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SFDR Social Studies 6th Grade

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CHAPTER **1** Thinking Like a Geographer

Chapter Outline

- 1.1 WELCOME TO OUR WORLD: C.H.E.G.G THE FIVE FIELDS OF SOCIAL STUDIES
 - 1.2 THE TOOLS OF GEOGRAPHERS
 - 1.3 M.R.HEI.L.P - THE FIVE THEMES OF GEOGRAPHY
 - 1.4 CHAPTER 1 GLOSSARY
 - 1.5 CHAPTER 1 KEY QUESTIONS TO UNDERSTAND
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1.1 Welcome to Our World: C.H.E.G.G The Five Fields of Social Studies

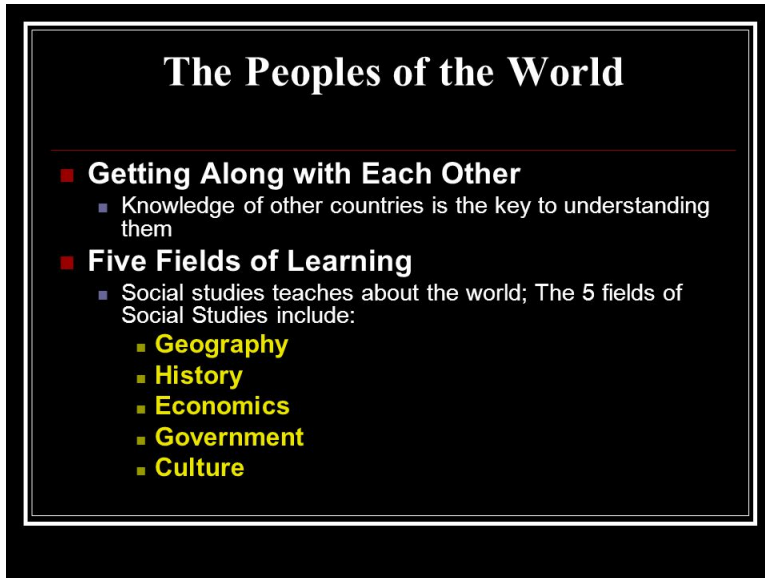


FIGURE 1.1

The most important reasons for studying social studies is because we are human and we live among other humans. We must also learn to survive and to live. We learn how to survive by studying ourselves, the land and each other. There are Five Fields of Social Studies that we study when learning about a place and the people from the different regions of our planet Earth. Culture, history, economics, geography, and government are the five fields that we study each time we study a region or area of our world. P. 18 Me and the teachers here at our school came up with the acronym **C.H.E.G.G**

C- stands for CULTURE- which consists of the customs, beliefs, art, laws, religion or simply put the way of life for a certain group of people.

H-stands for HISTORY- History is the study of the past. People and events have shaped our world and this is why it is the way it is, because of the past. The history of the world is where we came from and the study of how one event lead to the next event and how people responded. We can learn a lot from the responses of others in the past to problems they had to deal with.

E- stands for ECONOMICS- Economics is the study of how people or we manage our resources. There are four types of resources also known as the factors of production which are the items needed to produce a product or provide a service. 1. Natural Resources- are gifts of nature such as rivers, forests, fertile soil, minerals, and oil. 2. Human resources- are the people that do the work, like you and I. The skills from all the training, all of the knowledge from our schooling and experiences to produce goods or provide a service is the human resource part of economics. 3. Capital resources- are the tools, the machines, computers, tractors, buildings, and any other type of equipment used and needed to produce other goods or provide services, which we then sale for profit or a pay check. 4. Entrepreneur- is the fourth resource which is the person or persons that bring all of the other three resources together to make a product or provide a service. We commonly refer to them as the owner, inventor, the boss, or el jefe!

G- stands for government. Government is how a country is organized. The rules that keep it organized for their society or people to live in harmony. There are two types of government, limited government and unlimited

government. Limited government is based on the idea that the people have the power and the leader has limited power, hence the name limited government. There are two basic philosophies behind the idea of limited government. The Greeks are known as the founders of democracy which is one of the basic forms or ideas of limited government. Democracy is a Greek word which means “rule of the people”. This means that the leaders of our governments no matter what level have to answer to the people or they will not be voted for again. The other idea of limited government came about because over time people or leaders of government realized that it was going to be too difficult for all citizens to report to the capitol city and vote on matters for their society. The Romans are given credit for developing the idea of a Republic form of government which would solve this problem of logistics. A republic form of government is one in which the people or citizens hold the power but through elected representatives. This is still a form of democracy and is a limited form of government too. One way to remember what republic means is **REP- Public**, we vote for someone to **REPresent** us and we are the **Public** or citizens in which he or she represents. If he or she does not represent us well then we let them know and if they do not change for our better then we do not vote for them again or we do what we can to get them out of office if it is in our laws and we get enough votes or citizens who feel the same. The power still stays with the people of that government.

G- this one stands for GEOGRAPHY. Geography is really the same as social studies but with the focus a little more on the land. Now geography means the study of people, places, and the environment which sounds a lot like social studies, right? Right. Geography is exactly the study of land, how people live off of the land where they live and the different types of land or regions around the world, Mother Earth. Climate and weather are also a big part of geography and are factors or reasons why some countries are rich or poor. We will get more into that as we study the geography of the land of each country and region we study throughout the school year. Just remember land usually equals money especially if it contains much needed or valuable natural resources.

OK. We have just read about and learned what the **FIVE FIELDS OF SOCIAL STUDIES** are. As we travel around the world in our study of Earth and the people who inhabit it we will study each field or area in depth, be ready to have your mind blown because we have a beautiful and dangerous world, but mostly beautiful. So, in conclusion I will explain the five fields of social studies by using our school and all of the experiences you have gone through coming to our new campus. Figuring out where the school is and how to best get around is the study of **geography**. Learning about where the other students come from is learning about their **history**. Learning the school and classroom rules is learning about the **government**. Making choices about which school supplies you can afford is **economics**. The clubs, styles of clothing, foods, holidays, the ways of saying things, and doing things is the **culture** of our school. The next section will focus on the five themes of geography, which we also study as we travel around our world.

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History	a record of the past
Geography	the study of people, places, and the environment
Economics	the study of how resources are managed
Government	the people and groups within a society that have the authority to make laws
Culture	the beliefs, customs, laws, art, and way of living that a group of people share

FIGURE 1.2

E- stands for ECONOMICS- Economics is the study of how people or we manage our resources. There are four types of resources also known as the factors of production which are the items needed to produce a product or provide a service.

1. Natural Resources- are gifts of nature such as rivers, forests, fertile soil, minerals, and oil.
2. Human resources- are the people that do the work, like you and I. The skills from all the training, all of the knowledge from our schooling and experiences to produce goods or provide a service is the human resource part of economics.
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1.2 The Tools of Geographers

To begin studying our world we must learn to use certain tools and think like a geographer would. We must be able to read and use the different types of maps that all geographers and students of the world use. All maps have certain parts to them that you must understand before or while studying the map. The title, symbols, colors, lines of longitude, lines of latitude, compass rose, labels, scale, and the legend, or what we call a map key are important and help us understand what the map is showing. Hemisphere is another term that is important when studying our world. Hemisphere means half of a globe. North, south, east, and west, are the four hemispheres. Different types of maps are used for different sorts of information and used by different types of professions. The four common map projections are the Mercator Projection, Azimuthal, Homolosine, and Robinson projection. The most common is the Robinson projection which we see most commonly used in textbooks.

Two types of maps that are used for understanding the world are **Physical maps** which show natural features **Political maps** which show human features. **Physical maps** focus on landforms and water forms such as rivers, mountains, deserts, lakes, vegetation and elevation. **Political maps** focus on human features such as cities, states, countries, counties, provinces, and territories. There are also **Thematic maps** which focus on a particular theme, topic, or subject. Qualitative maps, Cartograms, and Flow-Line maps are some of these types of maps. We will also use a **geographic dictionary** to learn the different types of landforms and what they look like.



FIGURE 1.3



FIGURE 1.4



FIGURE 1.5

1.3 M.R.Hei.L.P - THE FIVE THEMES OF GEOGRAPHY

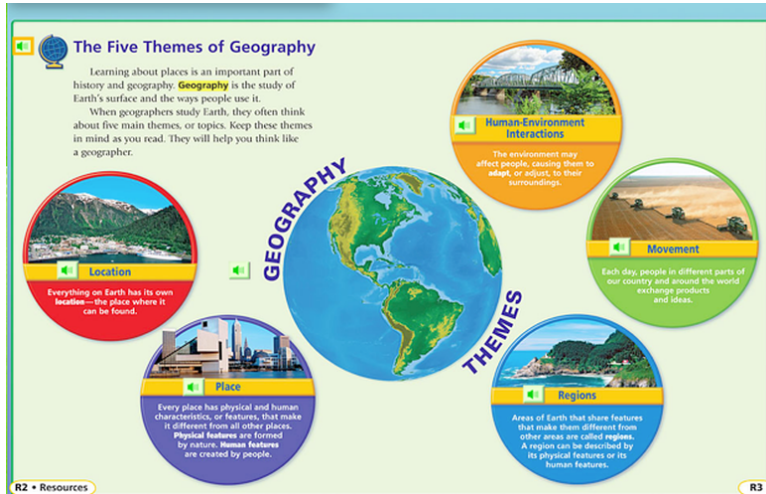


FIGURE 1.6

Geography is the study of people and places. Geographers study the world in a spatial manner. Spatial means to study in a way that focuses on what is that space or area. To do this like geographers you must ask yourself questions when studying a particular place. The Five Themes are what helps geographers and students of geography look at the world in the spatial manner in which geographers study the world. The Five Themes of Geography are as follows: Movement, Region, Human-environment interaction, Location and Place, or the acronym M.R.Hei.L.P, (pronounced like mister help). Each of these themes pose questions that you must ask yourself to understand the theme and that topic about the place or area you are studying. OK lets learn about these themes now.

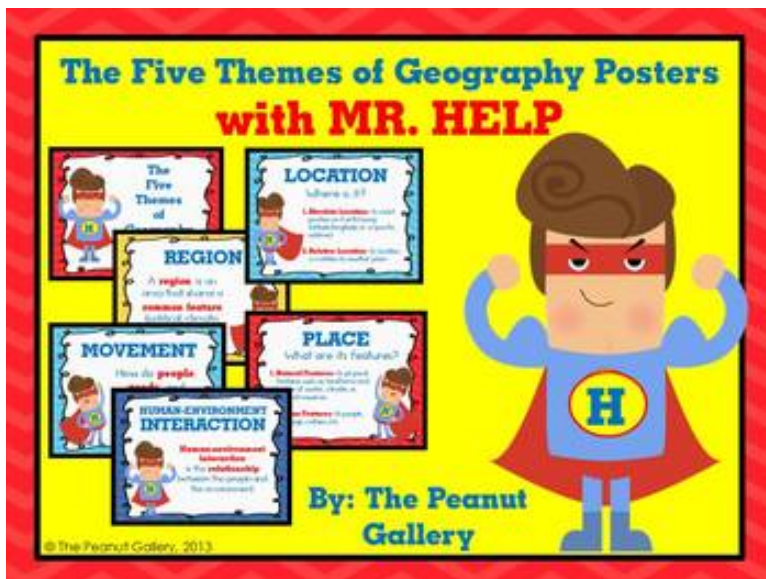


FIGURE 1.7

1. **Movement-** Is the study of how things move or how did they get there. Movement deals with the migration of

people, animals, and even plants. Ask yourself five questions to understand movement. Who, what, where, when, and why do things, people, and information move? How do they move? A look at technology is a big part of the study of movement. How people and information move is an important part of the human characteristics of a place such as cultural traits, government types, and tolerance of others. The physical geography of a place is another very important effect of movement. What physical features help people, animals or ideas, move about or keep these from moving. These ideas can help you understand why the place is the way it is and how it came to be that way.

2. Region- Several countries that share similar features or an area that shares similar features is what region is. The world can be divided into 8 culture regions because they share similar beliefs, history, governments, language, religion, technology, economic systems or ways of making a living. They may grow and eat similar foods, build certain types of homes, and wear the same types of clothing. The eight culture regions are how the world is divided and how we study the world in this course throughout the year. We travel around the world in 180 days. 1. The United States and Canada. 2. Latin America which includes: Mexico, Central America, The Caribbean Islands, and South America. 3. Europe which includes: Western Europe, Eastern Europe which is Russia and the Eurasian Republics. 4. Southwest Asia/North Africa. 5. Africa below the Sahara Desert also referred to as Sub-Saharan Africa. 6. South Asia. 7. East Asia. 8. Southeast Asia and finally, 8. Australia “The land down under” and The Pacific Islands.

3. Human-Environment Interaction- is the study of how people interact with their environment, the way people change their environment and how they are affected by their environment. How do the natural features of Earth affect the people that live in that region of the world? The theme of Place will help explain how a place can affect and interact with the people that live there too. This theme of human-environment interaction encourages people to study the impact environmental changes will have on a place and the people who live there. If you lived along the coast of Southeast Asia your home will look different from one located high in the Alps mountains of Europe. Climate and vegetation that can be grown in an area can affect the types of crops grown and eaten.

4. Location- tells where a place is. There are two types of location, absolute location and relative location. **Absolute location** is the exact spot on Earth where a place can be found this is done by using numbers, streets, States, provinces, and countries. Geographers use imaginary lines to make a grid and find exact spots on Earth anywhere. The two types of lines are lines of latitude and lines of longitude. The lines that run parallel north and south to the equator are called **latitude lines**. The **equator** is zero degrees latitude and divides the Earth into two halves, the northern hemisphere and southern hemisphere. Lines that run through the north and south poles are called **longitude lines**. The longitude line that runs north and south dividing the Earth into two halves separating it into the western hemisphere and eastern hemisphere is called the Prime Meridian which is zero degrees longitude. So, once you read a map with these lines shown on it creates a grid system that you can use to find the exact spot of a place. For example Melbourne, Australia is located 38 degrees south latitude and 145 degrees east longitude. This would be the exact spot of the city of Melbourne. Another example of absolute location could be the address of our school. Our campus is located at 1207 West Garza St. Del Rio, Texas 78840. This would be the exact spot or absolute location where you can find our school. Your home address would be another example of absolute location. The other type of location is **relative location**. **Relative location** is the location of a place in relation to other places. You might say our school is near where Garza and Hwy 277 South intersect or across the street from where Chemas Tortilla factory use to be. This is not exact or absolute but someone could still find the place they are looking for, in this case our school. If somebody asked where is the United States located using relative location, you could say south of Canada and North of Mexico on the North American continent. By understanding the location of a particular place on Earth can explain how and why people live there. A great example of how location has helped the United States become one of the most powerful countries on Earth and stay out of the two world wars was its location. The US is protected on both the east and west by oceans. Another important factor of location for the United States is that we are located in the Middle Latitudes of the northern hemisphere which is the area between the Arctic Circle to the north and the Tropic of Cancer to the south. This area has a temperate climate, which means it is not too hot like the lands near the equator and not too cold like the lands close to the north pole or south pole. Many plants and animals thrive in this climate region. Productive farming and ranching allows for us to feed large populations of people and sell many of our crops to other less fortunate countries. The final theme of geography is Place.

5. Place- This theme focuses on what a place is like? When we study the world we start with the location then naturally we study and find out what is it like there. What human features or political features are found there? Is it crowded or sparsely populated, big cities or small villages? What language do they speak? What type of government systems and what type of economic systems are found there? What are the physical features or the natural features of the place such as the climate, landforms, are there mountains, deserts, grasslands, fertile land for farming and what types of bodies of water, rivers, lakes, or saltwater oceans, seas, and what type of plant and animal life are found in this place. All of these features explain how and why the place is the way it is.

As we continue to study 6th grade social studies we will constantly learn to understand how the land affects the people and how we affect the land. Once you can think like a geographer you will open up a whole new way to see our big beautiful world. You will also come to understand how different some cultures are but also realize how similar all cultures or people we really are too.

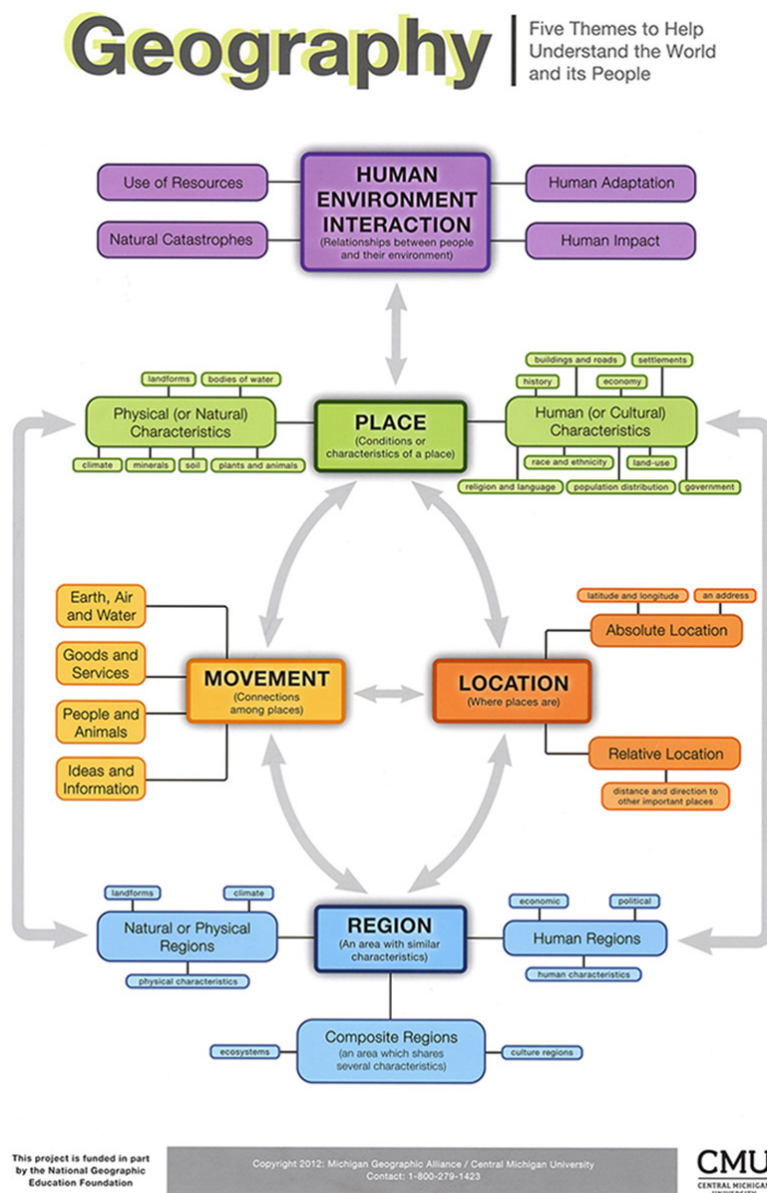


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We will use Videos from United Streaming and Brainpop to learn more. Geography is the study of people and places. Geographers study the world in a spatial manner.

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Absolute location is the exact spot on Earth where a place can be found this is done by using numbers, streets, States, provinces, and countries. Geographers use imaginary lines to make a grid and find exact

spots on Earth anywhere. The two types of lines are lines of latitude and lines of longitude. The lines that run parallel north and south to the equator are called **latitude lines**. The **equator** is zero degrees latitude and divides the Earth into two halves, the northern hemisphere and southern hemisphere. Lines that run through the north and south poles are called **longitude lines**. The longitude line that runs north and south dividing the Earth into two halves separating it into the western hemisphere and eastern hemisphere is called the Prime Meridian which is zero degrees longitude. So, once you read a map with these lines shown on it creates a grid system that you can use to find the exact spot of a place. For example Melbourne, Australia is located 38 degrees south latitude and 145 degrees east longitude. This would be the exact spot of the city of Melbourne. Another example of absolute location could be the address of our school. Our campus is located at 1207 West Garza St. Del Rio, Texas 78840. This would be the exact spot or absolute location where you can find our school. Your home address would be another example of absolute location. The other type of location is **relative location**. **Relative location** is the location of a place in relation to other places. You might say our school is near where Garza and Hwy 277 South intersect or across the street from where Chemas Tortilla factory use to be. This is not exact or absolute but someone could still find the place they are looking for, in this case our school. If somebody asked where is the United States located using relative location, you could say south of Canada and North of Mexico on the North American continent. By understanding the location of a particular place on Earth can explain how and why people live there. A great example of how location has helped the United States become one of the most powerful countries on Earth and stay out of the two world wars was its location. The US is protected on both the east and west by oceans. Another important factor of location for the United States is that we are located in the Middle Latitudes of the northern hemisphere which is the area between the Arctic Circle to the north and the Tropic of Cancer to the south. This area has a temperate climate, which means it is not too hot like the lands near the equator and not too cold like the lands close to the north pole or south pole. Many plants and animals thrive in this climate region. Productive farming and ranching allows for us to feed large populations of people and sell many of our crops to other less fortunate countries. The final theme of geography is Place.

5. Place- This theme focuses on what a place is like? When we study the world we start with the location then naturally we study and find out what is it like there. What human features or political features are found there? Is it crowded or sparsely populated, big cities or small villages? What language do they speak? What type of government systems and what type of economic systems are found there? What are the physical features or the natural features of the place such as the climate, landforms, are there mountains, deserts, grasslands, fertile land for farming and what types of bodies of water, rivers, lakes, or saltwater oceans, seas, and what type of plant and animal life are found in this place. All of these features explain how and why the place is the way it is. As we continue to study 6th grade social studies we will constantly learn to understand how the land affects the people and how we affect the land. Once you can think like a geographer you will open up a whole new way to see our big beautiful world. You will also come to understand how different some cultures are but also realize how similar all cultures or people we really are too.

Social Studies Glossary by Unit 2015

1.4 Chapter 1 Glossary

- geography – the study of the spatial characteristics of the world’s land and people
- institutions – long-standing practices, traditions, or customs that regulate a group
- culture – the behaviors and beliefs characteristic of a particular group
- culture trait – a characteristic, such as language, beliefs, food, or customs that is shared by a group
- region – a spatial area of land that is unified by a common characteristic, such as political unity, linguistic unity, or common climate patterns
- culture region- a spatial area that is characterized by a population that shares common beliefs, history, language, customs, and traditions
- cultural landscape – the physical qualities that reflect the culture of a particular place
- location – an exact point on the earth’s surface
- place – a description of the physical and human characteristics of a location or area
- Institution – refers to a long standing tradition, custom or practice that reflects the values of a society. All societies have governments, economic systems, educational systems, and religious institutions.

◦ *Governmental institutions* refer to a society’s system for creating rules and social order

◦ *Economic institutions* refer to the practices that a society employs to provide for basic needs; could include bartering, trading, and based economic activities

◦ *Educational institutions* refer to the practices as a society uses to pass on cultural and societal norms from one generation to the next

◦ *Religious institutions* refer to societal practices that relate to belief systems

SIGNIFICANCE OF RELIGIOUS HOLIDAYS AND OBSERVANCES, Including, but not limited to:

- Christmas – Christian celebration rooted in the religious belief of the birth of Jesus Christ as the universal Messiah.
- Easter – Christian observance rooted in the religious belief of Jesus Christ’s resurrection from the dead.
- Rosh Hashanah – Jewish commemoration of the New Year in the Jewish calendar, usually occurring in early autumn during the Hebrew month of Tishrei.
- Yom Kippur – Jewish commemoration rooted in the religious belief of a Day of Atonement. Considered the most solemn holy day in the Jewish calendar.
- Ramadan – Islamic commemoration rooted in the religious belief that the text of the Qur’an was revealed to the Prophet Muhammad.
- The Hajj – Islamic pilgrims visit the Ka’aba and perform a variety of acts to commemorate various facets of Islamic life and history.
- Diwali – Hindu commemoration rooted in the religious belief of the return of Lord Rama, along with Sita and Lakshmana, from a fourteen-year-long exile and vanquishing of the demon-king Ravana. Popularly known as the “festival of lights.”
- Vaisakhi – Sikh commemoration celebrating the establishment of the Sikh community in 1699.

RELATIONSHIP AMONG RELIGIOUS IDEAS, PHILOSOPHICAL IDEAS, CULTURES, Including, but not limited to:

- New religious and philosophical ideas emerged as humans explored the nature of human existence and the nature

of human relationships.

- Cultures are distinguished by the religious ideas and/or philosophical ideas which have been adopted and passed on through generations.
- Belief systems are considered an element of culture which influence cultural institutions and practices
- Religious and philosophical ideas can influence the cultural landscape and institutions of a region such as with differences of architecture, organization of governments, and traditions among social groups.

CULTURE AND THE COMMON TRAITS THAT UNIFY A CULTURE REGION, Including, but not limited to:

- Culture – way of life that distinguishes a group, including the group’s perception of itself and the behaviors the groups transmits from one generation to another
- A culture region is unified by common elements including, language, beliefs, history, social structures, institutions, technology, art, foods and traditions.

COMMON TRAITS THAT DEFINE CULTURES, Including, but not limited to:

- Religion • Language • Food preferences • Celebrations • Types of shelters • Rules and mores
- Art • Music • Folklore • Family structures • Educational systems

* Culture trait – a single element of common practice in a culture

- Favorable climate conditions – populations tend to concentrate in warmer climate regions

Identify, Explain GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR PATTERNS OF POPULATION, Including, but not limited to:

- Access to and availability of water – populations tend to cluster near bodies of water for sustaining agriculture as well as for use as transportation corridors
- Availability of arable land – necessary to support agriculture and thereby populations
- Availability of natural resources – need to sustain economic development for populations
- Economic opportunities – populations concentrate in regions with access to jobs; populations migrate to regions with access to jobs
- Common culture – population patterns reveal that ethnic groups tend to cluster together
- Physical geography – population patterns are affected by the location of landforms that facilitate settlement, such as plains and natural harbors and those which are barriers to settlement, such as mountains and forests

Locate: CONTEMPORARY SOCIETIES USING LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE, Including, but not limited to:

- Latitude – imaginary lines that run horizontally around the globe, starting with the equator in the center of the globe and radiating north and south from the equator
- Longitude – imaginary lines that run vertically around the globe and radiated east and west from the prime meridian
- When given a coordinate of latitude and longitude an absolute location can be determined.

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1.5 Chapter 1 Key Questions to Understand

Geographers use maps to illustrate and study spatial patterns including settlement patterns and culture regions.

- What types of maps are used by geographers?
- How are latitude and longitude used on maps?
- What kinds of information are included on a map?
- What can geographers learn from examining maps?
- What geographic factors affect where people settle and don't settle?
- What is the difference between a location, a place, and a region?
- How do geographers decide that a particular place is a culture region?

All societies are defined by common culture traits which are passed on to the next generation.

- What common traits do all cultures have?
- How is culture passed from one generation to the next?
- Why are cultural celebrations important to societies?
- What does it mean to assimilate into a new culture?
- What institutions are common to all societies?
- Why do societies create institutions?

Pose, Answer GEOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS, Including, but not limited to:

- Where is it located? Position on a map (absolute location vs. relative location), latitude and longitude
- Why is it there? trade routes, altitude, availability of natural resources, transportation corridor
- What is significant about its location? historically, economically, socially, politically
- How is its location related to other people, places, and environment? conflicts, cultural diffusion, climate, availability of resources
- Where do people live and not live? Why?
- How does geography affect migration patterns?
- What patterns are evident in the demographic make-up, language distribution, and distribution of religious groups in the world?

Pose, Answer QUESTIONS ABOUT GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTIONS AND PATTERNS, Including, but not limited to: Possible questions to pose related to any region of study.

- How does climate affect settlement patterns (where people live) in this region/country?
- How does physical geography affect settlement patterns (where people live) and migration patterns (where people move to and from) in this region/country?
- How does physical geography facilitate/impede trade in this region/country?
- How has physical geography affected the spread of languages, religions and ethnic groups?

CHAPTER **2**

Celebrate Freedom

Chapter Outline

- 2.1 FREEDOM DOCUMENTS**
 - 2.2 LIMITED VS UNLIMITED GOVERNMENTS**
 - 2.3 CHAPTER 2 GLOSSARY AND KEY QUESTIONS**
-

2.1 Freedom Documents

"We hold these Truths to be self-evident, that all Men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the Pursuit of Happiness—That to secure these Rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just Powers from the Consent of the Governed." - **Thomas Jefferson July 4, 1776**

These words come from the second part of the **Declaration of Independence**, this section is known as the Declaration of Rights. The Declaration of Independence was basically a letter that was written to **King George III** in June 1776, which stated that our 13 American Colonies wanted and should be free from the tyranny of King George III and Great Britain. The American Colonial Congress appointed a committee of five to draft the Declaration of Independence. The five men appointed were **Benjamin Franklin** of Pennsylvania, **John Adams** of Massachusetts, **Robert Livingston** of New York, **Roger Sherman** of Connecticut, and **Thomas Jefferson** of Virginia. Thomas Jefferson was asked to write the document since he was considered the best writer of the five and is known as the author of the Declaration Of Independence. It was adopted, after a few changes, by Congress on July 2, and signed two days later on July 4, 1776. The Declaration of Independence can be divided into four parts.

The first part is the Preamble, which stated when a group of people decide to dissolve their political ties to become their own nation they should declare their reasons why. The second part is called A Declaration of Rights. This section states the philosophy of independence. It begins with these words: "We hold these truths to be self evident that all men are created equal". This is the section above that we read and discussed. The idea that all people are equal and have rights that no one may take away was not new, but it had never been expressed so simply and powerfully. The third part is known as A Bill of Indictment. Which consists of a list of charges against King George III of Great Britain. Thomas Jefferson put the blame directly on the king because he knew that the colonist would be more favorable of this notion than to blame the nation since many colonist had close ties to Great Britain still.

The final section is called A Statement of Independence. This section includes Richard Henry Lee's Resolution. To make sure everyone knew how determined the members of the Congress were, Jefferson ended this declaration with these words: "And for the support of this declaration . . . we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor." Thomas Jefferson and the men of this congress knew it would be crucial for our limited government to work that the leaders and eventually all citizens of the country would have to be responsible and Take part in our government by staying informed and voting for their representatives at every level of Government: National, State, County, and local or city level government, for our government to be one for the people by the people. Taking part in school board elections is another very important part of our local government because of the impact on each of you as students.

The American Revolutionary War finally ended with an American victory. The thirteen colonies then became a confederation. A confederation is a body of loosely united and independent states. Under the document "Articles of Confederation" the United States had a central government, but it didn't have any real power. Each state printed its own money, made their own laws, and raised their own army. There was no real centralized power or federal government each state was like its own nation or country with an agreement between all of them to be called the United States of America.

It was clear that the confederation was not going to work. The value of money varied too much between the states, each state taxed the imported goods from other states, trade was next to impossible with each other. The men who fought as united colonies during the American Revolution was disappearing quickly. Realizing that their confederation was not working the delegates called a convention in the spring of 1787. They were going to revise the Article of Confederation. A majority of the fifty-five delegates that attended the convention had come to the conclusion that the country needed a new and stronger constitution. The delegates met in Philadelphia's Independence Hall and disagreed with each other on many points. Rhode Island didn't even send a representative. One by one the

problems were solved. The problems were each resolved by compromising. The larger states wanted representation in Congress to be based on population and this compromise was called the **Virginia Plan** because they had proposed it. However, the smaller states wanted representation to be equal from each state. This plan was called the **New Jersey Plan** because they had proposed it. The solution of representation in congress proposed by Connecticut came to known as **the Great Compromise**. The Great Compromise was representation in the House of Representatives would be based on population and the Senate would be equal for each state two senators per state. Other compromises dealt with slavery, the number of states to ratify or approve the Constitution, and with rights of the states and rights of the citizens, finally there was a written and signed Constitution that was acceptable on September 17, 1787.

The United States Constitution is the law of the land and is made up of a preamble, seven articles, which describe the powers of the federal government and there have been twenty-seven amendments added since the adoption of the U.S. Constitution, an amendment is an addition. The very first ten amendments were added so that the first states would ratify the Constitution. The Bill of Rights were a result of compromise too. The Bill of ensures or guarantees that the federal government will not take away or limit the natural or unalienable rights that all people should have because we are human which were stated by Thomas Jefferson in the Declaration of Independence.

Here is a summary of the the first ten amendments known as the Bill Of Rights: The First amendment says that congress will not make laws that deny we the people the freedoms of speech, religion, Press, the right to assemble peacefully, and the right to petition the government to correct any wrongs or grievances. The other amendments of the Bill of Rights include rights that protect people against unlawful searches, seizure of property, arrests, guarantee the right of due process of law, which is fair treatment of all people under the law.

Finally, the Bill of Rights states that any rights not specifically mentioned in the Constitution belong to the people and any powers not given to the federal government or prohibited to the states belong to the states and the people. The founders of our new government wanted to be ensure that there would be a limited form of government and that there would not be a tyranny as there had been under the British Monarch. With these promises to the states and the people the new and improved United States Constitution took Effect.

Our U.S. government consist of three equal branches that check and balance the power of each other. The executive branch is led by the President and **enforces** the laws of the United States. The legislative branch makes the laws and consist of two Houses of Congress which are the Senate and is made up of two senators from each state (The New Jersey Plan). This means there are one hundred senators because we have fifty states. The other part of congress is the House of Representatives which bases its representation from each state by population (The Virginia Plan). The third and final branch is the judicial branch, and this is the Supreme Court of the United States and some lower federal courts, the job of the judicial branch is to explain the laws and ensure that they are constitutional. The laws of the country must be fair and just.

FIGURE 2.1

The Supreme Court has final say on all laws passed by the federal government and or by any of the fifty states. If the law is unconstitutional that means it is does not agree with the constitution and is thrown out. The Supreme Court can throw out any law which it feels does not agree with the constitution. The authors of the Constitution knew this document was not perfect and that changes or amendments as time passed, would need to be made to the Constitution. They knew even people of good sense and wisdom would disagree on issues of the future. This is the beauty of the U.S. Constitution it lives, grows, and changes as we live, grow, and change as a nation. This is why the Constitution is called a living document and why it is one of the oldest and longest lasting documents of its time. Some of the changes or amendments that have been made have dealt with providing an income tax, extending voting to women, ending slavery, and giving civil rights to all people. Other amendments have dealt with changes in voting and representation in the House of Congress and the succession to the presidency. Other amendments have

dealt with the technical workings of government. However, most have been created to extend the “unalienable rights” which were described in the Declaration of Independence to all of the people of our country that had not received them yet. Many governments have used our U.S. Constitution as a model all around the world. The U.S. Constitution is over 200 years old and only has about 7,000 words. The Constitution has help keep our government a limited form of government and not allowed for unlimited powers to take hold.

Here is a brief summary of the U.S. Constitution. It begins with the **Preamble**:

We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this constitution for the United States of America.

The main part of the Constitution is divided into seven parts called articles. **Article 1-** Creates the legislative branch and congress. **Article 2-** Creates the executive branch of the federal government and is headed by the President. **Article 3-** Creates the judicial branch this is the Supreme Court and lets congress set up lower courts. This is the court system. **Article 4-** explains the relationship of the states between each other. It also has some information of how the federal government helps states too. **Article 5-** Tells how the Constitution can be changed or amended. **Article 6-** List some general items such as: Debt under the U.S. had under the Articles of Confederation, The U.S. Constitution is the law of the country, all officials at local, state, and federal governments must promise to support the Constitution, and no person shall be required to support any religion to hold office at any level. **Article 7-** Explains how the U.S. Constitution was to be ratified or approved. Nine of the thirteen original states had to ratify or vote for the Constitution before it went into effect. The Constitution was finished September 1787 and by June 1788 nine of the thirteen states had ratified it. The last state to ratify the Constitution was Rhode Island. They tiny state of Rhode Island thought that the larger states would not be fair to the smaller states. Today, all of the states have all of the same rights.

In conclusion of this section called the Freedom Documents the three documents known as the freedom documents were the 1. Declaration of Independence, 2. The Bill of Rights, and 3. The United States Constitution that would not have been ratified if the Bill of Rights had not been added to protect the rights of the people of the United States of America.

2.2 Limited vs Unlimited Governments

Limited government –in a limited government led by the citizens, everyone, including all authority figures, must obey the laws

Unlimited government –in an unlimited government, control is placed solely with the ruler and his/her appointees, and there are no limits imposed on his/her authority.

Identify, Describe: EXAMPLES OF LIMITED AND UNLIMITED GOVERNMENTS

Including, but not limited to: In a limited government led by the citizens, everyone, including all authority figures, must obey the laws. Constitutions, statements of rights, or other laws define the limits of those in power, so leaders cannot take advantage of their elected, appointed, or inherited positions.

Examples include:

United States and Canada

Most South American countries

Most European nations

Philippines

Thailand

Indonesia

Israel

Turkey

Tunisia

Japan

South Korea

Australia

New Zealand

In an unlimited government, control is placed solely with the ruler and his/her appointees, and there are no limits imposed on his/her authority.

Examples include:

North Korea totalitarian rule

Saudi Arabia absolute monarchy

Qatar absolute monarchy

Cuba under leadership of Castro brothers was a dictatorship.

Some countries that may hold elections but impose one political party, such as Russia, China, Laos and Vietnam, are examples some form of unlimited government also referred to as a dictatorships.

Compare: CHARACTERISTICS OF LIMITED AND UNLIMITED GOVERNMENT: Including, but not limited to:

Limited: Multi party, free elections, Limitations placed on rulers by laws/constitution, Freedom of speech and protection of human rights .

Unlimited: One-party rule, no elections or controlled elections, Written laws suspended or not upheld Repression of rights, Rights suspended by rulers – censorship of press, “disappearances” of opposition groups, torture, curfews, Total control in hands of ruler or appointees (e.g., Cuba, North Korea, Saudi Arabia).

Identify: REASONS FOR LIMITING THE POWER OF GOVERNMENT Including, but not limited to: Protect human rights, Promote economic freedom, Provide equity and opportunity for all citizens, Ensure peaceful transitions of power.

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2.3 Chapter 2 Glossary and Key Questions

- Limited government – in a limited government led by the citizens, everyone, including all authority figures, must obey the laws
- Unlimited government – in an unlimited government, control is placed solely with the ruler and his/her appointees, and there are no limits imposed on his/her authority
- Constitution-
- Totalitarian-

CHARACTERISTICS OF LIMITED AND UNLIMITED GOVERNMENT, Including, but not limited to:

• Limited

• *Multiparty, free elections*

• *Limitations placed on rulers by laws/constitution*

• *Freedom of speech and protection of human rights*

• Unlimited

• *One – party rule, no elections or controlled elections*

• *Written laws suspended or not upheld*

• *Repression of rights*

• *Rights suspended by rulers ~ censorship of press, “disappearances” of opposition groups, torture, curfews*

• *Total control in hands of ruler or appointees (e.g., Cuba, North Korea, Saudi Arabia)*

Identify REASONS FOR LIMITING THE POWER OF GOVERNMENT, Including, but not limited to:

- Protect human rights
- Promote economic freedom
- Provide equity and opportunity for all citizens
- Ensure peaceful transitions of power

Identify, Describe EXAMPLES OF LIMITED AND UNLIMITED GOVERNMENTS, Including, but not limited to:

• In a **limited government** led by the citizens, everyone, including all authority figures, must obey the laws. Constitutions, statements of rights, or other laws define the limits of those in power, so leaders cannot take advantage of their elected, appointed, or inherited positions.

• *Examples include :*

- United States and Canada
- Most South American countries
- Most European nations
- Philippines, Thailand, Indonesia
- Israel, Turkey, Tunisia

- Japan, South Korea

- Australia, New Zealand

- In an **unlimited government**, control is placed solely with the ruler and his/her appointees, and there are no limits imposed on his/her authority.

- Examples include; North Korea totalitarian rule, Saudi Arabia absolute monarchy, Qatar absolute monarchy, Cuba under leadership of Castro brothers. Some countries that may hold elections but impose one political party, such as Russia, China, Laos and Vietnam.

CHAPTER **3** Freedom for All: The United States

Chapter Outline

- 3.1 THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE UNITED STATES**
 - 3.2 HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES**
 - 3.3 THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT**
 - 3.4 THE UNITED STATES ECONOMY**
 - 3.5 CHAPTER 3 GLOSSARY AND KEY QUESTIONS**
-

3.1 The Geography of the United States

The Physical Geography of The United States

The United States of America is located in the western hemisphere it is separated from the rest of the world by water. The Atlantic Ocean on the eastern side, the Gulf Of Mexico to the south, and Pacific Ocean on the west. This separation has helped the U.S. from being directly involved in the two World Wars that have been fought and still serves as a natural barrier from the rest of the world. The U.S. is located on the North American continent. The United States has two major mountain ranges that run north and south. The Appalachian mts. Run along the eastern coast and the Rocky Mts. Run along the western side. The area between these two mountain ranges is mostly grassland and great for agriculture which is farming and ranching this natural region is known as the Great Plains area. Some of the biggest rivers located in the U.S. are the Mississippi River, The Missouri R. The Rio Grande R. which also serves as a natural border or barrier between the country of Mexico and USA. One other major river that is located in the western region of the US is the Colorado R. and forms one of the biggest canyons in The Grand Canyon. There are five Great lakes that serve as a barrier and border between the country of Canada and US in the northern US and Southern Canada. From west to east or left to right the great lakes are Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario. To remember these use this lil saying "Super Man Helps Every One." The first letter of each word is what each great lake name begins with from left to right. S – Superior, M- Michigan, H- Huron, E- Erie, and O- Ontario.

There are seven natural regions that make up the United States and Canada they are the following:

1. **Atlantic Coastal Plain**- runs along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico along the south, southeast, and eastern coast. From Texas to Florida to Maine. This region has rich farm land, swamps, and wetlands.
2. **Appalachian Mountains**- 400 million year old range lies west of the Atlantic Coastal Plains and is forest covered. These mountains are weathered and worn down.
3. **Central lowlands**- This region is west of the Appalachian Mts. extending to the Great Plains. This area is generally flat land. The soil is rich and there are many farms in this region.
4. **Great Plains**- The Great Plains is mostly flat grasslands and few trees. The land gradually rises from the

Central Lowlands to the Rocky Mts. There are many farms and ranches that raise cattle.

1. **The Rocky Mountains and Coastal Ranges**- The highest mountain ranges in the North America continent and located in the west of the U.S. and Canada. The names of these ranges are the Rocky Mts., Sierra Nevada and the Cascade ranges. These mountain ranges are high, rugged, and heavily forested. They run along the western part of the North American continent from Mexico in the south all the way through the continental United States thru Canada to Alaska in the north. The Rocky Mountains were formed 40 – 70 million years ago from the collision between the tectonic plate under the Pacific Ocean and the North American plate.
2. **Intermountain Region**- This region is located between the Rocky Mts. and the Western Coastal Ranges along the Pacific Coast. This area is dry, has many plateaus, basins, and deserts. There are some ranches that raise cattle and sheep in this region of the USA. The Grand Canyon is found in this area in the state of Arizona and is a natural wonder of our world.
3. **Canadian Shield or Laurentian Plateau**- The Canadian Shield is in Canada, wraps around Hudson Bay reaches as far south of Canada to the Great Lakes Region into the US. It covers most of Greenland too.

The shield is rich with minerals, such as uranium, copper, iron, and gold. The central and northwestern areas are rocky, has some flat plains, hills, and lakes. The northeastern area has high mountains and the southern portion is covered with forests. Most of this area is frozen and rocky land so farming is not possible and not very populated. Remember the closer you get to the poles whether the north or south poles it is very cold and not good for farming or living.

Natural Processes shape lands all around the world. Some of North America's most significant landforms were created by the action of wind, ice, water, and moving slabs of Earth's crust or tectonic plates. These landforms include valleys, plateaus, and mountains. Landforms are features of Earth's surface.

Thousands of years ago Earth went through a period known as the Ice Age. Glaciers covered much of North America. A glacier is a thick sheet of ice that moves slowly across the land. As these glaciers slid across the land they smoothed out rough areas, carved out deep trenches and left piles of rock and dirt. Once the Ice Age came to an end North America had new lakes, hills, and valleys.

Most earthquakes happen along the Pacific coast and there are also many volcano's located all along the Pacific coast land. Mount St. Helen is an ancient volcano found in the United States in the state of Washington. It erupted May 18, 1980 killing 60 people and thousands of animals. More than 200 square miles were destroyed by this volcanic eruption. This natural process changed that region dramatically not all natural processes change places that quick but major natural processes such as tornadoes, earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, floods, hurricanes, lightning, and heavy rains can changed the features of Earth quickly and affect the lives of the people living in that area. People must be cautious and listen to warnings of any of these natural processes also known as natural disasters. One of the natural processes that occur in our region of the world are floods from heavy rains. These natural processes affect the physical geography of any place and must be dealt with to ensure the well-being of people.

Erosion is another natural process which is when wind, rivers, and rain wear away soil and stone. Some of the most magnificent landforms are formed from erosion. The Grand Canyon is partly the result of millions of years of erosion by the Colorado River.

There are several major waterways such as rivers and lakes that provide fresh water for drinking and watering crops that are vital for the survival of people and animals. North America has an extensive network of rivers. The longest rivers are the Mississippi and Missouri Rivers in the U.S. In Canada the Mackenzie River is the longest river. Rivers form when snow melts and rain falls. The water runs down into creeks, which then collect more water becoming rivers. The rivers of North America empty into bays, gulfs, oceans, seas, lakes, and other rivers. Smaller rivers that flow into larger rivers are called tributaries.

A region's climate, natural resources and vegetation are important factors for the economic activities of a region. One of the worst floods in American history occurred around St. Louis, Missouri, U.S.A October 7, 1993. Heavy rains fell continuously on much of the upper Midwest in St. Louis where the Mississippi and Missouri Rivers meet. The flooding began around April and continued for six months. This natural disaster affected nine states, thousands of people, and more than 10,000 homes were destroyed, and around 50 people lost their lives.

One other natural disaster that has occurred in the U.S. was known as the Great American Dust bowl. This time happened from 1931 to 1939 the southern Great Plains was hit by one of the worst droughts in U.S. history. During the 1920s farmers and ranchers destroyed the soil by over grazing and over farming. The farmers over farmed and the soil lost all of its natural nutrients. The ranchers over grazed their cattle and sheep destroying the native grasses. The drought began and crops died because there were no root systems in place so the soil wouldn't hold together. The southern Great Plains became known as the Dust Bowl. By 1934 dust storms of top soil were happening across 27 states. The dust reached as far out as 300 miles off the Atlantic coast. Ships were covered by the blowing dust and thousands of people were forced to leave their farms.

Natural Wealth

The United States is rich with natural resources. The natural resources have been a big reason for the economic wealth and power that the United States maintains in the world. The farm lands in the Midwest U.S., the forest in northwest, northeast, and southeastern United States, oil fields of Texas, California, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Alaska, and the Gulf of Mexico have brought a lot of wealth to our country. Coal from the Appalachian Mountains, Illinois, Indiana, and Wyoming also have and continue to provide us with lots of jobs and wealth.

Water Resources: Rivers, Lakes, Oceans and Seaports or Bays.

Rivers are one of the most important natural resources because they provide the fresh water that all living organisms need to survive. Oceans are important too but you cannot drink sea or saltwater or grow crops with saltwater. Fresh

water from fresh water creeks, rivers, and lakes are the most important and is the main reason for the settlement of people all over the world. Wherever there is a big river there is good soil for farming and that is where people can build their settlement and thrive. River and ocean routes have also affected where people and industry are found. Rivers are what settlers followed for settlement. Good soil and water are needed for farms and for raising cattle. Communities start small, because they are just starting, then grow as business grows. People use rivers for transporting goods and people. Fishing is food and jobs for people. Lakes and rivers supply water for drinking, growing, transporting, power, and recreation.



FIGURE 3.1



FIGURE 3.2

The Human Geography of The United States (Political features/human features)

The United States is made up of 50 states. There are 48 continental states or states that are on the same landmass and connected by bordering each other. However, there are two states that do not touch the other or lower 48 states, Hawaii and Alaska. Each state has counties, cities, and towns. Louisiana has parishes which are similar to counties because of their history being controlled by the French before being part of the United States. Each state has a government that represents their state and representatives that represent their state at the federal level in



FIGURE 3.3

Washington D.C. which is located in the state of Maryland on the east coast. The state governments are designed like the national government. The representatives meet at their state capitol in congress and there are two houses: The House of Representatives and The Senate. Each state has a Governor and each state has their Supreme Court or court houses. Three branches just like the federal government. The idea of having state and federal government is called a federal system. This organization of states is created by people therefore this is a part of human geography. The borders of states from other states or countries from countries are also decided by people and therefore also a part of human geography. The borders may be decided by people but many times they are identified by landforms that were already there. Rivers, mountains, and lakes usually serve as borders because they are easily identified. For example the Rio Grande River separates the United States from Mexico. The Mississippi River also serves as a border between many states in our United States. If you study a political map which shows the human features like borders, capitals, cities, and towns you will be able to see that rivers and mountains are used quit often as borders.

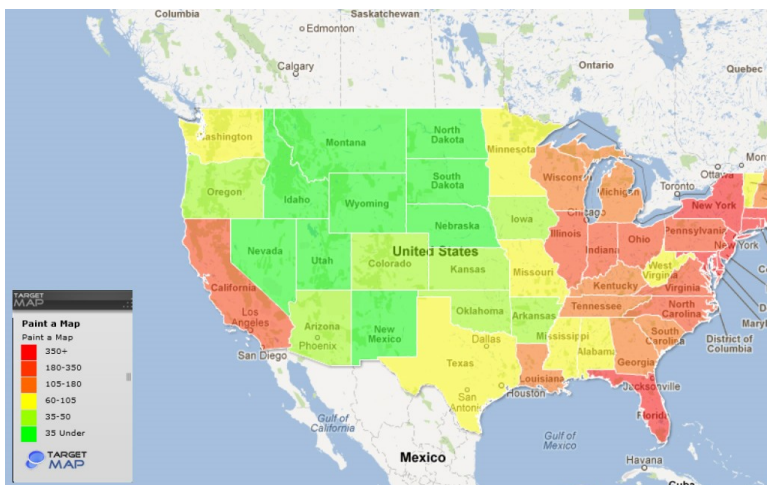


FIGURE 3.4



FIGURE 3.5



FIGURE 3.6



FIGURE 3.7



FIGURE 3.8

Major river systems in the United States

The Mississippi is the Nation's most important waterway



Source: Prepared by the Economic Research Service.

FIGURE 3.9



FIGURE 3.10



FIGURE 3.11

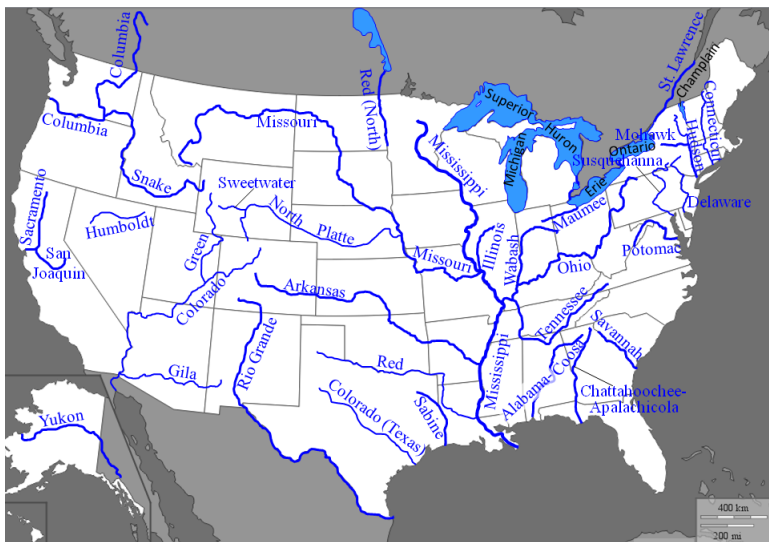


FIGURE 3.12

Major Rivers and Lakes Used for Migration in the United States

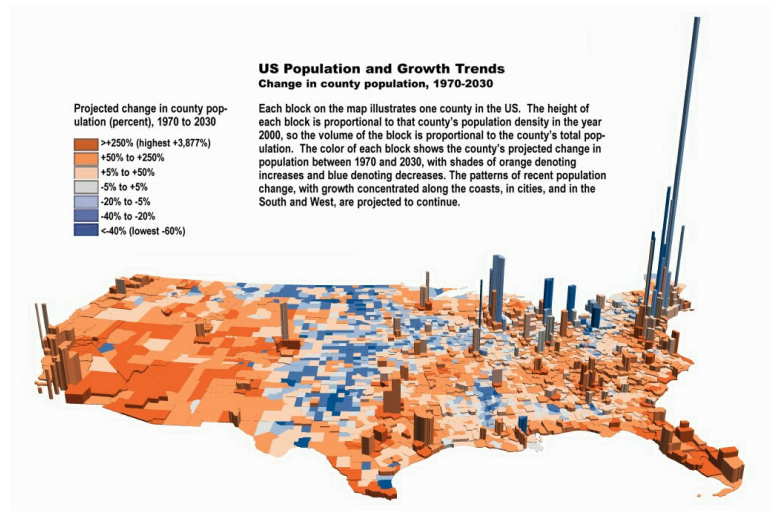


FIGURE 3.13

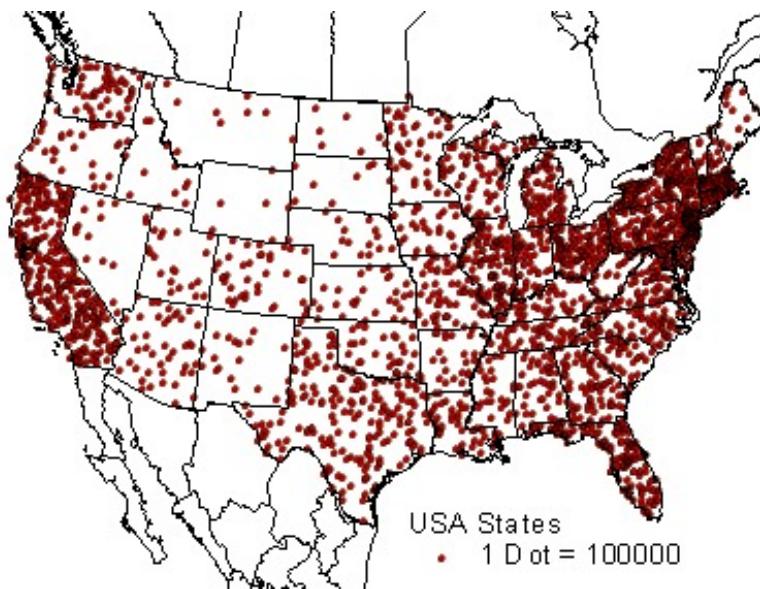


FIGURE 3.14

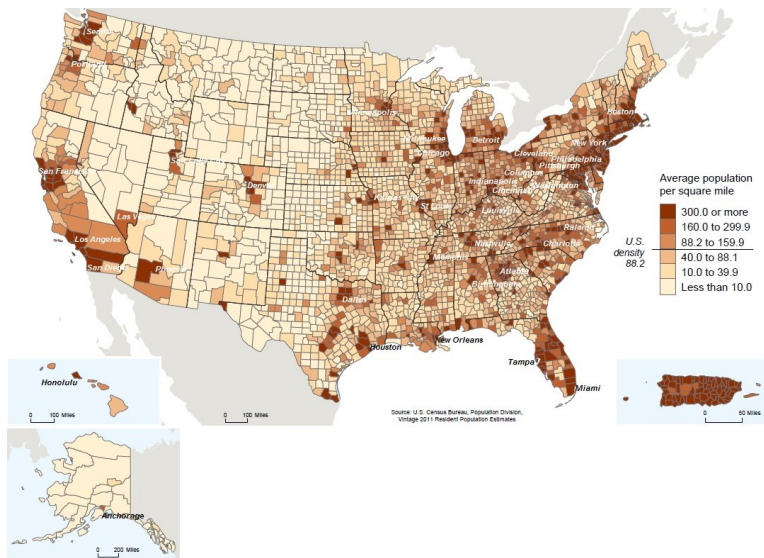


FIGURE 3.15



FIGURE 3.16



FIGURE 3.17

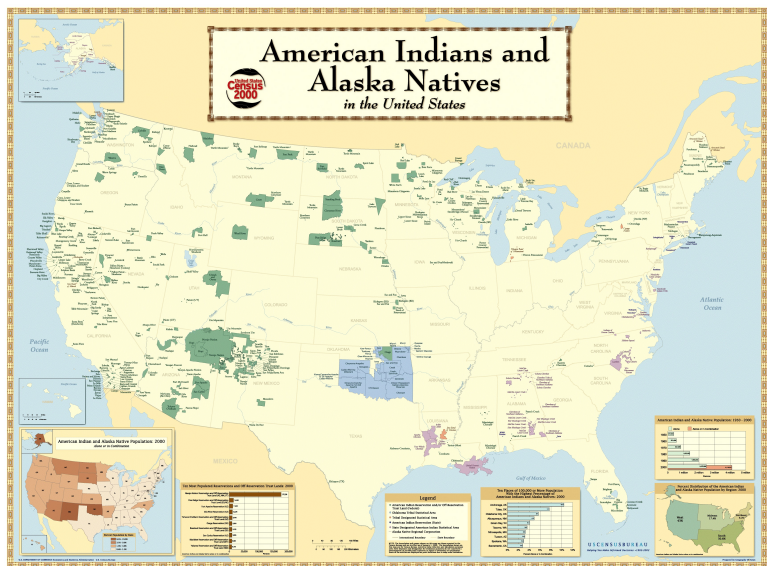


FIGURE 3.18

City	2010 Population	2000 Population	Population Change
New York	22,085,649	21,361,797	723,852
Los Angeles	17,877,006	16,373,645	1,503,361
Chicago	9,686,021	9,312,255	373,766
Washington-Baltimore	8,572,971	7,572,647	1,000,324
Boston	7,559,060	7,298,695	260,365
San Francisco-San Jose	7,468,390	7,092,596	375,794
Dallas-Fort Worth	6,731,317	5,487,956	1,243,361
Philadelphia	6,533,683	6,207,223	326,460
Houston	6,051,363	4,815,122	1,236,241
Atlanta	5,618,431	4,548,344	1,070,087

FIGURE 3.19

City	2009 Population	2000 Population	% Change
New York City	8,391,881	8,008,686	4.78%
Los Angeles	3,831,868	3,695,426	3.69%
Chicago	2,851,268	2,896,017	-1.55%
Houston	2,257,926	1,973,727	14.40%
Phoenix	1,593,659	1,322,438	20.51%
Philadelphia	1,547,297	1,517,542	1.96%
San Antonio	1,373,668	1,159,916	18.43%
San Diego	1,306,300	1,223,418	6.77%
Dallas	1,299,542	1,188,902	9.31%
San Jose	964,695	901,024	7.07%
Detroit	910,921	951,270	-4.24%
San Francisco	815,358	776,731	4.97%
Jacksonville	813,518	735,618	10.59%
Indianapolis	807,584	781,867	3.29%
Austin	786,386	668,249	17.68%
Columbus	769,332	713,418	7.84%
Fort Worth	727,577	543,338	33.91%
Charlotte	704,422	567,943	24.03%
Memphis	676,640	690,743	-2.04%
Boston	645,169	589,143	9.51%
Baltimore	637,418	651,154	-2.11%
El Paso	620,456	563,877	10.03%
Seattle	616,627	563,377	9.45%
Denver	610,345	553,691	10.23%
Nashville	605,473	545,536	10.99%

FIGURE 3.20

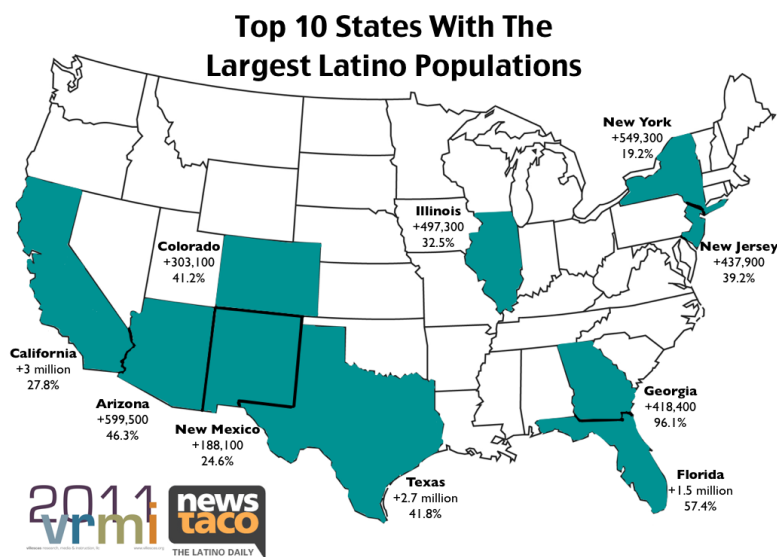


FIGURE 3.21

3.2 History of the United States

The First People.

The United States is a country of many cultures, many people. Immigrants from all over the world have settled here. The first people were the natives who traveled from Asia across the Bering Strait which was a narrow land bridge that connected the continent of Asia and North America where present day Russia and Alaska once connected. The Bering Strait was once above water but over thousands of years the land bridge has been covered with water. The first natives have lived here for thousands of years 12,000 – 35,000 years ago. Some of the earliest natives were the Anasazi, Mississippians, and Navajo which means “Ancient Ones”. These native people developed complex civilizations around A.D. 100 and reached its height in the 11th to 13th centuries. The Anasazi were experts at irrigation, built homes along cliffs that had 20-1,000 rooms. The remains of these structures are found in Mesa Verde National Park in Colorado and other areas in the Southwestern United States.

European Settlers

The first Europeans arrived with Christopher Columbus discovering the new world while looking for a new route to Asia in 1492. This discovery of the “New World” would be the beginning of other Europeans exploring and colonizing the Americas. Colonists followed the explorers. The British settled along the Atlantic coast, southeastern Canada and Northeastern U.S. The Spanish settled Florida, Mexico, other parts of Latin America, such as Islands of the Bahamas, Central America and areas of the continent of South America. The French settled Louisiana, central United States north to lands around the Great lakes and southeast Canada. The French and British would have many conflicts and fight a war over lands in the United States. The British would win much land from the French in the area of the United States and the French would maintain lands in Canada in the area of Quebec which today still has a big influence of the French culture. European population grew and conflicts with Native Americans happened very often. This led to distrust and war among the different cultures fighting for land and power.

Slavery in the New World Colonies

Europeans began to plant and harvest crops and created towns and started businesses. The demand for cheap labor brought about slavery. Europeans started bringing slaves from Africa to the Americas. Slave traders had been buying people for slavery since the 1500s. African slavery to the Americas began in 1619. Africans traveled in ships across the Atlantic Ocean packed like sardines and many did not survive the harsh cruel conditions. The ones who did survive were bought and sold into slavery. They were considered property and worked for free the rest of their lives. Their children would be born into slavery too. The work done by slaves helped build our country and many other countries.

Indentured Servants

Indentured servants were immigrants who could not afford the trip across the Atlantic. To pay for their trip they agreed to work for their employer in the colonies. Their contracts or indentures could be bought and sold. Many were treated badly and many died before gaining their freedom. However, the ones that made it would stay and make the colonies their home.

Other cultures

Around 1850 many immigrants from China entered the United States, some worked in mines and many others worked on building the transcontinental railroad. In the 1880s and the 1920s new laws limited the number of immigrants that could enter the United States from certain countries. Then in 1952 laws again changed which allowed immigrants of all nationalities to become American citizens.

Citizen’s Rights

The United States has been a leader of citizen’s rights but many U.S. citizens have fought and struggled for their

rights. When African Americans were freed from slavery in 1865 by the 13th Amendment they still were denied their rights. Women were not allowed to vote until 1920. Other Americans like Native Americans, Hispanics, other Europeans like the Irish, Asians, and other immigrants have fought against discrimination since the beginning of our country. New laws have made discrimination illegal and have guarantee equal opportunity for all Americans in education, employment and all areas of life. It is illegal for government or private institutions to discriminate because of race, religion, gender, age, or disability.

Citizenship

Citizenship is crucial for a limited form of government to work. Citizenship are duties or responsibilities and rights of a citizen. Good citizenship means doing more than the minimum that is required by law for your community and country. Good citizenship is doing the right thing for the good of the people which is the country. Some examples of duties of citizens are: paying taxes, casting an informed vote, serving on juries, serving in the military, volunteering for activities that help the common good for the people in your community, and obeying laws. Some of these are required by the law some are just good and just need to be done for the good of all people. Discuss and make a list of which you think are required by law and which should just be done for the good of the community.

Citizenship in action

Americans joined together after the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks. This is when four U.S. planes were hijacked and used as bombs. Two were flown into the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York City, one into the Pentagon in Washington, D.C. and the fourth plane was crashed in a field in Pennsylvania after some very courageous passengers struggled with the hijackers to take the plane back and not hit another structure or landmark to save more American lives.

Many Americans devoted their time and money to help the victims and their families during this time of crisis. Rescue workers, firefighters, police officers, and medical personnel worked around the clock putting their own lives at risk for others. Many died helping others to survive. Companies and good citizens across the country and around the world donated, time, money, blood, and supplies through organizations such as the Red Cross and the United Way. Americans came together and helped one another because that's the right thing to do. This is just one example of good citizenship that Americans have done throughout our history. There are many more examples of good citizenship that people in our country have done during times of crisis and natural disasters.

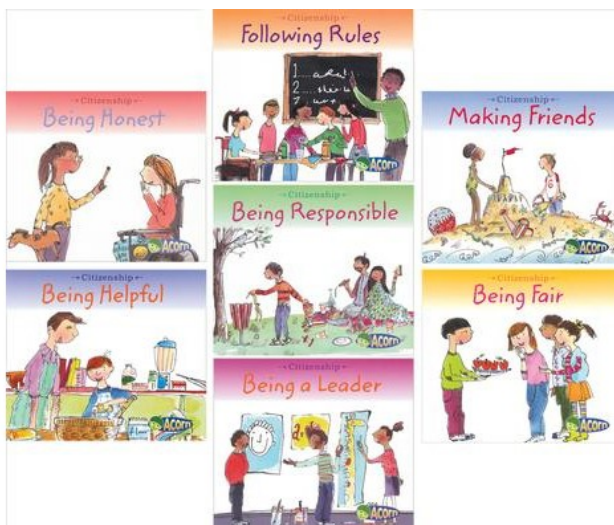


FIGURE 3.22



FIGURE 3.23

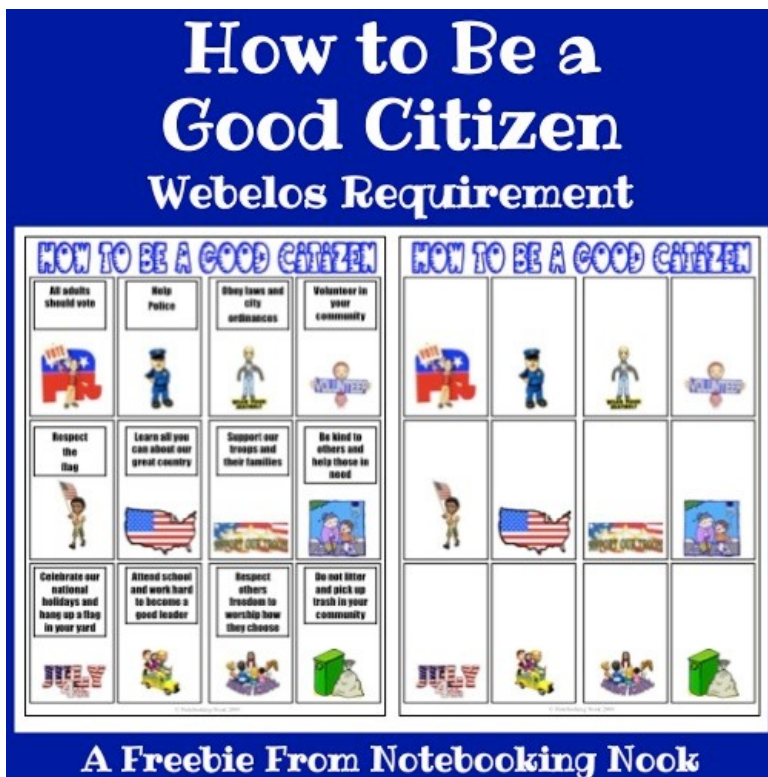


FIGURE 3.24

3.3 The United States Government

We have already studied and read about the Freedom Documents which established our United States government during freedom week. The colonist of America brought the ideas of democracy because they wanted freedom that all men inherently deserve and wanted to ensure that the government of the United States not be a monarchy and not be led by a tyrant, a dictator, or any form of unlimited government.

The U.S. Constitution

The law of the land is the United States Constitution. It is based on the idea that all men are created equal and that laws may change as time passes so the Constitution too must be amendable or able to change to keep up with the times. The Constitution was written to protect the individual rights and freedoms from government interference. The writers also knew that a country needs strong laws and maintain a stable government. The Constitution does a great job of doing this. The Constitution describes the limits of power of the leaders of government. It also ensures rights of citizens and their role in governing their country. The government is made up of the people for the people.

The United States is a Constitutional Republic which is a form of limited government. A limited government is one in which the leaders of the government have limits on their power. The other type of government is unlimited government. In an unlimited form of government the leaders have almost total or unlimited power. Dictators or absolute monarchies control their countries' laws and people. This type of government tends to end up not allowing for their people to have rights and freedoms because of the fear of losing their power.

The Growing, Changing or Amending of our Constitution

The Constitution went into effect in 1789 but to ensure the passing or ratifying of the Constitution the Bill of Rights was added in 1791. The first ten amendments are the Bill of Rights and list specific freedoms guaranteed to every U.S. citizen. Free speech, religion, fair treatment, right to trial, and own weapons are examples of some of the Bill of Rights amendments. Other amendments have dealt with citizenship, ending slavery, giving women the right to vote and limiting terms of government leaders or representatives like our president. There have been 27 Amendments or changes added to the Constitution to deal with and make our government better for the common good of our people.

Creating a Federal Government

Limiting the powers of the federal or national government and protecting state's rights to govern itself was one of the main goals of the founders of our country. They created a federal system which divided the federal/national government and the state governments. The President is the head of the federal government which is a republic form of government being elected by the people of the whole country and representing us among the other nations/countries of the world. The federal government has specific powers to establish an army, wage war, raise money by taxes, and make laws to carry out their duties. All other powers are given to the states. The Constitution does not refer to city, town, or local government. The states determine the form of county, city, or town rule. Each states government is similar to the federal government because the Constitution is still the law of the land.

Three Branches of Government

There are three branches of government to divide the power of the U.S. Government. The executive, legislative, and judicial branches which checks and balances the power of each other. The process that a new law or bill has to go through shows how this check and balance of power works.

All three of the branches of government are located in Washington, D.C. our U.S. capital.

The **President** is elected to lead the **Executive Branch**. He enforces the laws, is our Commander and Chief of the Armed forces and represents us in foreign affairs or our dealings with other countries. He does his job with the help of many people including his Vice-President and his presidential cabinet which includes 14 executive departments

How a Bill Becomes a Law

To become a law, a bill must win passage in both houses of Congress before going to the President.

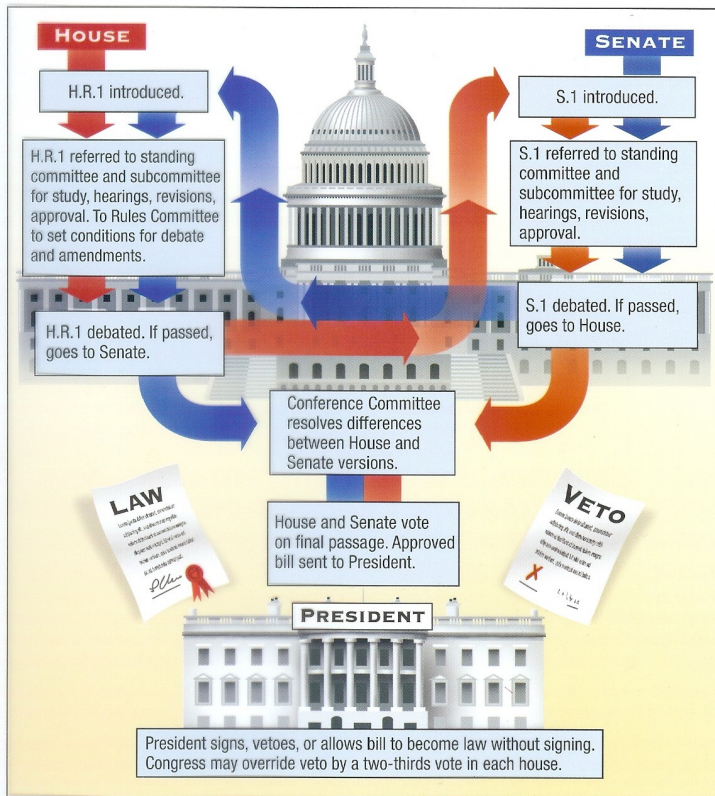


FIGURE 3.25

1. Why is there a need for a conference committee after a bill has been passed by both houses?
2. How can Congress secure passage of a bill vetoed by the President?

that are headed by people with the title of Secretary.

Congress is the Legislative Branch. Two houses or groups of representatives make up congress, the Senate and The House of Representatives which make the laws for our nation. The senate is made up 100 senators, 2 per state and the house of representatives is made up of 435 elected members and each states number of representatives is based on the population of each state. These two houses have some shared responsibilities and some separate.

The **Judicial Branch** is made up of federal courts which make sure all laws and treaties agree with the Constitution which means they are constitutional. The highest federal court is the Supreme Court. There are nine judges/ justices who are nominated by the President and approved by the Senate, this is another example of checks and balances too.

3.4 The United States Economy

Free Enterprise/Market Economy/Capitalism

The United States of America has a Free Enterprise or Market Economy. The people of the country have the freedom and right to decide what goods and services to make or produce. The people of the country are free to create any type of business that they believe is necessary and profitable. We the people, you and me, get to decide if you want to work for a company or be the company owner making all the decisions, making most of the money, and taking all the risks. Competition is one of the factors to consider too. In a free- enterprise/market economy you compete for the consumer's money and this competition is necessary for this type of economy. Capitalism another term that refers to free enterprise or a market economy relies on competition between businesses so that the best products are made at the lowest cost possible, and offered at the best price for the consumer (buyer) and the seller (owner) to be happy. Competition and the freedom to produce the products or offer a service that the people of a country want are two key factors that separates Free- Enterprise/Market economy and a Command economy.

The United States market economy deals with business start-ups, investors making and losing money in the market, consumers buying or saving and their confidence in the economy effects these two actions, employment and unemployment the percent of people working and or not working. These are all a part of our United States economy which can be called a Market Economy, Free-Enterprise Economy, or Capitalist Economy. The freedom to make choices by service providers, investors, manufacturers, and consumers is what affects the economy of any market economy.

Goods and Services

A good is any object you can buy to satisfy a want or need. A service is an action that meets a want or need. An example of a good could be a cell phone and you mowing your neighbors' lawns for money would be an example of a service you provided your neighbors so you could buy the good which in this case is a cell phone.

Making Decisions of What to Buy

The People

People decide what to buy every day and their decisions are influenced by what must be bought first to survive and meet our basic needs. Needs should be bought first. Needs are food, housing, transportation, utilities, childcare, medical treatment, and clothing. Our needs should be bought first then some of what is left should be saved and some can be used to buy a want if there is money left over and if you choose to do so. Some examples of wants could be buying on line music, a DVD, a skate board, a video game, or a vacation. These decisions are important for you and your family and the people who work in the family, mom and dad, are the ones making these decisions. Don't worry once you start working you will be able to make some of the decisions and then once you're on your own you can make all of these decisions. Just remember money doesn't grow on trees.

Government

The United States government or any government (country) must make the same type of decisions when deciding what to buy. The appropriate use of a governments' tax dollars is always being monitored or watched by the people (tax payers) of the country and should be. The government must first buy the needs of a country then they can decide to buy other things. Basic needs of a society (country) would be police and fire protection, roads, hospitals, schools, and military forces. After these necessities have been paid and budgeted then the government may make other choices on what the society wants.

A Thriving Economy

In a growing productive economy a country's goods and services are being produced. Citizens are working and

making and spending money. In a growing economy people are earning more money and then the government is able to collect more taxes money providing more opportunities to satisfy more wants. The people are also able to satisfy more wants too.

To maintain a growing economy business owners must keep their production high. Production is the making of goods and providing services. There are **FOUR FACTORS** of **PRODUCTION** which you have read about earlier when learning about free enterprise market economies. They are 1. Entrepreneur 2. Natural Resources 3. Labor Resources and Capital Resources. These are the ingredients needed for production to happen.

The United States Economy

The United States has one of the wealthiest economies in the world. One way to measure a countries economy is to look at the GDP of the country. **GDP** stands for Gross Domestic Product. GDP tells the total value of goods and services that a country produces each year. People can compare the economies of different countries by looking at their GDPs.

U.S. industries include services like legal services, health care, communications like publishing, television, radio, telephone, and mail delivery; finance, such as banking and stock market; manufacturing such as automobile, clothing, food products, electronics; such as TVs, computers, and sound equipment. The Americans that are successful in these industries are some of the wealthiest in the world.

A Market Economy or Free Enterprise

United States businesses and the citizens make the economic decisions of how to make a product or provide a service. The business owners control the factors of production. Government role in a free enterprise or market economy plays a limited role in the economy. The government does not decide which or how many goods to produce. The government does not set prices or tell people where they can work (the types of jobs to do). This is the beauty of a free enterprise/market economy. In a free enterprise the people, the business owners compete for your business with little government interference. A market is any place where people can exchange goods and services, for example any country. Many nations like Canada, Mexico, other Latin American countries, Western Europe and Japan, have market/free enterprise economies.

Supply and Demand

A key component in a market economy is how to decide how much to produce or what price to set for a service or product. This depends on the demand by the consumers. Consumers are the people who use goods and services. All of us are consumers. If a product is priced at \$10.00 and the company produces or makes 1,000 items of this product but 1,500 people want to buy the product at this price then the seller says lets raise the price because we have a lot of demand and can make even more money or profit. Profit is the amount of money that is left after all of the costs of producing or offering a service have been paid for.

Ok now suppose you sell all of the items after you raised the price to \$12.00 dollars, you made an extra \$2.00 per product, this is great. Now you decide to produce another 1,000 items and you sell 100 quickly but then demand dies down. After a few days you decide that the demand has gone way down but you still have 900 items, so you decide to lower the price it original price of \$10.00 you sell a few but not enough so then you lower the price again. This is what economist call supply and demand. The supply of the good is greater than the demand for the good, the seller must lower or reduce the price to sell the product.

1st Price is high 2nd Producer wants to increase supply to make more profit/ money. 3rd More goods produced pushes price down. 4th Demand increases 5.Producer increases supply again. 6. Price decreases again. 7. Producer supplies fewer goods again. 8. Price increases and demand falls.

Supply and demand explains how the price for a product and availability are affected by how much consumers are willing to pay for a product and how much the seller will charge for the item or service. The item, product or service is the **SUPPLY** and the number of people willing to pay or buy at the price set is the **DEMAND**.

Competition

There is a lot of competition in a market or free enterprise economy. Competition is when you have a rivalry among businesses to sell goods to consumers and make the greatest profit. Achieving the goal of selling and making a profit with many competitors, the company must offer an improved product or service, make or manufacture the product or be able to provide the service at less cost to him or her, or sell it at a better price.

The Other Economic Systems

Countries combine features from three types of economic systems. The three types of economic systems are **1. Market/Free Enterprise Economy** **2. Command Economy** or **3. Traditional Economy**. We have already discussed the market or free enterprise economy. The next one we will explain is the Command Economy.

In a **Command Economy** the government decides how many of which goods are to be produced and they set the prices too. Some of the countries that practice this type of economic system are North Korea, Cuba, and China. These countries have Communist Governments. China has some elements of command and market economies.

In a **Traditional Economy**, culture and the social roles determine what, who, and how goods and services are produced. Incomes, prices of goods or services, and what to produce and who may purchase the goods or services may be determined by the status of your family. Your family status may determine if you can purchase certain products. India has elements of a traditional economy and market economy.

A Global Economy

More countries than ever before have Market/Free Enterprise economies. The advancement of communication and transportation has made trade dependable, faster, and easier among countries. The movement of goods and people has made our world a global economy. The United States is a leader in the global economy. Today, the world is the market. Countries are buying and selling all types of quality products and providing services at lowest cost possible. This is good and bad, but overall this offers us more selection at better prices, or it should.

Barriers of Trade

Some countries that want to control or restrict their economy use tariffs which are taxes on imported goods. This raises cost and price which makes it more difficult for some countries to compete.

Sometimes countries make agreements to help their economies among themselves. In 1994, the United States, Mexico, and Canada created the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). This agreement was going to reduce trade barriers such as tariffs and other processes. One major concern was that American companies would leave for Mexico and that Americans would lose those jobs. This did happen, but the benefits have helped all of the countries more than hurt. Many economists agree that NAFTA has benefitted all three countries.

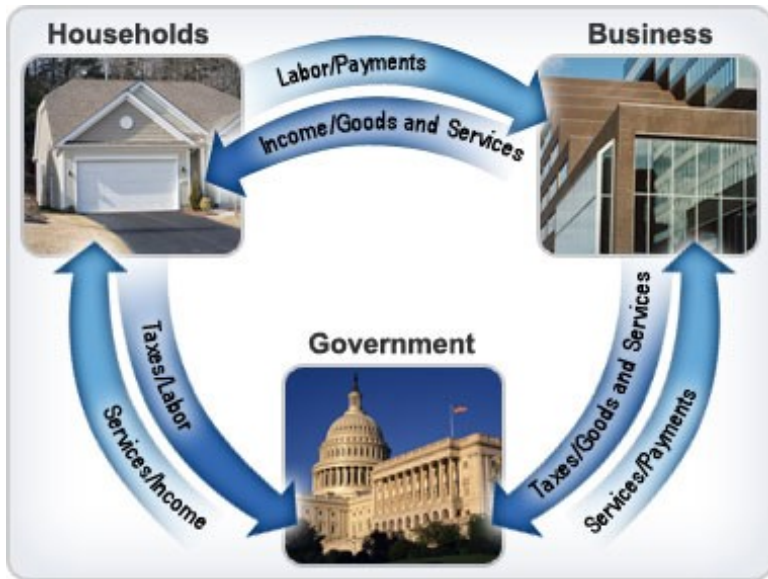


FIGURE 3.26

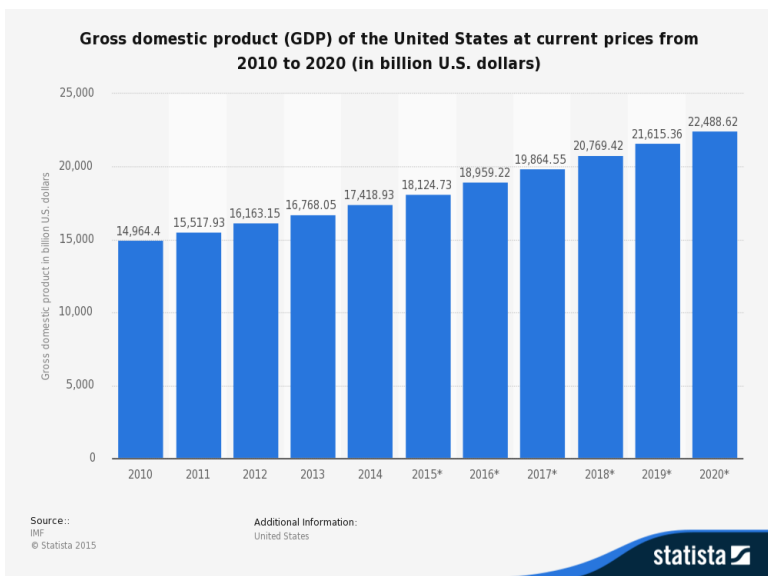


FIGURE 3.27

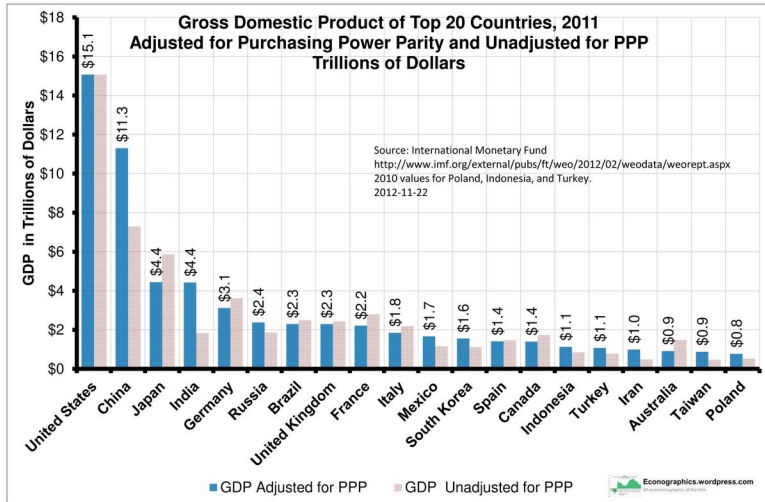


FIGURE 3.28

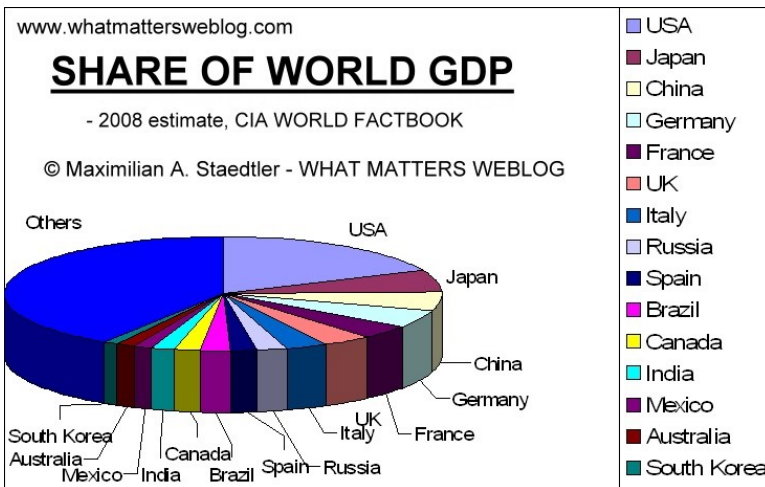


FIGURE 3.29

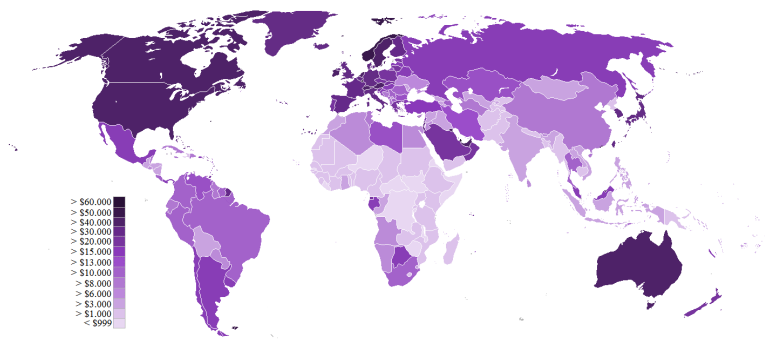


FIGURE 3.30

Total GDP (PPP)

List by the World Bank (2005–2012)^[3]

Rank	Country	GDP (PPP) \$Billion	Year
↕	<i>World</i>	↕ 97,228 ↕	↕ 2012 ↕
1	United States	16,245	2012
2	China	14,803	2012
3	India	6,355	2012
4	Japan	4,544	2012
5	Germany	3,434	2012
6	Russia	3,386	2012
7	Brazil	2,891	2012
8	France	2,417	2012
9	United Kingdom	2,272	2012
10	Indonesia	2,225	2012
11	Italy	2,079	2012
12	Mexico	1,985	2012
13	Spain	1,503	2012
14	South Korea	1,501	2012
15	Saudi Arabia	1,462	2012

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_GDP_\(PPP\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_GDP_(PPP))

FIGURE 3.31

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_GDP_\(PPP\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_GDP_(PPP))

International Monetary Fund (2013)^[3]

per capita GDP (PPP)

Central Intelligence Agency (1993–2013)^[2]

Rank	Country	Int\$
1	Qatar	98,814
2	Luxembourg	78,670
3	Singapore	64,584
4	Norway	54,947
5	Brunei	53,431
6	United States	53,101
–	Hong Kong	52,722
7	Switzerland	46,430
8	San Marino ^{[6][7]}	44,480
9	Canada	43,472
10	Australia	43,073
27	Korea, South	33,189
28	Bahamas, The	32,036
29	Saudi Arabia	31,245
30	New Zealand	30,493
31	Italy	30,289
32	United Arab Emirates	30,122
33	Spain	29,851

Rank	Country	Int\$
1	Qatar	102,100
2	Liechtenstein	89,400
–	Macau	88,700
–	Bermuda	86,000
3	Luxembourg	77,900
4	Monaco	65,500
5	Singapore	62,400
–	Jersey	57,000
6	Norway	55,400
–	Falkland Islands	55,400
7	Brunei	54,800
–	Isle of Man	53,800
8	United States	52,800
–	Hong Kong	52,700
10	Switzerland	46,000
30	Korea, South	33,200
31	Bahamas, The	32,000
32	Saudi Arabia	31,300
–	Faroe Islands	30,500
33	New Zealand	30,400
34	Spain	30,100
35	United Arab Emirates	29,900

FIGURE 3.32

3.5 Chapter 3 Glossary and Key Questions

U.S. ECONOMY KEY UNDERSTANDING QUESTIONS. VOCABULARY AND NOTES FROM IFD

In the United States/Canada people are free to make economic choices.

1. What is characteristic of the economic systems in this region/ The United States?
2. What is similar and different about economies in this region/ The United States?
3. How does economic freedom impact standards of living in this region/ The United States?
4. What categories of economic activities are found in this region?
5. How have advances in science and technology impacted economic patterns in this region?
6. Compare, Contrast FREE ENTERPRISE, SOCIALIST, AND COMMUNIST ECONOMIES.

Including, but not limited to:

A **free enterprise system** is a market economy where independent producers supply goods and services in response to consumer demand. Both supply and demand are affected by prices.

The system has **four characteristics**: economic freedom, voluntary exchange, private property, and profit motive.

A **socialist system** is a market economy in which government owns some factors of production yet private ownership of small scale business is allowed.

A **communist system** is characterized by collective or state ownership of the means of production. Government, rather than individuals, owns and controls all resources and economic decision, resulting in no economic freedom, no private ownership and no profit motive.

Benefits of a U.S. free enterprise system

Individuals and businesses have the freedom to operate and compete with minimal government regulation Private ownership of land, minerals, manufacturing plants, goods and services, opportunities for innovativeness and inventiveness, opportunities to earn a profit and Individuals may choose how to provide their own labor within the labor market.

Understand: The IMPORTANCE OF MORALITY AND ETHICS IN MAINTAINING A FUNCTIONAL FREE ENTERPRISE SYSTEM. Including, but not limited to: Recent events in the United States (e.g., mortgage crisis, Enron, Ponzi schemes) show the importance of morality and ethics in the system. Without those elements, consumers lose confidence and the economy weakens.

Define, Give examples AGRICULTURAL, WHOLESALE, RETAIL, MANUFACTURING (GOODS), AND SERVICE INDUSTRIES Including, but not limited to:

Agriculture refers to the cultivation of land or ranching examples include farming ranching cultivation of coffee, tea, sugar, and bananas.

Wholesale industry acts as a middleman in the industrial process, taking the products from the producers, sometimes packaging them, and selling them to retailers examples exist in every industry.

Retail refers to the sale of goods individually or in small quantities to consumers examples include the sale of clothing, furniture, foodstuffs, etc.

Manufacturing refers to the production of goods by manual labor or by machinery, generally on a large scale examples include the manufacturing of cars, airplanes, weapons, steel, chemicals, computers, electronics, medical equipment, and furniture.

Service Industries provide labor-intensive work that does not ultimately result in a tangible product examples include restaurants, doctors, nurses, lawyers, teachers, banking, tourism, salespeople, call centers, and entertainment.

Identify, Describe EFFECTS OF GOVERNMENT REGULATION AND TAXATION ON ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND BUSINESS PLANNING Including, but not limited to:

Cost of production increases with taxation and the costs are passed on to consumers.

Regulations are in place to protect consumers both from unsafe products and from unfair pricing, such as that from monopolies.

Regulation serves to protect workers from unfair and unsafe working conditions.

When **businesses plans are created** both the regulations and the amount of taxation must be addressed in that plan.

CULTURE OF THE UNITED STATES, KEY QUESTIONS AND NOTES

Culture in the United States is influenced by colonization and immigration.

What cultural traditions were brought to this region by immigrants?

What cultural traditions are characteristic of indigenous groups in this region?

Why is the United States considered a multicultural region?

What is characteristic of cultural cooperation and conflict in the United States?

United States and Canada

European migration to the region in the sixteen century resulted in limited government, widespread use of English and French, and the spread of Christian religious practices to the region.

Forced migration of enslaved Africans to the region is reflected in the cultural practices and demographics of the region.

Westward migration across the United States and Canada influenced the image of rugged people who survive in adverse circumstances.

Rural to urban migration in the region has resulted in a highly urbanized culture in the United States and Canada.

Migration from Mexico to the United States has impacted cultural practices as well as spread the use of Spanish.

Human migrations to the United States and Canada have resulted in multicultural societies.

Define, Consider MULTICULTURAL SOCIETY WITH POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE QUALITIES Including, but not limited to:

Multicultural society is one in which two or more cultures exist within close proximity.

Positive qualities of multiculturalism:

Cultures borrow from each other, bringing larger varieties of food, traditions, music, religions, which creates opportunities.

Enslaved Africans brought musical traditions which were blended into many other forms (e.g., reggae, calypso, gospel, rhythm and blues, jazz, rock and roll).

Use of French and English in Canada has created a multilingual society.

Enslaved Africans brought their cultural traditions with them, introducing capoeira, samba, Candomblé, and African foods to Brazil.

Inca descendants still celebrate ancient rituals in Peru today.

Negative qualities of multiculturalism

Minority cultures may experience oppression and discrimination along with loss of local cultural traditions and tensions between cultural groups.

French in Canada, some desiring independence.

Hutus and Tutsis in Rwanda.

Serbs and Croats in Kosovo.

Shi'a, Sunnis, and Kurds of the Southwest Asia

Because of racism, many African-derived practices were outlawed in Brazil into the 20th century.

Efforts to ban full-face religious veils in France, minarets in Switzerland

Analyze, Evaluate, EXPERIENCES AND CONTRIBUTIONS OF DIVERSE GROUPS TO MULTICULTURAL SOCIETIES Including, but not limited to:

Experiences of diverse groups within multicultural societies will vary by society.

Mexicans and other immigrant groups in United States, French in Canada, American Indian tribes both countries.

Africans in Brazil

Muslims in Europe

Contributions of diverse groups to multicultural societies will vary by society.

Foods from throughout the world

Religious practices of diverse groups

Spiritual beliefs of native groups – people from other backgrounds draw on these elements for their own lives.

Economic contributions (need for labor)

Fused different forms of architecture, art, music, dance, fashion, traditions and customs.

Give EXAMPLES OF SCIENTIFIC DISCOVERIES AND TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS THAT HAVE TRANSCENDED BOUNDARIES OF SOCIETIES AND SHAPED THE WORLD, Including, but not limited to:

Block printing, moveable type, printing press

Steam-powered engine, internal combustion engine

Canals, ships, railroads, automobiles, airplanes, rockets

Dams, irrigation systems, desalinization plants

Electricity

Telegraph, telephone, satellites

Computers, Internet

Vaccines, medicines, such as quinine and penicillin

Poisonous gas, guns, atomic weapons

Scientists and inventors facilitate the discovery and invention of new technologies often through exhaustive trial and error. These advances then are widely produced in the economic sector and spread from one culture to another.

Explain HOW RESOURCES, BELIEF SYSTEMS, ECONOMIC FACTORS, POLITICAL DECISIONS AFFECT THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY. Including, but not limited to:

Resources

Societies that have access to resources that facilitate the production of technologies generally have the standard of living that allows for access to and use of those technologies.

Belief systems

Societies which have long-held beliefs about freedom of choice tend to embrace the use of technology, while more traditional cultures may use less technology.

Economic factors

The cost of design and development, construction, and operation of technology affects the access to technology and use of technology.

Political decisions

Societies which restrict the rights of citizen may also block use of technology, such as access to the Internet and other sources of information.

Make PREDICTIONS ABOUT FUTURE SOCIAL, POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, CULTURAL, AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS FROM FUTURE DISCOVERIES AND INNOVATIONS.

Including, but not limited to:

Predictions about future impacts could relate to the following:

Development of aerospace and communication technologies

Creation of alternative energy sources

Development of new medical and life-saving devices and/or drugs



FIGURE 3.33

U.S. Economy Key Understanding Questions. Vocabulary and Notes from IFD

do

CHAPTER **4**

Canada

Chapter Outline

4.1 THE PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF CANADA

4.2 CHAPTER 4 REVIEW QUESTIONS, NOTES, AND VOCABULARY

4.1 The Physical Geography of Canada

Physical and Political Maps



FIGURE 4.1



FIGURE 4.2

KEY POINTS ABOUT CANADA

Canada is the second largest country in the world, smaller only to Russia.

Population: 28 million people

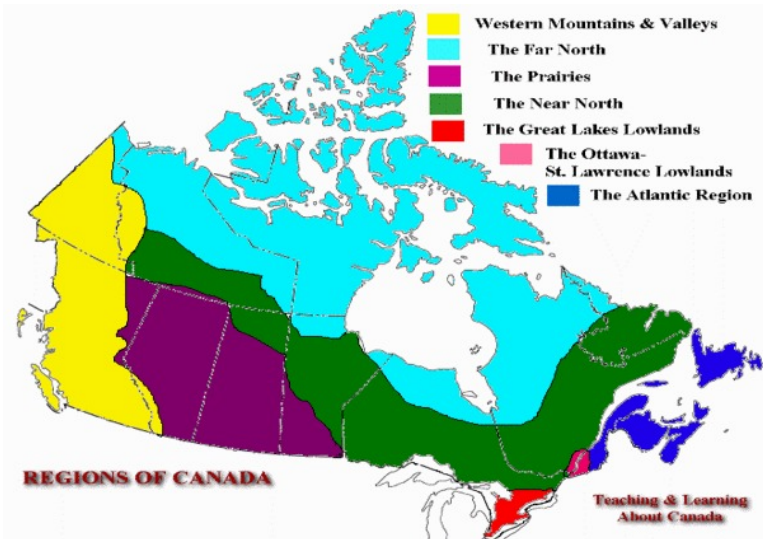


FIGURE 4.3



FIGURE 4.4

Geographic size: 3.9 million square miles

Capital: Ottawa

Major cities and population: Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Calgary, Edmonton, Winnipeg, Halifax

Canada has a very large and diverse range of geographic features. Canada is divided into 10 provinces and 2 territories. Canada stretches from the Pacific Ocean on the west, to the Atlantic Ocean on the east. Northern Canada reaches into the Arctic Circle, while southern Canada stretches below the northern points of the United States. Canada has a very small population, 28 million people, for its geographic size. Much of Canada is still wilderness, cover by forests. The Rocky Mountains cover a major part of western Canada – British Columbia, the Yukon Territory, and the western part of Alberta. West-central Canada is mostly prairie, consisting of large grain farms. The east-central part of Canada are the provinces of Ontario and Quebec. These are major population and industrial areas. The Maritime provinces on the east coast rely very heavily on the Atlantic Ocean for their way of life.

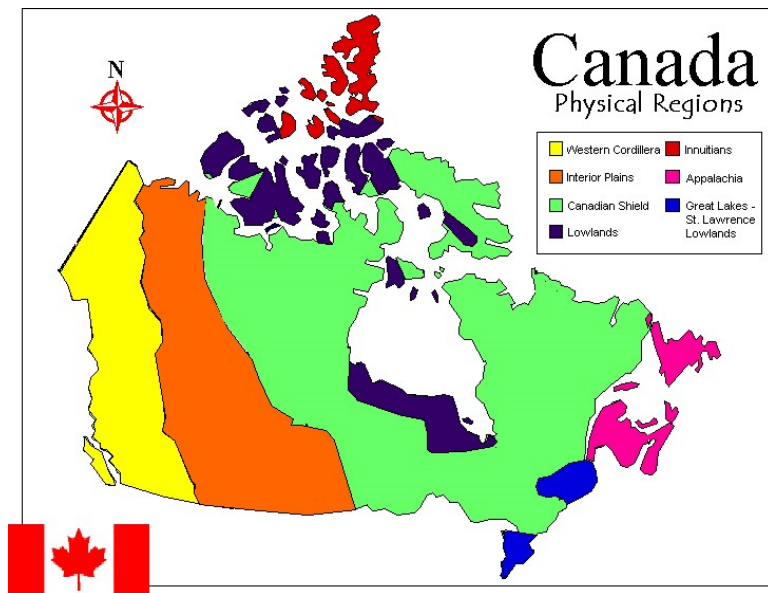


FIGURE 4.5



FIGURE 4.6

POINTS OF INTEREST

The majority of Canada is still wilderness. This makes Canada a popular spot for hunting and fishing. Niagara Falls is one of Canada's best known tourist attractions. It is the largest falls in the world, measured in volume of water.

Most of Canada's northern islands are located inside the Arctic Circle.

Major Industries

The industry varies as you look across Canada. British Columbia, on the west coast, has historically relied on natural resources such as mining and timber. Manufacturing is now becoming much more important to the economy. Alberta has benefited from considerable natural resources including oil and natural gas. It is also rich in minerals such as zinc, silver, nickel and uranium.

The prairie provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and parts of Alberta produce more than 20% of the world's wheat.



FIGURE 4.7



FIGURE 4.8

Other forms of farming and cattle also contribute to the economy.

Ontario and Quebec are the industrial center of Canada. They have a wide variety of manufactured goods. The lower part of Ontario also has very rich farm land, with many orchards. This Niagara area is also known for its wine production.

The maritime provinces of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland rely heavily on fishing and natural resources such as timber. Prince Edward Island is also well now for its potatoes.

With Canada being so large, the climate varies considerably throughout the country. Canada is generally known for its cold winters and hot, but short, summers.

Even with its small population though, Canada plays a large role in the world’s economy and is one of the largest trading partners of the United States.

History of Canada



FIGURE 4.9



FIGURE 4.10

The first people to live in Canada were the **Inuit** and **First Nation Peoples**. The first Europeans to reach the country were likely the Vikings and it is believed that Norse explorer Leif Eriksson led them to the coast of Labrador or Nova Scotia in 1000 C.E.

European settlement did not begin in Canada until the 1500s. In 1534, French explorer **Jacques Cartier** discovered the St. Lawrence River while searching for fur and shortly thereafter, he claimed Canada for France. The French began to settle there in 1541 but an official settlement was not established until 1604. That settlement, called Port Royal, was located in what is now Nova Scotia. French explorer **Samuel de Champlain** and 8 of 32 men survived their first winter in the area of Quebec, New France, in June 1609. The natives known as the **Algonquins** called this area Quebec which means the Narrows. Champlain and his men built their settlement there and worked to encourage fur trading and friendship with the natives. Champlain traveled the region mapping and recording information about the rivers and seacoast.



FIGURE 4.11

In addition to the French, the English also began exploring Canada for its fur and fish trade and in 1670 established the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1713 a conflict developed between the English and French and the English won control of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia and Hudson Bay.

The Seven Year's War, (also known as the French and Indian War) in which England sought to gain more control of the country then began in 1756. That war ended in 1763 and England was given full control of Canada with the Treaty of Paris.

In the years after the Treaty of Paris, English colonists flocked to Canada from England and the United States. In 1849, Canada was given the right to self-government and the country of Canada was officially established in 1867. It was comprised of Upper Canada (the area that became Ontario), Lower Canada (the area that became Quebec), Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

In 1869, Canada continued to grow when it bought land from the Hudson's Bay Company. This land was later divided into different provinces, one of which was Manitoba. It joined Canada in 1870 followed by British Columbia in 1871 and Prince Edward Island in 1873. The country then grew again in 1901 when Alberta and Saskatchewan joined Canada. It remained this size until 1949 when Newfoundland became the tenth province.

Later Immigrants

After WWI many of the immigrants came from Italy, Poland and Ukraine. Most of the Italian immigrants settled around the Montreal and Toronto. Many Ukrainians settled in the plains of central Canada. After WWII many Germans and Dutch settled mainly in Ontario and British Columbia. During the 1960s immigration laws allowed for people to migrate from Latin America, Africa, Asia and the Southern Pacific

Languages in Canada

Because of the long history of conflict between the English and French in Canada, a division between the two still exists in the country's languages today. In Quebec the official language at the provincial level is French and there have been several **Francophone** initiatives to ensure that the language remains prominent there. In addition, there have been numerous initiatives for secession. The most recent was in 1995 but it failed by a margin of 50.6 to 49.4.

There are also some French-speaking communities in other portions of Canada, mostly on the east coast, but the

majority of the rest of the country speaks English. At the federal level however, **the country is officially bilingual.**

Canada's Government

Canada is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary democracy and federation. It has **three branches** of government. The first is the **executive** which consists of the head of state, who is represented by a governor general, and **the prime minister who is considered the head of government.** The **second branch** is the **legislative** which is a bicameral parliament consisting of the Senate and House of Commons. The **third** branch is made up of **the Supreme Court.** The government of Canada and the United States are very similar because of the common history they share by the English settling in the region.

Industry and Land Use in Canada

Canada's industry and land uses vary based on region. The **eastern** portion of the country is the most **industrialized** but Vancouver, British Columbia, a major seaport, and Calgary, Alberta are some western cities that are highly industrialized as well. **Alberta also produces 75% of Canada's oil** and is important for coal and natural gas.

Canada's resources include nickel (mainly from Ontario), zinc, potash, uranium, sulphur, asbestos, aluminum and copper. Hydroelectric power and pulp and paper industries are also important. In addition, agriculture and ranching play a significant role in the Prairie Provinces (Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba) and several parts of the rest of the country.

Canada's Geography and Climate

Much of Canada's topography consists of gently rolling hills with rock outcrops because the Canadian Shield, an ancient region with some of the world's oldest known rocks, covers almost half of the country. The southern portions of the Shield are covered with boreal forests while the northern parts are tundra because it is too far north for trees.

To the west of the Canadian Shield are the central plains or prairies. The southern plains are mostly grass and the north is forested. This area is also dotted with hundreds of lakes because of depressions in the land caused by the last glaciation. Farther west is the rugged Canadian Cordillera stretching from the Yukon Territory into British Columbia and Alberta.

Canada's climate varies with location but the country is classified as being temperate in the south to arctic in the north, winters however, are normally long and harsh in most of the country.

Other Facts about Canada

- Nearly 90% of Canadians live within 99 miles of the U.S. border (because of harsh weather and the expense of building on permafrost in the north)
- The Trans-Canada Highway is the longest national highway in the world at 4,725 miles (7,604 km)

Who are The Cajuns?: Americans with Canadian and French Roots

The Cajuns were some of the first French who settled in Acadia, present day Nova Scotia, Canada in 1604. When the British took control of Nova Scotia in 1755 they forced the French Acadian people out of the region. Most of these French Acadians moved to southern Louisiana in the New Orleans area. France had control of this region at that time.

Resource Map of Canada

Resource Map of Canada 2

Population Density Map of The United States and Canada

The



FIGURE 4.12

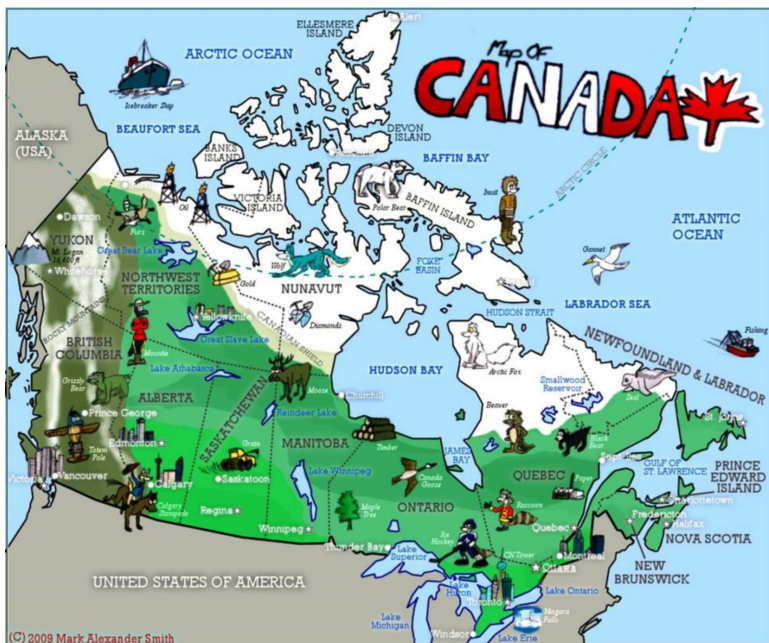


FIGURE 4.13

Population by official language knowledge in Canada, 2006

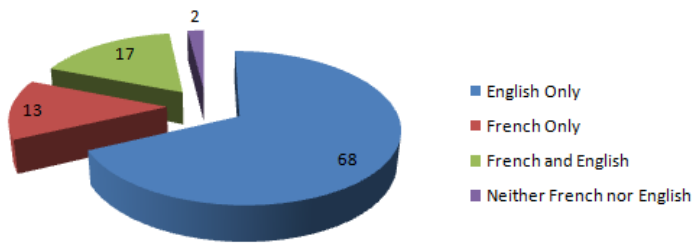


FIGURE 4.14

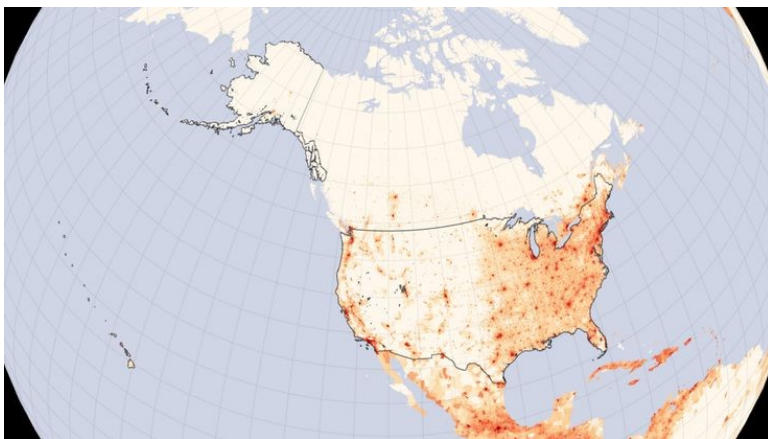


FIGURE 4.15

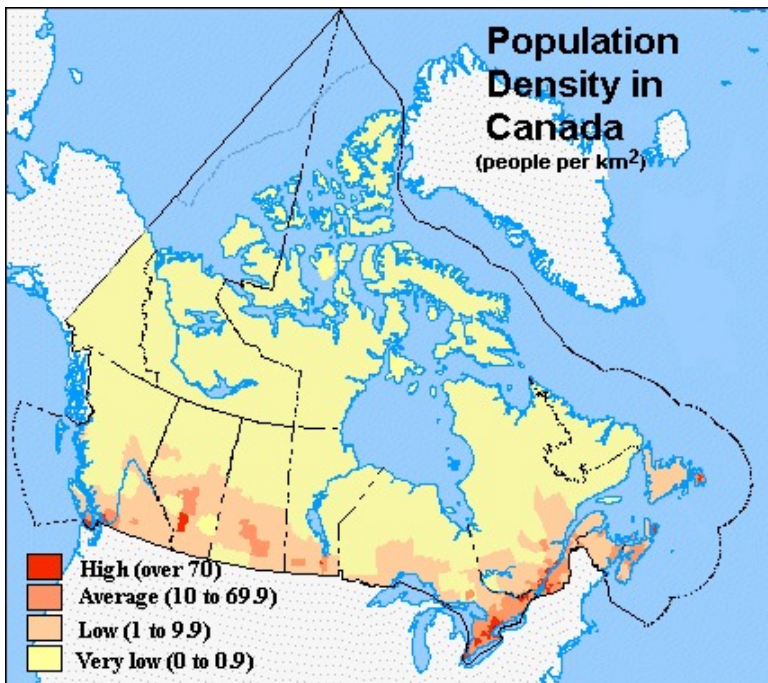


FIGURE 4.16

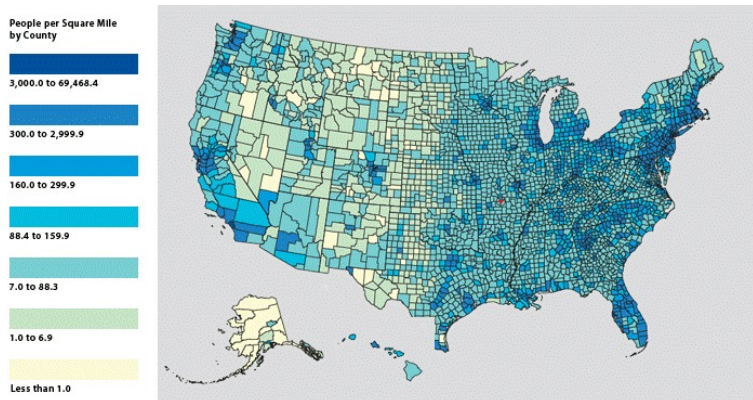


FIGURE 4.17

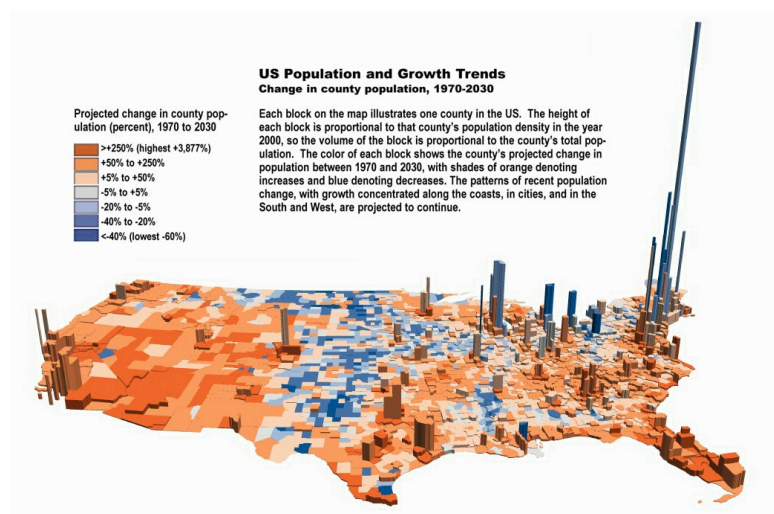


FIGURE 4.18

4.2 Chapter 4 Review Questions, Notes, and Vocabulary

The geography of the United States/Canada is characterized by urban centers, a variety of political regions, and several shared physical geographic features.

1. What are some of the largest urban areas in the United States/Canada?
2. What is common about the location of urban areas in United States/Canada?
3. What types of political regions are included in the United States/Canada?
4. What common physical geographic features are located in the United States/Canada?

Culture in the United States/Canada is influenced by colonization and immigration.

1. What cultural traditions were brought to this region by immigrants?
2. What cultural traditions are characteristic of indigenous groups in this region?
3. Why is the United States/Canada considered a multicultural region?
4. What is characteristic of cultural cooperation and conflict in the United States/Canada?

In the United States/Canada government is limited because freedom is a cultural value.

1. Why is government limited in this region?
2. What is similar and different about governmental systems in the United States and Canada?
3. What ideas about government were brought to this region by colonists?

In the United States/Canada people are free to make economic choices.

1. What is characteristic of the economic systems in this region?
2. What is similar and different about economies in this region?
3. How does economic freedom impact standards of living in this region?
4. What categories of economic activities are found in this region?
5. How have advances in science and technology impacted economic patterns in this region?

Citizens in the United States/Canada have political rights and responsibilities.

1. What political rights and responsibilities do people living in this region have?

VOCABULARY

diversity – exhibiting a variety of types

multiculturalism – the preservation of different cultures or cultural identities within a unified society

migration – movement from one region to another

indigenous – groups that are native to a particular region

free enterprise – economic system characterized by freedom for consumers and producers

wholesale industries – the business of selling products to retailers

retail industries – businesses that sell directly to consumers

manufacturing – businesses that produce consumer products

service industries – businesses that provide labor intensive work rather than producing a product

Quebecois-

Colonization-

Bicameral-

Francophone-

Institutions-

limited government-

immigration-

Trace CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIETIES THAT RESULTED FROM HISTORICAL EVENTS, Including, but not limited to: United States and Canada TEKS- Notes

Limited governments, yet United States has a bicameral legislative system and Canada a parliamentary system political ideas were introduced by the English colonists.

Free enterprise economics and market economies trade systems within the region and in the global markets history of mercantilism.

Religious freedom and a variety of religions are practiced in the region, because of the influence of European colonists.

Widespread use of English French and English are official languages in Canada reflective of the colonization of the region.

Multiculturalism because of the history of waves of immigration to the region increasingly, Spanish is spoken in the United States because of immigration from Latin America.

Both the United States and Canada have significant numbers of American Indian tribes that maintain traditional cultures.

Pose, Answer GEOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS Including, but not limited to: Canada

1. Where is it located? Position on a map (absolute location vs. relative location), latitude and longitude.
2. Why is it there? trade routes, altitude, availability of natural resources, transportation corridor.
3. What is significant about its location? historically, economically, socially, politically.
4. How is its location related to other people, places, and environment? conflicts, cultural diffusion, climate, availability of resources.
5. Where do people live and not live? Why?
6. How does geography affect migration patterns?
7. What patterns are evident in the demographic make-up, language distribution, and distribution of religious groups in the world?

Explain HUMAN MIGRATION INFLUENCES THE CHARACTER OF PLACES AND REGIONS, Including, but not limited to:

Character of a place refers to the political, economic, social and cultural characteristics that distinguish a particular place.

Migration generally results in a modification of cultures and the cultural landscape along with possible cultural tensions.

United States and Canada

European migration to the region in the sixteen century resulted in limited government, widespread use of English and French, and the spread of Christian religious practices to the region.

Forced migration of enslaved Africans to the region is reflected in the cultural practices and demographics of the region.

Westward migration across the United States and Canada influenced the image of rugged people who survive in adverse circumstances.

Rural to urban migration in the region has resulted in a highly urbanized culture in the United States and Canada.

Migration from Mexico to the United States has impacted cultural practices as well as spread the use of Spanish.

Human migrations to the United States and Canada have resulted in multicultural societies.

Identify, Locate PHYSICAL AND HUMAN GEOGRAPHIC FEATURES OF VARIOUS PLACES AND REGIONS, Including, but not limited to: United States and Canada

Landforms – Rocky Mountains, Appalachia Mountains, Great Plains

Bodies of water – Pacific Ocean, Atlantic Ocean, Great Lakes, Mississippi River, Hudson Bay, Gulf of Mexico, Rio Grande River.

Urban centers – USA=Washington D.C., New York City, Chicago, Houston, Los Angeles, **Canada=** Ottawa, Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver.

CHAPTER

5

Latin America: Mexico

Chapter Outline

- 5.1 LATIN AMERICA: UNIT OVERVIEW**
 - 5.2 MEXICO: HISTORY, GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS**
 - 5.3 MEXICO: GEOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE**
-

5.1 Latin America: Unit Overview

UNIT OVERVIEW: Think about and answer these questions. (TEKS)

In this unit students **study Latin America as a culture region**. Latin American culture has been **shaped by** the process of **cultural diffusion** facilitated by **colonialism, the Columbian Exchange, and the forced migration of Africans**. This region is characterized by a **cultural blending of traditions from indigenous populations, Africans, and Europeans**. The region is also **dominated** by the use of **Spanish and Portuguese** and the traditions of **Roman Catholicism**. Prior/before to this unit, students examined how the values of freedom influenced cultural patterns in the United States and Canada.

In this unit **students examine Latin America's** physical geographic patterns, the human geographic characteristics of the region prior to colonization, and the process of cultural diffusion in the region with an emphasis on how the legacy of colonialism influenced the creation of a unique cultural pattern in the region. In the next unit students learn about the processes that have unified Europe as a cultural region.

Latin America can be divided into several physical geographic regions and is characterized by a variety of landscapes and climates.

1. What four geographic regions are included in Latin America?
1. What types of landscapes are found in Latin America?
1. What types of climates and ecosystems are located in Latin America?
1. How does the climate of areas near the equator differ from areas farther away from the equator?

Before the arrival of European colonists to Latin America, many indigenous cultures thrived in the region, including the Maya, Inca, and Aztecs.

1. What was characteristic about the institutions of Latin American indigenous populations?
1. How is culture in Latin America influenced by indigenous cultures?
1. How did colonization impact the lives of indigenous groups in this region?

The process of cultural diffusion created a mixed culture in Latin America based on traditions from Africa, Europe, and the indigenous peoples of the region.

1. What is characteristic about culture in Latin America?

1. How did colonization and the Atlantic slavery trade impact culture in Latin America?

1. What new products were brought to this region because of the Columbian Exchange?

1. What cultural holidays are celebrated in Latin America?

The art, music, and literature of Latin America reflect the process of cultural diffusion.

1. What are some examples of how cultural diffusion created new artistic patterns in Latin America?

1. What is characteristic about art and architecture in Latin America?

1. What is characteristic about music in Latin America?

Latin America is rich in natural resources which impacts human interactions with the environment.

1. What natural resources are found in Latin America?

1. In what ways have humans modified the environment in Latin America?

1. Why have humans modified the environment in Latin America?

Latin America Unit Vocabulary

demography – the study of human population in terms of numbers, especially birth rates, death rates, ethnic composition, age and gender distributions.

cultural diffusion – the process of spreading cultural traits from one region to another.

Columbian Exchange –an interchange of plants, animals, disease, people, and culture between the Western and Eastern hemispheres following the voyages of Columbus.

deforestation – clearing forests to use the area for other purposes

renewable resource – refers to a natural resource that can be replenished naturally

non-renewable resource – refers to natural resources that cannot be remade or replenished

indigenous-
mural-
natural resources-
colonization-
mulattos-
ladinos-

Trace: CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIETIES THAT RESULTED FROM HISTORICAL EVENTS, Including, but not limited to: Latin America TEKS Notes

Political systems vary from **limited** in Mexico, Haiti, Costa Rica, Panama, Brazil

to **unlimited** in **Cuba** where only one political party is allowed to participate in elections nations have had to work overcoming colonial status and establish political systems many experienced political revolutions and sometimes dictatorships.

Predominately **Spanish speaking** because of colonization by the **Spain** some Caribbean islands colonized by France hence **French** is spoken, such as **Haiti**.

Belize was a British colony where **English** primarily is spoken.

In **Brazil** official language is **Portuguese** again a result of colonization.

Blended culture and society because of the mixing of enslaved Africans, American Indian tribes and European colonizers to the region.

The region received more **enslaved Africans** that did other regions including the United States via the **trans-Atlantic slavery trade**.

Roman Catholicism predominate religion in the region influence from **Spanish** colonization.

Caribbean islands exhibit a variety of religious practices that blend traditions brought by **enslaved Africans and mixed with Catholic traditions**.

Economic systems tend to rely on the extraction of natural resources, such as mining in Peru, as the region was the supplier for colonial powers.

Brazil has made significant economic development.

Argentina developed ranching activities on a wide-scale after the introduction of cattle and horses to the region in the **Columbian Exchange**.

Mexico is characterized by nationalization of some large industries, such oil large agricultural sector and a manufacturing sector that produces for many foreign companies results from historic struggle to move from predominately agricultural society to industrial.

Identify, Describe. INFLUENCE OF INDIVIDUAL OR GROUP ACHIEVEMENTS ON VARIOUS SOCIETIES Including, but not limited to:

Cultural traditions in South America and the Caribbean were drastically influence by the enslaved Africans brought to the region. These traditions mixed with European and indigenous influences and are reflected in dance and music, such as the rumba, steel drums, calypso music in the Caribbean and the samba in Brazil.

British introduced soccer to Latin America.

Maya, Aztec and Inca cultures influence contemporary societies in South America, reflected in architecture, terrace

farming and cultural practices, such as Dia de Los Muertos.

American Revolution and establishment of a constitutional republic showed others, including the French, that Enlightenment political ideas could be applied to create a successful political system.

Leaders such as Nelson Mandela and Desmond Tutu promote equality of opportunity for all people.

Evaluate: SOCIAL, POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, AND CULTURAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS, Including, but not limited to: Latin America

Many agricultural products originated in the region and spread via the Columbian Exchange, including potatoes.

Europeans build Catholic Cathedrals in Latin America.

Spread cattle ranching practices of the Argentinian vaqueros.

Incas contributed the practice of terrace farming.

Artistic mural art from Mexico, especially the work of Diego Rivera.

Why is it there? trade routes, altitude, availability of natural resources, **transportation corridor**

What is significant about its location? historically, economically, socially, politically

How is its location related to other people, places, and environment? conflicts, cultural diffusion, climate, availability of resources.

Where do people live and not live? Why?

How does geography affect migration patterns?

What patterns are evident in the demographic make-up, language distribution, and distribution of religious groups in the world?

Identify, Locate: PHYSICAL AND HUMAN GEOGRAPHIC FEATURES OF VARIOUS PLACES AND REGIONS, Including, but not limited to: Latin America

Landforms – Yucatán Peninsula, Baja Peninsula, Isthmus of Panama, Antilles, Maya Mountains, Amazon Basin, Andes Mountains, Atacama Desert, Pampas, Patagonia.

Water bodies – Gulf of Mexico, Rio Grande River, Caribbean Sea, Amazon River, Atlantic Ocean, Pacific Ocean, Lake Titicaca.

Urban centers – Mexico City, Monterrey, Panama City, Havana, Guatemala City, San Jose, San Salvador, Port-au-Prince, Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Bogotá, Santiago, Caracas, Buenos Aires, Quito

LOCATION OF MAJOR WORLD COUNTRIES Including, but not limited to : Latin America= Mexico, Brazil, Peru, Argentina, Chile.

Identify, **Analyze WAYS PEOPLE HAVE MODIFIED THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT**, Including, but not limited to:

* **Mining** – allows for the extraction of natural resources may result in erosion of the soil, pollution of soil, ground water, and surface water

* **Irrigation** – allows for the expansion of farming and ranching into areas that lack water resources

* **Transportation infrastructure** – allows for the increasing movement of people and products via canals, highways, airports

* **Deforestation** – removing forests for the expansion of commercial ventures including agriculture, most notable in Amazon River region of Brazil

Diverting water sources – Aral Sea has shrunk considerably in size because of a policy to divert

water from two rivers which supplied the sea

Desertification – results from overgrazing, such as with Lake Chad

Dams – allows for flood control and the production of hydroelectricity, examples include Three Gorges Dam (China), Aswan (Egypt), Ataturk (Turkey)

Ozone hole created by chemicals – Australia and New Zealand most effected as the populations in this region are experiencing higher rates of skin cancer as a result of exposure to ultra-violet rays public health campaign has been instituted to alert people in the region to the danger of sun exposure and promote the use of sunscreen

Overfishing in Pacific Islands

Identify **PROBLEMS AND ISSUES THAT ARISE WHEN FACTORS OF PRODUCTION ARE IN SHORT SUPPLY**

Including, but not limited to: The Economy of a Nation

Natural resources in short supply – if the demand is high such as with petroleum, countries have to rely on other nations that may have an overabundance of that resource. This often leads to inflated prices on natural resources with high demand. Some countries develop economies based predominately on one crop (monoculture).

Labor in short supply – results in migration, outsourcing, enslavement of people

Capital in short supply – countries remain underdeveloped, foreign investment may result in multi-national influence on a nation's economic system

Entrepreneurs in short supply – countries that are unable to provide for public education and are underdeveloped will likely not have entrepreneurs willing to invest in the region lack of job creation or innovation in industries

Identify, Give examples **GOVERNMENTS WITH RULE BY ONE, FEW, OR MANY** Including, but not limited to:

Rule by one – monarchy or dictatorship. A single ruler controls government and claims the responsibility due to divine or hereditary right. **Dictators or despots** also maintain complete control of government in their countries. **(unlimited government)**

Examples: Cuba, North Korea, Peru under Fujimori, Syria, Zimbabwe, Qatar, Saudi Arabia

Rule by a few – small group has power **oligarchy**

Government with rule by a few also occurs when a group of persons seize power after an overthrow of the previous government. The new rulers constitute a **junta**. (usually an unlimited government)

Examples: Iran, Nepal, Vietnam, China, **Argentina and Brazil's military dictatorships.**

Rule by many – people have power. A government ruled by many is a **republic or a democracy**.
(limited government)

Examples: United States, Germany, Israel, Today: **Argentina, Brazil, Peru,** Japan, South Korea, The Philippines, Thailand.

Analyze **SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES AMONG WORLD SOCIETIES**, Including, but not limited to:
Similarities between the **United States** and **South American** societies

Former colonies: Shared religious holidays, especially Christian holidays

Significant influences from American Indian tribes

Leisure time spent on sports, especially soccer

Differences between the United States and South American societies:

Language differences, Latin America-Spanish and Portuguese United States mostly English with some Spanish

Religious differences, Latin America mostly Roman Catholic

United States various Christian denominations and mostly Protestant

Colonial differences, Latin America colonized mostly by Spanish and Portuguese

United States colonized more by British and French

Societal differences, Latin America experienced more mixing of ethnic groups, such as Africans, American Indian tribes and Europeans

United States experienced more cultural separation of various groups

Identify, Describe HOW CULTURE TRAITS SPREAD BY TRADE, TRAVEL, AND WAR, Including, but not limited to:

The concept of this student expectation is somewhat muddled and may be better understood if read like "**Identify and describe how trade, travel, and war spread culture traits**"

Trade - describes how merchants established entrepôts and enclaves at different ports and trading centers, and the contact between merchants and people at these trade centers resulting in learning about one another's culture, such as along the Silk Routes, and Indian Ocean Trade Complex

Travel – as people migrate to other regions culture is diffused to other regions visitors to a region gain a better understanding of the culture of a region.

War – when a victorious society conquered territory a new political and cultural patterns are imposed on the region soldiers deployed to an region learn about the culture of that region.

Identify, Describe **FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE CULTURAL CHANGE**, Including, but not limited to:

Improved communication – facilitates the spread of ideas, especially with the advent of the Internet, which allows for communication across national borders more easily.

Improved transportation – facilitates travel and migration coupled with cultural diffusion allows for the movement of goods to more places.

Economic development – facilitates the ability to access communication and transportation to a wider degree, hence promoting cultural diffusion cultural landscapes begin to look similar with economic development reaching more places.

Identify, Define **IMPACT OF CULTURAL DIFFUSION ON INDIVIDUALS AND WORLD SOCIETIES**, Including, but not limited to: **Latin America**

Cultural diffusion in the region resulted in the creation of new societies that mixed indigenous culture with African culture and European culture.

New language patterns emerged with the introduction of European languages.

New religious practices emerged blending features from indigenous culture with African practices and Catholic is in the Caribbean. Catholicism spread to most of Latin America.

Identify **EXAMPLES OF POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF CULTURAL DIFFUSION**, Including, but not limited to:

Positive effects of cultural diffusion:

Spread of technologies that promote economic development
 Spread of medical practices that relieve human suffering
 Spread of ideas related to democratic practices and human rights
 Emergence of new cultural patterns
Increased cultural understanding
 Increasing **economic interdependence** promoting **cooperation**

Negative effects of cultural diffusion:

Loss of local cultural traditions
 Domination of one culture over others
 Perpetuation of the superiority of some cultures

Lack of distinction between cultural and commercial landscapes

Explain: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SOCIETIES AND THEIR ARCHITECTURE, ART, MUSIC, AND LITERATURE

Including, but not limited to:

Societies produce architecture, art, music and literature that reflect the cultural values of that society.

For example the Gothic cathedrals that reflect the influence of Christianity in European culture

landscape paintings produced by artists in East Asia reflect the idea of living in harmony with nature, which is consistent with philosophical beliefs that originated in this region.

African folktales which encompass a range of myths, proverbs, and poetry reflect the oral traditions of African cultures.

An artistic heritage of using natural materials is reflected in the sculpture and carvings of African cultures.

Artists are impacted by the culture and time period in which they live.

For example the humanist influence that is reflected in many works of the European Renaissance.

Artists also influence cultures with the art, music and literature they produce.

For example the murals of **Diego Rivera** and the works of **Frida Kahlo** which showcased Mexican workers and indigenous people.

Societies use architecture, art, music and literature as a means of communicating values.

For example the architectural monuments in Europe like the Eiffel Tower, Arc de Triomphe and the Brandenburg Gate

the temples that are a part of the India's cultural landscape communicate the importance of Hinduism in Indian society.

Government buildings in South Asia also mirror temple architecture.

Relate WAYS CONTEMPORARY CULTURE HAS BEEN INFLUENCED BY THE PAST, Including, but not limited to:

Architecture, art, literature, clothing, ceremonies and rituals, etc.

Diego Rivera – drawing on pre-Colombian history to depict Mexican identity uses folklore and heritage in his murals

Rodeos – drawing on the experiences of cattle drives and vaquero lifestyles of the past Folklore as a reflection of long time community value systems.

Hinduism and traditional folklore appears regularly in Indian comics, art, television, and movies.

Describe WAYS SOCIETAL ISSUES INFLUENCE CREATIVE EXPRESSIONS, Including, but not limited to:

Contemporary issues related to human rights, war, and social change often influence creative expressions.

For example the American Founding Fathers were influenced by enlightenment ideas about human rights of life, liberty and property.

LATIN AMERICA: The works of **Diego Rivera** were influenced by what he saw as a lack of rights for workers.

During World War I an extensive body of poetry was produced by soldiers experiencing trench warfare.

Writers such as **Nigerian author Chinua Achebe**, who wrote about colonialism in Nigeria, respond to the cultural and social changes they witness.

5.2 Mexico: History, Government and Economics



FIGURE 5.1



FIGURE 5.2

Population: 112,468,855 (July 2010 estimate)

Capital: Mexico City

Bordering Countries: Belize, Guatemala and the United States

Land Area: 758,450 square miles (1,964,375 sq km)

Coastline: 5,797 miles (9,330 km)

Highest Point: Volcan Pico de Orizaba at 18,700 feet (5,700 m)

Lowest Point: Laguna Salada at -32 feet (-10 m)

Mexico, officially called the United Mexican States, is a country located in North America south of the United States



FIGURE 5.3



FIGURE 5.4

and north of Belize and Guatemala.

It has coastline along the Pacific Ocean, Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico and it is considered the 13th largest country in the world based on area. Mexico is also the 11th most populous country in the world and it is a regional power for Latin America with an economy that is strongly tied to that of the United States.

History of Mexico

The Maya

The Maya settled in the areas of southern and eastern Mexico, Western Honduras, Guatemala, El Salvador, and Belize. The first Mayans existed as early as 1600 B.C. The Maya established one of the most important civilizations in Latin America.

The Maya made achievements in math and astronomy. The Maya were one of the first to understand and use the mathematical concept of “zero”. They created a detailed calendar with 260 day calendar of sacred days, one with 365 days based on the movement of the sun, and a calendar that measured the number of days that had passed since a fixed starting point.

Maya Writing

The Maya created the best developed written language of ancient Latin America. They used hieroglyphs which are symbols that represent the basic units of writing. Each glyph represented a word or syllable. In the 1800s John Lloyd Stephens a U.S. lawyer traveled through the jungle where the Maya had settled and stood in awe of the Maya hieroglyphs and wondered what they said. No one had yet been able to decipher them.

Maya Agriculture

The Maya used a farming method called slash-and-burn. They would cut down and burn the trees then plant the new crops. After some years of growth the soil would regain its nutrients, then be cut and burned again. The Maya also built up ridges for farming land in floodplains. The floodplains were rich with nutrients but needed to be built up to keep the crops from getting too wet.

For unknown reasons the Maya stopped building massive temples and stone monuments around the 900s. The Maya did not disappear they just spread out. Today there are more than 6 million Maya people still living in Guatemala, Belize, and southern Mexico.

The Aztecs

The Aztecs, who probably originated as a nomadic tribe in northern Mexico, arrived in Mesoamerica around the beginning of the 13th century. From their magnificent capital city, Tenochtitlan, the Aztecs emerged as the dominant force in central Mexico, developing an intricate social, political, religious and commercial organization that brought many of the region’s city-states under their control by the 15th century. Invaders led by the Spanish conquistador Hernan Cortes overthrew the Aztecs by force and captured Tenochtitlan in 1521, bringing an end to Mesoamerica’s last great native civilization.

When the Aztecs saw an eagle perched on a cactus on the marshy land near the southwest border of Lake Texcoco, they took it as a sign to build their settlement there. They drained the swampy land, constructed artificial islands on which they could plant gardens and established the foundations of their capital city, Tenochtitlán, in 1325 A.D. Typical Aztec crops included maize (corn), along with beans, squashes, potatoes, tomatoes and avocados; they also supported themselves through fishing and hunting local animals such as rabbits, armadillos, snakes, coyotes and wild turkey. Their relatively sophisticated system of agriculture (including intensive cultivation of land and irrigation methods) and a powerful military tradition would enable the Aztecs to build a successful state, and later an empire.

Montezuma (Moctezuma) I, who took power in 1440, was a great warrior who was remembered as the father of the Aztec empire. By the early 16th century, the Aztecs had come to rule over up to 500 small states, and some 5 to 6 million people, either by conquest or commerce. Tenochtitlán at its height had more than 140,000 inhabitants, and was the most densely populated city ever to exist in Mesoamerica.

Achievements of the Aztecs

Floating Gardens

When the Aztec people finally found a place to settle down, they did so on rather marshy land around a lake. Some of the land was not very good for gardening. As the population grew, the Aztecs needed to find a way to grow more food. They could have built further away from the cities, but then they would need to guard the fields from robbers.

Instead, the clever Aztec engineers created “floating” gardens called **Chinampas**. The floating gardens were actually rafts. The rafts were anchored to the bottom of the lake, or to a strong tree in the marsh. They piled vegetation and reeds on top of the raft to help provide good soil and drainage. On top of this, they piled dirt. They planted seeds in the dirt. The gardens were used to grow chili peppers, corn, tomatoes, beans, and squash.

It was somewhat difficult to harvest the food since the gardens were floating in marsh water. To solve this, Aztec engineers built mud and stone walls around each floating garden. The walls acted as walkways between the gardens. The floating gardens solved some of their problem, but as their population grew, they needed more land. Their engineers solved this by designing dikes to hold back water. They filled in the marshlands and swamps just as they had the rafts, the floating gardens.

Aztec Warfare

The Aztecs were fierce warriors. All able men fought for the army. Two reasons maintain the empire and religion. To please their gods, it was an honor to die in battle. Huitzilopochtli was one of their Aztec gods of war.

These earliest civilizations of Mexico, those of the Olmec, Maya, Toltec and Aztec, developed highly complex cultures prior to any European influence and still influence people in that region. From 1519-1521, **Hernan Cortes** took over Mexico and founded a colony belonging to **Spain** that lasted for almost 300 years.

Once Spain took control of Mexico they enslaved the natives such as farming and mining for silver. They also worked very hard to convert the Native Americans into Christianity. Latin American and Spain and other European nations exchanged culture. Ships carried Latin American goods Spain such as corn, peppers, and tomatoes which Europeans had never seen before. Spain would send manufactured products such as textiles that people of Latin America had never seen before either. Foods and animals like such as peaches and pigs. This trade was known as the **Columbian Exchange** which is the exchange of goods and ideas between European countries and their colonies in North and South America.

On September 16, 1810, Mexico proclaimed its independence from Spain after Miguel Hidalgo formed the country's declaration of independence, "Viva Mexico!" **Independence did not come however until 1821** after years of war. In that year, Spain and Mexico signed a treaty ending the war for independence. The treaty also laid out plans for a constitutional monarchy. The monarchy failed however and **in 1824 the independent republic of Mexico was established.**

During the later part of the 19th century, Mexico underwent several presidential elections and fell into a period of social and economic problems. These **problems led to a revolution that lasted from 1910 to 1920.** In 1917, Mexico established a new constitution and in 1929, the Institutional Revolutionary Party rose and controlled politics in the country until 2000. Since 1920 though, Mexico underwent a variety of reforms in the agriculture, political and social sectors that allowed it to grow into what it is today.

Following World War II, Mexico's government focused mainly on economic growth and in the 1970s, the country became a large producer of petroleum. In the 1980s though, falling oil prices caused Mexico's economy to decline and as a result it entered into several agreements with the U.S. In 1994, Mexico joined the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) with the U.S. and Canada and in 1996 it joined the World Trade Organization (WTO).

Government of Mexico

Today Mexico is considered a federal republic with a chief of state and a head of government making up its executive branch of government. It should be noted however that both of these positions are filled by the President. Mexico's legislative branch is comprised of a bicameral National Congress which consists of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The judicial branch is made up of the Supreme Court of Justice. Mexico is divided into 31 states and one federal district (Mexico City) for local administration.

Economics and Land Use in Mexico

Mexico currently has a free market economy that has mixed modern industry and agriculture. Its economy is still growing and there is a large inequality in distribution of income. Mexico's largest trading partners are the U.S. and Canada due to NAFTA. The largest industrial products that are exported from Mexico include food and beverages, tobacco, chemicals, iron and steel, petroleum, mining, textiles, clothing, motor vehicles, consumer durables and tourism. The main agricultural products of Mexico are corn, wheat, soybeans, rice, beans, cotton, coffee, fruit, tomatoes, beef, poultry, dairy and wood products.

5.3 Mexico: Geography and Climate

Mexico has a highly varied topography that consists of rugged mountains with high elevations, deserts, high plateaus and low coastal plains. For example, its highest point is at 18,700 feet (5,700 m) while its lowest is -32 feet (-10 m).

Mexico's climate is also variable but it is mainly tropical or desert. Its capital, Mexico City, has its highest average temperature in April at 80°F (26°C) and its lowest in January at 42.4°F (5.8°C).



FIGURE 5.5

Other Facts about Mexico

- The main ethnic groups in Mexico are Indian-Spanish (Mestizo) 60%, Indian 30%, Caucasian 9%, other 1%
- The only official language in Mexico is Spanish
- Mexico's literacy rate is 91.4%
- The largest city in Mexico is Mexico City, followed by Ecatepec, Guadalajara, Puebla, Nezahualcóyotl and Monterrey. Note however that Ecatepec and Nezahualcóyotl are also suburbs of Mexico City.

Capital: Mexico City (Distrito Federal)

Population: 114,975,406

Borders: [United States](#) (the states of California, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas), [Belize](#) , [Guatemala](#) , Gulf of Mexico, Pacific Ocean

Total Size: 1,972,550 square km

Size Comparison: slightly less than three times the size of Texas

Geographical Coordinates: 23 00 N, 102 00 W

World Region or Continent: [North America](#) **General Terrain:** high, rugged mountains; low coastal plains; high plateaus; desert

Geographical Low Point: Laguna Salada -10 m

Geographical High Point: Volcan Pico de Orizaba 5,700 m

Climate: varies from tropical to desert

Major Cities: MEXICO CITY (capital) 19.319 million; Guadalajara 4.338 million; Monterrey 3.838 million; Puebla 2.278 million; Tijuana 1.629 million (2009)

Major Landforms: Sierra Madre Occidental Mountains, Trans-Mexico Volcano Belt, Sierra Madre Oriental, Sierra Madre del Sur, Mexican Plateau, Baja Peninsula, Yucatan Peninsula, Pico de Orizaba

Major Bodies of Water: Rio Grande, Grijalva River, Usumacinta River, Culiacan River, Lake Chapala, Lake Texcoco, Gulf of California, Gulf of Mexico, Caribbean Sea, Pacific Ocean

Famous Places: Chichen Itza, Cancun, Cozumel, Puerto Vallarta, Teotihuacan Pyramids, Chapultepec, National Palace, Our Lady of Guadalupe, Acapulco, Riviera Maya, El Arco de Los Cabos, Palenque, Cabo San Lucas



FIGURE 5.6

Me

:

CHAPTER

6

Latin America: Central and Caribbean

Chapter Outline

6.1 LATIN AMERICA: GEOGRAPHY OF CENTRAL AMERICA

6.1 Latin America: Geography of Central America



FIGURE 6.1

Central America is generally considered part of [North America](#), but is often referred to as its own region. Central America is a narrow isthmus that is bordered by North America and the Gulf of Mexico to the north and by South America to the south. To the east of Central America is the Atlantic Ocean and the Pacific Ocean is to the west. There are seven countries that are considered part of Central America: Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama. Central America was the home of many Native Americans prior to Europe colonizing the region. The majority of the area was colonized by Spain. Spanish is still the most common language. The Caribbean Islands are another region that are considered part of the continent of North America. They are located in the Caribbean Sea to the east of Central America. The largest four Caribbean Islands are Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Puerto Rico.

Population: Central America: 43,308,660 (Source: 2013 CIA World Fact book) Caribbean: 39,169,962 (Source: 2009 CIA World Fact book)

Area: 202,233 square miles (Central America) 92,541 square miles (Caribbean)

Major Biomes: Rainforest

Major cities:

- Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic
- Havana, Cuba
- Santiago, Dominican Republic
- Guatemala City, Republic of Guatemala
- San Salvador, El Salvador

- Tegucigalpa, Honduras
- Managua, Nicaragua
- San Pedro Sula, Honduras
- Panama City, Panama
- San Jose, Costa Rica

Bordering Bodies of Water: Pacific Ocean, Atlantic Ocean, Gulf of Mexico, Caribbean Sea, Straits of Florida

Major Geographical Features: Sierra Madre de Chiapas, Cordillera Isabelia Mountains, Sierra Maestra Mountains, Lucayan Archipelago, Greater Antilles, Lesser Antilles, Isthmus of Panama

Countries of Central America

Learn more about the countries from the continent of Central America. Get all sorts of information on each Central American country including a map, a picture of the flag, population, and much more. Select the country below for more information:

Belize

Costa Rica

El Salvador

Guatemala

Honduras

Nicaragua

Panama

Countries of the Caribbean

Anguilla

Antigua and Barbuda

Aruba

Bahamas, The

Barbados

British Virgin Islands

Cayman Islands

Cuba

(Timeline of Cuba)

Dominica

Dominican Republic

Grenada

Guadeloupe

Haiti

Jamaica

Martinique

Montserrat

Netherlands Antilles

Puerto Rico

Saint Kitts and Nevis

Saint Lucia

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

Trinidad and Tobago

Turks and Caicos Islands

Virgin Islands

Fun Facts

There once was a country called Central America. Today it is divided up into Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica.

The Panama Canal allows ships to cross Central America from the Pacific Ocean to the Atlantic Ocean. The canal is a manmade construction that traverses 50 miles across the country of Panama.

Central America was home to the Mayan Civilization, one of the great civilizations of the historic world.

The largest country by population in Central America is Guatemala (14.3 million 2013 estimate). The largest in the Caribbean is Cuba (11.1 million 2013 estimate).

The Caribbean contains around 8% of the world's coral reefs (by surface area).

Coloring Map

Match the colors to the countries

A



FIGURE 6.2

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Anguilla | <input type="checkbox"/> Haiti |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Antigua and Barbuda | <input type="checkbox"/> Honduras |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Aruba | <input type="checkbox"/> Jamaica |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bahamas, The | <input type="checkbox"/> Martinique |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Barbados | <input type="checkbox"/> Montserrat |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Belize | <input type="checkbox"/> Netherlands Antilles |
| <input type="checkbox"/> British Virgin Islands | <input type="checkbox"/> Nicaragua |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cayman Islands | <input type="checkbox"/> Panama |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Costa Rica | <input type="checkbox"/> Puerto Rico |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cuba | <input type="checkbox"/> Saint Kitts and Nevis |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dominica | <input type="checkbox"/> Saint Lucia |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dominican Republic | <input type="checkbox"/> Saint Vincent and the Grenadines |
| <input type="checkbox"/> El Salvador | <input type="checkbox"/> Trinidad and Tobago |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Grenada | <input type="checkbox"/> Turks and Caicos Islands |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Guadeloupe | <input type="checkbox"/> Virgin Islands |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Guatemala | |



FIGURE 6.3

CHAPTER

7

Latin America: Panama

Chapter Outline

7.1 **GEOGRAPHY AND PEOPLE OF PANAMA**

7.2 **THE PANAMA CANAL**

7.1 Geography and People of Panama



FIGURE 7.1

Capital: Panama City

Population: 3,510,045

Brief History of Panama:

Panama was originally inhabited by the Native American tribes of the Cocle and Cuevas peoples. The first European to visit Panama was Rodrigo de Bastida in 1501. A year later, Christopher Columbus arrived and established the city of Darien. In 1513 Vasco de Balboa made his famous trek from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific across the Isthmus of Panama. This trip proved that the crossing could be made and turned Panama in to a major trading center. For years silver and gold was shipped in from other areas in the New World, carried across Panama, and then put on ships bound for Spain. The trip was dangerous and the road across Panama gained the nickname the Camino de Cruces or Road of the Crosses due to all the people who died along the way. For nearly 300 years Panama was a colony of the Spanish Empire. In 1821 Panama left the Spanish Empire and became a part of Colombia. Over the years Panama tried to leave Colombia but was unable to. In 1903 Panama finally declared independence and signed a treaty with the United States. The treaty stated that the United States would have rights to a zone 10 miles wide and 50 miles long where it would build a canal to be used to cross Panama. In 1914 the United States completed the Panama Canal. In 1999 the canal was passed into the hands of the Panamanian government.

The Geography of Panama

Total Size: 78,200 square km **Size Comparison:** slightly smaller than South Carolina **Geographical Coordinates:** 9 00 N, 80 00 W **World Region or Continent:** Central America **General Terrain:** interior mostly steep, rugged mountains and dissected, upland plains; coastal areas largely plains and rolling hills **Geographical Low Point:** Pacific Ocean 0 m **Geographical High Point:** Volcan de Chiriqui 3,475 m **Climate:** tropical maritime; hot, humid, cloudy; prolonged rainy season (May to January), short dry season (January to May) **Major cities:** PANAMA CITY (capital) 1.346 million (2009)

The People of Panama



FIGURE 7.2

Type of Government: constitutional democracy **Languages Spoken:** Spanish (official), English 14%; note - many Panamanians bilingual **Independence:** 3 November 1903 (from Colombia; became independent from Spain 28 November 1821) **National Holiday:** Independence Day, 3 November (1903) **Nationality:** Panamanian(s) **Religions:** Roman Catholic 85%, Protestant 15% **National Symbol:** harpy eagle **National Anthem or Song:** Himno Istemno (Isthmus Hymn)

Economy of Panama

Major Industries: construction, brewing, cement and other construction materials, sugar milling **Agricultural Products:** bananas, rice, corn, coffee, sugarcane, vegetables; livestock; shrimp **Natural Resources:** copper, mahogany forests, shrimp, hydropower **Major Exports:** bananas, shrimp, sugar, coffee, clothing **Major Imports:** capital goods, foodstuffs, consumer goods, chemicals **Currency:** balboa (PAB); US dollar (USD) **National GDP:** \$50,610,000,000

** Source for population (2012 est.) and GDP (2011 est.) is CIA World Factbook.

7.2 The Panama Canal

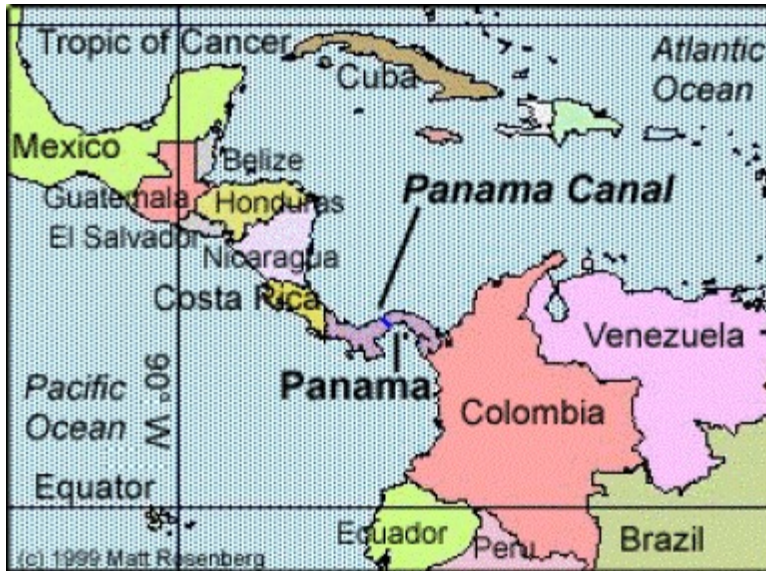


FIGURE 7.3

The location of the Panama Canal, in Panama between the Atlantic Ocean and the Pacific Ocean.

The 48 mile-long (77 km) international waterway known as the [Panama Canal](#) allows ships to pass between the [Atlantic Ocean](#) and [Pacific Ocean](#), saving about 8000 miles (12,875 km) from a journey around the southern tip of South America, Cape Horn.

History of the Panama Canal

From 1819, Panama was part of the federation and country of Colombia but when Colombia rejected United States plans to build a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, the U.S. supported a revolution that led to the independence of Panama in 1903.

The new Panamanian government authorized French businessman Philippe Bunau-Varilla, to negotiate a treaty with the United States. The Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty allowed the U.S. to build the Panama Canal and provided for perpetual control of a zone five-miles wide on either side of the canal.

Although the French had attempted construction of a canal in the 1880s, the Panama Canal was successfully built from 1904 to 1914. Once the canal was complete the U.S. held a swath of land running the approximately 50 miles across the isthmus of Panama.

The division of the country of Panama into two parts by the U.S. territory of the Canal Zone caused tension throughout the twentieth century. Additionally, the self-contained Canal Zone (the official name for the U.S. territory in Panama) contributed little to the Panamanian economy. The residents of the Canal Zone were primarily U.S. citizens and West Indians who worked in the Zone and on the canal.

Anger flared in the 1960s and led to anti-American riots. The U.S. and Panamanian governments began to work together to solve the territorial issue. In 1977, [U.S. President Jimmy Carter](#) signed a treaty which agreed to return 60% of the Canal Zone to Panama in 1979. The canal and remaining territory, known as the Canal Area, was returned to Panama at noon (local Panama time) on December 31, 1999.

Additionally, from 1979 to 1999, a bi-national transitional Panama Canal Commission ran the canal, with an

American leader for the first decade and a Panamanian administrator for the second. The transition at the end of 1999 was very smooth, for over 90% of the canal employees were Panamanian by 1996.

The 1977 treaty established the canal as a neutral international waterway and even in times of war any vessel is guaranteed safe passage. After the 1999 hand-over, the U.S. and Panama jointly shared duties in defending the canal.

Operation of the Panama Canal

The canal makes the trip from the east coast to the west coast of the U.S. much shorter than the route taken around the tip of [South America](#) prior to 1914. Though traffic continues to increase through the canal, many oil supertankers and military battleships and [aircraft carriers](#) can not fit through the canal. There's even a class of ships known as "Panamax," those built to the maximum capacity of the Panama canal and its locks.

It takes approximately fifteen hours to traverse the canal through its three sets of locks (about half the time is spent waiting due to traffic). Ships passing through the canal from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean actually move from the northwest to the southeast, due to the east-west orientation of the Isthmus of Panama.

Panama Canal Expansion

In September, 2007 work began on a \$5.2 billion project to expand the Panama Canal. Expected to be complete in 2014, the Panama Canal expansion project will allow ships double the size of current Panamax to pass through the canal, dramatically increasing the amount of goods that can pass through the canal.

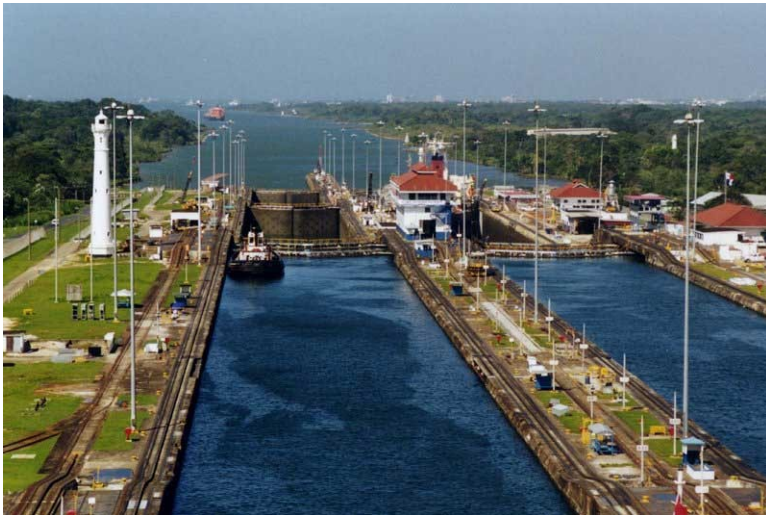


FIGURE 7.4

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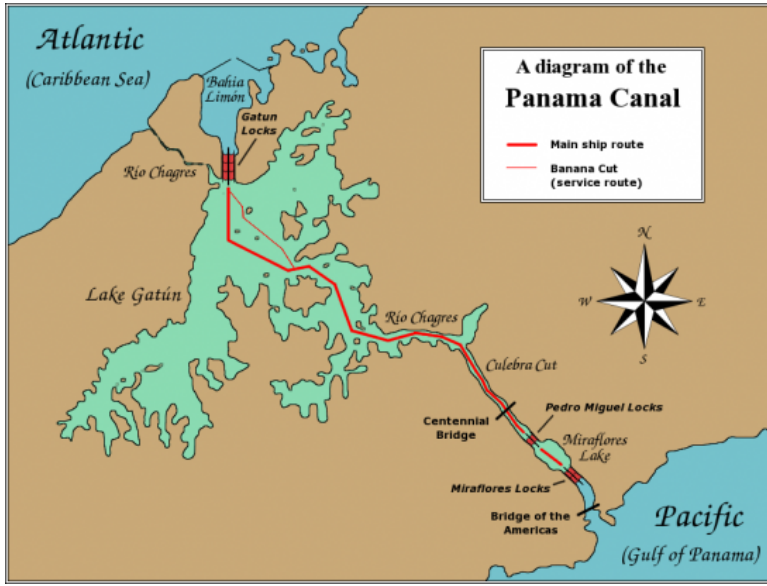


FIGURE 7.5

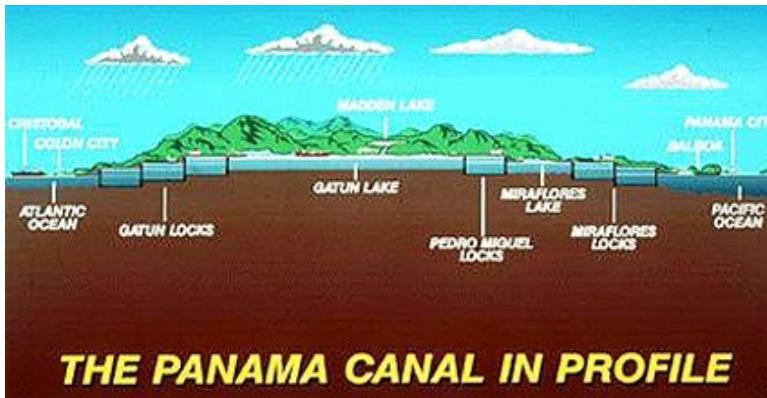


FIGURE 7.6

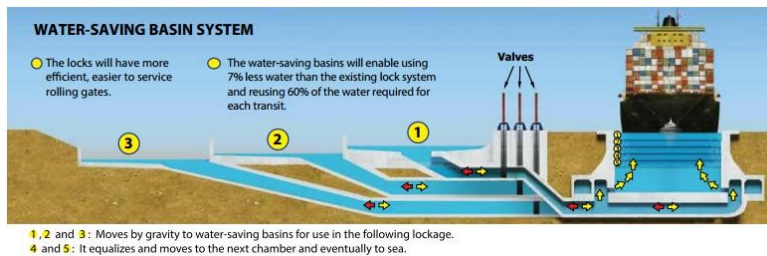


FIGURE 7.7

CHAPTER

8

Latin America: Cuba

Chapter Outline

8.1 CUBA: GEOGRAPHY AND PEOPLE

8.1 Cuba: Geography and People



FIGURE 8.1



FIGURE 8.2

TABLE 8.1:

President: Raúl Castro (2008)

Total area: 42,803 sq mi (110,860 sq km)

Population (2014 est.): 11,047,251 (growth rate: -0.14%); birth rate: 9.9/1000; infant mortality rate: 4.7/1000; life expectancy: 78.22

Capital and largest city (2011 est.): Havana, 2.116 million

Other large cities: Santiago de Cuba, 554,400; Camagüey, 354,400; Holguin, 319,300; Guantánamo, 274,300; Santa Clara, 251,800

Monetary unit: Cuban Peso

More Facts Figures

Cuba

Geography

The largest island of the West Indies group (equal in area to Pennsylvania), Cuba is also the westernmost—just west of Hispaniola (Haiti and the Dominican Republic), and 90 mi (145 km) south of Key West, Fla., at the entrance to the Gulf of Mexico. The island is mountainous in the southeast and south-central area (Sierra Maestra). It is flat or rolling elsewhere. Cuba also includes numerous smaller islands, islets, and cays.

Government

Communist state.

History

Arawak (or Taino) Indians inhabiting Cuba when Columbus landed on the island in 1492 died from diseases brought by sailors and settlers. By 1511, Spaniards under Diego Velásquez had established settlements. Havana's superb harbor made it a common transit point to and from Spain.

In the early 1800s, Cuba's sugarcane industry boomed, requiring massive numbers of black slaves. A simmering independence movement turned into open warfare from 1867 to 1878. Slavery was abolished in 1886. In 1895, the poet José Martí led the struggle that finally ended Spanish rule, thanks largely to U.S. intervention in 1898 after the sinking of the battleship *Maine* in Havana harbor.

An 1899 treaty made Cuba an independent republic under U.S. protection. The U.S. occupation, which ended in 1902, suppressed yellow fever and brought large American investments. The 1901 Platt Amendment allowed the U.S. to intervene in Cuba's affairs, which it did four times from 1906 to 1920. Cuba terminated the amendment in 1934.

In 1933, a group of army officers, including army sergeant Fulgencio Batista, overthrew President Gerardo Machado. Batista became president in 1940, running a corrupt police state.

In 1956, Fidel Castro Ruz launched a revolution from his camp in the Sierra Maestra mountains. Castro's brother Raul and Ernesto (Ché) Guevara, an Argentine physician, were his top lieutenants. Many anti-Batista landowners supported the rebels. The U.S. ended military aid to Cuba in 1958, and on New Year's Day 1959, Batista fled into exile and Castro took over the government.

Revolution Leader Fidel Castro Breaks Ties with U.S. and Allies Himself with the Soviet Union

The U.S. initially welcomed what looked like a democratic Cuba, but within a few months, Castro established military tribunals for political opponents and jailed hundreds. Castro disavowed Cuba's 1952 military pact with the U.S., confiscated U.S. assets, and established Soviet-style collective farms. The U.S. broke relations with Cuba on Jan. 3, 1961, and Castro formalized his alliance with the Soviet Union. Thousands of Cubans fled the country.

Bay of Pigs Disaster

In 1961, a U.S.-backed group of Cuban exiles invaded Cuba. Planned during the Eisenhower administration, the

invasion was given the go-ahead by President John Kennedy, although he refused to give U.S. air support. The landing at the Bay of Pigs on April 17, 1961, was a fiasco. The invaders did not receive popular Cuban support and were easily repulsed by the Cuban military.

Soviet-Missile Crisis

A Soviet attempt to install medium-range missiles in Cuba—capable of striking targets in the United States with nuclear warheads—provoked a crisis in 1962. Denouncing the Soviets for “deliberate deception,” President Kennedy promised a U.S. blockade of Cuba to stop the missile delivery. Six days later, Soviet premier Nikita Khrushchev ordered the missile sites dismantled and returned to the USSR in return for a U.S. pledge not to attack Cuba.

The U.S. established limited diplomatic ties with Cuba on Sept. 1, 1977, making it easier for Cuban Americans to visit the island. Contact with the more affluent Cuban Americans prompted a wave of discontent in Cuba, producing a flood of asylum seekers. In response, Castro opened the port of Mariel to a “freedom flotilla” of boats from the U.S., allowing 125,000 to flee to Miami. After the refugees arrived, it was discovered that their ranks were swelled with prisoners, mental patients, homosexuals, and others unwanted by the Cuban government.

Cuba fomented Communist revolutions around the world, especially in Angola, where thousands of Cuban troops were sent during the 1980s.

Russian aid, which had long supported Cuba’s failing economy, ended when Communism collapsed in eastern Europe in 1990. Cuba’s foreign trade also plummeted, producing a severe economic crisis. In 1993, Castro permitted limited private enterprise, allowed Cubans to possess convertible currencies, and encouraged foreign investment in its tourist industry. In March 1996, the U.S. tightened its embargo with the Helms-Burton Act.

Christmas became an official holiday in 1997 as a result of Pope John Paul II’s 1998 visit to Cuba, raising hopes for greater religious freedom.

In June 2000, Castro won a publicity bonanza when the Clinton administration sent Elian Gonzalez, a young Cuban boy found clinging to an inner tube near Miami, back to Cuba. The U.S. Cuban community had demanded that the boy remain in Miami rather than be returned to his father in Cuba. By many accounts, the influential Cuban Americans lost public sympathy by pitting political ideology against familial bonds.

In March and April 2003, Castro sent nearly 80 dissidents to prison with long sentences, prompting an international condemnation of Cuba’s harsh suppression of human rights.

The Bush administration again tightened its embargo in June 2004, allowing Cuban Americans to return to the island only once every three years (instead of every year) and restricting the amount of U.S. cash that can be spent there to \$50 per day. In response, Cuba banned the use of dollars, which had been legal currency in the country for more than a decade.

In July 2006, Castro—hospitalized because of an illness—temporarily turned over power to his brother Raúl. In October, it was revealed that Castro has cancer and will not return to power.

In Poor Health Castro Announces His Retirement

Seventeen months after his emergency intestinal surgery, 81-year-old Castro released a public statement declaring that he was not healthy enough to campaign in the upcoming parliamentary elections, although he has not withdrawn from the election. Castro’s announcement on January 2008, was followed by a national television broadcast showing a recent meeting between Castro and President Luiz Inacio Lula da Silva of Brazil where he told the Brazilian president that he was feeling very well.

During the Jan. 2008 parliamentary elections, both Fidel and Raúl Castro were reelected to the National Assembly as well as 614 unopposed candidates.

In Feb. 2008, Fidel Castro ended 49 years of power when he announced his retirement. The 81-year-old, who ruled Cuba since leading a revolution in 1959, said he would not accept another term as president. Raúl Castro succeeded his brother, becoming the 21st president of Cuba on Feb. 24, 2008.

Exit Visa Requirement Is Dropped

On October 16, 2012, the government announced that in early 2013 Cubans would no longer be required to have an exit visa when leaving the country. This new policy was promised by President Raúl Castro in 2011 as a way to answer the rising calls for change by Cubans.

The new policy states that as of January 13, 2013, Cubans could leave the country on vacations or forever. They would only need a valid passport and a visa from the country of their destination. It also stated that Cubans could stay abroad longer, up to two years before they lose their citizenship and benefits. However, the new policy also stated that Cubans could be stopped from leaving the country for "defense and national security" reasons. This part of the new law suggested that while Castro and the Cuban government were answering the demands for change, they were also maintaining tight control of political dissidents.

Cuba Resumes Diplomatic Relations with U.S.

The Cuban government freed U.S. aid contractor Alan Gross, who had been in captivity for five years, on Dec. 17, 2014. Gross had been sentenced to 15 years in prison in 2011 after his effort to create a way to communicate outside of the Cuban government's control. The government cited humanitarian grounds as the reason for Gross' release.

In response to the prisoner release, U.S. President Barack Obama announced that the U.S. would resume full diplomatic relations with Cuba, which includes opening an embassy in Havana. There hasn't been any diplomatic relations between the U.S. and Cuba since 1961. The prisoner release was part of a deal negotiated in secret over 18 months. Canada hosted most of the talks that led to the deal. Pope Francis also hosted a meeting at the Vatican to help with negotiations between the two countries.

Talks began in early 2015 between the two countries over how to restore diplomatic relations after five decades. Both sides made demands ahead of the talks. Cuba asked the U.S. to remove its name from a list of states that sponsor terrorism. The U.S. insisted that its diplomats should be allowed to work freely and meet with dissidents in Cuba. A second round of talks was scheduled for late Feb. to hammer out these issues and more. Meanwhile, reaction to the resumed relations with the U.S. has been mixed in Cuba. Some praised the move while others were skeptical.

With diplomatic relations restored, the ban for Americans traveling to Cuba was lifted. Before Dec. 2014, Americans could only travel to Cuba with permission from the U.S. State Department. After Dec. 2014, tourists from the U.S. still had to go as part of a religious, educational, and cultural group, but the travel ban being lifted made it easier in other ways for Americans visiting Cuba. Internet access, an embassy, and the use of credit cards were soon available for the first time to assist Americans while in Cuba. Also, the U.S. government began allowing Americans to bring small quantities of items back from Cuba, including cigars. Cuban cigar makers estimated that their sales would increase from \$3 million to \$6 million in 2015, due to the new rule.

President Obama and Cuban President Raul Castro met at the Summit of the Americas in Panama in April. It was the first time the countries' leaders held a face-to-face meeting in more than 50 years. According to news reports, Obama and Castro vowed to open embassies in both countries. "Our governments will continue to have differences," Obama said. "At the same time, we agreed that we can continue to take steps forward that advance our mutual interests."

In another step toward resuming full diplomatic relations, the U.S. removed Cuba from its list of [state sponsors of terrorism](#) in May 2015. Of the decision, U.S. State Department spokesman Jeff Rathke says in a statement, "While the United States has significant concerns and disagreements with a wide range of Cuba's policies and actions, these fall outside the criteria relevant to the rescission of a state sponsor of terrorism designation."

On July 20, Cuba and the U.S. restored full diplomatic ties, with each country re-opening embassies in their respective capitals. The historic move ends more than 50 years of enmity between the two nations.



FIGURE 8.3

TABLE 8.2:

President: Raúl Castro (2008)

Total area: 42,803 sq mi (110,860 sq km)

Population (2014 est.): 11,047,251 (growth rate: -0.14%); birth rate: 9.9/1000; infant mortality rate: 4.7/1000; life expectancy: 78.22

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Cuba

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More Facts Figures

CHAPTER 9**Latin America: South America Continent****Chapter Outline**

- 9.1 SOUTH AMERICA MAPS**
 - 9.2 GEOGRAPHY OF PERU**
 - 9.3 GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMY OF PERU**
 - 9.4 HISTORY OF PERU**
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-

9.1 South America Maps



FIGURE 9.1



FIGURE 9.2



FIGURE 9.3

9.2 Geography of Peru



FIGURE 9.4

Population: 29,248,943 (July 2011 estimate)

Capital: Lima

Bordering Countries: Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Ecuador

Area: 496,224 square miles (1,285,216 sq km)

Coastline: 1,500 miles (2,414 km)

Highest Point: Nevado Huascaran at 22,205 feet (6,768 m)

Peru is a country located on the western side of South America between Chile and Ecuador. It also shares borders with Bolivia, Brazil and Colombia and has a coastline along the South Pacific Ocean.

Peru is the fifth most populous country in Latin America and it is known for its ancient history, varied topography and multiethnic population.

Geography and Climate of Peru

Peru is located on the western part of South America just below the equator (map). It has a varied topography that consists of a coastal plain in the west, high rugged mountains in its center (the Andes) and a lowland jungle in the east that leads into the Amazon River basin. The highest point in Peru is Nevado Huascaran at 22,205 feet (6,768 m).

The climate of Peru varies based on the landscape but it is mostly tropical in the east, desert in the west and temperate in the Andes. Lima, which is located on the coast, has an average February high temperature of 80°F (26.5°C) and an August low of 58°F (14°C).

9.3 Government and Economy of Peru

Today Peru's government is considered a constitutional republic. It has an executive branch of government that is made up of a chief of state and a head of government (both of which are filled by the president) and a unicameral Congress of the Republic of Peru for its legislative branch. Peru's judicial branch consists of the Supreme Court of Justice. Peru is divided into 25 regions for local administration.

Economics and Land Use in Peru

Since 2006 Peru's economy has been on the rebound. It is also known as being varied due to the varied landscape within the country. For example certain areas are known for fishing, while others feature abundant mineral resources.

The main industries in Peru are mining and refining of minerals, steel, metal fabrication, petroleum extraction and refining, natural gas and natural gas liquefaction, fishing, cement, textiles, clothing and food processing. **Agriculture is also a major part of Peru's economy** and the main products are asparagus, coffee, cocoa, cotton, sugarcane, rice, potatoes, corn, plantains, grapes, oranges, pineapples, guava, bananas, apples, lemons, pears, tomatoes, mango, barley, palm oil, marigold, onion, wheat, beans, poultry, beef, dairy products, fish and guinea pigs.

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9.4 History of Peru

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Peru has a long history that dates back to the Norte Chico civilization and the **Inca Empire**. Europeans did not arrive in Peru until 1531 when the Spanish landed on the territory and discovered the Inca civilization. At that time, the Inca Empire was centered in what is present day **Cuzco** but it stretched from northern Ecuador to central Chile (U.S. Department of State). In the early **1530's** the **Spain's Francisco Pizarro** began searching the area for wealth and by 1533 had taken over Cuzco. In 1535 Pizarro founded Lima and in 1542 a viceroyalty was established there that gave the city control over all Spanish colonies in the region.

Spanish control of Peru lasted until the early 1800s at which time **Jose de San Martin** and **Simon Bolivar** began a **push for independence**. On July 28, 1821 San Martin declared Peru independent and in 1824 it achieved partial independence.

Spain fully recognized Peru as independent in 1879. Following its independence there were several territorial disputes between Peru and neighboring countries. These conflicts eventually led to the War of the Pacific from 1879 to 1883 as well as several clashes in the early 1900s. In 1929 Peru and Chile drafted an agreement on where the borders would be, however it was not fully implemented until 1999 and there are still disagreements about maritime boundaries.

Beginning in the 1960s, social instability led to a period of military rule that lasted from 1968 to 1980. Military rule began to end when General Juan Velasco Alvarado was replaced by General Francisco Morales Bermudez in 1975 poor health and problems managing Peru. Bermudez eventually worked at returning Peru to a democracy by allowing a new constitution and elections in May 1980. At that time President Belaunde Terry was re-elected (he was overthrown in 1968).

Despite its return to democracy, Peru suffered severe instability in the 1980s due to economic problems. From 1982 to 1983 El Nino caused flooding, drought and destroyed the country's fishing industry. In addition, two terrorist groups, Sendero Luminoso and the Tupac Amaru Revolutionary Movement, emerged and caused chaos in much of the country. In 1985 Alan Garcia Perez was elected president and economic mismanagement followed, further devastating Peru's economy from 1988 to 1990.

In 1990 Alberto Fujimori was elected president and he made several large changes in the government throughout the 1990s. Instability continued and 2000 Fujimori resigned from office after several political scandals. In 2001 Alejandro Toledo took office and put Peru on track to return to democracy. In 2006 Alan Garcia Perez again became Peru's president and since then the country's economy and stability has rebounded.

9.5 The Inca

The Inca Empire developed in a long strip that reached pretty much north to south along the western side of South America, the side that faces the Pacific Ocean. The geography was rugged - **Andes mountains**, the coastline deserts, and the Amazon jungle. The clever Inca found solutions for their geographic problems.

The Andes Mountains run north to south. The Andes are the backbone of South America. They run close to the west coast for the entire length of South America - 4,500 miles! In some places, they measure more than 400 miles wide. In others, they measure about 100 miles across. These are not flat miles. The width is a series of very high mountain peaks. In the **Andes**, there **are active volcanoes**. The Andes are rich in minerals including gold, silver, copper, tin, iron, emeralds, and more! The Andes Mountains are very high. They are higher than the Alps or the Rockies.

The Incas made their home high in the Andes Mountains. To move about, 11,000 feet above sea level, the Inca **built bridges** between mountain peaks and over deep gorges. These bridges were made of sturdy vines. The Inca never invented the wheel, and the commoners were not allowed on the roads, so the only travel over these bridges were the animals that hauled food, warriors, the road runners (who carried messages using a relay system), the nobles, and government officials.

To stop invasion in any section of their empire, all they had to do was burn two bridge, one on each side of a deep gorge, which effectively captured their enemy in the middle. They did not even have to kill them. They could walk away and let the captured people freeze to death or be eaten by animals.

On one side of the Andes Mountains is the Amazon jungle. On the other side is the desert coastline. These both acted as natural barriers. The Inca did not try to establish cities in either the jungle or the desert, although they probably entered to harvest fruit, wood, and seafood.

THE COMMON PEOPLE

The common people, except for craftsmen, did not live in the city. The common people lived and worked in small groups or units. Each unit was called an ayllu (pronounced EYE-yoos.) In an ayllu, all the people were related; they had a common ancestor. Each ayllu was made up of about 12 people. Their actual extended family might be greater than 12 people, but they were grouped by the government into a specific ayllu. Each ayllu was assigned a plot of land they were to farm together. Each group or ayllu lived together in a hut in their field.

Most huts were one room. Some were made of stone, some of reed, occasionally one had an upper story, but there were no windows, and no way to leave except by the front door. The door was covered only by a piece of leather or woven cloth. Roofs were thatched and there were no chimneys. There was no furniture. People sat and slept on mats or animal skins.

Huts were pretty miserable, really, and were used for sleep and if it was decided by the inspector in the village that the weather made it impossible to work productively. Inspectors checked to make sure all people were in their huts only when they should be. If someone was found at home when they should be working, they were killed.

THE CRAFTSMEN

Craftsmen were assigned homes in the city. They weren't wonderful homes, but they were certainly a step up or two from a farmer's hut. Most craftsmen had two story homes, some even had three story homes. They usually had a window or two. Food, clothing, other necessities, and raw materials for their craft was provided for the craftsmen and his family by the government and delivered from government warehouses as needed. This was their pay for the crafts they produced. Craftsmen were not taxed in any other way. They did not have to worry about anything except producing their craft, be it weapons, fabric, bricks, jewelry or other works of art. They were commoners, and they worked very hard, but the goods they produced were important to the nobility. So they were treated with more respect than were the farmers.

THE NOBLES

The nobles lived a life of luxury. They lived in the cities. Their homes were built around a central plaza. The plaza was surrounded by temples and government offices and homes for the priests as well as the nobles. The nobles decorated their doors with gold and silver and anything shiny. Homes had slanted roofs and funny doorways, to strengthen them. The Incas were wonderful builders. There was no furniture in these or any other Inca homes. Instead, there were a series of niches arranged in the walls. These acted as seats.

THE ROYALS

The Sapa Inca lived in a palace. Walls were covered with gold. There were beautiful hangings and glittering art. Pottery was covered with gold and silver. Some of the palaces had stone baths. But there was no furniture. After his death, his body was mummified and remained in his palace. His royal family and all his servants remained in the palace with him, to wait on him, should he need anything. They were not entombed. They lived their life, and went to the marketplace to gab and shop, and ate wonderful foods, like always. A new palace was built for the new Sapa Inca and his family. Cities had several palaces, but only one palace housed a living Sapa Inca.

Terrace Farming

Nobody went hungry in the Inca Empire. The commoners ate little meat, but all people ate well. **The Inca were the first to grow potatoes.** There were many crops. The big three were corn, potatoes, and quinoa, which is a seed used to make flour and soups.

The three staple crops were corn, potatoes, and quinoa - quinoa seeds were used to make cereal, flour, and soups. They grew tomatoes, avocados, peppers, strawberries, peanuts, squash, sweet potatoes, beans, pineapple, bananas, spices, and coco leaves to make chocolate. They kept honeybees.

The Inca grew more food than they needed. Stored food was dried and kept in special buildings. Because they lived high in the Andes, where it was often cold, it was easy to dry food. First, they left it out to freeze. Then they stamped on it until most of the water was out. They left it out in the sun to finish drying and presto - dried food.

The Inca invented terrace farming. They lived in the mountains. Flatlands were rare. So, they simply created flat land by **building steps of land for agriculture down the mountainside.** This was great for irrigation. Instead of rainwater running down the mountainside, the Inca channeled it through each step. They also built aqueducts to carry water where it was needed. They were great farmers, with clever solutions to their farming problems.

Roads Bridges

The Inca roads were very well built. They were paved. They belonged to the government. Although the roads were built by the common people, once they were built, the common people were not allowed to use them unless they had special permission from the government to do so. If a commoner used the roads without permission, they were tossed off a mountain. The Inca never invented the wheel, but they had over 14,000 miles of road. Roads connected every piece of the empire.

There were **many bridges built over the gorges and ravines in the mountains**, and bridges that connected mountains. They built suspension bridges over vast spaces, pontoon bridges over streams and creeks, and pulley baskets over especially different terrain. Although the common people could not use the roads, they were used by the nobles and the military. There were rest inns and storehouses along the roadways. There were road signs along the road every couple of miles, so people always knew where they were.

Specialized Professions

Most people in the Inca empire were farmers. Their life was very tough. Some people escaped the farms. Government officials decided who would have what job. But there jobs in the Inca empire that freed you from farming. One such job was to be a government official. Most of those positions were held by the nobles. But occasionally a commoner received a helping hand from a government official. Most of the jobs that freed you from farming were warriors, herders, fishermen, craftsmen, weavers, sorcerers, and chosen women.

The sorcerers were not priests. They were commoners who could cure illness, predict the future, and do other

magical things. The chosen women were the most beautiful of the young girls. Some were sacrificed and thrown off the top of a mountain peak, to make the gods happy. Some served as servants to nobles, priests, and even the emperor.

The weavers were incredible. They wove feathers into some fabrics. They made wool fabric that was so soft, it felt like silk. Both men and women were weavers. It was the weavers who make the twisted rope used to make bridges. They created unique designs, many of which are still in use today. They were commoners, but they were respected.

Machu Picchu

The Forgotten City, About 100 years ago, archaeologists made an incredible find, high in the Andes Mountains. They found an entire city that had not been destroyed by the Spanish invaders. This forgotten city is named Machu Picchu. It is a huge tourist attraction in Peru today. Archaeologists found ruins of temples, palaces, fortresses, pottery, statues, and all kinds of artifacts. It was incredible! This find told archaeologists and scientists a great deal about the ancient Inca civilization. One of the most exciting finds was the first thing explorers found as they entered the forgotten city. It was an Intihuatana. An Intihuatana was a pyramid built so the Inca could speak to their gods. Priests used the flat top of the pyramid to conduct ceremonies. Archaeologists noted that palace balconies faced the flat rock at the top of the pyramid. They suspect this was done so that nobles could watch ceremonies from the comfort of a seat on their own balcony.

Inca Inventions

Because they counted everything a conquered tribe owned, they needed a way to remember everything they had counted. They invented the quipus. The quipus had colored strings tied to a main string. The color of the strings and the distance between the knots tied in each string told a story - how many of this, and what was going on. You had to have special training to be a quipus reader. The Inca invented a calendar they called time makers or time watchers. This calendar was a tower. Time was important to the Inca for religious purposes. They also invented a flute, a drum, the famous Inca panpipe (a collection of hollow tubes of various lengths stuck together), terrace farming, freeze dried foods, aqueducts, strange and scary art, a central government, a unified language, woven colorful textiles, gold and silver jewelry and statues, specialized professions, a system of communication (the roadrunners) and much more. They were very clever people.

Summary of the Inca

The Inca were great stone builders, making stone roads, and buildings fitting stone so close together that you couldn't even run a blade between the stones. They were great farmers using terrace farming along the mountain sides of the Andes Mts. They also built irrigation canals to water their crops. They had no written language so they used runners to communicate across their vast empire. The runners worked in relay teams and had stations located along their roads. Each runner would run about 25 miles and they could travel about 150 miles per day. The Inca tied strings into knots called quipu to keep a record of all their crops and valuables. The Inca were also excellent weavers and would use wool from llamas and alpacas. They would use dye from colorful plants to make designs on their blankets and other fabrics that represented ideas. The concepts of passing seasons/calendars, agriculture, and history were all represented in their weavings. Today, Edwin Sulca is famous for his Inca inspired weaving works.



FIGURE 9.5

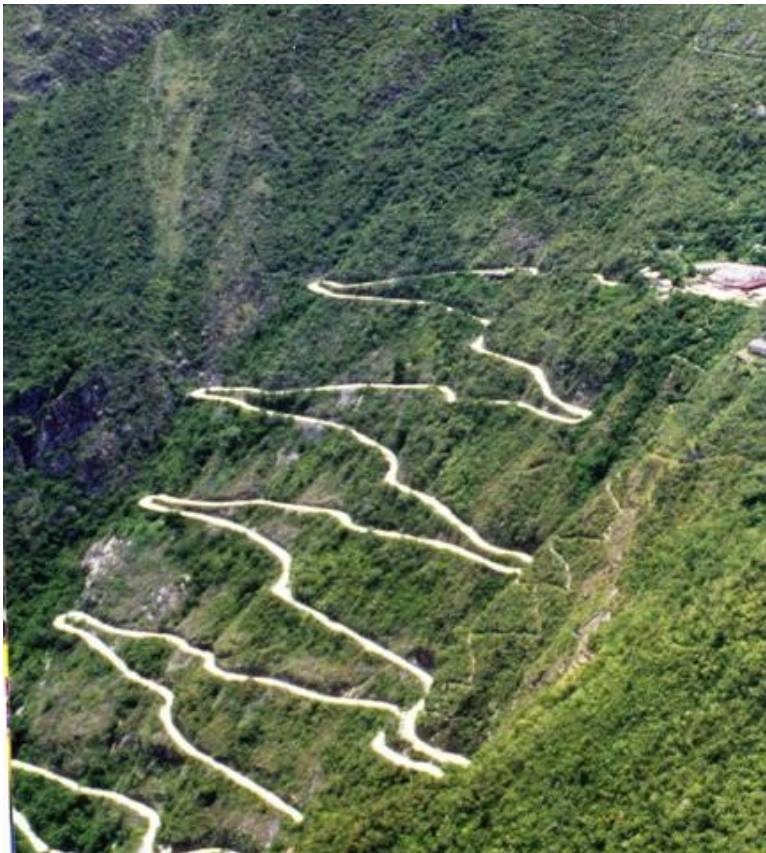


FIGURE 9.6



FIGURE 9.7



FIGURE 9.8



FIGURE 9.9

9.6 Brazil: Facts and Figures



FIGURE 9.10



FIGURE 9.11

TABLE 9.1:

Facts & Figures
<p>President: Dilma Rousseff (2011)</p> <p>Land area: 3,265,059 sq mi (8,456,511 sq km); total area: 3,286,470 sq mi (8,511,965 sq km)</p> <p>Population (2012 est.): 205,716,890 (growth rate: 1.1%); birth rate: 17.48/1000; infant mortality rate: 21.820.5/1000; life expectancy: 72.79; density per sq km: 22</p> <p>Capital (2009 est.): Brasília, 3,789,000</p> <p>Largest cities: São Paulo, 19,900,000; Rio de Janeiro, 11,836,000; Salvador, 2,590,400; Belo Horizonte, 5,736,000; Recife, 1,485,500; Porto Alegre, 4,034,000</p> <p>Monetary unit: Real</p>

9.7 Geography of Brazil

Brazil covers nearly half of South America and is the continent's largest nation. It extends 2,965 mi (4,772 km) north-south, 2,691 mi (4,331 km) east-west, and borders every nation on the continent except Chile and Ecuador. Brazil may be divided into the Brazilian Highlands, or plateau, in the south and the Amazon River Basin in the north. Over a third of Brazil is drained by the Amazon and its more than 200 tributaries. The Amazon is navigable for ocean steamers to Iquitos, Peru, 2,300 mi (3,700 km) upstream. Southern Brazil is drained by the Plata system—the Paraguay, Uruguay, and Paraná rivers.

Government

Federal republic.

History

Brazil is the only Latin American nation that derives its language and culture from Portugal. The native inhabitants mostly consisted of the nomadic Tupí-Guaraní Indians. Adm. Pedro Alvares Cabral claimed the territory for Portugal in 1500. The early explorers brought back a wood that produced a red dye, *pau-brasil*, from which the land received its name. Portugal began colonization in 1532 and made the area a royal colony in 1549.

During the Napoleonic Wars, King João VI, fearing the advancing French armies, fled Portugal in 1808 and set up his court in Rio de Janeiro. João was drawn home in 1820 by a revolution, leaving his son as regent. When Portugal tried to reimpose colonial rule, the prince declared Brazil's independence on Sept. 7, 1822, becoming Pedro I, emperor of Brazil. Harassed by his parliament, Pedro I abdicated in 1831 in favor of his five-year-old son, who became emperor in 1840 (Pedro II). The son was a popular monarch, but discontent built up, and in 1889, following a military revolt, he abdicated. Although a republic was proclaimed, Brazil was ruled by military dictatorships until a revolt permitted a gradual return to stability under civilian presidents.

President Wenceslau Braz cooperated with the Allies and declared war on Germany during World War I. In World War II, Brazil again cooperated with the Allies, welcoming Allied air bases, patrolling the South Atlantic, and joining the invasion of Italy after declaring war on the Axis powers.

After a military coup in 1964, Brazil had a series of military governments. Gen. João Baptista de Oliveira Figueiredo became president in 1979 and pledged a return to democracy in 1985. The election of Tancredo Neves on Jan. 15, 1985, the first civilian president since 1964, brought a nationwide wave of optimism, but when Neves died several months later, Vice President José Sarney became president. Collor de Mello won the election of late 1989, pledging to lower hyperinflation with free-market economics. When Collor faced impeachment by Congress because of a corruption scandal in Dec. 1992 and resigned, Vice President Itamar Franco assumed the presidency.

A former finance minister, Fernando Cardoso, won the presidency in the Oct. 1994 election with 54% of the vote. Cardoso sold off inefficient government-owned monopolies in the telecommunications, electrical power, port, mining, railway, and banking industries.

In Jan. 1999, the Asian economic crisis spread to Brazil. Rather than prop up the currency through financial markets, Brazil opted to let the currency float, which sent the real plummeting—at one time as much as 40%. Cardoso was highly praised by the international community for quickly turning around his country's economic crisis. Despite his efforts, however, the economy remained sluggish throughout 2001, and the country also faced an energy crisis. The IMF offered Brazil an additional aid package in Aug. 2001. And in Aug. 2002, to ensure that Brazil would not be dragged down by neighboring Argentina's catastrophic economic problems, the IMF agreed to lend Brazil a phenomenal \$30 billion over fifteen months.

Brazil Elects Its First Woman President

In Oct. 2010's second round of presidential elections, Dilma Rousseff, an acolyte of Lula and his former chief of

staff, defeated José Serra 56% to 44% to become the country's first woman president. Because of term limits, Lula could not run for a third consecutive term. Rousseff is expected to follow through with Lula's agenda, but faces the task of improving the country's education, health, and sanitation systems. The vote was seen as an endorsement of Lula and his social and economic policies.

9.8 The Amazon Rainforest and River

The Amazon rainforest is the largest tropical rainforest in the world, covering over five and a half a million square kilometres (1.4 billion acres).

- Over half of the Amazon rainforest is located in Brazil but it is also located in other South American countries including Peru, Venezuela, Ecuador, Colombia, Guyana, Bolivia, Suriname and French Guiana.
- 10% of the world's known species live in the Amazon rainforest.
- 20% of the world's bird species live in the Amazon rainforest.
- It is home to around 2 and a half million different insect species as well as over 40000 plant species.
- There are also a number of dangerous species living in the Amazon rainforest such as the cougar, jaguar and anaconda.
- While the protection of the Amazon rainforest remains an issue, deforestation rates have been reducing while areas of conserved land have been increasing over the last 10 years.
- In both 2005 and 2010 the Amazon rainforest suffered severe droughts that killed off large amounts of vegetation in the worst affected areas.
- A recent study by climate change experts suggests that a 3 °C rise in world temperatures by the year 2010 would destroy around 75% of the Amazon.

The Wealth of the Rainforests

The Amazon Rainforest covers over a billion acres, encompassing areas in Brazil, Venezuela, Colombia and the Eastern Andean region of Ecuador and Peru. If Amazonia were a country, it would be the ninth largest in the world.

The Amazon Rainforest has been described as the "**Lungs of our Planet**" because it provides the essential environmental world service of continuously recycling carbon dioxide into oxygen. More than 20 percent of the world oxygen is produced in the Amazon Rainforest.

More than half of the world's estimated 10 million species of plants, animals and insects live in the tropical rainforests. One-fifth of the world's fresh water is in the Amazon Basin.

One hectare (2.47 acres) may contain over 750 types of trees and 1500 species of higher plants.

At least 80% of the developed world's diet originated in the tropical rainforest. Its bountiful gifts to the world include fruits like avocados, coconuts, figs, oranges, lemons, grapefruit, bananas, guavas, pineapples, mangos and tomatoes; vegetables including corn, potatoes, rice, winter squash and yams; spices like black pepper, cayenne, chocolate, cinnamon, cloves, ginger, sugar cane, tumeric, coffee and vanilla and nuts including Brazil nuts and cashews.

At least 3000 fruits are found in the rainforests; of these only 200 are now in use in the Western World. The Indians of the rainforest use over 2,000.

Rainforest plants are rich in secondary metabolites, particularly alkaloids. Biochemists believe alkaloids protect plants from disease and insect attacks. Many alkaloids from higher plants have proven to be of medicinal value and benefit.

Currently, 121 prescription drugs currently sold worldwide come from plant-derived sources. And while 25% of Western pharmaceuticals are derived from rainforest ingredients, less than 1% of these tropical trees and plants have been tested by scientists.

The U.S. National Cancer Institute has identified 3000 plants that are active against cancer cells. 70% of these plants are found in the rainforest. Twenty-five percent of the active ingredients in today's cancer-fighting drugs come from

organisms found only in the rainforest.

Vincristine, extracted from the rainforest plant, periwinkle, is one of the world's most powerful anticancer drugs. It has dramatically increased the survival rate for acute childhood leukemia since its discovery.

In 1983, there were no U.S. pharmaceutical manufacturers involved in research programs to discover new drugs or cures from plants. Today, over 100 pharmaceutical companies and several branches of the US government, including giants like Merck and The National Cancer Institute, are engaged in plant research projects for possible drugs and cures for viruses, infections, cancer, and even AIDS.

The Amazon River in South America is an amazing and important river for the planet and therefore, you need to know about it. Here are the eight most important things you need to know about the Amazon River:

1. The Amazon River carries more water than any other river in the world. In fact, the Amazon River is responsible for about one-fifth (twenty percent) of the fresh water that flows into the world's oceans.
2. The Amazon River is the second longest river in the world (the Nile River in Africa is the longest) and is about 4,000 miles (6400 km) long. (In July 2007 a group of scientists reportedly determined that the Amazon River might just be the longest river in the world, taking that title from the Nile River. It will take further studies to substantiate the claim and for the Amazon River to be recognized as the longest.)
3. The Amazon River has the largest watershed (area of land that flows into the river) and more tributaries (streams that flow into it) than any other river in the world. The Amazon River has more than 200 tributaries.
4. Streams that begin in the Andes Mountains are the starting sources for the Amazon River.
5. Most of the runoff of Brazil flows into the Amazon River along with runoff from four other countries: Peru, Bolivia, Colombia, and Ecuador.
6. Due to the vast amount of water as well as sediment that are deposited where the Amazon River meets the Atlantic Ocean, the color and salinity of the Atlantic Ocean are modified for nearly 200 miles (320 km) from the delta.
7. The Amazon River can be as much as one to six miles wide! During flood seasons, the Amazon River can be much, much wider; some report it is more than 20 miles wide (32 km) in certain places.
8. The Amazon River taken different routes since it began to carry water. Some scientists have determined that the Amazon River even flowed west at one time or more, into the Pacific Ocean.



FIGURE 9.12



FIGURE 9.13



FIGURE 9.14



FIGURE 9.15

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9.9 Argentina: Facts and Figures

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FIGURE 9.16

TABLE 9.2:

President: Cristina Fernández de Kirchner (2007)

Land area: 1,056,636 sq mi (2,736,690 sq km); **total area:** 1,068,296 sq mi (2,766,890 sq km)

Population (2014 est.): 43,024,374 (growth rate: .95%); birth rate: 16.88/1000; infant mortality rate: 9.962/1000; life expectancy: 77.51

Capital and largest city (2011 est.): Buenos Aires, 13.528 million

Other large cities: Córdoba, 1.556 million; Rosario 1.283 million; Mendoza 957,000; San Miguel de Tucuman 868,000; La Plata 759,000 (2011)



FIGURE 9.17

Monetary unit: Peso

en

9.10 Argentina: Geography and People

Geography

Second in South America only to Brazil in size and population, Argentina is a plain, rising from the Atlantic to the Chilean border and the towering Andes peaks. Aconcagua (22,834 ft, 6,960 m) is the highest peak in the world outside Asia. Argentina is also bordered by Bolivia and Paraguay on the north, and by Uruguay and Brazil on the east. The northern area is the swampy and partly wooded Gran Chaco, bordering Bolivia and Paraguay. South of that are the rolling, fertile Pampas, which are rich in agriculture and sheep- and cattle-grazing and support most of the population. Further south is Patagonia, a region of cool, arid steppes with some wooded and fertile sections.

Government

Republic.

History

First explored in 1516 by Juan Diaz de Solis, Argentina developed slowly under Spanish colonial rule.

Buenos Aires was settled in 1580; **the cattle industry was thriving as early as 1600.** Invading British forces were expelled in 1806-1807, and after Napoleon conquered Spain (1808), the Argentinians set up their own government in 1810. On July 9, 1816, independence was formally declared.

As it had in World War I, Argentina proclaimed neutrality at the outbreak of World War II, but in the closing phase declared war on the Axis powers on **March 27, 1945. Juan D. Peron, an army colonel**, emerged as the strongman of the postwar era, winning the presidential elections of 1946 and 1951. Peron's political strength was reinforced by his second wife—**Eva Duarte de Peron (Evita)—and her popularity with the working classes.** Although she never held a government post, **Evita** acted as de facto minister of health and labor, establishing a national charitable organization, and awarding generous wage increases to the unions, who responded with political support for Peron. Opposition to Peron's increasing authoritarianism led to a coup by the armed forces, which sent Peron into exile in 1955, three years after Evita's death. **Argentina entered a long period of military dictatorships with brief intervals of constitutional government.**

The former dictator returned to power in 1973 and his third wife, Isabel Martinez de Peron, was elected vice president. After her husband's death in 1974, Peron became the hemisphere's first woman chief of state, assuming control of a nation teetering on economic and political collapse. In 1975, terrorist acts by left- and right-wing groups killed some 700 people. The cost of living rose 355%, and strikes and demonstrations were constant. **On March 24, 1976, a military junta led by army commander Lt. Gen. Jorge Rafael Videla seized power and imposed martial law.**

9.11 Argentina: The Dirty War

The Dirty War Begins

The military began the "dirty war" to restore order and eradicate its opponents. The Argentine Commission for Human Rights, in Geneva, has charged the junta with 2,300 political murders, over 10,000 political arrests, and the disappearance of 20,000 to 30,000 people. The economy remained in chaos. In March 1981, Videla was deposed by Field Marshal Roberto Viola, who in turn was succeeded by Lt. Gen. Leopoldo Galtieri.

On April 2, 1982, Galtieri invaded the British-held Falkland Islands, known as Las Islas Malvinas in Spanish, in what was seen as an attempt to increase his popularity. Great Britain, however, won a decisive victory, and Galtieri resigned in disgrace three days after Argentina's surrender. Maj. Gen. Reynaldo Bignone took over June 14, amid increasing pro-democratic public sentiment. As the 1983 elections approached, inflation hit 900% and Argentina's crippling foreign debt reached unprecedented levels.

In the presidential election of Oct. 1983, Raul Alfonsín, leader of the Radical Civic Union, handed the Peronist Party its first defeat since its founding. Growing unemployment and quadruple-digit inflation, however, led to a Peronist victory in the elections of May 1989. Alfonsín resigned a month later in the wake of riots over high food prices, in favor of the new Peronist president, Carlos Menem. In 1991, Menem promoted economic austerity measures that deregulated businesses and privatized state-owned industries. But beginning in Sept. 1998, eight years into Menem's two-term presidency, Argentina entered its worst recession in a decade. Menem's economic policies, tolerance of corruption, and pardoning of military leaders involved in the dirty war eventually lost him the support of the poor and the working class who had elected him.

Dirty War Criminals Put on Trial

In Dec. 1999, Fernando de la Rúa became president. Despite the introduction of several tough economic austerity plans, by 2001 the recession had slid into its third year. The IMF gave Argentina \$13.7 billion in emergency aid in Jan. 2001 and \$8 billion in Aug. 2001. The international help was not enough, however, and by the end of 2001, Argentina was on the verge of economic collapse. Rioters protesting government austerity measures forced De la Rúa to resign in Dec. 2001. Argentina then defaulted on its \$155 billion foreign debt payments, the largest such default in history.

After more instability, Congress named Eduardo Duhalde president on Jan. 1, 2002. Duhalde soon announced an economic plan devaluing the Argentine peso, which had been pegged to the dollar for a decade. The devaluation plunged the banking industry into crisis and wiped out much of the savings of the middle class, plunging millions of Argentinians into poverty.

In July 2002, former junta leader Galtieri and 42 other military officers were arrested and charged with the torture and execution of 22 leftist guerrillas during Argentina's 7-year military dictatorship. In recent years, judges have found legal loopholes allowing them to circumvent the blanket amnesty laws passed in 1986 and 1987, which allowed many accused of atrocities during the dirty war to walk free. In June 2005, the Supreme Court ruled that these amnesty laws were unconstitutional and in 2006, numerous military and police officials went on trial.

Economy on the Rebound

Peronist Néstor Kirchner, the former governor of Santa Cruz, became Argentina's president in May 2003, after former president Carlos Menem abandoned the race. Kirchner vowed to aggressively reform the courts, police, and armed services and to prosecute perpetrators of the dirty war. Argentina's economy has been rebounding since its near collapse in 2001, with an impressive growth rate of about 8% since Kirchner took office. In March 2005, Kirchner announced that the country's debt had been successfully restructured. In Jan. 2006, Argentina paid off its remaining multi-million IMF debt early, a dramatic move that not all economists thought was beneficial.

In October 2007, First Lady Cristina Fernández de Kirchner was elected president, taking 45% of the vote. Elisa Carrió, a congresswoman, placed second, with 23%.

On December 10, 2007, Cristina Fernández de Kirchner took over the presidency from her husband, Néstor Kirchner, in a ceremony at Argentina's Congress. She kept many of her husband's ministers, but implied that she would introduce changes to the country during presidency. Fernandez said she will create a new ministry for science and technology to boost innovation, and stated that she would make "necessary corrections" to help the inflation problem in Argentina. Although she is as much a nationalist as her husband and refuses to get involved with the IMF, Fernández has shown interest in forging closer ties with the United States, Europe, and Brazil.



FIGURE 9.18



FIGURE 9.19

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FIGURE 9.20

9.12 Chile: Facts and Figures

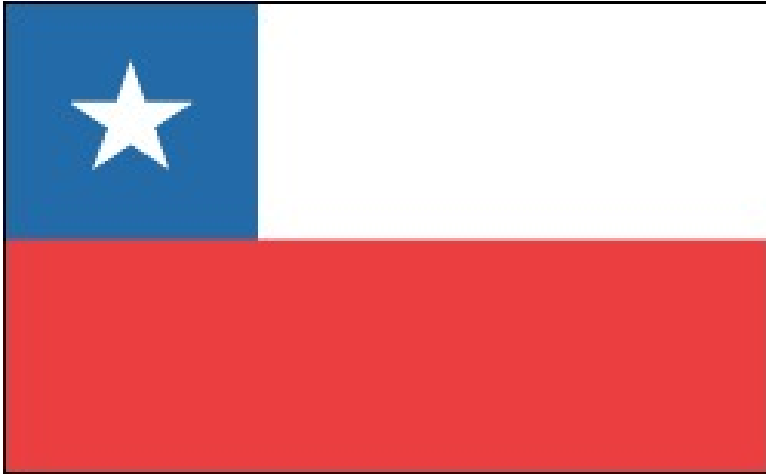


FIGURE 9.21

TABLE 9.3:

President: Michelle Bachelet (2014)

Land area: 289,112 sq mi (748,800 sq km); **total area:** 292,260 sq mi (756,950 sq km)

Population (2014 est.): 17,363,894 (growth rate: 0.84%); birth rate: 13.97/1000; infant mortality rate: 7.02/1000; life expectancy: 78.44

Capital and largest city (2011 est.): Santiago, 6.034 million

Other large cities: Valparaiso 883,000; Concepcion 770,000 (2011)

Monetary unit: Chilean Peso



FIGURE 9.22

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9.13 Chile: Geography and People

Geography

Situated south of Peru and west of Bolivia and Argentina, Chile fills a narrow 2,880-mi (4,506 km) strip between the Andes and the Pacific. One-third of Chile is covered by the towering ranges of the Andes. In the north is the driest place on Earth, the Atacama Desert, and in the center is a 700-mile-long (1,127 km) thickly populated valley with most of Chile's arable land. At the southern tip of Chile's mainland is Punta Arenas, the southernmost city in the world, and beyond that lies the Strait of Magellan and Tierra del Fuego, an island divided between Chile and Argentina. The southernmost point of South America is Cape Horn, a 1,390-foot (424 m) rock on Horn Island in the Wollaston group, which belongs to Chile. Chile also claims sovereignty over 482,628 sq mi (1,250,000 sq km) of Antarctic territory; the Juan Fernández Islands, about 400 mi (644 km) west of the mainland; and Easter Island, about 2,000 mi (3,219 km) west.

Government

Republic.

History

Chile was originally under the control of the Incas in the north and the nomadic Araucanos in the south. In 1541, a Spaniard, Pedro de Valdivia, founded Santiago. Chile won its independence from Spain in 1818 under Bernardo O'Higgins and an Argentinian, José de San Martín. O'Higgins, dictator until 1823, laid the foundations of the modern state with a two-party system and a centralized government.

The dictator from 1830 to 1837, Diego Portales, fought a war with Peru from 1836—1839 that expanded Chilean territory. Chile fought the War of the Pacific with Peru and Bolivia from 1879 to 1883, winning Antofagasta, Bolivia's only outlet to the sea, and extensive areas from Peru. Pedro Montt led a revolt that overthrew José Balmaceda in 1891 and established a parliamentary dictatorship lasting until a new constitution was adopted in 1925. Industrialization began before World War I and led to the formation of Marxist groups. Juan Antonio Ríos, president during World War II, was originally pro-Nazi but in 1944 led his country into the war on the side of the Allies.

In 1970, Salvador Allende became the first president in a non-Communist country freely elected on a Marxist program. Allende quickly established relations with Cuba and the People's Republic of China, introduced Marxist economic and social reforms, and nationalized many private companies, including U.S.-owned ones. In Sept. 1973, Allende was overthrown and killed in a military coup covertly sponsored by the CIA, ending a 46-year era of constitutional government in Chile.

President Pinochet Presides Over a Ruthless Regime

The coup was led by a four-man junta headed by Army Chief of Staff Augusto Pinochet, who eventually assumed the office of president. Committed to eliminating Marxism the junta suspended parliament, banned political activity, and severely curbed civil liberties. Pinochet's brutal dictatorship led to the imprisonment, torture, disappearances, execution, and expulsion of thousands of Chileans. A government report in 2004 indicated that almost 28,000 people had been tortured during his rule, and at least 3,200 murders and disappearances had taken place.

The economy, in tatters under Allende's Socialist revolution, gradually improved after Chile's return to privatization under Pinochet. In 1989, Pinochet lost a plebiscite on whether he should remain in power. He stepped down in Jan. 1990 in favor of Patricio Aylwin. In Dec. 1993, Eduardo Frei Ruiz-Tagle, the candidate of a center-left coalition and son of a previous president, was elected president.

Pinochet, who had retained his post as army commander in chief after the 1989 plebiscite, retired in March 1998. In Oct. 1998, he was arrested and detained in England on an extradition request issued by a Spanish judge who sought

Pinochet in connection with the disappearances of Spanish citizens during his rule. British courts ultimately denied his extradition, and Pinochet returned to Chile in March 2000. He died in Dec. 2006 at age 91, before facing trial for the abuses of his 17-year dictatorship.

Fate of Trapped Miners Rivets the Nation

On Aug. 5, 2010, a tunnel collapsed at the San José mine, trapping 33 miners 2,000 feet below ground. Remarkably all of the miners survived. Rescuers drilled a small borehole to provide the miners with food, lights, and liquids and to allow them to send notes to and from family members as they wait to be rescued. The miners have become national heroes throughout Chile. They were rescued in mid-October, weeks earlier than planned, lifted to safety one by one in a rescue capsule. Each of the miners emerged jubilant and in overall good health considering the ordeal.

Plan for Hydroelectric Dams Causes Outrage

Immediately following the successful rescue of 33 miners in 2010, Chilean President Sebastián Piñera had an approval rating of 63 percent. By June 2011; however, Piñera had a disapproval rating of 56%, the highest of any Chilean president since democracy returned to the country in 1990. The main reason for the approval rating nosedive was Piñera's support for the Hidroaysén electricity project, a plan to build five dams on two rivers and flood over 14,000 acres of nature reserves in the Patagonia region.

A government environmental commission approved the \$3.2 billion Hidroaysén project in May 2011, prompting a country-wide protest movement. The protests caused injuries to 28 police officers and over one hundred thousand dollars in property damage. One protest in early June involved 30,000 demonstrators marching to the presidential palace, with some protestors throwing stones and pieces of wood at police vehicles. The police fired back with water cannons. Since the commission's decision, the focus has turned to the yet to be approved transmission line for the project. Patagonia, considered by Chileans to be a national treasure with its breathtaking glaciers and lakes, attracts thousands of tourists each year.

Chilean Youth Call for Reform

Throughout 2011, partly inspired by the Arab Spring, activists continued to protest and started a movement which came to be known as the Chilean Winter. On August 4, 2011, some protestors set up barricades around Santiago, the nation's capital, while others banged on pots and pans. Police used tear gas and water cannons to disperse hundreds of high school and college students. About 900 demonstrators were arrested. Also in August, nearly three dozen university and high school students went on a hunger strike to show their disapproval of President Piñera's government. These education protests have taken over several schools, forcing some to stop classes. Students organized rallies which were attended by 100,000 people. The protestors were demanding a more accessible and affordable university system as well as higher quality and equal funding for elementary and middle schools.

In October 2011, student representatives attempted to negotiate with government representatives led by Felipe Bulnes, the education minister. However, the students withdrew from the negotiations, reporting that Bulnes attacked a student representative, David Urrea. Bulnes reportedly accused Urrea of trying to break up the negotiations. A spokesperson for the government blamed extremists within the student movement for the breakdown of negotiations. Bulnes was replaced by Harald Beyer as education minister two months later.

Although the student protestors did not get all their demands met, they did influence a huge drop in President Piñera's approval rating. As of January 2012, Piñera's approval rating hovered around 26–30%.

Augusto Pinochet

Augusto Pinochet: Murderer or Savior?

Augusto Pinochet was a career army officer and military dictator of Chile from 1973 to 1990. His years in power were marked by inflation, poverty and the ruthless repression of opposition leaders. Pinochet was also involved in Operation Condor, a co-operative effort on the part of several South American governments to do away with leftist



FIGURE 9.23

opposition leaders, often by means of murder.

Several years after stepping down, he was charged with several war crimes relating to his time as [President](#) , but he died in 2006 before he could be convicted of anything.

Pinochet's Early Life:

Augusto José Ramón Pinochet Ugarte was born on November 25, 1915 in Valparaíso, Chile, to descendants of French settlers who had come to Chile more than a century before. He was the eldest of six children, his father a middle-class government worker. He entered military school when he turned 18, and graduated as a Sub-Lieutenant in four years.

Military Career:

Pinochet rose quickly in rank, in spite of the fact that Chile was not at war. In fact, Pinochet never saw any action in combat during his entire military career: the closest he would come was as commander of a detention camp for Chilean communists. Pinochet became an intellectual, lecturing at the War Academy for periods of time and authoring five different books on politics and warfare. By 1968 he had been promoted to Brigadier General.

Pinochet and Allende:

In 1948, Pinochet met Salvador Allende, a young Chilean senator. A socialist, Allende had come to visit the

concentration camp run by Pinochet where many Chilean communists were held. In 1970, Allende was elected president, and he promoted Pinochet to commander of the Santiago garrison. Over the next three years, Pinochet proved invaluable to Allende, helping put down opposition to Allende's economic policies, which were devastating the nation's economy. Allende promoted Pinochet to commander-in-chief of all Chilean armed forces on August 23, 1973.

The Coup of 1973:

Allende was wrong to trust Pinochet. With the people in the streets and the economy in shambles, the military made a move to take over the government. On September 11, 1973, less than 20 days after he was made commander-in-chief of the army, Pinochet ordered his troops to take Santiago and ordered an air strike on the presidential palace. Allende died defending the palace, and **Pinochet was made part of a four-man ruling junta** led by the commanders of the army, air force, police and navy. **Later he would seize absolute power for himself.**

Operation Condor:

Pinochet and Chile were heavily involved in Operation Condor, which was a collaborative effort among the governments of Chile, Argentina, Brazil, Bolivia, Paraguay and Uruguay to control leftist dissidents such as the [MIR](#) and the [Tupamaros](#) . It consisted of a series of kidnappings, disappearances and assassinations of prominent opponents of the right-wing regimes in the listed countries. The Chilean DINA (Dirección de Inteligencia Nacional), a secret police force, was one of the driving forces of Operation Condor. It is unknown how many people were killed, but most estimates range well into the thousands.

The Economy Under Pinochet:

Pinochet's team of US-educated economists, known as "the Chicago Boys," advocated lower taxes, the selling off of state-run businesses and encouraging foreign investment. These reforms led to a sustained growth, prompting the phrase "The Miracle of Chile." However, these reforms also led to a decline in wages and a spike in unemployment.

Pinochet Steps Down:

In 1988, a nationwide referendum on Pinochet resulted in a majority of the people voting to deny him another term as president. Elections were therefore held in 1989, and the opposition candidate won, although Pinochet's supporters continued to hold enough influence in the Chilean Parliament to block many new reforms. Pinochet stepped down as President in 1990, although as an ex-President he remained a Senator-for-life and kept his position as commander-in-chief of the armed forces.

Legal Troubles:

Pinochet may have been out of the limelight, but the victims of Operation Condor did not forget about him. In October of 1998, he was visiting the United Kingdom for medical reasons. Seizing upon his presence in a country with extradition, his opponents brought charges against him in a Spanish court. He was charged with several counts of murder, torture and unlawful kidnapping. The charges were dismissed in 2002, on the grounds that Pinochet, by then in his late 70's, was unfit to stand trial. Further charges were brought in 2006, but Pinochet died before they could proceed.

Legacy:

Many Chileans are divided on the topic of their former dictator. Some see him as a savior, who "rescued" them from the socialism of Allende and who did what had to be done in a turbulent time to prevent anarchy and communism. They point to the growth of the economy under Pinochet and claim that he was a patriot who loved his country. Others say he was a ruthless despot who was directly responsible for thousands of murders, most for no more than thought crimes. They believe that his economic success is not all it seems, as unemployment was high and wages were low during his rule.

Whether you love him or hate him, it is undeniable that Pinochet was one of the most important figures of the twentieth century in South America. His involvement in Operation Condor made him the poster boy for violent dictatorship, and his actions led many in his country to never trust their government again. Later in life, the fact that human rights charges were brought against him shows clearly that times are changing in the world: **tomorrow's**

dictators may tread more lightly, knowing that they will be held accountable for their actions in international courts.



FIGURE 9.24

CHAPTER 10**Europe****Chapter Outline**

- 10.1 THE GEOGRAPHY OF EUROPE**
 - 10.2 EUROPE: THE PEOPLE HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT**
 - 10.3 EUROPE: IDEAS AND INDUSTRY: THE AGE OF REVOLUTIONS**
 - 10.4 EUROPE: EXPLORATION**
 - 10.5 EUROPE: THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION**
 - 10.6 EUROPE: THE CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I**
 - 10.7 EUROPE: WWI WESTERN FRONT AND TRENCH WARFARE!**
 - 10.8 EUROPE: THE RESULTS OF WWI**
 - 10.9 EUROPE: WORLD WAR TWO BEGINS**
 - 10.10 EUROPE: WWII: GENOCIDE, THE HOLOCAUST & THE FINAL SOLUTION**
 - 10.11 EUROPE: RESULTS OF WORLD WAR II: THE COLD WAR**
 - 10.12 EUROPE: THE EUROPEAN UNION**
 - 10.13 EMPIRE AND ETHNICITY: RUSSIA AND EURASIAN REPUBLICS: GEOGRAPHY**
-

10.1 The Geography of Europe



FIGURE 10.1



FIGURE 10.2

TEKS 6.1A, 6.1B, 6.2B, 6.3A, 6.3C, 6.4C, 6.4D, 6.4E, 6.4F, 6.5A, 6.5B, 6.8A, 6.9A, 6.10A, 6.10B, 6.12B, 6.15C, 6.15D, 6.15F, 6.17D, 6.18A, 6.18D, 6.21A, 6.21B, 6.21D, 6.22B, 6.22D, 6.22E

Chapter 5 Europe and Democracy

Section 1

Geography

Political maps are designed to show governmental boundaries of countries, states and counties. They can also indicate the location of major cities, and they usually include significant bodies of water.

Physical maps often include much of the same data found on a political map, but their primary purpose is to show landforms like deserts, mountains and plains.

Physical Geography

The huge Alpine mountain chain, of which the Pyrenees, the Alps, the Carpathians, the Balkans, and the Caucasus are the principal links, traverses the continent from west to east. Between the mountainous Scandinavian peninsula in the north and the Alpine chain in the south lie the Central European Uplands surrounded by the great European plain, stretching from the Atlantic coast of France to the Urals.

A large part of this plain (which is interrupted by minor mountain groups and hills) has fertile agricultural soil; in the east and north there are vast steppe, forest, lake, and tundra regions. South of the Alpine chain extend the Iberian, Italian, and Balkan peninsulas, which are largely mountainous. The Po plain, between the Alps and the Apennines, and the Alföld plain, between the Carpathians and the Alps, are fertile and much-developed regions. Among the chief river systems of Europe are, from east to west, those of the Volga, the Don, the Dnieper, the Danube, the Vistula, the Oder, the Elbe, the Rhine, the Rhône, the Loire, the Garonne, and the Tagus.

Climate

The climate of Europe varies from subtropical to polar. The Mediterranean climate of the south is dry and warm. The western and northwestern parts have a mild, generally humid climate, influenced by the North Atlantic Drift. In central and eastern Europe the climate is of the humid continental-type with cool summers. In the northeast subarctic and tundra climates are found. All of Europe is subject to the moderating influence of prevailing westerly winds from the Atlantic Ocean and, consequently, its climates are found at higher latitudes than similar climates on other continents.

Regions

Europe can be divided into seven geographic regions: Scandinavia (Iceland, Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Denmark); the British Isles (the United Kingdom and Ireland); W Europe (France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Monaco); S Europe (Portugal, Spain, Andorra, Italy, Malta, San Marino, and Vatican City); Central Europe (Germany, Switzerland, Liechtenstein, Austria, Poland, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Hungary); SE Europe (Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Montenegro, Albania, Macedonia, Romania, Bulgaria, Greece, and the European part of Turkey); and E Europe (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Belarus, Ukraine, Moldova, the European portion of Russia, and by convention the Transcaucasian countries of Georgia, Armenia, and Azerbaijan).

Of Europe's approximately 50 countries, Russia is the largest by both area and population, taking up 40% of the continent (spanning both Europe and Asia), while Vatican City is the smallest (home of the pope). Today, thanks to the common market, the most commonly used currency is the euro.

10.2 Europe: The People History and Government

Section 2



FIGURE 10.3

Democracy

Greece

Democracy means the rule of the people (in Greek). That is where each individual person has a vote about what to do. Whatever the most people vote for wins. One problem that immediately comes up in a democracy is who is going to be able to vote. Should people vote who are just visiting from some other city-state? How about little kids, should they vote? Or should there be some limits?

The earliest democracy in the world began in Athens, in 510 BC. When democracy proved to be successful in Athens, it became very popular throughout the region, and many other city-states chose it for their government too. But most of them allowed even

fewer people to vote than Athens did: most of the other city-states only allowed free adult male citizens to vote IF they owned land or owned their own houses (that is, the richer people).

Another problem for democracies was that it was very inconvenient for men to always be going to the meeting-place to vote. Most men had work to do, planting their grain, making, fighting wars or whatever. They couldn't be always voting. Imagine your parents had to leave for Washington D.C. every time a decision had to be made. So most democracies sooner or later ended up choosing a few men who would do most of the voting, and the rest only came when there was a really important vote. It was hard to decide how to choose these few men, and different cultures did it different ways. Athens did it by a lottery. If you got the winning ticket then you were on the Council of 500. Men served for a year.

Democracy spread around the Mediterranean, but it was pretty much wiped out by the Roman Empire about 100 BC. Still, places like Athens continued to use democratic methods to make their own decisions on local matters for a long time after that. Today the United States is called a democratic republic because everyone over 18 has the responsibility of voting but they vote for a candidate, who later will represent them in the Capitol. This form of government is known as representative democracy.

Roman Republic

Ancient Rome experienced three different types of government:

- * Monarchy
- * Republic
- * Empire

While the myth of Rome's origins involve Romulus killing his twin brother Remus to rule Rome and name it after himself, we know that the area was ruled by the Etruscans in the seventh century B.C. This means that Rome was under the power of a monarchy or king in its earliest period, which is a system of government that has one ruler. Evidence points to seven different kings ruling Rome at this time. This is a form of unlimited government or government in which one ruler has total power and is generally supported by the military to maintain order.

However, sometime around 509 B.C., the citizens of Rome gained control from the Etruscans and established the Roman Republic. In a republic, the city or country becomes "public" and is no longer property owned or ruled by one person. Officials are elected, and the people all share the leadership. Today in the United States we have a democratic republic. After 18, we vote for a candidate to make decisions for us.

The Roman Republic, in many ways, set the standard for the future of many countries. The people began to elect magistrates, who shared power and represented the citizens of Rome. Two of the magistrates were known as consuls. The consuls had the most power and decided when to add new laws and when to go to war.

Consuls had to work closely with the Roman Senate when making decisions. The Senate consisted of men from wealthier families, and many senators held the position for life. The Senate itself began as advisors to the consuls but gained power steadily throughout the years of the Republic.

10.3 Europe: Ideas and Industry: The Age of Revolutions

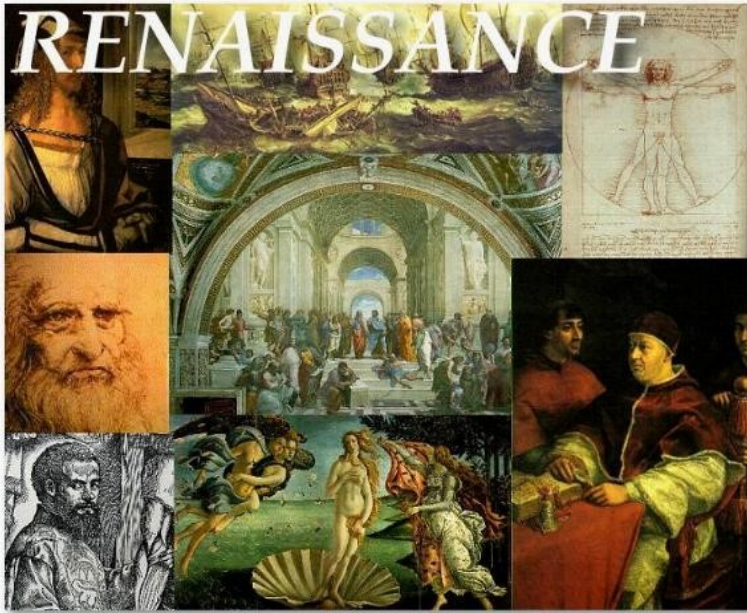


FIGURE 10.4

Ideas and Industry

Section 1

The Renaissance occurred from the early 14th century to the late 16th century. The invention of the Gutenberg printing press in 1450 is a milestone which marks the beginning of the Renaissance. Ideas were able to be spread quicker and farther because of the printing press. It allowed communication to occur through all of Europe.

The Renaissance was a time of great beauty and art. Artists like Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo created great works of art during this time. Writers like William Shakespeare were producing their own masterpieces. There were changes in thinking during Renaissance. New ideas in art, science, astronomy, religion, literature, mathematics, philosophy, and politics were developed and advanced.

The influence of the Renaissance impacted and shaped the future. The changes that happened led to a modern era. The Catholic Church lost much of its power during this period. New religions and ways of thinking were being discussed. Martin Luther had broken away from the Catholic Church and was spreading the Protestant religion throughout Europe.

Michelangelo's *The Creation of Adam* on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in Rome is one.

Key Points

- * It was also a time of creativity, imagination and curiosity. The Renaissance was the age of exploration.
- * The word 'renaissance' is a French word which means 'rebirth'. The people credited with beginning the Renaissance were trying to recreate the classical models of Ancient Greek and Rome.
- * The Renaissance was a time when Venice was the world's busiest seaport and Florence was the heart of great art and commerce.



FIGURE 10.5

* At the beginning of the Renaissance, Italy was the center of world culture. Genoa, Milan, Venice, Rome, Verona and Florence were economic, trade and financial leaders for Europe.

10.4 Europe: Exploration

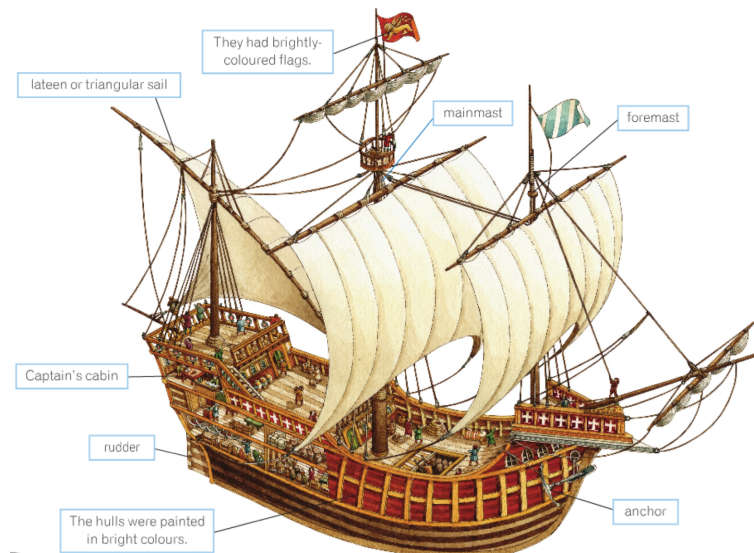


FIGURE 10.6

The Age of Exploration or Age of Discovery as it is sometimes called, officially began in the early 15th century and lasted until the 17th century. It is known as a time when Europeans began exploring the world by sea in search of trading partners, new goods, and new trade routes. In addition, some explorers set sail to simply learn more about the world. The information gained during the Age of Exploration ushered in the modern age and led to great progress.

Reasons for Exploration and Key Voyages

Though the desire to simply explore the unknown and discover new knowledge is a typical human trait, the world's famous explorers often lacked the funding needed for a ship, supplies, and a crew to get underway on their journeys. As a result, many turned to their respective governments which had their own desires for the exploration of new areas.

Earlier sailors relied on portolan charts which are maps created for navigators based off of land features. Because these charts relied on the ability to see land, the voyages prior to those conducted by Prince Henry stayed along the coastlines.

In challenging this form of navigation, the Portuguese sailed out of sight of land and discovered the Madeira Islands in 1419 and the Azores in 1427. The main goal for the Portuguese voyages though was to discover a trade route to West Africa without having to go through the Sahara Desert. By the mid-1400s, this goal was realized and a trading port was established at Elmina in West Africa.

Also during the Age of Discovery were the famed voyages of Christopher Columbus. These voyages led to the Columbian Exchange and were an attempt to establish a trade route to Asia by sailing west. Instead, he reached America in 1492 and shared information on this newly found land with Spain and the rest of Europe. This would lead to a convergence of culture which would change the world forever. Shortly thereafter, the Portuguese explorer Pedro Alvares Cabral explored Brazil, setting off a conflict between Spain and Portugal in terms of the newly claimed lands. As a result, the Treaty of Tordesillas officially divided the world in half in 1494. This helped avoid war between Spain and Portugal over their new found conquests.

Another important voyage that took place was during the Age of Exploration was Ferdinand Magellan's attempted circumnavigation of the globe.

Many nations were looking for goods such as silver and gold but one of the biggest reasons for exploration was the desire to find a new route for the spice and silk trades. When the Ottoman Empire took control of Constantinople in 1453, it blocked European access to the area, severely limiting trade. In addition, it also blocked access to North Africa and the Red Sea – two very important trade routes to the Far East.

The first of the journeys associated with the Age of Discovery were conducted by the Portuguese under Prince Henry the Navigator. These voyages were different than those previously conducted by the Portuguese because they covered a much larger area.

The End of the Age of Exploration

The Age of Exploration ended in the early 17th century after technological advancements and increased knowledge of the world allowed Europeans to travel easily across the globe by sea. In addition, the creation of settlements along the coasts of the newly found areas created a network of communication and trade, therefore ending the need to search for trade routes.

Though the Age of Exploration officially ended in the 17th century, it is important to note however that the exploration did not cease entirely at this time. Eastern Australia was not discovered until 1770 and the Arctic and Antarctic areas were not heavily explored until the 19th century. Much of Africa also was also unexplored until the 19th and even early 20th centuries during the period of colonialism.

10.5 Europe: The Industrial Revolution

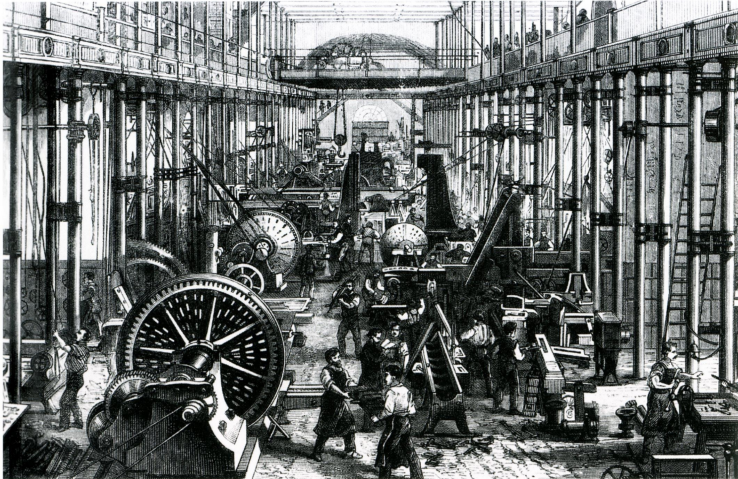


FIGURE 10.7

The Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution, which took place from the 18th to 19th centuries, was a period during which predominantly agrarian, rural societies in Europe and America became industrial and urban. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, which began in Britain in the late 1700s, people worked from home, using hand tools or basic machines. Industrialization marked a shift to powered, special-purpose machinery, factories and mass production. The iron and textile industries, along with the development of the steam engine, played central roles in the Industrial Revolution, which also saw improved systems of transportation, communication and banking. Industrialization seemed to be a "double edge sword" while it brought about an increased in manufactured goods and an improved standard of living for some, it also resulted in often horrible employment and living conditions for the poor and working classes.

Before the advent of the Industrial Revolution, most people resided in small, rural communities where their daily existences revolved around farming. Life for the average person was difficult, as incomes were low, and malnourishment and disease were common. People produced the bulk of their own food, clothing, furniture and tools. Most manufacturing was done in homes or small, rural shops, using hand tools or simple machines.

Britain became one the birthplace of the industrial revolution due to factors such as it had great deposits of coal and iron ore, which proved essential for industrialization. Additionally, Britain was a politically stable society, as well as the world's leading colonial power, which meant its colonies could serve as a source for raw materials, as well as a marketplace for manufactured goods. It was said that "The sun never sets on the British empire," due to Britain's vast colonial holding around the globe. As demand for British goods increased, merchants needed more cost-effective methods of production, which led to the rise of mechanization and the factory system. It became faster and cheaper to produce goods.

Innovation and Industrialization

The textile industry, in particular, was transformed by industrialization. Before mechanization and factories, textiles were made mainly in people's homes (giving rise to the term cottage industry), with merchants often providing the raw materials and basic equipment, and then picking up the finished product. Workers set their own schedules under this system, which proved difficult for merchants to regulate and resulted in numerous inefficiencies. By the 1700s, a series of innovations led to ever-rising productivity, while requiring less human energy. For example, around 1764,

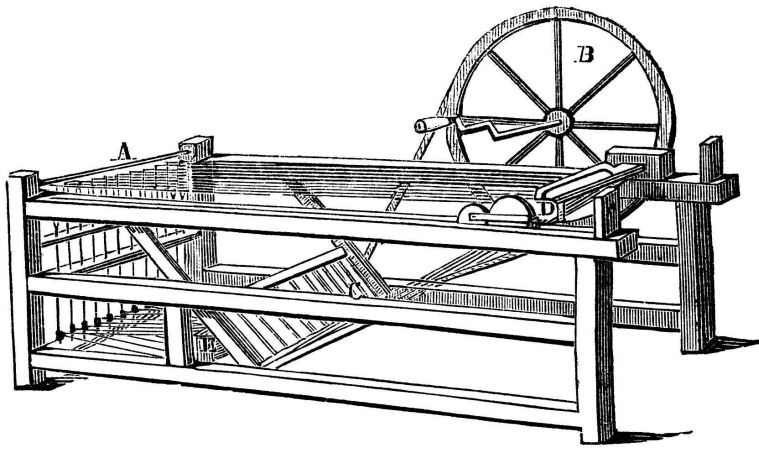


FIGURE 10.8

Englishman James Hargreaves (1722-1778) invented the spinning jenny (“jenny” meant engine), a machine that enabled an individual to produce multiple spools of threads simultaneously. The power loom came soon after.

Developments in the iron industry also played a central role in the Industrial Revolution. In the early 18th century, Englishman Abraham Darby (1678-1717) discovered a cheaper, easier method to produce cast iron, using a coke-fueled (as opposed to charcoal-fired) furnace. In the 1850s, British engineer Henry Bessemer (1813-1898) developed the first inexpensive process for mass-producing steel. Both iron and steel became essential materials, used to make everything from appliances, tools and machines, to ships, buildings and infrastructure.

The steam engine was also integral to industrialization. In 1712, Englishman Thomas Newcomen (1664-1729) developed the first practical steam engine (which was used primarily to pump water out of mines). By the 1770s, the steam engine went on to power machinery, locomotives and ships during the Industrial Revolution.

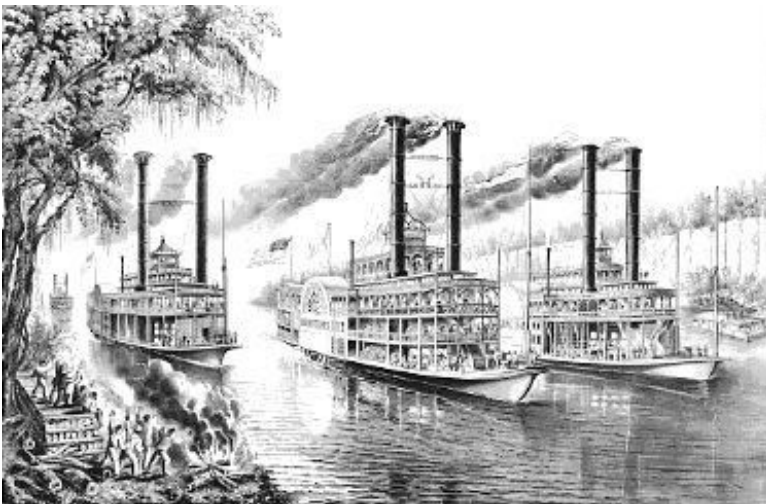


FIGURE 10.9

Transportation and the Industrial Revolution

The transportation industry also underwent significant transformation during the Industrial Revolution. Before the advent of the steam engine, raw materials and finished goods were hauled and distributed via horse-drawn wagons, and by boats along canals and rivers. In the early 1800s, American Robert Fulton (1765-1815) built the first commercially successful steamboat, and by the mid-19th century, steamships were carrying freight across the

Atlantic.



FIGURE 10.10

As steam-powered ships were making their debut, the steam locomotive was also coming into use. In the early 1800s, British engineer Richard Trevithick (1771-1833) constructed the first railway steam locomotive and developed a new process for road construction. Roads became smoother, more durable and less muddy.

Communication and Banking in the Industrial Revolution

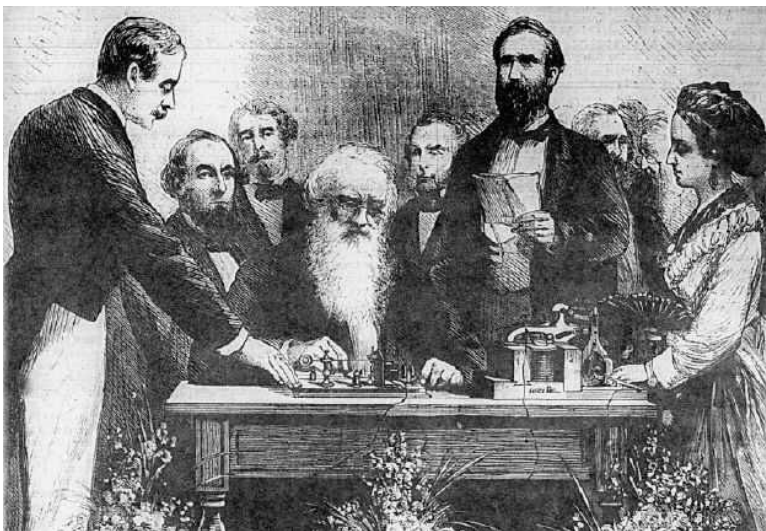


FIGURE 10.11

Communication became easier during the Industrial Revolution with such inventions as the telegraph. In 1837, two Brits, William Cooke (1806-1879) and Charles Wheatstone (1802-1875), patented the first commercial electrical telegraph. By 1840, railways were a Cooke-Wheatstone system, and in 1866, a telegraph cable was successfully laid across the Atlantic. The Industrial Revolution also saw the rise of banks and industrial financiers, as well as a factory system dependent on owners and managers. In 1776, Scottish social philosopher Adam Smith (1723-1790), who is regarded as the founder of modern economics, published “The Wealth of Nations.” In it, Smith promoted an economic system based on free enterprise, the private ownership of means of production, and lack of government

interference; this system is known as Capitalism today.

Quality of Life during Industrialization

The Industrial Revolution brought about a greater volume and variety of factory-produced goods and raised the standard of living for many people, particularly for the middle and upper classes. However, life for the poor and working classes continued to be filled with challenges. Wages for those who labored in factories were low and working conditions could be dangerous and monotonous. Unskilled workers had little job security and were easily replaceable. Children were part of the labor force and often worked long hours and were used for such highly hazardous tasks as cleaning the machinery. In the early 1860s, an estimated one-fifth of the workers in Britain's textile industry were younger than 15. Industrialization also meant that some craftspeople were replaced by machines. Additionally, urban, industrialized areas were unable to keep pace with the flow of arriving workers from the countryside, resulting in inadequate, overcrowded housing and polluted, unsanitary living conditions in which disease became a serious problem. Conditions for Britain's working-class began to gradually improve by the later part of the 19th century, as the government instituted various labor reforms and workers gained the right to form trade unions.

Industrialization Moves Beyond Britain

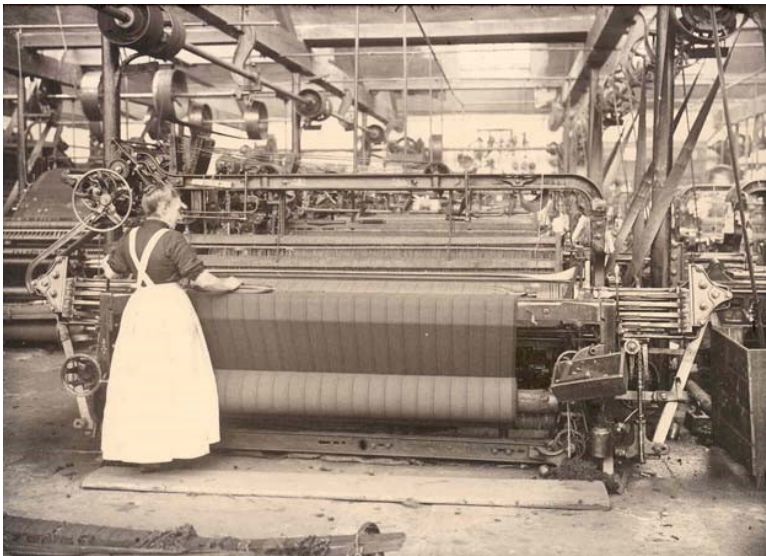


FIGURE 10.12

The British enacted legislation to prohibit the export of their technology and skilled workers; however, they had little success in this regard. Industrialization spread from Britain to other European countries, including Belgium, France and Germany, and to the United States. By the mid-19th century, industrialization was well-established throughout the western part of Europe and America's northeastern region.

Industrialization and Colonialism

The era of colonialism ended after the Second World War, when countries were forced to sign treaties to end their colonial rule, because of the U.N. Charter which stated self-sovereignty. Although that promise was far from the reality, after the Second World War countries could no longer afford to keep their colonies – they were spending more money on keeping the territories than what they extorted out of it. Colonial independence was energized with the weakening of post-war Europe. Much of colonialism was the basic act of exporting to gain profit; whether it was India's raw cotton, Malaysia's tin, West Africa's palm oil, Brazil's Coffee, these countries were used for their natural resources. Although colonialism has legally ended, its effect has not disappeared, branches of colonialism such as neo-colonialism, assimilation and imperialism in the 19th century still exist and impact the Third World today. Many countries have never truly recovered from the devastation the colonial system had imposed. After countries were liberated, the scramble for resources had begun and once it did, colonialism and its legacy of privilege continuously



FIGURE 10.13

impacted the Third World.

It is however undeniable that once technology began to advance, the rapid rate of European colonialism grew in the 19th century due to things such as shipping lanes and huge growth in industrialization. There are several different levels of colonialism too, such as assimilation in which the colonizer sends people of its own to the colonized nation and changes the natural order of life by completely disintegrating the culture which exists and replacing it with its own. The colonial power teaches people its language, culture and religion. This was evident in what the French had done in Algeria and what the British had done in India. France didn't just want to take political control, they wanted to assimilate, Algerians were forbidden to speak their mother tongue in places of work and education, also French ruled Arabs could not play on their football teams and ruled that only 5 members could be Arab and rules stated the rest had to be French. This is far more threatening than colonialism as it can kill cultures.

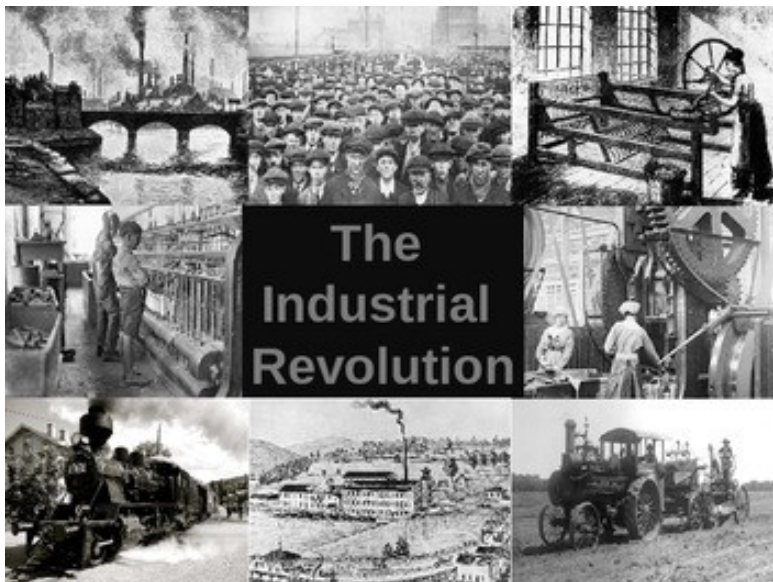


FIGURE 10.14

10.6 Europe: The Causes of World War I



FIGURE 10.15

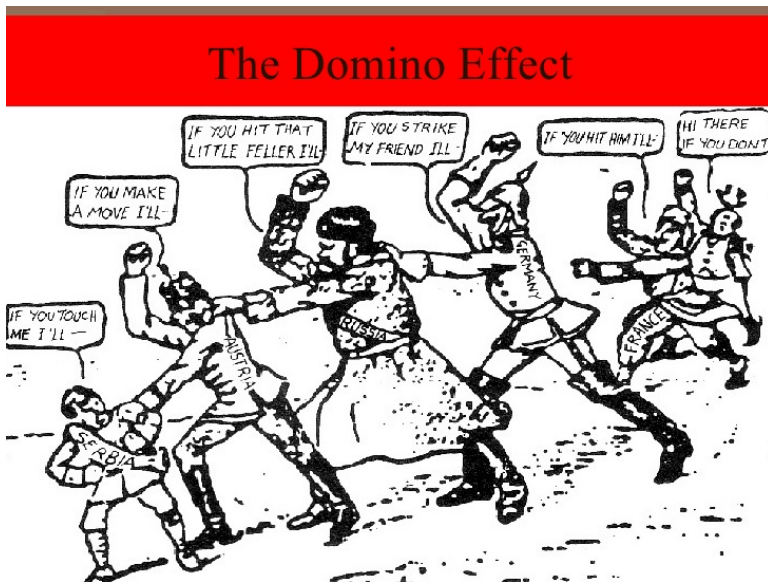


FIGURE 10.16

The Immediate Cause of World War I

On 28 June 1914 in Sarajevo, the capital city of Bosnia, a young man named Gavrilo Princip, a Serbian nationalist, set in motion the events that would spark World War One. Princip, a physically small and weak teenager, held no military rank nor did he hold a position of power, yet his actions on that summer morning plunged the world into the bloodiest conflict it had ever known. On the face of it, his crime, dreadful though it was, doesn't appear to merit the industrial scale slaughter that followed. It was this spark that ignited the "The War to End all Wars," as it is known to many.

The man Princip murdered was Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the heir-presumptive to the throne of Austria-Hungary.

Princip's motives for murder were political; he was a Serb who wanted Bosnia to be part of Serbia, rather than under Austro-Hungarian rule.

System of Alliances

Over time, countries throughout Europe made mutual defense agreements that would pull them into battle. These treaties meant that if one country was attacked, allied countries were bound to defend them. Before World War 1, the following alliances existed

- * Russia and Serbia
- * Germany and Austria-Hungary
- * France and Russia
- * Britain and France and Belgium
- * Japan and Britain

Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, Russia got involved to defend Serbia. Germany seeing Russia mobilizing, declared war on Russia. France was then drawn in against Germany and Austria-Hungary. Germany attacked France through Belgium pulling Britain into war. Then Japan entered the war. Later, Italy and the United States would enter on the side of the allies.

Imperialism

(Colonialism) is when a country increases their power and wealth by bringing additional territories under their control. Before World War 1, Africa and parts of Asia were points of contention amongst the European countries. This was especially true because of the raw materials these areas could provide. The increasing competition and desire for greater empires led to an increase in confrontation that helped push the world into World War I.

Militarism

As the world entered the 20th century, an arms race had begun. By 1914, Germany had the greatest increase in military buildup. This military expansion would eventually need an outlet, which would lead to war. Great Britain and Germany both greatly increased their navies in this time period. Further, in Germany and Russia particularly, the military establishment began to have a greater influence on public policy. This increase in militarism helped push the countries involved to experiment and test their newly developed weapons.

Nationalism

Much of the origin of the war was based on the desire of the Slavic peoples in Bosnia and Hertzegovina to no longer be part of Austria Hungary but instead be part of Serbia. In this way, nationalism led directly to the War. But in a more general way, the nationalism of the various countries throughout Europe contributed not only to the beginning but the extension of the war in Europe. Each country tried to prove their dominance and power.

World War One Alliances 1914

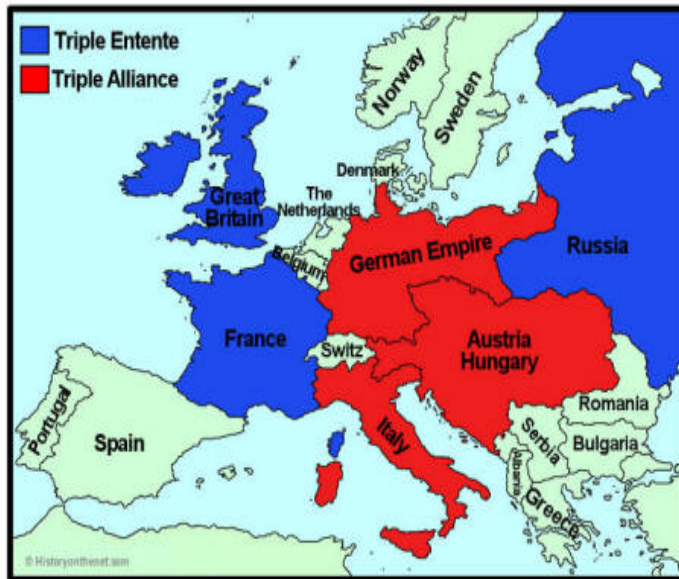


FIGURE 10.17

10.7 Europe: WWI Western Front and Trench Warfare!



FIGURE 10.18

World War I's Western Front (1914-17)

Trench warfare is resorted to when the superior firepower of the defense compels the opposing forces to “dig in” so extensively as to sacrifice their mobility in order to gain protection.

A trench system may begin simply as a collection of foxholes hastily dug by troops using their entrenching tools. These holes may subsequently be deepened so that a soldier can safely stand up in one of them, and the individual foxholes may be connected by shallow crawl trenches. From this beginning a system of more permanent trenches may be constructed. In making a trench, soil from the excavation is used to create raised parapets running both in front of and behind the trench. Within the trench are firing positions along a raised forward step called a fire step, and duckboards are placed on the often muddy bottom of the trench to provide secure footing.

World War I is often considered the first true 'modern war', a conflict fought between industrialized countries equipped with modern weapons. It saw the rise of powerful weapons such as heavy artillery, machine guns and airplanes – and the decline of 19th century weapons like sabers and bayonets. This page contains brief summaries of the most significant weapons of World. Fighting had more of a devastating effect, and was much more impersonal. The honor of doing battle began to fade.

Christmas Truce The night before Christmas, a British captain serving at Rue du Bois heard a foreign accent from across the divide saying, "Do not shoot after 12 o'clock and we will not do so either," and then: "If you English come out and talk to us, we won't fire." Commonwealth troops fighting in Belgium and France started to hear odd sounds drifting from across no-man's land; German soldiers were singing Christmas carols. Allied troops applauded and cheered, shouting out for more. Soldiers on both sides began to sing in unison, trading verses in alternating languages.

Daily Express Tuesday April 28 2009 29

Revealed: Secrets of 1914 Christmas truce

By Martin Stote

IT WAS one of the most poignant moments of the Great War – with British and German soldiers emerging from the trenches to share a fleeting peace. And now one of the architects of the First World War's Christmas Day truce has been revealed in a new account. Captain Robert Hamilton, of the 1st battalion Royal Warwickshire regiment, was at the heart of those magical few hours.

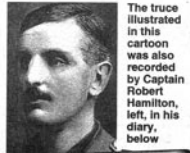
His grandson, former history teacher Andrew Hamilton, was inspired to collate his relative's diary and other illustrations and documents after his daughter visited the battlefields with her school.

He and historian Alan Reed have drawn on more than 100 photographs, cartoons, maps and sketches to write a book.

Mr Hamilton's daughter Alice took the diary with her on a school trip to the battlefields of France and Belgium.

Mr Reed was one of the tour organisers. "She gave him the diary to look at."

"We found we both shared a deep interest in the First World War and agreed to research my



The truce illustrated in this cartoon was also recorded by Captain Robert Hamilton, left, in his diary, below



grandfather's experiences," Mr Hamilton from Walton, Warwickshire, said yesterday.

"For me it was fascinating following my grandfather's campaign footsteps and pinpointing the exact spot where he met a German officer, two miles from the Belgian hamlet

of St Yvon on Christmas Day." Writing in his small, leather-bound journal for December 26, 1914, Captain Hamilton wrote: "A day unique in the world's history. I met this officer and we arranged a local armistice for 48 hours."

He added: "The soldiers on

both sides met in their hundreds and exchanged greetings and gifts."

Captain Hamilton returned to England in 1915 after being made deaf by shell fire. The book, *Meet at Dawn, Unarmed*, has just been published.

FIGURE 10.19

Top Chemical Weapons Introductions in World War I

Introduced by Germany	Year	Introduced by the Allies
Dianisidine salts*	1914	Ethyl bromoacetate
	1915	
Xylol bromide	January	
	March	Chloroacetone
Chlorine	April	Ethyl chlorosulfonate
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Methyl chlorosulfonate Monochloromethyl chloroformate 	June	
Bromoacetone	July	
	September	Perchloromethyl mercaptan
	December	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ethyl iodoacetate Phosgene
	1916	
	January	Acrolein
Trichloromethyl chloroformate	May	
Chloropicrin	July	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Chloropicrin Cyanogen chloride Hydrogen cyanide
	1917	
Phenylcarbamine chloride	May	
Dichloroethyl sulfide	July	
Phenyl dichloroarsine	September	
	1918	
	(Unknown date)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dimethyl sulfate Bromobenzyl cyanide
Diphenylcyanoarsine	March	

FIGURE 10.20



FIGURE 10.21

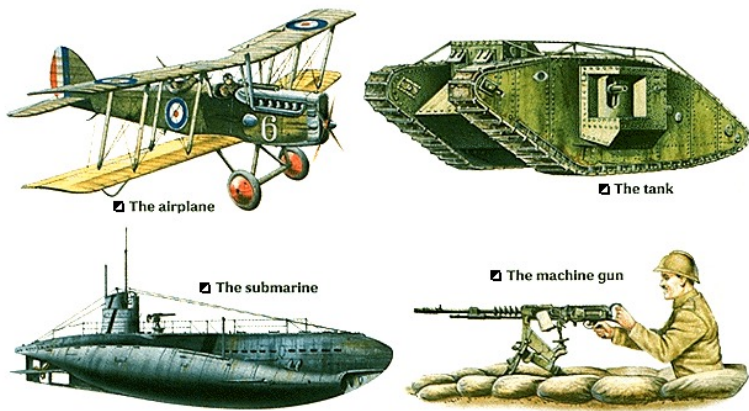


FIGURE 10.22



FIGURE 10.23

10.8 Europe: The Results of WWI

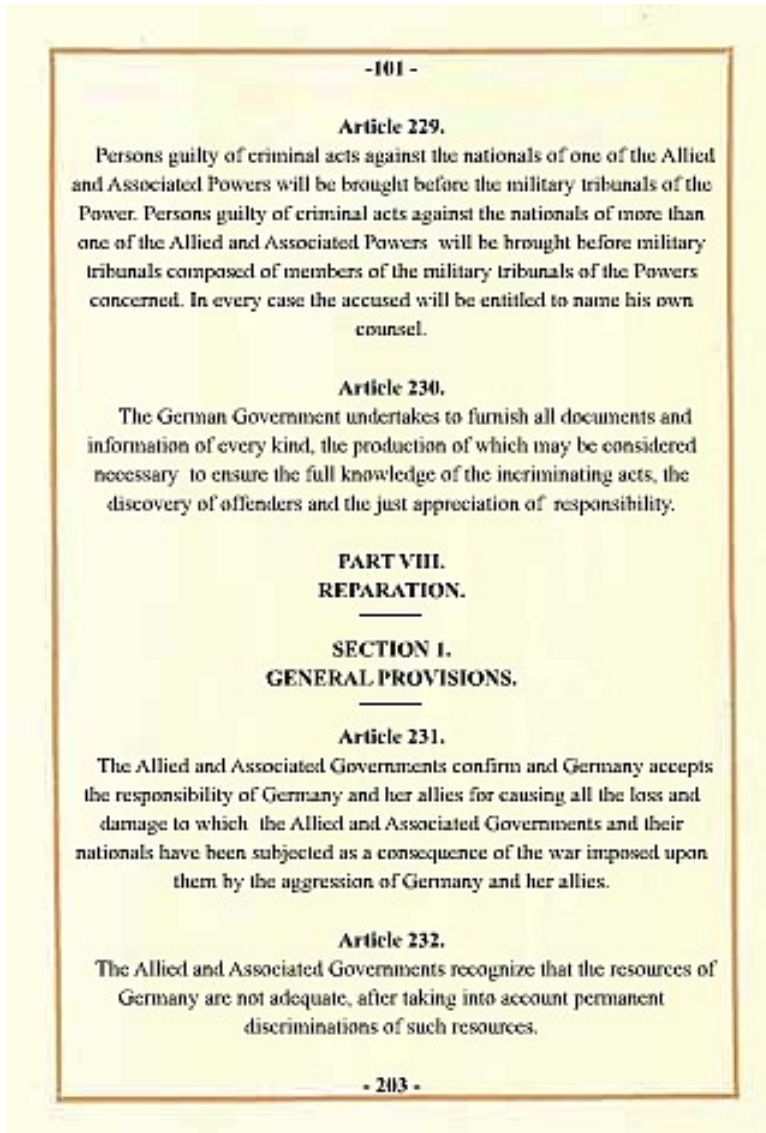


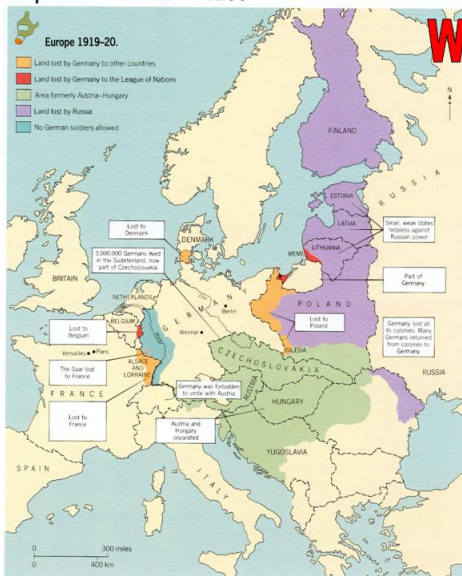
FIGURE 10.24

Results of WWI

Government Changes

As a result of World War I, socialistic ideas experienced a boom as they spread not only in Germany and the Austrian empire but also made advances in Britain (1923) and France (1924). However, the most popular type of government to gain influence after World War I was the republic. Before the war, Europe contained 19 monarchies and 3 republics, yet only a few years afterward, had 13 monarchies, 14 republics and 2 regencies. Evidently, revolution was in the air and people began to more ardently express their desires for a better way of life.

Effects of a harsh Peace A second political effect of World War I centers solely on the treatment of Germany in the Treaty of Versailles of 1919. The Germans were forced to sign a humiliating treaty accepting responsibility for



What Happened!

The Treaty of Versailles:

1. Germany was blame for starting the war.
2. Army was reduced to 100,000 men.
3. Navy was only allowed 6 battleships.
4. Not allowed Tanks, Airplanes or submarines.
5. Pay£ 6.6 Billion in reparations.
6. Colonies were given away.
7. Germany was forbidden to unite with Austria
8. Demilitarize the Rhine Land
9. Alsace-Lorraine went back to France
10. Poland was given a strip of land called the polish Corridor

FIGURE 10.25

causing the war, as well as pay out large sums of money in order to compensate for war costs. This sort of treaty would bring harsh consequences. —In addition, the size of the German state was reduced, while that of Italy and France was enlarged. The Weimar government set up in Germany in 1918 was ill-liked by most of the citizens and maintained little power in controlling the German state. Rising hostilities toward the rest of Europe grew, and many German soldiers refused to give up fighting, even though Germany’s military was ordered to be drastically reduced. Given such orders, numerous German ex-soldiers joined the Freikorps, an establishment of mercenaries available for street-fighting. The open hostility and simmering feelings of revenge exhibited by Germany foreshadowed the start of World War II.

Economic Change Technology experienced a great boost after the war, as the production of automobiles, airplanes, radios and even certain chemicals, skyrocketed. The advantages of mass production and the use of machinery to perform former human labor tasks, along with the implementation of the eight hour work day, proved to stimulate the economy, the United States’ in particular. However, much of Europe suffered devastating losses of physical property and landscape as well as finances. By 1914, Europe had won the respect of the world as a reliable money-lender, yet just four years later was greatly in debt to her allies for their generous financial contributions toward the war effort, owing them as much as \$10 billion. In an effort to pay back their allies, the governments of many European countries began to rapidly print more and more money, only to subject their countries to a period of inflation. Members of the middle class who had been living reasonably comfortably on investments began to experience a rocky financial period. Germany was hit the hardest in terms of struggling with war reparations, and inflation drastically lowered the value of the German mark. In a period of no more than three months in 1923, the German mark jumped from 4.6 million marks to the dollar to 4.2 trillion marks to the dollar. It appeared that inflation knew no bounds.

Disillusionment Psychologically, World War I had effects similar to those of a revolution. A growing sense of distrust of political leaders and government officials pervaded the minds of people who had witnessed the horror and destruction that the war brought about. Many citizens were angered that peacemakers had not expressed their ideals fervently enough, and people began to wonder why the war was fought at all. A feeling of disillusionment spread across the world as people bitterly decided that their governments in no way knew how to serve the best interests of the people. The loss of loved ones on the battlefield was especially disturbing, for in some parts of Western Europe, one of four young men had lost his life in battle. Altogether, the war killed 10 to 13 million people, with nearly a third of them civilians. The future certainly did not look bright for the families of those killed in the war, and a grim acceptance of reality replaced the optimistic dreams of those in decades past.

Summary

World War I did not completely end with the signing of the Treaty of Versailles, for its political, economic and psychological effects influenced the lives of people long after the last shot was fired. Two main political changes rocked the world after the war: a greater number of countries began to adopt more liberal (democratic) forms of government, and an angered Germany tried to cope with the harsh measures of the Treaty of Versailles, as its hostilities rose to the point where it provoked the second world war two decades later. Despite the advantages brought forth by developing technologies, the war mainly had a damaging effect on the economies of European countries. A world economic slump was soon to be in full effect. People's hopes and spirits also floundered, as they grew distrustful of the government and tried to cope with the enormous death toll of the war. The turbulent period after World War I called for a major readjustment of politics, economic policies, and views on the world.

10.9 Europe: World War Two Begins



FIGURE 10.26

WWII Begins

At the end of World War I (June 28, 1919), the Allies - including France, Britain, the U.S., and Italy - created a contract called the Treaty of Versailles that outlined the Central Powers' punishments for starting the war. The harshest penalties were for Germany (the most powerful country of the Central Powers), including paying 6,600 million British pounds, giving up some of its land for several years, agreeing to never merge with Austria, and limiting its military tremendously. The German people disliked these new rules, but as the losers of the war, they could not protest. This treaty set the stage for Germany's attempt to right the wrongs of the Treaty of Versailles.

Things soon got worse for the Germans, and for the rest of the world as well, when the stock market crash in October of 1929 signaled the start of the Great Depression. The crash brought on unemployment, poverty and despair throughout Germany. And in these times of trouble, a man named Adolf Hitler was becoming increasingly powerful. He had already become head of the NSDAP (a.k.a. the Nazi Party), had tried without success to take over the government (later known as the Beer Hall Putsch), and had written a book called "Mein Kampf" in prison. Then, in 1933, Adolf Hitler, by promising the people revenge for the Treaty of Versailles, was elected the German Chancellor. Later, he used a law in the German Constitution (Article 48, the Enabling Act) to appoint himself Fuhrer of Germany.

Once he became Fuhrer or leader, Hitler withdrew from the League of Nations, an organization created by the Treaty of Versailles to keep peace in Europe, and began to rebuild Germany's military, which was strictly against the Treaty of Versailles. Soon, Hitler decided to station soldiers in the Rhineland, an area that had been demilitarized. After re-arming the Rhineland, Hitler set his sights on combining Germany with Austria. By this time, Neville Chamberlain, the British Prime Minister, had become worried about Hitler's increasing aggressiveness, but hesitated to do anything because he feared Hitler might try to invade Britain. This policy is known as appeasement or satisfying demands to avoid war.

The final example of Chamberlain's weakness came when Hitler announced that he wanted a part of Czechoslovakia called the Sudetenland. His reasoning was that the people in the Sudetenland spoke German and were of German

origin; therefore they should be part of Germany. To negotiate an agreement, Chamberlain, Hitler, Benito Mussolini (the Italian dictator), and Edouard Daladier (a representative from France) all met in Munich. At the Munich Conference, they decided that Hitler could have Czechoslovakia if he promised not to invade any more countries. However, as soon as Hitler occupied the Sudetenland, he proceeded to take over the whole of Czechoslovakia! When Chamberlain realized what had happened, he agreed to protect Poland. Because a large number of Jews lived in Poland, and Hitler hated Jews and wanted to exterminate them, Poland was a likely target for Hitler's next attack.

Surprisingly, though Britain guaranteed Poland protection, the Soviet Union, led by Stalin, signed the Nazi-Soviet Pact in August 1939. In this agreement, the Soviet Union and Germany publically promised not to attack each other, and secretly promised to split up Poland between themselves. So, after ensuring that the Soviet Union, the closest country to Poland, would not attack, Hitler invaded Poland on September 1, 1939. Two days later, France and the British Empire (including Australia and New Zealand) declared war on Germany. World War II had begun.

Coming just two decades after the last great global conflict, the Second World War was the most widespread and deadliest war in history, involving more than 30 countries and resulting in more than 50 million military and civilian deaths (with some estimates as high as 85 million dead). Sparked by Adolf Hitler's invasion of Poland in 1939, the war would drag on for six deadly years until the final Allied defeat of both Nazi Germany and Japan in 1945.

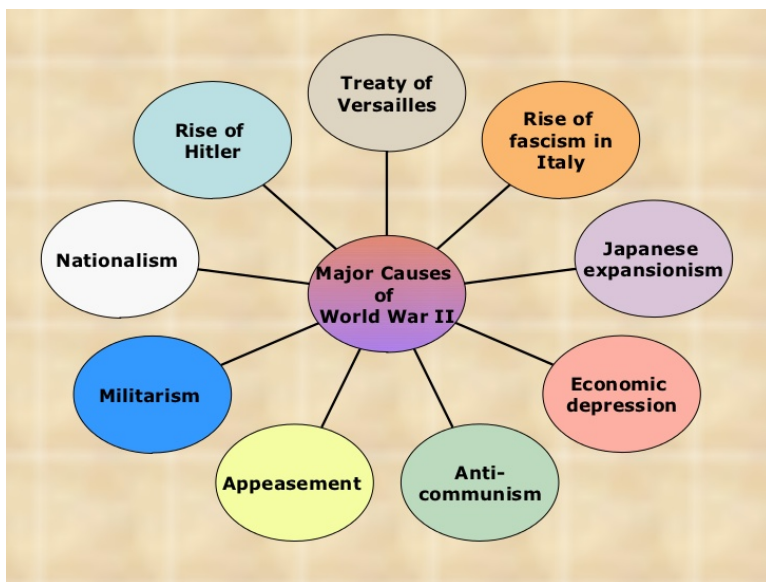


FIGURE 10.27

10.10 Europe: WWII: Genocide, The Holocaust & The Final Solution



FIGURE 10.28

Genocide

There are few periods of time in history that are darker or more shocking than the Holocaust. There are many books and movies created that try and depict this period in history. And while the majority of people today understand at least vaguely what the Holocaust was, there are actually a growing number of younger people that don't fully understand or even know what it involved. It is crucial to take the time to understand the basics of the Holocaust.



FIGURE 10.29

The Holocaust is generally thought of as the genocide (or systematic mass murder) of roughly 6 million Jewish people during World War II. This is said to include the mass murder of other groups as well including Romani gypsies, homosexuals, Soviet POWs, blacks, and more, and some numbers suggest that between 10 and 11 million civilians and POWs were killed during this historical period.

It's important to understand that the genocide of Jews and others during the Holocaust didn't occur in one fell swoop. Instead, it was a process that occurred in carefully orchestrated stages, gradually leading up to the implementation of the "Final Solution". It began with laws that required Jewish people to be removed from the rest of the general population. These laws forced Jews and Romani into ghettos, overcrowded and filthy areas of cities that were essentially used as holding areas. During this time, concentration camps were also established, and Jews and Romani were pulled from the ghettos and placed into the concentration camps, where they were forced into slave labor until disease, starvation, or exhaustion killed them. As the Nazis continued to conquer new areas of Europe, new ghettos and concentration camps were set up. Additionally, death squads began to execute Jews and others in mass shootings, burying them in mass graves throughout the continent.



FIGURE 10.30

It was later in the course of WWII that the Nazis set the Final Solution into motion, and it was then that some of the concentration camps became extermination camps. The sole purpose of these camps was simply to execute as many people as possible in as efficient a manner as possible. Millions died in these death camps, and this is the phase of the Holocaust that most think of when they think of it. Once rumors began to leak of the camps, the Germans created a propaganda video, which showed the camp in a more appealing light.

Simply put, the Holocaust was one of the darkest periods of history, filled with madness and murder. Remembering it today helps honor those who perished and also ensures that such a thing won't be repeated as years go by.

Oscar Schindler To more than 1200 Jews Oscar Schindler was all that stood between them and death at the hands of the Nazis. A man full of flaws like the rest of us - the unlikeliest of all role models who started by earning millions as a war profiteer and ended by spending his last savings and risking his life to save his Jews. An ordinary man who even in the worst of circumstances did extraordinary things, matched by no one. He remained true to his Jews, the workers he referred to as my children. In the shadow of Auschwitz he kept the SS out and everyone alive.

Concentration Camps The first concentration camps in Germany were established soon after Hitler's appointment as chancellor in January 1933. In the weeks after the Nazis came to power, The SA (Sturmabteilungen; commonly known as Storm Troopers), the SS (Schutzstaffel; Protection Squadrons—the elite guard of the Nazi party), the police, and local civilian authorities organized numerous detention camps to incarcerate real and perceived political opponents of Nazi policy.

World War II Deaths

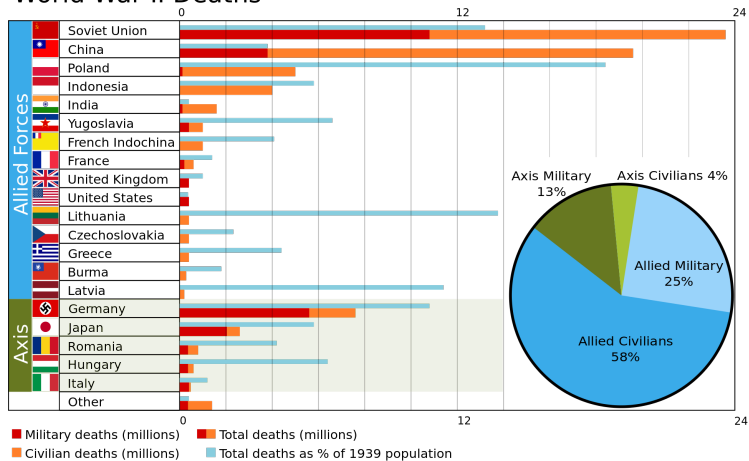


FIGURE 10.31

10.11 Europe: Results of World War II: The Cold War

World War II		
Causes	WWII	Effects
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Appeasement •League of Nations weak •Great Depression weakens capitalist democracies •Treaty of Versailles punished Central Powers •Fascist dictators rise to power 	1939-1945	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Germany and Japan are occupied and controlled by U.S., Western Europe •Europe's economies ruined, lose grip on colonies •U.S. vs Soviet Union (CW) •Nuclear Age •Eastern Europe conquered and controlled by Stalin (Iron Curtain) •Geneva Conventions, Universal Decl. of Human Rights •United Nations created, stronger than the L of N

FIGURE 10.32

Results of WW2

After the war in Europe was over, cities lay in ruins due to the aerial bombing and battles that had caused widespread destruction. It was decided at the Yalta Conference that parts of Germany would be given to Poland while the rest of it would be divided into four parts. Berlin, the capital of Germany was also divided into four occupation zones. Berlin and Germany were to be occupied by the French, British, Americans and Russians in their respective occupation zones. East Germany, which was ruled by communist Russia, was separated by the Berlin Wall from independent West Germany, thus giving a physical meaning to Churchill's "iron curtain" that existed between the East and West.

Costs of World War II: Allies and Axis			
	Direct War Costs	Military Killed/Missing	Civilians Killed
United States	\$288.0 billion*	292,131**	—
Great Britain	\$117.0 billion	272,311	60,595
France	\$111.3 billion	205,707***	173,260†
USSR	\$93.0 billion	13,600,000	7,720,000
Germany	\$212.3 billion	3,300,000	2,893,000††
Japan	\$41.3 billion	1,140,429	953,000

* In 1994 dollars.
 ** An additional 115,187 servicemen died from non-battle causes.
 *** Before surrender to Nazis.
 † Includes 65,000 murdered Jews.
 †† Includes about 170,000 murdered Jews and 56,000 foreign civilians in Germany.

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts
 1. **Drawing Conclusions** Which of the nations listed in the chart suffered the greatest human costs?
 2. **Comparing** How does U.S. spending on the war compare with the spending of Germany and Japan?

FIGURE 10.33



FIGURE 10.34

While the US and Soviet Union emerged as the two most powerful nations on earth, opposing national interests would usher in the Cold War era that would last until the late 1980's. By the time of the signing of the Axis satellite treaties early in 1947, the two countries were drawing apart. Before long, the Soviets had built and tested their own nuclear devices, which served to increase tensions between the two nations, drawing them even further apart.

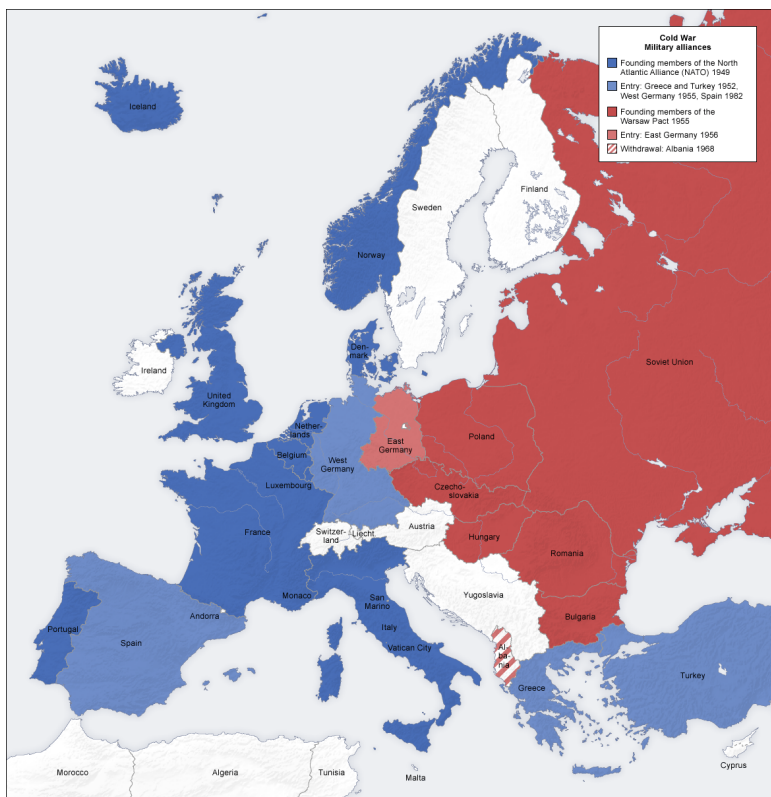


FIGURE 10.35

Fearing the spread of communism, the US committed troops to suppress communist governments in various hotspots worldwide. This "policy of containment" soon dominated the United States' attitude towards foreign affairs, even if

it led to corrupt dictators gaining power or supporting weak, non-communist governments. Meanwhile, those back in the US weren't immune from this policy either, as fear of communist infiltration (or the "red scare") swept the nation. Later, civil unrest would erupt once again in protest of the Vietnam War and life back in the states. Meanwhile, the cold war pushed on.

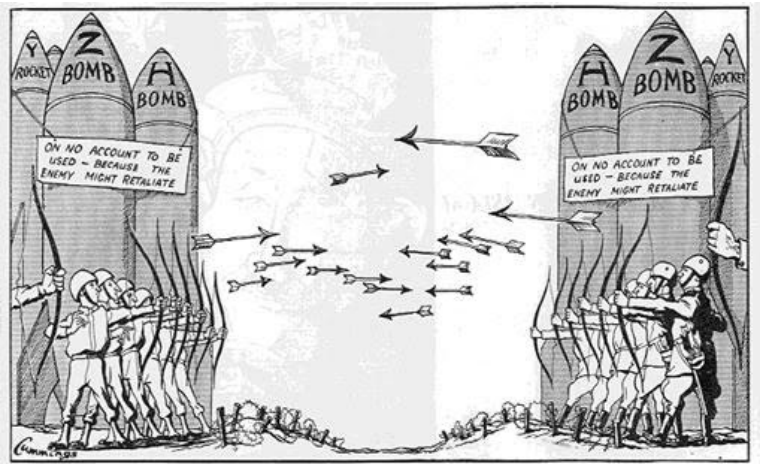


FIGURE 10.36

The Cold War lasted about 45 years. There were no direct military campaigns between the two main antagonists, the United States and the Soviet Union. Yet billions of dollars and millions of lives were lost in the fight. It was a time of global fear—a war of words.

The United States became the leader of the free-market capitalist world. America and its allies struggled to keep the communist, totalitarian Soviet Union from expanding into Europe, Asia, and Africa. Theaters as remote as Korea and Vietnam, Cuba and Grenada, Afghanistan and Angola, became battlegrounds between the two ways of thinking or ideologies. One postwar pattern quickly became clear. The United States would not retreat into its former isolationist stance as long as there was a Cold War to wage.

The long-term causes of the Cold War are clear. Western democracies had always been hostile to the idea of a communist state. The United States had refused recognition to the USSR for 16 years after the Bolshevik takeover. Domestic fears of communism erupted in a RED SCARE in America in the early Twenties. American business leaders had long feared the consequences of a politically driven workers' organization. This period was a period of competition East vs. West or Capitalism vs. Communism.

There was hostility on the Soviet side as well. Twenty million Russian citizens perished during World War II. Stalin was enraged that the Americans and British had waited so long to open a front in France. This would have relieved pressure on the Soviet Union from the attacking Germans. Further, The United States terminated Lend-Lease aid to the Soviet Union before the war was complete. Finally, the Soviet Union believed in communism.

Stalin made promises during the war about the freedom of eastern Europe which he did not honor. At the Yalta Conference, the USSR pledged to enter the war against Japan no later than three months after the conclusion of the European war. In return, the United States awarded the Soviets territorial concessions from Japan and special rights in Chinese Manchuria.

At Potsdam, the Allies agreed on the postwar outcome for Nazi Germany. After territorial adjustments, Germany was divided into four OCCUPATION ZONES with the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union each administering one. Germany was to be democratized and de-Nazified. Once the Nazi leaders were arrested and war crimes trials began, a date would be agreed upon for the election of a new German government and the withdrawal of Allied troops.

This process was executed in the zones held by the western Allies. In the eastern Soviet occupation zone, a puppet communist regime was elected. There was no promise of repatriation with the west. Soon such governments, aided

by the Soviet Red Army came to power all across eastern Europe. Stalin was determined to create a buffer zone (an area between two enemies meant to avoid conflict) to prevent any future invasion of the Russian heartland.

Winston Churchill remarked in 1946 that an "iron curtain had descended across the continent."

The End of the Cold War

The German Democratic Republic (East Germany) had erected a barbed wire border fence with the Federal Republic (West Germany) as early as 1952. However, the border running through Berlin, controlled by all four post-war occupying powers, remained largely open, turning the city into by far the most important route for East Germans to flee the rigours of state socialism for the "economic miracle" then underway in West Germany. By 1961, some 3.5 million East Germans (20% of the population) had left, many through Berlin.

The wall slowed that emigration almost to a trickle. In the 28 years of its existence some 5,000 people are thought to have successfully escaped across the wall; the number who died in the attempt is disputed, although 136 deaths have been confirmed, the last being shot in February 1989.

The barrier was 155km long, although the 112km separating west Berlin from the GDR consisted mainly of wire fencing. What most of us think of as the Berlin Wall was the 43km of border rampart that divided west from east Berlin. It grew into a vast fortification system featuring two concrete barriers with a control or "death" strip between them, along with floodlights, electric fences, vehicle trenches, wire-guided dog patrols, observation towers, bunkers and armed guards.



FIGURE 10.37

The Fall of The Berlin Wall and The end of The Cold War

When it came, it was swift: as part of a long summer of civil unrest that heralded momentous change across eastern Europe, there were mass demonstrations in the GDR in September 1989. In October, the country's lifelong leader, Erich Honecker, resigned. On 9 November, the East German politburo lifted border controls to the west, including for private journeys to west Berlin, from 17 November. The official who announced this, Günter Schabowski, got it wrong, announcing it was effective "immediately". It was, by all accounts, an extraordinary night. Germany was formally reunified just 11 months later.



FIGURE 10.38

10.12 Europe: The European Union



FIGURE 10.39

European Community

The EU is a unique economic and political partnership between 28 European countries that together cover much of the continent.

The EU was created in the aftermath of the Second World War. The first steps were to foster economic cooperation: the idea being that countries who trade with one another become economically interdependent and so more likely to avoid conflict. It began as a coal and steel association but today it has expanded greatly to include social, political and economic projects. The result was the European Economic Community (EEC), created in 1958, and initially increasing economic cooperation between six countries: Belgium, Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. Since then, a huge single market has been created and continues to develop towards its full potential. A name change from the EEC to the European Union (EU) in 1993 reflected this.

From Economic to Political Union

The EU is based on the rule of law: everything that it does is founded on treaties, voluntarily and democratically agreed by all member countries. These binding agreements set out the EU's goals in its many areas of activity.

Mobility and Growth

The EU has delivered half a century of peace, stability and prosperity, helped raise living standards, and launched a single European currency, the euro.

Thanks to the abolition of border controls between EU countries, people can travel freely throughout most of the continent. And it's become much easier to live and work abroad in Europe.

The single or 'internal' market is the EU's main economic engine, enabling most goods, services, money and people to move freely. Another key objective is to develop this huge resource to ensure that Europeans can draw the maximum benefit from it.

Human Rights and Equality

One of the EU's main goals is to promote human rights both internally and around the world. Human dignity,

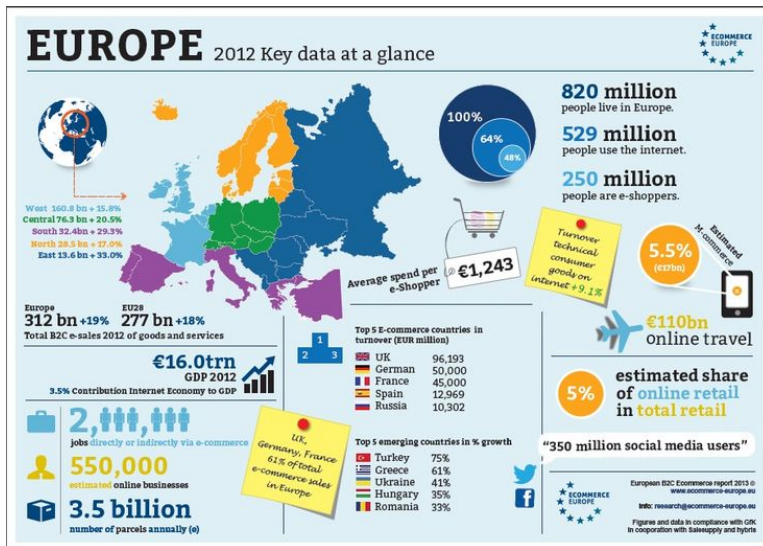


FIGURE 10.40



FIGURE 10.41

freedom, democracy, equality, the rule of law and respect for human rights: these are the core values of the EU. Since the 2009 signing of the Treaty of Lisbon, the EU's Charter of Fundamental Rights brings all these rights together in a single document. The EU's institutions are legally bound to uphold them, as are EU governments whenever they apply EU law.

Transparent and Democratic Institutions

As it continues to grow, the EU remains focused on making its governing institutions more transparent and democratic. More powers are being given to the directly elected European Parliament, while national parliaments are being given a greater role, working alongside the European institutions. In turn, European citizens have an ever-increasing number of channels for taking part in the political process.

Purpose of the European Union

- For its members to work together for advantages that would be out of their reach if each were working alone
- Believe that when countries work together they are a more powerful force in the world because they involve:
 - More money
 - More people
 - More land area
- This helps make small countries more competitive in the world market...

FIGURE 10.42

10.13 Empire and Ethnicity: Russia and Eurasian Republics: Geography



FIGURE 10.43



FIGURE 10.44

Unit 6

TEKS 6.1A, 6.1B, 6.3A, 6.3C, 6.4C, 6.4D, 6.4E, 6.4F, 6.8A, 6.9A, 6.9B, 6.9D, 6.11A, 6.11B, 6.12A, 6.12B, 6.15F, 6.17D, 6.21C, 6.21D, 6.22A, 6.22B, 6.22D, 6.22E

Russia and the Eurasian Republics

Russia has always been among the world's largest nations. Russia is presently the largest country in the world – almost twice as big as the next largest, Canada, and 70 times larger than the UK – and its size has always been the

basis of its colossal potential strength.

Ural Mountains

Ural Mountains are basically the mountain range that is standing in the Western part of Russia. It creates the border line between Asia and Europe.

The mount Ural is mainly divided into five regions, such as Middle, North, South, Subarctic and Arctic Urals. It is said that Urals are one of the oldest mountain ranges in the world. It is approximately around 300 million years old. The Ural mountains divide western Russia from eastern Russia. Among its deposits, the most remarkable alleviations include coal, gold, platinum, iron, nickel, silver and some other minerals. In the true sense, Ural Mountains are the core of Eurasia. The polar portion of it is occupied by tundra, whereas in the northern part there is a hilly treeless range. Russia has many mountain areas. The Ural mountains cover 2,500 miles of eastern Russia. The Caucasus mountains cross the southern part of Russia, from the Black Sea to the Caspian Sea.

From the western boarder to the Ural mountains is the North European Plain. This is a large rolling plain with rich soil and grasslands.

Three quarters of the Russian population lives in the cities and towns of western Russia. About 25% of the population still live in rural areas. Russia has a wealth of natural resources including oil, natural gas, minerals and timber. Moscow is the center for many manufacturing industries including cars, steel and other heavy manufacturing.

Soil

The southwest has rich farm land. Crops include wheat, barley, oats, potatoes and sunflowers. Some areas include cattle farming. Russia also has a large ocean fishing fleet. Many of these ships have full capabilities to clean, freeze and process the catch.

Russia is less generously furnished with suitable agricultural areas. The country can be divided roughly into three main zones. The tundra, or permafrost, is found north of the Arctic Circle, and cannot support human life. It is too cold for trees since the subsoil is permanently frozen, sometimes to a depth of several hundred meters. Mosses, lichens and low shrubs are the only natural vegetation. Land hunger drove peasants into these areas, and the Soviet industrial and prison camp enterprises also attracted workers. Russia's taiga (20 per cent of European Russia) represents nearly a quarter of the world's total forested area.

The taiga itself can be sub-divided by soil and vegetation, but it graduates from needle-leaved trees and permafrost in the north to broad-leaved trees in the south. The soil in this southern zone is boggy, marshy and lacking natural plant food.

The steppe is a huge plain stretching from Hungary to Mongolia, totaling a quarter of a billion acres. The soil – called black-earth because of its dark color – is one of the world's most productive. No trees grow here unless planted, and only brush and grass occur naturally. This region is the heart of Russia's agriculture.

Climate

The development of international trade and naval warfare led Russia to the realization in the seventeenth century that it was significantly disadvantaged since its mainland was served by only one ice-free port (Russia's average annual temperature is -5.5°C). Russia contains all of the world's vegetation zones except a tropical rain forest. Its size means that it has a continental climate. The coldest weather is experienced in the north and east, yet summer weather patterns mean that Verkhoyansk in Siberia has the earth's widest temperature range, with a record low of -68°C and a record high of 37°C !

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CONCEPT

11

Russia: History: Ivan the Terrible

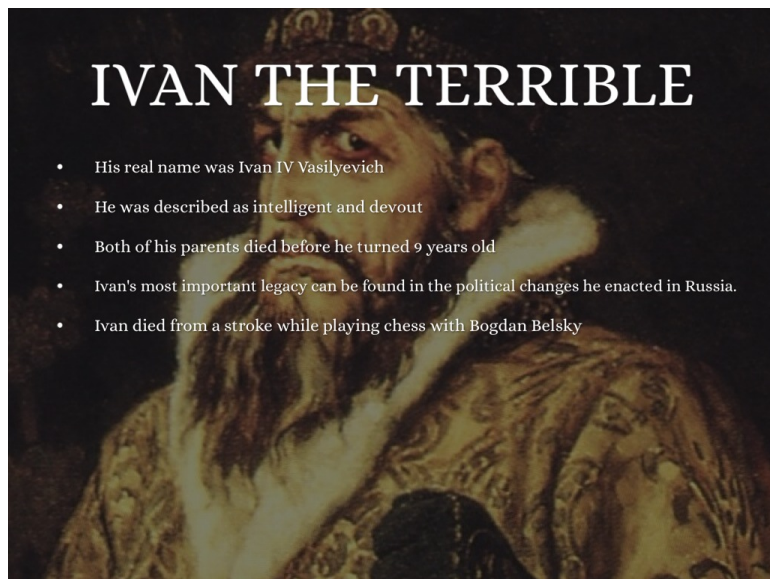


FIGURE 11.1

Ivan the Terrible

Smart and a keen reader, early on Ivan started dreaming of unlimited power. In 1547, aged 16, he was finally crowned Czar of all Russia, the first ruler to officially assume the title. The young ruler started out as a reformer, modernizing and centralizing the country. He revised the law code, created an elite standing army and introduced local self-management in rural regions.

The first printing press was introduced in Russia and new trade routes opened up. An instrument of his new rule was set up: a system called Oprichnina or “separate estate”. Certain territories and cities across Russia were separated from the rest of the realm, administered by Russia’s first police force, also called Oprichnina. Handpicked by the Tsar, its members, called the oprichniki, became Ivan’s exclusive favorites and spread terror across the country. Dressed in black and riding black horses, they carried dog’s heads and brooms – a symbol of sniffing out treason and sweeping away the Tsar’s enemies. Known for their cruelty and use of torture, the Tsar’s loyal servants executed anyone who displeased Ivan, confiscating their lands and riches. The system dealt a mighty blow to the influence of the nobility while Russia’s monarchy grew stronger than ever.

Ivan also pressed to turn his country into a military heavyweight. Back then, the Tatar armies repeatedly devastated Russia’s northeast. In 1552 Ivan crushed the Tatar stronghold of Kazan and then another one – Astrakhan.

While terror was unleashed at home, abroad Ivan’s ambitions grew sore. His seaward expansion to the West opposed him to the Swedes, the Poles and the Lithuanians. As warfare dragged on, with no land gained for Russia, the economy was put under a huge strain. In the 1560s heavy military losses combined with a severe drought, devastating famine and plague epidemics took their toll. Russia’s most prosperous areas grew deserted and Ivan’s military luck seemed to be running out as one blow followed another.

Even Ivan’s nickname has left a controversial legacy. The English word “terrible” is usually used to translate the Russian word *grozny*. Yet, *grozny*’s meaning is closer to inspiring fear or terror, threatening or awesome rather than sinister or cruel. Some believe the original intended sense could have been Ivan the Fearsome or Ivan the Formidable.

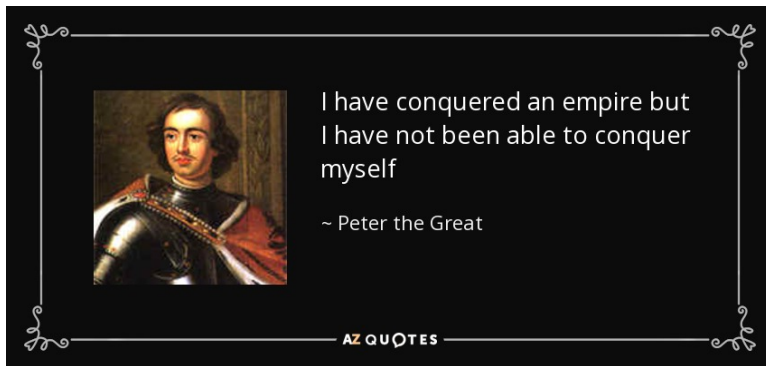


FIGURE 11.2

Peter the Great was the Russian czar who transformed Russia from an isolated agricultural society into an Empire on par with European powers. Peter was the son of Czar Alexis (Fedor III Alakseevich) and his second wife. After the death of Alexis, Peter and his half-brother Ivan were co-czars who served under the regency of Ivan's sister, Sophia. Ivan died and Peter outmaneuvered Sophia to rule alone as czar from 1689. Peter toured Europe (sometimes in disguise to avoid being recognized) and educated himself in western culture and science, then returned to Russia and introduced military, civil and social reforms to make Russia more like Europe (especially Germany). He spent much of his time fighting wars, first against the Turks of the Ottoman Empire, then (from 1700) against the Swedes in the Great Northern War. He succeeded in conquering land on the Baltic Sea, where he founded St. Petersburg. A gateway to Europe, St. Petersburg became the new capital of Russia. Peter was reportedly more than six and a half feet tall and was often in the battlefield, occasionally returning home to address domestic issues and put down revolts. In 1725 he dove in the water to help rescue some drowning sailors; he ended up with a bad cold and died a short time later.

CONCEPT 12

Russia: Communism

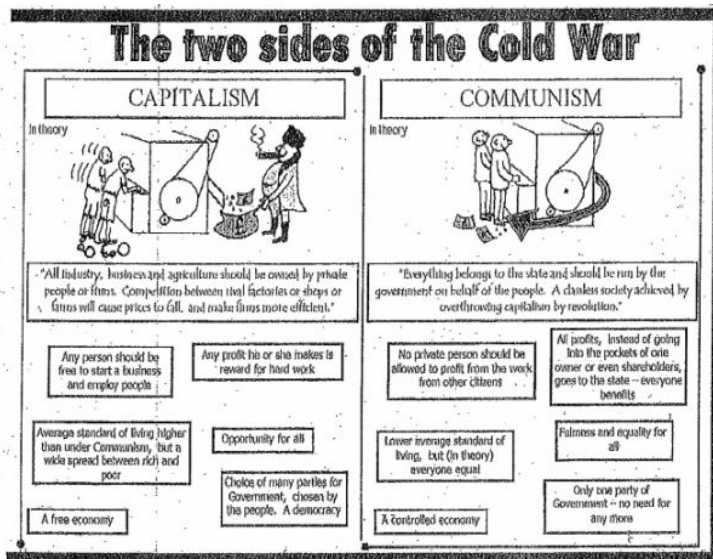


FIGURE 12.1

The Beginning of Communism

Das Kapital 1867 is a political treatise by Karl Marx. The book is an attack on capitalism which Marx held responsible for the poor working conditions of his contemporaries, and a manifesto for revolution. The central injustice of capitalism, according to Marx, was that employers made their profits by paying laborers less than the true value of their labor.

Communism is a theory and system of social and political organization that dominated much of the history of the 20th century. In theory, communism is a classless society in which all property is owned by the community as a whole and where all people enjoy equal social and economic status. As a political movement, communism sought to overthrow capitalism through a worker's revolution and redistribute the wealth in the hands of the proletariat, or working class.

Russian Revolution

The revolution did not happen overnight. Discontent had been spreading and rising throughout Russia for many years prior to the revolution. One of the events which hastened the revolution was what is now known as "Bloody Sunday." This took place in 1905. The peasants of Russia, as well as the poor working class, were living in very bad conditions. They worked dangerous jobs, often went hungry, and felt that the tsar was doing nothing to help them. A priest helped organize a protest that would go to the tsar and issue requests for reforms that would help improve the lives of the people. These protesters were still loyal to the tsar, and believed that they could work with him rather than against him. They organized peacefully, and had already let it be known that they would be demonstrating. However, the soldiers protecting the tsar's palace opened fire on the protesters. Many people were killed, men, women, and children.

The Tsar, Nicholas II, did a very poor job helping the people, and missed many opportunities to make reforms that could have helped prevent the revolution. He believed that the tsar should hold absolute power as given to him by God, and that the people would remain naturally loyal to him. However, a growing number of people wished to have a democratic government in which the common people would have representation and the power to improve their own lives.



FIGURE 12.2

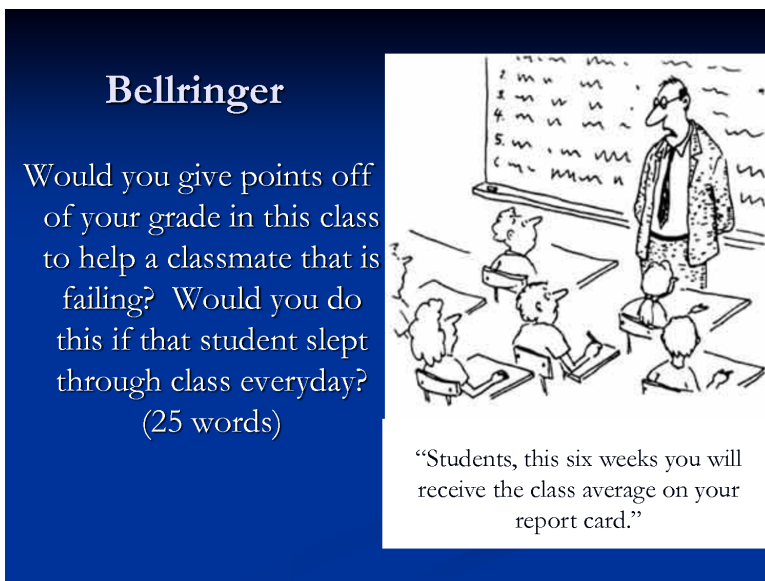


FIGURE 12.3

The outbreak of the First World War further helped set the country on the path to revolution. Many people were against Russia entering the war, and many of their problems steadily grew worse. In February of 1917, the full-scale revolution finally broke out. The tsar was forced to abdicate, and a new government was set up. The Provisional Government was an extension of a governing body that had already been in place, called the Duma. However, the tsar had severely hindered its effectiveness. Now, it was fully in control.

The Provisional Government was not supported by everyone, though. One of the popular political movements at the time was the Bolshevik party. This group was led by Vladimir Lenin. Because the Provisional Government and the Bolsheviks couldn't work together, the country remained chaotic and unstable.

In October of that year, a second revolution took place, called the October Revolution. This time the Bolshevik party took over. The Bolsheviks had been against Russia's involvement in the First World War, and signed a treaty with Germany in 1918.

HOW DID THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION END?

- C. Vladimir Lenin (1870-1924)
- Said that the *real enemy of Russians* were the *rich landowners and capitalism*, not Germany
 - When he was 17, his older brother was executed for treason
 - Was living in Switzerland in exile, and returned to Russia in 1917 (on a German train)
 - Called for *no private property, no social classes*, and *Russia's surrender to Germany*
 - Took control from Kerensky and the Liberal Reformers October 25, 1917 (October Revolution)

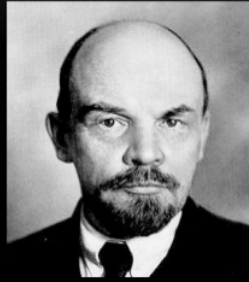


FIGURE 12.4



FIGURE 12.5

There were still many people in Russia who did not support the Bolsheviks. Eventually two primary factions appeared, the "Reds," being the Bolsheviks, and the "Whites," consisting of many various anti-Bolshevik groups. This erupted into a civil war which lasted several years, but which the Bolsheviks eventually won. This resulted in the adoption of communism and the formation of the USSR.

Stalin's chief aim was to expand industrial production. For this, he developed three Five-year Plans between 1928 and 1938. Gosplan, the state planning agency, drew up targets for production for each factory. The first two plans concentrated on improving heavy industry - coal, oil, steel and electricity.

Some keen young Communists, called Pioneers, went into barren areas and set up new towns and industries from nothing. There were champion workers called Stakhanovites, named after a coal miner who broke the record for the amount of coal dug up in a single shift. Education schemes were introduced to train skilled, literate workers.

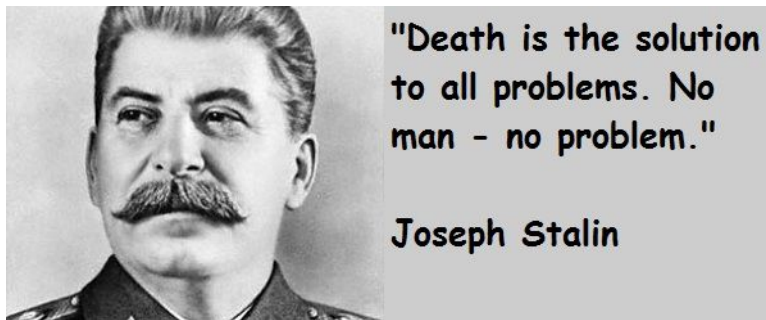


FIGURE 12.6

Joseph Stalin During the Cold War

- Stalin was one of the most influential people who had an affect on the Cold War.
- He served in the military and rose to power after he beat Leon Trotsky.
- Stalin brutally murdered people whom he suspected to not be 100% loyal to him; these were called purges.
- He knew that the United States was important, so he often encouraged business contracts with them.




FIGURE 12.7

The Soviet Union also gave opportunities to women - crèches were set up so they could also work. Women became doctors and scientists, as well as canal diggers and steel workers.

At the same time, many of the workers were slave workers and kulaks from the gulag. Strikers were shot, and wreckers (slow workers) could be executed or imprisoned. Thousands died from accidents, starvation or cold. Housing and wages were terrible, and no consumer goods were produced for people.

- * Coal - from 36 million tonnes to 130 million tonnes
- * Iron - from 3 million tonnes to 15 million tonnes
- * Oil - from 2 million tonnes to 29 million tonnes
- * Electricity - from 5,000 million to 36,000 million kilowatts

Purges

By 1928, Stalin was entrenched as supreme Soviet leader, and he wasted little time in launching a series of national campaigns (the so-called Five-Year Plans) aimed at "collectivizing" the peasantry and turning the USSR into a powerful industrial state. Both campaigns featured murder on a massive scale. Collectivization especially targeted Ukraine, "the breadbasket of the Soviet Union," which clung stubbornly to its own national identity and preference for village-level communal landholdings. In 1932-33, Stalin engineered a famine (by massively raising the grain quota that the peasantry had to turn over to the state); this killed between six and seven million people and broke



FIGURE 12.8

the back of Ukrainian resistance. The Ukrainian famine has only recently been recognized as one of the most destructive genocides of the twentieth century. The Five-Year Plans for industry, too, were implemented in an extraordinarily brutal fashion, leading to the deaths of millions of convict laborers, overwhelmingly men. A leader whose callous disregard for human life was matched only by his consuming paranoia, Stalin next turned his attention to the Communist Party itself. Various factions and networks opposed to his rule had managed to survive into the early 1930s; many in the party were now calling for reconciliation with the peasantry, a de-emphasizing of industrial production, and greater internal democracy. For Stalin, these dissident viewpoints represented an unacceptable threat. Anyone not unquestioningly loyal to him – and many hundreds of thousands who were – had to be "weeded out." The Communist Party would be rebuilt in the image of the "Great Leader." This was the origin of the "cult of personality" that permeated Soviet politics and culture, depicting Stalin as infallible, almost deity-like. Stalin's drive for total control, and his pressing need for convict labor to fuel rapid industrialization, next spawned the series of immense internal purges – beginning in 1935 – that sent millions of party members and ordinary individuals to their deaths, either through summary executions or in the atrocious conditions of the "Gulag Archipelago."

First Five-Year Plan

Objectives of this plan were:

- The rapid industrialisation of Russia.
- The introduction of socialised farming.
- Elimination of private enterprise.
- Development of education and transport.
- Target to keep Soviet Union on track

Stalin believed that attention to education was necessary in order to have a skilled industrial labour force. Improvements in transport would help move raw materials, manufactured products and agricultural produce. In order to reach the required targets, new railway lines were built and the old ones upgraded.

FIGURE 12.9

Eurasian Republics

Gorbachev's promised reforms began to falter, and he soon had a formidable political opponent agitating for even more radical restructuring. Boris Yeltsin, president of the Russian SSR, began challenging the authority of the federal government and resigned from the Communist Party along with other dissenters in 1990. On Aug. 29, 1991, an attempted coup d'état against Gorbachev was orchestrated by a group of hard-liners. Yeltsin's defiant actions during the coup—he barricaded himself in the Russian parliament and called for national strikes—resulted in Gorbachev's reinstatement. But from then on, power had effectively shifted from Gorbachev to Yeltsin and away from centralized power to greater power for the individual Soviet republics. In his last months as the head of the Soviet Union, Gorbachev dissolved the Communist Party and proposed the formation of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), which, when implemented, gave most of the Soviet Socialist Republics their independence, binding them together in a loose, primarily economic federation. Russia and ten other former Soviet republics joined the CIS on Dec. 21, 1991. Gorbachev resigned on Dec. 25, and Yeltsin, who had been the driving force behind the Soviet dissolution, became president of the newly established Russian Republic.

At the start of 1992, Russia embarked on a series of dramatic economic reforms, including the freeing of prices on most goods, which led to an immediate downturn. A national referendum on confidence in Yeltsin and his economic program took place in April 1993. To the surprise of many, the president and his shock-therapy program won by a resounding margin. In September, Yeltsin dissolved the legislative bodies left over from the Soviet era.

The president of the southern republic of Chechnya accelerated his region's drive for independence in 1994. In December, Russian troops closed the borders and sought to squelch the independence drive. The Russian military forces met firm and costly resistance. In May 1997, the two-year war formally ended with the signing of a peace treaty that adroitly avoided the issue of Chechen independence.

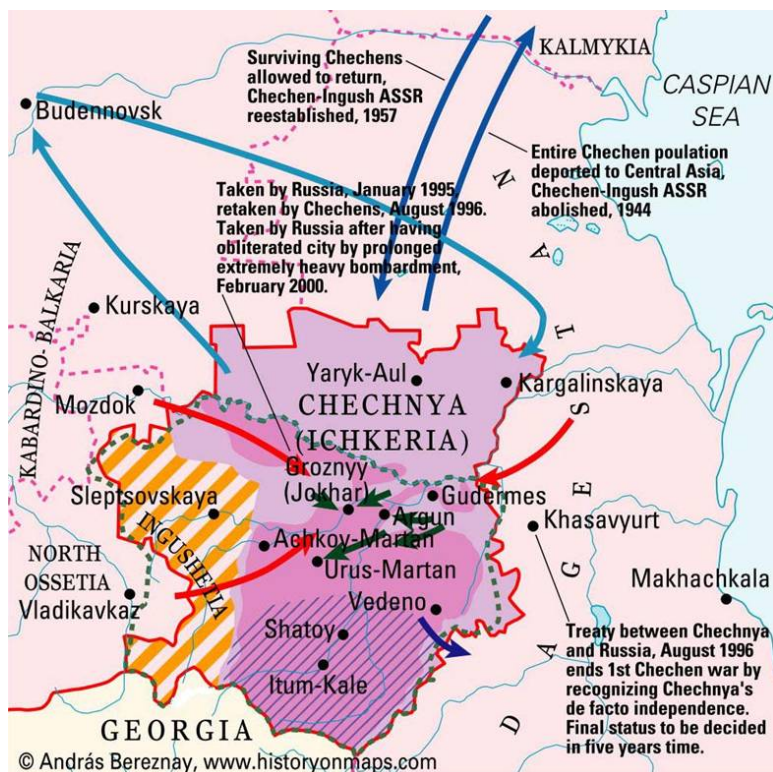


FIGURE 12.10

CONCEPT 13 Russia and The Eurasian Republics (Eastern Europe): Chechen Conflict: Chernobyl Disaster

The reason that Chechnya has experienced two wars and numerous terrorist movements within 10 years is because the Russian Federation is unwilling to recognise it as an autonomous state. In 1991 the people of Chechnya held a coup against the communist Russian government and declared their nation independent for the first time. The first war in Chechnya began just three years after this when Chechnya refused to surrender to the Russian Federation. Russia invaded with the intent of taking back the nation, the people of Chechnya fought back and a two year war ensued. Despite the war ending in 1996, internal terrorist movements went on and attacks on Moscow spurred Russia to again invade in 1999. This war was presented by the Russians as a war on terror but as was the case in 1994, Russia had the ultimate attempt of taking Chechnya back and avoiding its independence from the Russian Federation.

Cause of the conflict



FIGURE 13.1

The Chechen Conflict

Just three years after the bloody 1994–1996 Chechen-Russian war ended in devastation and stalemate, the fighting started again in 1999, with Russia launching air strikes and following up with ground troops. By the end of November, Russian troops had surrounded Chechnya's capital, Grozny, and about 215,000 Chechen refugees had fled to neighboring Ingushetia. Russia maintained that a political solution was impossible until Islamic militants in Chechnya had been vanquished.

In a decision that took Russia and the world by surprise, Boris Yeltsin resigned on Dec. 31, 1999, and Vladimir Putin became the acting president. Two months later, after almost five months of fighting, Russian troops captured Grozny. It was a political as well as a military victory for Putin, whose hard-line stance against Chechnya greatly contributed to his political popularity.

On March 26, 2000, Putin won the presidential election with about 53% of the vote. Putin moved to centralize power in Moscow and attempted to limit the power and influence of both the regional governors and wealthy business leaders. Although Russia remained economically stagnant, Putin brought his nation a measure of political stability it never had under the mercurial and erratic Yeltsin. In Aug. 2000 the Russian government was severely criticized for its handling of the Kursk disaster, a nuclear submarine accident that left 118 sailors dead.

Russia was initially alarmed in 2001 when the U.S. announced its rejection of the Anti-Ballistic Missile Treaty of 1972, which for 30 years had been viewed as a crucial force in keeping the nuclear arms race under control. But Putin was eventually placated by President George W. Bush's reassurances, and in May 2002, the U.S. and Russian leaders announced a landmark pact to cut both countries' nuclear arsenals by up to two-thirds over the next ten years.

On Oct. 23, 2002, Chechen rebels seized a crowded Moscow theater and detained 763 people, including 3 Americans. Armed and wired with explosives, the rebels demanded that the Russian government end the war in Chechnya. Government forces stormed the theater the next day, after releasing a gas into the theater that killed not only all the

rebels but more than 100 hostages.

In March 2003, Chechens voted in a referendum that approved a new regional constitution making Chechnya a separatist republic within Russia. Agreeing to the constitution meant abandoning claims for complete independence, and the new powers accorded the republic were little more than cosmetic. During 2003, there were 11 bomb attacks against Russia that were believed to have been orchestrated by Chechen rebels.

THE TIMES

No 62,443

TUESDAY, APRIL 29 1986

Alert 1,000 miles away in Sweden after Moscow admits casualties

Huge nuclear leak at Soviet plant

By Thomson Press, Science Correspondent, and Christopher Mosey, Stockholm

A massive radioactive leak at a Soviet nuclear power station has caused casualties in what may be the world's worst nuclear accident. The leak was so large that it prompted a full-scale alert nearly 1,000 miles away in Sweden, including the evacuation of 400 workers from a Swedish power station on the Baltic coast.

Finland reported radiation levels six times higher than normal, Denmark five times higher than normal, and Norway 20% up as a result of the accident. "We have registered radiation just about everywhere we have looked," said Mr. Ragnar Borge of the Swedish Radiation Institute.

Soviet atomic energy authorities at first told the Swedish Embassy in Moscow they were unaware of any nuclear accident on Soviet territory that could cause a leak to reach Sweden.

But later the Times reported that an accident had taken place at a nuclear power station at Chernobyl, north of Kiev, and there were some casualties. It said measures were being undertaken "to eliminate the consequences of the accident" at the plant, where a reactor had been damaged. Aid was being given to those affected by the leak, it added.

Swedish scientists at first believed a leak had occurred at their own nuclear plant at Forsmark, on the Baltic coast about 60 miles north of Stockholm, and evacuated the 600 workers there. After the evacuation radiation levels were checked at other areas of the country, including the capital.

These all confirmed a high degree of radioactivity that was normal, and further tests at Forsmark led the Swedish authorities to conclude that the discharge had come from the Soviet Union.

Some Swedish nuclear experts said they believed the Soviet accident was caused by the over-heating of nuclear fuel. A "considerable explosion" would be the result of such overheating and could have led to a "meltdown" of the nuclear core of the reactor, they said.

The Swedish Energy Minister, Mrs Birgitta Dahl, said all Russian nuclear reactors should be placed under international control.

"We must demand that Soviet Union improve their security, and inform the rest of the world of such accidents in good time," she said.

The first stage of the Chernobyl reactor plant was put into service in September 1977, followed by two more stages in 1980.

A government committee of inquiry had been set up by the Soviet Union into the accident, Mrs Dahl said.

The Swedish Defence Ministry said an abnormally high level of radioactivity had been recorded on Monday afternoon by several monitoring stations in Finland, Sweden, Denmark and Norway.

The ministry said that at a rate of "a few millirems an hour" the level was not thought high enough to warrant the evacuation of the local population at Forsmark. It would not be a danger to human beings, although regional operations said the level was twice as high as in Finland as in Sweden and Norway.

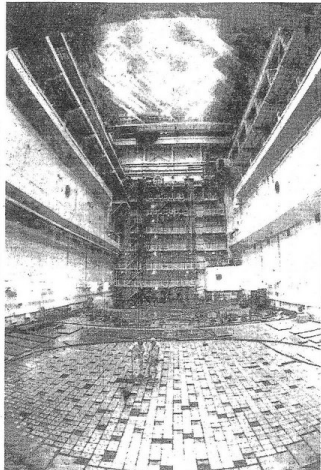
A millirem is a unit of ionising radiation that gives the same biological effect as one-thousandth of a standard unit of X-rays.

Mr. Mikhael Gorbachev came to power in March 1985 there have been repeated calls in the Soviet Union for more open reporting of disasters inside the Soviet Union.

The Times statement was seen as a cheeky propaganda move ordered by the Kremlin to counter any international criticism of safety measures taken inside the Soviet Union, which has traditionally surrounded details of its nuclear programme with secrecy.

Abandoned villages: There was a serious nuclear accident in the Soviet Union during the winter of 1953-54 according to a report published in February 1980 by the Oak Ridge National Laboratory in Tennessee (UPI reports).

The report said the complex covered between 40 to 400 square miles. It said there was "some loss of life" and at least 20 villages were abandoned; their names had recently deleted from Soviet maps.



Before the leak: workers in a reactor room of the Chernobyl nuclear plant near Kiev.

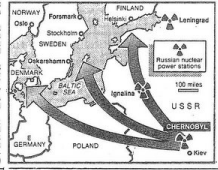


FIGURE 13.2

Chernobyl Accident

The accident destroyed the Chernobyl 4 reactor, killing 30 operators and firemen within three months and several further deaths later. One person was killed immediately and a second died in hospital soon after as a result of injuries received. Another person is reported to have died at the time from a coronary thrombosis. Acute radiation syndrome (ARS) was originally diagnosed in 237 people on-site and involved with the clean-up and it was later confirmed in 134 cases. Of these, 28 people died as a result of ARS within a few weeks of the accident. Nineteen more subsequently died between 1987 and 2004 but their deaths cannot necessarily be attributed to radiation exposure. Nobody off-site suffered from acute radiation effects although a large proportion of childhood thyroid cancers diagnosed since the accident is likely to be due to intake of radioactive iodine fallout. Furthermore, large areas of Belarus, Ukraine, Russia and beyond were contaminated in varying degrees.

The Chernobyl disaster was a unique event and the only accident in the history of commercial nuclear power where radiation-related fatalities occurred. However, the design of the reactor is unique and in that respect the accident is thus of little relevance to the rest of the nuclear industry outside the then Eastern Bloc. However, it led to major changes in safety culture and in industry cooperation, particularly between East and West before the end of the Soviet Union. Former President Gorbachev said that the Chernobyl accident was a more important factor in the fall of the Soviet Union than Perestroika – his program of liberal reform.

Aftermath of the Chernobyl disaster



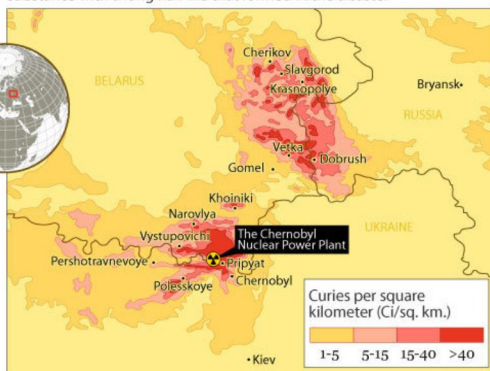
On April 26, 1986, an explosion occurred at the fourth reactor of the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant in the Ukrainian SSR, now Ukraine

- Number of people killed in the first three months after the disaster: **31**
- Number of people killed due to the long-term effects of radiation (15 years): **60-80**
- Number of people who survived acute radiation syndrome: **134**
- Number of people involved in clean-up operations: **Over 600,000**

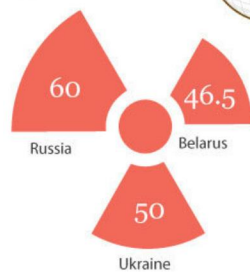
Ground contamination

- Five million hectares of farmland were taken out of use
- Radius of the exclusion zone around the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant: 30 kilometers

Map showing radioactive contamination with cesium-137, a harmful substance with a long half-life that formed in the disaster



Total area of affected regions, thousands of square kilometers



The curie (symbol Ci) is an off-system unit of radioactivity. In addition to the curie, radioactivity can be measured using the becquerel (Bq), which is equal to one decay per second. Therefore: 1 Ci = 3.7×10^{10} Bq

Average radiation doses received by different areas of the population



Clean-up workers 600,000 people	1986—1989	~100mSv
Evacuees 116,000 people	1986	33mSv
Residents of restricted areas 270,000 people	1986—2005	>50mSv
Residents of other contaminated areas 5,000,000 people	1986—2005	10—20mSv

The millisievert equals one-thousandth (0.001) of one sievert. The sievert (symbol: Sv) is a unit measuring the biological effect of radiation on the body. One sievert equals one joule per kilogram. The level of natural background radiation averages about 2.4 millisieverts per year

FIGURE 13.3

CONCEPT

14

Unit 7 A Crossroads of Diffusion: Southwest Asia & North Africa (The Middle East)

CONCEPT 15 The Middle East: North Africa & Southwest Asia: Geography

Unit 07: A Crossroads of Diffusion: Southwest Asia/North Africa (10 days for the entire unit) 6.1A, 6.1B, 6.3A, 6.3B, 6.3C, 6.4D, 6.4E, 6.4F, 6.5A, 6.5B, 6.5C, 6.6B, 6.7A, 6.7B, 6.8A, 6.8B, 6.8C, 6.15F, 6.16B, 6.16C, 6.17B, 6.17C, 6.17D, 6.17E, 6.19A, 6.20B, 6.21B, 6.21C, 6.22B, 6.22D, 6.22E



FIGURE 15.1

FIGURE 15.2

Geography

The Middle East region represents an area of over 5.0 million square miles. The physical geography of the Middle East is varied. Vast deserts are common in the region.

The Sahara Desert runs across North Africa, essentially limiting settlement to along the Mediterranean coastline and in Egypt along the Nile River. The desert of the Arabian Peninsula is so inhospitable that it has been given the name "The Empty Quarter." Other significant deserts exist throughout the region. In areas better served by rainfall and rivers (for example the Tigris-Euphrates river system, the Jordan River, and along the Mediterranean coast), rich agriculture is abundant. Mountain ranges exist throughout the region with some peaks rising as high as 19,000 feet. Snow is a common sight in these mountain ranges. Between the mountains, high plateaus are common .

Ease of movement in and out of the Middle East by water is also affected by the presence of a number of narrow water passageways. Gibraltar controls the water route linking the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea. Water access between the Mediterranean and Black Seas is only possible through the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles, which in some places is only half a mile wide. Other critical water routes would include: the Suez Canal, which links the



FIGURE 15.3

Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea; Bab el Mandeb, a strait that separates the Red Sea from the Indian Ocean; and the Strait of Hormuz, which links the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean.

Resources

Ten countries in the Middle East produce nearly all of the region's petroleum: Bahrain, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, United Arab Emirates and Yemen. Except for Bahrain and Yemen, these countries are also members of the Organization for Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), which has been dubbed in the West "the world's oil cartel."

The Middle East was part of the giant equatorial Tethys Sea, which stretched from southern Europe to south-central Asia from 265 to 55 million years ago. Organic-rich mud deposited on the continental shelf of the Tethys proved an effective source rock for petroleum. After the closure of the Tethys, the collision of the Arabian Plate with Asia and the formation of the Zagros Mountains in Iran that began about 55 million years ago, a foreland basin formed atop the Tethyan shelf sediments. Thus, a thick pile of sediments spanning the last 500 million years of Earth's history has developed multiple source, reservoir and cap rocks for petroleum in the Middle East.

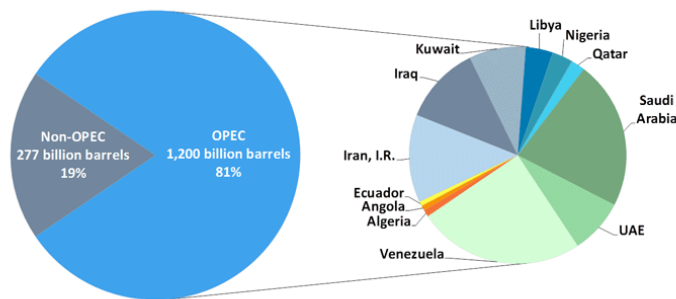
This sedimentary sequence is sealed in many places by impermeable salt layers below Cambrian sediments and above Miocene reservoir rocks. Although the majority of reservoir rocks in the region are fine-grained limestone, physical and chemical processes have created sufficient spaces and permeability in these rocks to store and yield economic volumes of petroleum. Gentle folding, salt domes and faulting have formed large structural traps within which petroleum accumulated. Despite what we know about the sedimentary basins in the Middle East, uncertainty remains regarding how much oil the region still contains, due to both geology and politics. Petroleum data are not always reported fully or correctly because of political and national security considerations. Additionally, varying methods of estimating and reporting reserves are responsible for our poor knowledge of the Middle East's oil reserves.

MIDDLE EAST



FIGURE 15.4

OPEC Share of World Crude Oil Reserves 2012



OPEC proven crude oil reserves, end 2012
(billion barrels, OPEC Share)

Venezuela	297.7	24.8%	Iraq	140.3	11.7%	Libya	48.5	4.0%	Algeria	12.2	1.0%
Saudi Arabia	265.9	22.1%	Kuwait	101.5	8.5%	Nigeria	37.1	3.1%	Angola	9.1	0.8%
Iran, I.R.	157.3	13.1%	United Arab Emirates	97.8	8.1%	Qatar	25.2	2.1%	Ecuador	8.2	0.7%

Source: OPEC Annual Statistical Bulletin 2013

FIGURE 15.5

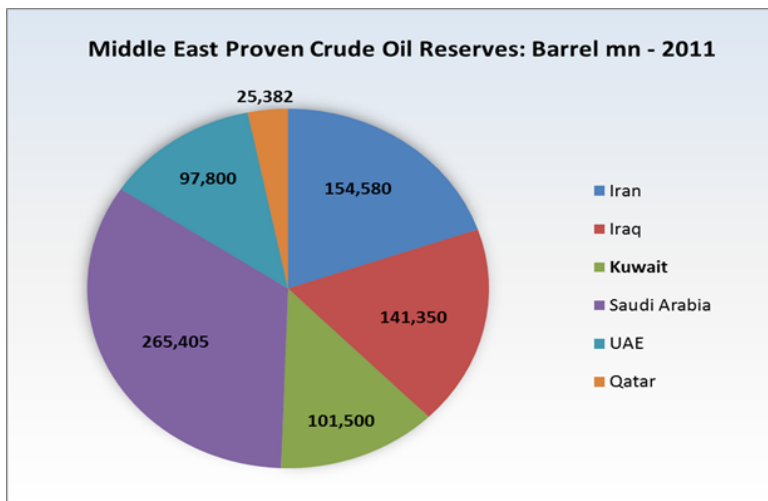


FIGURE 15.6

CONCEPT 16 The Middle East: N. Africa & SW Asia: A Crossroads of 3 Religions



FIGURE 16.1

Crossroads of Three Religions

1. Three of the world's major religions – the monotheist traditions of Judaism, Christianity, and Islam – were all born in the Middle East and are all inextricably linked to one another. Christianity was born from within the Jewish tradition, and Islam developed from both Christianity and Judaism. While there have been differences among these religions, there was a rich cultural interchange between Jews, Christians, and Muslims that took place in Islamic Spain and other places over centuries.

Judaism

A brief history of Judaism Judaism is the oldest surviving monotheistic religion, arising in the eastern Mediterranean in the second millennium B.C.E. Abraham is traditionally considered to be the first Jew and to have made a covenant with God. Because Judaism, Christianity, and Islam all recognize Abraham as their first prophet, they are also called the Abrahamic religions.

Christianity

Christianity started as an offshoot of Judaism in the first century C.E. Until the emperor Constantine converted to Christianity in 324 C.E., early Christian communities were often persecuted. It was then that the Roman Empire became the Holy Roman Empire, and its capital relocated from Rome to Constantinople (formerly Byzantium and now Istanbul). The development of Christian groups derived from major and minor splits. The Orthodox Church and its patriarch split away from the Roman Catholic Church and the Pope in 1054 C.E. because of political and doctrinal differences. In the 16th century, Martin Luther, upset at the corruption of the Catholic papacy, spearheaded

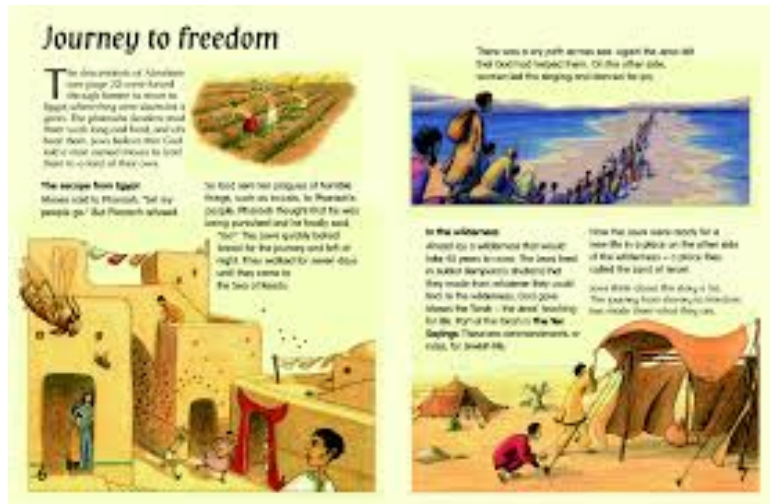


FIGURE 16.2

The Jewish Holidays

Sources of the Jewish Holidays

The Jewish holidays are all the traditional and national holidays of the Jewish people, some of whom are days of joy, some are days of seriousness and thought, and some are days of fasting, mourning and remembrance. The Jewish holidays are based on the Hebrew calendar and stem from three main sources:

- Holidays of Biblical origin (from the Torah):** These are holidays that each and every one of them has special mitzvot which are specified in the Torah. Most of them are "holy convocations" and work is prohibited, but all of them are in remembrance of the Exodus from Egypt.
- Holidays of Rabbinic Sages origin (from the Talmud):** The Rabbinic Sages set holidays to be days of joy in remembrance of the miracle events that happened to the Jewish people. They also tried to re-create the fasting and mourning holidays commemorating the destruction of both Temples.
- Holidays of the State of Israel origin (from the Knesset):** These are holidays enacted by the Knesset in the state of Israel to be days of remembrance and commemoration of personalities and events that had a significant contribution to the national heritage.

YOM KIPPUR (Yom Kippur)

On the tenth day of the seventh month is the Day of Atonement. It is the holiest day for the Jewish people and one of the most important. It is a day of fasting and prayer. The fast is observed from sunset on the evening of the ninth day to sunset on the tenth day. It is a day of atonement and repentance for the Jewish people. The fast is observed from sunset on the evening of the ninth day to sunset on the tenth day. It is a day of atonement and repentance for the Jewish people.

SUKKOT (Sukkot)

The festival of the booths is the last of the major Jewish holidays. It is a festival of joy and thanksgiving. It is observed from the 15th day of the seventh month to the 21st day. It is a festival of joy and thanksgiving. It is observed from the 15th day of the seventh month to the 21st day. It is a festival of joy and thanksgiving.

SHMITA (Shmita)

The seventh year is a year of rest for the land. It is a year of rest for the land. It is a year of rest for the land. It is a year of rest for the land. It is a year of rest for the land. It is a year of rest for the land. It is a year of rest for the land.

TISHREI

The Hebrew calendar

The Hebrew calendar is the calendar implemented in Judaism. All the Jewish holidays have been determined by the Hebrew calendar, and throughout the ages, the Jewish people preserved the holidays on the precise dates that they were set.

The Jewish tradition month are practiced daily, and the traditional holidays must be observed at the exact time of the day and on the specific month of the year as specified in the Torah. Since seasons and sunset hours vary by the seasons of the year, the Jewish Halachah (law) places a great importance on determining time precisely.

A Day in Judaism begins at sunset when three stars appear in the sky and continues until sunset the next day, referring to the Bible verse: "And there was evening and there was morning, one day" (Genesis 1:5).

A Month in Judaism is based on the moon cycle changing shape. A Jewish month begins with the new moon and continues until the next new moon, a time period of 29.5 days. For keeping the balance, the Hebrew calendar has months with 29 days and months with 30 days. Since the traditional holidays must be celebrated on the precise agricultural seasons of the year, the Torah emphasizes the importance of the lagging of a new month (Bosh Chodesh) by sanctifying it.

The uniqueness of the Hebrew calendar is that it combines the months of the year which are based on the lunar cycle, and the agricultural seasons of the year which are affected by the solar cycle. The problem of the difference between a solar year of 365 days and a lunar year of 354 days was resolved by the Jewish Sages by adding a month to the Hebrew year and creating a "leap year" of 13 months, every four years.

ELUL

15th of Av (Tu B'Shvat)

9th of Av (Tisha B'Av)

17th of Tamuz

Shavuot

Yom Terumah

Yom Terumah

CHESHVAN

Yom HaZikaron

Yom HaZikaron

Yom HaZikaron

KISLEV

Chanukah

Chanukah

Chanukah

SHEVAT

Counting of the Omer (Sevivot Haomer)

ADAR

Yom HaPurim

Yom HaPurim

Yom HaPurim

NISAN

Yom HaZikaron

Yom HaZikaron

Yom HaZikaron

SIYMAN

Yom HaZikaron

Yom HaZikaron

Yom HaZikaron

Tishrei

1st day of Tishrei - Rosh Hashana

2nd day of Tishrei - Yom Kippur

3rd day of Tishrei - Sukkot

4th day of Tishrei - Sukkot

5th day of Tishrei - Sukkot

6th day of Tishrei - Sukkot

7th day of Tishrei - Sukkot

8th day of Tishrei - Sukkot

9th day of Tishrei - Sukkot

10th day of Tishrei - Sukkot

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30th day of Tishrei - Sukkot

Cheshvan

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30th day of Kislev

The months between Tishrei and Nisan

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30th day of the month

Nisan

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2nd day of Nisan

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23rd day of Nisan

24th day of Nisan

25th day of Nisan

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27th day of Nisan

28th day of Nisan

29th day of Nisan

30th day of Nisan

Yyar

1st day of Yyar

2nd day of Yyar

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29th day of Yyar

30th day of Yyar

Shivan

1st day of Shivan

2nd day of Shivan

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25th day of Shivan

26th day of Shivan

27th day of Shivan

28th day of Shivan

29th day of Shivan

30th day of Shivan

FIGURE 16.3

Christian Symbols Mega-Pack



FIGURE 16.4

a reformation movement that led to the development of Protestantism. Christian missionaries proselytize all over the world, and there are large populations of Christians on every continent on Earth, although the forms of Christianity practiced vary.

Islam

Islam arose in the early seventh century C.E. in the settled desert community of Mecca (in present-day Saudi Arabia). It developed from both the Judeo-Christian tradition and the cultural values of the nomadic Bedouin tribes of Arabia. Islam expanded into areas controlled by the Byzantine Empire (largely Greek-speaking and Orthodox Christian, but with a diverse population) and the Sassanian Empire (officially Zoroastrian and Persian-speaking, but also diverse). By the mid-eighth century, Islam had spread west into North Africa and Europe, and east into Central Asia. Over the centuries, Islam continued to grow in sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Southeast Asia. As Islam expanded, the new Islamic societies adapted and synthesized many of the customs they encountered. As a result, Muslims in different areas of the world created for themselves a wide array of cultural traditions

The

THE FIVE PILLARS OF ISLAM

1
SHAHAADAH
(Testimony)
Declaration of Faith



Muslims declare their faith by saying: "Ash hadu anlaa ilaaha illallaahu wa ash hadu anna muhammadar rasulallah"
Which means "I bear witness that there is no god except Allaah and I bear witness that Muhammad is the Messenger of Allaah".

2
SALAAH
(Prayer)
Five Compulsory Daily Prayers



A physical and mental means of worship prescribed five times a day. These are to remember God and to seek forgiveness throughout the day. We face towards the Holy Kaa'bah in Makkah. Salaat (Prayer) is performed at set times before sunrise, at midday, in the afternoon, in the evening after the sunsets and at nightfall.

The religion of Islam requires accepting some main Articles of Faith. These are the core beliefs - without any one of these, one would not be accepted as a believer. The acceptance of these Articles leads to the practical five Pillars of Islam.

The Five Pillars of Islam are the Fundamental duties in a Muslims life, which lead to living a good and responsible life according to Islam.

3
ZAKAAT
(Purity or Charity)
Almsgiving



The Arabic word Zakaat means to purify. Muslims give 2.5% of their surplus wealth to charity every year. This shows obedience to God and prevents greed. Zakaat is given to the poor and those that are less fortunate than ourselves. It is believed that by giving charity, the possessions you keep are made pure.

4
SAWM
(Fasting)
Fasting During the Month of Ramadhaan



For one month of the Year, Muslims refrain from food, drink and keep away from things that distract us from worship. This is done during the day from dawn till dusk. Although fasting is beneficial to health, fasting is a form of worship. Additionally it helps us to remember others who are less fortunate and do not have much food or water.

5
HAJJ
(Pilgrimage)
Pilgrimage to the Holy Sites in Makkah



Hajj is the journey to the holy sites in Makkah to perform various rituals. It is only obligatory once in a life time upon those who have the financial means and are physically able. The pilgrims adorn simple garment that strip away any distinctions of class and culture, so they all stand equal before Allah (God). The final part of the pilgrimage is at the Holy Ka'bah (cube) in the centre of the great Mosque in Makkah.

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FIGURE 16.5

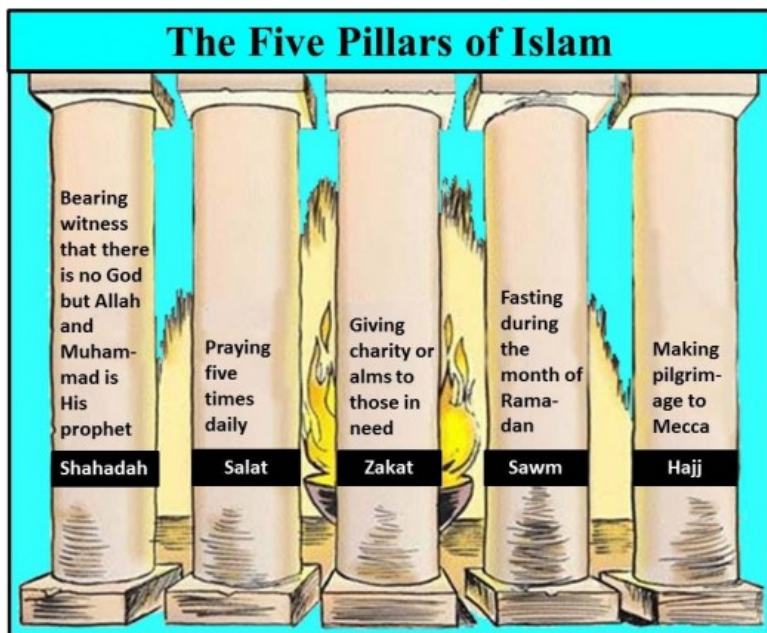


FIGURE 16.6



FIGURE 16.7



FIGURE 16.8



FIGURE 16.9

CONCEPT

17

North Africa & Southwest Asia: Conflict in the Middle East- Palestine: Islamic Women & Rights



FIGURE 17.1

Conflict in the Middle East

In 1917 Great Britain issued the Balfour Declaration for "the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people". In 1922 Britain allocated nearly 80% of Palestine to Transjordan. Thus, Jordan covers the majority of the land of Palestine under British Mandate. Jordan also includes the majority of the Arabs who lived there. In other words, Jordan is the Arab portion of Palestine.

The residents of Palestine are called "Palestinians". Since Palestine includes both modern day Israel and Jordan both Arab and Jewish residents of this area were referred to as "Palestinians".

It was only after the Jews re-inhabited their historic homeland of Judea and Samaria, that the myth of an Arab Palestinian nation was created and marketed worldwide. Jews come from Judea, not Palestinians. There is no language known as Palestinian, or any Palestinian culture distinct from that of all the Arabs in the area. There has never been a land known as Palestine governed by Palestinians. "Palestinians" are Arabs indistinguishable from Arabs throughout the Middle East. The great majority of Arabs in greater Palestine and Israel share the same culture, language and religion.

Much of the Arab population in this area actually migrated into Israel and Judea and Samaria from the surrounding Arab countries in the past 100 years. The rebirth of Israel was accompanied by economic prosperity for the region. Arabs migrated to this area to find employment and enjoy the higher standard of living. In documents not more than hundred years, the area is described as a scarcely populated region. Jews by far were the majority in Jerusalem over the small Arab minority. Until the Oslo agreement the major source of income for Arab residents was employment in the Israeli sector. To this day, many Arabs try to migrate into Israel with various deceptions to become a citizen of Israel.

Even the Chairman of the Palestinian Authority, Arafat himself, is not a "Palestinian". He was born in Egypt. The famous "Palestinian covenant" states that Palestinians are "an integral part of the Arab nation" – a nation which is blessed with a sparsely populated land mass 660 times the size of tiny Israel (Judea, Samaria and Gaza included).

All attempts to claim Arab sovereignty over Israel of today, should be seen with their real intention: The destruction of Israel as a Jewish state and the only bulwark of the Judeo-Christian Western civilization in the Middle East.

There are two primary issues at the core of this continuing conflict. First, there is the inevitably destabilizing effect of trying to maintain an ethnically preferential state, particularly when it is largely of foreign origin. The original population of what is now Israel was 96 percent Muslim and Christian, yet, these refugees are prohibited from returning to their homes in the self-described Jewish state (and those within Israel are subjected to systematic discrimination).

Second, Israel’s continued military occupation and confiscation of privately owned land in the West Bank, and control over Gaza, are extremely oppressive, with Palestinians having minimal control over their lives. Thousands of Palestinian men, women, and children are held in Israeli prisons. Few of them have had a legitimate trial; Physical abuse and torture are frequent. Palestinian borders (even internal ones) are controlled by Israeli forces. Periodically men, women, and children are strip searched; people are beaten; women in labor are prevented from reaching hospitals (at times resulting in death); food and medicine are blocked from entering Gaza, producing an escalating humanitarian crisis. Israeli forces invade almost daily, injuring, kidnapping, and sometimes killing inhabitants.

According to the Oslo peace accords of 1993, these territories were supposed to finally become a Palestinian state. However, after years of Israel continuing to confiscate land and conditions steadily worsening, the Palestinian population rebelled. This uprising, called the “Intifada” (Arabic for “shaking off”) began at the end of September 2000.

Attitudes Toward Women’s Rights

Median % of Muslims who completely or mostly agree ...

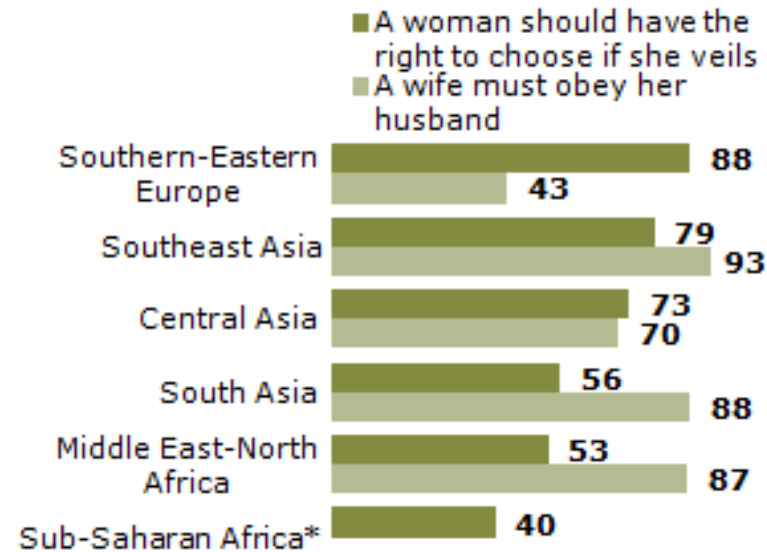


FIGURE 17.2

*Data for all countries except Niger from "Tolerance and Tension: Islam and Christianity in Sub-Saharan Africa."

Question on whether a woman should always obey her husband was not asked in sub-Saharan Africa.

PEW RESEARCH CENTER Q58, Q58AF and Q78.

Woman's Rights in the Middle East

While the situation of women has been generally worse under customary than under Islamic law, Islamic law itself has many provisions that leave women at a clear disadvantage - an irony of history, since these same provisions at the time of their promulgation in seventh century Arabia originally advanced women's rights vis-a-vis the then existing norms. Under traditional Islamic law, child marriages were allowed; a girl could be forced into marriage by a qualified male relation. While a woman could marry only one man at a time, men were allowed up to four wives and an unlimited number of concubines. Women were legally required to be submissive and obedient to their husbands; were they not, their husbands were entitled to beat them and to suspend all maintenance payments. Obedience included never leaving the house without the husband's blessings; a husband could get the assistance of the police to forcibly return his wife to the marital home if she were absent without his leave. Her contacts with persons outside the family were similarly subject to restriction at her husband's wishes.

While Islamic law schools have differed in the details of their rules of divorce, women often could not obtain a divorce unless their husbands cooperated. In contrast, a husband was able to divorce a wife anytime simply by uttering a divorce formula. Observation of actual cases suggests that many husbands tended to abuse this extremely easy method of divorce, which led to a great deal of insecurity and anxiety for many wives. Divorced women often found themselves in poverty, because Islamic law required the husband to support children from the marriage permanently, but his divorced wife only until the expiration of three menstrual cycles after the pronouncement of the divorce (or delivery of a baby if she were pregnant). In addition, women inherited only one-half the amount of males. This discrimination is somewhat mitigated by the fact that males alone were supposed to bear the expenses of maintaining their wives, children and households, and seems less severe when one recalls that under many of the regimes of customary law that have prevailed to this day in the Middle East, women inherit nothing.

The provisions of Islamic law affecting women have been jealously guarded over the centuries, in part because so many of them are set forth in the text of the Qur'an, regarded by Muslims as the eternally valid Speech of God to mankind. Thus, the influence of European powers, which dominated the Middle East in the nineteenth and twentieth century's both politically and culturally, did not lead to an abandonment of Islamic law in the areas of family law and inheritance even though other areas of law were being Westernized through the borrowing of European law codes.

CONCEPT

18

The Middle East: Modern Islamic Terrorism



FIGURE 18.1

Modern Islamic Terrorism

The disintegration of post-Cold War states, and the Cold War legacy of a world awash in advanced conventional weapons and know-how, has assisted the proliferation of terrorism worldwide. Vacuums of stability created by conflict and absence of governance in areas such as the Balkans, Afghanistan, Colombia, and certain African countries offer readymade areas for terrorist training and recruitment activity, while smuggling and drug trafficking routes are often exploited by terrorists to support operations worldwide. With the increasing ease of transnational transportation and communication, the continued willingness of states such as Iran and Iraq to provide support, and dehumanizing ideologies that enable mass casualty attacks, the lethal potential of terrorist violence has reached new heights.

The region of Afghanistan – it is not a country in the conventional sense – has, particularly since the 1989 Soviet withdrawal, emerged as a terrorist training ground. Pakistan, struggling to balance its needs for political-economic reform with a domestic religious agenda, provides assistance to terrorist groups both in Afghanistan and Kashmir while acting as a further transit area between the Middle East and South Asia.

Since their emergence in 1994, the Pakistani-supported Taliban militia in Afghanistan has assumed several characteristics traditionally associated with state-sponsors of terrorism, providing logistical support, travel documentation, and training facilities. Although radical groups such as the Egyptian Islamic Jihad, **Osama bin Laden's Al Qaeda**,

and Kashmiri militants were in Afghanistan prior to the Taliban, the spread of Taliban control has seen Afghan-based terrorism evolve into a relatively coordinated, widespread activity focused on sustaining and developing terrorist capabilities. Since the mid-1990s, Pakistani-backed terrorist groups fighting in Kashmir have increasingly used training camps inside Taliban-controlled areas. At the same time, members of these groups, as well as thousands of youths from Pakistan's Northwest Frontier Province (NWFP), have fought with the Taliban against opposition forces. This activity has seen the rise of extremism in parts of Pakistan neighboring Afghanistan, further complicating the ability of Islamabad to exert control over militants. Moreover, the intermixing of Pakistani movements with the Taliban and their Arab-Afghan allies has seen ties between these groups strengthen.

Since 1989 the increasing willingness of religious extremists to strike targets outside immediate country or regional areas underscores the global nature of contemporary terrorism. The 1993 bombing of the World Trade Center, and the Sept. 11, 2001, attacks on the World Trade Center and Pentagon, are representative of this trend.



FIGURE 18.2



FIGURE 18.3



FIGURE 18.4

CONCEPT 19 Middle East: North Africa & S.W. Asia: The Arab Spring

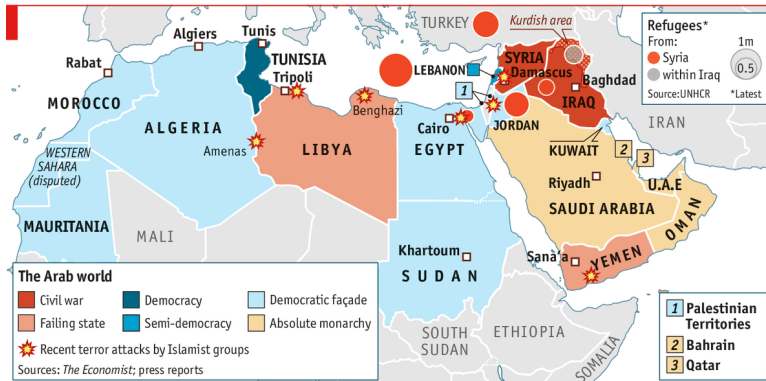


FIGURE 19.1

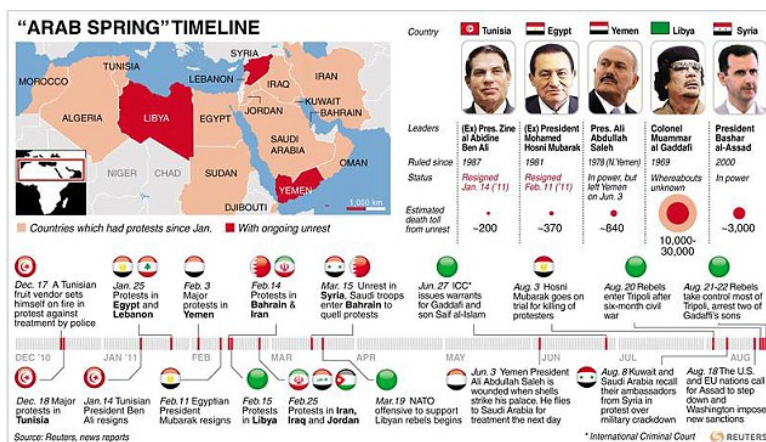


FIGURE 19.2

Arab Spring

The Arab Spring was a series of anti-government protests, uprisings and armed rebellions that spread across the Middle East in early 2011. But their purpose, relative success and outcome remain hotly disputed in Arab countries, among foreign observers, and between world powers looking to cash in on the changing map of the Middle East.

2011 Arab Uprisings: Why the Name the “Arab Spring”?

The term “Arab Spring” was popularized by the Western media in early 2011, when the successful uprising in Tunisia against former leader Zine El Abidine Ben Ali emboldened similar anti-government protests in most Arab countries.

The term was a reference to the turmoil in Eastern Europe in 1989, when seemingly impregnable Communist regimes began falling down under pressure from mass popular protests in a domino effect. In a short period of time, most countries in the former Communist bloc adopted democratic political systems with a market economy.

But the events in the Middle East went in a less straightforward direction. Egypt, Tunisia and Yemen entered an uncertain transition period, Syria and Libya were drawn into a civil conflict, while the wealthy monarchies in the Persian Gulf remained largely unshaken by the events. The use of the term the “Arab Spring” has since been criticized for being inaccurate and simplistic.

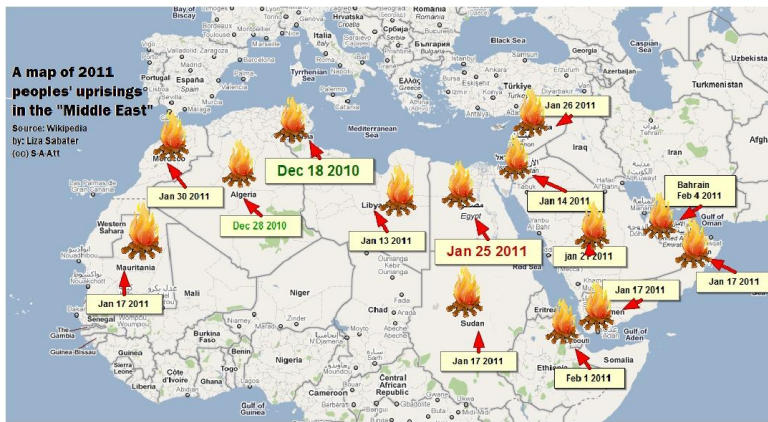


FIGURE 19.3

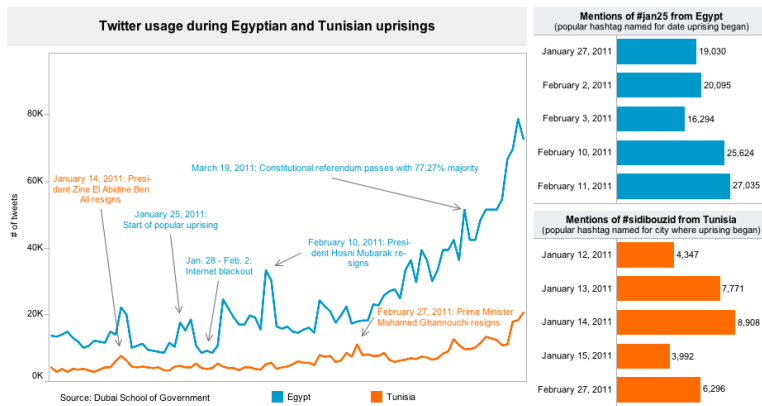


FIGURE 19.4

What Was the Aim of Arab Spring Protests?

The protest movement of 2011 was at its core an expression of deep-seated resentment at the ageing Arab dictatorships (some glossed over with rigged elections), anger at the brutality of the security apparatus, unemployment, rising prices, and corruption that followed the privatization of state assets in some countries

But unlike the Communist Eastern Europe in 1989, there was no consensus on the political and economic model that existing systems should be replaced with. Protesters in monarchies like Jordan and Morocco wanted to reform the system under the current rulers, some calling for an immediate transition to constitutional monarchy, others content with gradual reform. People in republican regimes like Egypt and Tunisia wanted to overthrow the president, but other than free elections they had little idea on what to do next.

ISIS

The Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS), also called Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), has terrorized large swaths of Iraq and Syria in its drive to establish an Islamic state in the Middle East ruled by strict shariah law. The militant group is made up of fundamentalist Sunni Muslims and foreign jihadists. Branches of ISIS have sprung up in Egypt and Libya, and in March 2015, the Nigerian-based Islamist sect Boko Haram pledged allegiance to ISIS.

ISIS is believed to have some 30,000 fighters in its ranks, with about 10% of them from the West. Western nations have stepped up security to prevent citizens from traveling to Syria and Iraq to join the fight.

The group, formerly known as Al Qaeda in Iraq (AQI), is headed by Iraqi-born Ibrahim Awad Ibrahim al-Badry, who goes by the nom de guerre Abu Bakr al-Baghdadi. Baghdadi is also the self-proclaimed caliph of the Islamic

world. He was associated with Al Qaeda as a religious figure early in the U.S.-led war in Iraq, and became the leader of AQI in 2010. (In April 2013, Baghdadi changed the name of the organization from AQI to ISIS.) U.S. troops arrested him in Falluja in 2004 during the uprising there by Sunnis. Not considered a serious threat, he was released after a few months in detention. (Some reports say he was held for several years.) Baghdadi was a follower of

Jordanian militant Abu Musab al- Zaraqawi the leader of AQI who was killed by a U.S. airstrike in 2006. He is believed to have been born in Iraq in 1971 and earned a Ph.D. in Islamic studies in Baghdad. He has intentionally shrouded details of his life in secrecy, and little else is known about him. Al Qaeda distanced itself from ISIS as it grew increasingly violent and intolerant even of Muslims.

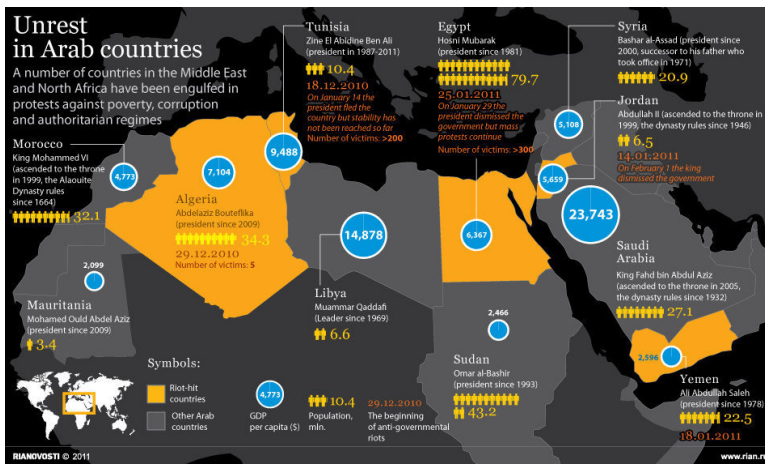


FIGURE 19.5

CONCEPT **20** **Unit 8: Facing Challenges:
Sub-Saharan Africa**

CONCEPT

21

Sub-Saharan Africa: The Geography

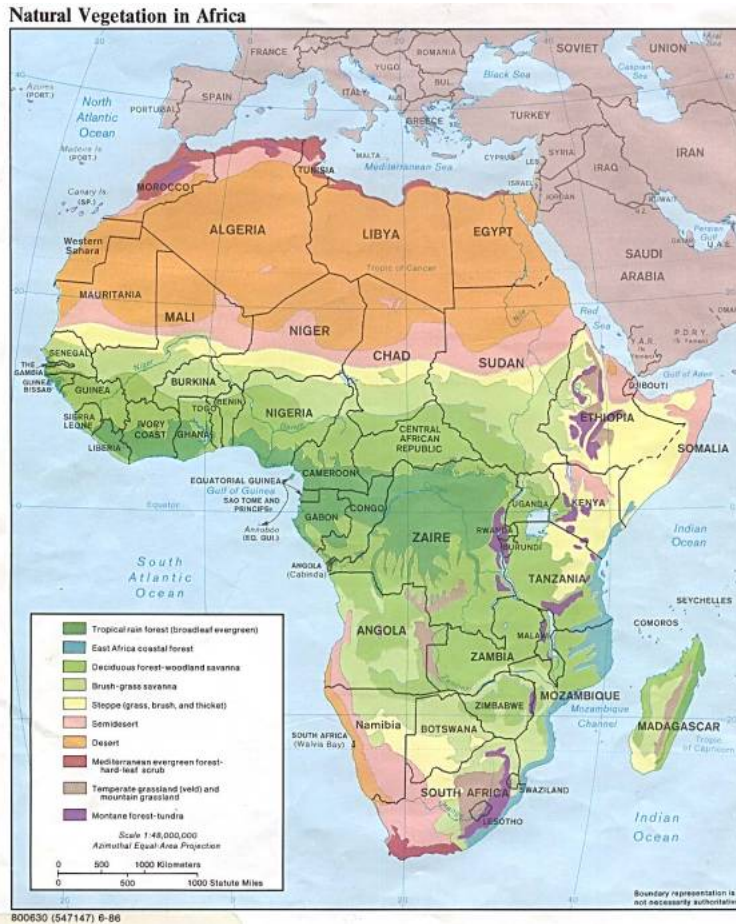


FIGURE 21.1

Africa South of the Sahara: Geography

Regions

Sahel

The Sahel is a narrow savanna band of semi-arid land that forms a transition zone between the Sahara to the north and the savannas to the south. It is made up of flat, barren plains that stretch roughly 5,400 kilometers (3,300 miles) across Africa, from Senegal to Sudan. The Sahel contains the fertile delta of the Niger, one of Africa's longest rivers. Unfortunately, the Sahel's fertile land is rapidly becoming desert as a result of drought, deforestation, and intensive agriculture. This process is known as desertification. The Sahel's animal communities are constantly scavenging for scarce water and vegetation resources. The Senegal gerbil, the most common mammal in the Sahel and measuring only a few centimeters, consumes as much as 10 percent of the Sahel's plants. The Sahel's green vegetation only emerges during the rainy season, but is often quickly harvested by farmers or consumed by animals. Baobabs are drought- and fire-resistant trees with trunks that are often 15 meters (50 feet) wide and as tall as 26 meters (85 feet). Acacia, whose deep root systems are ideal for semi-arid climates, are among the most common trees found in the Sahel. Cram-cram, a prickly grass, is the primary fodder for Sahel herds such as zebu cattle.

Ethiopian Highlands



FIGURE 21.2

MAJOR RIVERS IN SUB-SAHARA AFRICA

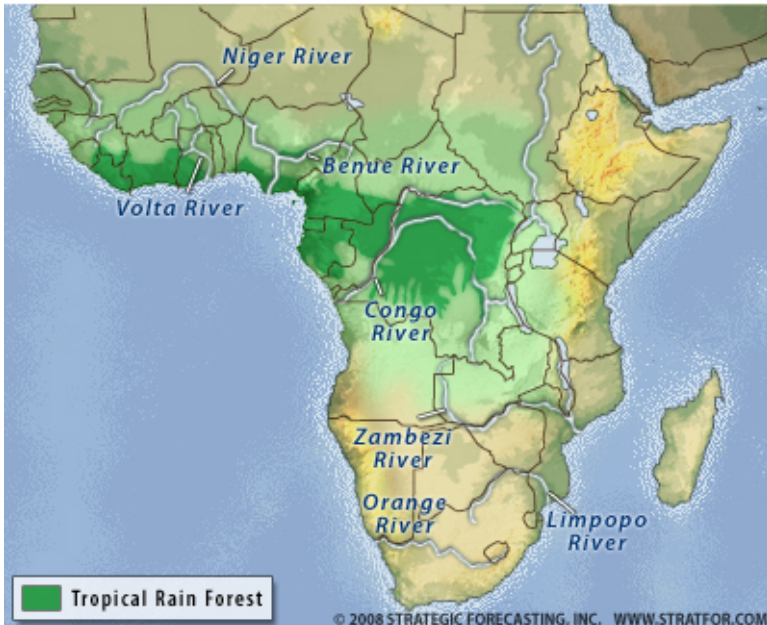


FIGURE 21.3

The Ethiopian Highlands began to rise 75 million years ago, as magma from Earth’s mantle uplifted a broad dome of ancient rock. This dome was later split as Africa’s continental crust pulled apart, creating the Great Rift Valley system. Today, this valley cuts through the Ethiopian Highlands from the southwest to the northeast. The Ethiopian Highlands are home to 80 percent of Africa’s tallest mountains. The highlands craggy landscape is perfect for



FIGURE 21.4

nimble animal species. Native species such as the walia ibex, an endangered wild goat, and the gelada baboon live in the ledges and rocky outposts of the Simien Mountains. The most emblematic highlands species is probably the Ethiopian wolf, which is now on the brink of extinction.

Important plant species native to the Ethiopian Highlands include the Ethiopian rose, Africa's only native rose, and the ensete, a tall, thick, rubbery plant that is a close relative of the banana.

Savanna

Savannas, or grasslands, cover almost half of Africa, more than 13 million square kilometers (5 million square miles). These grasslands make up most of central Africa, beginning south of the Sahara and the Sahel and ending north of the continent's southern tip.

Among Africa's many savanna regions, the **Serengeti (or Serengeti Plains)** is the most well-known. The Serengeti is a vast, undulating plain that stretches 30,000 square kilometers (11,583 square miles) from Kenya's Masai-Mara game reserve to Tanzania's Serengeti National Park. The Serengeti is home to one of the continent's highest concentrations of large mammal species, including lions, hyenas, zebras, giraffes, and elephants. Each year, more than 1 million wildebeest travel in a circular migration, following seasonal rains, across the Serengeti Plains. Their grazing and trampling of grass allows new grasses to grow, while their waste helps fertilize the soil.

Swahili Coast

The Swahili Coast stretches about 1,610 kilometers (1,000 miles) along the Indian Ocean, from Somalia to Mozambique. The nearby coral reefs and barrier islands protect the coast from severe weather. There is not a lot of animal life on the sandy Swahili Coast. The golden-rumped elephant shrew, an insect-eating rodent with a long snout, is common. A small, primitive species of primate known as the bush baby inhabits vegetated areas of the Swahili Coast. Bush babies, which have enormous eyes for hunting at night, feed primarily on insects, fruit, and leaves. These more vegetated areas are located on a narrow strip just inland from the coastal sands. Heavy cultivation has diminished the diversity of plant species in this interior area of the Swahili Coast. Mangrove forests are the most

common vegetation. Mangroves have exposed root systems. This allows the trees to absorb oxygen directly from the air, as well as from the nutrient-poor soil.

Rain Forest

Most of Africa's native rain forest has been destroyed by development, agriculture, and forestry. Today, 80 percent of Africa's rain forest is concentrated in central Africa, along the Congo River basin.

Africa's rain forests have a rich variety of animal life; a 6-kilometer (4-mile) patch could contain up to 400 bird species, 150 butterfly species, and 60 species of amphibians.

Important mammals include African forest elephants, gorillas, the black colobus monkey, and the okapi, a donkey-like giraffe. The driver ant is one of Africa's most aggressive rain forest species. Driver ants move in columns of up to 20 million across the rain forest floor, and will eat anything from toxic millipedes to reptiles and small mammals. The African rain forests plant community is even more diverse, with an estimated 8,000 plant species documented. More than 1,100 of these species are endemic, or found nowhere else on Earth. Only 10 percent of the plants in the African rain forest have been identified.

African Great Lakes

The Great Lakes are located in nine countries that surround the **Great Rift Valley**. As the African continent separated from Saudi Arabia, large, deep cracks were created in the Earth's surface. These cracks were later filled with water. This geologic process created some of the largest and deepest lakes in the world. There are seven major African Great Lakes: Lake Albert, Lake Edward, Lake Kivu, Lake Malawi, Lake Tanganyika, Lake Turkana, and Lake Victoria. **Lake Victoria, the largest lake in Africa**, is the southern source of the Nile River, the longest river in the world. The African Great Lakes region has a diverse range of aquatic and terrestrial animal life. Fish include the 45-kilogram (100-pound) Nile perch and the 2.5-centimeter (1-inch) cichlid. Migrating savanna animals, such as wildebeest, use the lakes as watering holes. Hippos and crocodiles call the region their home. The Great Lakes host everything from rain forest to savanna plant communities.

However, invasive species like the water hyacinth and papyrus have begun to take over entire shorelines, endangering animals and plants.

Southern Africa

The region of Southern Africa is dominated by the Kaapvaal craton, a shelf of bedrock that is more than 2.6 billion years old. Rocky features of Southern Africa include plateaus and mountains, such as the Drakensberg range. **Southern Africa is the epicenter of Africa's well-known reserves**, which protect animal species such as lions, elephants, baboons, white rhinos, and Burchells zebras. Other important animal species include the impala, a type of deer, and the springbok, a type of gazelle that can spring several feet into the air to avoid predators. Southern Africa's Cape Floral Region is one of the richest areas for plants in the world. While the Cape Floral Region covers less than 0.5 percent of Africa, it is home to nearly 20 percent of the continent's flora. The giant protea, South Africa's national flower, is found in the Cape Floral Region.



FIGURE 21.5

CONCEPT 22 Sub-Saharan Africa: The Scramble for Africa: Colonialism and Imperialism

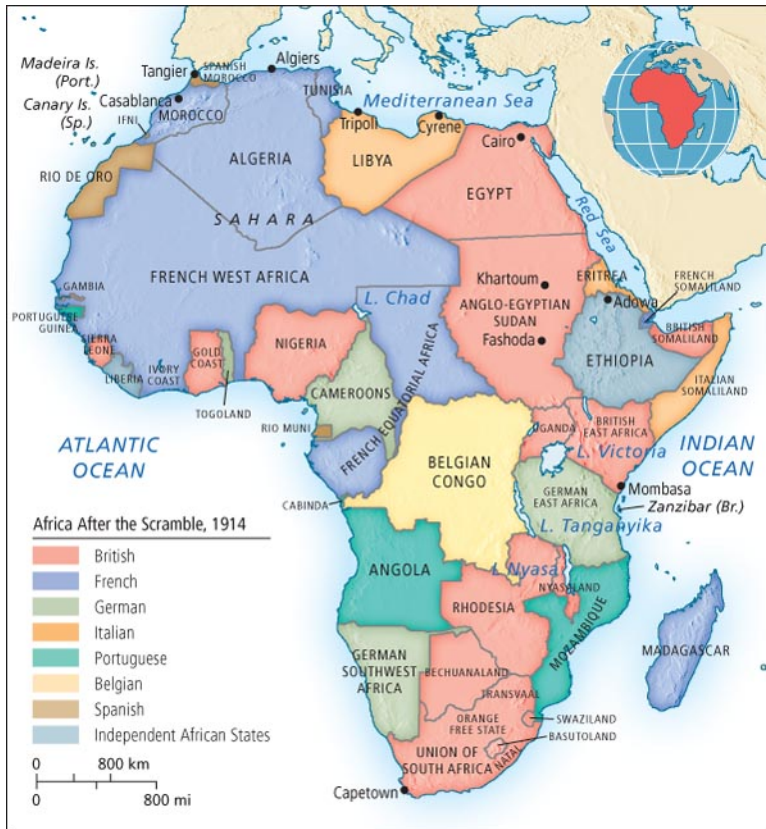


FIGURE 22.1

Scramble for Africa

Between the 1870s and 1900, Africa faced European imperialist aggression, diplomatic pressures, military invasions, and eventual conquest and colonization. At the same time, African societies put up various forms of resistance against the attempt to colonize their countries and impose foreign domination (control). By the early twentieth century, however, much of Africa, except Ethiopia and Liberia, had been colonized by European powers.

The European imperialist push into Africa was motivated by three main factors, economic, political, and social. It developed in the nineteenth century following the collapse of the profitability of the slave trade, its abolition and suppression, as well as the expansion of the European capitalist Industrial Revolution. The imperatives of capitalist industrialization—including the demand for assured sources of raw materials,

the search for guaranteed markets and profitable investment outlets—spurred the European scramble and the partition and eventual conquest of Africa. Thus the primary motivation for European intrusion was economic.

Dividing Africa and Berlin Conference

To businessmen who had lost a major source of income following the end of the slave trade, not only were these newly identified population centers a new market for European goods but an abundant source of raw materials from which to make them. Now, what better way to establish a monopoly than to actually colonize the area and bring it

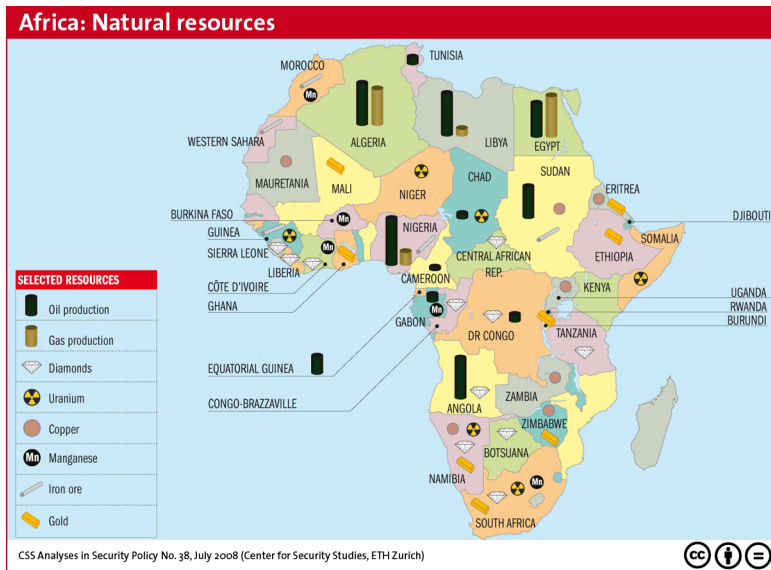


FIGURE 22.2

under foreign control for exploitation without negotiation? The seeds had been sewn for what was to be called the Scramble for Africa. The impetus for this scramble was further spurred by the Imperial German Chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, who had recently seen German unification followed a decade later by Italian unification, effectively ending expansion within Europe and creating two new powers who were keen to get in on the Africa 'act' whilst it still could and leaving powers like France in need of new lands after ceding territory to Germany during their unification process.

Two other events also made the Scramble for Africa more attractive during this period. Firstly a solution for Malaria was found meaning that no longer would vast numbers of explorers die in Africa, and secondly the advent of the iron hulled steam boats which made the inland rivers of Africa such as the Zambezi not only fully accessible but open to the transport of bulk materials. Development of more sophisticated weaponry also acted as a spur. By the 1880s European nations were undertaking what was called a scramble to 'land grab' what they could across Africa without planning nor, of course, seeking any consent from those already on the land.

In November 1884 Bismarck convened a conference in Berlin and invited fourteen states, including the USA, but not a single African one, to divide up the African continent and establish an agreed set of rules for the future exploitation of the continent. The Berlin Conference came to be called the 'Scramble for Africa', for that described exactly what happened, and the colonial rule of Africa went largely unchanged following the conference until the end of WW1 when former German colonies were placed under the protection of the League of Nations and became Mandate territories. It wasn't until the 1950s, with Europe severely weakened and bankrupted by WWII, that stirrings of independence within Africa really took on a serious form.

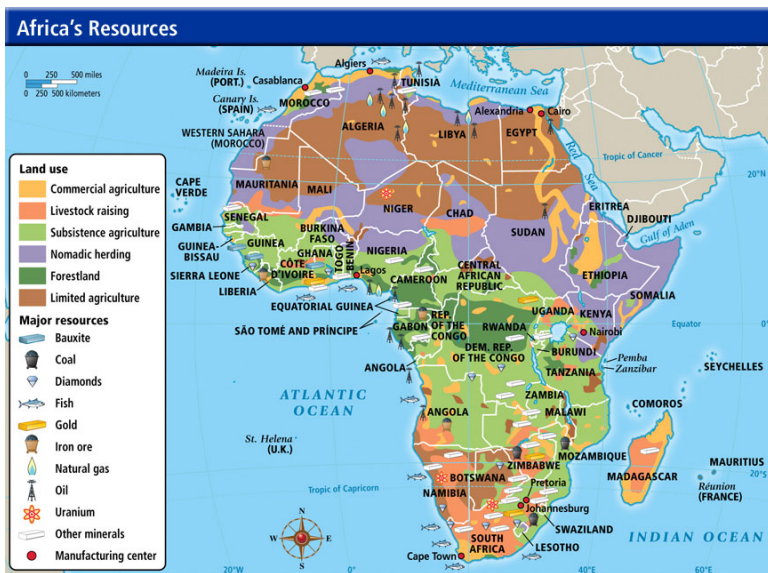


FIGURE 22.3

CONCEPT

23

Sub-Sahara Africa: Hutus vs. Tutsi in Rwanda

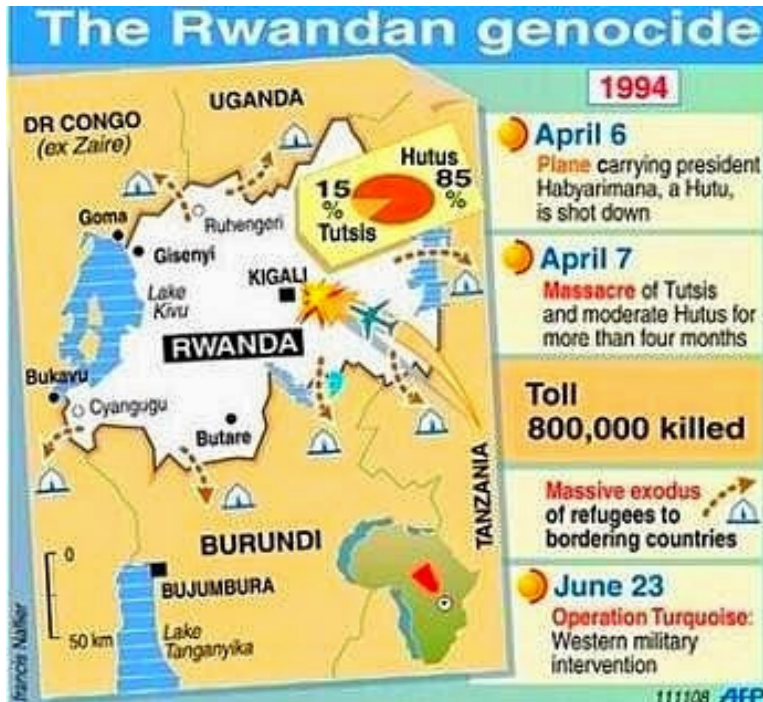


FIGURE 23.1

Hutus vs. Tutsi in Rwanda

The Tutsi are a people who live in Rwanda, Burundi, and the northeastern part of the Democratic Republic of Congo. They have much in common with the other groups of this region, the Twa and the Hutu. Their cultures are similar, and they all speak the same language.

In the past, the Tutsi were cattle herders. They were a minority of the population. However, most of the upper-class rulers were Tutsi. A system of cattle trading helped keep peace among the different groups. The wealthier people (often Tutsi) lent cattle to the poorer ones (often Hutu). In return they gained their labor, loyalty, and political support.

Social relations in Rwanda and Burundi were changed by European rule. The Germans held power from the 1890s until World War I (1914–18). Then the Belgians ruled until 1962. For most of this period, the Europeans treated the Tutsi better than the Hutu. In the 1950s, however, the Belgians urged the Hutu to challenge Tutsi power. In 1959 Hutu leaders overthrew the Tutsi monarchy in Rwanda. Many Tutsi fled to nearby countries. In Burundi, the change to independence was more peaceful. The mwami (the Tutsi king) helped the Tutsi and Hutu sides reach an agreement. However, the peace did not last. The Hutu tried to gain power by force, and they were defeated.

When the colonial period ended, opposite sides controlled Rwanda and Burundi. The Hutu held power in Rwanda until 1994. The Tutsi still rule Burundi. Hutu power in Rwanda ended in 1994 when Tutsi rebels overthrew the government. However, this Tutsi victory occurred at a great cost in human lives. As many as one million people were killed.

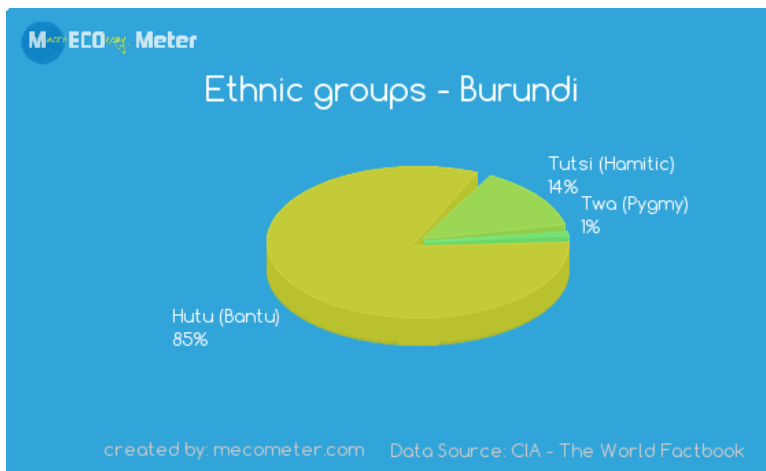


FIGURE 23.2

CONCEPT

24

Sub-Saharan Africa: King Leopold in The Congo

BELOW: British missionaries with men holding hands severed from victims named Bolenge and Lingomo by A.B.I.R. militiamen, 1904.



FIGURE 24.1

Other effects of his colonization

- Disease from Europe brought to the Congo
- Famine spread as his army destroyed villages and stole food from village
- Wives and children of men who did not complete their work were brutally taken hostage by Leopold's soldiers
- "rubber terror" defines the many human rights abuses that were violated during Leopold's reign of the Congo region



FIGURE 24.2

King Leopold in Congo

Leopold soon decided that the best way to acquire wealth would be by establishing an African colony, at a time when the great European "Scramble for Africa" was under way. In 1870 more than 80 percent of Africa south of the Sahara was under the rule of indigenous chiefs or kings. Forty years later virtually all of it had been transformed into European colonies, protectorates, or territories ruled by white settlers.

The king then embarked on an ultimately successful effort to make a vast fortune from his new possession. Initially he was most interested in ivory, a material that was greatly valued in the days before plastics because it could be carved into a great variety of shapes—statuettes, jewelry, piano keys, false teeth, and more. For some years ivory was a principal source of the great wealth that Leopold and his associates drew from the new colony. In his novella *Heart of Darkness*, Joseph Conrad, who spent six months in the Congo in 1890 as a steamboat officer, gives a searing picture of the brutal and voracious European quest for Congo ivory.

By the early 1890s a new source of riches had appeared. A worldwide rubber boom was under way, kicked off by the invention of the inflatable bicycle tire and spurred on by the rise of the automobile and the use of rubber in industrial belts and gaskets, as well as in coating for telephone and telegraph wires. Throughout the tropics, people rushed to sow rubber trees, but those plants could take many years to reach maturity, and in the meantime there was money to be made wherever rubber grew wild. One lucrative source of wild rubber was the *Landolphia* vines in the great Central African rainforest, and no one owned more of that area than Leopold. Detachments of his 19,000-man private army, the *Force Publique*, would march into a village and hold the women hostage, forcing the men to scatter into the rainforest and gather a monthly quota of wild rubber. As the price of rubber soared, the quotas increased, and as vines near a village were drained dry, men desperate to free their wives and daughters would have to walk days or weeks to find new vines to tap.

Other parts of the Congo economy, from road building to chopping wood for steamboat boilers, operated by forced labor as well. The effects were devastating. Many of the women hostages starved, and many of the male rubber gatherers were worked to death. Tens, possibly hundreds, of thousands of Congolese fled their villages to avoid being impressed as forced laborers, and they sought refuge deep in the forest, where there was little food and shelter. Tens of thousands of others were shot down in failed rebellions against the regime. One particularly notorious practice grew out of the suppression of those rebellions. To prove that he had not wasted bullets—or, worse yet, saved them for use in a mutiny—for each bullet expended, a Congolese soldier of the *Force Publique* had to present to his white officer the severed hand of a rebel killed. Baskets of severed hands thus resulted from expeditions against rebels. If a soldier fired at someone and missed, or used a bullet to shoot game, he then sometimes cut off the hand of a living victim to be able to show it to his officer.

With women as hostages and men forced to tap rubber, few able-bodied adults were left to hunt, fish, and cultivate crops. Millions of Congolese then found themselves suffering near-famine, which made them vulnerable to diseases they otherwise might have survived. Furthermore, as in any society where men and women are separated, traumatized, or in flight as refugees, the birth rate dropped precipitously. No one will ever know the precise figures, but, from all these causes, demographers estimate that between 1880 and 1920 the population of the Congo may have been slashed by up to 50 percent, from perhaps 20 million people at the beginning of that period to an estimated 10 million at the end.

The forced-labor system for gathering rubber was swiftly copied by French, German, and Portuguese colonial officials with equally fatal results. Because the system's effects in the Congo could so easily be blamed on one man, who could safely be attacked because he did not represent a great power, an international outcry focused on Leopold. That pressure finally forced him to give-up his ownership of the territory, and it became the Belgian Congo in 1908. Leopold, however, made the Belgian government pay him for his prized possession. He died the following year. Because his only son had predeceased him, Leopold's nephew Albert I succeeded to the throne.

The Butcher of the Congo

Who was King Leopold II?

- Belgian king
- Selfish and greedy
- Wealthy
- Owned the Congo free state from 1885-1908
- Formed the International African Association and the International Association of the Congo to establish himself as a philanthropist and humanitarian



FIGURE 24.3

CONCEPT

25

Sub-Saharan Africa: Idi Amin in Uganda "The Butcher of Uganda"

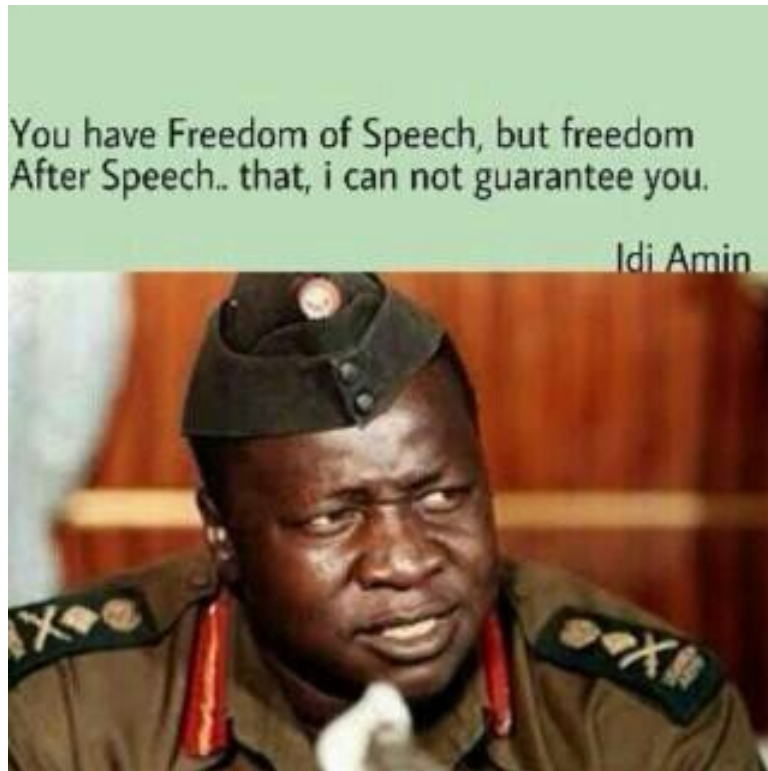


FIGURE 25.1

Idi Amin in Uganda

After more than 70 years under British rule, Uganda gained its independence on October 9, 1962, and Milton Obote became the nation's first prime minister. By 1964, Obote had forged an alliance with Amin, who helped expand the size and power of the Ugandan Army. In February 1966, following accusations that the pair was responsible for smuggling gold and ivory from Congo that were subsequently traded for arms, Obote suspended the constitution and proclaimed himself executive president. Shortly thereafter, Obote sent Amin to dethrone King Mutesa II, also known as "King Freddie," who ruled the powerful kingdom of Buganda in south-central Uganda.

A few years and two failed—but unidentified—assassination attempts later, Obote began to question Amin's loyalty and ordered his arrest while en route to Singapore for a Commonwealth Heads of Government Conference. During his absence, Amin took the offensive and staged a coup on January 25, 1971, seizing control of the government and forcing Obote into exile.

Butcher of Uganda

Once in power, Amin began mass executions upon the Acholi and Lango, Christian tribes that had been loyal to Obote and therefore perceived as a threat. He also began terrorizing the general public through the various internal security forces he organized, such as the State Research Bureau (SRB) and Public Safety Unity (PSU), whose main purpose was to eliminate those who opposed his regime.

In 1972, Amin expelled Uganda's Asian population, which numbered between 50,000 and 70,000, resulting in

a collapse of the economy as manufacturing, agriculture and commerce came to a screeching halt without the appropriate resources to support them.

When the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (PFLP) hijacked an Air France flight from Israel to Paris on June 27, 1976, Idi Amin welcomed the terrorists and supplied them with troops and weapons, but was humiliated when Israeli commandos subsequently rescued the hostages in a surprise raid on the Entebbe airport. In the aftermath, Amin ordered the execution of several airport personnel, hundreds of Kenyans whom were believed to have conspired with Israel and an elderly British hostage who had previously been escorted to a nearby hospital.

Throughout his oppressive rule, Amin was estimated to have been responsible for the deaths of roughly 300,000 civilians.

CONCEPT 26 Sub-Saharan Africa: South Africa and Apartheid

Apartheid and the People of South Africa		
	<i>Blacks</i>	<i>Whites</i>
Population	19 million	4.5 million
Land Allocation	13 percent	87 percent
Share of National Income	< 20 percent	75 percent
Ratio of average earnings	1	14
Minimum taxable income	360 rands	750 rands
Doctors/population	1/44,000	1/400
Infant mortality rate	20% (urban) 40% (rural)	2.7%
Annual expenditure on education per pupil	\$45	\$696
Teacher/pupil ratio	1/60	1/22

FIGURE 26.1

Figure 1: Disproportionate Treatment circa 1978. Source: [Leo80]

Apartheid in South

Racial segregation and white supremacy had become central aspects of South African policy long before apartheid began. The controversial 1913 Land Act, passed three years after South Africa gained its independence, marked the beginning of territorial segregation by forcing black Africans to live in reserves and making it illegal for them to work as sharecroppers. Opponents of the Land Act formed the South African National Native Congress, which would become the African National Congress (ANC).

APARTHEID LAW

By 1950, the government had banned marriages between whites and people of other races, and prohibited sexual relations between black and white South Africans. The Population Registration Act of 1950 provided the basic framework for apartheid by classifying all South Africans by race, including Bantu (black Africans), Coloured (mixed race) and white. A fourth category, Asian (meaning Indian and Pakistani) was later added. In some cases, the legislation split families; parents could be classified as white, while their children were classified as colored.

A series of Land Acts set aside more than 80 percent of the country's land for the white minority, and "pass laws" required non-whites to carry documents authorizing their presence in restricted areas. In order to limit contact between the races, the government established separate public facilities for whites and non-whites, limited the activity of nonwhite labor unions and denied non-white participation in national government.

APARTHEID AND SEPARATE DEVELOPMENT

Dr. Hendrik Verwoerd, who became prime minister in 1958, would refine apartheid policy further into a system he referred to as "separate development." The Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act of 1959 created 10 Bantu homelands known as Bantustans. Separating black South Africans from each other enabled the government to claim there was no black majority, and reduced the possibility that blacks would unify into one nationalist organization. Every black South African was designated as a citizen as one of the Bantustans, a system that supposedly gave them full political rights, but effectively removed them from the nation's political body.

In one of the most devastating aspects of apartheid, the government forcibly removed black South Africans from rural areas designated as “white” to the homelands, and sold their land at low prices to white farmers. From 1961 to 1994, more than 3.5 million people were forcibly removed from their homes and deposited in the Bantustans, where they were plunged into poverty and hopelessness.

OPPOSITION TO APARTHEID

Resistance to apartheid within South Africa took many forms over the years, from non-violent demonstrations, protests and strikes to political action and eventually to armed resistance. Together with the South Indian National Congress, the ANC organized a mass meeting in 1952, during which attendees burned their pass books. A group calling itself the Congress of the People adopted a Freedom Charter in 1955 asserting that “South Africa belongs to all who live in it, black or white.” The government broke up the meeting and arrested 150 people, charging them with high treason.

In 1960, at the black township of Sharpsville, the police opened fire on a group of unarmed blacks associated with the Pan-African Congress (PAC), an offshoot of the ANC. The group had arrived at the police station without passes, inviting arrest as an act of resistance. At least 67 blacks were killed and more than 180 wounded. Sharpsville convinced many anti-apartheid leaders that they could not achieve their objectives by peaceful means, and both the PAC and ANC established military wings, neither of which ever posed a serious military threat to the state. By 1961, most resistance leaders had been captured and sentenced to long prison terms or executed. Nelson Mandela, a founder of Umkhonto we Sizwe (“Spear of the Nation”), the military wing of the ANC, was incarcerated from 1963 to 1990; his imprisonment would draw international attention and help garner support for the anti-apartheid cause.

The end of APARTHEID

In 1976, when thousands of black children in Soweto, a black township outside Johannesburg, demonstrated against the Afrikaans language requirement for black African students, the police opened fire with tear gas and bullets. The protests and government crackdowns that followed, combined with a national economic recession, drew more international attention to South Africa and shattered all illusions that apartheid had brought peace or prosperity to the nation. The United Nations General Assembly had denounced apartheid in 1973, and in 1976 the UN Security Council voted to impose a mandatory embargo on the sale of arms to South Africa. In 1985, the United Kingdom and United States imposed economic sanctions on the country.

Under pressure from the international community, the National Party government of Pieter Botha sought to institute some reforms, including abolition of the pass laws and the ban on interracial sex and marriage. The reforms fell short of any substantive change, however, and by 1989 Botha was pressured to step aside in favor of F.W. de Klerk. De Klerk’s government subsequently repealed the Population Registration Act, as well as most of the other legislation that formed the legal basis for apartheid. A new constitution, which enfranchised blacks and other racial groups, took effect in 1994, and elections that year led to a coalition government with a nonwhite majority, marking the official end of the apartheid system.

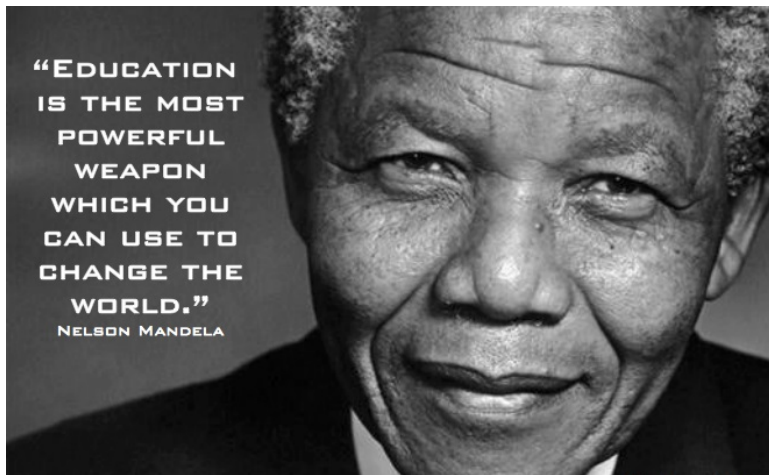


FIGURE 26.2

CONCEPT

27

Unit 8 Sub-Saharan Africa TEKS-Notes, Q's, & Vocabulary

- **apartheid** – a system of legal racial segregation that existed in South Africa between 1948 and 1993, under which the rights of the majority 'non-white' inhabitants of the country were restricted
- **human rights** – universal rights possessed by all people in the world because they are a human being
- **escarpment** – physical geographic feature characterized by sharp cliffs caused by erosion, such as the Great Rift Valley
- **desertification** – process where fertile land turns into desert, usually caused by overgrazing
- **genocide** – systematic killing of a particular ethnic group
- **refugees** – migrant people who flee their homelands to escape disaster, persecution, or war
- **erosion** – physical process in which soil and rock is moved by wind or water

Related Vocabulary

TABLE 27.1:

- | | | |
|------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| • ethnic conflict | • less developed | • more developed |
| • factor of production | • newly developed | • subsistence farming |

CONCEPT

28

Unit 9: Unity and Division: South Asia- India, Pakistan, & Bangladesh

CONCEPT

29

South Asia: Geography

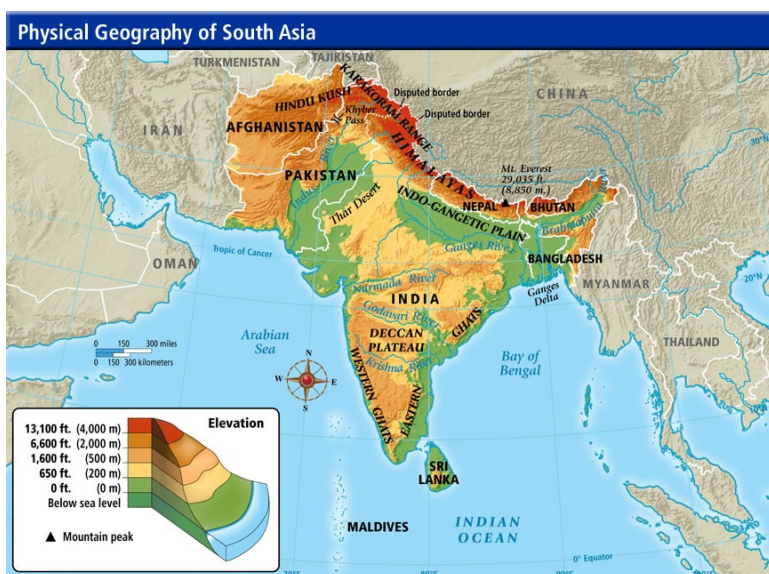


FIGURE 29.1

South Asia Physical Geography

Political

South Asia contains seven nations: India, Pakistan, Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, and Maldives. The combined area of these seven nations is approximately 1.7 million square miles, and it contains 1.3 billion people. South Asia has five times the population of the United States in an area that is only one-half the size of the United States (see population map).

Physical

South Asia is made up of three topographic regions: (see physical map) the Himalaya, Karakorum, and Hindu Kush mountain ranges and their southern slopes, the Indo-Gangetic plain, and the Deccan plateau

The Himalaya, Karakorum, and Hindu Kush mountain ranges separate the South Asian subcontinent from the rest of Asia. The Himalayas, the highest mountains in the world, extend 1,500 miles west from the Brahmaputra River to the Karakorum, a mountain range that extends 300 miles and lies between the Indus River to its east and the Yarkand River to its west. The Hindu Kush, the world's second highest range, extends 500 miles west and south of the Yarkand River.

To the south of the mountain ranges is the 200 mile-wide Indo-Gangetic plain. The plain is a broad strip of low, relatively flat land lying between the Himalaya Mountains to the north and the Narmada and Mahanadi Rivers to the south. This alluvial plain has been created by the Indus, Ganges, and Brahmaputra Rivers and their many tributaries as they flow from the Himalayas to the sea. The Indus and its tributaries flow south and west to empty into the Arabian sea; the Ganges and Brahmaputra and their tributaries flow south and east to enter the Bay of Bengal.

To the south of the plain is the Deccan plateau, a relatively flat highland area that lies between the Western Ghat Mountains ranging from northwest to southeast and the Eastern Ghat Mountains ranging from northeast to southwest.



FIGURE 29.2

The mountains separate the plateau from the coastline and meet in the south at the tip of the triangular-shaped peninsula known as Peninsular India.

Peninsular India juts out into the Indian Ocean. The Narmada and Mahanadi Rivers form the northern border of Peninsular India and separate it from the Indo-Gangetic plain. A narrow coastal plain lies between the Arabian Sea and the Western Ghat mountain range. This plain extends in a southeasterly direction from the Gulf of Khambhai to the southern tip of India. A somewhat wider coastal plain extends in a southwesterly direction from the mouth of the Mahanadi River to the southernmost tip of India. This coastal plain lies between the Bay of Bengal and the Eastern Ghat Mountains.

Environmental

South Asia's climate ranges from arctic temperatures in the high mountains to a temperate environment in the foothills and on the Indo-Gangetic plain to tropical conditions on the Deccan plateau.

The climate is influenced by the monsoon, which brings alternating periods of wet and dry weather. Monsoon is a term that means seasonal winds. In the summer time, winds primarily blow in from the sea and bring moisture. This period is called the wet monsoon. During the winter season, winds blow out from the center of the continent toward the sea and convey much less moisture. This period is known as the dry monsoon. The amount of rainfall varies widely from an average of less than 10 inches a year in the northwest to more than 200 inches in the northeast. South Asia contains many different kinds of soil, and the growing seasons for crops vary greatly. Consequently, South Asia has tremendous diversity in plant and animal life.

CONCEPT 30**South Asia: India**

Facts about India



FIGURE 30.1

India is officially known as the Republic of India.

India has the second largest population in the world, with over 1.2 billion people (1,205,073,612 as of July 2012).

India is the seventh largest country by total area.

India belongs to the continent of Asia, it is bordered by the countries of Bangladesh, Bhutan, Burma, China, Nepal, and Pakistan.

The highest mountain in India is Kanchenjunga, standing at 8,598m (28,209 ft), which it shares with Nepal. Kanchenjunga is the third highest mountain in the world.

Many different languages are spoken in India. The main ones are Hindi, Bengali, Telugu, Marathi, Tamil, and Urdu.

The capital city is New Delhi, while the most populated city is Mumbai. Other major cities include Kolkata, Chennai and Bangalore.

Because of India's location, it experiences periods of heavy rain called Monsoon.

The Taj Mahal (a famous mausoleum and popular tourist attraction) is located in the region of Agra.

India became an independent nation in 1947 after ending British rule that began in 1858.

Mahatma Gandhi is famous for the important part he played in gaining India's independence.

Once British rule was over, India was split into the Republic of India and the Islamic Republic of Pakistan. Later, an area between India and Pakistan became the People's Republic of Bangladesh.

The national symbol of India is the endangered Bengal Tiger.

The most popular sport in India is cricket, with the Indian team being the first to win the Cricket World Cup on home soil when they were victorious in 2011.

India hosted the 2010 Commonwealth Games in Delhi, but has never hosted the Olympic Games.

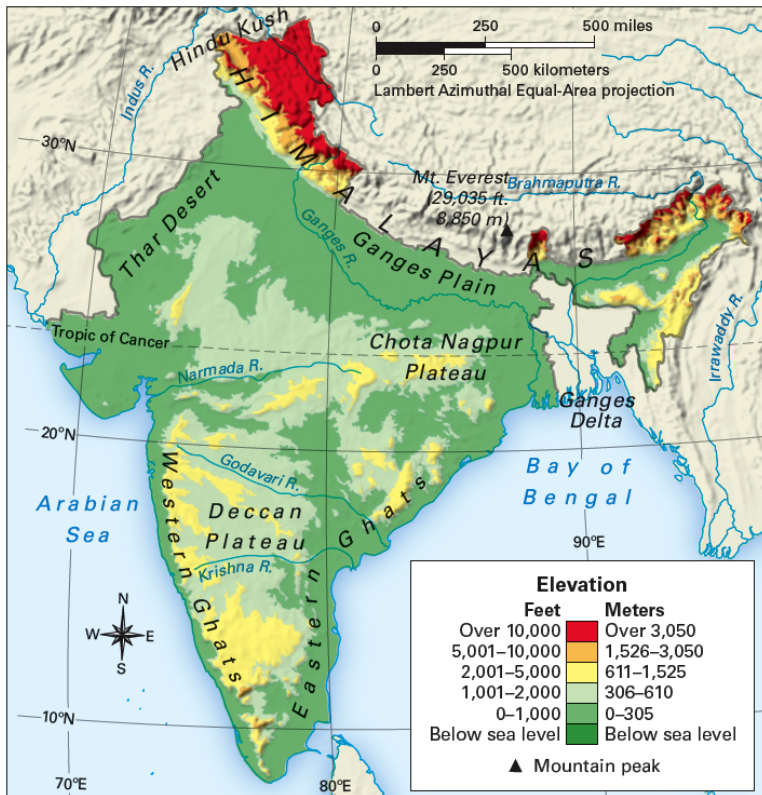


FIGURE 30.2



FIGURE 30.3

CONCEPT 31 South Asia: India's History and The Caste System of Hinduism

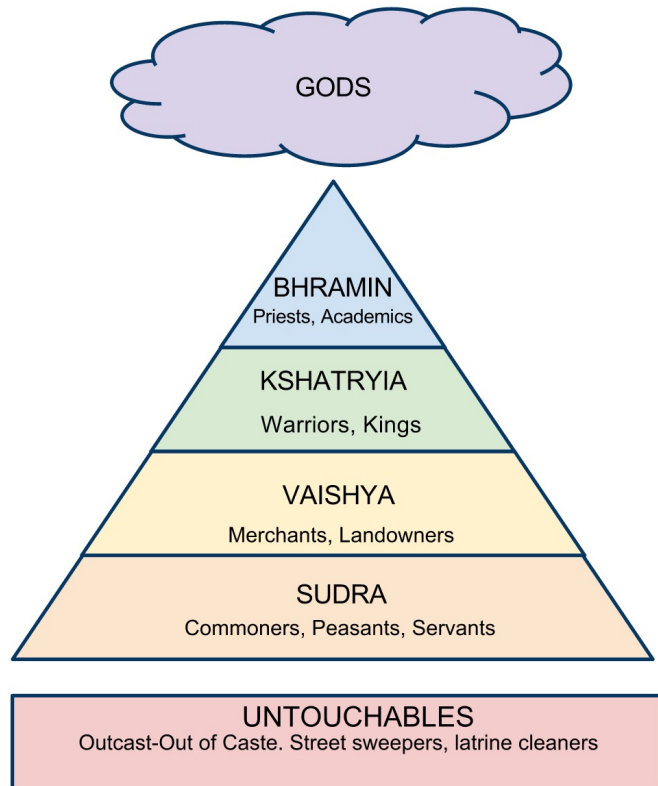


FIGURE 31.1

History of India and Government

The Caste System in Brief:

The origins of the caste system in India and Nepal are shrouded, but it seems to have originated more than two thousand years ago. Under this system, which is associated with Hinduism, people were categorized by their occupations. Although originally caste depended upon a person's work, it soon became hereditary. Each person was born into a unalterable social status.

The four primary castes are: Brahmin, the priests; Kshatriya, warriors and nobility; Vaisya, farmers, traders and artisans; and Shudra, tenant farmers and servants. Some people were born outside of (and below) the caste system. They were called "untouchables."

Theology behind the Castes:

Reincarnation is one of the basic beliefs in Hinduism; after each life, a soul is reborn into a new material form. A particular soul's new form depends upon the virtuousness of its previous behavior. Thus, a truly virtuous person from the Shudra caste could be rewarded with rebirth as a Brahmin in his or her next life.

Souls can move not only among different levels of human society, but also into other animals - hence the vegetarianism of many Hindus. Within a life cycle, people had little social mobility. They had to strive for virtue during their present lives in order to attain a higher station the next time around.

Daily Significance of Caste:

Practices associated with caste varied through time and across India, but they had some common features.

The three key areas of life dominated by caste were marriage, meals and religious worship. Marriage across caste lines was strictly forbidden; most people even married within their own sub-caste or jati.

At meal times, anyone could accept food from the hands of a Brahmin, but a Brahmin would be polluted if he or she took certain types of food from a lower caste person. At the other extreme, if an untouchable dared to draw water from a public well, he or she polluted the water and nobody else could use it.

In terms of religion, as the priestly class, Brahmins were supposed to conduct religious rituals and services. This included preparation for festivals and holidays, as well as marriages and funerals.

The Kshatriya and Vaisya castes had full rights to worship, but in some places Shudras (the servant caste) were not allowed to offer sacrifices to the gods. Untouchables were barred entirely from temples, and sometimes were not even allowed to set foot on temple grounds.

If the shadow of an untouchable touched a Brahmin, he/she would be polluted, so untouchables had to lay face-down at a distance when a Brahmin passed.

Thousands of Castes:

Although the early Vedic sources name four primary castes, in fact there were thousands of castes, sub-castes and communities within Indian society. These jati were the basis of both social status and occupation.

Castes or sub-castes besides the four mentioned in the Bhagavad Gita include such groups as the Bhumihar or landowners, Kayastha or scribes, and the Rajput, who are a northern sector of the Kshatriya or warrior caste.

Some castes arose from very specific occupations, such as the Garudi - snake charmers - or the Sonjhari, who collected gold from river beds.

The Untouchables:

People who violated social norms could be punished by being made "untouchables." This was not the lowest caste - they and their descendants were completely outside of the caste system.

Untouchables were considered so impure that any contact with them by a caste member would contaminate the other person. The caste-person would have to bathe and wash his or her clothing immediately. Untouchables could not even eat in the same room as caste members.

The untouchables did work that no-one else would do, like scavenging animal carcasses, leather-work, or killing rats and other pests. They could not be cremated when they died.

Caste among Non-Hindus:

Curiously, non-Hindu populations in India sometimes organized themselves into castes as well.

After the introduction of Islam on the subcontinent, for example, Muslims were divided into classes such as the Sayed, Sheikh, Mughal, Pathan, and Qureshi. These castes are drawn from several sources - the Mughal and Pathan are ethnic groups, roughly speaking, while the Qureshi name comes from the Prophet Muhammad's clan in Mecca.

Small numbers of Indians were Christian from c. 50 CE onward, but Christianity expanded after the Portuguese arrived in the 16th century. Many Christian Indians still observed caste distinctions, however.

Origins of the Caste System:

How did this system come about?

Early written evidence about the caste system appears in the Vedas, Sanskrit-language texts from as early as 1500 BCE, which form the basis of Hindu scripture. The Rigveda, from c. 1700-1100 BCE, rarely mentions caste distinctions, and indicates that social mobility was common.

The Bhagavad Gita, however, from c. 200 BCE-200 CE, emphasizes the importance of caste. In addition, the "Laws

of Manu" or Manusmriti from the same era defines the rights and duties of the four different castes or varnas.

Thus, it seems that the Hindu caste system began to solidify sometime between 1000 and 200 BCE.

The Caste System During Classical Indian History:

The caste system was not absolute during much of Indian history. For example, the renowned Gupta Dynasty, which ruled from 320 to 550 CE, were from the Vaishya caste rather than the Kshatriya. Many later rulers also were from different castes, such as the Madurai Nayaks (r. 1559-1739) who were Balijas (traders).

From the 12th century onwards, much of India was ruled by Muslims. These rulers reduced the power of the Hindu priestly caste, the Brahmins. The traditional Hindu rulers and warriors, or Kshatriyas, nearly ceased to exist in north and central India. The Vaishya and Shudra castes also virtually melded together.

Although the Muslim rulers' faith had a strong impact on the Hindu upper castes in the centers of power, anti-Muslim feeling in rural areas actually strengthened the caste system. Hindu villagers reconfirmed their identity through caste affiliation.

Nonetheless, during the six centuries of Islamic domination (c. 1150-1750), the caste system evolved considerably. For example, Brahmins began to rely on farming for their income, since the Muslim kings did not give rich gifts to Hindu temples. This practice was considered justified so long as Shudras did the actual physical labor.

The British Raj and Caste:

When the British Raj began to take power in India in 1757, they exploited the caste system as a means of social control.

The British allied themselves with the Brahmin caste, restoring some of its privileges that had been repealed by the Muslim rulers. However, many Indian customs concerning the lower castes seemed discriminatory to the British, and were outlawed.

During the 1930s and 40s, the British government made laws to protect the "Scheduled castes" - untouchables and low-caste people.

Within Indian society in the 19th and early 20th there was a move towards the abolition of untouchability, as well. In 1928, the first temple welcomed untouchables or Dalits ("the crushed ones") to worship with its upper-caste members. Mohandas Gandhi advocated emancipation for the Dalits, too, coining the term harijan or "Children of God" to describe them.

Caste Relations in Independent India:

The Republic of India became independent on August 15, 1947. India's new government instituted laws to protect the "Scheduled castes and tribes" - including both the untouchables and groups who live traditional life-styles. These laws include quota systems to ensure access to education and to government posts.

Over the past sixty years, therefore, in some ways a person's caste has become more of a political category than a social or religious one.

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Why do Hindus worship the cow?

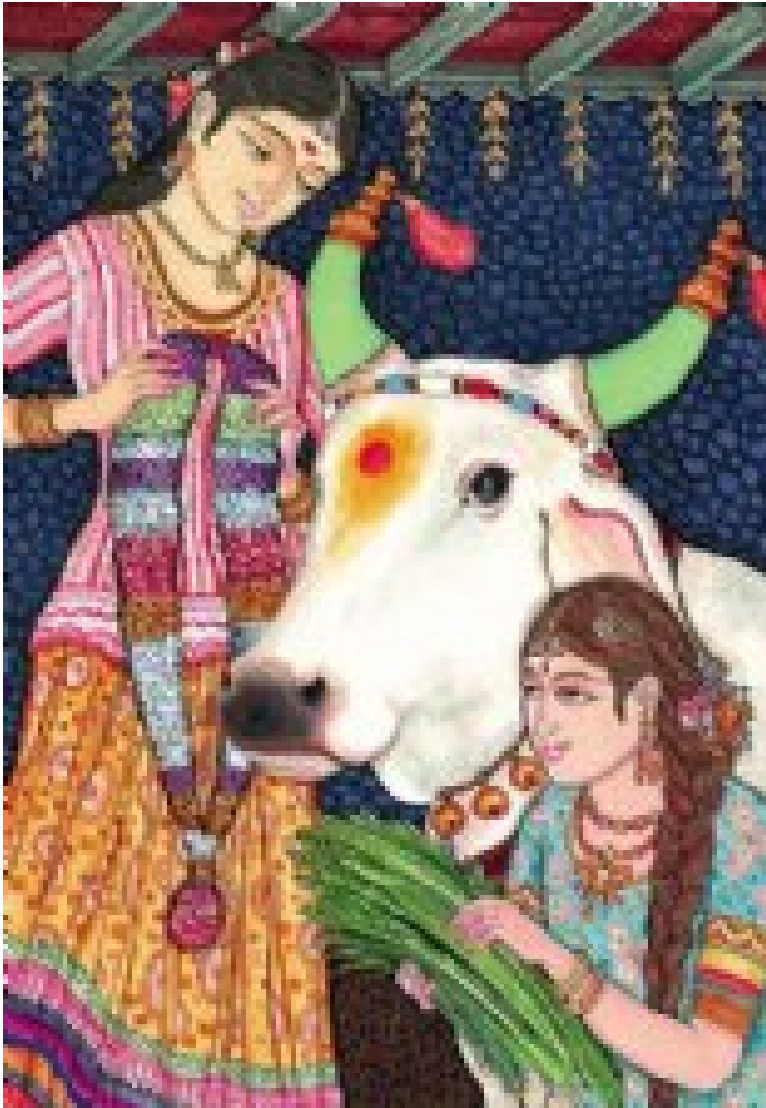


FIGURE 31.2

Hindus don't worship cows. We respect, honour and adore the cow. By honouring this gentle animal, who gives more than she takes, we honour all creatures.

Hindus regard all living creatures as sacred – mammals, fishes, birds and more. We acknowledge this reverence for life in our special affection for the cow. At festivals we decorate and honour her, but we do not worship her in the sense that we worship the Deity.

To the Hindu, the cow symbolizes all other creatures. The cow is a symbol of the Earth, the nourisher, the ever-giving, undemanding provider. The cow represents life and the sustenance of life. The cow is so generous, taking nothing but water, grass and grain. It gives and gives and gives of its milk, as does the liberated soul give of his spiritual knowledge. The cow is so vital to life, the virtual sustainer of life, for many humans. The cow is a symbol of grace and abundance. Veneration of the cow instils in Hindus the virtues of gentleness, receptivity and connectedness with nature.

Elaboration: Who is the greatest giver on planet Earth today? Who do we see on every table in every country of the world – breakfast, lunch and dinner? It is the cow. McDonald's cow-vending golden arches and their rivals have made fortunes on the humble cow. The generous cow gives milk and cream, yogurt and cheese, butter and ice cream, ghee and buttermilk. It gives entirely of itself through sirloin, ribs, rump, porterhouse and beef stew. Its bones are

the base for soup broths and glues. It gives the world leather belts, leather seats, leather coats and shoes, beef jerky, cowboy hats – you name it. The only cow-question for Hindus is, “Why don’t more people respect and protect this remarkable creature?” Mahatma Gandhi once said, “One can measure the greatness of a nation and its moral progress by the way it treats its animals. Cow protection to me is not mere protection of the cow. It means protection of all that lives and is helpless and weak in the world. The cow means the entire subhuman world.”

In the Hindu tradition, the cow is honoured, garlanded and given special feedings at festivals all over India, most importantly the annual Gopashtama festival. Demonstrating how dearly Hindus love their cows, colourful cow jewellery and clothing is sold at fairs all over the Indian countryside. From a young age, Hindu children are taught to decorate the cow with garlands, paint and ornaments. Her nature is epitomized in Kamadhenu, the divine, wish-fulfilling cow. The cow and her sacred gifts –milk and ghee in particular –are essential elements in Hindu worship, penance and rites of passage. In India, more than 3,000 institutions called Gaushalas, maintained by charitable trusts, care for old and infirm cows. And while many Hindus are not vegetarians, most respect the still widely held code of abstaining from eating beef.

By her docile, tolerant nature, the cow exemplifies the cardinal virtue of Hinduism, noninjury, known as ahimsa. The cow also symbolizes dignity, strength, endurance, maternity and selfless service.

In the Vedas, cows represent wealth and joyous Earthly life. From the Rig Veda (4.28.1;6) we read. “The cows have come and have brought us good fortune. In our stalls, contented, may they stay! May they bring forth calves for us, many-coloured, giving milk for Indra each day. You make, O cows, the thin man sleek; to the unlovely you bring beauty. Rejoice our homestead with pleasant lowing. In our assemblies we laud your vigour.”

Source: Hinduism Today (April-June 2004 edition)

Hinduism and Faith in Food

Hinduism is the world’s oldest living religion, with a rich collection of hundreds of spiritual and philosophical traditions followed throughout Asia for more than 5,000 years.

Hindus believe all living beings are sacred because they are parts of God, and should be treated with respect and compassion. This is because the soul can be reincarnated into any form of life.

Most Hindus are vegetarian because of this belief in the sanctity of life. As the Yajur Veda says: “You must not use your God-given body for killing God’s creatures, whether they are human, animal or whatever” (Yajur Veda, 12.32).

Trees, rivers and mountains are believed to have souls, and should be honoured and cared for. For more information on Hindu beliefs and ecology on ARC’s website, [click here](#).

Food as a gift from God

According to Hinduism, food is a gift from God and should be treated with great respect. Devout Hindus offer food to God before eating and are careful about what and how they eat.

Food plays an important role in Hindu worship. According to the Vedic scriptures, all food should be offered as a sacrifice to God before it is eaten, and food offered to God (prasada) is considered to bestow religious merit, purifying body, mind and spirit.

From earth herbs, from herbs food, from food seed, from seed man. Man thus consists of the essence of food

– Taittiriya Upanishad

According to Hinduism, what we eat determines our mental as well as physical state. Eating sattvic (pure) food helps us to become sattvic ourselves. If we eat animal and intoxicating foods, we may develop animal qualities; killing animals for food is also regarded as bad karma with negative consequences for everyone involved, including those eating the food.

Meat can never be obtained without injury to living creatures, and injury to sentient beings is detrimental to [the attainment of] heavenly bliss; let him therefore shun [the use of] meat – Manu Smriti 5.48

For these reasons, many Hindus avoid meat, fish, poultry, eggs, alcohol, caffeine and very spicy or sour foods. Strict

practitioners also refrain from onion, garlic, mushrooms and leeks.

The cow is revered by Hindus.

Not all Hindus avoid eating meat, but almost all avoid beef. The cow is revered in Hinduism and the very name for the cows is aghnaya which means "not to be killed". The five products of the cow (pancagavya) – milk, curd, ghee, urine and dung – are used in puja (worship).

Fasting and Feasting

When one's food is pure, one's being becomes pure – Chāndogya Upaniṣad 7.26.2

Hindus fast as a ritual to purify the body and mind, and to enhance concentration during meditation and worship.

Fasting is common and may be regarded as a sacrifice.

The Hindu calendar has at least 18 feast days. Dates vary according to the lunar calendar, including Holi, Ramnavami, Dusshera, Pongal, Janmashtami, and Diwali. Food also plays an important role in the celebration of birthdays and marriages and also in funeral rituals.

Hindus believe providing food for the poor and needy and to the devout is good karma. Hindu temples often distribute food to people at the end of religious ceremonies.

Hindu food quotes

Food and the eater: that is the extent of the whole world.

– Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, 1.4.6

When he provides food and shelter to human beings, he becomes thereby a world for human beings – Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, 1.4.16

One should not belittle food – the life breath is food. . . One should prepare a lot of food. The earth is food.

– Taittirīya Upaniṣad 3.7.1 & 3.9.1

Sattva – lucidity. . . full of joy, something of pure light which seems to be entirely at peace

– The Laws of Manu 12.27

Garlic (and) onions. . . are not to be eaten – The Laws of Manu 5.5

Sattva food increases the duration of life, purifies one's existence and gives strength, health, happiness and satisfaction. . . Such foods are wholesome and pleasing to the heart

– Bhagavad Gita, As It Is, 17.8

A Hindu food blessing

May the Lord accept this, our offering, and bless our food that it may bring us strength in our body, vigor in our mind, and selfless devotion in our hearts for His service

– Swami Paramananda

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CONCEPT

32

South Asia: India's Bollywood is like Hollywood

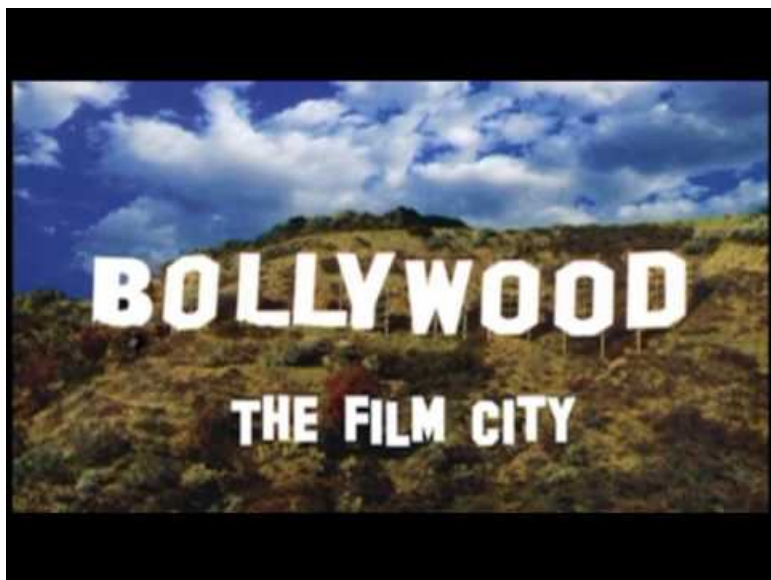


FIGURE 32.1

Bollywood

Even if you've never actually seen a film from India, the word Bollywood immediately conjures up images of sumptuous, brightly colored productions shot in exotic locales featuring beautiful stars partaking in impressively choreographed song and dance numbers. But what is the history of India's national cinema, and how did it grow to become one of the country's most powerful and financially lucrative industries, and the world leader in both the number of films produced each year as well as audience attendance?

Origins

The word Bollywood is (obviously) a play on Hollywood, with the B coming from Bombay (now known as Mumbai), the center of the film world. The word was coined in the 1970s by the writer of a magazine gossip column, though there is disagreement as to which journalist was the first to use it. However, Indian cinema dates all the way back to 1913 and the silent film *Raja Harishchandra*, the first-ever Indian feature film. Its producer, Dadasaheb Phalke, was Indian cinema's first mogul, and he oversaw the production of twenty-three films between 1913-1918. Yet unlike Hollywood, initial growth in the industry was slow.

1920-1945

The early 1920s saw the rise of several new production companies, and most films made during this era were either mythological or historical in nature. Imports from Hollywood, primarily action films, were well received by Indian audiences, and producers quickly began following suit. However, filmed versions of episodes from classics such as *The Ramayana* and *The Mahabharata* still dominated throughout the decade.

1931 saw the release of *Alam Ara*, the first talkie, and the film that paved the way for the future of Indian cinema. The number of productions companies began to skyrocket, as did the number of films being produced each year—from 108 in 1927, to 328 in 1931. Color films soon began to appear, as did early efforts at animation. Giant movie palaces were built, and there was a noticeable shift in audience makeup, namely in a significant growth in working-class attendees, who in the silent era accounted for only a small percentage of tickets sold. The WWII years saw

a decrease in the number of films produced as a result of limited imports of film stock and government restrictions on the maximum allowed running time. Still, audiences remained faithful, and each year saw an impressive rise in ticket sales.

Birth of the New Wave

It was around 1947 that the industry went through significant changes, and one could argue that it was during this time that the modern Indian film was born. The historical and mythological stories of the past were now being replaced by social-reformist films, which turned an often critical eye on such social practices as the dowry system, polygamy and prostitution. The 1950s saw filmmakers such as Bimal Roy and Satyajit Ray focusing on the lives of the lower classes, who until then were mostly ignored as subjects.

Inspired by social and political changes, as well as cinematic movements in both the US and Europe, the 1960s saw the birth of India's own New Wave, founded by directors such as Ray, Mrinal Sen, and Ritwik Ghatak. Driven by a desire to offer a greater sense of realism and an understanding of the common man, the films during this era differed greatly from larger commercial productions, which were mostly escapist fare. It was the latter that would eventually become the template for the Masala film, a mash of genres including action, comedy, and melodrama punctuated by approximately six song and dance numbers, and the model still used for most contemporary Bollywood films.

The Masala Film – Bollywood As We Know It Today

Manmohan Desai, one of the more successful Bollywood directors of the 1970s who is considered by many to be the father of the Masala film, defended his approach thusly: "I want people to forget their misery. I want to take them into a dream world where there is no poverty, where there are no beggars, where fate is kind and god is busy looking after his flock." The hodgepodge of action, romance, comedy and of course musical numbers is a model that still dominates the Bollywood industry, and though greater attention is now paid to plot, character development, and dramatic tension, it is, in most cases, sheer star power that accounts for a film's success.

With the recent success of films like *Slumdog Millionaire* and the injection of foreign capital into the Indian film industry, Bollywood is perhaps entering a new chapter in its history, one in which the eyes of the world are now paying closer attention. But the question remains – will a Bollywood film ever find crossover success with mainstream American audiences?

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CONCEPT 33

South Asia: India: Hinduism Facts

By Subhamoy Das Hinduism Expert

Hinduism is the religion of the majority of people in India and Nepal. It also exists among significant populations outside of the sub continent and has over 900 million adherents worldwide. Unlike most other religions, Hinduism has no single founder, no single scripture, and no commonly agreed set of teachings.

What is Hinduism?

Hinduism is the world's oldest extant religion, with a billion followers, which makes it the world's third largest religion. Hinduism is a conglomeration of religious, philosophical, and cultural ideas and practices that originated in India, characterized by the belief in reincarnation, one absolute being of multiple manifestations, the law of cause and effect, following the path of righteousness, and the desire for liberation from the cycle of births and deaths.

How is Hinduism unique from other religions?

Hinduism cannot be neatly slotted into any particular belief system. Unlike other religions, Hinduism is a way of life, a Dharma, that is, the law that governs all action. It has its own beliefs, traditions, advanced system of ethics, meaningful rituals, philosophy and theology. The religious tradition of Hinduism is solely responsible for the creation of such original concepts and practices as Yoga, Ayurveda, Vastu, Jyotish, Yajna, Puja, Tantra, Vedanta, Karma, etc.

How and when did Hinduism originate?

Hinduism has its origins in such remote past that it cannot be traced to any one individual. Some scholars believe that Hinduism must have existed even in circa 10000 B.C. and that the earliest of the Hindu scriptures – The [Rig Veda](#) – was composed well before 6500 B.C. The word "Hinduism" is not to be found anywhere in the scriptures, and the term "Hindu" was introduced by foreigners who referred to people living across the [River Indus](#) or Sindhu, in the north of India, around which the Vedic religion is believed to have originated.

What are the basic tenets of Hinduism?

There is no "one Hinduism", and so it lacks any unified system of beliefs and ideas. Hinduism is a conglomerate of diverse beliefs and traditions, in which the prominent themes include:

- Dharma (ethics and duties)
- Samsara (rebirth)
- Karma (right action)
- Moksha ([liberation from the cycle of Samsara](#))

It also believes in truth, honesty, non-violence, celibacy, cleanliness, contentment, prayers, austerity, perseverance, penance, and pious company.

What are the key Hindu scriptures?

The basic scriptures of Hinduism, which is collectively referred to as "Shastras", are essentially a collection of spiritual laws discovered by different saints and sages at different points in its long history. The Two types of sacred writings comprise the Hindu scriptures: "Shruti" (heard) and "Smriti" (memorized). They were passed on from generation to generation orally for centuries before they were written down mostly in the Sanskrit language. The major and most popular Hindu texts include the [Bhagavad Gita](#) , the Upanishads, and the epics of Ramayana and Mahabharata.

What are the major Hindu deities?

Hinduism believes that there is only one supreme Absolute called "Brahman". However, it does not advocate the worship of any one particular deity. The gods and goddesses of Hinduism amount to thousands or even millions, all representing the many aspects of Brahman. Therefore, this faith is characterized by the multiplicity of deities. The most fundamental of [Hindu deities](#) is the Trinity of Brahma, Vishnu and Shiva - creator, preserver and destroyer respectively. Hindus also worship spirits, trees, animals and even planets.

Who is a Hindu and how to become one?

A Hindu is an individual who accepts and lives by the religious guidance of the Vedic scriptures. While the teachings of the Hindu tradition do not require that you have a religious affiliation to Hinduism in order to receive its inner teachings, it can be very helpful to formally become a Hindu because it provides one a formal connection to the "world's oldest continually existing enlightenment tradition."

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CONCEPT

34 South Asia: Buddhism and Sikh Religions



 FIGURE 34.1

Buddhism

A new prince was born in ancient India, about 2500 years ago (in 553 BCE). His name was Prince Siddhartha Gautama. His parents loved him very much. All his life, growing up, his parents gave the prince excellent food to eat, fine clothes to wear, and good servants to wait on him. When he became a man, his parents gave him a different palace for each season of the year. The prince and his wife were blessed with the birth of a baby, a new son, who was strong and healthy. You might say the prince had everything!

But all the prince could see was suffering. It had bothered him greatly, all his life, that pain and old age, and sickness and death were all part of life. The thought of this had always made him very unhappy.

One day, the prince met a monk. That changed his world. He could not believe the monk could find happiness in a world that held such misery. The prince made a startling decision. He decided to leave his parents, his wife, and his newborn son, and become a monk.

The prince traveled ancient India, in search of peace and calm in the face of suffering and sadness. He traveled for six years, as a monk. He was beginning to despair. Perhaps there was no answer. Perhaps all his life he would be unhappy. It was a miserable thought.

It was when he was resting under a fig tree that the way to end all suffering occurred to him! That was the day the monks began to call him "the Buddha", or the Awakened One.

Four Noble Truths: What Buddha has realized, while resting under the fig tree, is that life is ruled by four truths, truths the Buddha called the Four Noble Truths. Those truths are:

- Life is filled with suffering

- Suffering is caused by people's wants.
- Suffering can be ended if people stop wanting things, like more pleasure or more power.
- To stop wanting things, people must follow 8 basic laws, called the Eightfold Path.

Eightfold Path: These are the eight basic laws that all people must follow if they wish to end suffering:

- To know the truth
- To intend to resist evil
- To not say anything to hurt others
- To respect life, property, and morality
- To work at a job that does not injure others
- To try to free one's mind from evil
- To be in control of one's feelings and thoughts
- To practice appropriate forms of concentration

The Middle Way: Buddha realized that people could not follow rules if the rules were too strict. That's why the Eightfold Path is also called The Middle Way. The rules demand a certain behavior, but it is behavior that costs nothing except effort and care.

Buddha continued to travel around India, telling everyone he met about the Four Noble Truths and the Eightfold Path. Many people listened. They too had trouble finding happiness in a world full of suffering. Some who listened became monks, and helped to spread the word.

Proverbs: The rules of the Eightfold Path are simple to list, but are sometimes difficult for people to follow. To help people better understand and remember the rules, Buddha's teachings were written down as proverbs many years ago. Here are two proverbs written down around 2,000 years ago:

As a solid rock is not shaken by the wind, even so the wise are not ruffled by praise or blame. Hatreds never cease by hatred in this world; by love alone they cease.

This is an ancient law.

The Laughing Buddha

Many statues of the Buddha show him laughing. The Buddha is laughing to remind us that we need to greet each day with joy.

Another goal of Buddhism is to become the greatest person in the world. This teaching is often misunderstood. It does not mean that you are better than everyone else. It means that you are the best person you can be. The famous example that Buddhists use is the story of the ant. When an ant puts his best effort into carrying a grain of rice, the ant is no longer just an ant; he is the best ant he can be, and thus the greatest ant in the world. But, when a horse carries a grain of rice, it is not much of an achievement.

The Growth of Buddhism: After a time, many people began calling the prince "the Buddha". Buddhism spread rapidly throughout Southern and Eastern Asia.

Today, Buddhism is a world religion. People who follow Buddha's teachings are called Buddhists. There are over 300 million Buddhists in the world. Buddhists value goodness, self-control, wisdom, calm, and love.

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Clip Art Credit: Phillip Martin

Have a great year!

Question: "What is Sikhism?"

Answer: Sikhism arose as an attempt to harmonize Islam and Hinduism. But viewing Sikhism as a harmonization of the two religions does not capture the theological and cultural uniqueness of Sikhism. To call Sikhism a compromise

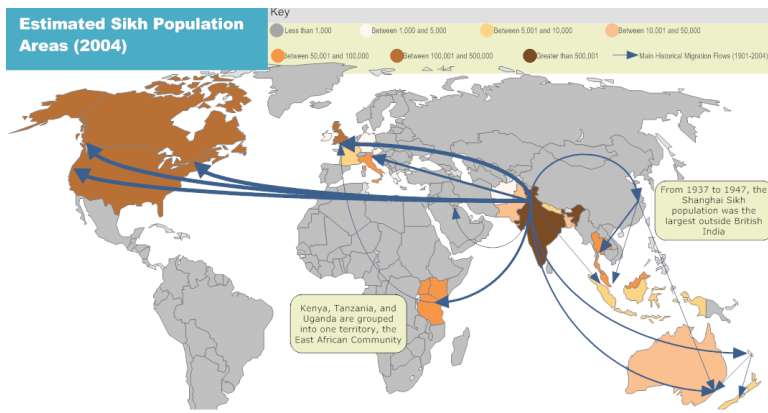


FIGURE 34.2

between Islam and Hinduism would be taken as an insult akin to calling a Christian a heretical Jew. Sikhism is not a cult nor a hybrid but a distinct religious movement.

The recognized founder of Sikhism, Nanak (1469—1538), was born of a Hindu father and a Muslim mother in India. Nanak is said to have received a direct call from God establishing him as a guru. He soon became known in the Punjab region of Northeast India for his devotion and piety and his bold assertion, "There is no Muslim, and there is no Hindu." He accumulated a considerable number of disciples (sikhs). He taught that God is one, and he designated God as the Sat Nam ("true name") or Ekankar, combining the syllables ek ("one"), aum (a mystical sound expressing God), and kar ("Lord"). This monotheism does not include personality nor should it be blurred with any kind of Eastern pantheism (God is all). However, Nanak retained the doctrines of reincarnation and karma, which are notable tenets of Eastern religions such as with Buddhism, Hinduism, and Taoism. Nanak taught that one can escape the reincarnation cycle (samsara) only through mystical union with God through devotion and chanting. Nanak was followed by an unbroken line of nine appointed gurus that maintained the leadership into the 18th century (1708).

Sikhism was originally pacifist, but it could not stay that way for long. Its rejection of the supremacy of Mohammad the prophet was taken as blasphemy and inspired much opposition from the historically warlike faith of Islam. By the time of the tenth guru, Gobind Rai, also known as Gobind Singh ("lion"), the Khalsa, a world-renowned class of Sikh warriors, had organized. The Khalsa were characterized by their "five K's": kesh (long hair), kangha (a steel comb in the hair), kach (short pants), kara (a steel bracelet), and kirpan (a sword or dagger worn at the side). The British, who had a colonizing presence in India at that time, made use of the Khalsa as warriors and bodyguards. Gobind Singh was eventually assassinated by Muslims. He was the last human guru. Who was his successor? The Sikh holy book, the Adi Granth, took his place as indicated by its alternate name, Guru Granth. The Adi Granth, while not worshipped, is ascribed divine status.

Despite its pacifist roots, Sikhism has come to be known as militant, which is unfortunate because such militancy stems largely from geographical issues outside of Sikh control. The hotly contested border of India and Pakistan partitioned in 1947 cuts directly across the Punjab region where the Sikhs had had a high degree of autonomy. Efforts to retain their political and social identity have often failed. Terrorists have taken extreme measures to establish a Sikh state, Khalistan, but the majority of Sikhs are peace-loving people.

The Christian and the Sikh can identify with each other insofar as both religious traditions have undergone much persecution and both worship only one God. The Christian and the Sikh, as persons, can have peace and mutual respect. But Sikhism and Christianity cannot be fused. Their belief systems have some points of agreement but ultimately have a different view of God, a different view of Jesus, a different view of Scripture, and a different view of salvation.

First, Sikhism's concept of God as abstract and impersonal directly contradicts the loving, caring "Abba, Father" God revealed in the Bible (Romans 8:15; Galatians 4:6). Our God is intimately involved with His children, knowing when we sit down and rise up and understanding our very thoughts (Psalm 139:2). He loves us with an everlasting

love and draws us to Himself in patience and faithfulness (Jeremiah 31:3). He also makes it clear that He cannot be reconciled with any so-called god of another religion: “Before Me there was no god formed, and there will be none after Me” (Isaiah 43:10) and “I am the Lord and there is no other; besides Me there is no god” (Isaiah 45:5).

Second, Sikhism denies the unique status of Jesus Christ. Christian Scripture asserts that salvation can come only through Him: “I am the way, and the truth and the life; no one comes to the Father, but by Me” (John 14:6). “And there is salvation in no other One; for there is no other name under Heaven given among men by which we must be saved” (Acts 4:12). Whatever status the Sikhs may afford Christ, it is not the status He deserves, nor is it that which the Bible affords Him—Son of God and Savior of the world.

Third, Sikhs and Christians each claim that theirs is the uniquely inspired Scripture. The source books for Christianity and Sikhism cannot both be “the only word of God.” To be specific, the Christian claims that the Bible is the very Word of God. It is God-breathed, written for all who seek to know and understand, “and is profitable for doctrine, for reproof, for correction, for instruction in righteousness, that the man of God may be perfected, thoroughly furnished to every good work” (2 Timothy 3:16–17). The Bible is given by our Heavenly Father that we might know and love Him, that we might “come to the knowledge of the truth” (1 Timothy 2:4), and that we might come to Him for eternal life.

Fourth and finally, the Sikh view of salvation rejects the sacrificial atonement of Christ. Sikhism teaches the doctrine of karma together with devotion to God. Karma is an inadequate explanation of sin, and no amount of good works can compensate for even one sin against an infinitely holy God. Perfect holiness cannot bear to do anything less than to hate evil. Since He is just, God cannot simply forgive sin without repayment of the debt that sin incurred. Since He is good, God cannot let sinful people into the bliss of heaven unchanged. But in Christ, the God-man, we have a sacrifice of infinite worth to pay our debt. Our forgiveness was expensive beyond measure, so expensive we humans cannot afford it. But we can receive it as a gift. This is what the Bible means by “grace.” Christ paid the debt that we couldn’t afford to pay. He sacrificed His life in substitution for us so we could live with Him. We need only put our faith in Him. Sikhism, on the other hand, fails to address the infinite consequence of sin, the roles of God’s goodness and justice, and man’s total depravity.

In conclusion, we may say that Sikhism has historical and theological traces of both Hinduism and Islam but cannot be properly understood as a mere hybrid of these two. It has evolved into a distinct religious system. A Christian can find common ground with the Sikh at some points, but ultimately Christianity and Sikhism cannot be reconciled.

Recommended Resources: *Neighboring Faiths* by Winfried Corduan and Logos Bible Software.

FIGURE 34.3

CONCEPT 35 British Imperialism in India



FIGURE 35.1

IMPERIALISM IN INDIA

The Indian Subcontinent is rich in commodities that traders enjoyed, many of these traders being European. During 1450-1750, the weakening of the Mughal Empire in addition to the internal unrest between the Hindu majority and the Muslims allowed for ample vacancy for the Europeans to encroach. With the Dutch in the Indies, India was left to the victorious party between the British and French, decided to some degree during the Seven Years War, one front being in India itself (The other two being North America and Europe). England emerged victorious and took little time in establishing itself as the dominate trader in the Indian Ocean, with the creation of the British East India company led in India by Robert Clive. Soon, this company raised an army that eradicated all the French from the subcontinent. Soon the company used the crumbling Mughal Empire to establish administrations throughout the subcontinent, and to help in the administration, the British relied on Sepoys, Indians who worked for the Brits.

The Sepoy Mutiny

Understanding the Sepoy mutiny is vital to Imperialism in India. Basically what happened was as the British wealth grew, they continuously sought to expand their influence and power over the Indians. And in influencing their culture, they completely disregarded the local customs and traditions of the natives. When they supplied the firearms for the Sepoys, most of whom were Hindi or Muslim, they greased the bullet cartridges with pork and beef fat, both from animals that were regarded as sacred or forbidden in Hindu and Islamic culture. When the Sepoys learned of this in 1857, they rebelled. Although they were ultimately crushed after two years of fighting, the desired effect was the exact opposite of what happened. Instead of the British East India Company relinquishing some power to the Indians, the British parliament stepped in, claiming the entire subcontinent under the British Crown, sending the last Mughal emperor Bahadur Shah II into exile and recognizing Queen Victoria as the Empress of India in 1877.

India as a British Crown Colony

Soon, India became considered a model colony. Raw materials such as cotton, other commodities and even some foodstuffs made their way to Britain, where they were manufactured and bought back by Indian markets. The

IMMEDIATE CAUSE



- Introduction of 'The Enfield Rifle' in 1856 to train the Indian soldiers
- Use of greased cartridges made from the fat of cows and pigs
- This hurt the religious sentiments of Indian soldiers & they refused to use these cartridges
- When Indian soldiers were forced to use them they revolted against it

Pooja Singhal, Ph.D Research Scholar, JMI.

FIGURE 35.2

arrangement was very profitable for the British, and also gave them a stronghold in Asia from which they could launch both physical and economic attacks on China such as with the Opium Wars. The Upper Castes of Indian Society were expected to assimilate, if you will, into British culture, and Christianity spread. The Infrastructure, especially the ports and railroads were improved and built. The Education of the upper castes ultimately gave India an educated elite learned in worldly affairs, a great advantage when independence movements and revolts began to occur.

British Imperialism in India



India was a very valuable colony and Britain fought for control over it. The natural resources and the ports were important for trade. It created more economic possibilities. The East India Company ruled over India but the Indians were not so thrilled. There were pros and cons of being ruled by the British. The good things were that it opened up more education possibilities, communication methods, and transportation. The bad things were that the Indians were treated very poorly, they were not given very important jobs, and the British had no respect for the Indian culture and religion.



Britain was a very powerful nation. They were very modernized with a strong government and military. Their weapons were new and invincible to other countries. They fought France for India and won. India was the most valued colonial possession of the British Empire. The British East India Company had control over India. The company created the opium trade and salt production. It brought more Indian territory under its control by persuading or forcing the local leaders to accept its protection and authority.

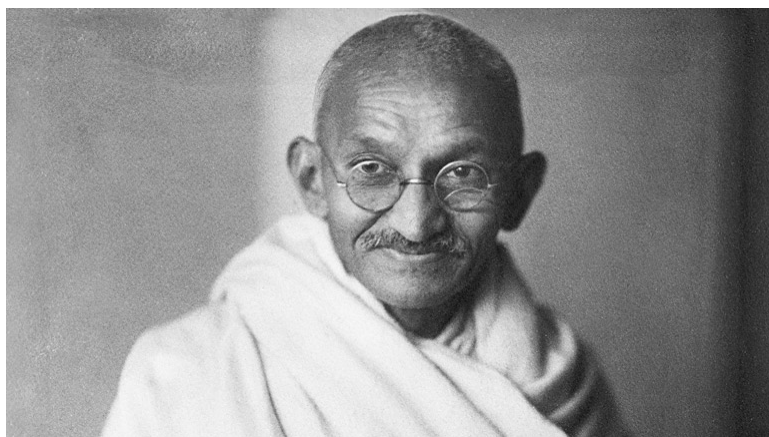



Opium is a very addictive drug that the Indians sold illegally for the British East India Company. Indians tried to smuggle it out of the country to sell to China to make a profit. Once people were hooked on the drug they needed it all the time. Britain knew that and that is why they sold it; they made a lot of money.



The Sepoys were Indian soldiers who worked for the British East India Company. They rebelled against the company because their people were being treated unfairly. Britain had no respect for their religion and their opinions. They were forced to do things they didn't want to including killing their own people.

FIGURE 35.3

CONCEPT 36**Ghandi****FIGURE 36.1**

Mahatmas Gandhi was the primary leader of India’s independence movement and also the architect of a form of civil disobedience that would influence the world.

Born on October 2, 1869, in Porbandar, India, Mahatma Gandhi studied law and came to advocate for the rights of Indians, both at home and in South Africa. Gandhi became a leader of India’s independence movement, organizing boycotts against British institutions in peaceful forms of civil disobedience. He was killed by a fanatic in 1948.

Indian nationalist leader Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi, more commonly known as Mahatma Gandhi, was born on October 2, 1869, in Porbandar, Kathiawar, India. He studied law in London, England, but in 1893 went to South Africa, where he spent 20 years opposing discriminatory legislation against Indians. As a pioneer of Satyagraha, or resistance through mass non-violent civil disobedience, he became one of the major political and spiritual leaders of his time. Satyagraha remains one of the most potent philosophies in freedom struggles throughout the world today

In 1914, Gandhi returned to India, where he supported the Home Rule movement, and became leader of the Indian National Congress, advocating a policy of non-violent non-co-operation to achieve independence. His goal was to help poor farmers and laborers protest oppressive taxation and discrimination. He struggled to alleviate poverty, liberate women and put an end to caste discrimination, with the ultimate objective being self-rule for India.

Following his civil disobedience campaign (1919-22), he was jailed for conspiracy (1922-24). In 1930, he led a landmark 320 km/200 mi march to the sea to collect salt in symbolic defiance of the government monopoly. On his release from prison (1931), he attended the London Round Table Conference on Indian constitutional reform. In 1946, he negotiated with the Cabinet Mission which recommended the new constitutional structure. After independence (1947), he tried to stop the Hindu-Muslim conflict in Bengal, a policy which led to his assassination in Delhi by Nathuram Godse, a Hindu fanatic.

Even after his death, Gandhi’s commitment to non-violence and his belief in simple living—making his own clothes, eating a vegetarian diet and using fasts for self-purification as well as a means of protest—have been a beacon of hope for oppressed and marginalized people throughout the world.

Fact Check

We strive for accuracy and fairness. If you see something that doesn’t look right, contact us!

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Mahatma Gandhi. [Internet]. 2015. The Biography.com website. Available from: <http://www.biography.com/people/mahatma-gandhi-9305898> [Accessed 18 Aug 2015].

MLA Style

"Mahatma Gandhi." Bio. A&E Television Networks, 2015. Web. 18 Aug. 2015.

CONCEPT 37

Monsoons

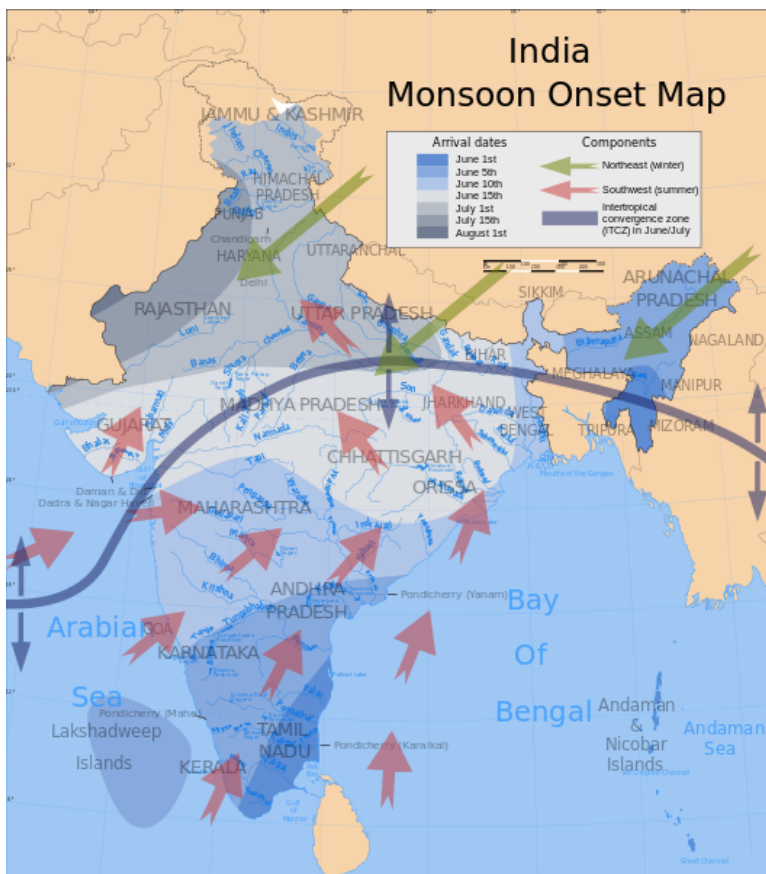


FIGURE 37.1

Monsoons are the seasonal change of wind direction, which brings huge storms. In Asia, monsoons are very common. Monsoon season begins in May in Asia, and countries such as India, Bangladesh, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka suffer from heavy rainfall and storms.

Monsoon rain can be a great relief for those areas affected by drought but can also bring about floods and can destroy crops causing famine.

In July 2010 Pakistan experienced huge floods caused by the monsoon season. Monsoon rains lasted for 3 days and high waters and mudslides caused catastrophic damage. The floods were the worst in the region for 80 years and affected over 2.5 million people and killed over 1,600 people. In the worst affected areas whole villages were swept away without warning. In other areas houses were destroyed, livestock were killed and crops were washed away. Many people were left with nothing and had to wait to get rescued. The relief effort was extremely difficult and time consuming as many roads were damaged and bridges had been destroyed. Food and water were scarce and outbreaks of cholera broke out due to the dirty water. Temporary camps had to be set up for people who had lost their homes and other countries helped with the relief effort by sending food, medical supplies and financial aid.

CONCEPT

38

Unit 10 Tradition in a Modernizing World: East & Southeast Asia

CONCEPT 39 East Asia: The Geography and People.

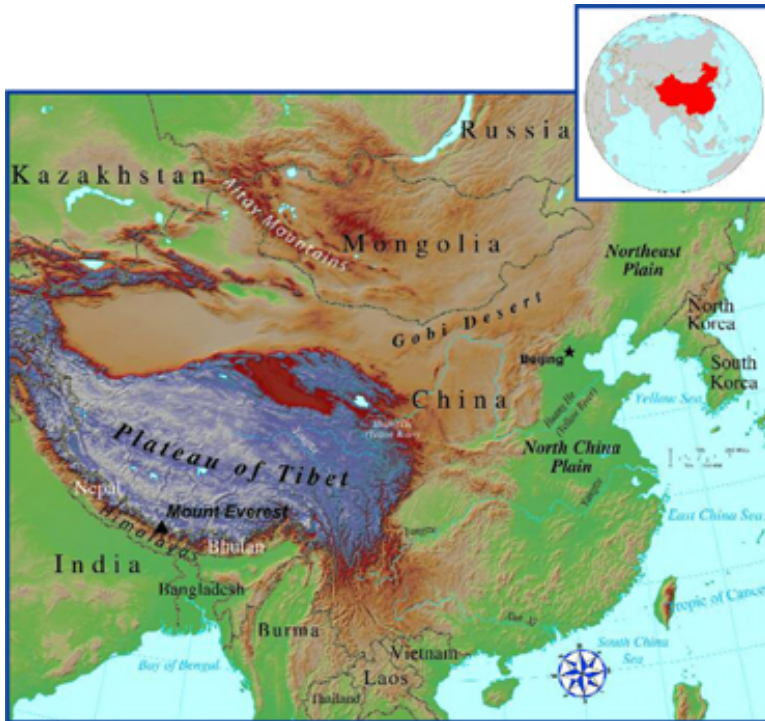


FIGURE 39.1



FIGURE 39.2

The climate of East Asia is both similar to and different from that of Europe and the United States. It is similar in that it is a temperate climate, with colder winters and warm summers. It is different in that most of the rainfall



FIGURE 39.3



FIGURE 39.4

occurs during the warm summer months, rather than during the winter months. This abundant water supply during the warm growing season allows for intensive agriculture, with two and sometimes three crop cycles per year. (The summer rains are borne by monsoon winds, determined by the land mass of Central Asia: in the winter, the cold, dry heavy air over Central Asia flows outward toward the sea; in the summer months, the warm air over the Central Asian land mass rises and cooler, moist air from the ocean flows back bringing rainfall over the land.) [See Notes section, below]

Rice, the primary cereal crop grown in East Asia, is particularly suited to the warm, wet growing season. (Rice is best grown in flooded fields, or paddies.) Since rice produces a much higher yield per acre than does a crop such as wheat, it can support a much greater population per acre than does wheat. Climate, agriculture, and population size are closely related in East Asia where large population densities have existed throughout history. [See Notes section, below]

The distinctive geographical characteristics of China (continental), Japan (insular), Korea (peninsular), and Vietnam (peninsular/continental) affected the historical development of each country.

Chinese civilization (written script, Confucian thought, and Buddhism that had come to China from India) spread northward to the Korean peninsula and then to the islands of Japan, and southward to what is today northern Vietnam – engendering dialogue and exchange among the four countries of the East Asian cultural sphere. The climate of all

four countries supports wet rice agriculture.

Chinese civilization first developed along the **major river systems** of the Yellow River (Huang He) and then the Yangzi (Chang Jiang) in eastern China. China's population and agricultural settlement spread southward through history and remain concentrated today in the central and southern regions of east China, south of the Great Wall, in an area known as "China proper."

The west and north of what is China today are dominated by mountains, steppe lands, plateaus, and deserts. These areas were predominantly settled in the past by nomadic peoples. Over the course of Chinese history, nomadic peoples from China's border regions have often intruded upon the settled, agricultural civilization of "core" China, and in recent centuries, Chinese farmers have settled in the interior regions.

Japan is an island country composed of four main islands and thousands of smaller ones. The main islands are, at their closest point, 120 miles off the coast of Asia. Japan's geographic distance from the Asian mainland is cited as one reason why Japan has been able so consciously and deliberately to borrow and adapt innovations from other civilizations and to forge a strong cultural identity.

China and Japan are two of the world's most populous countries. China, which ranks #1 among countries in population, supports approximately one-fifth of the world's population but has only 7% of the world's arable land. Japan is the tenth most populous country in the world; its land area is comparable to that of Italy or California. Japan's population in 2010 was approximately 127,000,000, less than half that of the United States, which had approximately 309,000,000 people. China's population is nearly five times larger than that of the United States.

The Japanese islands lack most of the natural resources necessary to support an industrialized economy. These resources must be imported.

The Korean peninsula shares borders with China and Russia; it is the portion of the Asian mainland closest to the Japanese islands. The Korean peninsula is well endowed with natural resources. South Korea ranked #25 among the countries of the world in population, with approximately 49,000,000 people in 2010. North Korea ranked #49, with approximately 24,000,000 people in 2010. If the population of the two Koreas is combined, the peninsula would have a total of approximately 73,000,000 people and rank #18 among world countries – with more people than Turkey, France, or England.

Vietnam is divided naturally into northern and southern areas, divided by mountains that reach the sea in the central area. Both the northern and southern regions are in turn dominated by a river delta: that of the Red River in the north and of the Mekong River in the south. Historically, different groups held power respectively in the northern, central, and southern regions of Vietnam. Vietnam ranked #13 among the countries of the world in population, with approximately 85,000,000 people in 2010, a population larger than that of Germany.

Notes: For more information on the climate of East Asia in comparison with that of India and Europe, see John K. Fairbank, Edwin O. Reischauer, and Albert Craig, *East Asia: Tradition and Transformation* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin). Please see also, the AFE module devoted to EAST ASIA in GEOGRAPHIC PERSPECTIVE [<http://afe.easia.columbia.edu/>]

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