St. Lawrence River system. From New York State to Alabama the highland is unbroken for a distance of nearly one thousand miles. This belt of highlands has been a barrier to travel east and west from the earliest days to the present. It was not an impassable barrier, however. It could be crossed by hard work, and it frequently was.

During the early days of the nation, the Appalachian barrier marked the divide between the East and the West. By the time the United States had become an independent nation, there were four settlements west of this Appalachian divide. Two of them were located within the mountains. One was located at the "Forks of the Ohio," where the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers join to form the Ohio. This settlement was called Pittsburgh. The second settlement was in the upper Tennessee Valley, in what is known as eastern Tennessee today. Both of these places were outposts where pioneers could outfit themselves before plunging into the wilderness beyond. Farther to the west were two other settlements, well beyond the mountains. One was in central Kentucky and the other in central Tennessee. We now know these two regions as the Bluegrass and Nashville basins.

Before the American Revolution, and for a time afterwards, it was necessary to cross the highlands to reach the western settlements. The easier routes—around the end of the highland belt in Alabama, or through

the Mohawk Valley—were occupied by strong and hostile Indians. Most travelers used routes across the highlands instead.

Early sectionalism. We have seen repeatedly how countries may develop areas that differ from one another in their politics. These political regions often have different backgrounds and conflicting interests and problems. Because they have different interests and different ways of looking at things, people of different political regions are likely to vote against each other. When people of one section of a country feel that their own interests and problems are more important than those of other people in the country, we say that we have sectionalism. Very early in the life of the United States, sectionalism appeared. There was an East and a West—the Atlantic seaboard and the area that lay beyond the Appalachian Mountains. The Atlantic seaboard in turn was divided into three parts—North, South, and Middle.

We already know how the West developed. Let's see how the threefold division of the Atlantic seaboard came about. The ways by which the land was settled had something to do with it. The New England township system did not remain just along the coast north of Cape Cod. It spread inland and southward until an area, or region, known as New England developed. Actually there were two New Englands. In one lived the conservative farmers of inland New England who were interested mostly in local affairs. In the other were the seafaring New Englanders, interested in fishing, whaling, and shipping. These interests made them aware of world affairs. But the thing that seemed to make New England one region was the fact that town government was used throughout.

New Englanders handled problems in their towns by getting together like this in small town meetings.

Courtesy Paul Hawthorne and The First National Bank of Boston



So it was in the South. The South did not remain just the region south of Cape Hatteras. The plantation system was developed farther north than that. It was found in tidewater Maryland and Virginia as well as in South Carolina and Georgia. Just as there were two New Englands, so there were two Souths. There was a "plantation South" on the coastal plain, and there was a "small-farm South" on the Piedmont, farther inland. It was the Piedmont farmers who passed through the Blue Ridge into the Great Valley and so on to Kentucky and Tennessee. But it was the plantation farmers with their large landholdings and their Negro slaves who were to settle inland Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. In this way the southern planters spread the plantation system into a larger and larger area. And the people who lived in this area had interests so different from those of people in the North that extreme sectionalism developed which later brought about the War between the States.

Between the South and New England in the North there was a middle section. It was a region of small individual farms. But more than that, it was a region of large port cities. The Middle Atlantic seaboard was the most densely settled area of the new nation. The cities of New York and Philadelphia were located in this region. And in those days, Philadelphia was larger than New York. Pennsylvania had more people than the state of New York, too. Since Philadelphia and New York were the largest cities of the new nation, they were also the centers of greatest wealth. The financial lead these cities had in the early days has lasted and has been of great importance.

From the early days, the Middle Atlantic seaboard has been in closer touch with the West than either New England or the South has been. This is due to the fact that there were better ways of reaching the West through the Middle Atlantic States than there were from either New England or the south-Atlantic states. The Middle Atlantic States were particularly close to those parts of the West that lay near the Great Lakes and near the Ohio River. Direct routes of travel linked both of those parts of the West with the Middle Atlantic States.

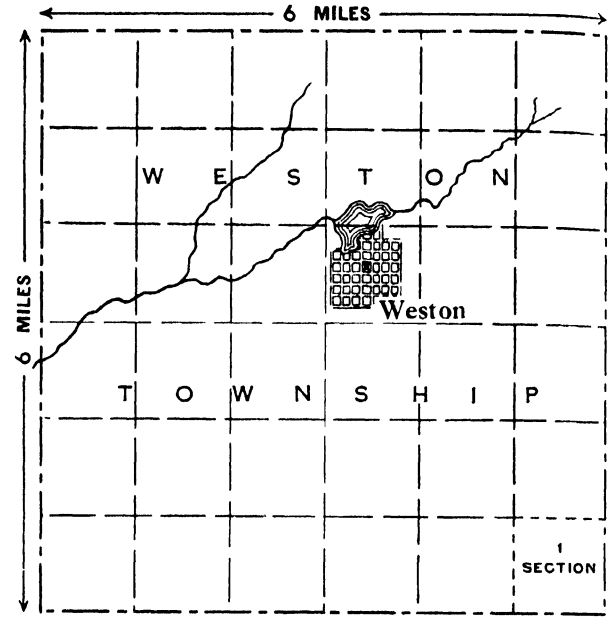
The back country and its connecting links. In the early days settlers on the lands west of the Appalachians reached their destinations chiefly by means of two routes, both of which you can find on the map on page 305. There was a southern route to Kentucky, known as the Wilderness Road. This was a route through Cumberland Gap that was followed by Daniel Boone and his party of settlers. By following it, people could avoid much mountain climbing.

Farther north there was a road known as the Pennsylvania Road that linked Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Pittsburgh became the gateway to the West just as soon as the western Indians had been overcome. Pittsburgh was on the Ohio, and that waterway led to the Mississippi and so to New Orleans. The Pennsylvania Road became the chief road to the West soon after the French and Indian War. Thousands of pioneers followed it to Pittsburgh, bought their supplies, and floated down the Ohio to their new homes. In recent times the route of the Pennsylvania Road has been followed by the Lincoln Highway, and more recently still by the Pennsylvania Turnpike. The Wilderness Road, too, has been followed by modern highways. But they do not rival the Pennsylvania Turnpike in importance because they are not as direct a way across the highlands.

When the Iroquois were finally defeated during the American Revolution, the Mohawk gateway to the West was opened. But many years slipped by before a usable road was built through this low and boggy route. The Mohawk route did not become a really important way westward until 1825, when the Erie Canal was built. Then the area near the Great Lakes received a flood of settlers, and travel to Pittsburgh began to decline.

Although people could reach their destinations west of the mountains by several

routes, the roads were slow and difficult to travel on. Hauling freight over them was extremely costly. Crops raised west of the mountains could not be marketed cheaply in the East. Transporting them cost far too much. The normal cheap way of sending western crops to market was by way of the rivers. Flatboats could float down the Ohio to the Mississippi, and on down that river to New Orleans. Unfortunately for the West, though, New Orleans didn't belong to the United States at first. The outlet of the natural transportation system of the West lay in foreign hands. Western voters began to protest. By 1800 there were two new states in the West—Kentucky and Tennessee. Shortly after that, in 1803, Ohio was admitted. These three new states sent six new senators to the Senate and several representatives to the House. The West was beginning to be heard in Congress.



A western township.

A new method of dividing the land. Just as soon as the Indians of the Ohio Valley stopped giving trouble, the United States government set about preparing the land in the valley for settlement. The land north of the Ohio River was surveyed and laid out in squares called townships. The township idea was undoubtedly copied from New England, but it was different from the New England system in several important ways. In the first place, the western townships were laid out square with the compass, whereas New England towns had irregular boundaries set at almost any angle. Furthermore, the new townships were supposed to be thirty-six square miles in area, a square piece six miles on each side. And within each township there were thirty-six pieces of land called sections. Each section was one square mile. Compare the township on this page with Newton town, page 306.

This system of squares was laid out in all territory that was not already settled. It greatly simplified land descriptions and surveying. It produced a landscape that was like a great checkerboard and farm holdings that were likely to be either square or rectangular in shape. The farmers who settled in the new townships lived on independent small farms. They did not live in villages, as the farmers in New England did. Nor was the township governed by a town meeting, as it was in New England. Several townships together usually became a county, with a county seat as the governing center. For this reason, the counties of the areas surveyed in this manner are often squares or rectangles, too.

Expanding United States

When the United States won its independence from Britain, France had already turned over its remaining territory in North America to Spain. This was the land west of the Mississippi called Louisiana. So Spain not only blocked American expansion to the west, but controlled the outlet at New Orleans. Spain held the outlet to the Mississippi, and Britain held the outlet to the Great Lakes. There was no water route to the outside world for the American West.

Suddenly things changed. France made a second attempt to control Europe and to acquire a colonial empire. When Napoleon's

armies overran Spain, Spain gave its Mississippi Valley holdings back to France. American leaders were alarmed. Having Spain on the western frontier was bad enough, but France was worse. There was some hope of dealing with Spain. But everyone knew that Napoleon was ambitious. If another French empire were to be established in North America, things might become very dangerous for the United States.

Louisiana. Fortunately for the United States, a number of things happened which prevented Napoleon from trying to set up a neighboring empire. Napoleon intended to use the French part of the island of Hispaniola (Haiti) as a base from which to build a second French empire in North America. The Negro slaves of Haiti had revolted, and it was necessary first to settle the revolt before the base would be safe and useful. But Napoleon thought he'd have no difficulty doing that. He dispatched a strong army to Haiti. The first surprise came when the Negroes did not give in at once, but put up a stubborn fight. The second upset came when most of Napoleon's men died of yellow fever.

While that was happening, the British were giving Napoleon trouble in Europe and on the sea. Napoleon was feeling discouraged about colonies when the American diplomats arrived to ask whether they might buy New Orleans. By that time Napoleon was saying, "New Orleans! Why not all Louisiana?" So the diplomats who went to buy New Orleans came home after having bought not only New Orleans but all of Louisiana as well.

Louisiana at the time included all of the French land west of the Mississippi. No one knew just where the boundaries were. Presumably Louisiana was all of the land drained by the western tributaries of the Mississippi. It was a huge piece of land, as large as the area already belonging to the United States. For $15,000,000 the United States doubled its area and secured an outlet to the sea for the Mississippi Valley settlers.

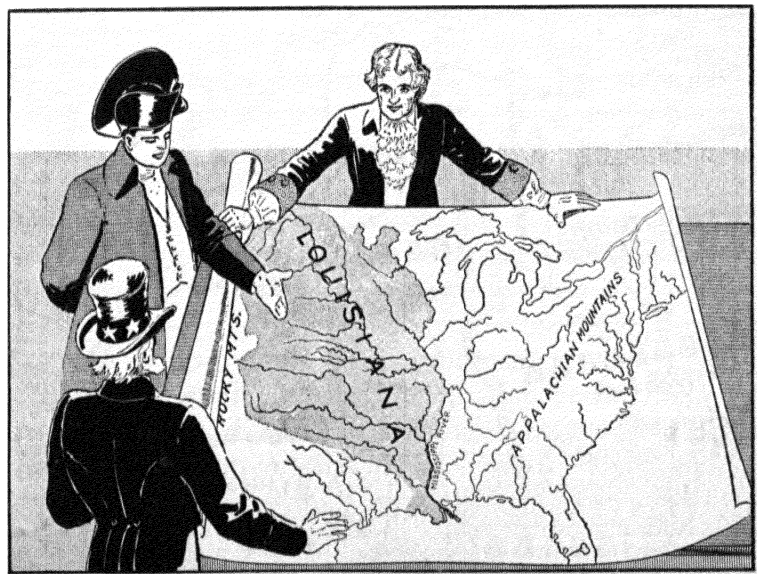
The purchase of Louisiana gave Americans an added interest in the West. The interest was not only in the West that lay beyond the Appalachians but also in the West that lay beyond the Mississippi. It paved the way, too, for an interest in the West that lay beyond the Rockies.

So the United States owes its possession of Louisiana to some mosquitoes. Had Napoleon's soldiers not been bitten by mosquitoes carrying yellow fever, they might have put down the revolt of the Haitians. A strong French Caribbean base might have been established. From that base the French might have created a second colonial empire in North America. In that event the United States might have lost the land west of the Appalachians to the French, who had once claimed it.

Fixing the boundaries. The Louisiana Purchase was made in 1803, but it was many years before the boundaries of Louisiana were set. Surveyed lines, instead of stream divides, were used as places to put the boundary lines of the new land. The forty-ninth

Uncle Sam's biggest bargain. The boundaries of Louisiana were later fixed as shown on the map on page 314.

From Dorf: Visualized American History; *Oxford Book Co.*



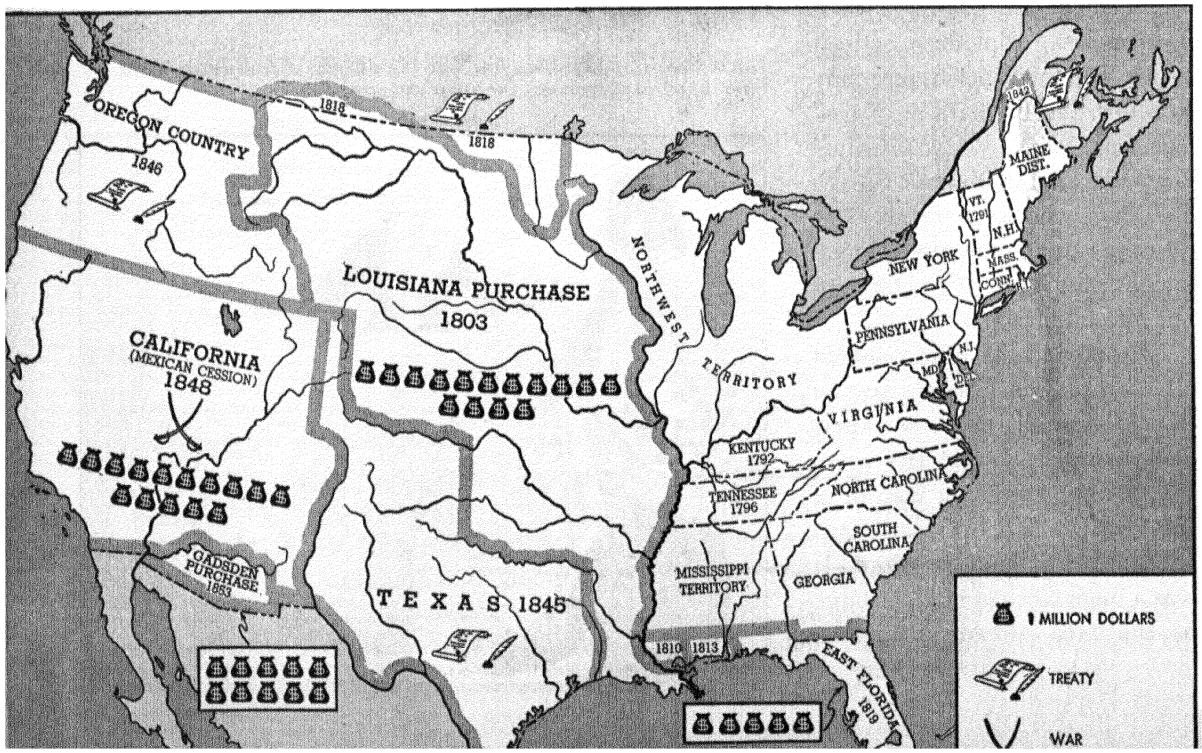
parallel of latitude was chosen as the northern boundary of the United States from northern Minnesota to the Rockies. Locating the boundary at the forty-ninth parallel means that a part of the Prairie Provinces of Canada drains to the Mississippi, and parts of Minnesota and North Dakota drain to Hudson Bay. The United States got the best of the bargain. It received most of the Red River Valley, now a famous wheatland.

The continental divide in the Rockies was considered to be the western boundary of Louisiana. Farther south the boundary between Mexico and the United States was made up of a series of river courses connected by straight lines. The old western boundary of Louisiana, where it followed the continental divide, doesn't appear as a part of any of the present state boundary lines. But the boundary between Mexico and the United States as it was in 1818 shows up in the northeastern boundary of Texas.

While the United States was settling its Louisiana boundary problems, it also managed to acquire the Gulf coast. Florida, as this coastal area was called, had been Spanish territory until the middle of the eighteenth century. Then the British held it until the end of the American Revolution, when it was returned to Spain. If you will look at the map on page 322, you will notice that both Mississippi and Alabama extend to the Gulf of Mexico. This was not true originally. Florida extended westward until it reached Louisiana. Both Alabama and Mississippi were blocked from the sea. So when the Louisiana boundary was being settled with Spain in 1819, the United States succeeded in getting Spain to yield its claim to West Florida and to sell Florida proper as well. In this way the Gulf coast of the United States was acquired all the way from New Orleans to and including Florida.

By this time the Westward Movement was two hundred years old. It had reached the Mississippi, crossed that river, and was already well on its way to the Pacific coast. People were beginning to push beyond the boundaries of the United States. Already, in 1819, there were Americans in Texas. Soon there were Americans in California, living under Mexican rule, and in Oregon,

The United States not including Alaska and Hawaii and how it grew.



disputing the land with the British. In the South, Spain's empire was crumbling away rapidly. Some Americans felt that much of Spain's North American empire might fall to them. No one knew who would eventually own the Northwest, but the United States and Great Britain had agreed to a joint ownership until the matter could be decided.

Things were happening so rapidly that some Americans came to the conclusion that the United States was destined to reach the Pacific coast. These Americans spoke of Manifest Destiny. The word manifest means obvious, or plain to be seen, so "Manifest Destiny" means obvious destiny. These Americans thought it was plain to be seen that the United States was to reach from coast to coast. The trouble with a term like "Manifest Destiny" is that there may be no logical place to bring such an idea of expansion to an end. Having reached the coast, why not the islands beyond? Expansion according to this idea could go on and on.

The "Roaring Forties." So the United States came to a period in its history that has since been called the Roaring Forties. These were the eighteen forties—the forties of a century ago. During that decade the nation acquired the land necessary to round out its present form. Let's see how it came about.

You remember from looking at the map on page 107 how much territory Spain once held in North America. A large chunk of that territory had been lopped off when Napoleon seized Louisiana and then sold it to the United States. Another chunk was about to go. It was land only thinly settled under Spanish rule. A number of missions had been established there to bring religion and better ways to the Indians. There were a few ranches that belonged to pioneer settlers from Mexico. A scattering of people lived in southern and coastal California and in a few other areas eastward across Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas. But most of the vast area was empty except for the Indians. Many Americans had migrated into Spanish land in California and Texas. Some people got grants of land from Mexico City and agreed to settle down as the subjects of Spain. Others just went, looking for any opportunities that might show up. In any case, Mexico City was so far away that direct control was impossible. To make matters more complicated, Mexico revolted from Spain in 1810 and became a separate country in 1822.

At first the young country was very weak and torn with political trouble. The government was not strong even at Mexico City, and it was not able to govern its outlying possessions and tie them closely to the capital. It is not surprising that the settlers grew impatient with control from Mexico City, especially since many of them were originally from the United States. Some of these American settlers probably hoped all along that California and Texas might eventually join the United States. The first step was to break away from Mexico. This Texas did in 1836, declaring itself an independent republic. California followed suit ten years later.

In the meantime, settlement within the United States had been making great strides. As fast as new land was acquired, it was divided into pieces called Territories of the United States. When enough people had settled in these territories, new states were formed and admitted to the Union. Ohio entered the Union the same year the Louisiana Purchase was made—in 1803. The state of Louisiana came into the Union only nine years later. Then Indiana, Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, and Missouri were added in rapid succession, one a year, beginning in 1816. By 1821 there were twenty-four states, and so the American flag had twenty-four stars. Eleven new ones had been added to the original thirteen.

By the time of the Roaring Forties every state east of the Mississippi except Florida, Wisconsin, and West Virginia had been taken into the Union. West Virginia was, of

course, still a part of Virginia and did not become a state until the War between the States. In addition to the states east of the Mississippi, there were three states west of the Mississippi. These states were Missouri, Arkansas, and Louisiana. Texas was waiting for admission.

The Year of Decision. Almost midway in the forties—in 1846—so many important matters had to be decided by Americans that the historian, Bernard DeVoto, has called 1846 the Year of Decision. The United States was faced with the possibility of fighting two wars at once, one with Mexico and one with Britain. Texas had been admitted to the Union during the last few days of 1845. There was a probability of war with Mexico on that account. Also, there was a large group of Americans who wanted all of the Pacific Northwest as far north as southern Alaska. Their motto was "Fifty-Four Forty or Fight." They were referring to a parallel of latitude, 54° 40′, north of the equator. That was the latitude of the southern end of Alaska, and some Americans thought the western boundaries of the United States should extend northward as far as Alaska—now our forty-ninth state. Then it was Russian territory, for the United States did not buy it until later, in 1867.

To fight a war with Mexico and Great Britain at the same time seemed a very dangerous thing to do. So the United States decided to compromise with Great Britain and to fight the war with Mexico. Great Britain and the United States agreed upon the forty-ninth parallel as the boundary between their territories. You remember that it had already been used as the northern boundary of Louisiana. So it was extended across the mountains to the Pacific. In that way the land that later became the states of Washington, Oregon, and Idaho was acquired. There were a few pieces left over that went to Montana and Wyoming. Great Britain held the land that we know today as British Columbia. And Canada, which fell heir to all the British territory north of the United States, acquired a Pacific coast.

The United States quickly won the war with Mexico. Mexico ceded half a million square miles to the United States in addition to losing Texas. From that large block of land the present states of California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, and New Mexico were formed. The United States had offered to buy the area from Mexico originally. So after the war was over, in hope of restoring good feelings, the United States gave Mexico $15,000,000 for the land that had been taken by force.

But the southern boundary of the United States was still incomplete. There was a small piece along the southern border that Americans wanted. This piece contained the best route to the Pacific Southwest. Just to the north of the present international boundary between Mexico and the United States, the mile-high Colorado Plateau comes to an end in a series of steep cliffs. South of the cliffs the land is several thousand feet lower in elevation than it is to the north. It was this lower land that was so important as a route to southern California. But the original treaty with Mexico drew the boundary in such a way that the lowland route would be in Mexico. The Gadsden Purchase of 1853 added this very strategic piece of land to the southwestern United States. The Southern Pacific Railroad uses the route through this lowland to Los Angeles. There is an important highway in this area, too. The Gadsden Purchase added another $10,000,000 to the cost of the Southwest, but it was well worth it to the United States. The map on page 314 shows you the land the United States secured from Mexico.

So the United States grew. During the time of its growth there were three periods of expansion, and the blocks of land acquired each time were nearly equal in area. The original piece acquired from Great Britain was a little less than a million square miles in size. The Louisiana Purchase brought nearly a million square miles more. Finally,

the land that was acquired during the Roaring Forties was larger than any previous piece. It was large enough to bring the total number of square miles acquired to three million. Three million square miles is a nice round figure to remember. That was enough land to make the United States rank fifth in size among the continental powers of the world. The Soviet Union, Canada, China, and Brazil are larger.

Welding the United States Together

It was all very well to acquire three million square miles of land, but how was it going to be held together? There were many intelligent people who shook their heads and said that it couldn't be done. And for a time before and during the War between the States, it looked as if the United States might indeed break up. But the danger is now well passed. Let's look back and see how the welding was done.

Welding the people together. Nations may be welded together in many ways. One of the easiest ways is for it to have a group of citizens with common ancestry and common ways of doing things. But this was not entirely the case with the United States. Many different people came to America, and three different races are found there. The Mongoloids are represented by two groups—the original Indian group and a group of Orientals that appeared much later. These last people came largely by way of the Pacific Coast States. The Negroids are represented by the descendants of the Negro slaves who were brought from Africa long ago. The Caucasoids, the third racial group, came from Europe. They migrated to America in such numbers that they and their descendants made up the largest group.

Although Americans are really a mixture of three races, 90 percent of the people are Caucasoids who came from Europe. That is very different from the situation in Latin America. Only a few Latin American countries have as high a proportion of white citizens as the United States has. Since so many Americans are of European ancestry, the United States is largely European in its culture.

Having European ancestry does not guarantee peace and harmony, though. Look at Europe! It is one of the most highly divided areas of the world politically. How did the United States avoid the numerous languages, the religious differences, and the many small political units that are found in Europe?

For one thing, many of the early settlers came from the British Isles. They spoke English, so English became the main language of the United States. There were Dutch, German, Swiss, and French settlers at an early date, too, but they were snowed under by the British. Books were written in English, schools were taught in English, and English became the language of business and government. Everyone had to learn to speak English to some extent if he wanted to be understood by other Americans. Today there are more English-speaking people in the United States than in all the countries of the Commonwealth.

Although most people in the United States speak the same language, they do not all have the same religion. There are a great many religious faiths in the United States, and there has been and still is some trouble between people over religion. But the Constitution of the United States guarantees freedom to all religious groups and at the same time permits no religious group to control political affairs. The trouble caused by religious differences has wrecked many a nation before now. The Constitution of the United States has protected the nation because it protects the religious freedom of its people.

Another thing that helped to bind the people of the United States together was land. There was much public land in the United States that belonged to the federal government, not to any one state or to any

one section or person. Each new piece of land was turned over to the United States government to administer. Anyone who wanted land could get it cheaply from the government. The fact that the United States held vast acreages of western land made the national government more powerful.

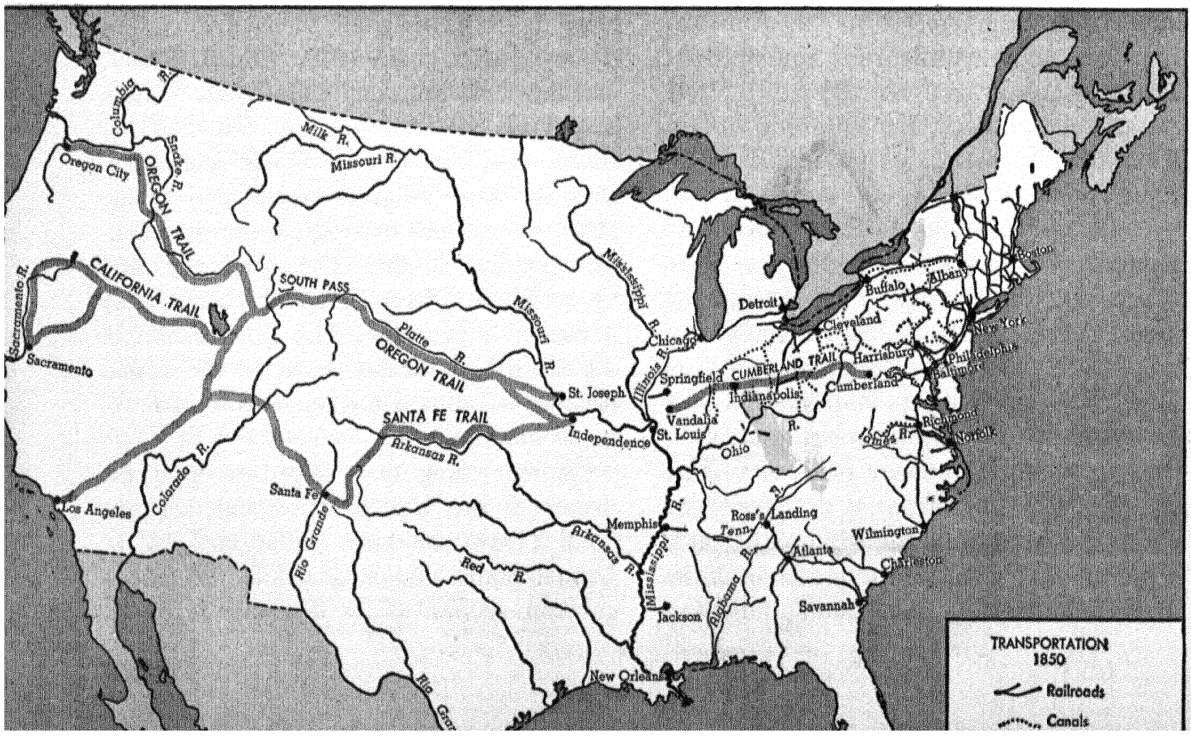
It is true that the United States nearly split apart over slavery. The South wanted to have as much as possible of the western land made available for settlers who had slaves. The North wanted to have as much land as possible remain free of slavery. The matter was not settled until the North and the South fought a war. But after it came through that difficult time, the union of the United States was never again in danger of breaking up.

Tying the land together. One of the most important means of holding a country together is a good transportation system. Examine the map on this page. It shows the kinds of transportation people in the United States could use in 1850. The Roaring Forties had been mainly years of water transportation. People who traveled on land had to walk or use horses. Railroads had just been introduced. There were only short, disconnected rail lines here and there. No railroad yet linked the Atlantic seaboard with the Middle West. A railroad's chief use in the forties was to help travelers or goods reach a waterway, or to connect two waterways. Water transportation was the only way of moving bulky things cheaply. The automobile had not been invented, and air travel was only a dream.

There were three kinds of waterways. There were canals, natural streams and lakes, and the ocean. The ocean made it possible for coastal areas to keep in touch with one another. The United States had many miles of coast line. But the Pacific coast could be reached only by rounding the Horn— the long and hazardous trip around South America. The inland waterways did a fair job of holding the eastern United States together.

Two natural waterways were particularly important during the forties. They were the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River. The Mississippi River with its many spreading

A map maker can show all the means of transportation in the United States in 1850 on one map more easily than he can show the railroads alone in 1950. Look at the map on page 320.



tributaries carried produce from most of inland United States south to New Orleans. From New Orleans, sailing vessels carried the produce to world markets. But the river was not a satisfactory way to ship things north in return. The return trip had to be made against the current. The problem of going against the current was overcome when steamboats appeared on the western rivers. Steamboats could carry things both ways.

Until the Erie Canal was built, Americans could not use the Great Lakes to reach the outside world. The Great Lakes could be used for travel only between those parts of the Middle West that happened to be near the lakes. But after the Erie Canal was opened in 1825, goods could be shipped cheaply all the way from the city of New York to Chicago. It was the only all-water route from the American Atlantic seaboard to the Middle West. Even then the trip could not be made without frequently changing the goods from steamers to canal boats and then back again to steamers.

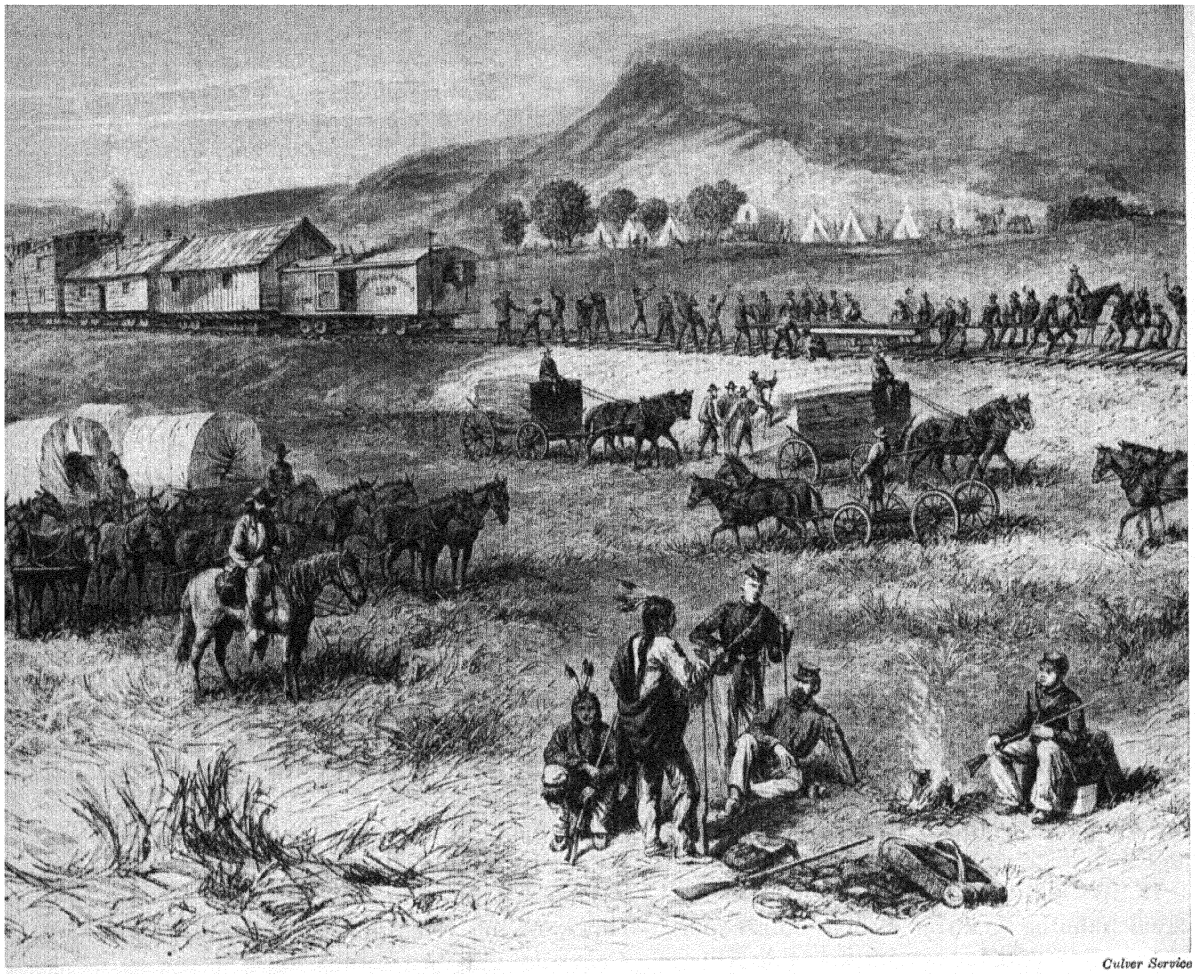
In the eighteen forties a great deal of canal building went on. People built canals to link the Great Lakes with the Ohio River, and those canals helped to complete the network of waterways in the Middle West. Canals were built running parallel to most of the major streams of the Atlantic slope—the Connecticut, the Delaware, the Schuylkill, the Susquehanna, the Potomac, and the James rivers. Those canals allowed people to use cheap water transportation to reach far inland.

In the eighteen forties there were a few roads that linked the poorly settled West to the better-settled East. You may remember that by 1790 some roads had crossed the Appalachians to link the Atlantic seaboard with the upper Mississippi Valley. By 1840 the pioneer trails had crossed the plains and the Rocky Mountains to connect the Mississippi Valley with the Pacific coast. The two chief western roads of the forties were the Oregon trail and the Santa Fe trail. Both began at Independence, Missouri, where the Missouri River changes from a southerly course to an easterly one. You can follow on the map on the opposite page the courses of the trails as they are described in the paragraphs below.

The Oregon trail followed the general course of the Platte River as far as central Wyoming. There the trail crossed the continental divide at the opening in the mountains called South Pass. After crossing the Rockies and reaching southeastern Idaho, the trail divided. One branch turned northwestward—toward the Columbia River and the Oregon country. The other branch bore southwestward—toward California. The branch of the trail leading to California crossed the Sierra Nevada by way of a pass near Lake Tahoe. That lake is located at the point where California's eastern border makes a turn. The route of the trail to California is now followed by the Union Pacific Railroad.

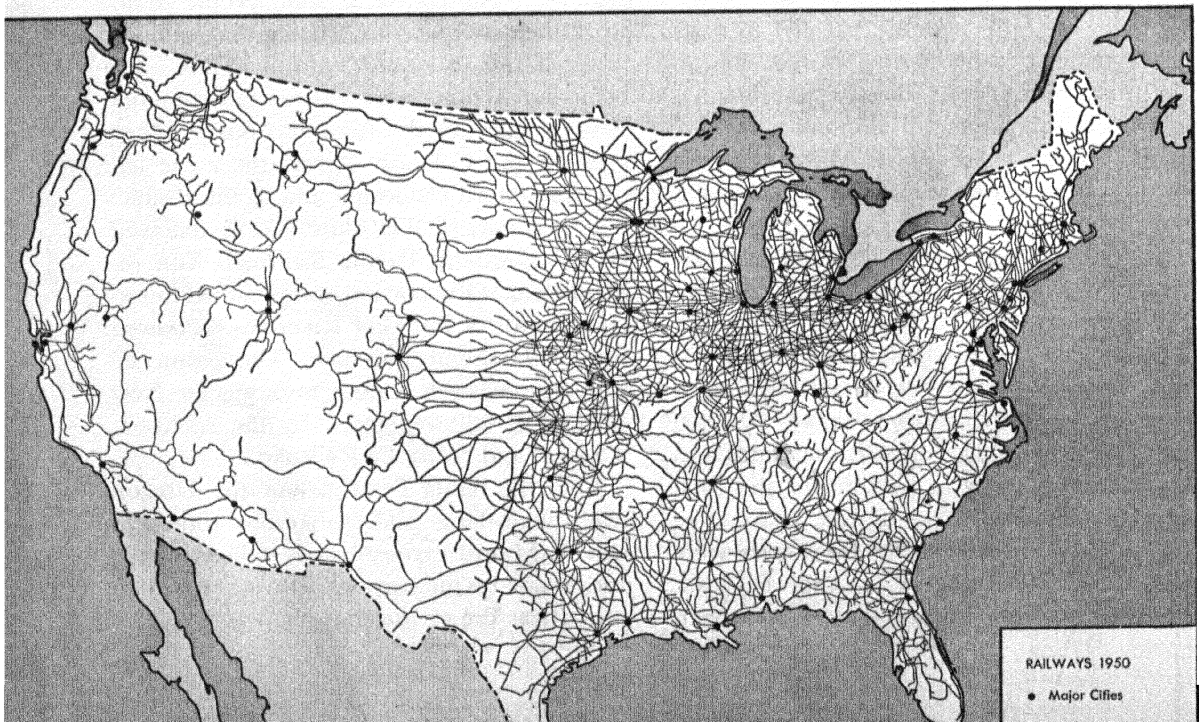
The Santa Fe trail upon leaving Independence struck out across the plains to the Arkansas River. The trail then followed the course of this river to what is now eastern Colorado and then turned south to the settlement of Santa Fe. The trail ended at Santa Fe, but from that point people could work their way west by skirting the southern edge of the Colorado Plateau. Then they could follow another trail through the Gila River Valley to the Colorado River. After crossing the Colorado River, the route led on to southern California and to the Pacific. The last part of this route is now followed by the Southern Pacific Railroad. You remember that the portion of the United States lying south of the Gila River was acquired by the Gadsden Purchase. The Santa Fe trail from eastern Kansas to Santa Fe, New Mexico, is followed today by the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe Railroad.

Both the Santa Fe trail and the Oregon trail were long and dangerous routes to travel. Many travelers died—killed by the Indians or by the weather. It was a question which was the greater danger.



Culver Service

People like these worked and struggled to build the railroads of the United States. Below is the result.



The coming of the railroads. More than anything else, it was the railroads that really tied the United States together. People built the first railroads in the East, where they served to connect important waterways or to link near-by cities. But by the eighteen fifties railroads were crossing the Appalachians. By the time of the War between the States, they had tied all of the Middle West to the Atlantic seaboard. They had also linked parts of the South. Just after the war, the first railroad was built across the continent, being completed in 1869, the same year the Suez Canal was opened. That was an important year.

During the next fifty years the railroads went on tying the country together. Several more lines were built across the continent. It became possible to reach the Pacific coast by seven different transcontinental rail lines. The eastern part of the country was served by a network of railroads. Compare the number of railroads shown on the map on page 320 with the number shown on the map on page 318. Today there are few places in the eastern half of the United States that are more than ten miles from a railroad. Railroads helped to develop the agriculture, lumbering, and mining industries of the country. The rail lines were like long fingers searching and seeking out the hidden resources of the nation.

Sectionalism in the United States

The sectionalism that appeared early in American history has not died out. It has continued. Sometimes it has been more important than at other times. Nearly all Americans know just about where the different political regions or sections of the United States are. They talk about the West, about the South, or about New England. But hardly anyone knows where the boundaries between those and other sections are. It is difficult to say exactly where one section stops and another begins. Take Maryland, for instance. Does it belong to the Southern or to the Middle Atlantic States? We have to admit that Maryland sometimes seems to belong to one and sometimes to the other. We say that it is a border state. In this book it is being included with the Middle Atlantic States. Missouri is another state that is hard to classify. It's a border state, too.

It is just as hard to tell the East from the West as it is to find a dividing line between the North and the South. Where does the West begin? People of the Atlantic coast still think that the West begins after one has crossed the Appalachians. But the people of the Middle West believe that the West lies somewhere west of the one hundredth meridian of longitude. State lines can seldom be used as boundary lines between sections of the country. But in discussing sectionalism it is convenient to include whole states within the sections we talk about, rather than parts of states. When we divide the sections according to state lines, we must remember that it is really just a convenient way of doing it, not an exact way. Different people group the states in sections in different ways. Nobody can say that one way is right and another way wrong. The map on the next page shows how they are grouped in this book.

New England. One of the best-known political regions of the United States is New England. Almost everyone can name the six New England States, though some may have trouble with Vermont and New Hampshire if they try to give their exact location. New England is small as compared with other sections of the United States, but its influence has been great, largely because it has been both a financial center and a leader in education.

You may recall that we spoke of and described two quite different colonial New Englands. We said that there was inland New England—mostly interested in rural and local affairs. There was also coastal New England—interested in shipbuilding,

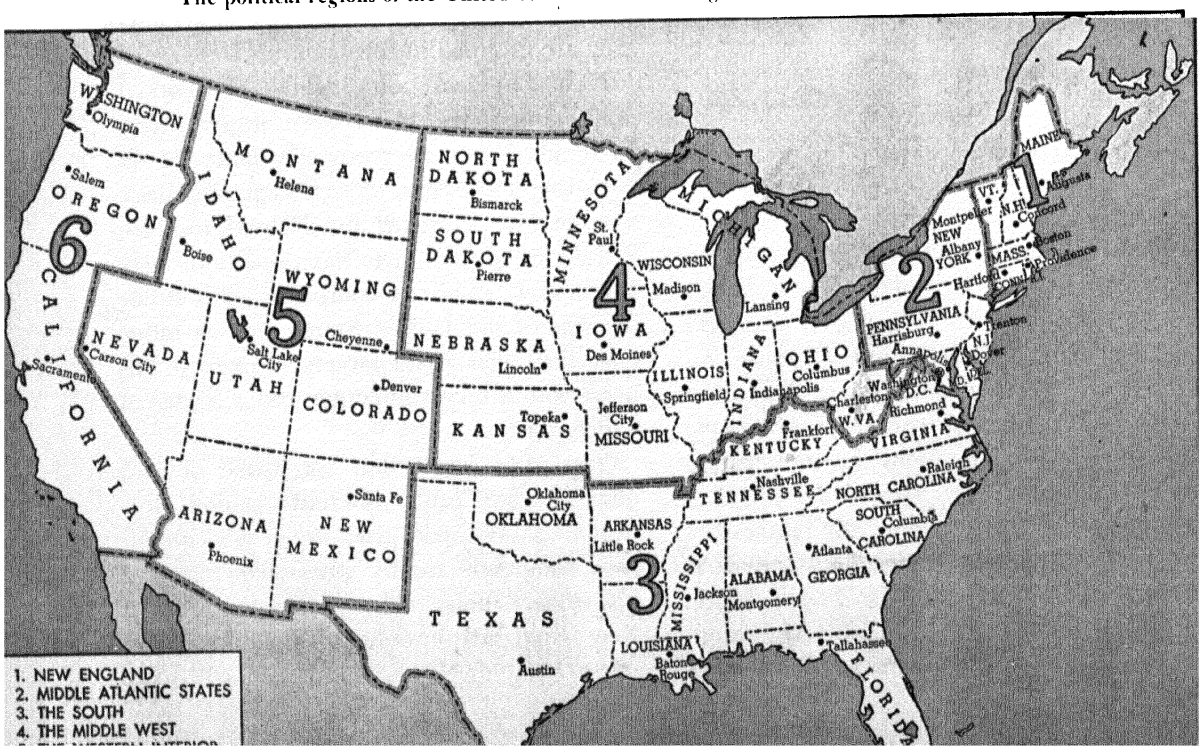
fishing, and whaling. Coastal New England made a great deal of money with its maritime activities. Some of this money was invested in a new line—manufacturing.

The Industrial Revolution had just got well under way at the time of the American Revolution. As soon as the new nation was established, manufacturing began to grow, slowly at first, and then by leaps and bounds. New England had several advantages for manufacturing. There were many little waterfalls that could be used to turn wheels to run machinery. There was money to be invested. And there were people to do the work. Those three things made a winning combination. New England soon became the industrial workshop of America. The fact that many of the raw materials—all of the cotton and many of the metals—had to be imported was not a great handicap. New England cities prospered.

Rural New England, on the other hand, did not prosper. As soon as the good agricultural lands of the Middle West were well settled, middle western farmers began to pour their grain and cattle into the East by way of canals and railroads. New England farmers could no longer compete with them. They did manage to carry on in a few of the more favorable areas. But many a New England farmer sold out to move west. Or perhaps he remained in New England, and his sons and daughters went west. Some of these people did not go very far; they moved into the neighboring industrial towns to work in factories. More and more New England farm land was abandoned. Fields gradually grew back into woodland. Today, although southern New England is one of the most densely peopled areas in the world, it is quite largely covered with trees.

In spite of the fact that many New Englanders went west, the population of New England did not decline. The growing industries required many workers. Part of those workers were drawn from the thousands of immigrants who came to the United States during the nineteenth century. Many French Canadians came from Quebec and the Maritime Provinces to New England. The Irish came in such numbers that they eventually formed a majority of the voters in some

The political regions of the United States—not including Alaska and Hawaii.



communities. There were Swedes, Italians, Poles, and Finns, and there were many others. So many of the newcomers were Catholics that often the industrial towns changed from being mostly Protestant to being mostly Roman Catholic. New churches were built, parochial schools appeared, and with them came a number of political problems based upon religious differences.

We have already said that the farmers of New England had their troubles. New England manufacturers did, too. As time went on, manufacturing could no longer be carried on chiefly by power from small waterfalls. Steam produced by burning coal became the leading and cheapest source of power. When hydroelectricity was introduced, only large power sites were useful. Small waterfalls could not produce enough power to keep a large plant going. New England had no coal and only a few large hydroelectric sites. For this reason New England manufacturers found themselves competing with manufacturers in other parts of the United States who had cheaper and better fuel.

Let's consider what happened to the textile industry in New England. New England had long been a leader in the cotton-textile industry. The textile mills and the textile workers were located in New England, but cotton and coal had to be brought in. Finally the South awoke to the fact that it had cotton and coal and cheap hydroelectric power. Furthermore, it had many workers who, though unskilled in textile manufacturing, could certainly learn the skills needed. All the South really lacked was the textile mills. A few were built, some of them by New England industrialists who had made their money by manufacturing in New England. Gradually the South began to outdo New England in the manufacture of cotton textiles, and mill after mill in New England closed down. Slowly but surely the cotton-textile industry has been moving to the Southern States. In New England many a deserted textile mill, with crumbling brickwork and blank windows, stares silently at the unused stream that formerly turned its wheels.

Although hard times have come to some New England towns, nobody should think that New England is through as an industrial region. The cost of living is high in New England because so much of the food and fuel must be imported from other areas. But many New England towns are still busy and prosperous. New England manufacturers learned to specialize in making things that require highly skilled labor and for which little raw material is needed—things like machine tools, jewelry, watches, and fine textiles. Among its hills and along its rocky coast are many busy communities that manufacture one or another of the thousands of things needed in the complicated American industrial society. New England still has more wealth in proportion to population than is the average for the United States. New England still is an important manufacturing region. Its key city, Boston, is one of the largest American cities.

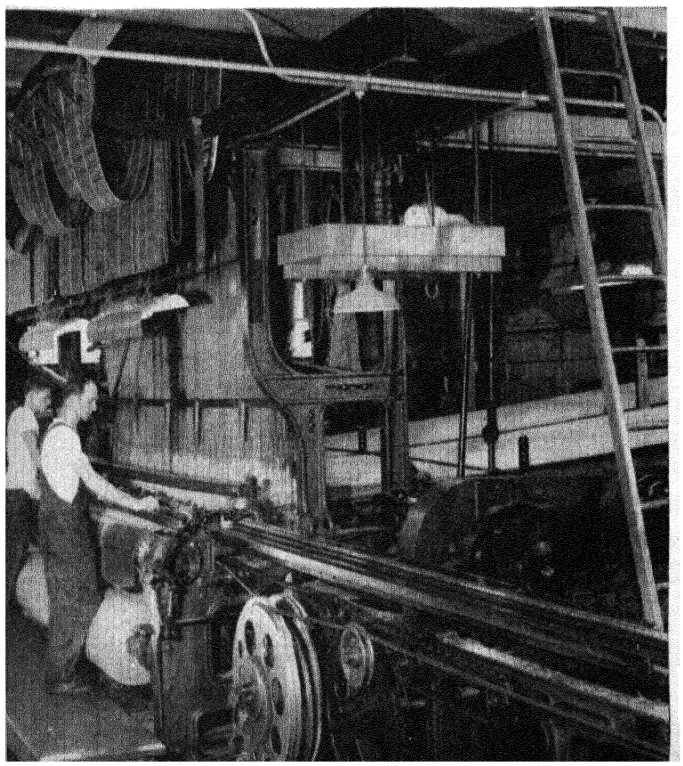
From the time that the United States was formed, New England has taken a fairly definite stand in political affairs. This has been due in part to the geography of the region. Although many New Englanders went west, New England as a whole did not back the United States in its efforts to acquire more land from other countries. It did not seem worth while to New Englanders to risk going to war to get something which would be of no direct use to New England. Many New Englanders were opposed to purchasing Louisiana. The War of 1812, which was fought partly with the idea of settling the boundary dispute over the land west of the Appalachians and partly in hope of gaining some Canadian land, was not a popular war in New England. Nor did New Englanders want to fight the war with Mexico in order to acquire land in the Southwest. New Englanders also opposed the annexation of Texas, because they did not want the South to be strengthened by the addition of another slave state.

But New England has not always opposed the annexation of land by the United States. New England missionaries and shippers caused Americans to be interested in the Hawaiian Islands, and they did much to secure Hawaii for the United States. New England shippers were also interested in the trade with China—and in the Orient in general. They wanted the United States to take an active part in dealing with matters of trade in the Pacific Ocean area.

Since New England has mainly been concerned with manufacturing, its senators and representatives in the United States Congress have naturally favored tariffs that would protect American manufactured products. They have not been so interested in laws intended to protect American farmers. Such measures only result in higher food costs in New England, or make it necessary to pay more for raw cotton. Either of these higher costs makes manufacturing more expensive, so it is not to be expected that New England's representatives in Congress would vote for measures helping to protect most farm products. They do favor a tariff on wool and woolen goods, however, for some New England farmers raise sheep and many New England mills make woolen cloth. In such ways as these sectionalism shows up in politics.

New Englanders with factories like this have favored tariffs on rival products shipped in from abroad.

Ewing Galloway



New England's influence in Congress has grown less and less. That is normal and to be expected. For as the country has grown larger and more populous, New England has made up a smaller part of it. Each new state that was added to the Union cut down the political strength of the older states in Congress. New England senators made up nearly one-third of the Senate when the country was first formed. They make up only one-eighth of the Senate today. There has been a similar reduction of power in the House of Representatives. New England's share of the total population has fallen from approximately one-fourth to only one-sixteenth. Of course you know that the number of representatives is based upon the population.

New England would be greatly outvoted in Congress today if it were not for the fact that some of its problems are shared by other regions. Sometimes senators and representatives from one region of the United States unite to vote for measures that are wanted by another region. And the senators and representatives of the other region then return the kindness. This is called logrolling. It is sometimes a good and useful way of getting things done. But logrolling can be carried too far. It can go so far that the welfare of the people may be forgotten.

The Middle Atlantic States. The Middle Atlantic States form the keystone of the long arch made by the Atlantic-seaboard states. Pennsylvania, in fact, is called the Keystone State. But the name might equally well be applied to the whole group of Middle Atlantic States. There are five of them—New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, and Delaware.

This small region, only a little larger than New England, is the key area of the

United States. At its northern edge lies New York, largest of American cities and greatest port. At the southern edge of the region lies Washington, the nation's capital. Between them is a busy, populous region tied together by a complicated transportation system. The distance between New York and Washington is only two hundred miles as the crow flies, but the irregular coast line is much longer. There are spacious harbors where ships may anchor and be protected from the winds of the open Atlantic. There are a number of places where good ports have been developed. A good port is a place where sea travel meets land travel easily. The Middle Atlantic States have a number of good ports—New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore among them.

The location of the Middle Atlantic States has always been an advantage to them. We have already compared the embayments along the Atlantic seaboard to bites in a sandwich. These Middle Atlantic States lie in the middle bite of the sandwich. Not only that, but they lie in a position that gives them better connections with the Middle West than any other part of the Atlantic seaboard has. New England has been blocked from the Middle West by the highlands that lie east of the Hudson River. The Appalachian highland cuts off the southern-Atlantic states. But the people who live in the Middle Atlantic States have always been able to reach the Middle West by using the roads that crossed the highlands to the Ohio River. Or they could use the Hudson-Mohawk route to reach the part of the Middle West that borders the Great Lakes.

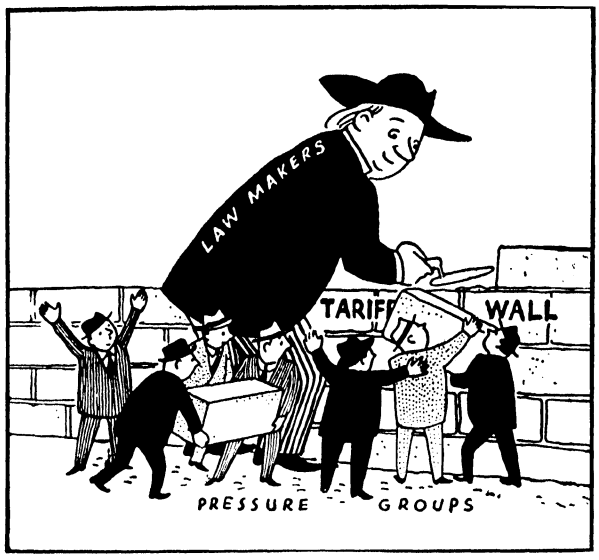
Like New England, the Middle Atlantic States developed industries early. As in New England, too, the first factories used water power. But when factory owners started using steam power made by burning coal, then the Middle Atlantic States had a great advantage which New England didn't have. Pennsylvania had and still has tremendous supplies of coal. Pennsylvania still mines more coal than any other state in the Union. Coal is an especially useful fuel, for it can be used to manufacture steam power or it can be used to make electricity or gas. Of course it is also valuable for its carbon content, which is used in manufacturing steel.

Manufacturing in the Middle Atlantic States did not depend upon coal alone. In the early days there were also many metals available. Iron, lead, copper, and zinc were all mined and used in various ways. Even as late as 1870 most of the iron mined in the United States came from the Middle Atlantic States. Those four metals made the Middle Atlantic States a center of heavy industry. The early iron furnaces that burned charcoal were replaced by furnaces using anthracite, or hard coal, for fuel. They gave way to furnaces using coke made from bituminous coal.

As the Middle Atlantic States and the United States as a whole increased in wealth and population, the city of New York became more and more important. It is now the greatest business and financial center of the country, the nation's busiest port, and its greatest manufacturing center. Hundreds of thousands of immigrants have entered the United States at New York. Since many of them found work in that city or in the neighboring industrial areas, the number of foreign-born persons there is very high.

It has often been pointed out that there are more Italians in the city of New York than there are in Rome, more Irish than there are in Dublin, and more Jews than there are in Israel. And these groups and others like them have frequently been strong enough at the polls to swing an election.

Because the Middle Atlantic States are an industrial region, their congressmen have generally been more likely to favor tariffs on manufactured goods than upon raw materials or food products. In the matter of tariffs, people of the Middle Atlantic States side with New Englanders. But because the Middle Atlantic States have had close relations with the Middle West, there has been a tendency for them to be sympathetic to



Foreign Policy Association

Congressmen of different regions combine on a job.

the needs of the Middle West. Then, too, much of the money of the Middle Atlantic States has been invested in the Middle West. For this reason, the people of the Middle Atlantic States were not so opposed to westward expansion as New Englanders were.

In 1790 a third of the members of Congress came from the Middle Atlantic States. By 1940 this proportion had dropped to less than a fifth. Today the Middle Atlantic States, like every other American region, can gain what they want in Congress only by pooling their strength with that of other regions. But this section of the United States, even more than New England, wields a mighty stick in politics because of its great wealth. It has financial control of many industries in other parts of the country. It has money invested in newspapers, magazines, and radio. These all play a large part in shaping public opinion.

The South. In the early days of the nation, the Old South, made up of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, was the most populous section of the country. For this reason the Southern States had more representatives in Congress than any other section. For years the South played a very strong part in national affairs. Many of the first presidents came from there.

The present location of the nation's capital shows the influence the South once had. One might have expected that either New York or Philadelphia would have been chosen as the capital. In fact, each of them was the capital for a time. It was decided, however, to make a new capital, and the place chosen for it was on the border between the South and the Middle Atlantic States. That place was chosen in part because the South wanted it that way.

It is a well-known fact that after the War between the States the South fell behind other sections of the United States in wealth, business, and industry. But the reasons for the South's falling behind are not entirely clear. Many northern geographers have blamed the climate, saying that the people of northern Europe lost their energy when they moved to a warmer climate. People don't believe that any more because it doesn't seem to be true. Climate can't account for the fact that the South was a leader in the United States for a long period and then lost that leadership. For a long time it was fashionable to say that the South did not have the resources necessary for its development. But that argument, too, seems weak when we think of the coal, iron, oil, natural gas, bauxite, and timber of the South, to name only a few of the southern resources.

It has also been customary to blame the War between the States. Certainly it is true that the South suffered a tremendous setback when it lost that war. Not only did the South lose wealth and men—as the North did, too—but the South suffered in another way. The South's way of making a living was completely upset.

The people of the South had always depended almost entirely on agriculture to furnish their living. Part of the work was done by slaves, and cotton was the chief crop. There were mineral resources available in the South, but southern planters did not care to invest their wealth in manufacturing and mining. It was much easier to go

on planting cotton. Cotton was in great demand. There was money to be made selling cotton. The South could have made cotton textiles, or it could have made iron and steel. It did neither, largely because raising cotton paid off so handsomely that the wealthy men of the South were not tempted to put their wealth into other lines. The South allowed the North to secure a tremendous start in industrial development.

A head start is a very valuable thing. It helped to make northern industrialists wealthy and powerful. They, in turn, did what they could to favor the industries of their own region rather than those of the South. They did not invest in southern industries to any extent until after the War between the States. Even then they did not do much to encourage southern industry.

In the future the South probably will develop industries very much as the North has. It has been making great strides in this direction in recent years. But for a long time industries in the South were slow to develop.

During the days when it was being debated whether or not to admit Texas to the Union, the South favored the expansion of United States territory. Frequently the South opposed New England over the question of expansion. But when expansion meant the addition of tropical areas such as Hawaii and the Philippines, then southern congressmen were not so enthusiastic. For those areas were rivals to the South in the production of vegetable oils and sugar. You recall how the people of New England changed their mind about territorial expansion. How the people of either section felt about expansion depended upon how it affected affairs in their particular region.

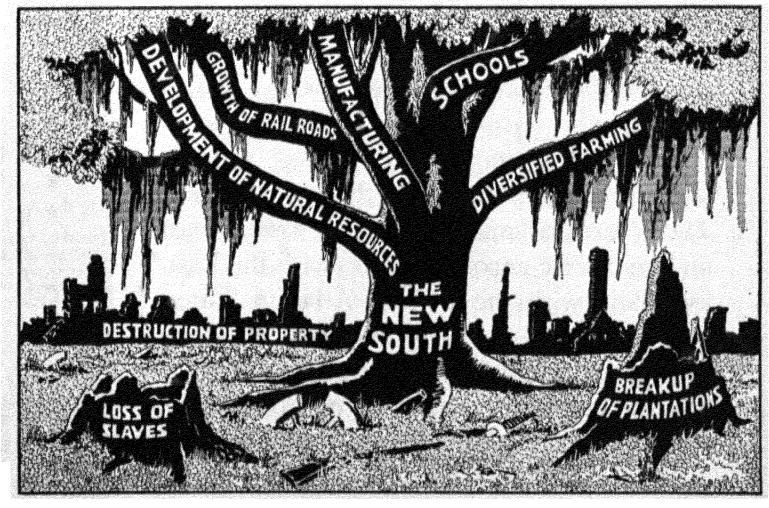
The South has changed its point of view on the matter of tariffs, too. Southerners were not in favor of tariffs to protect the young and growing industries of the North. But when southerners found out that other areas outside the United States might produce cotton more cheaply than they could, then they began to ask for protection. The South is also glad to have a tariff on sugar and one on tobacco. As we go along, we shall find that each section of the United States has a list of special tariffs that it favors. When the representatives of two or more sections agree to vote alike in Congress, these tariffs can easily be passed. Consequently, the United States has a high tariff wall about it.

Unlike New England and the Middle Atlantic States, the South has lost only a little of its weight in Congress as the years have passed. Its representation in both houses of Congress is only a little less than it was in the early days. This is, of course, because the South has grown in size and population at just about the same rate as the country itself has. Today the South's representation is a little more than one-fourth of each of the houses. It is greater than the representation of any other section of the United States. The South may have lost out to some extent economically, but it has not lost out politically.

There are so many signs in the South that better times are coming that our discussion here would not be complete without some

Branching out.

From Dorf: Visualized American History; *Oxford Book Co.*



mention of them. We've already found out that the cotton-textile industry has been moving to the South. You probably know, too, that iron and steel are made at Birmingham, Alabama. In the Tennessee Valley—land of the TVA—atomic energy, aluminum, cement, and fertilizers are produced. Many of these industries depend upon the cheap electrical energy created by the dams across the streams and the good transportation made possible by the locks at the dams.

The South is forging ahead in many other ways, too. Along the Gulf coast, from Pensacola, Florida, to Brownsville, Texas, is a new and thriving industrial area. It began to get under way before World War II, but the great demands upon industry made by the war really gave that area its great prominence. Gasoline is made from natural gas and from petroleum in the area, and there is a huge chemical industry that uses sulfur, salt, and petroleum. Shipbuilding is important, too, using iron and steel from either Birmingham or the Middle West. It is interesting that all that is happening in spite of a climate that was once considered unfavorable.

The Middle West. Two parts of the United States have interior locations—the Middle West and the Western Interior. Neither has a single mile of seacoast, but each borders Canada. The Middle West is more fortunate than the Western Interior in the matter of water transportation, however. The Middle West has both the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River. Each of these waterways has been used actively in the past and will probably have greater use in the future.

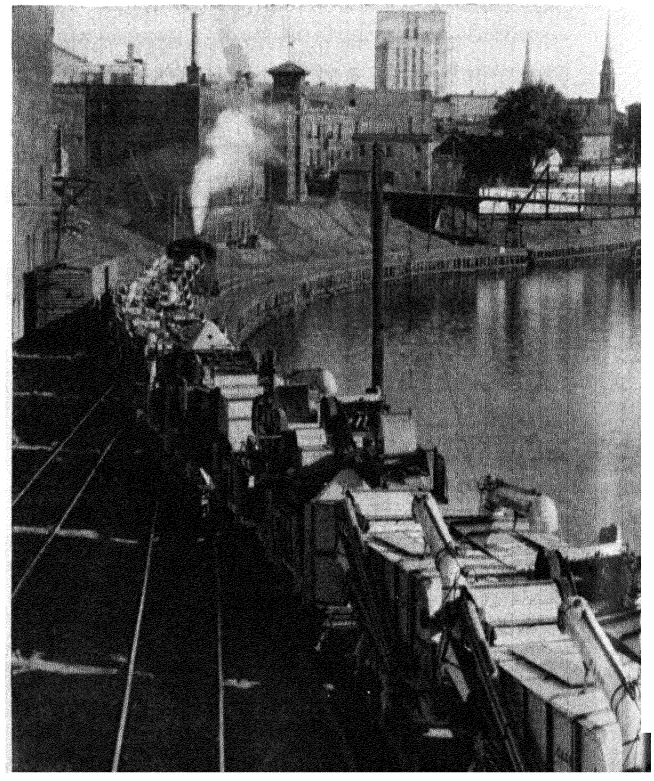
Drainage systems have played a large part in the development of the Middle West. Those streams and lakes that extend east and west have encouraged ties with the East, especially with the Middle Atlantic States. But rivers and streams that run north or south have tended to tie the region to the South. Both ties have been strong, but neither one complete. The Middle West has seemed to face first one way and then the other. Sometimes, like the ancient Roman god Janus, it faces both ways at once.

During most of American history the Middle West has faced the East more than the South. Most of the settlers came from the East, by crossing the Appalachians to the upper waters of the Ohio River and floating down that stream, or by following the Hudson-Mohawk lowland to the Great Lakes. Most of the money used to finance midwestern improvements came from the East. For years the Middle West sold its farm products in the East and bought eastern manufactured goods in return. All this trade and travel back and forth helped to tie the Middle West to the Middle Atlantic States.

But the Middle West's ties with the South have been growing stronger. As long as both the Middle West and the South were agricultural regions, there was little need for trade between the two. But when the Middle West became an industrial region, then trade with the South began to grow. You might

Farm machinery from the Middle West moves south.

Courtesy J. I. Case Company



think that as the South in turn becomes industrialized, the trade will fall off again. But this is not necessarily so. If each region makes what it can make best, and if each uses the other's products, both can prosper and trade between them can flourish. The Middle West now sends iron and steel, farm machinery, automobiles, and coal to the South—especially to that part of the South near the Mississippi. In return the South sends aluminum, chemicals, and petroleum.

Until recently the Middle West was the most rapidly growing region of the United States. The growth was not in area but in population. From a mere handful at the time of the American Revolution, the population of the Middle West has grown until it nearly equals that of the Middle Atlantic States. Midwesterners are, of course, spread over a larger area, so population density in the Middle West is not so great as it is in the Middle Atlantic States. Four of the leading ten cities of the United States are to be found in the Middle West—Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland, and St. Louis. Long ago Chicago passed Philadelphia in size and is now the second largest city of the United States.

At first people poured into the Middle West from other parts of the United States. Then they began to come from the British Isles and from other parts of northern Europe. Since 1900 people from eastern and southern Europe have been added to the group. But the Middle West has a smaller proportion of foreign-born citizens than either New England or the Middle Atlantic States have.

A central location gives midwesterners a great advantage in selling their manufactured products to other Americans. For this reason, people have prophesied a great industrial future for the Middle West. The automobile industry is almost entirely located in the Middle West. The iron and steel industry has been moving westward for some time. So has the manufacture of shoes. The Middle West has many resources to work with. It has good soil and a great deal of level land. It has an abundance of mineral resources, and its human resources are good, too. There are some midwesterners who confidently expect the Middle West to become the great industrial heart of the nation. They predict that someday Chicago will be America's first city in size, rather than its second.

In the early days, when the Middle West was still the "Far West," its people favored westward expansion. They favored the Louisiana Purchase, particularly because Louisiana included New Orleans. New Orleans was an outlet to the sea for the Middle West. Midwesterners wanted the war with Great Britain in 1812, for there were those who hoped to seize Canada during this war and so get control of the St. Lawrence River. But after the present boundaries of the United States were finally established, the Middle West quickly lost its enthusiasm for expansion. Midwesterners began to remember that President Washington, in his Farewell Address, said to avoid entangling alliances. Midwesterners became more and more opposed to having the United States take part in international affairs, especially if there was any danger of getting the country into war.

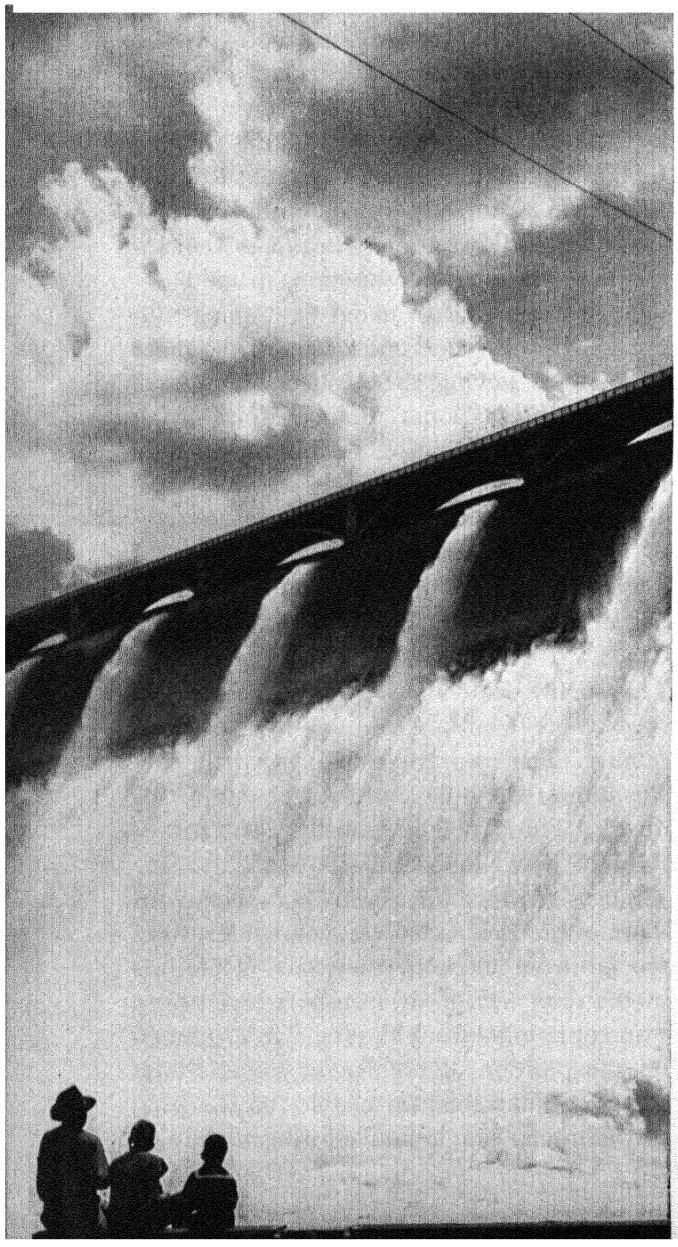
The Pacific seaboard. Some people used to say that the Pacific Coast States could never expect to be densely populated. Those people did not think that that area could expect to do much manufacturing, either. They pointed out the fact that Pacific-coast supplies of coal are limited and poor in quality. That was in the days when coal was almost the only source of power for industry. Those people—mostly easterners—showed how impossible it would be for western manufacturers to compete with those of the East. The west-coast states were too far from markets, they said. That was in the days before air transport and before transcontinental truck hauling. They summed up the position of the Pacific Coast States something like this: no people, no markets; no markets, no manufacturing; and no

manufacturing, no more people. Too bad, they said, but there wasn't much the people of the Pacific seaboard could do about it. Geography was against them.

In the meantime, the Pacific Coast States went right on growing in population. The people of that area began to make things, too. They canned fish and fruit. They got the United States government to help build some dams that furnished cheap electric power. Easterners went west and established a few industries. They made moving pictures. They discovered oil. Things in the West began to hum. Then came World War II and the need for many things that were to be used in the Pacific. The people of the west coast made airplanes, ships, and many other things. There was a real industrial boom. "Oh, well," the eastern die-hards said, "it's only temporary. Let's wait until after the war, then we'll see what's bound to happen."

Power and irrigation for Washington state—the Grand Coulee Dam on the Columbia River.

Courtesy Bureau of Reclamation



But the Pacific seaboard has kept right on going. In population it's the fastest-growing region of the United States. Ten percent of all the people of the United States lived in the three Pacific Coast States in 1949. More people lived in California alone than in all New England.

Everybody knows that it's much easier to have hindsight than foresight. Let's take a deep breath and see whether we can explain the sudden boom in the Pacific Coast States now that it has happened, or rather now that it is happening. In the first place, the Pacific seaboard—sometimes called the Far West—is no longer far. A trip that required months to make less than a hundred years ago can be made today in less than a day. Furthermore, the Pacific Ocean is becoming an even more important ocean than it was. It is continually developing as an area of trade between its surrounding nations. Japan has become an important nation. Australia and New Zealand have developed closer relations with the United States. For these reasons and many others, the United States is much more interested in Pacific affairs than ever before.

The Pacific Coast States have many real advantages that were formerly overlooked. People did not realize the tremendous value of the cheap hydroelectric power in the West and the extent to which petroleum would be used in industry. They did not know that thousands of people would migrate to the west coast just to enjoy living in a pleasant climate. Besides, few people realized that

transportation could be speeded up as much as it has been. These may be some of the reasons that help to explain why the Pacific Coast States fooled the experts and had a boom after the war in spite of what people were saying.

The Western Interior. Between the eastern half of the country and the Pacific seaboard lie the semiarid and arid plains and mountains of the West. They extend from the Canadian border to Mexico in a broad belt more than a thousand miles wide. That region is the largest section of the United States and the one least densely settled. It is the true West—a land of vast distances, small towns, and few cities.

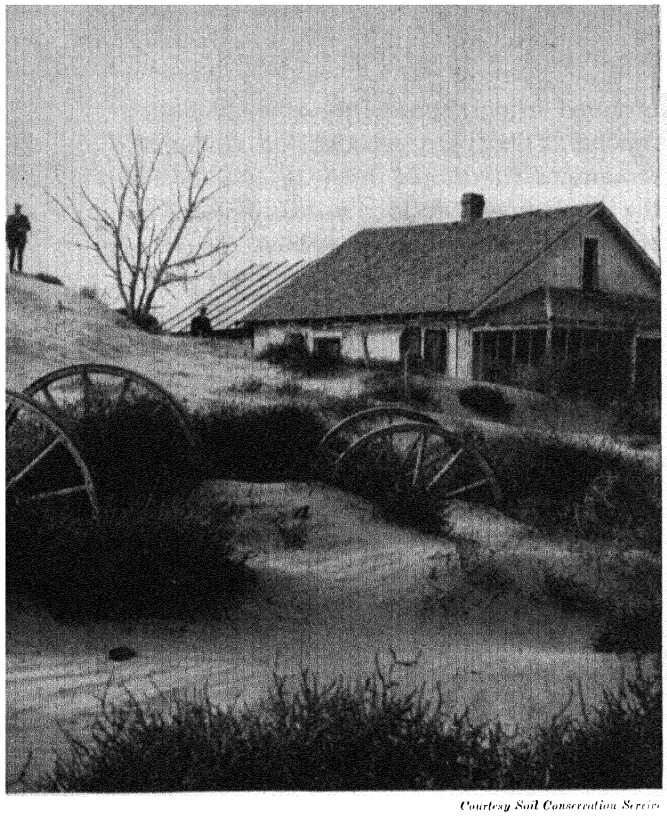
The Western Interior is the section of the United States that appeals to Americans as the North appeals to Canadians. Many a storyteller has called the West God's Country, and so it seems to tourists from the East who come to visit it. But some people have said that it should be called The Government's Country. And if you look only at the surface of things, this might seem to be true. For in addition to the Indian reservations, national parks, and forest reserves that cover vast areas in the West, there are countless other projects that the government at Washington takes a hand in. There are hundreds of irrigation projects and scores of dams that receive federal aid, at least in their beginning stages. Government agencies often study the problems, make recommendations, and lend the money to carry a project through. The federal government does similar things in other sections of the United States. We have already mentioned the Tennessee Valley Authority. There are many other projects elsewhere. But in no other section of the United States has the government helped to make so many improvements as it has in the Western Interior.

Why does the federal government play such an important part in the affairs of the Western Interior? For one thing, the federal government holds much the greatest amount of land in that section. Wide areas are unsuited to agriculture; those areas remain unsold. There are wooded areas in the mountains that could have been sold, but the government decided to keep them for several reasons. In the first place, American timber supplies were disappearing rapidly. A great cry went up from many parts of the country to save the forests that were left.

A second reason for keeping the forested land was that forests help to regulate stream flow. Streams were becoming more and more important to the West. Snow that falls on the mountains melts and comes down to the irrigated lands in the valleys the next summer. If the snow melts quickly and runs away down the valleys in a flood, it does little good. Forests on the mountains help to hold the snows far into the summer. The trickling water from melting snow seeps into the forest floor and reaches the streams a little at a time. So keeping trees growing on the mountains lengthens the period during which the streams carry enough water to aid farmers.

Owning so much of the land is not the only reason why the federal government takes part in western affairs. Dams are needed that will help to control the streams for the production of hydroelectric power. Projects like building dams cost so much and involve so many people that only a large agency like the government can swing them. No one person or small group of people could possibly accomplish so large an undertaking.

Another reason why the federal government takes a hand in western affairs is that the senators from the Western Interior demand it. They are a strong and vocal group, making up more than one-fourth of the Senate. Western senators are backed by western farmers and western miners; both of these groups need help from time to time. Farming is risky business in the West, except where irrigation is practiced. As in the Prairie Provinces of Canada, many kinds of bad luck can happen to farmers there. Dust storms, hail, tornadoes, insects, depressions, and



Courtesy Soil Conservation Service

Western windstorms are burying this house in sand.

blight all seem ready to strike western farms at a moment's notice. During the 1930's the West was hard hit. Dust storms, drought, and depression all struck the farmers in rapid succession. The forties were good. But when things are bad in the West, a great cry goes up for federal aid. This aid often takes the form of a loan that can be paid back during good years. The productiveness of the Western Interior has proved that aid to that section of the United States is well worth while. People could see the proof especially during the war years and during the period of world-wide food scarcity that followed.

Just as western farmers have their troubles and look to the federal government for aid, so do western miners. When prices are high because the demand for minerals is great, the miners of the West are happy. They open up more and more mines and build new mining towns or improve old ones. When times are bad and the demand for minerals such as copper, tungsten, and silver is low, then trouble strikes the mining camps. Many a mine closes down. Sometimes a whole mining town dies and becomes a ghost town. Western congressmen are always on the alert to get help from the federal government at times when prices of minerals are low.

The Western Interior more than any other section of the United States seems to belong to the whole country. Because so few people live in this huge area, there is room to spare for many visitors. Because so high a proportion of the land belongs to the federal government, it is still beautiful and well worth visiting. Because the national government has so large a stake in the Western Interior, every American has and should have an interest in the welfare of that section. But the Western Interior is not all scenery and government projects. Its farms and its mines make many valuable contributions to American living. Without these contributions the United States would be a poorer place in which to live.

The United States and World Affairs

It is commonly said that the United States is the strongest power in the world. If this is true, and it probably is, why is it the strongest power? We know that size alone is not enough to insure great strength, for both Canada and Brazil are larger in area than the United States, but neither is stronger. Nor do numbers of people alone mean great power. India is much more populous than the United States, but it is weak. Even a combination of size and many people does not necessarily prove that a power will be strong. China is larger and more populous than the United States, but not stronger. What, then, explains the strong position of the United States in world affairs?

There are, of course, many reasons for the leading position of the United States. Some of the reasons are geographic, and others are not. Not only is the area of the United

States large, but also that area is very productive. There are extensive farm lands and an abundance of minerals. The human resources of the United States are good, too, for the people are, on the average, energetic, healthy, and well-fed. We know that many people in the United States are not so well off as that. There is room for lots of improvement. But still the people of the United States have a better standard of living than those of any other great power.

There is something else that may be very important in accounting for the strong position of the United States today. The history of nations shows that there have been great changes in their power relative to each other. We saw this in the rivalry among the powers of Europe from the sixteenth to the nineteenth centuries. First Spain, then France, and then Germany took the lead. The United States is today very strong, but its relative power may decline as other countries become more industrialized. It may remain the greatest power on earth, but it may not enjoy as commanding a lead as it does at present. The present, then, is the time when the people of the United States may have their greatest opportunity for leadership. Much depends, of course, upon how that leadership is used. The people of the United States will build their tomorrow out of what they do with the power that is theirs today.

We might say that today there is a high tide of American affairs. The tide may go higher, or it may recede. That does not mean that the United States should or will start out to make war upon its neighbors, as some nations of the past have done. But it does mean that the United States must take an active part in world affairs. It can no longer afford to be isolationist. Above all, the United States should be particularly active in trying to maintain world peace.

Getting along with the neighbors. The first step toward making a more peaceful world begins at home. The United States cannot expect to accomplish much overseas unless its relations with its neighbors at home are good. How should Americans rate themselves in this respect? Are they on good or bad terms with their neighbors? As you probably have guessed, Americans would have to rate themselves somewhere in between. They would probably say, "Our relations with some of our neighbors are good and with some of them not so good. We could not grade ourselves A+, but on the other hand we don't rate a complete failure, either. We come somewhere in between, perhaps B+."

What makes a country a good neighbor? For one thing a country that is a good neighbor will not use its strength to take some of its neighbors' territory or interfere in their affairs. Neighbors of the United States can be fairly comfortable about that matter, now, but they couldn't always in the past. Americans have to admit that they do not always keep their hands off a neighbor's private affairs. An American might say, "That is not always easy to do. Sometimes the private affairs of our neighbors affect us too closely. The important thing, and the difficult thing, for us to do is to protect our own rights and interests and at the same time not impose on other people."

Another thing that people expect from good neighbors is good manners. People of other countries say, "We do not like it when American citizens who visit us spend all their time bragging about the United States." Americans could improve their manners in this respect. Of course they are proud of the United States, but other people are proud of their countries, too. Good manners require that Americans find out what things their neighbors are proud of and admire those things, too. A Latin American neighbor might say, "It isn't courteous or well informed for American citizens to talk about their own national heroes and never find out about or be interested in Latin American heroes like Simon Bolivar, Bernardo O'Higgins, and José de San Martín." He might add, too, "It isn't good manners and it isn't good neighborliness to

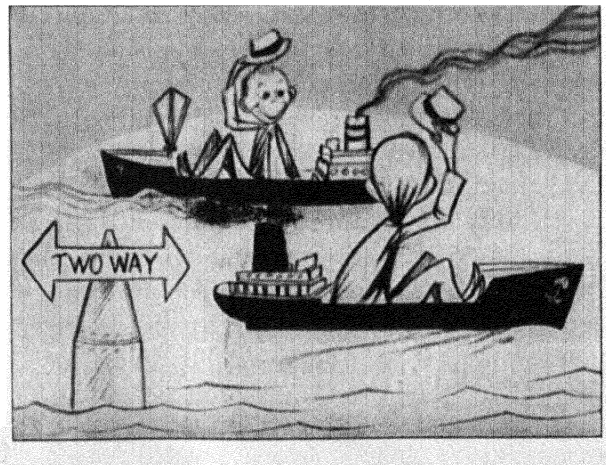
think only of what is good for the United States and never of what might aid other countries." Not all Americans are so ignorant and so selfish as to think only of themselves, but enough are to keep the record from being A+.

People think, too, that it is a part of being a good neighbor for a country to carry on trade with neighboring countries. But the United States produces so much, and buys so little in comparison, that the neighbors often find it difficult to do business with Americans. It is no fun playing games with a person who wins all the time. And it is not only no fun but also impossible to carry on trade with a country that sells much but buys little. American relations are often best with those countries where the United States buys something in considerable quantities. For instance, American relations with Brazil are better than average. Americans buy millions of pounds of coffee from Brazil every year. American relations with Canada are good partly because Americans buy millions of dollars worth of paper and wood pulp from Canadians, not to mention minerals and a number of other things. Trade paves the way for good neighborliness. It works the other way around, too. Good neighborliness—friendliness and good manners—helps trade.

Trade is a two-way street, as we have already said. A foreign country cannot buy from the United States unless it can sell to the United States or to some other country that in turn can sell to the United States. People and nations become irritable when they can't see how they can possibly make a living. They are likely to look around to see whom they can blame for their trouble. They usually blame the person or country to whom they owe the most money. All too often that country has been the United States. It isn't exactly the fault of the United States, but in many cases the situation would be helped by better understanding and more generosity. This generosity need not take the form of an outright gift to other countries, which doesn't really help in the long run. It could take the form of lowering American tariff walls in certain cases so outside products could come in. This good deed would not only help the neighbors, but it would also help to keep the American cost of living at a lower level.

Trade must be two-way traffic.

Courtesy League of Women Voters



The United States and Europe. The United States is more closely tied to Europe than to South America. American economics and politics have been closely entwined with those of Europe for a long time. Lately when Europe has become involved in war, so has the United States. When Europe's industrial system has broken down, the United States has gone to its aid. When Europe's farmers cannot produce the food they normally would, the United States tries to help them get back into production. Why is the United States so concerned with Europe? Why are Americans more interested in Europe than in any other part of the world?

A rather sentimental way of explaining American attachment to Europe goes something like this: Europe and the United States are parent and child. The child was promising, but on the whole rather headstrong. Mother Europe often raised her eyebrows and wondered, as people will, what would ever become of such a boisterous youngster. Like most young people, the United States often resented parental authority and finally broke away from it entirely. The going was

a bit rough to begin with, but the youth grew up into a big, husky adult. Europe, in the meantime, grew old. Its economic system seemed to be worn-out. Then it was time for the young to take care of the old.

But this sentimental story does not explain everything. The two largest industrial areas in the world are almost directly opposite each other across the North Atlantic. A map showing trade routes will show also that the world's busiest trade routes tie these two areas together. The Atlantic Ocean was at first a barrier between Europe and the United States. But as the years passed, it seemed to grow narrower. It can now be crossed in four or five days by ocean liner, in less than a day by air, and in a few minutes by telephone. Most United States trade before World War II was with Europe, and most of Europe's trade outside Europe was with the United States. As we have seen, trade makes close political ties.

There is still another angle to the story. In one way, the United States cannot afford to let Europe go to pieces. The Soviet Union is all too ready to pick up the pieces, and the Soviet Union plus western Europe would be a powerful combination, indeed. For that reason the United States takes part in European politics. The Soviet Union, on the other hand, also takes part in European politics. Peninsular Europe, as we have pointed out, is a land that lies between the two grindstones called the Soviet Union and the United States. It is an unfortunate position for Europeans to be in, a fate they surely do not deserve. Since World War II a struggle for peninsular Europe has been going on. It has been a hard, deadly battle, popularly called a cold war. That name means that there is no actual shooting or bombing, but that the two powers are in earnest and are playing for keeps.

There are still some Americans who think that the United States should stay out of European affairs. Some of these people sincerely believe that such a policy is best for all Americans. However, there are some who are Communists. They are not merely isolationists. They represent a group that favors the Soviet Union in its effort to force communism upon the rest of the world. Most Americans agree that the United States should take a strong stand against communism. Americans believe that the rights and privileges of people must be protected. They believe that the democratic ideals on which their government is based are the best safeguards of those rights and privileges.

The United States and the Pacific. Americans discovered the Pacific Ocean for themselves almost as soon as the country was born. New England shippers began rounding the Horn to trade with China in the last years of the eighteenth century. Whaling ships, having nearly exhausted the Atlantic whale supply, began to work the waters of the Pacific. American ship captains are credited with the discovery of many a Pacific islet previously unknown to the western world. Many of those islands were well enough known to their native inhabitants, however. On the heels of the whalers and traders came New England missionaries, who established their churches, particularly in Hawaii, in Samoa, and in the islands of eastern Micronesia.

For a long time the Pacific was a rather quiet and peaceful back street of the world. Most of the important activity went on in the Atlantic. Australia and New Zealand were claimed by the British early in the nineteenth century, but those islands were usually reached by way of the Indian Ocean. Europeans did not use the Pacific as a main line of travel to the parts of the world they were most interested in. The small islands of the Pacific were divided up during the last half of the nineteenth century. No major wars were fought over Pacific possessions, because nobody seemed to care very much whether his country acquired the Pacific islands or not. The great powers of the period picked up their island possessions absent-mindedly while keeping an eagle eye upon the partitioning of Africa. Africa

seemed, and probably was, much more important to them.

During the last half of the nineteenth century the United States, like the European powers, added Pacific holdings to its growing land area. The United States bought Alaska the year the Dominion of Canada was formed. Later, the United States acquired American Samoa south of the equator, and then the Philippines, Hawaii, Guam, and other islands north of the equator. There the matter rested for several years. When transpacific air travel became possible, the United States added Howland, Baker, Johnson, and other islands as landing bases for aircraft. Since World War II the United States has taken over control of most of the islands of Micronesia. Those islands were held by Japan before World War II. The United States wants them because some of them may be useful air and naval bases.

Like the Atlantic, the Pacific Ocean gradually changed from a barrier to a highway. It was no longer merely a body of water dividing the Orient from the New World--just a convenient place for the International Date Line. As years passed, the people of the surrounding shore lines became increasingly aware of one another. Japan became a world power of importance. The great powers who had their backs turned to the Pacific turned around to see what Japan was going to do. World War II further increased the importance of the Pacific in world affairs. More and more, the people of the United States became aware of the fact that they faced two oceans instead of just one.

Facing the future. Many times in a nation's history the way ahead seems vague and uncertain. To Americans living today the future is something of a problem. From some points of view, the way ahead looks gloomy and dangerous. From other angles, the view appears to be full of promise. Americans, more than ever before, have new inventions to help them do their work. They have more wealth and leisure to make living pleasant, too. Americans are aware, however, that not many other parts of the world have similar rosy prospects. Canada and Argentina are like the United States in having a high standard of living. So, too, is Switzerland. But many countries are lagging farther and farther behind. This situation does not make the world a happy place to live in. It is likely to lead to unrest. But how matters can be improved is a difficult question.

On this point Americans are divided in their thinking. Some want to stay at home, mind their own affairs, keep the tariff walls high, and continue to have a standard of living that is higher than that in most other parts of the world. These people have been called isolationists. Others want to coöperate with other nations in world affairs. They want to belong to some form of world government. They want to lower the tariff walls so other countries can sell things in the United States. As you might guess, neither of these groups is completely in control of American affairs. The United States follows a course that includes ideas from both groups.

Since World War II, the United States has taken part in world affairs by joining and helping to organize the United Nations. The United States has attempted to help the countries of Europe in their efforts to repair their industrial machines. The United States has made only a feeble attempt, however, to lower its tariff walls. This is due, of course, to the fact that every attempt to lower tariffs brings a swarm of protests from those sections of the country that are most affected. Congressmen who may be opposed to the idea of tariffs will vote for a tariff if it protects industries of the home region. The problem of lowering tariffs is not an easy one to solve. It is one of the really big problems that must be faced in the future. It cannot be solved by just pretending the problem doesn't exist. The problem does exist, and it has to be solved if world peace is to be secured.

During the short time the United States has existed, it has come a long way. It has tripled its area, multiplied its population fifty times, and become the wealthiest nation in the world. Americans looking back over the way they have come are likely to forget the low spots in the road and see only the high and sunny places. There was a time when many Americans wondered whether the country could possibly hold together. There was a long period when the United States was so poor that it was in debt to other countries. But the United States is no longer in danger of breaking apart. And today the United States is not in debt to any other country. This sort of progress seems natural to Americans. It is right and proper for a country to progress from being dependent upon others to being self-supporting.

The United States is now an adult among the nations of the world. It has reached the age of responsibility. The time has come for Americans to decide what sort of a nation they want to have in the future. Shall the United States become a selfish, miserly recluse watching the world solve its own problems? Or shall the United States become a useful, generous world citizen with the welfare of all mankind as its goal?

A WORKSHOP ABOUT THE NEW WORLD

All human beings have problems. And when people live together in groups, there are special problems that come up. These problems need to be solved before people can live together successfully. But there are many ways of tackling the problems of group living. Whatever method or plan is adopted by the group is its form of government. Government—any government—is just a way of solving the problems that arise from people living together.

In Your Community

On page 306 you saw a diagram of an early New England community. Because its settlers and other small groups of New Englanders decided to own small plots of land together—towns—and to meet in groups—town meetings—to talk over their problems, their form of government was called town government.

On page 307 you saw a diagram of a plot of land, or a plantation, owned not by a group of settlers in the South, but by one settler. Southerners owning such large plots of land lived so far apart that they could not meet easily, as New Englanders could. They needed some type of government suited to large areas, and for that reason they adopted the county form of government.

Both the township and the county government took care of local problems for communities of people. When the various colonies formed a brand-new nation and each became a state in that nation, a new national government had to be set up. But the need for local government remained. It remained because there were still local problems, and Americans believe that local problems should be solved in a local way.

1. What type of local government does your community have? If your community has more than one type, try to find out why.
2. What kinds of problems does your local government try to solve? If you have more than one type of local government, how is the work divided?
3. How large an area does each type of local government control?
4. What officials are chosen? How? When and where do officials meet for discussion? Do other citizens attend the meetings?
5. Try to find out how much money your local government or governments spend in a year. You may be able to get copies of published budgets. How do they get funds? How are they spent?
6. Find out by asking questions how well informed some adults of your acquaintance are about the local government of their community. How can you account for the fact that many people know more about their national government than they do about their local government? What is your opinion of such a situation?

Pictures and Politics

In every chapter in this book you've had a chance to see and use political cartoons. Maybe you've noticed how they sometimes have done a job that no other illustration could quite do. But when it comes to giving information about geography and politics, pictures have their points, too.

On page 299 is a photograph of flat countryside in eastern Alberta, a few miles south of Edmonton. It makes you think of what people mean when they call Alberta a Prairie Province, even though there are quite high mountains in the southwest. The picture, as you see, shows in two ways the presence of oil in that area. As you look at the picture, ideas you have about what that resource means to a country come to your mind—its use in the development of transportation and industry, its influence on the growth of cities, the wealth it brings in money, the part it plays in making a country a greater power among the nations of the world, and the influence of all these things on politics and world affairs.

How good have you been at getting the most out of the pictures you've seen? When you looked at those on page 179, what did the two flags represent to you? Did you know the meaning of the symbols on the flags, and if you didn't, did you find out? The expressions on the faces of the flag-makers—what did you get from them? On page 103 you saw a picture of an English street corner. Did you notice the wrecked roof of the building at the left? The ruins back of the wall? When you read the sign, what idea did you get about the condition of the British since the war? About their way of meeting this condition? About their spirit?

Pictures, like cartoons and maps, can be full of information. And looking at pictures is like looking at political cartoons—the more information you bring to them, the more you can take away.

Latin America

A woman from the United States on her way to live in Bolivia said she didn't know a foreign language, but when she arrived in Bolivia she'd certainly learn to speak Bolivian! Do you know what foreign language she probably did learn? Below are ways to find out that and other things, too:

1. Find Bolivia on the map on page 269 and then look at the map on pages 370–371. The official language of Bolivia is that marked by red-and-white coloring, and you can find the name. If the woman learned to speak it, in what other Latin American countries would she be able to use it? In which one would she be unable to? Do you know why Latin America is so called? The language map gives you the answer to that question.
2. Look at a globe or at the map on pages 368–369. If a ship sailed as straight south from New York as possible, what parts of Latin America would it touch? The east coast of North America nearly parallels what coast of South America? We always think of Latin America as being south of us. Most of it lies also in what other direction from us?
3. Without help, try printing the names of the countries of Latin America on an outline map. Which have no seacoasts? If you missed naming any of the countries, choose them for closer individual or group study.
4. Compare the number of Latin American countries with the number of other countries in the New World. Which of the two groups has the older culture?
5. Look at Latin America on the maps on pages 36 and 38–39 and then on the population map, pages 372–373. What relations can you see between the maps? See if any Latin American cities are included in the list of large cities on page 412. If so, how can you account for their size?
6. Look at the resources map on page 284. How does the presence of minerals, shown in certain Latin American countries, affect their export trade, shown on page 366? On what do the other countries rely for export?
7. The Caribbean Sea has been called the Mediterranean of the Americas. Use maps to find as many similarities between the two seas as you can. Find the differences, too. Include in your comparison of the two seas physical features, strategic importance, and the political situation.

A number of things have been tried to improve relations between the United States

and Latin America. Which of the following do you think most valuable? Why?

1. loans of money to Latin America
2. good-will tours by prominent citizens
3. exchange of students
4. Pan-American Union
5. radio broadcasts
6. sympathetic understanding of each other's problems
7. education of Latin Americans in United States techniques in business, farming, and health control

Canada

The area in the New World north of Mexico has no name that is widely used, as is "Latin America." "English-speaking America" is not entirely suitable. Why isn't it? Canada makes up the larger part of this area. Sizing up such a large country isn't easy, but doing these things will help:

1. Use information given on pages 366 to compare the areas and populations of Canada and the United States. Compare the average density of population per square mile in the two countries. Use the maps on pages 36 and 38–39 to help in explaining the difference.
2. People think of much of Canada as "northern" country. Find Vancouver on a globe or on the map on pages 410–411. Follow west the parallel of latitude on which it is located. What other countries does the parallel cross? Which of them do you consider northern countries?
3. Make a list of the things which give a country national strength. Using maps in the Appendix and those on pages 21, 36, 38–39, 93, 124, and 144, try to decide why Canada is called a middle power.
4. Make a graph to show the chief exports of Canada and the percentage of foreign trade each makes up. Use information found on page 366. What parts of Canada produce the exports?
5. With the help of the map on pages 410–411, find on the map on pages 372–373 the places in Canada where these groups of people live: French-Canadians; those who are interested in the development of the St. Lawrence waterway; those who aren't interested or are opposed; those with farming interests. How does a democratic government provide the best means of settling differences between the people and regions of such a large country?
6. The international boundary line between Canada and the United States is the longest peaceful boundary in the world. What is its defense?

The United States

You found out a good deal about the physical features, the size, and the resources of the United States when you compared the Soviet Union with the United States. Here are some more things to do:

1. Look again at the political-regions map of Canada on page 296 and then at the similar map of the United States on page 322. What political regions in the United States can you compare with particular ones in Canada? Compare the political-regions map of the United States with the map on pages 372–373 to see which regions have the heaviest populations.
2. List as many examples of sectionalism in the history of the United States as you can think of. Include modern ones. When you have made as complete a list as you can, try to decide whether there was an underlying cause of all of them.
3. If you live in one of the political regions in the United States, find out how many senators and how many members of the House of Representatives the states in that region send to Congress. What percent of the total membership of the Senate and House do they make up? How does the representation of your region compare with that of other regions?
4. Do you know of any special interests your region has? Have any of them become matters of national interest? Why?
5. Sometimes sectionalism shows up in a small area within a political region. What attitude do people living in a very large city sometimes have toward those living in the rest of the state? What attitude do the people outside the city sometimes have toward those in the city? Why?
6. Explain how each of the following helps break up sectionalism in a nation: (*a*) tourist travel; (*b*) radio and television; (*c*) diversified farming; (*d*) development of modern

techniques in the preparation and shipping of fresh foods; (*e*) growth of commercial air lines; (*f*) movies; (*g*) increasing interdependence of people. Can you add to the list?

You may live in an American rural area, in a city, or in a village. In any case, explain whether you are or are not affected by each of the following, and if you are, explain how:

1. soil erosion in any state in the United States
2. forest destruction in the United States or Canada
3. the building of power dams in the Western Interior
4. the protection of American wild life on land and in oceans and lakes
5. the exhaustion of oil resources in the Middle Eastern countries of Eurasia

Checking Your Information

Choose the word or words which you think best complete each of the sentences in the following group:

1. People who want their country to keep out of foreign affairs believe in (sectionalism, isolationism, Pan Americanism, Manifest Destiny).
2. The Maya civilization differed from other civilizations because (it developed in a tropical forest, the Mayas grew corn, the Mayas showed no interest in the sea, the Mayas had contact with the people of another civilization).
3. Latin American countries can't carry on trade with each other easily because (there are too many countries, the people live chiefly along the coasts, they have tariffs, transportation is poor).
4. Large countries are divided into political regions because (people in different sections have different problems, the population is scattered, different sections have different resources, division into regions makes voting easier).

Match each of the items in column 1 with the name in column 2 which you associate with it.

1. produces 85 percent of the world's nickel	*a.* Montreal
2. buffer state in Latin America	*b.* Missouri
3. back door of Canada	*c.* Canada
4. head of navigation on the St. Lawrence	*d.* New England
5. border state	*e.* Alaska
6. chief European possession in the New World	*f.* Louisiana
7. French-Canadian area	*g.* Uruguay
8. largest territorial gain of the United States	*h.* Vancouver
9. fastest-growing political region of the United States	*i.* Guianas
10. least densely populated political region of the United States	*j.* Pacific Coast States
	k. Quebec
	l. Western Interior

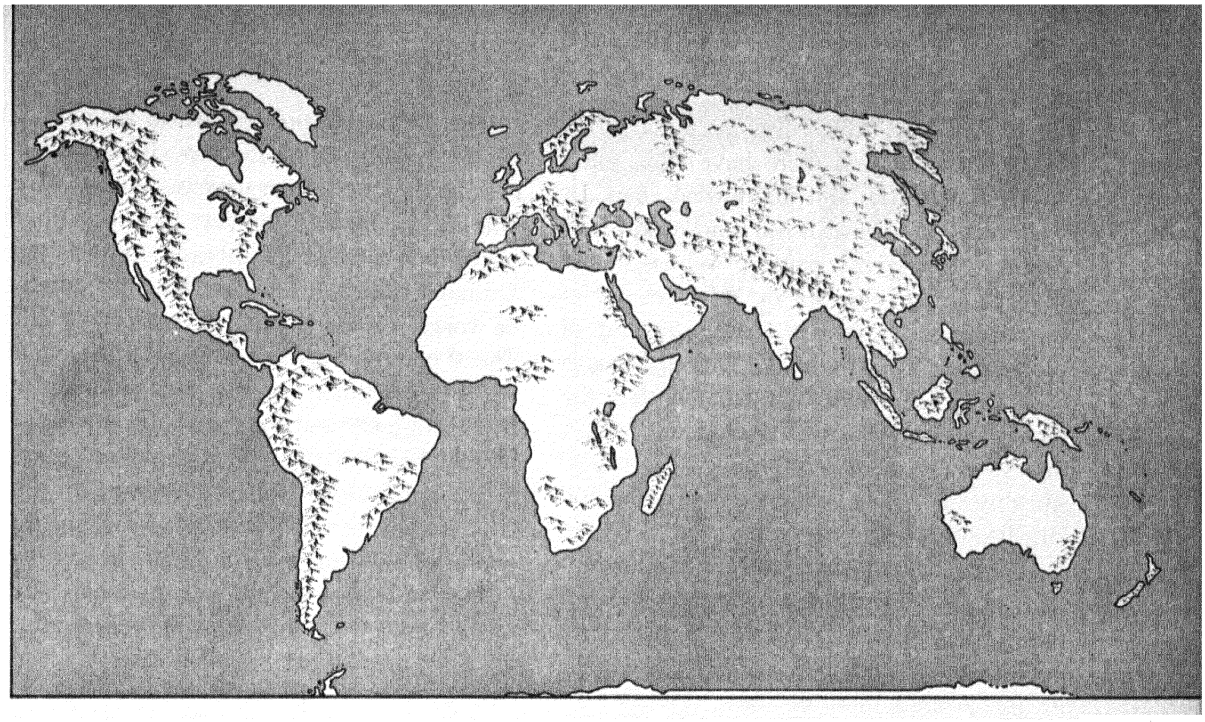
Select the term which does not fit in each of these groups:

1. provinces, viceroyalties, constitutions, states
2. logrolling, terracing, contour plowing, crop rotation
3. Caucasoids, Mongoloids, mestizos, Negroids
4. Chimus, Aztecs, Incas, Iroquois
5. Good Neighbor Policy, Monroe Doctrine, United Nations, Washington's Farewell Address

How Do You Feel About It?

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Either discuss them in class or write your response to each one. Whether you talk together about the statements or write about them, try to explain why you feel as you do.

1. Latin Americans naturally enjoy having revolutions.
2. Dictators are likely to gain control of ignorant or uninformed people.
3. In any country it is a good thing to have at least two political parties.
4. Isolationism is no longer possible in the modern world.
5. People can improve their relations with any other people if they try.
6. Friendship, like trade, is a two-way street.



It's All One World

GOOD POLITICS IN WORLD AFFAIRS

This book began with the idea of one political world. But since the beginning most of the time and space has been used in taking that world apart and looking at the pieces. We have found out, however, that the political world is not just a haphazard collection of pieces—not a political junk yard. Instead, there is a definite pattern in the world—a pattern made up of regions. The chapters you have just finished reading have dealt with the parts of the basic pattern one after another—the Soviet Union, the western coastlands, the eastern coastlands, the oceans, and the Americas.

Now it is time to pick up all these parts and fit them together, to make one world of them. It is time to go back to our original idea and once again look at the world as a whole. We want to emphasize the basic oneness of the world and to talk about how two and a half billion human beings might live together peacefully in one world—how they might use good politics in world affairs.

The individual human being like yourself is the fundamental unit of politics. We took a good look at him in the first chapter, and we will come back to him before we are through. The two and a half billion humans of the earth live in about eighty independent countries—counting some very small ones—and in nearly as many colonies. The eighty or so countries are in theory equally independent. That means each country is supposedly its own boss. When the supreme court of Salvador, in Central America, makes a decision, it is just as final for Salvador as a decision of the United States Supreme Court is for the United States.

But we have seen all through this book that the countries of the world are far from

equal in power. Always, as far back as recorded history goes, there have been some powerful countries and many weak ones. In modern times we call the most powerful countries the great powers. When World War II broke out, six or seven countries ranked as great powers. After the end of the war, the Charter of the United Nations recognized five—the United States, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, France, and China. But actually, only two or possibly three of these are great powers today. Really, only the United States and the Soviet Union have the size, population, resources, and industries to stand in the top rank. The Commonwealth of Nations would make a third great power if all the nations in the Commonwealth were grouped together. Because of the present importance of the United States and the Soviet Union, other nations have tended to support one or the other of these two. We may talk of the oneness of the world, but we must see clearly that today there is a twoness. The world tends to split into two parts that differ in many important ways.

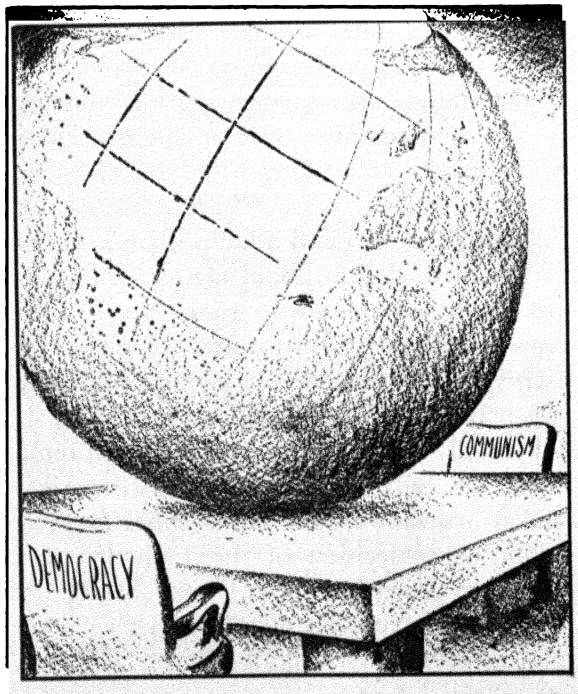
The split in the political world lies mainly in the coastlands of Eurasia. Parts of the coastlands—the inner parts mostly—are dominated by the Soviet Union. Other parts look across the oceans toward the United States for support. So our pattern of world regions is really a pattern of political power, with the United States and the Soviet Union as the two centers, or poles, of power and the coastlands a zone of tension between them. Can these two parts of the political world become one? Can the rift between them be closed? Can eighty-odd countries live together in peace instead of turning fearfully toward one political pole or the other? To think about these questions, we must first ask why nations disagree.

Why Nations Disagree

As you read this book, you no doubt noticed that there are many ways in which people and nations can disagree. Sometimes it seems that history is no more than a written record of conflict and that geography serves chiefly as the stage upon which

The world today.

Little in The Nashville Tennessean *(Adapted)*



And how about tomorrow?

Shoemaker in the Chicago Daily News



wars take place. Man does appear to be a very quarrelsome animal, given to individual quarrels as well as to those quarrels between nations that we call wars. But there is hope in the thought that he has learned pretty well to keep killing out of his personal disagreements. He must learn to keep it out of international disagreements, too.

Greed is one major cause of conflict. Both people and nations often step on one another's toes when they try to get a larger share of the good things in the world. Just as a child will try to grab the toys or candy of another, so a nation will often attempt to grab land, resources, or an area that has strategic value. With children the reason often given is, "Because I want it." But modern nations find high-sounding words to justify their actions. They say, "We have to protect our rights," or "We must help educate the poor ignorant natives."

We expect children to learn to be less selfish as they grow older. Nations must learn the same thing.

Another reason for quarrels, large and small, is intolerance. People are often intolerant of others who don't look like them or who don't behave or believe as they do. Nations have fought nations because some of them were Christian and others Moslem, or because some were Catholic and others Protestant. The result usually has been that both sides ended with more intolerance than they had before. Nothing was solved.

Perhaps the most widespread cause of war is rivalry for power. Rivalry for power is present in everyday life, too. Political parties are always seeking power. So are ambitious people in every walk of life. But in everyday life most of us have learned to seek power according to rules, so that no one gets killed or hurt in the process. Those who haven't learned the rules, or who won't play according to the rules, we call criminals. We lock them up where they can do no harm. But there is no power strong enough to enforce rules among nations. Among



Shoemaker in the Chicago Daily News

Strike one on intolerance!

Common sense is one power that has no rival.

Shoemaker in the Chicago Daily News (*Adapted*)



nations the rivalry for power is a deadly game, for to lose power may be to lose freedom. Nations that would be glad to call a halt in the struggle for power dare not do so. They dare not disarm. Even with efficient police in our towns, we usually lock our doors at night. If there were no police, we would not only lock our doors but barricade them as well—and keep a rifle handy as a last resort. So it is with nations.

Sometimes in world history all these causes of war have worked together, and then there have really been explosions. If there is in the world a government controlled by men who are greedy, intolerant, and eager for power, the danger of war is very great. The Nazi rulers of Germany were like that. So was Napoleon when he ruled France. When there are such people, the only hope for peace is for other nations to have cool-headed statesmen of great determination and patience, who understand world politics and know world geography. Wishful thinking, or just dreaming about the world we'd like to live in, will not help us to survive in the real world.

Don't let yourself get carried away.

Jensen in the Chicago Daily News *(Adapted)*





Brooks in The Birmingham News *(Adapted)*

Time to decide.

Getting Rid of War

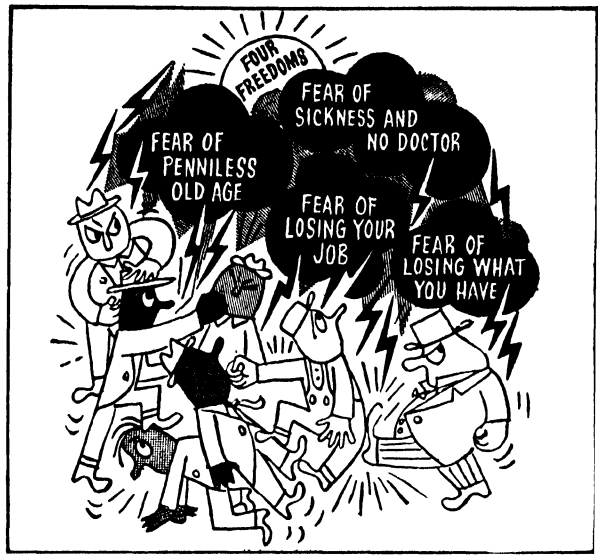
Doctors speak of two kinds of medical care: curative medicine—the kind that cures sickness—and preventive medicine—the kind that prevents it. Since most of us do not call the doctor until we get sick, most physicians are forced to use curative medicine. We pay the doctor to make us well again. But when we have regular health examinations, we are trying to prevent sickness before it occurs. Cleanliness and proper diet are really forms of preventive medicine. So is vaccination, and so is a proper sewage system.

So it is with war. We can think in terms of stopping wars after they break out or of preventing wars before they begin. Neither is going to be easy, but almost always preventing wars will prove to be easier than stopping wars that have already started. Once a war is under way, pride, hatred, and other strong feelings keep men fighting until one side is defeated. And usually so much ill will is left after such a struggle that it is easy to start the next war.

Wars might be prevented in different ways. One way would be to try to remove the causes which we have just described—greed, intolerance, and love of power. That would be the best way if we could do it. A second way would be for nations to try to settle their differences peacefully. They

could reach compromises over their differences, or they could arbitrate them. To arbitrate means to submit the matter for settlement to some neutral person or group. Happily, nations can try both ways. They can try to remove the roots of quarrels, and they can seek ways to keep quarrels from turning into devastating wars.

There is still a third way to prevent wars, and that is through fear. Men have sometimes dreamed of weapons so terrible that nations would be afraid to start wars. The atom bomb may be such a weapon. A peace based on fear would be "polecat peace." The polecat, or skunk if you prefer, strolls fearlessly through the woods, because other animals know he packs a powerful punch. A world of mutually respectful polecats may be the nearest to Utopia we can expect. But a peace like that isn't our ideal. We would like to see a peace of friendship, not of fear.



Public Affairs Committee, Inc.

Thunderclouds.

The Four Freedoms

There are a number of very important things that every person in the world ought to have. With more scientific use of the world's resources and with more peace and good will on earth, everyone might have them. And if everyone had them, there might be fewer wars. Everyone needs enough to eat, a place to live, and freedom to express his own ideas. President Franklin Roosevelt said that the world should have four freedoms: freedom of speech, freedom of worship, freedom from want, and freedom from fear. He did not mean that only Americans should have those freedoms, but that all people ought to enjoy them—the hundreds of millions of people living in China, in India, in countries everywhere.

If all people in all countries enjoyed the Four Freedoms, many basic causes of war would be either removed entirely or greatly reduced in strength. But others would remain. For one thing, there would need to be more equality among people—as well as more freedom. "Equality among people" doesn't imply that people are all alike. But all men and women should have equal rights before the law and equal chances to make the most of what abilities they possess.

The world is a long way from having the kind of equality we have just described. Even in some very free and progressive countries, some people, because of their race or religion, have fewer opportunities than others. And think how little opportunity an Asiatic coolie has. He earns barely enough to keep alive, and sometimes not even that. The gap between his standard of living and that of the better-fed, -clothed, and -housed people of more fortunate lands is very wide. It is so wide that world peace may tumble into it. Hungry and dissatisfied men are easily aroused by violent propaganda. Well-fed folk should not have less than they do now, but they must help the poorly fed to produce more food so that they can be well fed, too.

It might help us to gain peace, the Four Freedoms, and equality if there were more trade and travel throughout the world. This would not guarantee peace. People can fight over trade, and some tourists make enemies instead of friends. But it does seem likely that streams of goods and travelers would in the long run help knit the world together.

Even if all the world had the Four Freedoms and equality, and even if a busy network of trade and travel bound all nations together, there could still be quarrels. There could still be wars. The truth is that nations are not always reasonable or fair in their dealing with other nations. No nation lives up to the highest ideals and standards of its best citizens all of the time. The Nazis in Germany were a terrible example of the way a small group with low moral standards can seize power in even a highly civilized country.

Since nations are made up of people, we should not expect them to be perfect. People, we know, need government and law and police to keep them in order. What about the possibility that the nations of the whole world will be able to live and to work together peacefully with law and order?

Many men have dreamed of a peaceful world in which nations would respect the rights of each other. The vision of a world ruled by law instead of violence is a splendid one. All of us believe in the importance of ideas and ideals. But, as you read in the first chapter, idealism must be tempered with realism. Many obstacles lie between us and a peaceful world ruled by law. Many years, maybe centuries, may pass before such an ideal becomes a practical possibility. Nobody knows.

What we do know is that we are faced with many problems that must be tackled now, with the kind of world we have at present. And we have seen that today's world is one of many nations—large and small, strong and weak—that have different ways of life. This is the real world with which we have to deal. Perhaps, if we deal with it wisely, we can make it better, but we can't expect to reach Utopia in one jump.

Of course, there is one way by which we might have world peace of a sort rather quickly, but at a tremendous cost. One nation could become so powerful and aggressive that it would dominate all the rest. Such a nation could then force a single government—its own—upon the world. More than one conqueror has dreamed of that, and a few have seemed to have world rule almost within their grasp. But no nation, big or small, wants to be joined to another by force. The other nations have always managed to work together long enough to stop any would-be world conquerors. A world ruled by a single nation might be peaceful, but it would hardly be free.

In the real world of today, and in the past, nations have joined together in groups for common purposes. Even primitive tribes formed such groups. Sometimes these became quite strong and lasting, like the Indian organization of the "Six Nations" in upstate New York. Pacts between nations are known from earliest history. Some were merely for the sake of conquest. Others were for defense, when two or more weak nations supported each other against a stronger foe. In modern times there have been two world-wide international organizations and many local agreements and peace pacts. Let's get acquainted with a few.

The League of Nations

World War I shocked people into thinking seriously about a world organization to prevent future wars. They thought that it would be a good thing for the nations of the world to form a league that would enforce peace. Among the leaders favoring this idea were an ex-president of the United States and the president then in office—one a Republican and the other a Democrat. The ex-president was William Howard Taft, who headed a movement urging the formation of a league. The president was Woodrow Wilson, who was largely responsible for making the League of Nations part of the peace that ended World War I.

The League of Nations raised the hopes of peace-loving and war-weary people all over the world. People wanted to believe in it, but it proved to have weaknesses. The League could try to get nations to settle their differences peacefully, but it had no power really to enforce peace. It could do little to stop even small nations from going to war. With large nations the League was powerless.

One great weakness of the League of Nations was that League decisions had to be unanimous. Before any major step could be taken, all of the member nations had to agree. How often do the members of a club, or a city council, or a parliament agree unanimously upon any important issue? But if all the great powers of the world had pulled together, the League might have been made to work, weak and clumsy as it was. One great power, the United States, never did join the League, and there were several powers that played "Go In and Out the Window." Many Americans thought that their country should and could keep out of Europe's wars. They believed that the League would be one of those entangling alliances they had been taught to dread. The standoffish attitude of the United States may have spelled the death warrant of the League of Nations at the very beginning. But the League was a weak organization anyway.

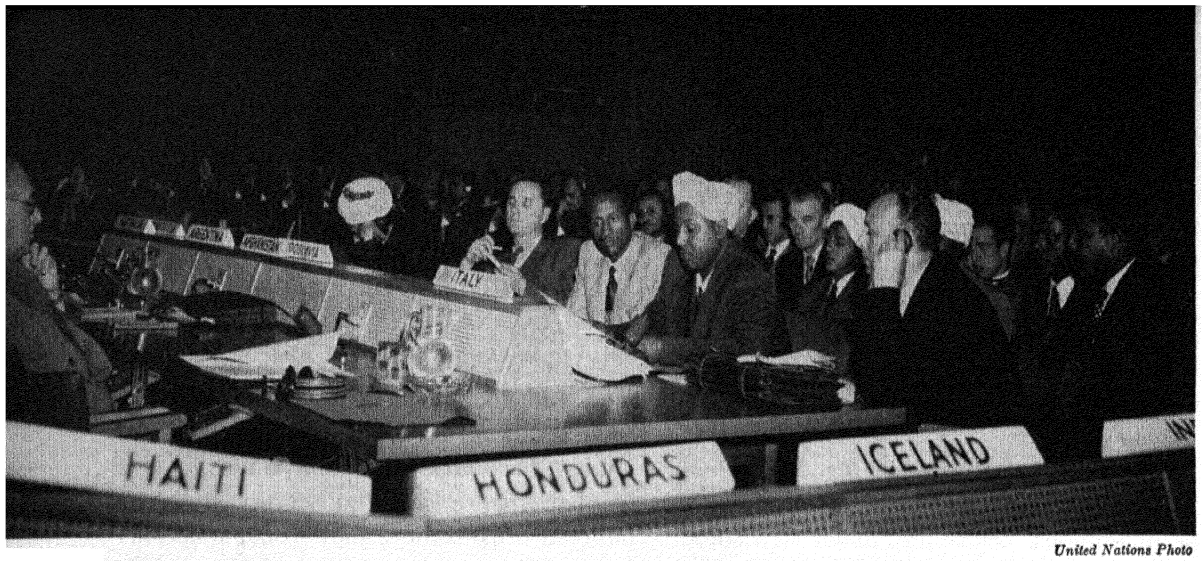
The United Nations

World War II, which began only twenty years after the end of World War I, was another shock to peace-loving people. During the first few years of World War II, many people in the United States clung to the belief that their country could stay out of the war. They did not see the war as a world-wide disturbance, but only as a dispute among European powers. Then came the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. That blow brought home to Americans the fact that even the wide Pacific was not enough to protect the United States from attack. The bombing of Pearl Harbor made people realize that wealth and size alone could not defend the United States adequately. They were no defense even though the enemy might be a much poorer and smaller nation like Japan.

While World War II was being fought, most people in the United States changed their attitudes about taking part in world affairs. They made up their minds that if another chance came to set up an international organization, they would take part in it. As the war drew to a close, the nations that were united in fighting against Germany and Japan began to lay plans for some sort of organization to carry on after the war. In 1945 representatives of most of the world's nations, except those that had been fighting on the side of Germany and Japan, met in San Francisco to draw up the actual charter for the United Nations. The United States was very active in this conference and joined the United Nations as soon as the organization was formed.

The people who planned the Charter of the United Nations tried to avoid the chief fault of the League Covenant. Unanimous votes were not required. The United Nations has two branches, as the League had. The larger, called the Assembly, includes all member nations, each with one vote. The smaller branch, called the Security Council, has five permanent member nations and six other member nations that are elected for two years only. The five permanent members are those nations considered the greatest powers at the time the United Nations was formed. They are the United States, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, France, and China. Less powerful members of the United Nations take turns at holding the two-year places on the Council.

This sounds as though the United Nations were a world government of a sort. But actually it isn't, and really it wasn't intended to be. The powers of the United Nations are



United Nations Photo

Members of the General Assembly consider the problem of what to do about Italy's colonies.

decidedly limited. First, each of the permanent members of the Security Council has the right of veto. If one of the five great powers votes no, there can be no action on any vital issue. The veto plan was written into the Charter because it was thought that neither the United States nor the Soviet Union would ratify the Charter without it. Moreover, it was realized that all the other nations of the world put together would have difficulty forcing either the United States or the Soviet Union to accept a line of action it didn't like.

A second limitation on the power of the United Nations is that it has no armed forces of its own. Like the old League of Nations, the United Nations tries first to settle differences among member nations by discussion and debate, and by using its influence when serious quarrels break out. But influence may not be enough. The next step is to call upon the members of the United Nations for armed forces to help back the decisions. This step, too, has been taken. But the big step, when nations will be willing to merge their armies, navies, and air forces into a world police force, seems to be a long way ahead. It is not likely to be reached until the nations have had much more experience in working together. Cooperation and trust among member nations will have to come first.

What the United Nations Does

The men and women who drew up the United Nations Charter at San Francisco knew what they were doing. They realized that few if any nations were willing to give up their independence and cast their lot with a true world government. So the United Nations Charter went only as far as seemed possible in giving power to the Assembly and to the Security Council.

It was clear from the start that the United Nations would have to work for peace chiefly by getting nations to compromise or by letting them talk out their troubles until they reached an agreement. It was hoped that most wars could be prevented in that way. It was hoped, too, that the nations would put their armed forces at the service of the United Nations to stop any small "shooting wars" that broke out. But it was realized that a real war between great powers would be very hard to stop once actual fighting had started.

The United Nations has accomplished a number of things. Nearly twenty member nations have coöperated in sending armed forces to South Korea to defeat the Communist invasion of that Asiatic country. The United Nations helped to stop the war between the Jews and the Arabs in Palestine, and it helped the Dutch and Indonesians

to reach an agreement. The members of the United Nations have found that they can get around the veto problem to some extent by doing business in the Assembly, where there is no veto, instead of in the Security Council.

Preventing and stopping wars are not the only purposes of the United Nations. The United Nations has tried to increase world trade, to help students and teachers visit foreign countries, to collect information on all countries of the world. It has drawn up and adopted a list of the rights a human being ought to have. It has investigated forced labor and slavery, which still exist on this earth of ours. All these things are useful. In addition, through working together in the United Nations, the people of the various countries are getting better acquainted and learning to think in terms of their common interests. Some people, who thought the formation of the United Nations would be the solution of the world's ills, may be disappointed with the results. But people who take a realistic view of world politics should not expect miracles from such an organization.

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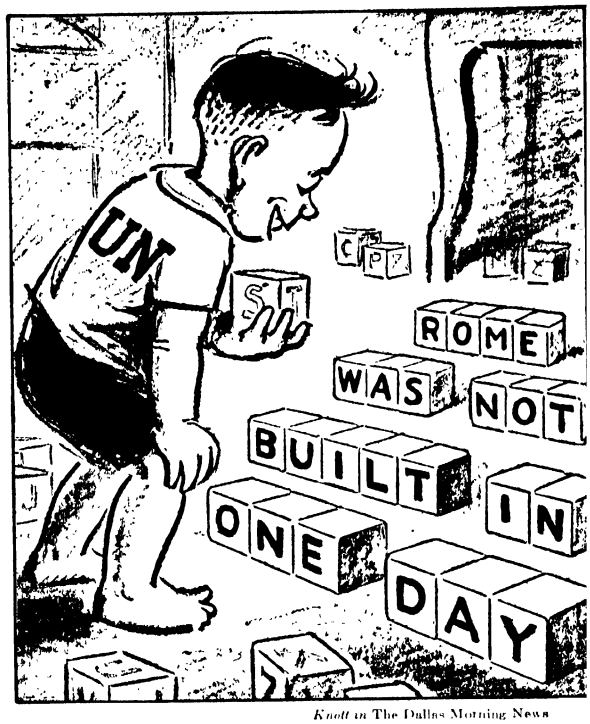
The light in the dark.

Jensen in the Chicago Daily News





Knott in The Dallas Morning News

Give him a chance to grow.

Regional Agreements

Because action in the United Nations can so readily be blocked by the veto, many nations have turned to making regional agreements. These are permitted by one clause in the United Nations Charter. Most of the communist countries are, of course, allied with the Soviet Union. The United States has made defensive agreements with many nations outside the Soviet orbit. One of the oldest American defense pacts has roots that go much farther back than the United Nations or even the League of Nations. This is the arrangement among American republics that we call the Pan American Union. You can read more about it on pages 286–287 of this book. Since World War II this arrangement has been strengthened and is now known as the Organization of American States. It has agreed to help keep the peace in the Western Hemisphere and to come to the aid of any member country attacked by an outsider.

But Americans, north and south, know that defending the Western Hemisphere

alone is practically impossible. In the modern world of aircraft and atom bombs, with its needs for metals and other raw materials of many kinds, the coastlands of Eurasia are obviously important. One very important agreement for mutual defense was signed by the United States and Canada and a number of the western European countries. It was called the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, a name usually shortened to NATO. NATO is more than a mere paper agreement. It involves a plan by which the armed forces of the member nations can act together promptly in case of attack. The Soviet Union fears this alliance and fought its organization at every step along the way.

There are three other regional-defense pacts, known by their initials like NATO. One is ANZUS—Australia, New Zealand, and the United States. Another is SEATO—Southeast Asia Treaty Organization. The third is METO—Middle East Treaty Organization. The United States belongs to both ANZUS and SEATO. It hasn't joined METO but would probably support it if the Soviet Union tried to attack this part of the world.

MANY PEOPLE—ONE WORLD

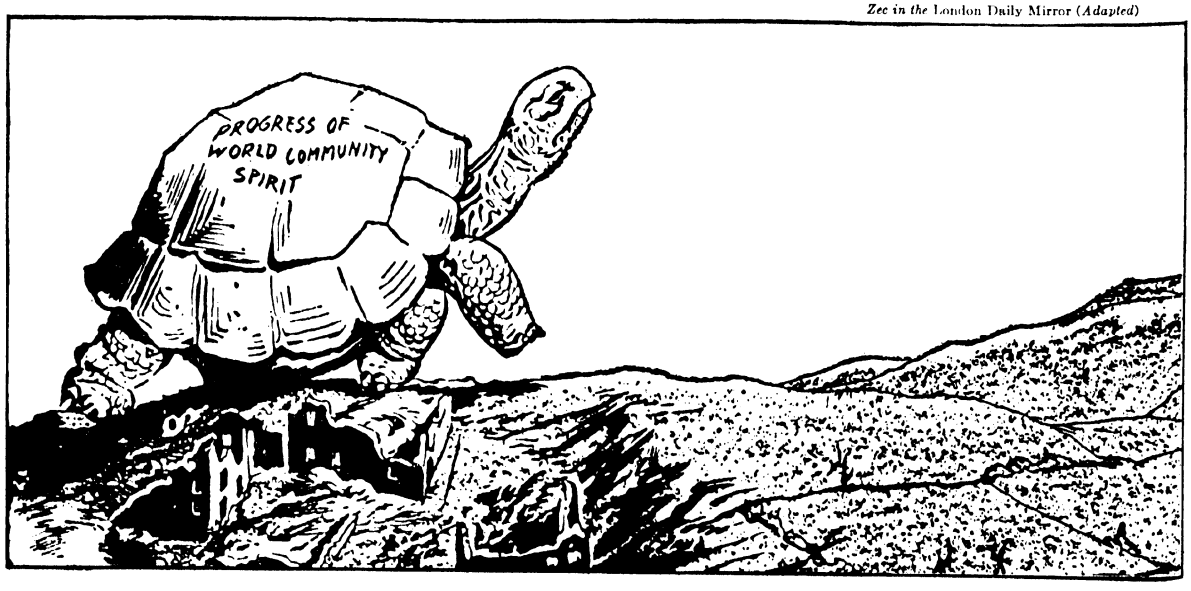
If there were intelligent beings on Mars —which there probably aren't— and if they had telescopes powerful enough to show them that there are men on earth, they would certainly make guesses about those earth creatures and the kinds of lives they lead. They might detect signs of agriculture, note that ships sailed the sea, and see the streets, buildings, and smoke of many cities. But we can make a guess that they would never dream of world politics. They would imagine that all the people on the earth knew they were the common owners of a small sphere in space and that they behaved accordingly. Unless, of course, Mars had world politics—or "Mars politics"—too, and the Martians guessed that the earth might be in a similar pickle.

Same Folks, Different Ways

Quarreling and fighting among human beings seem all the more unnecessary when we think about the many things that all people have in common. Some students of humanity say that we all have four desires

He's behind the times.

Zec in the London Daily Mirror *(Adapted)*



in common. They say we want Response, Recognition, New Experiences, and Security. To put the idea in plainer words, we can say we all want love, praise, thrills, and safety. We want to have friends who like us, and we want to belong to a group of some sort so we won't be lonely. That is the desire for Response. When we say we want Recognition, we mean we want our best efforts to be rewarded. We want the satisfaction of doing a good job and of knowing that others think it is good. That is the very natural desire for praise. The last two desires are easy to understand.

Often these four desires are in conflict with each other. We may give up some security to have a new experience. Or we may give up a thrill because it is too dangerous. No one of these desires should rule us entirely. For instance, we might become so greedy for praise that we would make others dislike us.

But though we may all be alike at the bottom, we are different on the surface. We may all have the same desires, but we express them differently. The way we express ourselves depends in part upon the group we live in. We say that a certain group—a nation, for instance—has its "way of life." This way of life shows itself in habits and customs. We can see it in the way the people of a group behave, govern themselves, and express themselves in art and religion. We can see it also in what interests them and what doesn't interest them.

There are some things that are found in nearly all ways of life. All ways of life include religion of some sort, and all have either laws or customs that are as strong as laws. But there is a great deal of difference in the details of various ways of life. Machinery means much to people in our group, for instance. We dream of a push-button world. But machinery means little to a Hottentot. He isn't in a hurry. Winning means a great deal to us. We reward and praise the winner in every walk of life. But among the Indians who live in the pueblos of New Mexico and Arizona, it is bad sportsmanship to win all the time. They do not like people who are always outstanding and successful. The swiftest runner among them will slow down and lose some of the foot races. He would be unpopular if he did not. You can imagine the difficulty such people have in adjusting themselves to our way of life.

Differences in ways of life are found in economic and political life, too. In feudal times, few questioned the fact that most of the land was the property of the noblemen. Among most nomads today, the pastures are all thought of as belonging to the tribe as a whole. Among us, most of the land belongs to private owners, with some parks, forests, and so forth, owned by the government. In the Soviet Union, most of the land belongs to the government, and only a little of it is allowed to be used privately. In politics, people in some countries insist on freedoms like free speech, and people in others accept—or have been made to accept—all sorts of restrictions on their liberty. So we see that there is much in common among people that ought to pull them together, but that there are also differences between them that tend to keep them apart. Perhaps the differences ought not seem so important. Perhaps we ought to recognize the things that are common to all nations. Unfortunately, we probably will need many years of experience and education before we can overlook the differences and remember to look for the similarities between nations.

On Being a Citizen

Every person is born to some kind of citizenship. But being born is not enough. Being born in the United States makes one a United States citizen. But to be a *good* United States citizen requires more than that. To be a good citizen, a person must be conscious of his citizenship. The law says that a newborn baby is a citizen, but all the baby is conscious of is being hungry, if he is even conscious of that. To be a good citizen,



Shoemaker in the Chicago Daily News *(Adapted)*

The test of liberty.

a person must think of himself as being of some particular nationality, along with other people of the same nationality. To be a good citizen, he must think of the welfare of his group, not just of his own advantage.

Actually, every person is born or grows up to several kinds of citizenship. He is born an American, let's say, and also a Texan or a Californian. He becomes a voting citizen of his city, town, or rural district. Nobody has any trouble keeping these various levels of citizenship straight. Texans and Californians, Vermonters and Virginians, are very proud of their states, but they are proud to be Americans, too. About a century ago there was a great war between the states. Now all our people feel that it is important that we stick together in the United States. Loyalty to our states has become a part of loyalty to our country. One loyalty doesn't necessarily conflict with another when all agree that common interests outweigh local interests.

What we have just said makes us wonder if the day may dawn when people of the United States, Canadians, Englishmen, the Irish, the French, and all the rest may swell with pride about their own countries and still feel that they must stick together as people in one world. The differences between countries may come to be something to enjoy, not to quarrel over, just as we see no reason why a Floridian and a Canadian should fight over the merits of swimming and skiing. As realists, we don't expect this day to come soon. As idealists, it gives us something to look forward to. This day won't come soon because the differences between countries are still very great, much greater than those between Alabama and Arizona.

Perhaps you don't get much "kick" out of thinking about what the world might be like a hundred or a thousand years from now. Perhaps we would all be wiser at this time to go out and buy a hot dog and quit worrying about the future. But we don't want to close this book without giving you something to tie your ideals to. We want you to feel that the present world, for all its faults, may be heading somewhere. The first automobiles were unreliable, puffing things, neither looking nor behaving like the sleek sixes and eights of today. But the fine cars of today exist only because men studied and tested and worked with the "one-lungers" of fifty years ago. The political world is still in its "one-lung" stage.

Looking Far Ahead

In a world of many nations, such as we live in today, loyalty to one's country is right and necessary. But there is no reason why nations that share common ideals and have common aims shouldn't feel loyal to each other, too. People in the United States can feel proud of the achievements of

Canadians, of Scandinavians, of freedom-loving people everywhere, without being the least disloyal to their own country. It is in some such way that in time—but probably a very long time—a sense of world unity may grow, not by tearing down national loyalties, but through the growth of another kind of loyalty alongside them.

Here and there in the world, people of different nations or of different origins have learned to live harmoniously together. On the Hawaiian Islands, in the middle of the Pacific, people from many parts of the world have come together. On one of those islands there is a university where the sons and daughters of the island people are taught. The motto of that university is "Above all nations is humanity." When the people of the world really adopt that motto and act upon it, we shall at last have world peace.

A WORKSHOP—PEOPLE AND THE WORLD

The causes of trouble between people are not new—they've shown up wherever people live together. They have appeared everywhere, proving that they are as natural to one group of people in the world as they are to another. Trouble between people has often become war between peoples, and small wars have grown into great ones. Even before the twentieth century, people dreaded war and saw the advantages of living in peace.

In Your Community

If you look back on your own school experience, you will recall occasions when people you knew or knew of had difficulties with each other. The difficulties may have been between individuals or between groups of people.

1. In each case, what was the cause of the trouble?
2. How was the matter settled?
3. Could the trouble have been avoided? How?
4. Can you see any similarities between the causes of difficulties that arise among individuals and those that arise among groups of people?
5. In what ways are the causes of difficulties among people similar to the causes of wars among nations?
6. What effect may lack of harmony between groups of people in a community have on the community?
7. How are people in your community directly affected when your country is at war? What effects remain even after a war ends?

The Frontispiece

The first picture you saw when you opened the book was the frontispiece. You might like to look at it again. Perhaps the first thing you noticed was that every person was photographed *talking*. And by looking closely you can see that not all the people are of the same race. Neither are they all of the same religion probably, nor are they all speaking the same language. They are not all from the same country, either. But they have many important things in common, and one is that all of them and all their countries are in the same world at the same time. These people are giving their views on world affairs, for that's their business. They are representatives to the United Nations, whose symbol you see in the center of the page.

Things to Do

To get the detailed information about the United Nations you will need for some of the activities below, write to the United Nations Information Center, 1712 H Street N.W., Washington, D.C.

1. On an outline map of the world, shade the countries belonging to the United Nations. How can you account for the fact that certain countries or parts of the world have no membership? Show in some special way what countries are permanent members of the Security Council. How can you account for the choice of those particular countries?
2. Find in the opening part of the Charter of the United Nations the statements of its purposes. Rewrite them in your own words.

Which ones of them aim to destroy the underlying causes of war?

3. Compare the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights with the Bill of Rights and the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth amendments of the United States Constitution. What similarities do you find? What rights do you find in the Universal Declaration that aren't in the Constitution?

4. Collect pictures which illustrate the four desires common to all people. You will find that advertisements will be helpful. Why? Post the best pictures. How would pictures collected in other countries for the same purpose be similar? How might they differ?

5. Draw cartoons illustrating the causes of war. Let the class choose the best ones for display.

6. Use reference books to find out about the following examples of international cooperation and make reports to the class: (*a*) the Universal Postal Union, (*b*) the International Union of Weights and Measures, (*c*) the International Red Cross.

Things to Discuss

It has been said that the rights of individuals do not come from the fact that they are members of a country or nation but from the fact that they are members of the human race. Do you agree? Why or why not?

What things limit the freedom and equality that people enjoy? What things do you think should limit them?

What forms of intolerance do you know of? Can you name any form once widespread that has now largely disappeared?

The Charter of Unesco says "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed . . . ." What does the statement mean?

Checking Your Information

Choose the word or words which best complete each of the following sentences:

1. To submit a question to a neutral person or persons for settlement is to (compromise, arbitrate, veto).

2. The chief weakness of the League of Nations was that (Japan left it, the United States did not join, the decisions of members had to be unanimous).

3. The United Nations is (a world government, an association of independent countries, an alliance of the major world powers).

4. The part of the United Nations that especially recognizes the greatest powers is the (Secretariat, Assembly, Security Council).

5. The best foundation for good government is (a well-planned organization, good citizens, a powerful army).

How Do You Feel About It?

Which of the following statements would you agree with? Disagree with?

1. Getting rid of intolerance is largely a matter of education.

2. People's beliefs and opinions are often based not on facts but on the beliefs and opinions of their associates.

3. The attitude of individual citizens of this country toward the United Nations has nothing to do with its success.

4. People who live in democratic countries enjoy more human rights than those who don't.

5. People living in small nations shouldn't expect the same consideration that those living in large ones enjoy.

6. Happy people don't want to fight.

7. Learning to get along with other people is one of the most important things anybody can learn.

Below is a group of words arranged alphabetically. Rearrange them, placing first those things you think count most in determining whether a person is or isn't a good citizen. Omit those which you think don't count at all. Add more if you wish.

1. attractive appearance
2. coöperation
3. education
4. friendliness
5. health
6. helpfulness in solving problems
7. intelligence
8. interest in world affairs
9. language
10. patriotism
11. race
12. religion

Index and Pronouncing Vocabulary

A star (*) indicates a picture.

Key to pronunciation: ā, as in āte; å, as in senåte; â, as in câre; ă, as in ăm; ǎ, as in finǎl; ä, as in ärm; å, as in åsk; á, as in sofá; ē, as in ēve; ê, as in crêate; ĕ, as in ĕnd; ɛ́, as in novɛ́l; ĕ, as in cindĕr; ī, as in īce; ɪ́, as in ɪ́ll; ō, as in ōld; ô, as in ôbey; ŏ, as in ŏdd; ó, as in cǒnnect; o͞o, as in fo͞od; o͝o, as in fo͝ot; ou, as in thou; ū, as in pūre; û, as in ûnite; ŭ, as in stŭdy; ú, as in circŭs; ŋ, like ng, for n before the sound of k or hard g, as in baŋk; ɴ indicates the nasal tone, as in French, of the preceding vowel; g, as in go; th, as in that; ĸ, as in German ich.

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Books You'll Like

Below are names of some books that you will find helpful and enjoyable as you read the various chapters of *Geography and World Affairs*. Other books of reference that you will want to use are: *Encyclopedia Americana* (Americana Corporation); *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc.); *World Book Encyclopedia* (Field Enterprises, Inc.); *The Statesman's Year-Book* (The Macmillan Company); *The World Almanac and Book of Facts* (New York *World-Telegram*); the "Headline Series" (Foreign Policy Association); and the publications of the University of Chicago Round Table and of the Town Hall Forum.

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For Teacher Reference

The objectives of *Geography and World Affairs* are outlined in the preface. They were the blueprint for selecting and organizing the content of the book and for planning the instructional procedures that are suggested. Those objectives cite both the kinds of behavior aimed at in the students and the areas in which the behavior is to operate. For your convenience, information is given on this page to show explicitly how *Geography and World Affairs* provides for the development of those concepts, values, and skills necessary to the realization of the objectives. The numbers given refer to pages in the book where the content is specifically related to particular concepts, values, and skills. It is understood, of course, that these concepts, values, and skills cannot be thought of as single or disparate elements, and that they are developed not separately from one another, but each in conjunction with the others.

Concepts

The world shows various patterns. One is the changing pattern of countries, and others are basic geographic patterns that are more permanent, such as climate, vegetation, and landforms.
12–15, 28–38, 45–48, 52–58, 73–75, 89–98, 104–108, 114, 115–116, 122–123, 131–132, 133–135, 142–143, 147–148, 153, 156–157, 159–160, 174–179, 185–188, 192–193, 195–197, 201–211, 219–225, 241–244, 247–250, 273–279, 290–302, 304–308, 312–317

World affairs are always in a state of change. People, by making intelligent decisions and by putting forth intelligent effort, can help move them in the direction they wish.
5–9, 11–12, 25–28, 40, 68–69, 103, 120–121, 184–185, 213–215, 228–231, 263–264, 285–287, 303, 332–337, 344–353

Among the things that make for change are new resources, the growth or decline of population, the spread of transportation and industry, the existence of unity or cleavages within nations, and the conscious efforts of statesmen.
18–19, 23–25, 60–64, 80–89, 95–97, 120–121, 123–125, 178, 180–182, 213–216, 227–230, 232–233, 250–251, 259–260, 265, 293–296, 321–337, 341–342, 346–349

Location is important in world affairs since the availability of resources and ease of transportation and communication depend upon it.
12–14, 16–18, 20–24, 31–39, 44–48, 61–64, 71, 73–75, 80, 86–88, 103–104, 110–112, 123–125, 126–127, 130–135, 139, 144–147, 155–157, 189–192, 209–211, 214–217, 233–234, 236–238, 250–251, 256–257, 259–260, 265, 287–289, 318–321

Human fears, prejudices, and unsatisfied needs continually create problems in world affairs and prevent easy solution of problems already existing.
69, 184–185, 214–215, 249, 286–287, 334–335, 337, 342–345, 351–353

All the parts of the political world are inevitably interdependent.
10–12, 17–18, 27–28, 34, 68–69, 88–89, 101–104, 254–255, 285–288, 302–303, 332–337, 341–342, 345

Improving ways of getting along with others—as individuals and as nations—is an urgent part of living. Such improvement is possible if enough people in the world are willing to work to make it so.
3–12, 27–28, 40, 68–69, 263–264, 333–334, 342–353

In a democracy an individual can think his thoughts, speak his mind, and express his political choice. It is in a democracy that the individual has the best chance to discharge his responsibility to the world he lives in.
4–11, 58, 69, 177, 227, 335, 352

Values

Respect for the dignity and worth of every human being.
5, 6–7, 17, 19, 26, 60, 343, 345, 353

Regard for truth as the surest guide to human progress.
4–5, 7, 15, 25–26, 71, 103, 264–265, 333–334, 349

Acceptance of social responsibility.
4–9, 16, 26–27, 28, 40, 69, 184–185, 214–215, 333–337, 342–345, 349–353

Willingness to work for the good things of life for all the people of the world.
5–8, 18, 19–20, 184–185, 249, 334, 337, 345, 352 353

Respect for reason rather than force as the proper and workable means of getting along with others.
3, 5, 8, 10–12, 15, 27–28, 224–225, 263–264, 342–353

Skills

Ability to locate pertinent information on world affairs.

Using reference books, newspapers, and magazines
71, 231, 232, 233, 234, 265, 353, 354

Using maps and globes
16, 19, 29, 38–39, 40–42, 45–47, 52, 67, 71–72, 73, 94–95, 98, 106, 107, 110, 114, 115, 124, 126, 127, 128, 130, 133, 134, 136, 140–141, 144, 145, 148, 154–155, 156–157, 158, 159, 163, 164, 165, 166, 170, 181, 186, 189, 202, 208, 215, 216, 219, 223, 231, 232–234, 241, 242, 244, 248, 250, 253, 254, 256–257, 266, 276, 277, 280, 281, 283, 288, 289, 291, 311, 321, 338–339, 353

Using graphs, charts, diagrams, and tables
54, 57, 155, 231, 234, 241, 243, 306–307, 312, 339

Using pictures and cartoons
42, 47, 51, 55, 64–65, 66, 78, 111, 113, 144, 158, 163, 232, 338, 353, 354

Ability to analyze, interpret, and apply information.
21, 38–39, 41–42, 46, 71, 94–95, 108–110, 124, 126, 154–157, 180–181, 184–185, 227–228, 231–232, 264–266, 338–340, 353–354

Ability to present information.

Taking part in discussions
71, 158, 233, 354

Making cartoons
42, 158, 354

Making maps
70, 232, 234, 266, 338, 353

Making charts and graphs
155, 231, 234, 339

Preparing programs and exhibits
42, 155, 232, 233, 354

Writing or giving reports
232, 234

Ability to examine world problems in both geographical and historical settings.
28–38, 42, 43–52, 60–67, 71–72, 73–89, 91–100, 102–104, 105–109, 110–112, 113–114, 114–118, and so on throughout the book. The total content of the first six chapters emphasizes the geographic and historical approach to world problems.

Ability to identify self with social situations in community and world affairs.
5–6, 9–10, 40, 70, 154–155, 158, 231–232, 264, 337–338, 351–354

Ability to understand and use social-studies vocabulary.
3, 12, 15–16, 27, 33, 40–41, 42, 58, 71, 72, 146, 155, 157, 162–165, 232–234, 238, 239, 241, 264–266, 310, 324, 335, 336, 340, 354

DISTANCES BETWEEN TEN WORLD CITIES BY AIR ROUTES AND BY SURFACE ROUTES

This table provides two sets of distances between each two of the cities given. In each rectangle in the chart below, the upper number represents surface distance. The lower number, which is in italics, represents air-route distance. Surface distances are computed over routes that usually carry the greatest tonnage in trade. All distances are given in statute miles.

	New York, U.S.A.	Shanghai, China	Tokyo, Japan	Moscow, Soviet Union	Chicago, U.S.A.	London, United Kingdom	Berlin, Germany	Buenos Aires, Argentina	Calcutta, India	Sydney, Australia
New York, U.S.A.		12176 *7357*	11194 *6735*	5276 *4662*	908 *713*	3770 *3459*	4341 *3961*	6761 *5297*	11279 *7921*	11175 *9933*
Shanghai, China	12176 *7357*		1220 *1094*	5462 *4235*	8139 *7053*	12019 *5710*	12524 *5215*	13087 *12197*	4391 *2112*	5383 *4899*
Tokyo, Japan	11194 *6735*	1220 *1094*		5870 *4650*	6939 *6303*	12865 *5938*	14934 *5538*	13965 *11400*	5244 *3186*	4995 *4866*
Moscow, Soviet Union	5276 *4662*	5462 *4235*	5870 *4650*		6184 *4984*	1790 *1549*	1008 *996*	8899 *8375*	10751 *3447*	14938 *9012*
Chicago, U.S.A.	908 *713*	8139 *7053*	6939 *6303*	6184 *4984*		4678 *3950*	5249 *4402*	7669 *5596*	12187 *7981*	9710 *9272*
London, United Kingdom	3770 *3459*	12019 *5710*	12865 *5938*	1790 *1549*	4678 *3950*		666 *574*	7248 *6918*	9099 *4954*	13287 *10564*
Berlin, Germany	4341 *3961*	12524 *5215*	14934 *5538*	1008 *996*	5249 *4402*	666 *574*		7797 *7376*	9628 *4376*	13815 *10006*
Buenos Aires, Argentina	6761 *5297*	13087 *12197*	13965 *11400*	8899 *8375*	7669 *5596*	7248 *6918*	7797 *7376*		10623 *10242*	8356 *7330*
Calcutta, India	11279 *7921*	4391 *2112*	5244 *3186*	10751 *3447*	12187 *7981*	9099 *4954*	9628 *4376*	10623 *10242*		6619 *5685*
Sydney, Australia	11175 *9933*	5383 *4899*	4995 *4866*	14938 *9012*	9710 *9272*	13287 *10564*	13815 *10006*	8356 *7330*	6619 *5685*	

Principal Countries of the World*

	AREA IN SQUARE MILES	POPULATION	PRINCIPAL EXPORTS	PRINCIPAL IMPORTS
Alaska (U.S.A.)	586,400	210,000	Salmon, 75.7; other marine prod., 13.3	Machinery, vehicles, 19.4
Angola	481,350	4,260,000	Coffee, 27.1; diamonds, 14.6	Cotton textiles & prod., 19.9
Argentina	1,084,359	18,916,000	Grains & prod., 48.1; meat, 12.0	Vehicles & machinery, 29.1
Australia	2,974,581	9,138,000	Wool, 41.4; grains & flour, 11.2	Textiles, 15.9; petroleum & prod., 9.1
Austria	32,375	6,969,000	Iron prod., 18.5; lumber, 15.0	Coal, 37.9; industrial machines, 6.0
Belgian Congo	904,991	12,300,000	Copper, 24.5; fibers (mostly cotton), 15.0	Machinery & tools, 20.8; vehicles, 13.3
Belgium	11,779	8,841,000	Iron & steel prod., 27.7; textiles, 17.8	Textile fibers, 12.4; machinery, 9.6
Bolivia	424,162	3,175,000	Tin, 70.4; silver, 5.2; lead, 3.9	Sugar, 7.20; vehicles & parts, 6.9
Brazil	3,288,042	57,800,000	Coffee, 57.6; cotton, 10.0; cacao, 4.8	Machinery, hardware, cutlery, 26.0
Bulgaria	42,796	7,540,000	Tobacco, 79.9; lead ore, 2.1	Metals & prod. & ores, 20.9
Burma	261,610	19,400,000	Rice, 82.5; teak, other hardwoods, 6.2	Textiles, 36.4; foodstuffs, 12.9
Canada	3,845,774	15,439,000	Grains & prod., 18.7; paper prod., 13.5	Machinery, 12.1; textile prod., 10.4
Ceylon	25,332	8,478,000	Tea, 67.8; rubber, 16.4	Wheat flour, 15.2; rice, 14.0
Chile	286,396	6,510,000	Copper, 62.0; nitrates, 12.2	Machinery, 13.7; processed foods, 12.8
China	3,745,296	585,000,000	Tung oil, 17.0; textiles, 16.0	Cotton, 15.0; petroleum prod., 13.0
Colombia	439,519	12,525,000	Coffee, 74.4; petroleum, 17.8	Machinery, 21.1; metals & prod., 16.3
Cuba	44,218	5,980,000	Sugar, 79.7; tobacco, 3.6	Foodstuffs, 18.4; textiles, 10.4
Czechoslovakia	49,354	13,020,000	Manufactures & raw materials, 94.2	Raw & semifinished materials, 54.6
Denmark	16,576	4,422,000	Dairy prod., 24.5; meat & prod., 14.7	Coal & coke, 11.6; metal prod., 9.6
Ecuador	106,000	3,623,000	Cacao, 28.0; coffee, 14.5; rice, 16.5	Machinery, 15.8; textiles, 13.3
Egypt (U.A.R.)	386,000	22,221,000	Cotton, 77.3; rice, 10.5	Wheat, 9.3; fertilizers, 5.9
Ethiopia	453,000	16,000,000	Coffee, 37.0; hides & skins, 25.0	Cotton prod., 53.0; petrol. & prod., 7.0
Finland	130,119	4,216,000	Paper & pulp, 49.2; wood prod., 43.0	Metals & machinery, 30.3
France	213,009	43,216,000	Textile prod., 26.8; machinery, 25.9	Solid fuels, 14.0; petrol. prod., 13.0
Germany	136,450	69,755,000	Finished indus. prod., 47.1	Food & agricultural prod., 49.2
Greece	51,182	7,940,000	Tobacco, fruits, & vegetables, 65.7	Grain & cereals, 32.7; sugar prod., 10.5
Hawaii (Ter.)	6,423	540,000	Sugar & prod., pineapples & prod., 95.9	Machinery, 18.9; veg. foodstuffs, 16.2
Honduras	43,277	1,630,000	Bananas, 33.9; silver & gold, 20.1	Textiles & prod., 25.2
Hungary	35,912	9,750,000	Cotton textiles, 15.51; petrol. prod., 9.7	Cotton, 17.1; coal & coke, 13.9
India	1,267,089	380,000,000	Jute & prod., 37.4; tea, 13.7	Grains, 29.2; mineral oil, 7.6
Indochina	272,350	31,600,000	Rubber, 32.0; rice, 29.0; vegetables, 8.9	Textiles, 32.0; foodstuffs, 12.2
Indonesia	575,893	78,000,000	Petroleum, 29.0; rubber, 24.0	Textiles & prod., 30.0
Iran	630,000	20,950,000	Rugs, 20.8; fruits & nuts, 20.6	Textiles, 23.7; sugar, 12.0
Iraq	168,114	4,970,000	Dates, 62.5; wool, 13.5; grains, 5.5	Textiles & clothing, 20.5
Ireland, Republic of	27,137	2,928,000	Cattle, 35; other animals, 16	Textiles & yarns, 23; machinery, 12
Italy	116,311	47,780,000	Textiles & prod., 42	Wheat, 23; coal, 11; cotton, 7
Japan	142,741	88,800,000	Textile prod., 51.3; machinery, 10.5	Cereals & prod., 31.2
Kenya	224,960	6,000,000	Cotton, 29.2; coffee, 20.3	Cotton textiles, 15.0; machinery, 10.8
Korea	85,239	31,000,000	Seaweed, 26.4; lead & prep., 21.9	Grains & flour, 40.4; fertilizer, 17.8
Malaya	50,598	5,980,000	Rubber, 60.8; tin, 8.7	Foodstuffs, tobacco, 34.4
Mexico	760,373	29,250,000	Lead, 17.1; sea foods, 6.5	Vehicles, 6.6; wheat, 4.8
Mozambique	297,731	6,000,000	Cotton, 18.7; oil seeds & nuts, 13.6	Textiles & prod., 19.8
Netherlands	13,025	10,670,000	Textiles & prod., 15.6; machinery, 14.4	Metals & prod., 12.5
New Zealand	103,736	2,122,000	Wool, 30.1; butter, 22.6	Textiles & prod., 21.9; machinery, 16.4
Nigeria	339,156	30,500,000	Peanuts, 24.0; palm kernels, 17.6	Cotton textiles, 28.6
Norway	125,064	3,408,000	Wood pulp & paper, 28.9; fish, 21.8	Ships, 18.6; petroleum & prod., 11.5
Pakistan	364,737	77,200,000	Jute, cotton, wool, hemp & prod., 62	Iron, steel prod., machinery, 19
Paraguay	157,047	1,550,000	Lumber, 19.7; quebracho extract, 18.2	Foodstuffs, 23.2; textile prod., 18.9
Peru	509,768	9,300,000	Cotton, 26.3; sugar, 21.2	Cereals, 15.2; machinery, 15.0
Philippines	115,600	21,650,000	Copra, 34.1; sugar, 18.0	Textiles & prod., 19.0
Poland	120,359	27,100,000	Coal & coke, 59.7; textiles, 14.3	Grains, 26.8; cotton, wool, flax, 13.4
Portugal	35,414	8,725,000	Cork & prod., 18.5; textile prod., 16.2	Steel-mill prod., 8.2; vehicles, 7.3
Thailand	198,500	20,125,000	Rice, 47.4; rubber, 17.1	Textiles & prod., mach'y., vehicles, 94.0
Soviet Union	8,570,600	213,000,000	Wood, 21; grains & flour, 19	Machinery, 26; nonferrous metals, 17
Spain	194,945	28,850,000	Fruits & nuts, 25; wines, 9.6	Cotton, 12.9; petroleum & prod., 10.3
Sweden	173,439	7,235,000	Wood pulp & paper, 35.7; lumber, 10.0	Textiles, 10.1; coal & coke, 9.5
Switzerland	15,944	4,950,000	Machinery, 22.3; watches, 20.3	Cereals, 10.1; iron & prod., 9.0
Tanganyika	362,674	8,250,000	Sisal, 55.2; minerals, 10.9	Cotton textiles, 16.6; machinery, 13.6
Turkey	299,992	23,250,000	Tobacco, 37.3; cotton, 10.9	Textiles, 21.8; machinery, 17.7
Union of South Africa	472,733	13,540,000	Wool, 24.7; diamonds, 7.2; hides, 5.4	Textiles, 11.0; machinery, 8.9
United Kingdom	94,212	51,172,000	Machinery, 16.0; transport equip., 15.4	Oils, fats, resins & sources, 13.1
United States	3,082,809	163,930,000	Machinery, 19.4; grains, 12.2	Coffee, 12.1; nonferrous metals, 8.6
Uruguay	72,172	2,575,000	Wool, 35.0; meat, 28.0	Raw materials, 25.0; machinery, 14.0
Venezuela	352,143	5,750,000	Petroleum & prod., 94.7; coffee, 2.6	Mach'y., 14.1; iron & steel prod., 12.0

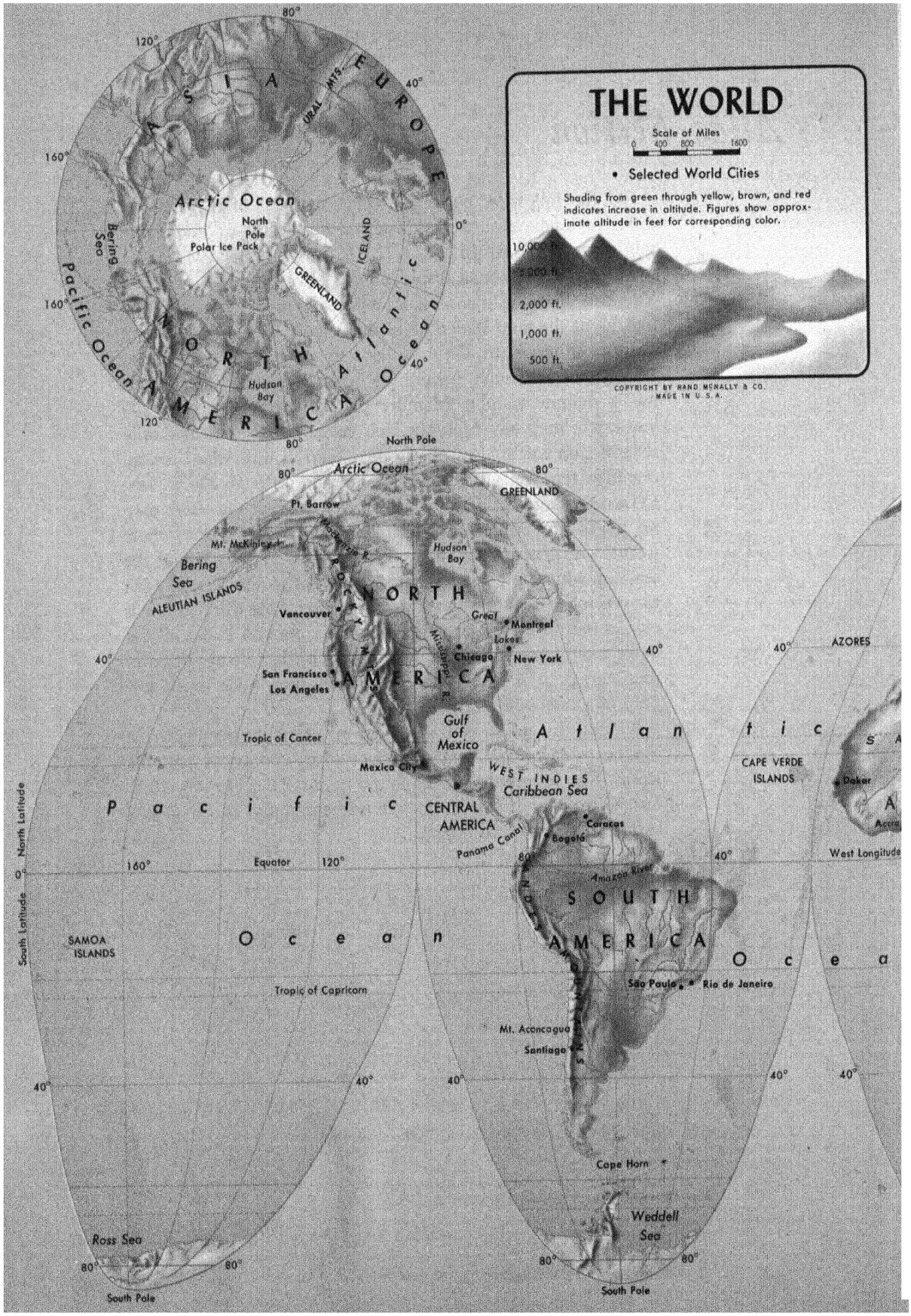
*The information given in the last two columns of this table is based on reports for the years 1947–1950. Figures appearing after commodities imported or exported represent percentages of the total imports or exports for each country.

Atlas Section

On the following pages are different kinds of maps giving different kinds of information about the world or about certain parts of the world.

Maps, like cartoons, use symbols. Color is one of them. You can find the meaning of the colors used on a map by looking at the map legend or at the map key. On maps where distance is important, the scale used in making them is shown. In that case, an inch on the map becomes a symbol, representing a definite number of miles on the earth. On page 220 you saw a map on which one inch on the map represented only six miles on earth. But on the first map in this Atlas Section, one inch represents 1900 miles. The map on page 220 is said to be on a large scale. Such a map can show details. The map on pages 368–369 is on a small scale. It shows the whole world, with few details. It is always a good idea to look at the scale on which any map was made. But it is also a good idea to remember that if you want to measure long distances, it is always best to measure them on a globe. As you know, all flat maps have some distortion, and except on large-scale maps of small areas, it is impossible to apply a map scale to all sections of a map with accuracy.

Besides the maps, you will find in the Atlas Section some significant facts and figures about places and peoples in the world. The information to be found in the Atlas Section either on the maps or in the tables will be helpful and useful to you in the study of world affairs.


THE WORLD
Scale of Miles
0 400 800 1600
• Selected World Cities
Shading from green through yellow, brown, and red indicates increase in altitude. Figures show approximate altitude in feet for corresponding color.
10,000 ft.
5,000 ft.
2,000 ft.
1,000 ft.
500 ft.
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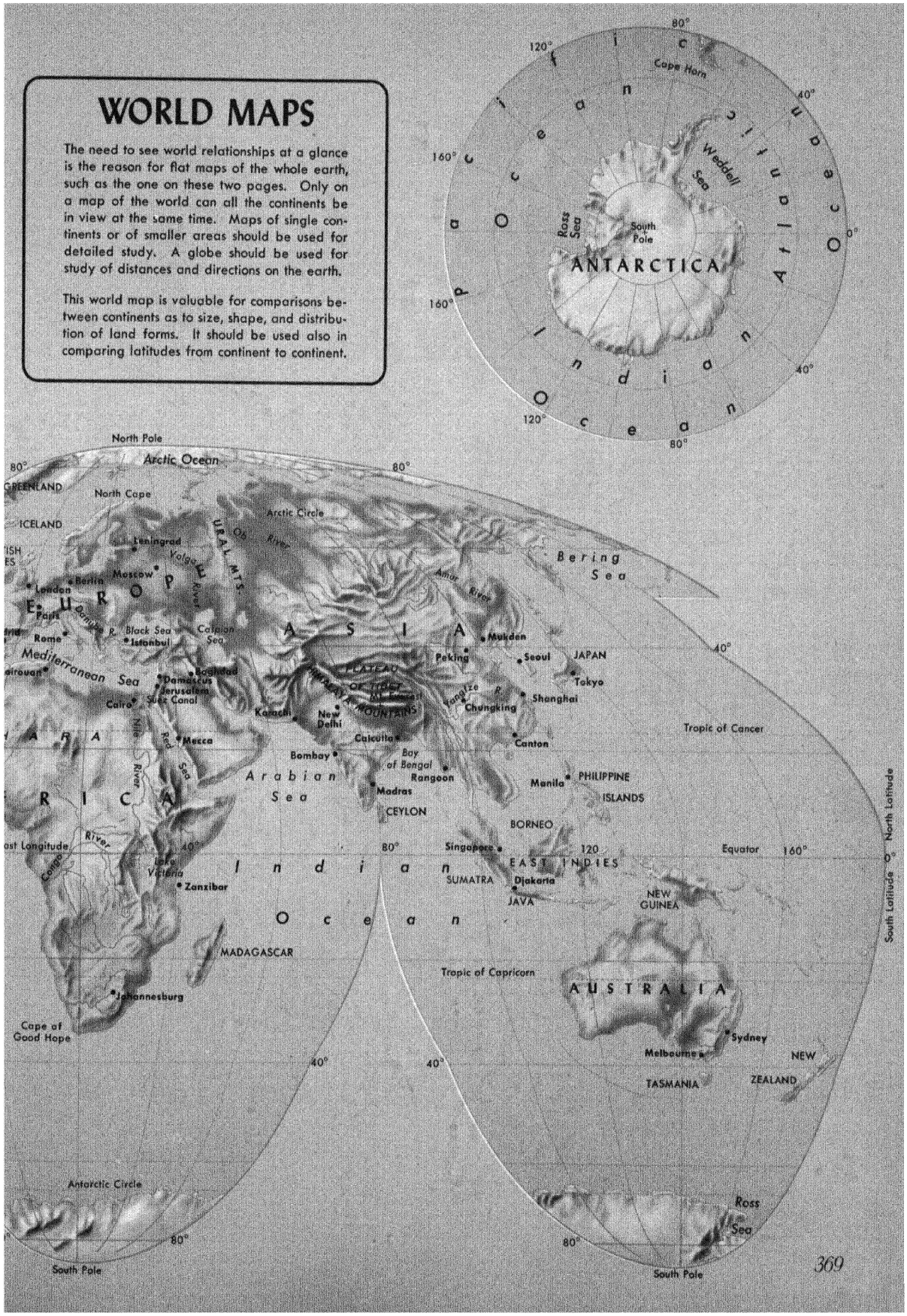
ASIA
EUROPE
URAL MTS.
Arctic Ocean
North Pole
Polar Ice Pack
Bering Sea
ICELAND
GREENLAND
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
NORTH AMERICA
Hudson Bay
North Pole
Arctic Ocean
GREENLAND
Pt. Barrow
Mt. McKinley
Mackenzie R.
ROCKY MTS.
Hudson Bay
Bering Sea
ALEUTIAN ISLANDS
NORTH AMERICA
Vancouver
Great Lakes
Montreal
Chicago
New York
San Francisco
Los Angeles
Mississippi R.
Gulf of Mexico
Tropic of Cancer
Mexico City
WEST INDIES
Caribbean Sea
CENTRAL AMERICA
Panama Canal
Caracas
Bogotá
Amazon River
SOUTH AMERICA
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
AZORES
CAPE VERDE ISLANDS
Dakar
West Longitude
Equator
North Latitude
South Latitude
SAMOA ISLANDS
Tropic of Capricorn
São Paulo
Rio de Janeiro
Mt. Aconcagua
Santiago
Cape Horn
Weddell Sea
Ross Sea
South Pole
South Pole
80°
120°
160°
40°
0°

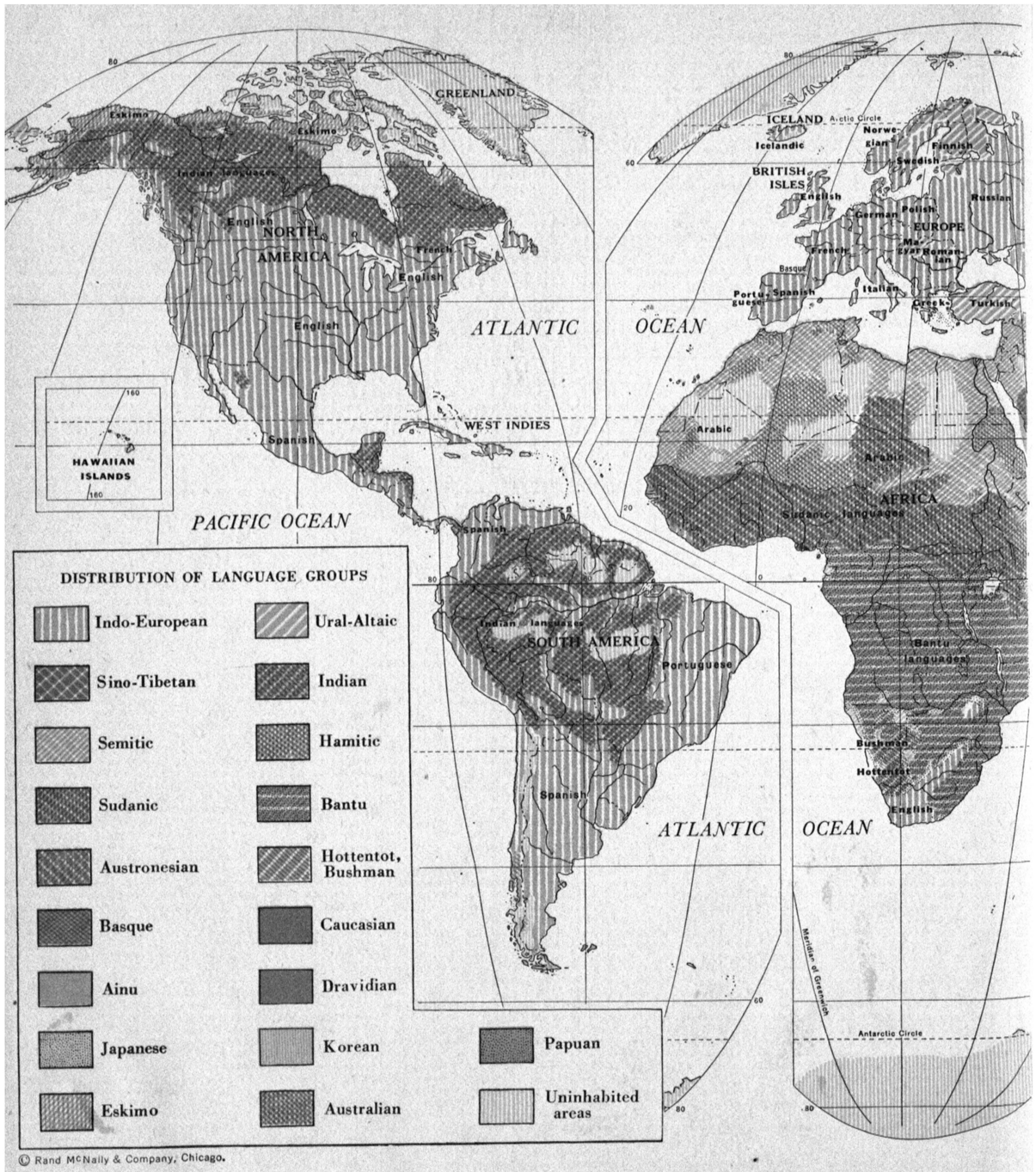
WORLD MAPS

The need to see world relationships at a glance is the reason for flat maps of the whole earth, such as the one on these two pages. Only on a map of the world can all the continents be in view at the same time. Maps of single continents or of smaller areas should be used for detailed study. A globe should be used for study of distances and directions on the earth.

This world map is valuable for comparisons between continents as to size, shape, and distribution of land forms. It should be used also in comparing latitudes from continent to continent.



LANGUAGES OF THE WORLD



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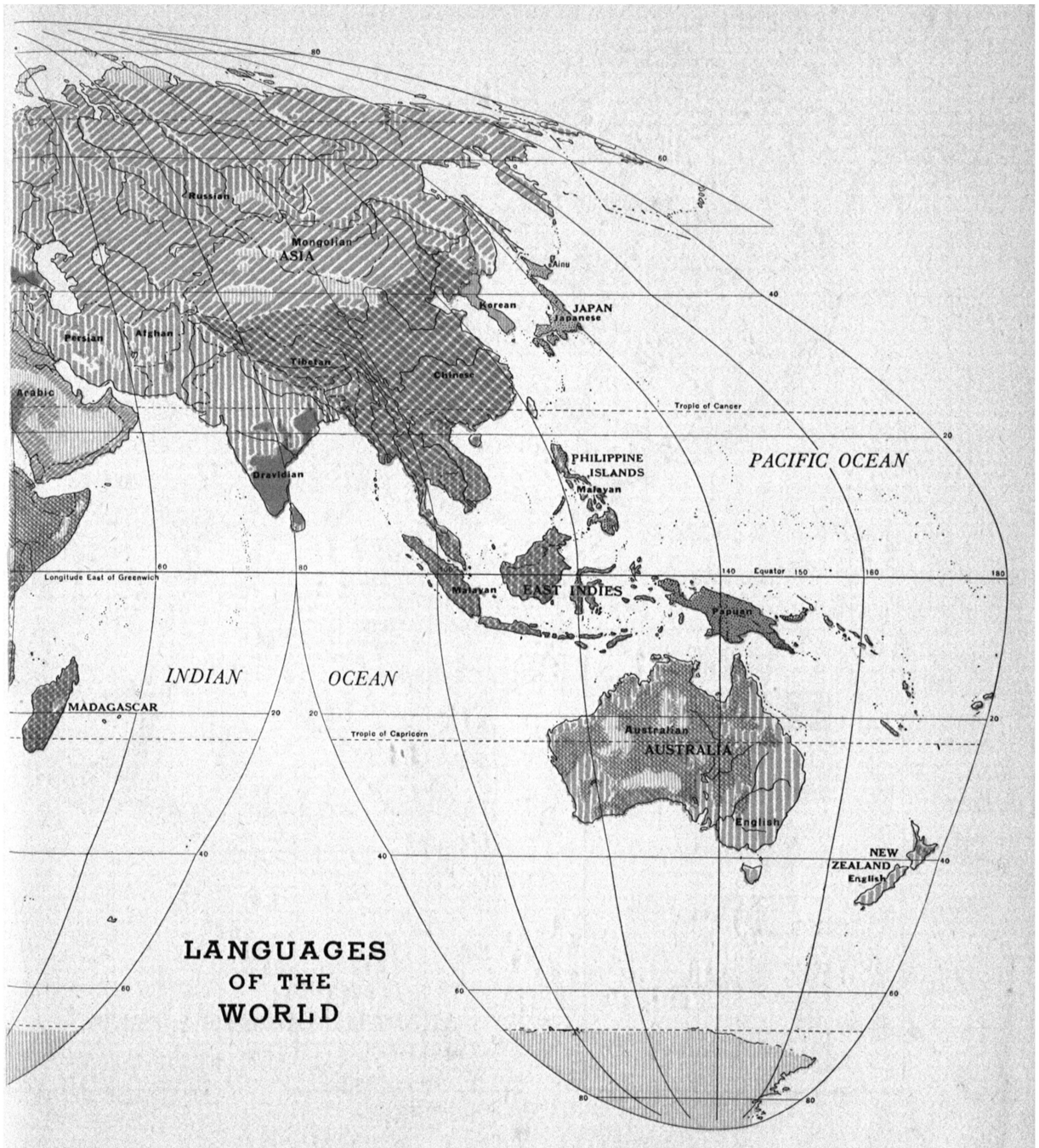
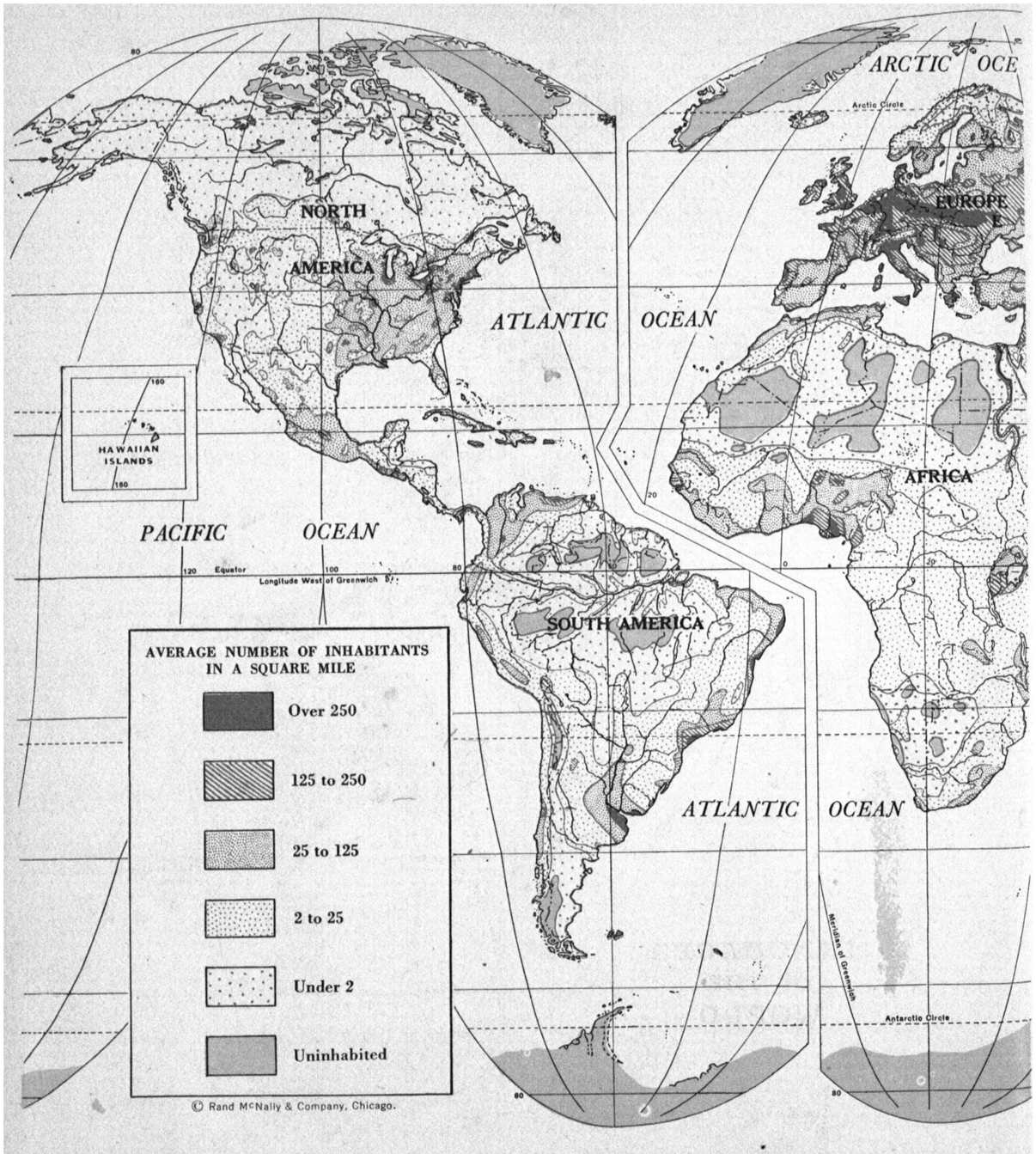
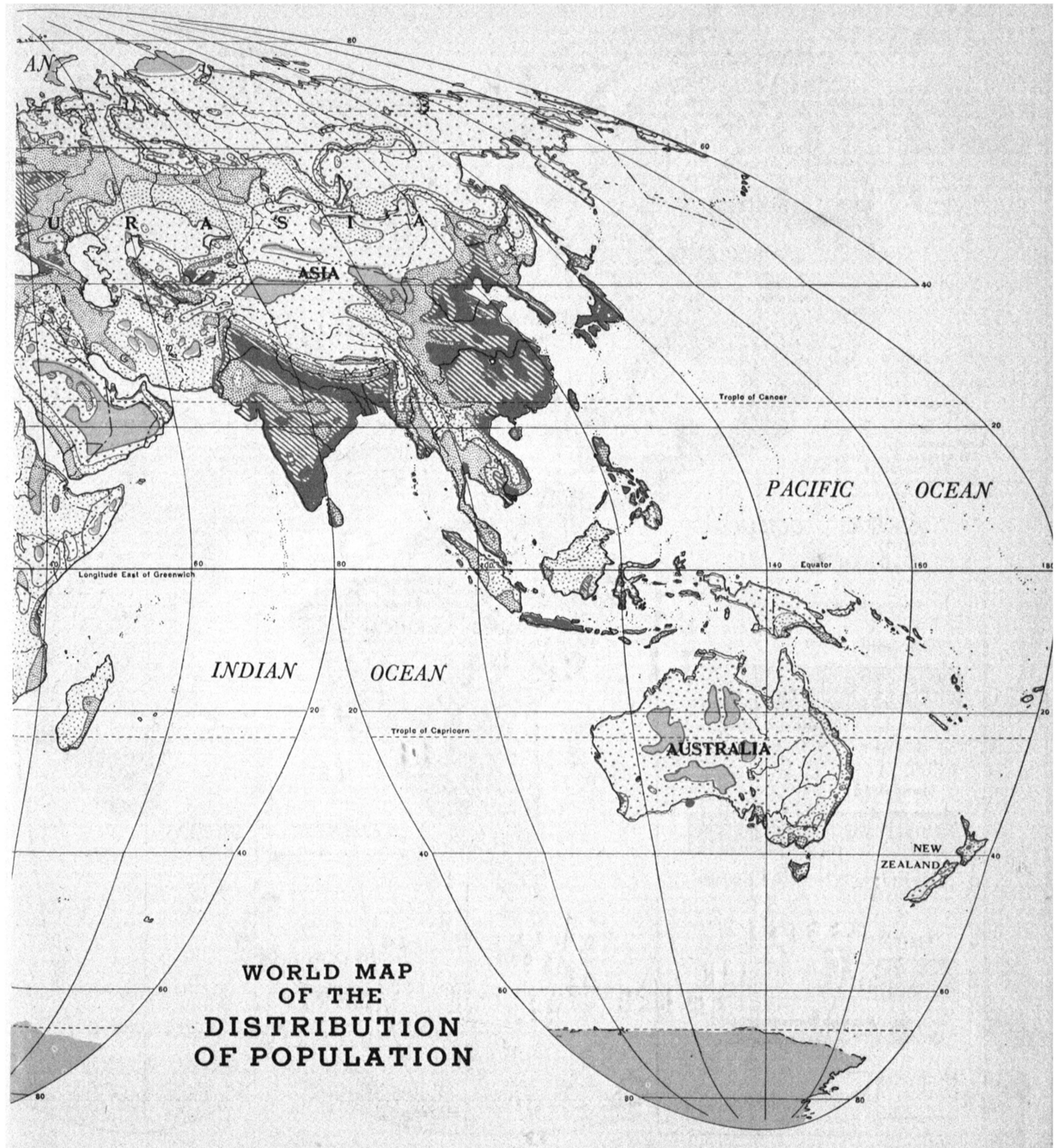
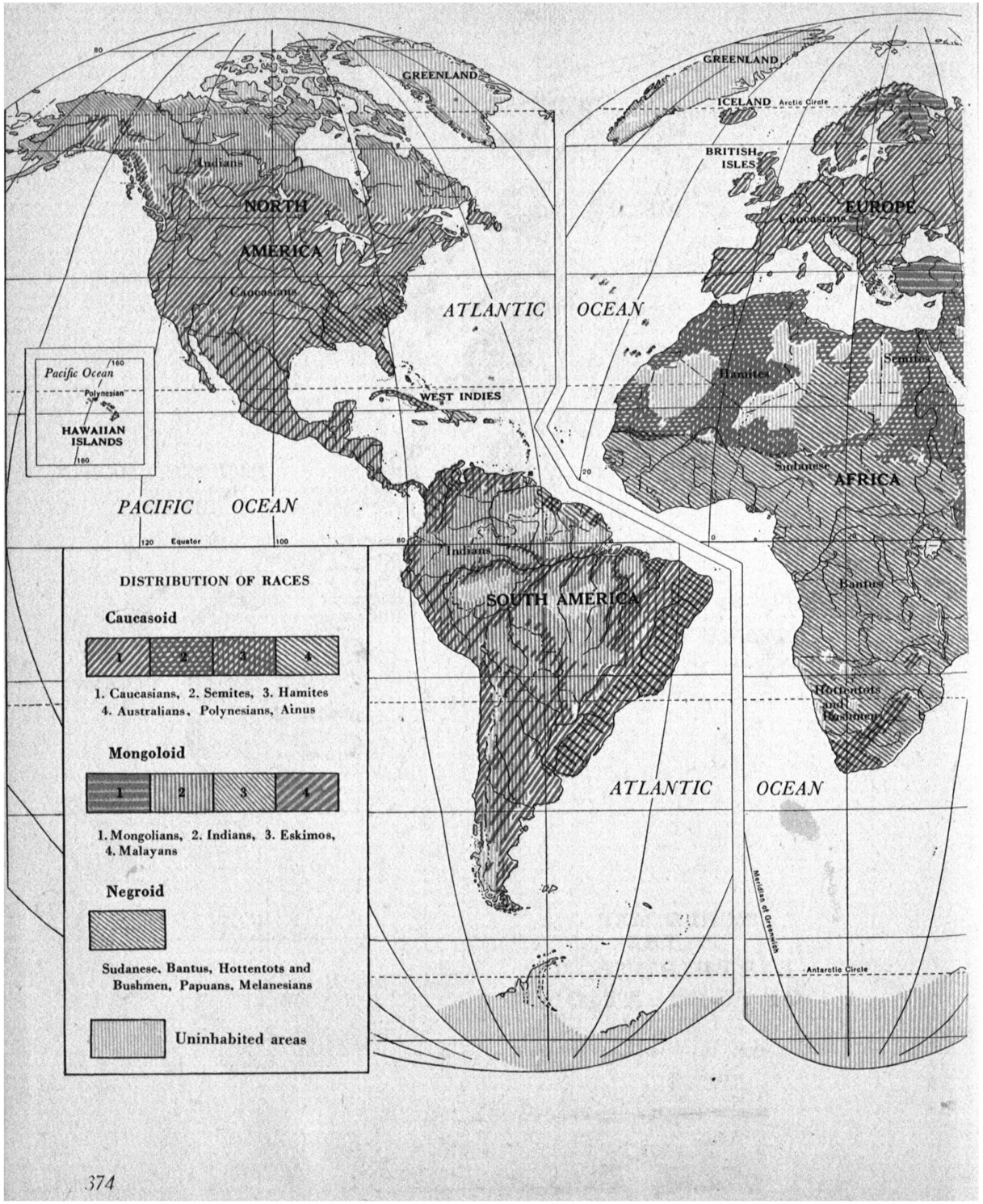
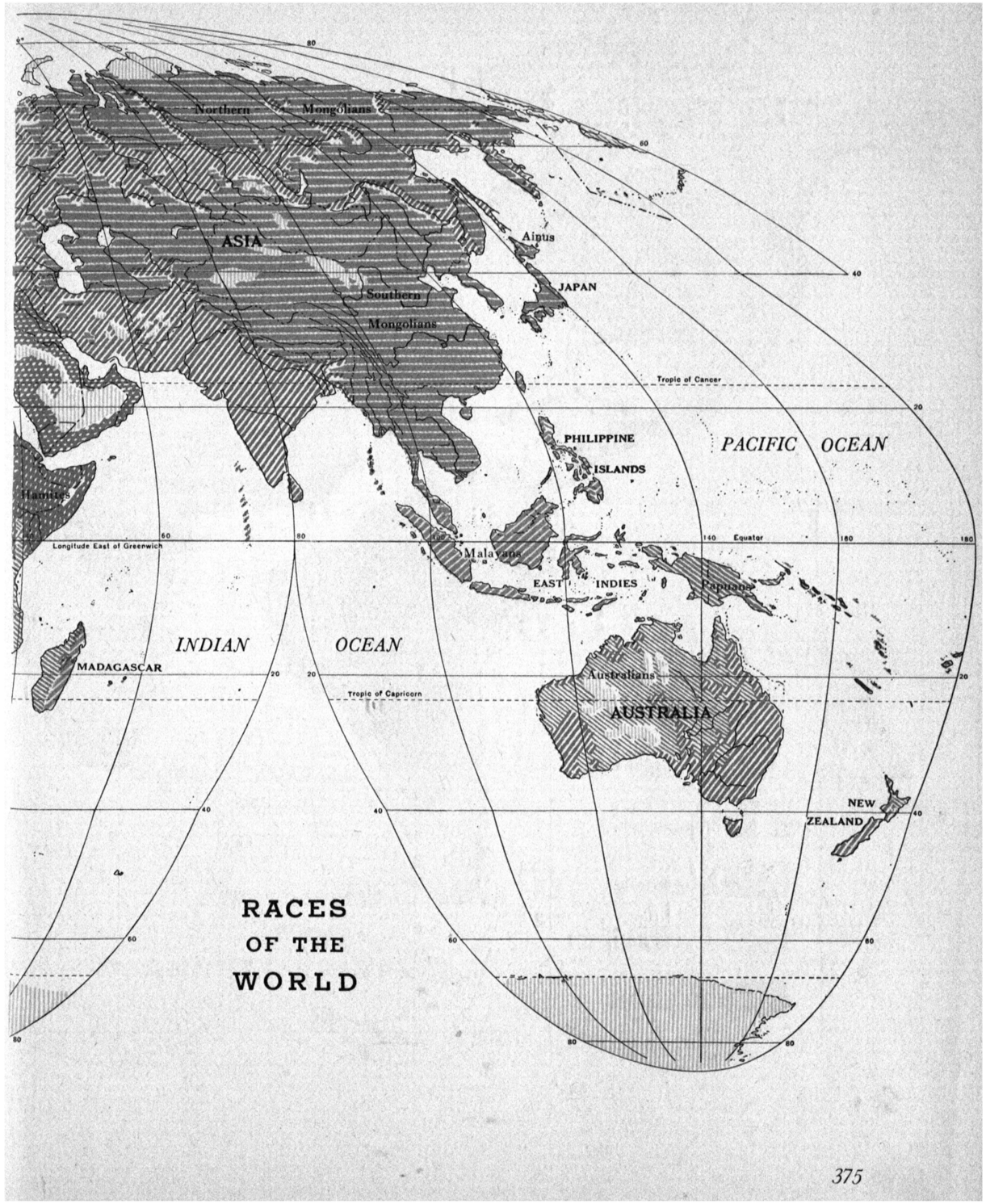


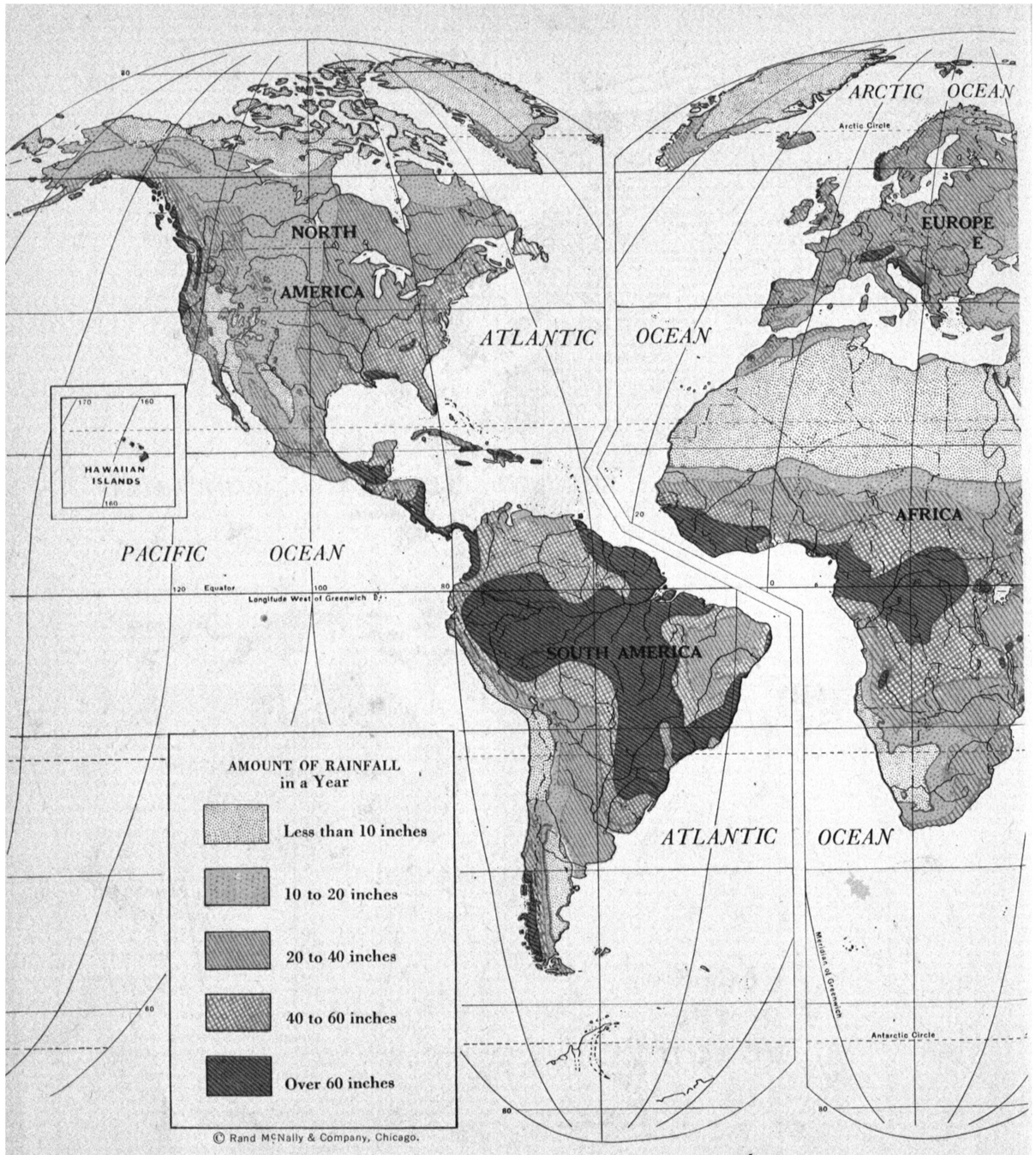

ARCTIC OCE
Arctic Circle
NORTH AMERICA
EUROPE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
AFRICA
HAWAIIAN ISLANDS
PACIFIC OCEAN
Equator
Longitude West of Greenwich
SOUTH AMERICA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Meridian of Greenwich
Antarctic Circle
AVERAGE NUMBER OF INHABITANTS IN A SQUARE MILE
Over 250
125 to 250
25 to 125
2 to 25
Under 2
Uninhabited
© Rand McNally & Company, Chicago.

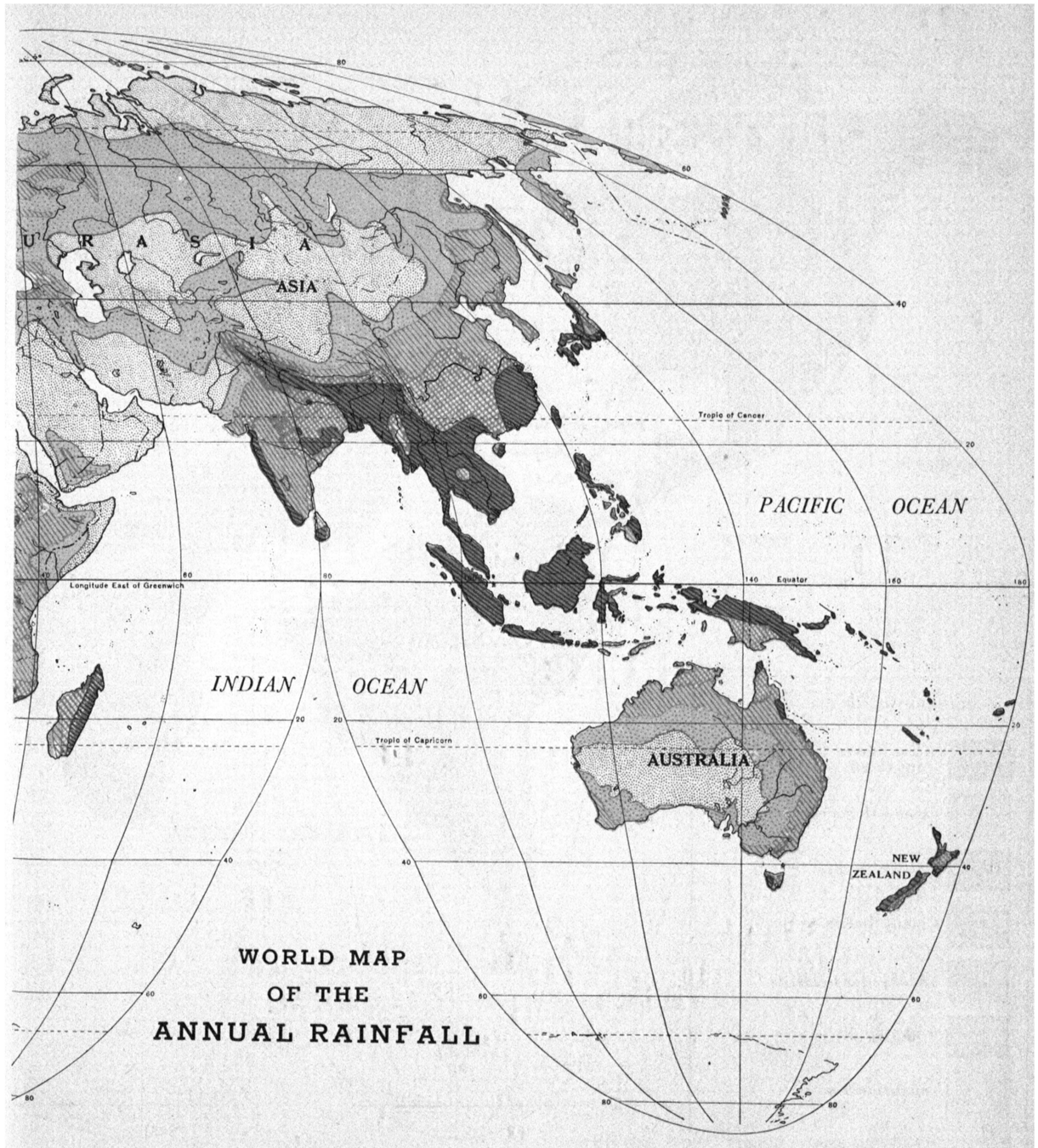

AN
U R A S I A
ASIA
Tropic of Cancer
PACIFIC OCEAN
Equator
Longitude East of Greenwich
INDIAN OCEAN
Tropic of Capricorn
AUSTRALIA
NEW ZEALAND
WORLD MAP OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION

RACES OF THE WORLD

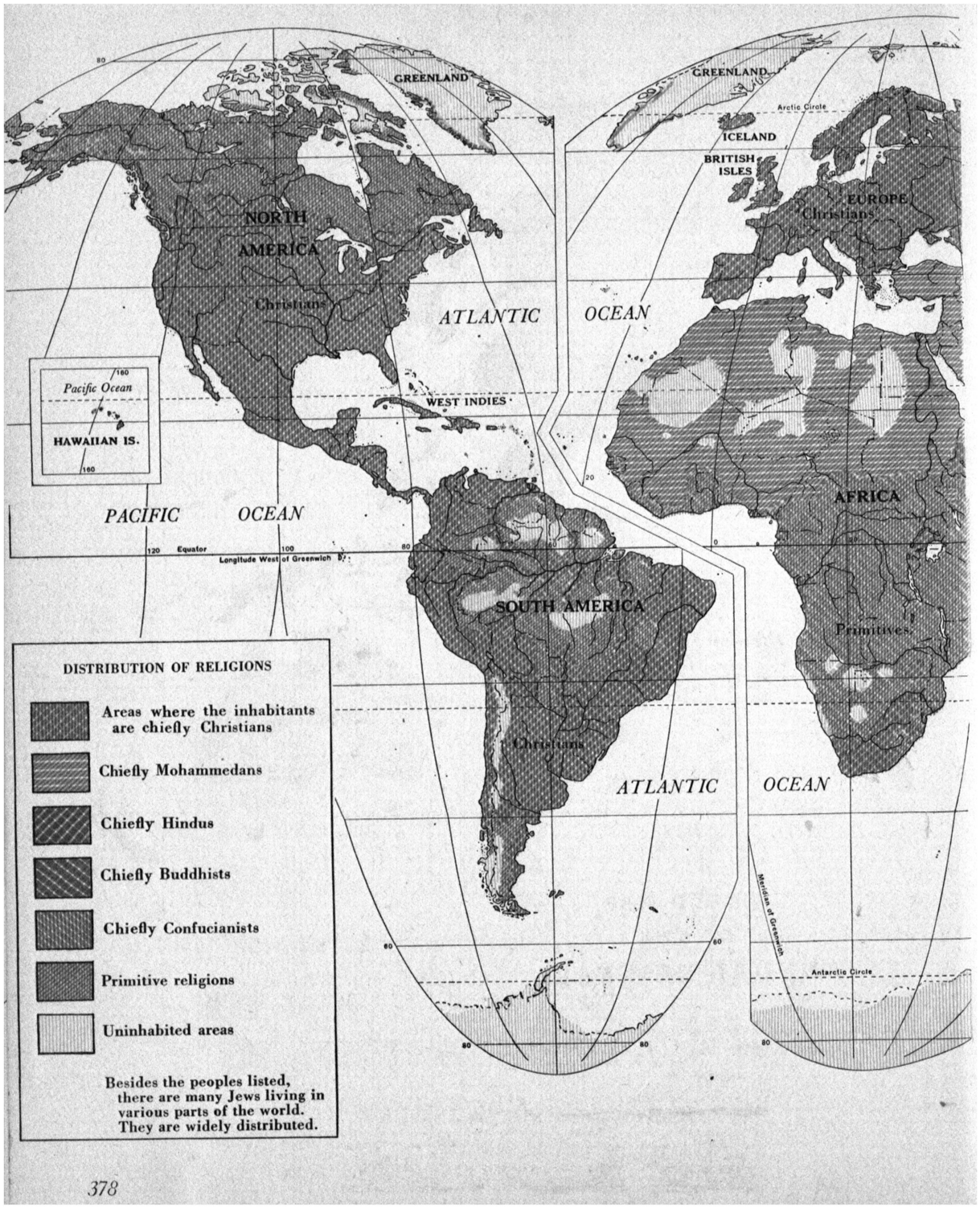


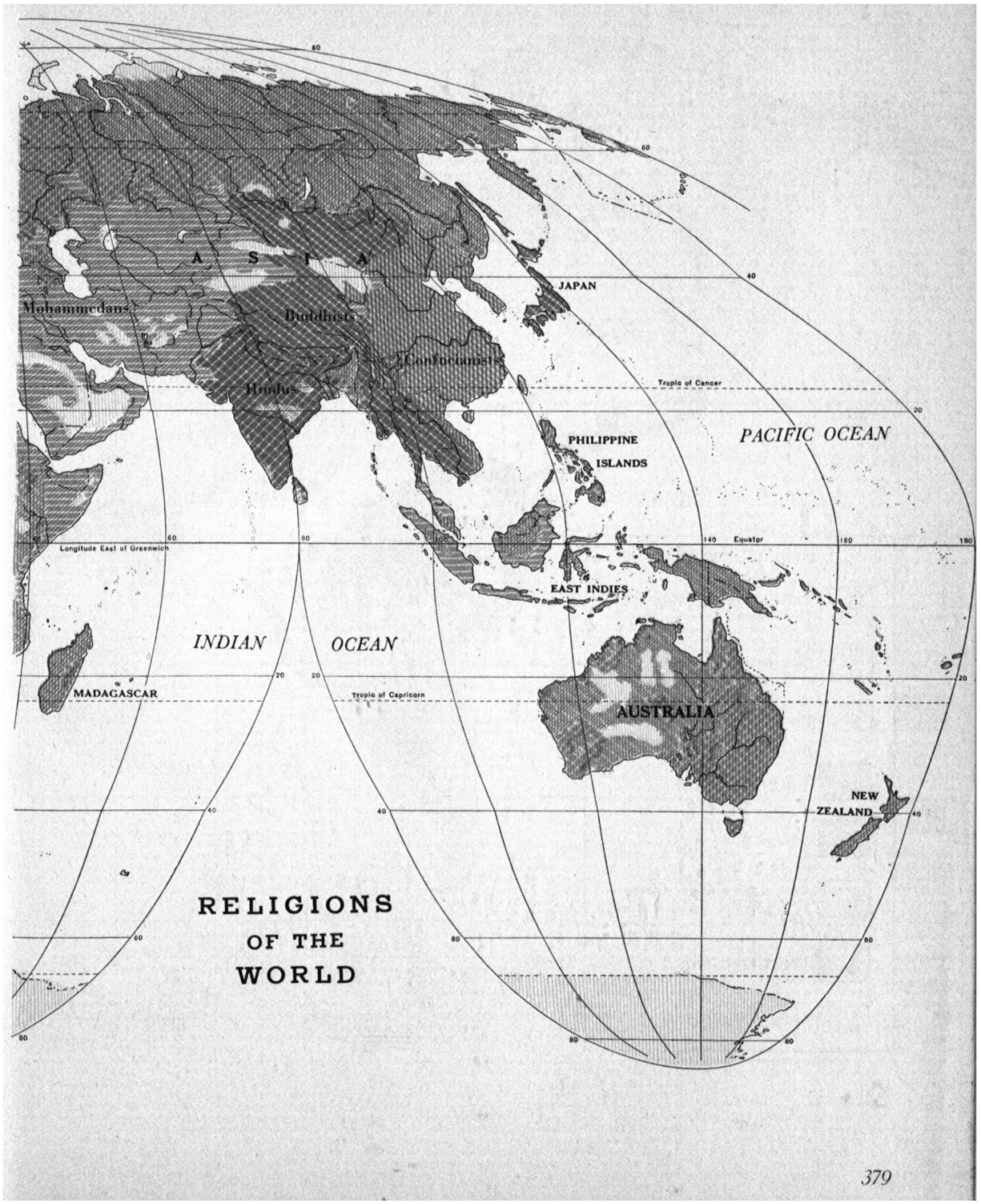




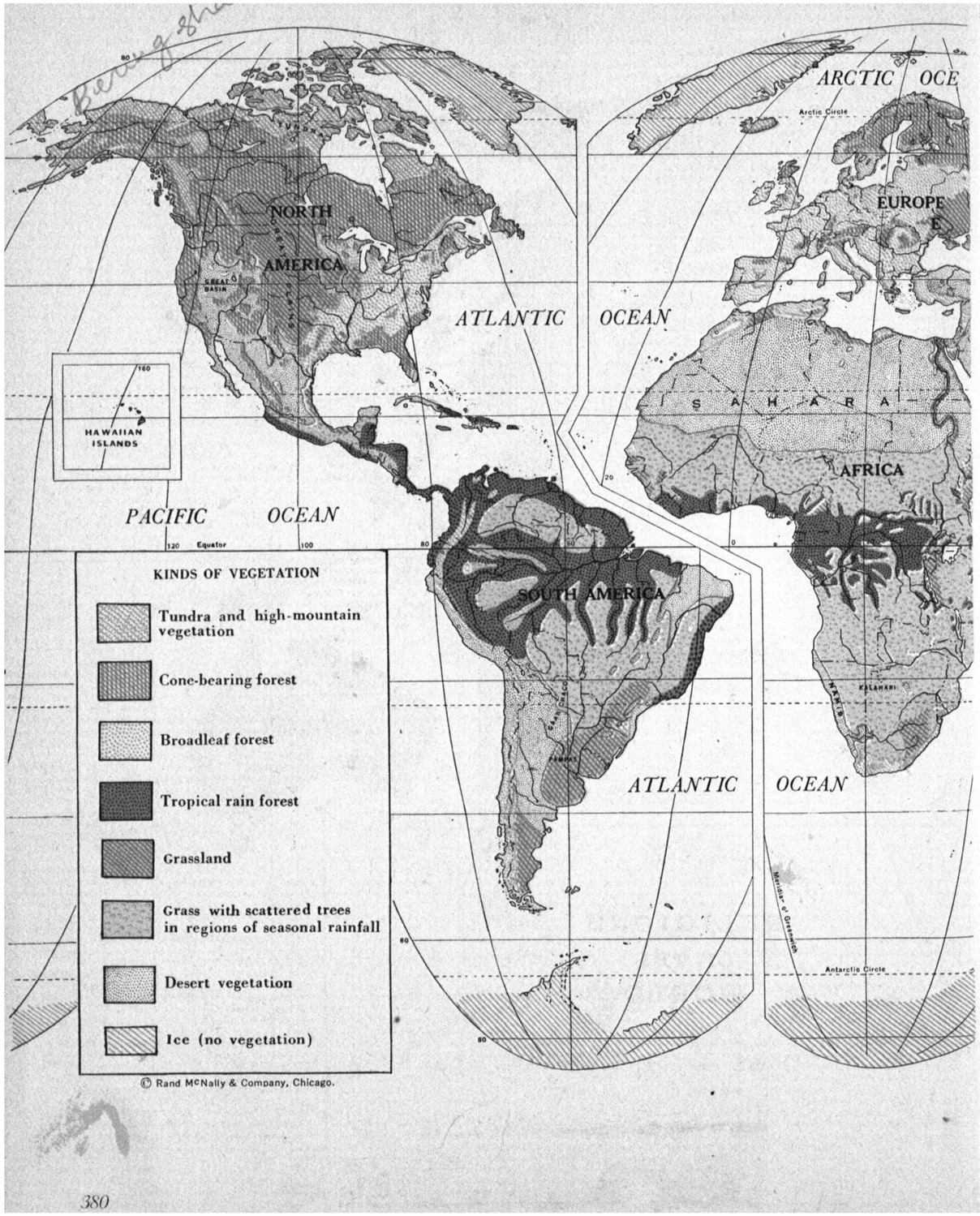


WORLD MAP OF THE ANNUAL RAINFALL


GREENLAND
NORTH AMERICA
Christians
ATLANTIC OCEAN
WEST INDIES
Pacific Ocean
HAWAIIAN IS.
PACIFIC OCEAN
Equator
Longitude West of Greenwich
SOUTH AMERICA
Christians
GREENLAND
Arctic Circle
ICELAND
BRITISH ISLES
EUROPE
Christians
AFRICA
Primitives
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Meridian of Greenwich
Antarctic Circle
DISTRIBUTION OF RELIGIONS
Areas where the inhabitants are chiefly Christians
Chiefly Mohammedans
Chiefly Hindus
Chiefly Buddhists
Chiefly Confucianists
Primitive religions
Uninhabited areas
Besides the peoples listed, there are many Jews living in various parts of the world. They are widely distributed.


ASIA
Mohammedans
Buddhists
Confucianists
Hindus
JAPAN
Tropic of Cancer
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
PACIFIC OCEAN
Longitude East of Greenwich
Equator
EAST INDIES
INDIAN OCEAN
MADAGASCAR
Tropic of Capricorn
AUSTRALIA
NEW ZEALAND
RELIGIONS OF THE WORLD

WORLD MAP OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF VEGETATION



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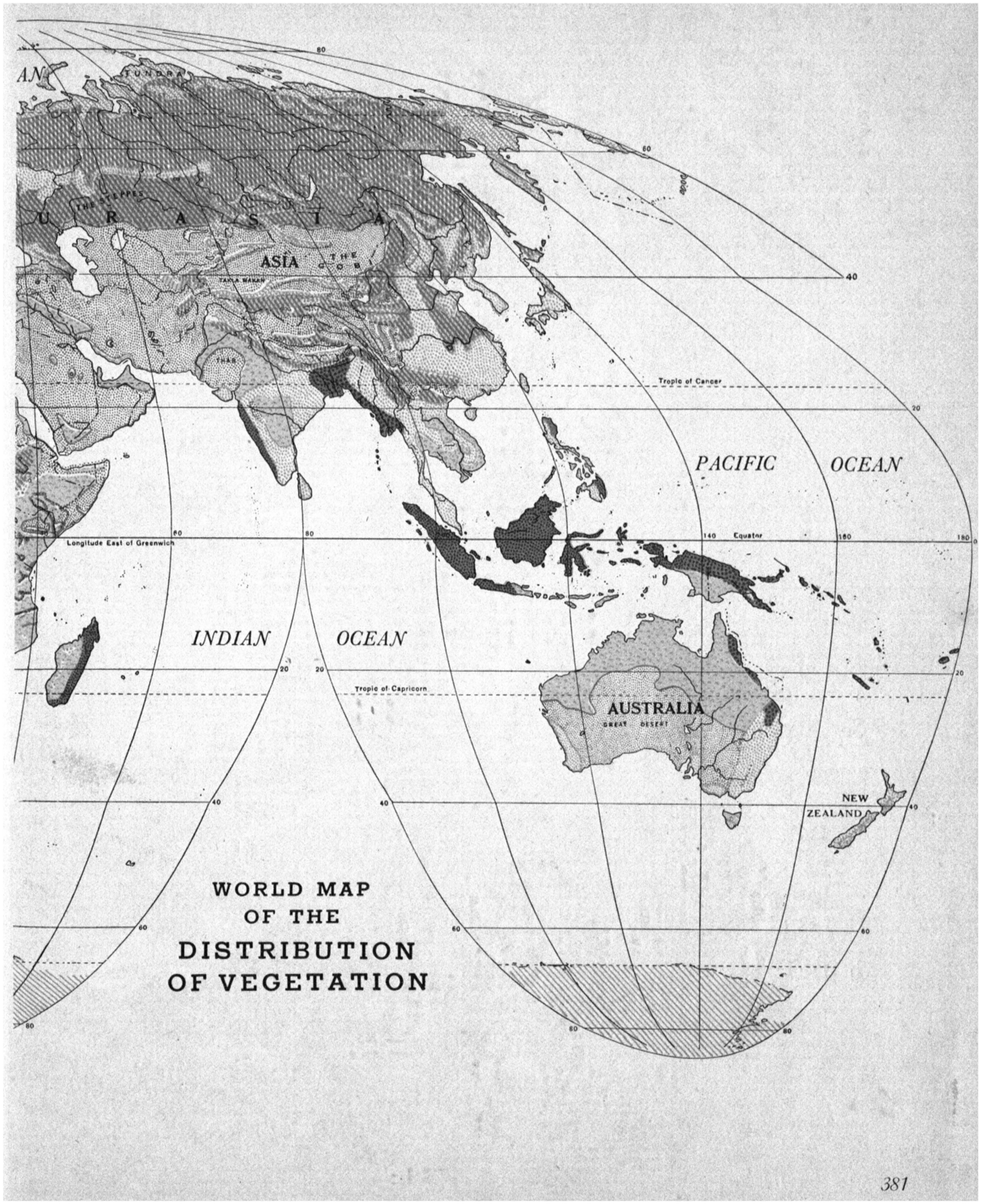

ASIA

Scale of Miles

0 100 200 400 600 800

⊛ National Capitals • Other Cities

Shading from green through yellow, brown, and red indicates increase in altitude. Figures show approximate altitude in feet for corresponding color.

10,000 ft.
5,000 ft.
2,000 ft.
1,000 ft.
500 ft.

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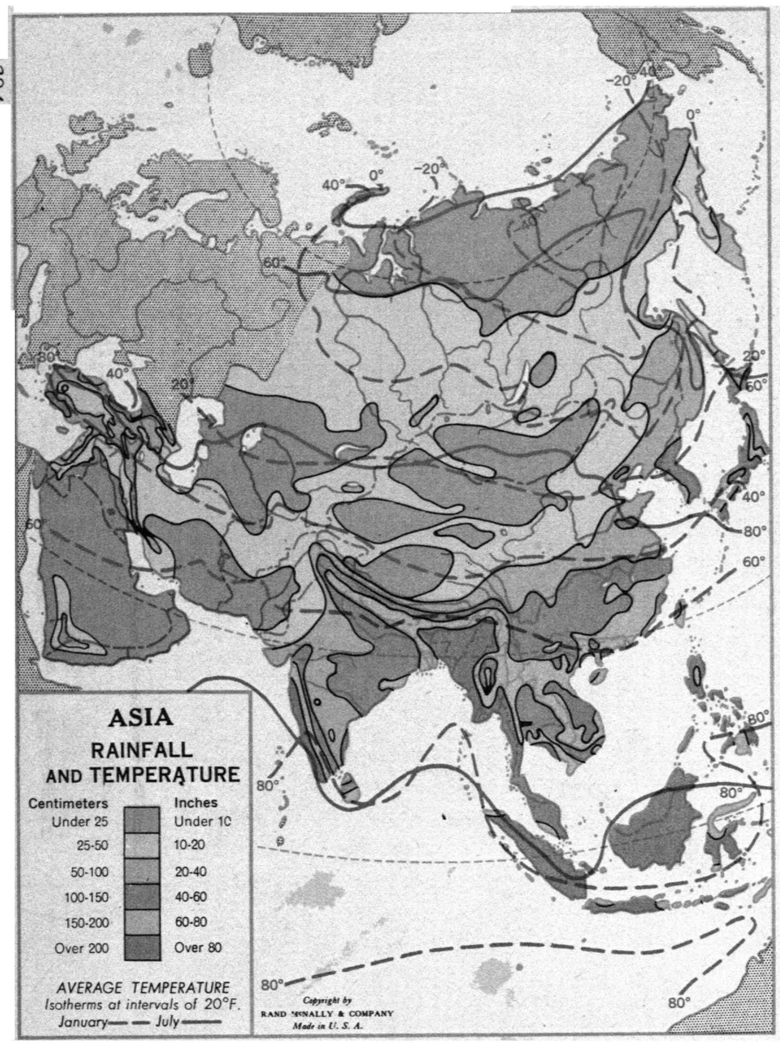
ASIA
RAINFALL
AND TEMPERATURE
Centimeters
Inches
Under 25
Under 10
25-50
10-20
50-100
20-40
100-150
40-60
150-200
60-80
Over 200
Over 80
AVERAGE TEMPERATURE
Isotherms at intervals of 20°F.
January
July
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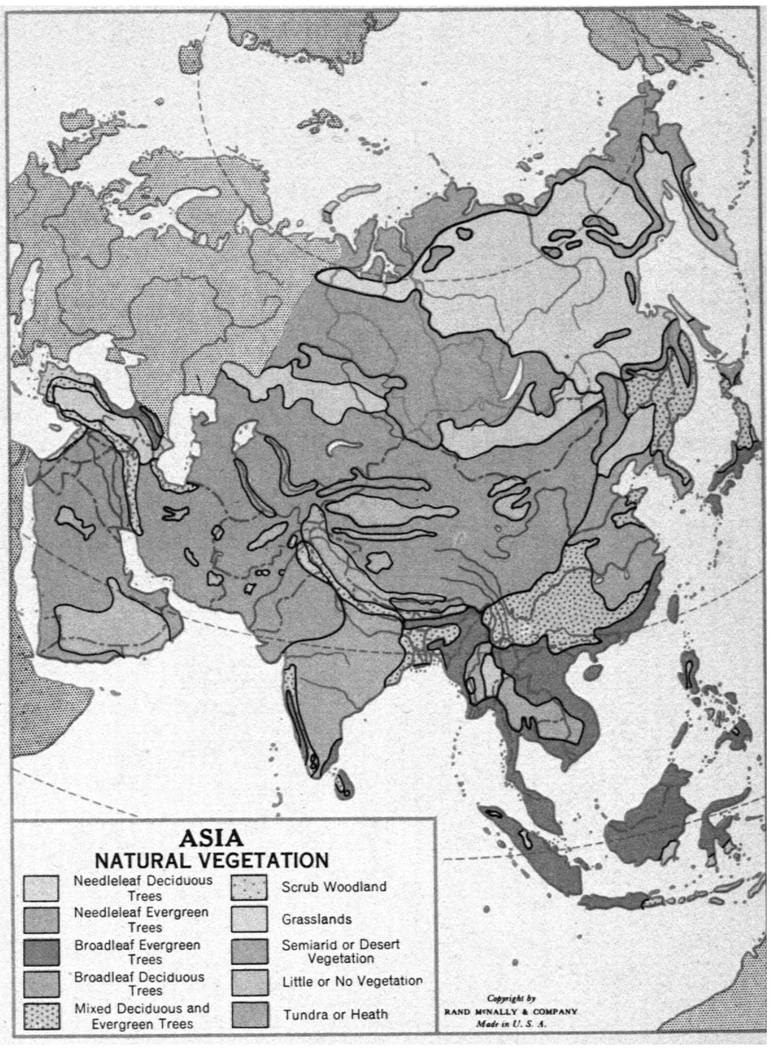
ASIA
NATURAL VEGETATION
Needleleaf Deciduous Trees
Needleleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Deciduous Trees
Mixed Deciduous and Evergreen Trees
Scrub Woodland
Grasslands
Semiarid or Desert Vegetation
Little or No Vegetation
Tundra or Heath
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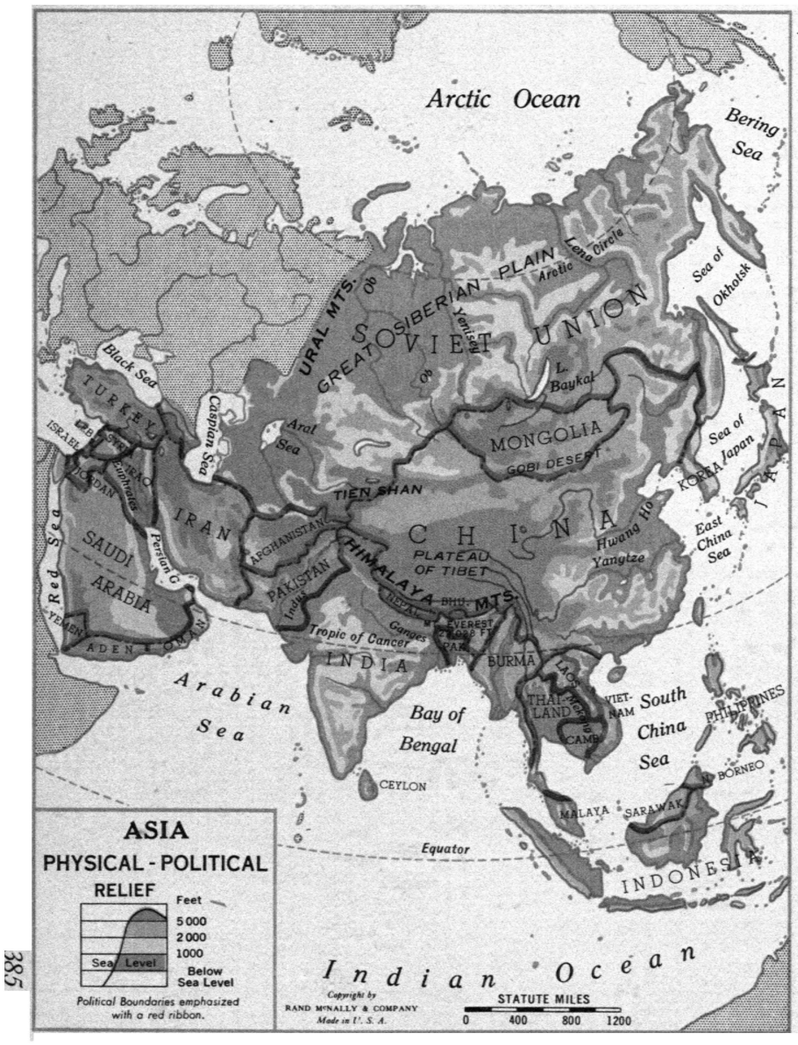
Arctic Ocean
Bering Sea
Sea of Okhotsk
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Persian G.
Red Sea
Arabian Sea
Bay of Bengal
South China Sea
East China Sea
Sea of Japan
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Indian Ocean
URAL MTS.
GREAT SIBERIAN PLAIN
SOVIET UNION
Arctic Circle
Yenisei R.
L. Baykal
MONGOLIA
GOBI DESERT
TIEN SHAN
CHINA
PLATEAU OF TIBET
HIMALAYA MTS.
Hwang Ho
Yangtze
KOREA
JAPAN
TURKEY
ISRAEL
JORDAN
IRAN
AFGHANISTAN
PAKISTAN
Indus
SAUDI ARABIA
YEMEN
ADEN
OMAN
NEPAL
Ganges
EVEREST 29,002 FT.
INDIA
BURMA
THAILAND
VIET-NAM
CAMB.
PHILIPPINES
BORNEO
MALAYA
SARAWAK
INDONESIA
CEYLON
ASIA
PHYSICAL - POLITICAL
RELIEF
Feet
5 000
2 000
1000
Sea Level
Below Sea Level
Political Boundaries emphasized with a red ribbon.
Copyright by
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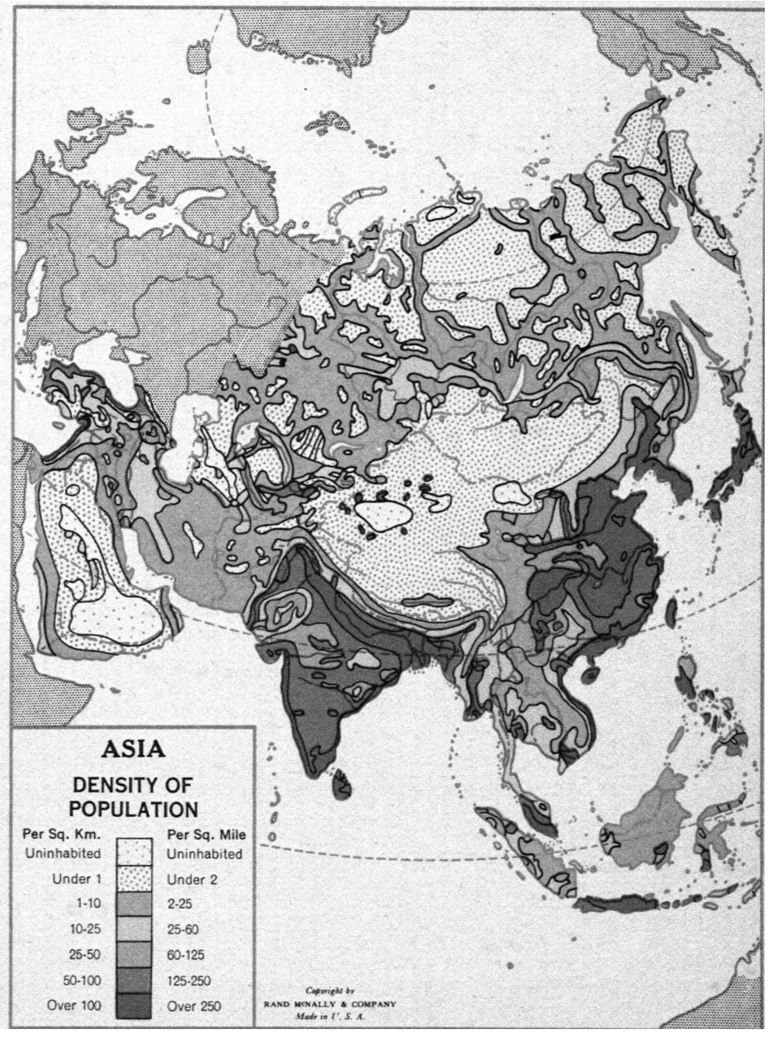
STATUTE MILES
0 400 800 1200


ASIA
DENSITY OF
POPULATION
Per Sq. Km.
Per Sq. Mile
Uninhabited
Uninhabited
Under 1
Under 2
1-10
2-25
10-25
25-60
25-50
60-125
50-100
125-250
Over 100
Over 250
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EUROPE
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 200 300 400
National Capitals
Other Capitals
Other Cities
Shading from green through yellow, brown, and red indicates increase in altitude. Figures show approximate altitude in feet for corresponding color.
10,000 ft.
5,000 ft.
2,000 ft.
1,000 ft.
500 ft.
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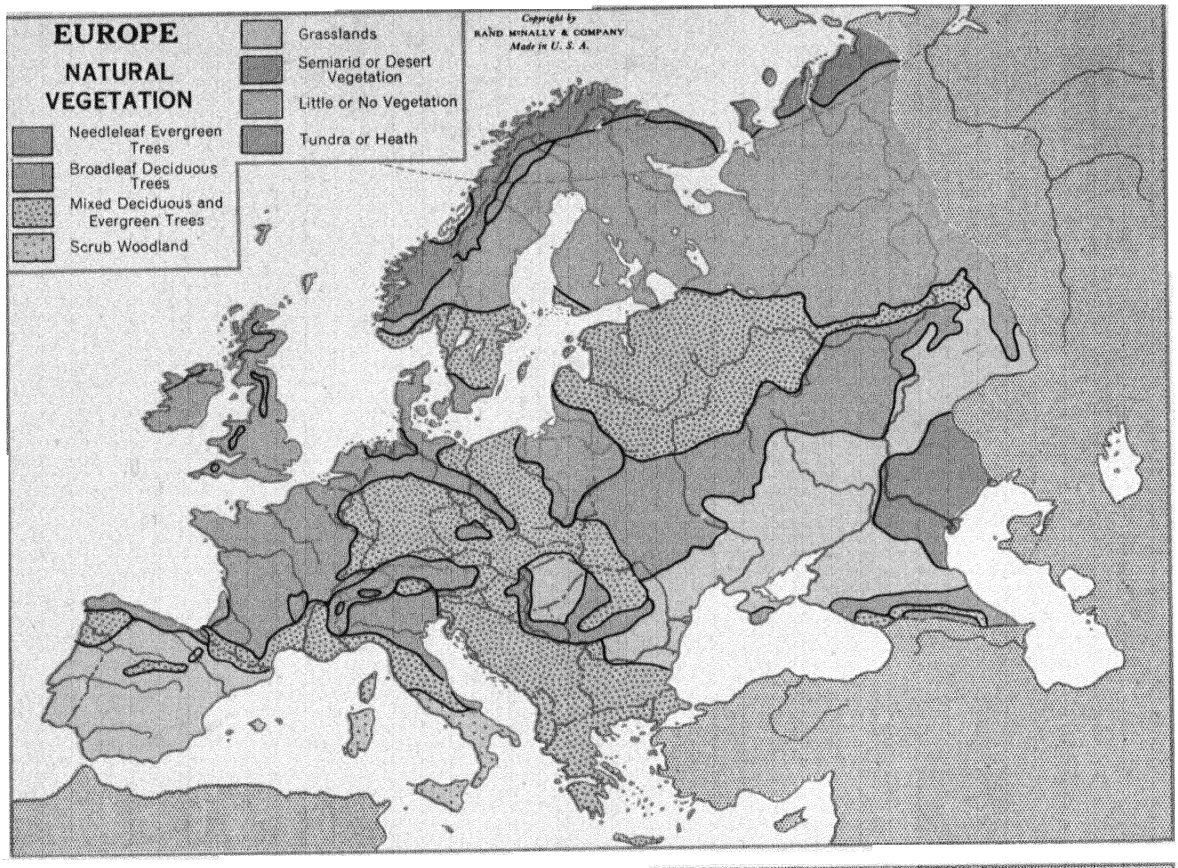
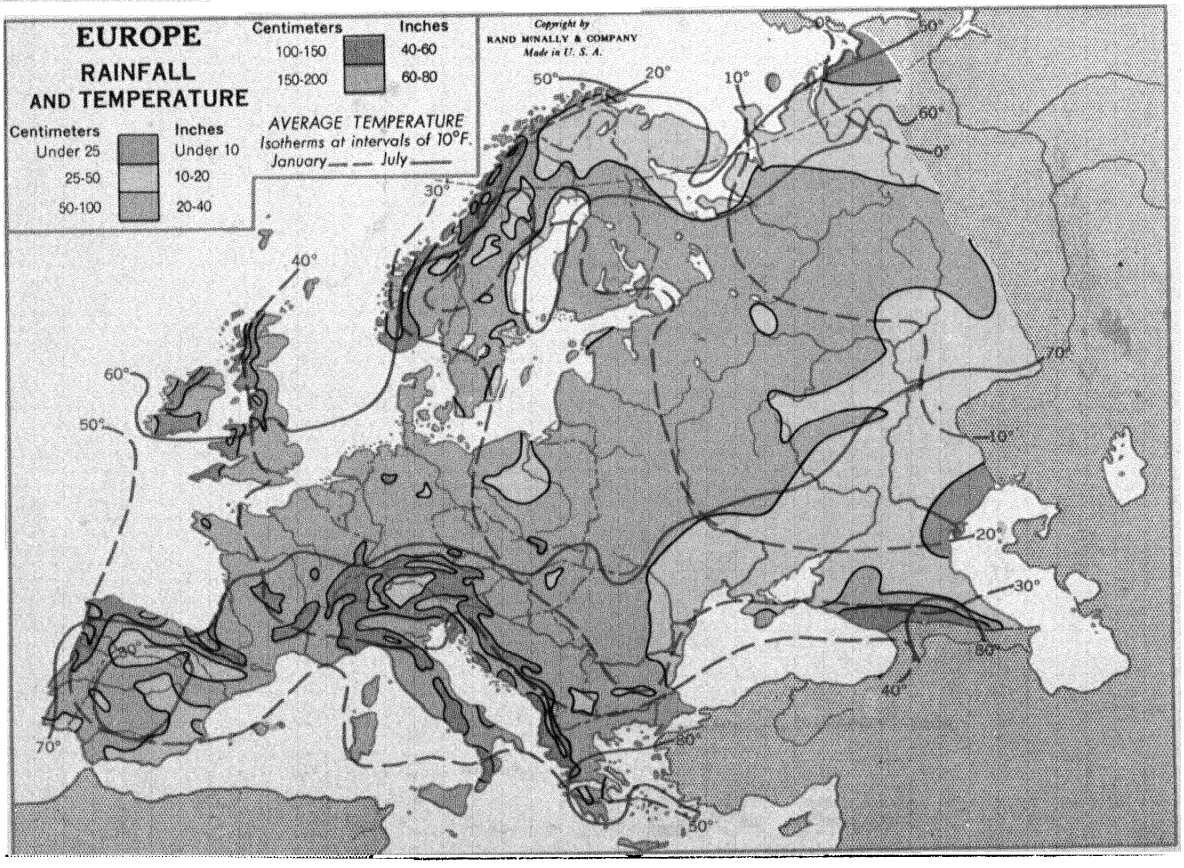
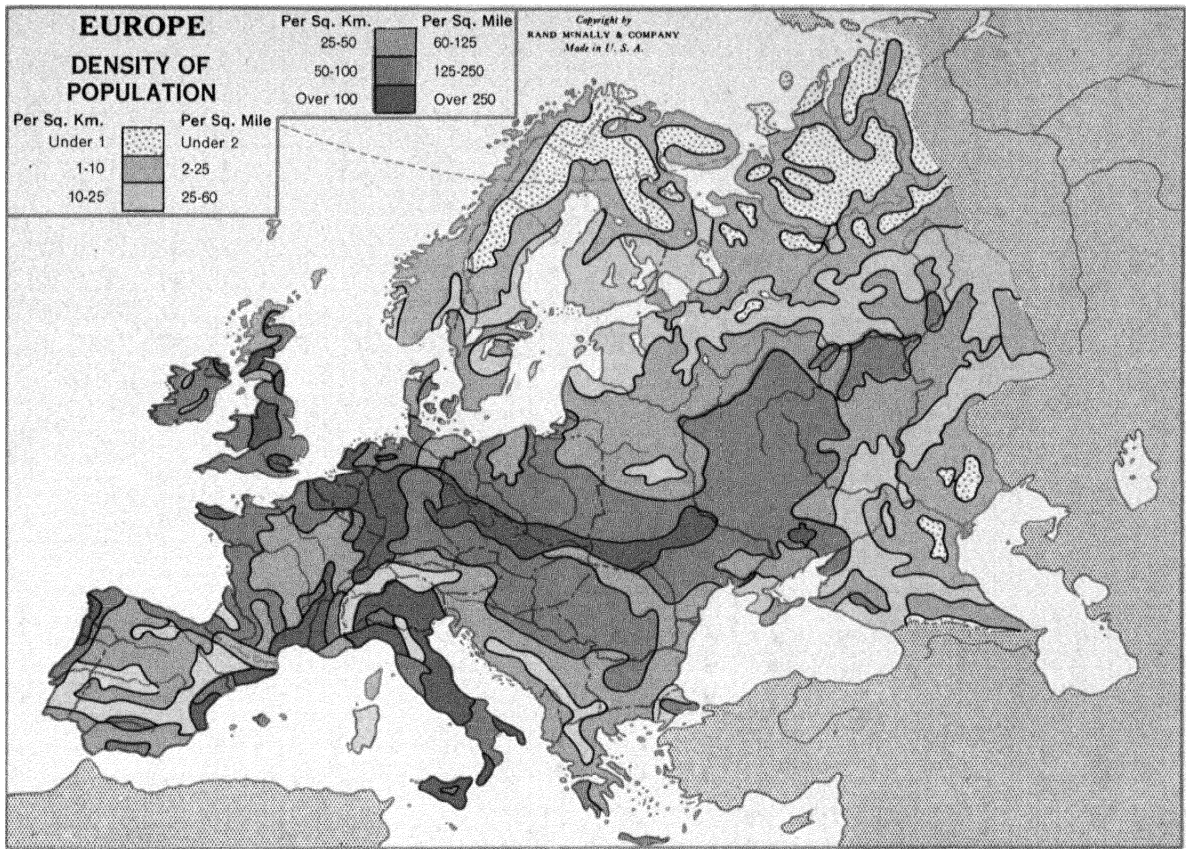
Atlantic Ocean
Norwegian Sea
North Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Persian Gulf
Arctic Circle
Reykjavik
ICELAND
FAEROE ISLANDS
SHETLAND ISLANDS
Bergen
Oslo
NORWAY
SWEDEN
Glasgow
IRELAND
Dublin
UNITED KINGDOM
Liverpool
London
English Channel
DENMARK
Copenhagen
Hamburg
Berlin
NETHERLANDS
Amsterdam
Antwerp
BELGIUM
Brussels
Cologne
Bonn
GERMANY
Prague
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
Danzig
POLAND
Paris
FRANCE
Bay of Biscay
Bordeaux
Loire
Nantes
Lyon
Munich
Vienna
AUSTRIA
Bern
SWITZERLAND
ALPS
Milan
Venice
Genoa
Marseille
Florence
Rome
Naples
ITALY
YUGOSLAVIA
Adriatic Sea
PYRENEES
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
SPAIN
Madrid
Barcelona
BALEARIC ISLANDS
CORSICA
SARDINIA
Córdoba
Seville
Strait of Gibraltar
Tangier
Rabat
Casablanca
Algiers
Tunis
SICILY
MALTA
Tripoli
Bengasi
ATLAS MOUNTAINS
AFRICA
West Longitude
East Longitude
386


North Cape
Murmansk
Arkhangelsk
FINLAND
Helsinki
Leningrad
Riga
Moscow
Gorki
Volga River
Dvina River
URAL MOUNTAINS
Sverdlovsk
Chelyabinsk
Omsk
Ob River
Arctic Circle
SOVIET UNION
Ural River
Aral Sea
Warsaw
Kiev
Dnepr River
Kharkov
Don River
Stalingrad
Volga River
Rostov
Caspian Sea
CARPATHIANS
Dniester River
ROMANIA
Bucharest
Odessa
KRYM
Sevastopol
CAUCASUS MOUNTAINS
Mt. Elbrus
Batumi
Baku
Black Sea
Belgrade
Danube River
BULGARIA
Sofia
Istanbul
Bosporus
Ankara
Mt. Ararat
Tehran
Mt. Olympus
Aegean Sea
Dardanelles
TURKEY
Asia Minor
GREECE
Izmir
Athens
Tigris
IRAN
RHODES
CYPRUS
UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC
Baghdad
Euphrates River
LEBANON
Beirut
Damascus
IRAQ
CRETE
ISRAEL
Jerusalem
Amman
JORDAN
KUWAIT
Persian Gulf
BAHREIN
Alexandria
Suez Canal
Cairo
SAUDI ARABIA
North Latitude
387


EUROPE
NATURAL VEGETATION
Needleleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Deciduous Trees
Mixed Deciduous and Evergreen Trees
Scrub Woodland
Grasslands
Semiarid or Desert Vegetation
Little or No Vegetation
Tundra or Heath
Copyright by RAND MCNALLY & COMPANY Made in U. S. A.


EUROPE
RAINFALL AND TEMPERATURE
Centimeters
Under 25
25-50
50-100
Inches
Under 10
10-20
20-40
Centimeters
100-150
150-200
Inches
40-60
60-80
AVERAGE TEMPERATURE
Isotherms at intervals of 10°F.
January
July
Copyright by RAND MCNALLY & COMPANY Made in U. S. A.


EUROPE
DENSITY OF POPULATION
Per Sq. Km.
Per Sq. Mile
25-50
60-125
50-100
125-250
Over 100
Over 250
Per Sq. Km.
Per Sq. Mile
Under 1
Under 2
1-10
2-25
10-25
25-60
Copyright by
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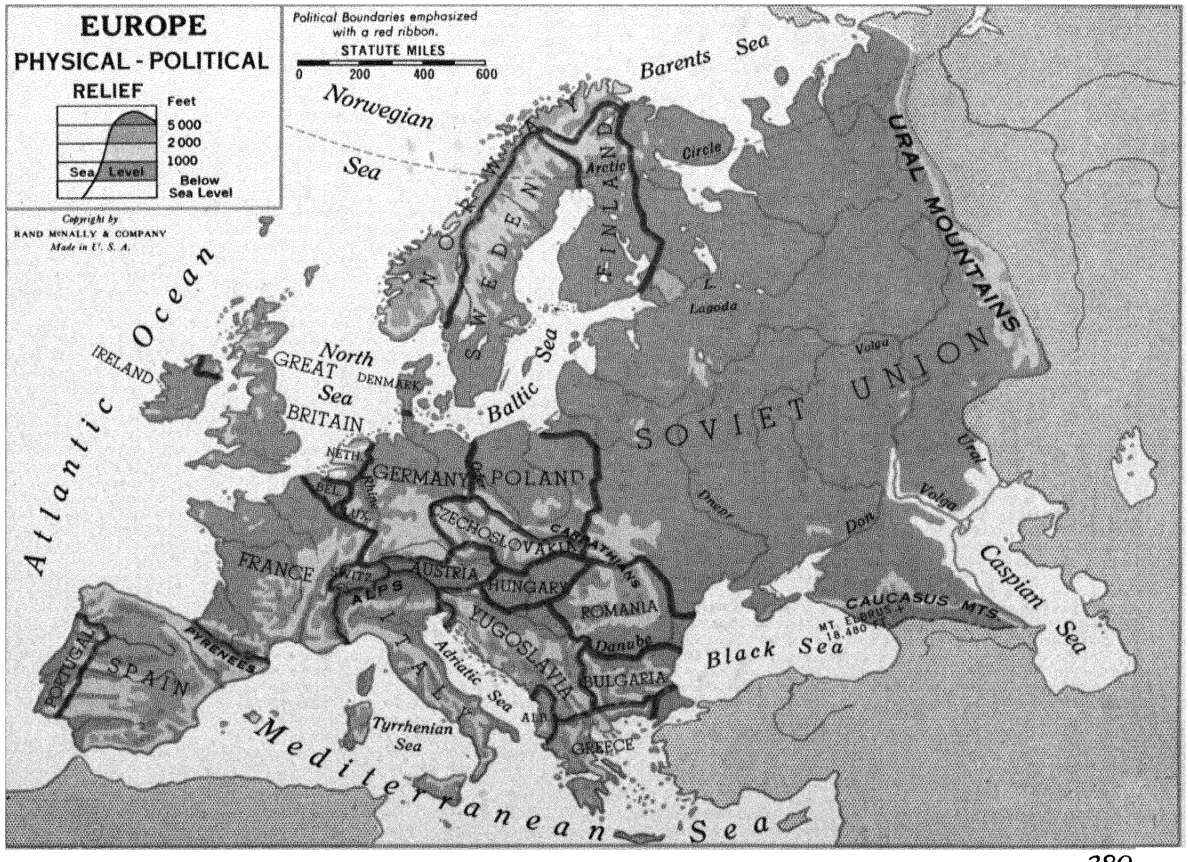
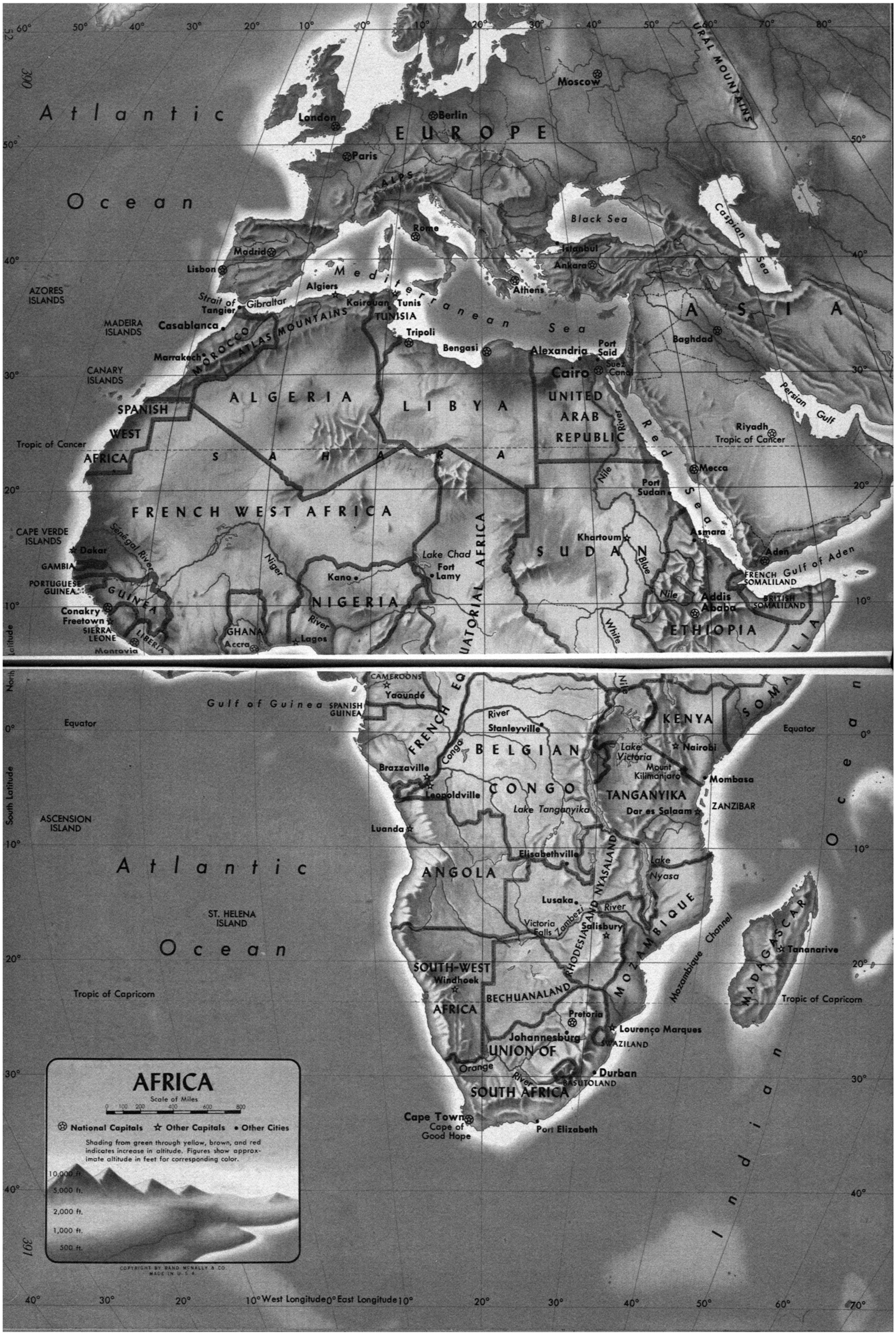
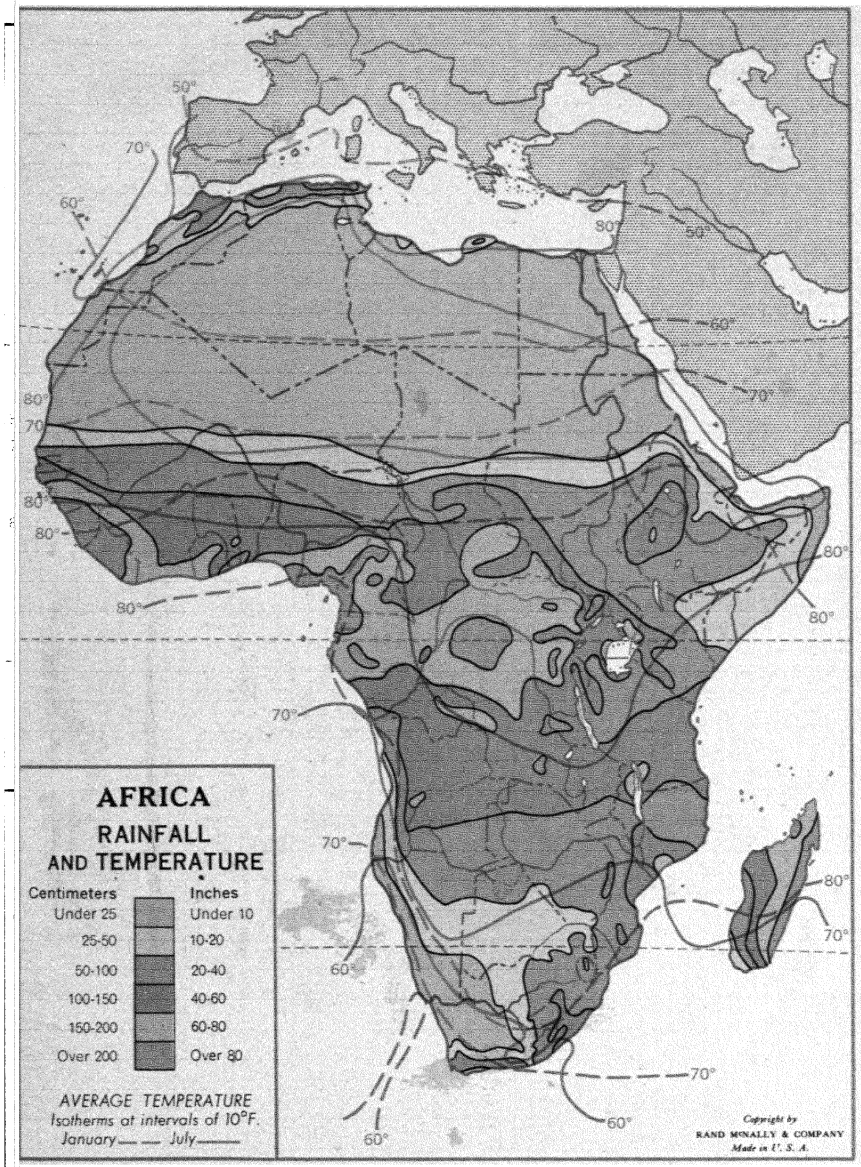

EUROPE
PHYSICAL - POLITICAL
RELIEF
Feet
5 000
2 000
1000
Sea Level
Below Sea Level
Political Boundaries emphasized with a red ribbon.
STATUTE MILES
0 200 400 600
Copyright by
RAND McNALLY & COMPANY
Made in U. S. A.
Barents Sea
Norwegian Sea
Arctic Circle
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
L. Ladoga
URAL MOUNTAINS
Atlantic Ocean
IRELAND
North Sea
GREAT BRITAIN
DENMARK
Baltic Sea
SOVIET UNION
Volga
Ural
Dnepr
Don
Volga
Caspian Sea
NETH.
BEL.
LUX.
GERMANY
POLAND
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
CARPATHIANS
FRANCE
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
ALPS
ROMANIA
Danube
CAUCASUS MTS.
MT. ELBRUS 18,480 ft.
Black Sea
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
PYRENEES
YUGOSLAVIA
Adriatic Sea
BULGARIA
ITALY
Tyrrhenian Sea
GREECE
Mediterranean Sea



Atlantic Ocean
EUROPE
London
Berlin
Paris
Moscow
URAL MOUNTAINS
ALPS
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Rome
Madrid
Lisbon
Istanbul
Ankara
Athens
Mediterranean Sea
Algiers
Kairouan
Tunis
TUNISIA
Strait of Gibraltar
Tangier
Casablanca
MOROCCO
ATLAS MOUNTAINS
Marrakech
Tripoli
Bengasi
Alexandria
Port Said
Suez Canal
Cairo
ASIA
Baghdad
Persian Gulf
Riyadh
Tropic of Cancer
AZORES ISLANDS
MADEIRA ISLANDS
CANARY ISLANDS
ALGERIA
LIBYA
UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC
SPANISH WEST AFRICA
SAHARA
Red Sea
Mecca
Nile River
Port Sudan
Asmara
Khartoum
SUDAN
Aden
Gulf of Aden
FRENCH SOMALILAND
BRITISH SOMALILAND
Addis Ababa
ETHIOPIA
Blue Nile
White Nile
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
CAPE VERDE ISLANDS
Dakar
Sénégal River
GAMBIA
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
GUINEA
Conakry
Freetown
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
Monrovia
Niger River
Kano
NIGERIA
GHANA
Accra
Lagos
Lake Chad
Fort Lamy
EQUATORIAL AFRICA
Equator
CAMEROONS
Yaoundé
Gulf of Guinea
SPANISH GUINEA
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA
Stanleyville
BELGIAN CONGO
Brazzaville
Leopoldville
Congo River
Lake Tanganyika
KENYA
Nairobi
Lake Victoria
Mount Kilimanjaro
Mombasa
TANGANYIKA
Dar es Salaam
ZANZIBAR
SOMALIA
Luanda
ANGOLA
Elisabethville
Lake Nyasa
Lusaka
Victoria Falls
Zambezi River
RHODESIA AND NYASALAND
Salisbury
MOZAMBIQUE
Mozambique Channel
MADAGASCAR
Tananarive
ASCENSION ISLAND
ST. HELENA ISLAND
Tropic of Capricorn
SOUTH-WEST AFRICA
Windhoek
BECHUANALAND
Pretoria
Lourenço Marques
SWAZILAND
Johannesburg
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
Orange River
Durban
BASUTOLAND
Cape Town
Cape of Good Hope
Port Elizabeth
Indian Ocean
AFRICA
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 400 600 800
National Capitals
Other Capitals
Other Cities
Shading from green through yellow, brown, and red indicates increase in altitude. Figures show approximate altitude in feet for corresponding color.
10,000 ft.
5,000 ft.
2,000 ft.
1,000 ft.
500 ft.
COPYRIGHT BY RAND McNALLY & CO. MADE IN U.S.A.
West Longitude
East Longitude
North Latitude
South Latitude


AFRICA
RAINFALL
AND TEMPERATURE
Centimeters
Inches
Under 25
Under 10
25-50
10-20
50-100
20-40
100-150
40-60
150-200
60-80
Over 200
Over 80
AVERAGE TEMPERATURE
Isotherms at intervals of 10°F.
January
July
50°
60°
70°
80°
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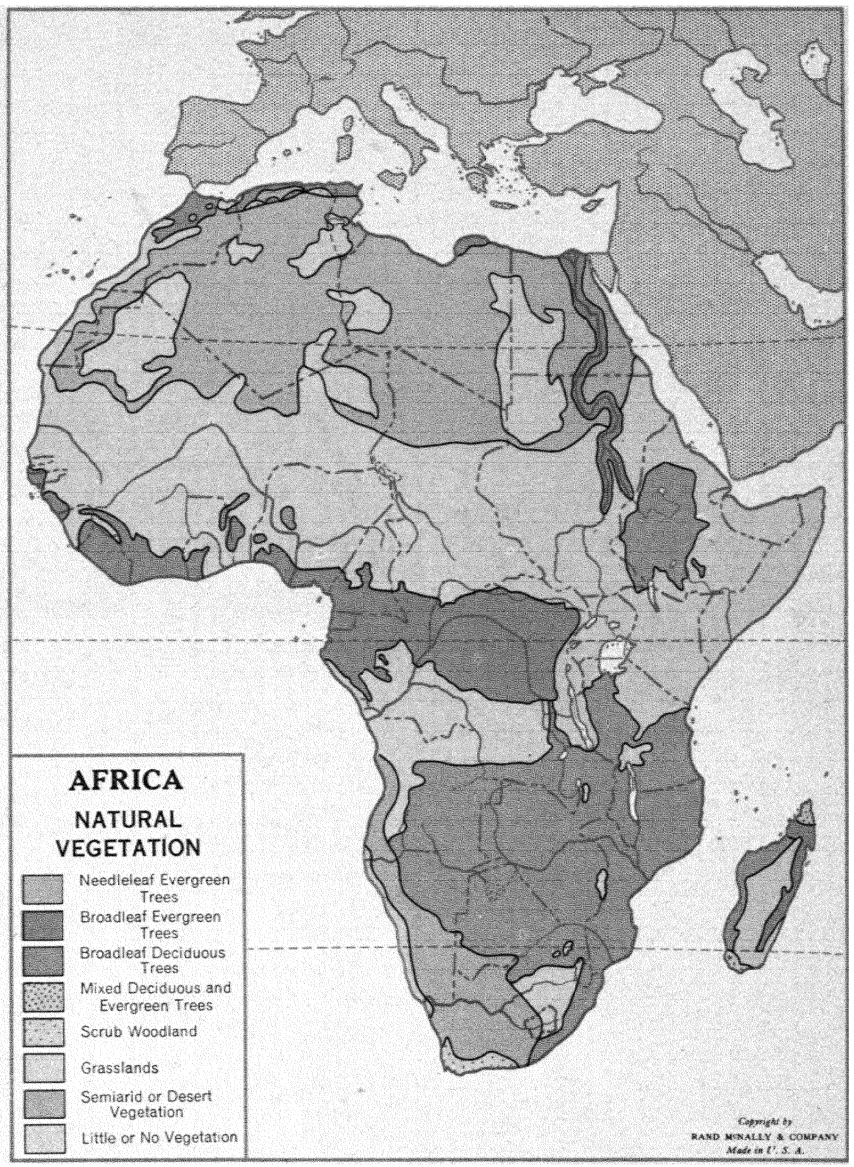
Made in U. S. A.


AFRICA
NATURAL
VEGETATION
Needleleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Deciduous Trees
Mixed Deciduous and Evergreen Trees
Scrub Woodland
Grasslands
Semiarid or Desert Vegetation
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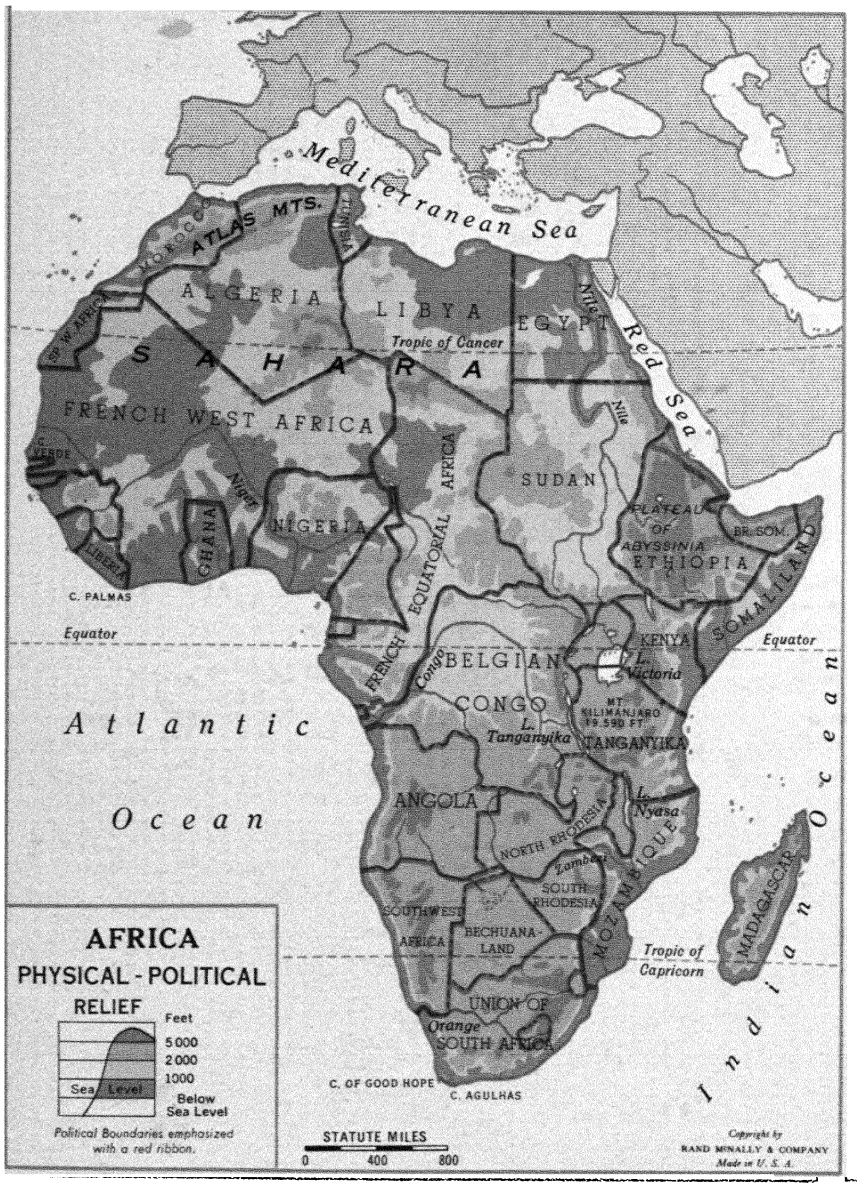
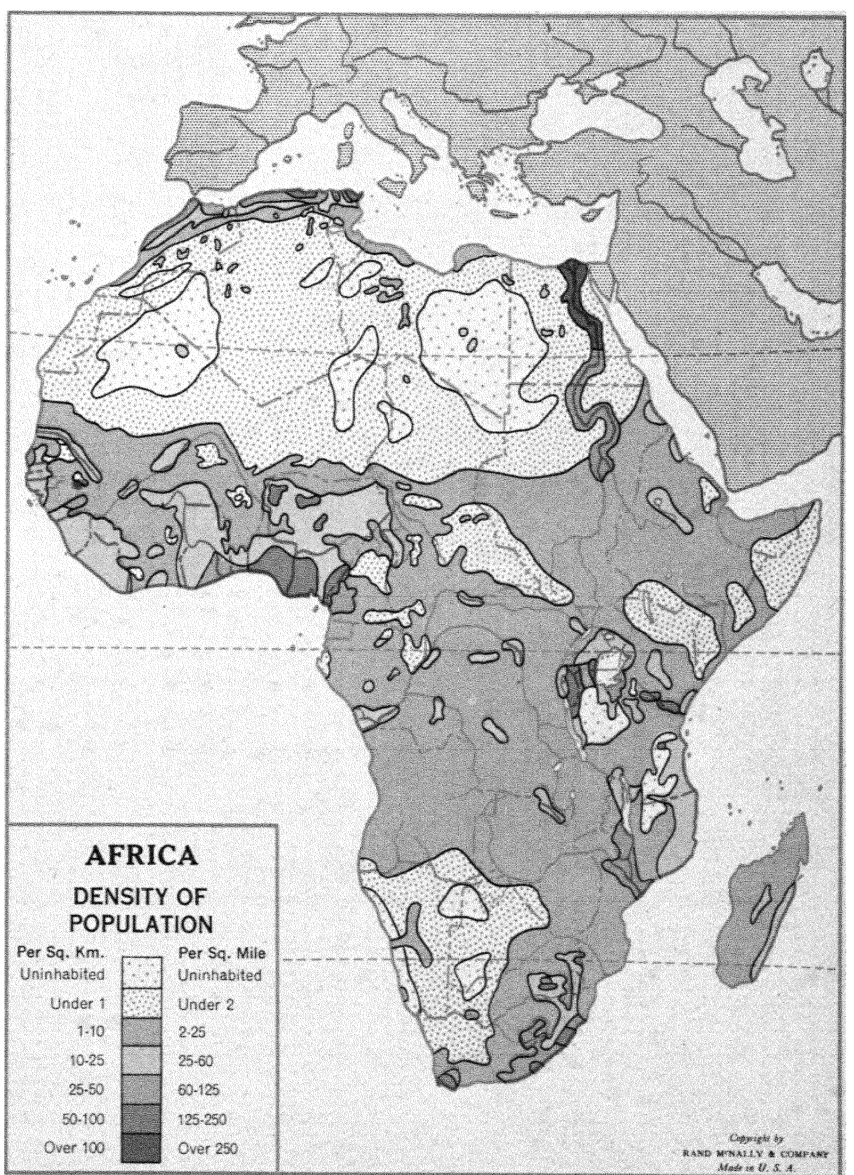

AFRICA
PHYSICAL - POLITICAL
RELIEF
Feet
5000
2000
1000
Sea Level
Below Sea Level
Political Boundaries emphasized with a red ribbon.
STATUTE MILES
0
400
800
Copyright by RAND McNALLY & COMPANY Made in U. S. A.
Mediterranean Sea
Red Sea
Atlantic Ocean
Indian Ocean
ATLAS MTS.
MOROCCO
TUNISIA
ALGERIA
LIBYA
EGYPT
Nile
Tropic of Cancer
SAHARA
SP. W. AFRICA
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
C. VERDE
LIBERIA
GHANA
Niger
NIGERIA
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA
SUDAN
PLATEAU OF ABYSSINIA
ETHIOPIA
BR. SOM.
SOMALILAND
C. PALMAS
Equator
KENYA
L. Victoria
BELGIAN CONGO
Congo
L. Tanganyika
MT. KILIMANJARO 19,590 FT.
TANGANYIKA
ANGOLA
L. Nyasa
NORTH RHODESIA
Zambesi
SOUTH RHODESIA
MOZAMBIQUE
MADAGASCAR
SOUTHWEST AFRICA
BECHUANA-LAND
Tropic of Capricorn
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
Orange
C. OF GOOD HOPE
C. AGULHAS


AFRICA
DENSITY OF POPULATION
Per Sq. Km.
Per Sq. Mile
Uninhabited
Under 1
1-10
10-25
25-50
50-100
Over 100
Uninhabited
Under 2
2-25
25-60
60-125
125-250
Over 250
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AUSTRALIA, AND SOUTHWEST PACIFIC

Scale of Miles
0 100 200 400 600

National Capitals ☆ State Capitals • Other Cities

Shading from green through yellow, brown, and red indicates increase in altitude. Figures show approximate altitude in feet for corresponding color.

10,000 ft.
5,000 ft.
2,000 ft.
1,000 ft.
500 ft.
0 100 200 300 400 500 600

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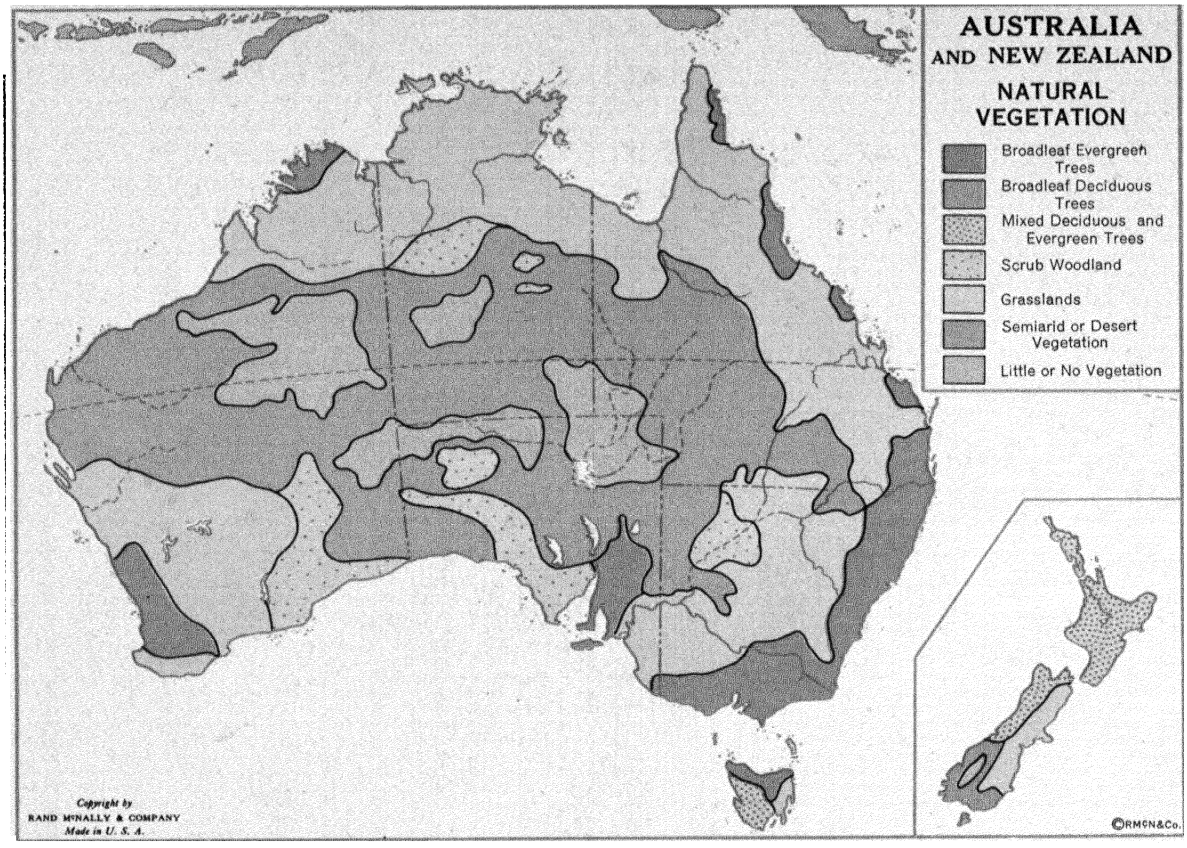
South China Sea
Gulf of Siam
Celebes Sea
Java Sea
Timor Sea
Coral Sea
Tasman Sea
Great Australian Bight
Gulf of Carpentaria
Pacific Ocean
Indian Ocean

ISTHMUS OF KRA
MALAY PENINSULA
MALAYA
Strait of Malacca
Kuala Lumpur
Singapore
SUMATRA
Palembang
Sunda Strait
Djakarta
JAVA
Surabaja
BORNEO
NORTH BORNEO
BRUNEI
SARAWAK
Makassar Strait
CELEBES
CERAM
HALMAHERA
PHILIPPINES
MINDANAO
Mount Carstensz
NEW GUINEA
INDONESIA
TIMOR
CHRISTMAS ISLAND
COCOS ISLANDS
Darwin
NORTHERN TERRITORY
GREAT SANDY DESERT
North West Cape
WESTERN AUSTRALIA
Alice Springs
GREAT VICTORIA DESERT
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
Kalgoorlie
Perth
Adelaide
QUEENSLAND
Townsville
GREAT BARRIER REEF
GREAT DIVIDING RANGE
Brisbane
NEW SOUTH WALES
Darling River
Murray River
AUSTRALIAN ALPS
Newcastle
Sydney
Canberra
Mount Kosciusko
VICTORIA
Melbourne
Bass Strait
TASMANIA
Hobart
Equator
Tropic of Capricorn
CAROLINE ISLANDS
BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO
NEW BRITAIN
PAPUA
Port Moresby
Cape York
SOLOMON ISLANDS
ELLICE ISLANDS
SANTA CRUZ ISLANDS
BANKS ISLANDS
NEW HEBRIDES
NEW CALEDONIA
LOYALTY ISLANDS
FIJI ISLANDS
SAMOA ISLANDS
TONGA ISLANDS
LORD HOWE ISLANDS
KERMADEC ISLANDS
NEW ZEALAND
North Cape
NORTH ISLAND
Auckland
Wellington
Christchurch
SOUTH ISLAND
South Cape

10° 20° 30° 40° North Latitude
10° 20° 30° 40° South Latitude
90° 100° 110° 120° 130° 140° 150° 160° 170° 180° East Longitude
170° 160° West Longitude


AUSTRALIA
AND NEW ZEALAND
NATURAL
VEGETATION
Broadleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Deciduous Trees
Mixed Deciduous and Evergreen Trees
Scrub Woodland
Grasslands
Semiarid or Desert Vegetation
Little or No Vegetation
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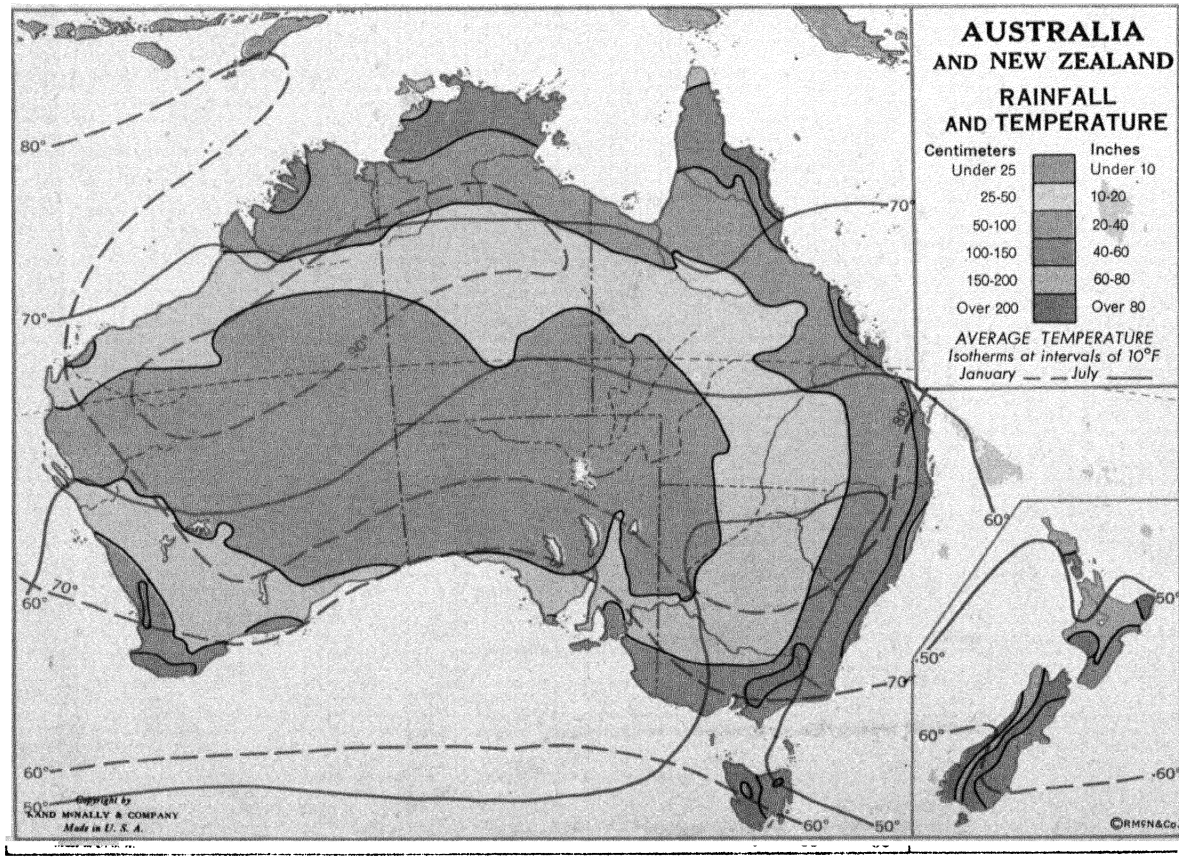
AUSTRALIA
AND NEW ZEALAND
RAINFALL
AND TEMPERATURE
Centimeters
Inches
Under 25
Under 10
25-50
10-20
50-100
20-40
100-150
40-60
150-200
60-80
Over 200
Over 80
AVERAGE TEMPERATURE
Isotherms at intervals of 10°F
January
July
80°
70°
60°
50°
Copyright by
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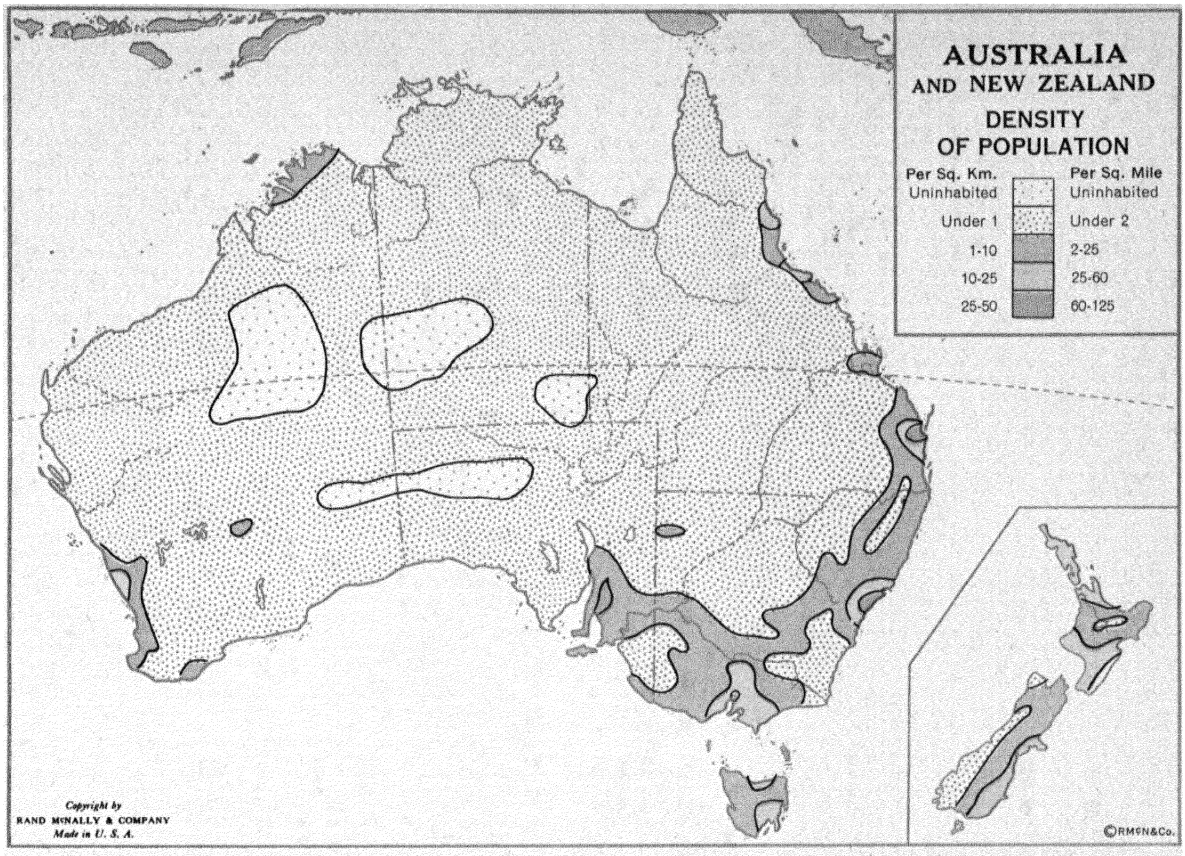
AUSTRALIA
AND NEW ZEALAND
DENSITY
OF POPULATION
Per Sq. Km.
Uninhabited
Under 1
1-10
10-25
25-50
Per Sq. Mile
Uninhabited
Under 2
2-25
25-60
60-125
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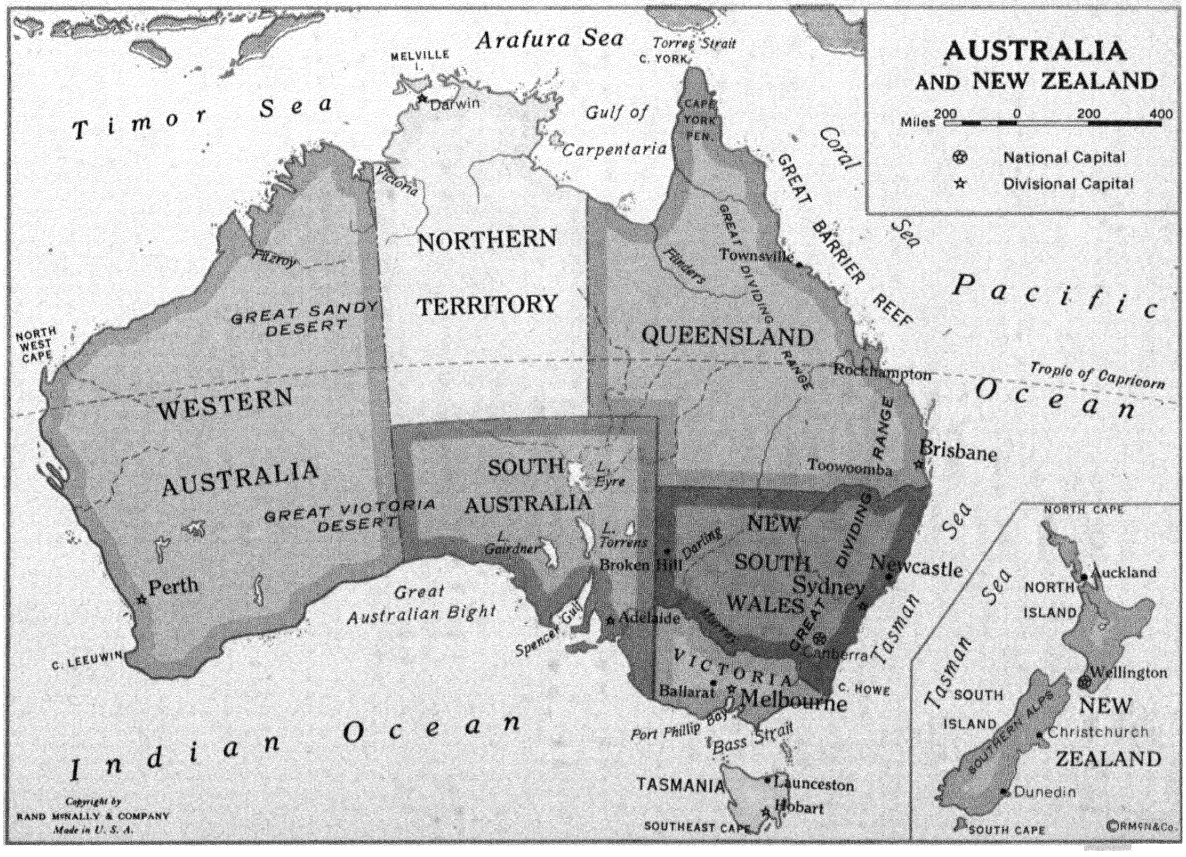
AUSTRALIA
AND NEW ZEALAND
Miles 200 0 200 400
National Capital
Divisional Capital
Arafura Sea
Torres Strait
Timor Sea
MELVILLE I.
Darwin
C. YORK
CAPE YORK PEN.
Gulf of Carpentaria
Coral Sea
GREAT BARRIER REEF
Pacific Ocean
Victoria
Pilbara
NORTHERN TERRITORY
GREAT SANDY DESERT
NORTH WEST CAPE
Great Dividing Range
Flinders
Townsville
QUEENSLAND
Rockhampton
Tropic of Capricorn
WESTERN AUSTRALIA
GREAT VICTORIA DESERT
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
L. Eyre
L. Torrens
L. Gairdner
Toowoomba
Brisbane
Darling
Broken Hill
NEW SOUTH WALES
Sydney
Newcastle
Perth
Great Australian Bight
Adelaide
Murray
Spencer Gulf
Canberra
VICTORIA
Ballarat
Melbourne
C. HOWE
C. LEEUWIN
Indian Ocean
Port Phillip Bay
Bass Strait
TASMANIA
Launceston
Hobart
SOUTHEAST CAPE
Tasman Sea
NORTH CAPE
Auckland
NORTH ISLAND
Wellington
SOUTH ISLAND
SOUTHERN ALPS
Christchurch
NEW ZEALAND
Dunedin
SOUTH CAPE
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SOUTH AMERICA
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 400 600
National Capitals
Colonial Capitals
Other Cities
Shading from green through yellow, brown, and red indicates increase in altitude. Figures show approximate altitude in feet for corresponding color.
10,000 ft.
5,000 ft.
2,000 ft.
1,000 ft.
500 ft.
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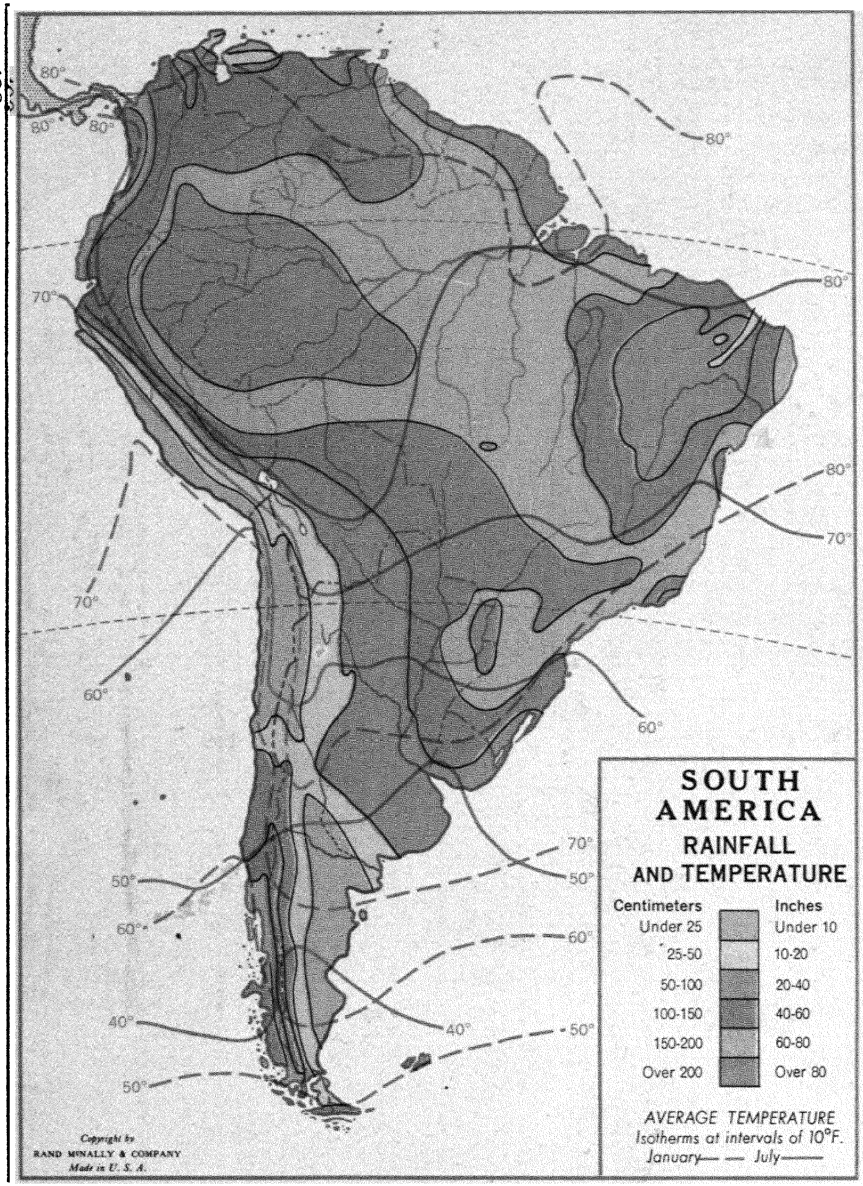
Gulf of Mexico
Havana
CUBA
WEST INDIES
Yucatan Peninsula
HAITI
DOMINICAN REP.
JAMAICA (W. I. F.)
PUERTO RICO
LEEWARD ISLANDS
WINDWARD ISLANDS
Caribbean Sea
CENTRAL AMERICA
Panama Canal
Point Gallinas
Barranquilla
Maracaibo
Lake Maracaibo
Caracas
Port-of-Spain
TRINIDAD (W. I. F.)
Ciudad Bolívar
VENEZUELA
Orinoco River
Georgetown
Paramaribo
Cayenne
GUIANA
(British) (Netherlands) (French)
GUIANA HIGHLANDS
Medellín
Magdalena River
Bogotá
COLOMBIA
Equator
Quito
ECUADOR
Guayaquil
Iquitos
Rio Negro
Manaus
Amazon
Madeira River
Belém
Fortaleza
Cape São Roque
Point Aguja
Trujillo
PERU
Lima
Cuzco
Lake Titicaca
BRAZIL
Rio Francisco
Recife
Salvador
Cuiabá
Goiânia
Rio São
BOLIVIA
Sucre
HIGHLANDS
Belo Horizonte
Rio Paraná
PARAGUAY
São Paulo
Rio de Janeiro
Santos
Curitiba
Tropic of Capricorn
Antofagasta
Asunción
Tucumán
Rio Paraná
Rio Uruguay
Pôrto Alegre
Córdoba
Santa Fé
Mount Aconcagua
Mendoza
Rosario
URUGUAY
Valparaíso
Santiago
Montevideo
Rio de la Plata
Buenos Aires
Concepción
ARGENTINA
Bahía Blanca
FALKLAND ISLANDS
Strait of Magellan
Punta Arenas
SOUTH GEORGIA
Cape Horn
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
South Latitude
North Latitude
West Longitude
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
70° 60° 50° 40°
20° 10° 0° 10° 20° 30° 40° 50°
100° 90° 80° 70° 60° 50° 40° 30° 20°


80°
70°
60°
50°
40°
SOUTH AMERICA
RAINFALL AND TEMPERATURE
Centimeters
Under 25
25-50
50-100
100-150
150-200
Over 200
Inches
Under 10
10-20
20-40
40-60
60-80
Over 80
AVERAGE TEMPERATURE
Isotherms at intervals of 10°F.
January —— July ——
Copyright by
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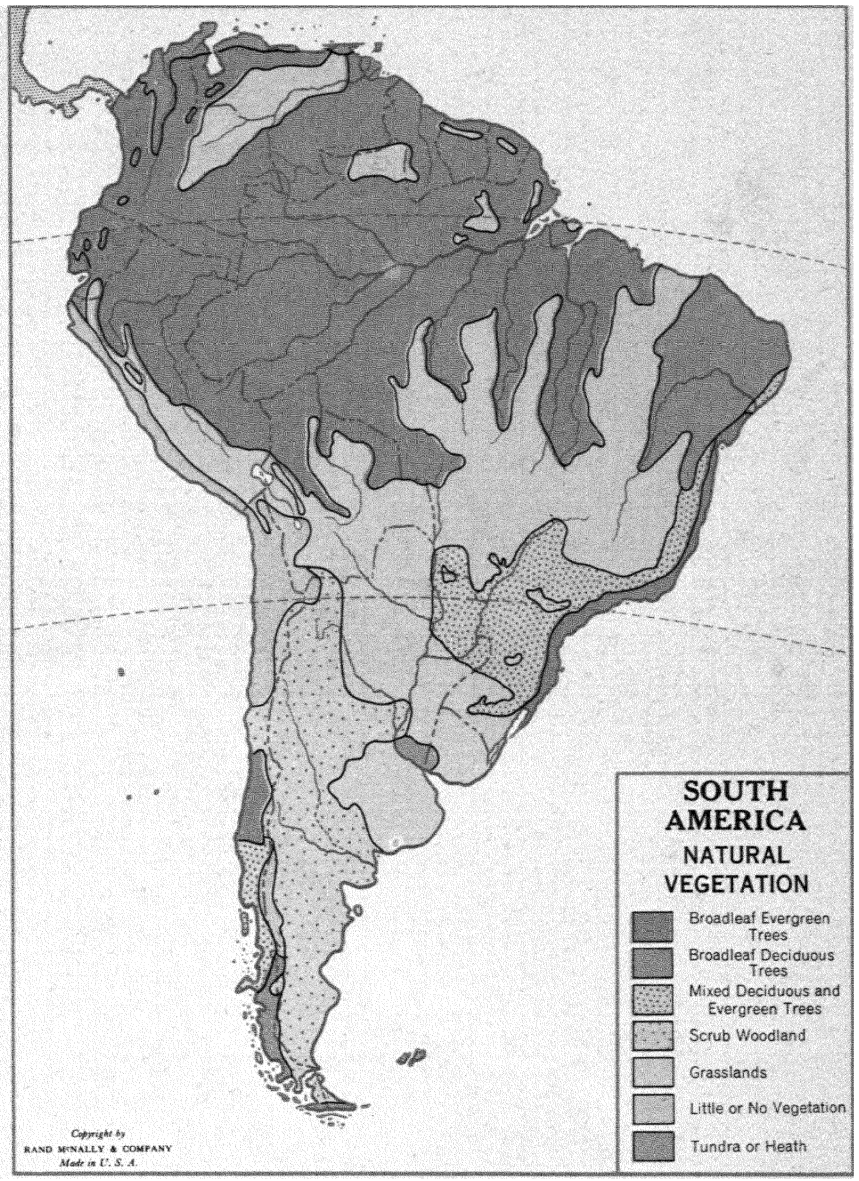
SOUTH AMERICA
NATURAL VEGETATION
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Broadleaf Deciduous Trees
Mixed Deciduous and Evergreen Trees
Scrub Woodland
Grasslands
Little or No Vegetation
Tundra or Heath
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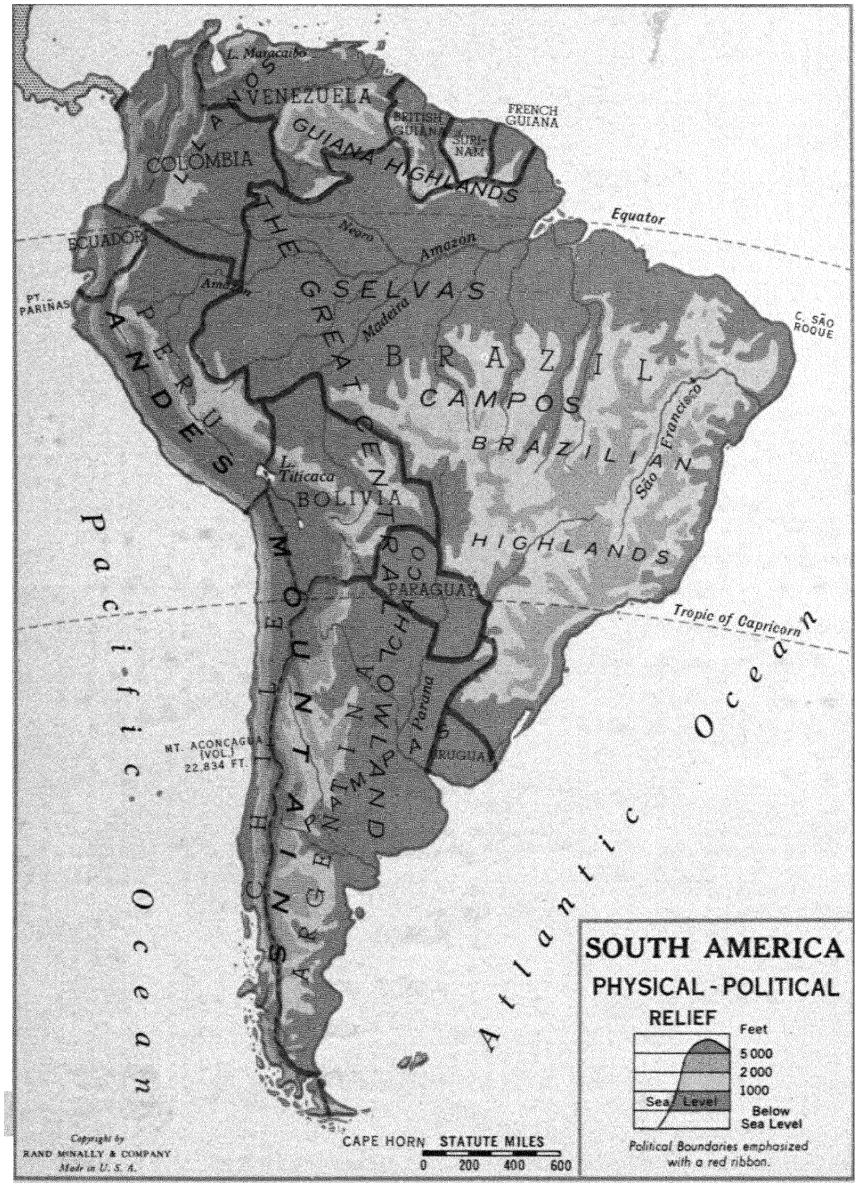


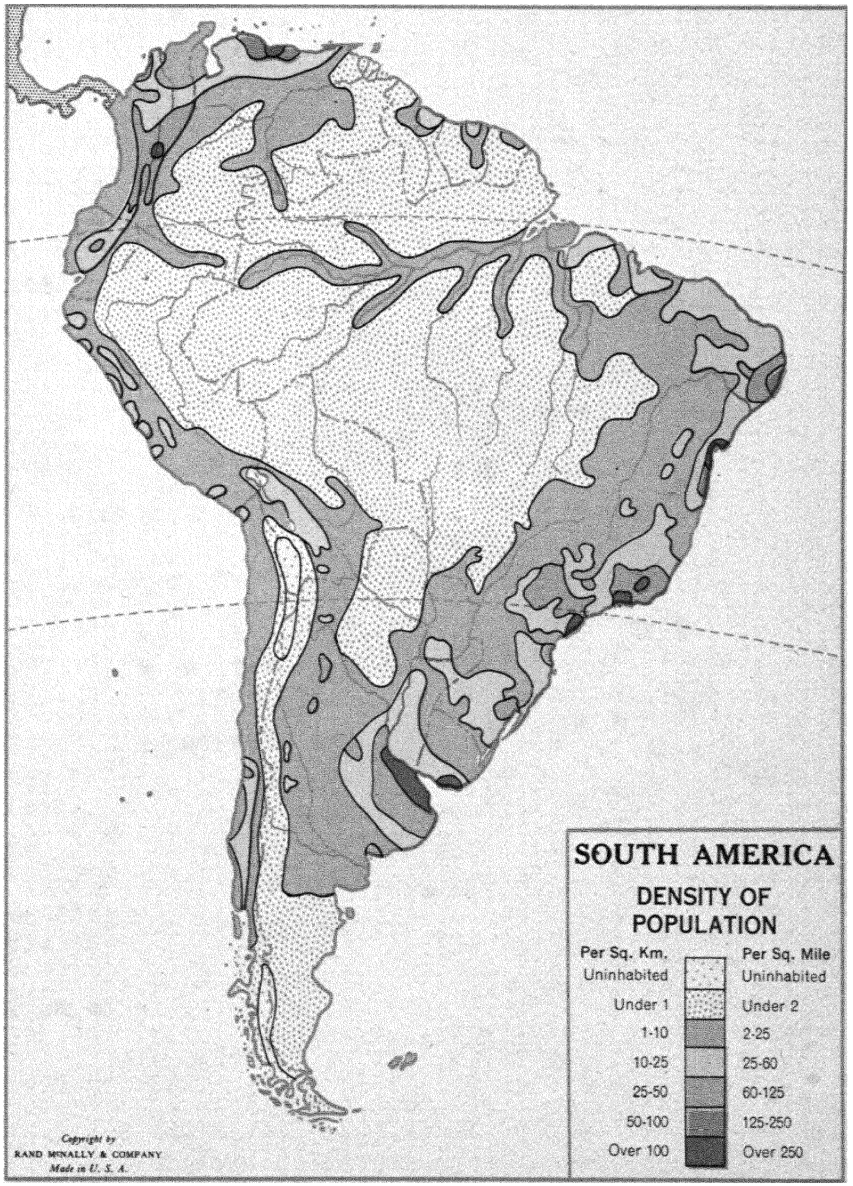
SOUTH AMERICA

PHYSICAL - POLITICAL

RELIEF

Feet
5 000
2 000
1000
Sea Level
Below Sea Level

Political Boundaries emphasized with a red ribbon.



SOUTH AMERICA

DENSITY OF POPULATION

Per Sq. Km.	Per Sq. Mile
Uninhabited	Uninhabited
Under 1	Under 2
1-10	2-25
10-25	25-60
25-50	60-125
50-100	125-250
Over 100	Over 250

NORTH AMERICA

0 100 200 400 600

National Capitals ☆ Colonial Capitals • Other Cities

Shading from green through yellow, brown, and red indicates increase in altitude. Figures show approximate altitude in feet for corresponding color.

10,000 ft.
5,000 ft.
2,000 ft.
1,000 ft.
500 ft.

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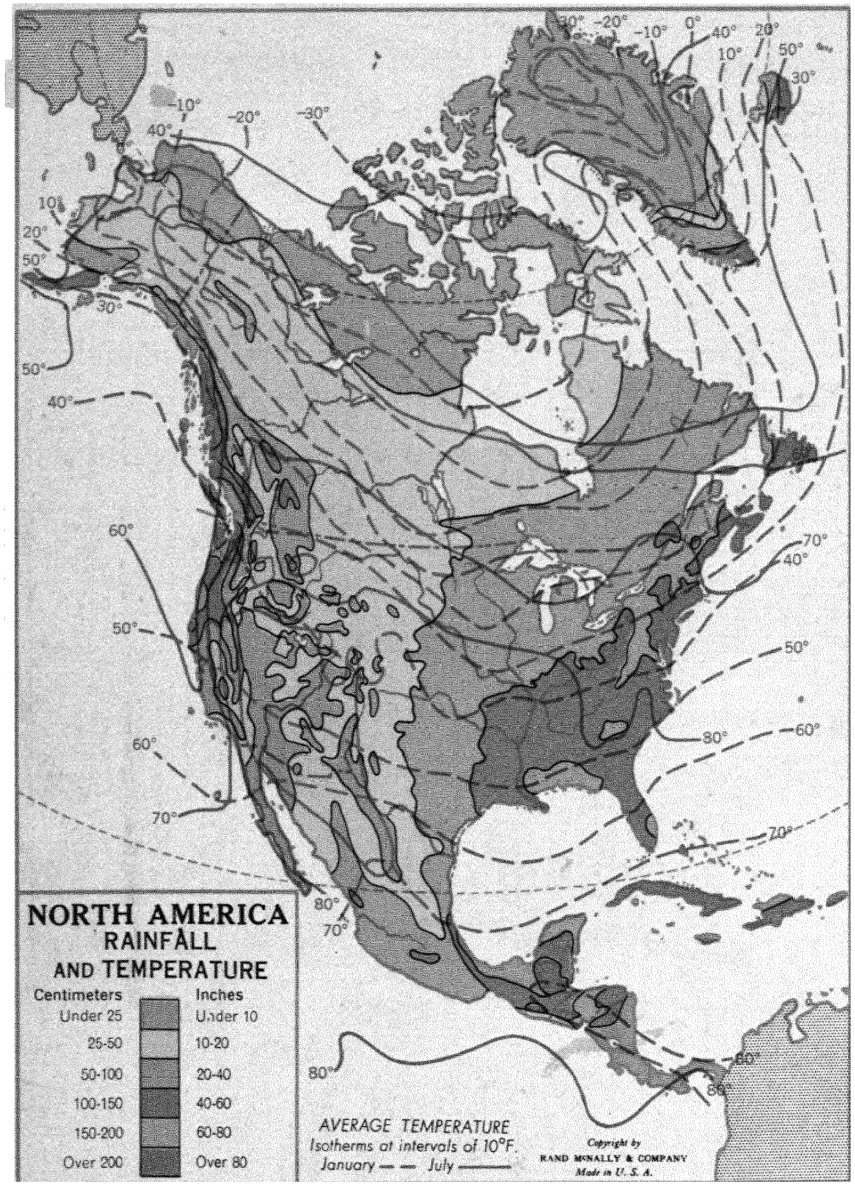
NORTH AMERICA
RAINFALL
AND TEMPERATURE
Centimeters
Under 25
25-50
50-100
100-150
150-200
Over 200
Inches
Under 10
10-20
20-40
40-60
60-80
Over 80
AVERAGE TEMPERATURE
Isotherms at intervals of 10°F.
January — — July ——
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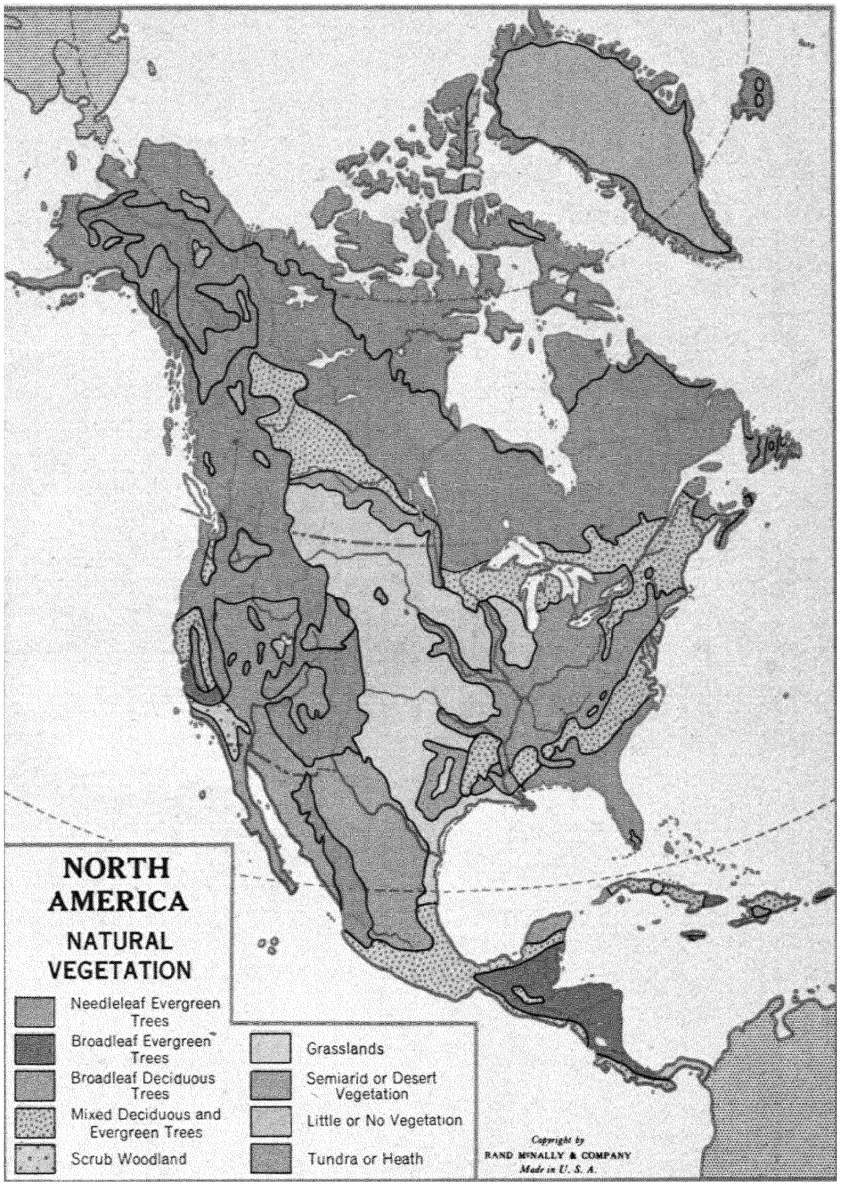
NORTH
AMERICA
NATURAL
VEGETATION
Needleleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Deciduous Trees
Mixed Deciduous and Evergreen Trees
Scrub Woodland
Grasslands
Semiarid or Desert Vegetation
Little or No Vegetation
Tundra or Heath
Copyright by
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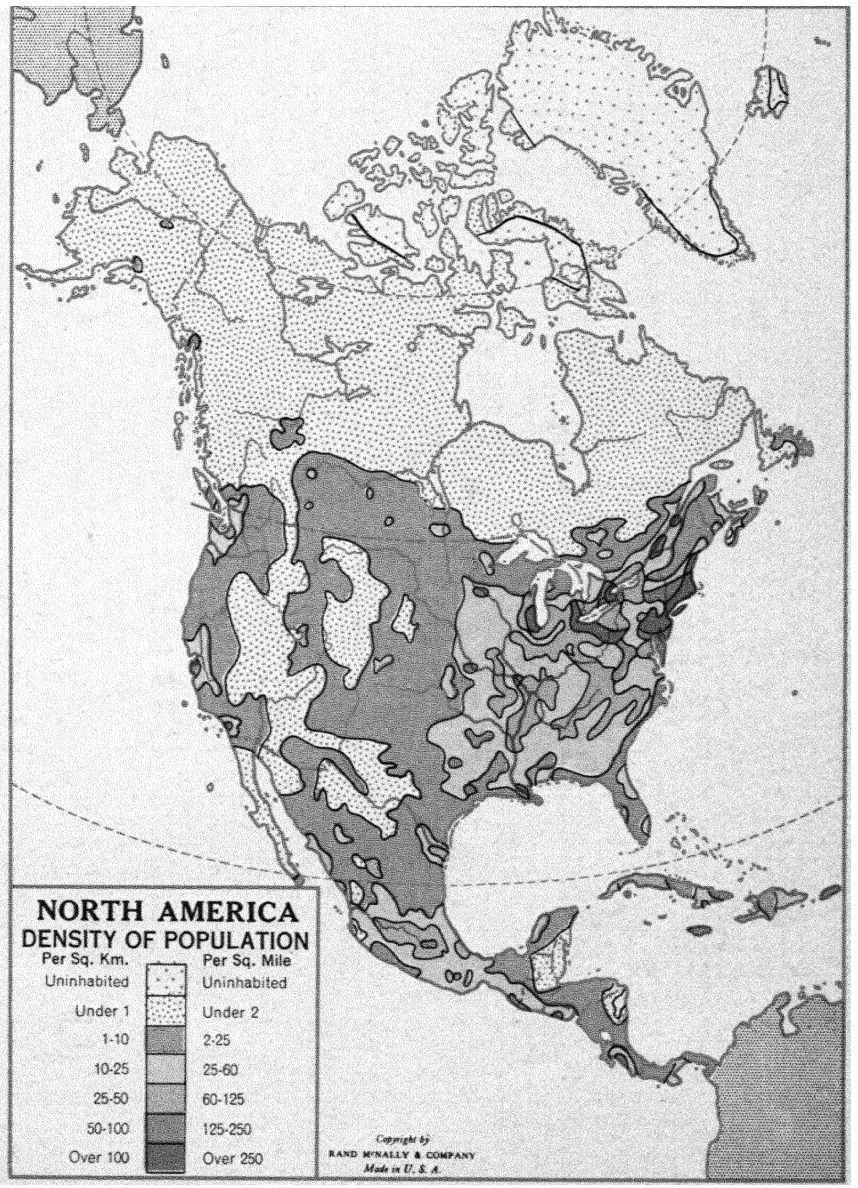
Arctic Ocean
Bering Sea
Beaufort Sea
Baffin Bay
GREENLAND
Yukon
ALASKA
Gulf of Alaska
Mackenzie
Great Bear Lake
Arctic Circle
Great Slave Lake
Hudson Bay
CANADA
NEWFOUNDLAND
Lake Winnipeg
GREAT CENTRAL LOWLAND
ROCKY MOUNTAINS
Columbia
Great Lakes
St. Lawrence
C. SABLE
Snake
Missouri
APPALACHIAN MTS.
ATLANTIC COASTAL PLAIN
UNITED STATES
GREAT PLAINS
Colorado
Ohio
Arkansas
Mississippi
C. HATTERAS
GULF AND ATLANTIC COASTAL PLAIN
Rio Grande
Tropic of Cancer
Gulf of Mexico
CUBA
WEST INDIES
DOM. REP.
JAMAICA (BR.)
HAITI
PUERTO RICO
MEXICO
BR. HOND.
HONDURAS
Caribbean Sea
EL SALVADOR
CENTRAL AMERICA
COSTA RICA
PANAMA
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
NORTH AMERICA
PHYSICAL - POLITICAL
RELIEF
Feet
5 000
2 000
1000
Sea Level
Below Sea Level
Political Boundaries emphasized with a red ribbon.
Copyright by RAND McNALLY & COMPANY
Made in U. S. A.
STATUTE MILES
0 400 800


NORTH AMERICA
DENSITY OF POPULATION
Per Sq. Km.
Per Sq. Mile
Uninhabited
Uninhabited
Under 1
Under 2
1-10
2-25
10-25
25-60
25-50
60-125
50-100
125-250
Over 100
Over 250
Copyright by RAND McNALLY & COMPANY
Made in U. S. A.

UNITED STATES

Scale of Miles 0 100 200 300

National Capitals ☆ State Capitals • Other Cities

Shading from green through yellow, brown, and red indicates increase in altitude. Figures show approximate altitude in feet for corresponding color.

5,000 ft.
2,000 ft.
1,000 ft.
500 ft.

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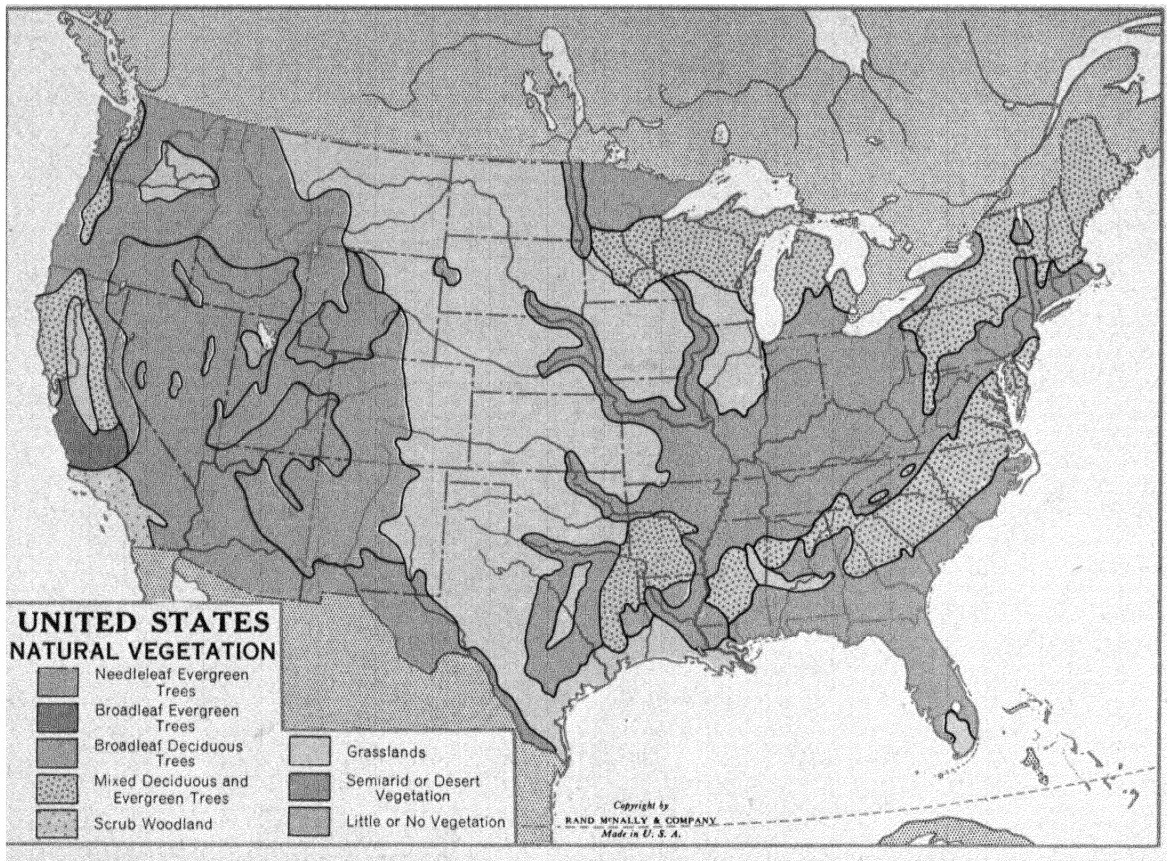
UNITED STATES
NATURAL VEGETATION
Needleleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Evergreen Trees
Broadleaf Deciduous Trees
Mixed Deciduous and Evergreen Trees
Scrub Woodland
Grasslands
Semiarid or Desert Vegetation
Little or No Vegetation
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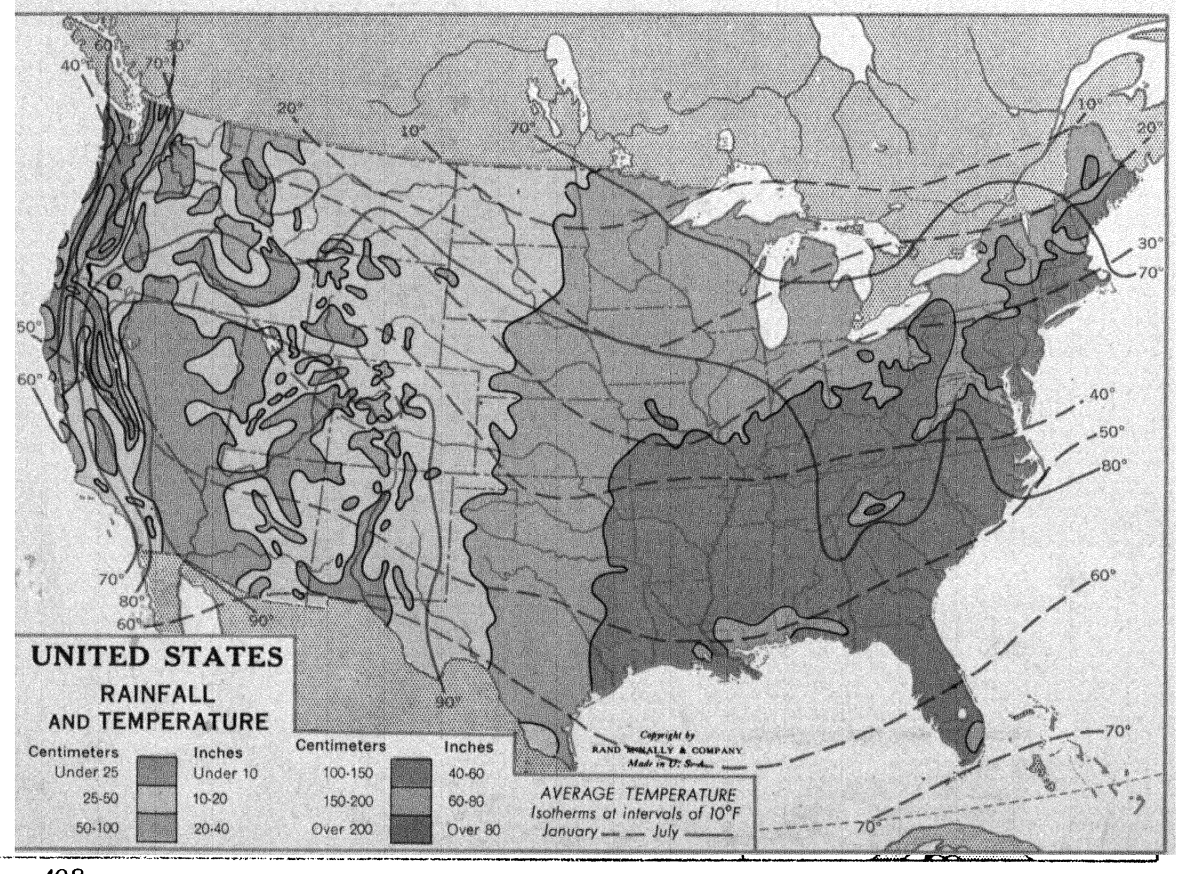
UNITED STATES
RAINFALL
AND TEMPERATURE
Centimeters
Under 25
25-50
50-100
Inches
Under 10
10-20
20-40
Centimeters
100-150
150-200
Over 200
Inches
40-60
60-80
Over 80
Copyright by
RAND McNALLY & COMPANY
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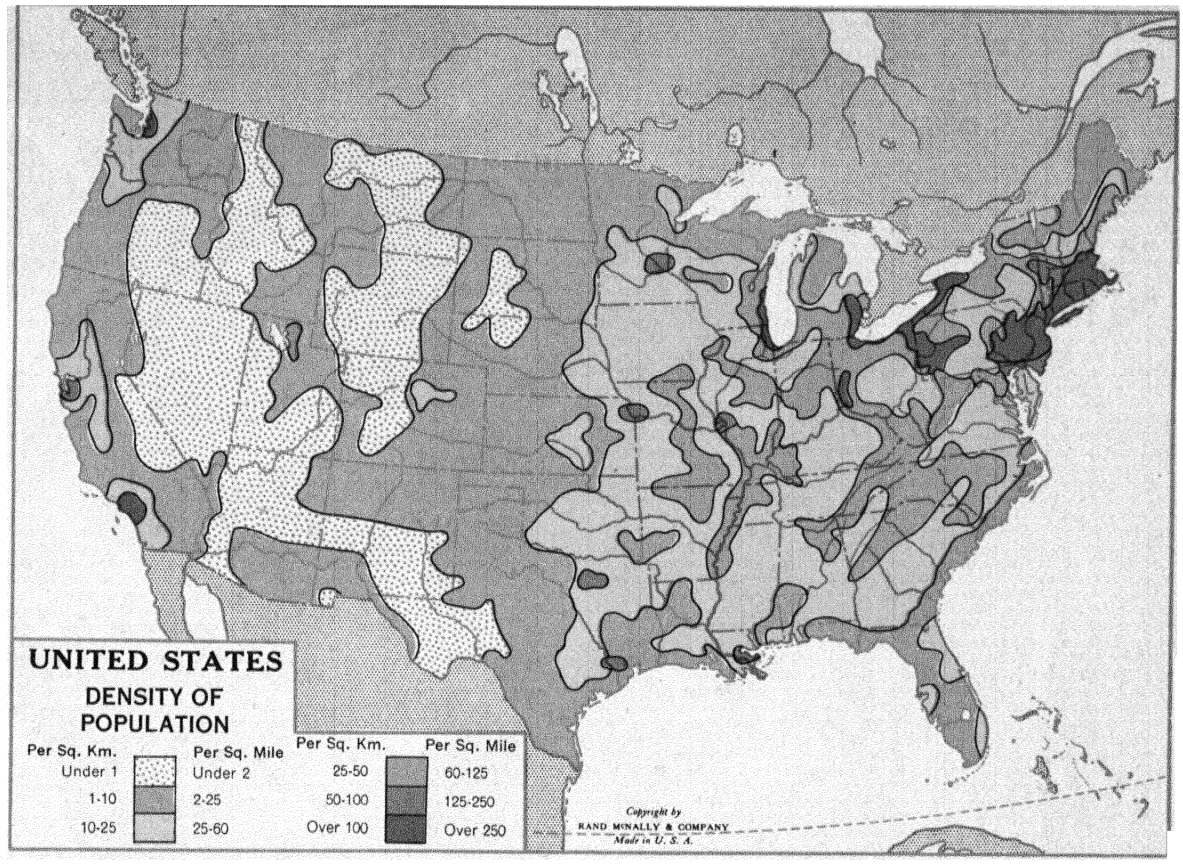
AVERAGE TEMPERATURE
Isotherms at intervals of 10°F
January
July
30°
40°
50°
60°
70°
80°
90°
10°
20°


UNITED STATES
DENSITY OF POPULATION
Per Sq. Km.
Per Sq. Mile
Under 1
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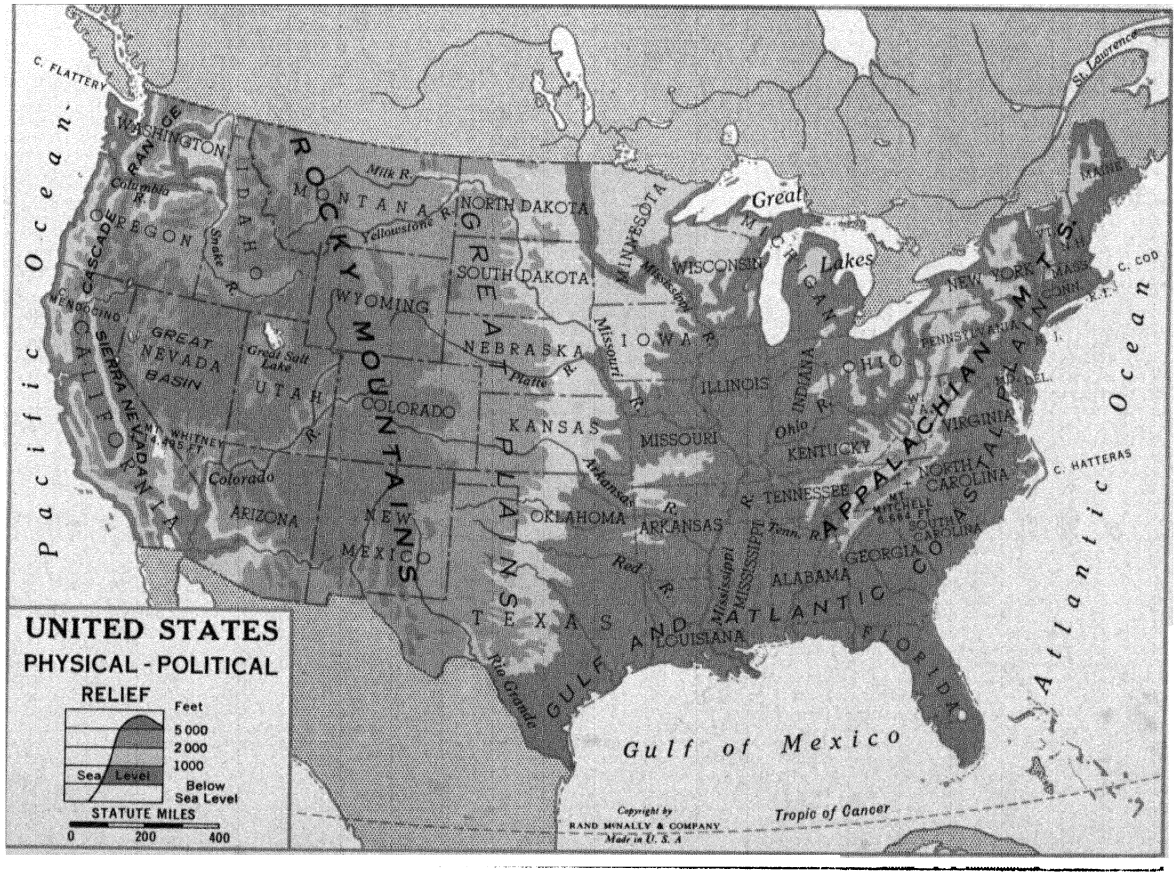
C. FLATTERY
Pacific Ocean
WASHINGTON
OREGON
CALIFORNIA
CASCADE RANGE
SIERRA NEVADA
IDAHO
NEVADA
GREAT BASIN
UTAH
ARIZONA
COLORADO
NEW MEXICO
WYOMING
MONTANA
ROCKY MOUNTAINS
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA
NEBRASKA
KANSAS
OKLAHOMA
TEXAS
GREAT PLAINS
MINNESOTA
IOWA
MISSOURI
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
WISCONSIN
ILLINOIS
MICHIGAN
Great Lakes
INDIANA
OHIO
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
SOUTH CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
APPALACHIAN MTS.
COASTAL PLAIN
ATLANTIC COAST
Atlantic Ocean
St. Lawrence
C. COD
C. HATTERAS
Gulf of Mexico
Tropic of Cancer
Milk R.
Yellowstone R.
Missouri R.
Platte R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Rio Grande
Colorado R.
Columbia R.
Snake R.
Great Salt Lake
Ohio R.
Tenn. R.
Mississippi R.
WHITNEY 14,495 FT.
MT. MITCHELL 6,684 FT.
UNITED STATES
PHYSICAL - POLITICAL
RELIEF
Feet
5 000
2 000
1000
Sea Level
Below Sea Level
STATUTE MILES
0
200
400
Copyright by
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CANADA

Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300

National Capitals ☆ Provincial Capitals • Other Cities

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10,000 ft.
5,000 ft.
2,000 ft.
1,000 ft.
500 ft.

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Polar Ice Pack
Beaufort Sea
North Magnetic Pole
Baffin Bay
Davis Strait
GREENLAND
Gadhavn
ALASKA
Yukon
Fairbanks
River
Aklavik
VICTORIA ISLAND
BAFFIN ISLAND
Foxe Basin
NORTHWEST TERRI
Dawson
YUKON
Mackenzie
Great Bear Lake
Port Radium
Arctic Circle
Hudson Strait
Ungava Bay
Mount Logan
Whitehorse
Skagway
Juneau
Yellowknife
Great Slave Lake
LABRADOR HIGHLAND
NEWFOUNDLAND
Hopedale
Goose Bay
Ketchikan
Prince Rupert
BRITISH COLUMBIA
Peace River
Lake Athabasca
Churchill
Churchill River
Nelson River
UNGAVA PENINSULA
ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND
St. John's
ALBERTA
Edmonton
SASKATCHEWAN
MANITOBA
James Bay
Seven Islands
St. Lawrence River
Gulf of St. Lawrence
QUEBEC
VANCOUVER ISLAND
Fraser River
Saskatoon
Saskatchewan River
Lake Winnipeg
Victoria
Vancouver
Calgary
Regina
Winnipeg
Lake of the Woods
ONTARIO
Chicoutimi
Quebec
PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND
Charlottetown
Sydney
CAPE BRETON ISLAND
NEW BRUNSWICK
Fredericton
St. John
Halifax
NOVA SCOTIA
Seattle
Columbia River
Fort William
Lake Superior
Sudbury
Montreal
Ottawa
APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS
Portland
Missouri River
Red River
Duluth
Saint Paul
Minneapolis
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Toronto
Lake Ontario
Niagara Falls
Buffalo
Hamilton
Boston
New York
Detroit
Windsor
Lake Erie
Cleveland
Chicago
UNITED STATES
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
North Latitude
West Longitude

THE CONTINENTS

Continent	Area (sq. mi.)	Population
Africa	11,635,000	233,718,700
Antarctica	5,100,000	Uninhabited
Asia	17,035,000	1,691,327,800
Australia	2,794,581	10,050,000
Europe	3,850,000	573,352,600
North America	9,435,000	251,054,000
South America	6,860,000	137,346,500

WORLD METROPOLITAN CENTERS

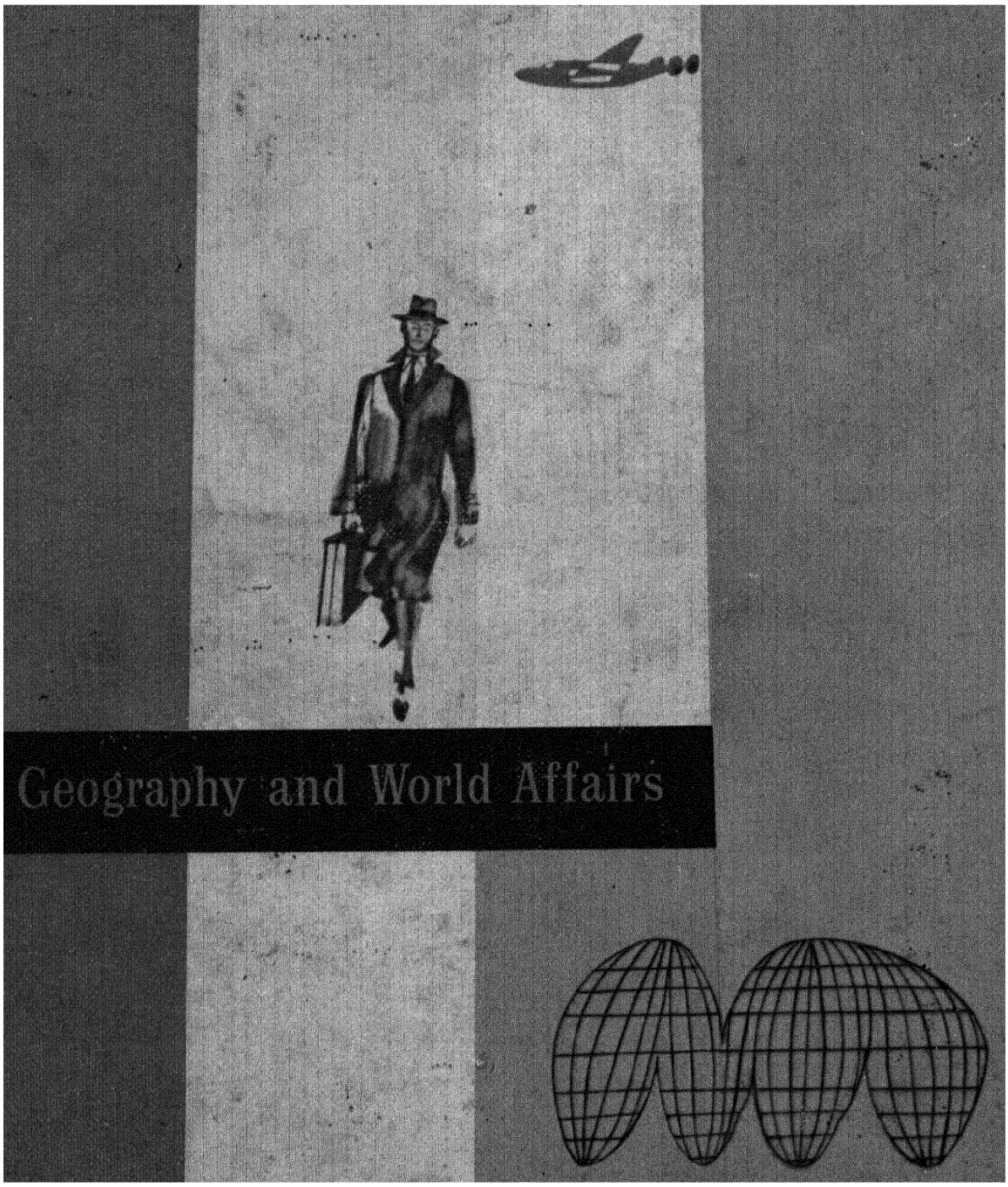
Rank		Population
1	New York, U.S.	15,175,000
2	Tokyo–Yokohama, Japan	12,500,000
3	London, U.K.	10,725,000
4	Moscow, Soviet Union	7,900,000
5	Shanghai, China	7,800,000
6	Paris, France	7,425,000
7	Osaka–Kobe, Japan	6,900,000
8	Buenos Aires, Argentina	6,650,000
9	Chicago, U.S.	6,485,000
10	Los Angeles, U.S.	6,475,000
11	Calcutta, India	6,300,000
12	Mexico City, Mexico	5,000,000
13	Detroit-Windsor, U.S.–Can.	4,300,000
14	São Paulo, Brazil	4,250,000
15	Bombay, India	4,200,000
16	Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	4,200,000
17	Berlin, Germany	4,075,000
18	Essen–Duisburg–Bochum, Germany	3,975,000
19	Philadelphia, U.S.	3,965,000
20	Leningrad, Soviet Union	3,700,000
21	Peking, China	3,700,000
22	Cairo, Egypt	3,350,000
23	San Francisco–Oakland–San Jose, U.S.	3,250,000
24	Tientsin, China	3,000,000
25	Mukden, China	2,900,000
26	Boston, U.S.	2,665,000
27	Hankow, China	2,600,000
28	Birmingham, U.K.	2,500,000
29	Budapest, Hungary	2,500,000
30	Victoria, Hong Kong	2,500,000
31	Canton, China	2,400,000
32	Madrid, Spain	2,370,000
33	Manila, Philippines	2,300,000

PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF THE WORLD

	Length (miles)
Nile, Africa	4,000
Mississippi–Missouri, North America	3,988
Amazon, South America	3,900
Yangtze, Asia	3,100
Lena, Asia	2,980
Congo, Africa	2,900
Mackenzie, North America	2,890
Mekong, Asia	2,800
Amur, Asia	2,780
Hwang Ho (Yellow), Asia	2,700
Niger, Africa	2,590
Yenisey, Asia	2,485
Missouri, North America	2,475
Mississippi, North America	2,470
Irtysh, Asia	2,300
Plata–Paraguay, South America	2,300
Yukon, North America	2,300
Ob, Asia	2,260
Volga, Europe	2,215
St. Lawrence, North America	2,150
Paraná, South America	2,050
Indus, Asia	1,980
Purús, South America	1,900
Brahmaputra, Asia	1,800
Orinoco, South America	1,800
Rio Grande, North America	1,800
São Francisco, South America	1,800
Danube, Europe	1,770
Darling, Australia	1,750
Euphrates, Asia	1,675
Zambezi, Africa	1,650
Tocantins, South America	1,640
Araguaia, South America	1,630
Syr Darya, Asia	1,605
Murray, Australia	1,600
Angara, Asia	1,550
Ganges, Asia	1,550
Pilcomayo, South America	1,550
Salween, Asia	1,550
Ural, Asia	1,490
Arkansas, North America	1,450
Irrawaddy, Asia	1,425
Dnepr, Europe	1,335
Columbia, North America	1,214
Don, Europe	1,155
Dvina, Europe	1,100
Saskatchewan, North America	1,095
Ohio, North America	981
Magdalena, South America	950
Hsi, Asia	930
Rhine, Europe	820
Donets, Europe	735
Elbe, Europe	720
Gambia, Africa	680
Vistula, Europe	630
Loire, Europe	625
Tigris, Asia	600
Oder, Europe	565

LARGE ISLANDS OF THE WORLD

	Area (sq. mi.)
Greenland, Arctic Region	837,620
New Guinea, Oceania	342,232
Borneo, Indonesia	282,416
Baffin, Canadian Arctic	231,000
Madagascar, Indian Ocean	228,707
Sumatra, Indonesia	164,165
Great Britain, North Atlantic Ocean	88,745
Honshu, Japan	87,500
Victoria, Canadian Arctic	76,000
Celebes, Indonesia	72,966
South Island, New Zealand	58,092
Java, Indonesia	50,745
North Island, New Zealand	44,281
Cuba, West Indies	44,164
Newfoundland, North Atlantic Ocean	42,734
Luzon, Philippines	40,814
Iceland, North Atlantic Ocean	39,709
Mindanao, Philippines	36,906
Ireland, North Atlantic Ocean	31,829


Geography and World Affairs