Traders travel the rivers of Thailand to sell produce and other goods in that country’s famous floating markets.

Towering cliffs covered with snow and ice are a distinctive characteristic of the landscape of Antarctica.

Ranging from flat plateaus to volcanic peaks, this region has diverse landforms. The vast Pacific Ocean links the scattered parts of this region together.
Oceania includes the Pacific Islands not considered to be part of Southeast Asia. Some people include New Zealand and Australia, even though Australia is a continent, not an island.

LOCATION Australia is known as the “Land Down Under.” It is the only inhabited continent to lie completely in the Southern Hemisphere.

HUMAN–ENVIRONMENT INTERACTION Farmers have adapted to the region’s varied environments. They use terraced fields on steep Southeast Asian slopes and irrigate arid parts of Australia.

For more information on Southeast Asia, Oceania, and Antarctica...
CURRENT EVENTS

Should native people be given back their ancestors’ land?

These two Aboriginal men are elders of the Wuthathi people. They have come to bury the skull of an ancestor in their homeland. Aboriginal people feel a strong spiritual connection to their land and do not want to be separated from it even in death.
Today's Issues in Southeast Asia, Oceania, and Antarctica

**Case Study**

How have people changed the atmosphere?

The green and blue areas in these satellite images show where the ozone layer over Antarctica is thinnest. Ozone in the stratosphere, a layer of the atmosphere, protects the living things of earth from harmful ultraviolet radiation.

**How does industrialization affect cities?**

This slum in Jakarta, Indonesia, shows how difficult it is to provide adequate housing for the thousands of people who move to cities seeking factory jobs.
Use the Unit Atlas to add to your knowledge of Southeast Asia, Oceania, and Antarctica. As you look at the maps and charts, notice geographic patterns and specific details about the region. For example, the chart gives details about large islands in the region.

After studying the pictures, graphs, and physical map on these two pages, jot down in your notebook answers to the questions below.

**Making Comparisons**

1. How does the population of the region compare to that of the United States?

2. What is the world’s largest island? How does its area compare to the combined area of New Guinea, Borneo, and Sumatra?

3. Which countries of this region would you consider flat? Which would you consider mountainous?
Study the map on page 681 to learn about ancient kingdoms and empires of Southeast Asia and the map on both pages to learn about the present-day nations of the region. Then write in your notebook the answers to these questions.

**Making Comparisons**

1. Which ancient kingdoms or empires have names similar to present-day countries in Southeast Asia? How do their locations compare?
2. Which are the largest countries in the region?
3. Which country includes part of the Asian mainland and part of a large island?
Southeast Asia, Oceania, and Antarctica: Political

Southeast Asia, 1200

- Empire of Pagan
- Dai Viet
- Khmer Empire
- Srivijaya Kingdom

Other city
National capital

VIETNAM
- Hanoi
- Saigon

THAILAND
- Bangkok

CAMBODIA
- Phnom Penh
- Angkor

LAOS
- Vientiane

NETHERLANDS EAST INDIES
- Batavia

BRUNEI
- Bandar Seri Begawan

SOUTH CHINA SEA
- China
- Japan

JAVA SEA
- Indonesia

BANDA SEA
- Philippines

TROPIC OF CANCER
- Tropic of Capricorn

SOUTH POLAR地區
- Antarctica

OCEAN
- Pacific Ocean
- Indian Ocean

Ice shelf

Azimuthal Equidistant Projection

0 500 1,000 kilometers
0 400 800 miles
These two pages contain graphs and thematic maps. The graphs show the percentage of ethnic Chinese in Southeast Asian populations and the number of active volcanoes in the region. One map shows the climates of the region. The other shows the major religions of the region. After studying the graphs and maps, jot down in your notebook the answers to the questions below.

**Making Comparisons**

1. Which Southeast Asian nation has the highest proportion of Chinese in its population?

2. What percentage of the region’s active volcanoes are found in Southeast Asia?

3. Where are the coldest climates to be found in the region?

4. Would you describe this as a region of religious diversity? Why or why not?
Study the charts on the countries of this region.

Making Comparisons
1. Compare the population and total area of Australia to that of the United States. What conclusions can you draw?

2. Make a list of the top three countries in population. What is the difference in population between the top two countries?

3. Make a list of the top three countries in total area. How does this list compare to your list of the most populous countries?

(continued on page 686)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/Capital</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Life Expectancy (years)</th>
<th>Birthrate (per 1,000 pop.)</th>
<th>Infant Mortality (per 1,000 live births)</th>
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<td>80.4</td>
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<td>4.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Palau/Melekeok</td>
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<td>11.2</td>
<td>13.1</td>
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<td>19.0</td>
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<td>Population</td>
<td>Life Expectancy (years)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
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<td>Sydney</td>
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<td>Brunei</td>
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<td>Bandar Seri Begawan</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Tarawa</td>
<td>113,000</td>
<td>63.2</td>
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<td>25,716,000</td>
<td>73.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marshall Islands</td>
<td></td>
<td>Majuro</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>71.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micronesia, Fed.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Palikir</td>
<td>107,000</td>
<td>70.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yangon</td>
<td>48,138,000</td>
<td>63.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nauru</td>
<td></td>
<td>(no capital)</td>
<td>14,000</td>
<td>64.2</td>
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<td>Wellington</td>
<td>4,213,000</td>
<td>80.4</td>
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<td>Melekeok</td>
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<td>Apia</td>
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<td>Singapore</td>
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<td>Singapore</td>
<td>4,658,000</td>
<td>82.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td></td>
<td>Honiara</td>
<td>596,000</td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Making Comparisons (continued)

4. Which countries have a literacy rate below 60 percent?

5. For the countries you identified in question 4, look at their ratio of doctors to population. Is it high or low compared to other countries? What might be the relationship between literacy rate and number of doctors?

Sources:
Central Intelligence Agency, The World Factbook, 2010
The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 2010
World Health Organization (WHO), 2007

Notes:
* GDP (purchasing power parity) is defined as the sum value of all goods and services produced in the country valued at prices prevailing in the United States.
* Includes land and water, when figures are available

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Life Expectancy</th>
<th>Birthrate</th>
<th>Infant Mortality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>17.5</td>
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<td>40.7</td>
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<td>Tonga</td>
<td>121,000</td>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>11.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tuvalu</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>35.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>219,000</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>49.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>88,577,000</td>
<td>71.7</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>22.3</td>
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<td>United States</td>
<td>307,212,000</td>
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<td>6.2</td>
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</table>

Territories and Possessions in Oceania

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Samoa</td>
<td>U.S. territory*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cook Islands</td>
<td>Self-governing area in free association with New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Polynesia</td>
<td>French overseas territory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guam</td>
<td>U.S. territory*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irian Jaya</td>
<td>Indonesian province</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midway Islands</td>
<td>U.S. possession*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Caledonia</td>
<td>French overseas territory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niue</td>
<td>Self-governing area in free association with New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norfolk Island</td>
<td>Australian territory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Mariana Islands</td>
<td>U.S. commonwealth*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pitcairn Islands</td>
<td>British overseas territory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokelau</td>
<td>New Zealand territory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wake Island</td>
<td>U.S. possession*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wallis and Futuna</td>
<td>French overseas territory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* A commonwealth is a self-governing political unit in voluntary association with the United States; a U.S. territory is not a state but has a governor and a legislature; the U.S. possessions in the Pacific are administered by the Navy.

Inland Explorations of Antarctica

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader of Expedition</th>
<th>Dates of Expedition</th>
<th>Outcome of Expedition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Henryk Johan Bull, Norway</td>
<td>1895</td>
<td>First known landing on Antarctic mainland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert Falcon Scott, Great Britain</td>
<td>1901–1904</td>
<td>First inland exploration of Antarctica, of Ross Ice Shelf and Transantarctic Mountains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ernest Shackleton, Great Britain</td>
<td>1907–1909</td>
<td>Turned back 97 miles from the South Pole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roald Amundsen, Norway</td>
<td>1911–1912</td>
<td>First to reach the South Pole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert Falcon Scott, Great Britain</td>
<td>1911–1912</td>
<td>Reached the South Pole a month after Amundsen; died on return journey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


English explorer Robert Falcon Scott, shown here on his journey to the South Pole in 1912, died on this expedition.
TAKING NOTES

Scuba divers in Australia’s Great Barrier Reef can observe some of its more than 1,500 species of fish and approximately 400 species of coral.

**Essential Question**

How does physical geography vary throughout this vast region?

**What You Will Learn**

In this chapter you will learn that the region’s immensely varied landscapes are subject to dramatic changes.

**SECTION 1**

Landforms and Resources

**SECTION 2**

Climate and Vegetation

**SECTION 3**

Human–Environment Interaction

Use the graphic organizer online to record facts about Southeast Asia, Oceania, and Antarctica.
Landforms and Resources

**Main Ideas**
- This region includes two peninsulas of Asia, two continents, and more than 20,000 islands.
- Its landforms include mountains, plateaus, and major river systems.

**Places & Terms**
- archipelago
- low island
- Oceania
- Great Barrier Reef
- high island

**Connect to the Issues**
**INDUSTRIALIZATION**
Some countries of this region have used their resources to develop industry, with mixed results.

**Southeast Asia: Mainland and Islands**

Southeast Asia has two distinct subregions: the southeastern corner of the Asian mainland and a great number of islands. Both the mainland and the islands have many high mountains.

**PENINSULAS AND ISLANDS**
The most noticeable feature of mainland Southeast Asia is that it lies on two peninsulas. The Indochinese Peninsula, located south of China, has a rectangular shape. In contrast, the Malay Peninsula is a narrow strip of land about 700 miles long, stretching south from the mainland and then curving southeast. It serves as a bridge between the mainland and islands.

Most of the islands of Southeast Asia are found in archipelagoes. An archipelago is a set of closely grouped islands, which sometimes form a curved arc. The Philippines and the islands of Indonesia are part of the Malay Archipelago. (See the map on page 680.) A few Southeast Asian islands, such as Borneo, are actually the high points of a submerged section of the Eurasian plate.

**MOUNTAINS AND VOLCANOES**
On the map at right, you can see that the mainland has several mountain ranges, such as the Annamese Cordillera, running roughly north and south. These ranges fan out from a mountainous area to the north.

---

**A HUMAN PERSPECTIVE**
The Aeta (EE-duh) people of the Philippines lived on the volcano Mount Pinatubo for generations. They knew this volcano so well that they timed the planting and harvesting of their crops by the amount of steam rising from a vent on its slope. In 1991, the Aeta noticed changes in the mountain and concluded that it was about to erupt. Tens of thousands of Aeta fled their homes as did countless other Filipinos. Pinatubo did erupt for the first time in 600 years, spewing ash for miles. Since then, many of the Aeta have formed new communities, but they still miss their homeland. As their story shows, the geologic processes that destroy landforms also disrupt human lives.
On the islands, most of the mountains are of volcanic origin. Southeast Asia is part of the Pacific Ring of Fire. Volcanoes and earthquakes often affect the region. In 2004, a massive earthquake struck off the coast of Sumatra, Indonesia. The resulting tsunamis killed almost 230,000 people, including at least 200,000 Indonesians.

**RIVERS AND COASTLINES** The mainland has several large rivers that run from the north through the valleys between the mountain ranges. Near the coast these rivers spread out into fertile deltas. For example, the Mekong (MAY-KAWNG) River begins in China and crosses several Southeast Asian nations before becoming a wide delta on Vietnam's coast. Millions of people rely on the Mekong for farming and fishing.

The region’s peninsulas and islands give it a long, irregular coastline with many ports. As you can imagine, these conditions have encouraged a great deal of seagoing travel and trade.

**RESOURCES** Fertile soil is a valuable resource. Volcanic activity and flooding rivers add nutrients to the soil. Southeast Asians also have access to plentiful fish in the rivers and nearby seas. Parts of the region have mineral resources, such as petroleum, tin, and gems.

**Lands of the Pacific and Antarctica**

No one knows how many islands exist in the Pacific Ocean, but some geographers estimate that there are more than 20,000. As a group, the Pacific Islands are called **Oceania**. (The Philippines, Indonesia, and other islands near the mainland are not considered part of Oceania because their people have cultural ties to Asia.) In the southwestern
The high island in the background is Bora Bora, a volcanic island in French Polynesia. (See the map on page 681.) Many small coral islands surround it.

Pacific lie New Zealand and Australia, which are often considered part of Oceania, even though Australia is a continent, not an island.

OCEANIA’S MANY ISLANDS One reason geographers don’t know the number of islands in Oceania is that it changes. Erosion causes some islands to vanish, while other forces create new islands. Most Pacific islands fall into two categories: high islands are created by volcanoes, and low islands are made of coral reefs. Although a few of Oceania’s islands are large, most are small. If you added the land area of all the islands together, the total would be smaller than the area of Alaska.

Oceania is not rich in resources. The low islands have poor soil, and most of the islands lack minerals. But New Caledonia has nickel, chromium, and iron; New Guinea has copper, gold, and oil; Nauru has phosphate; and both Fiji and the Solomon Islands have gold. The general scarcity of resources has made it difficult to develop industry.

MAJESTIC NEW ZEALAND New Zealand has two main islands, North Island and South Island. Running down the center of South Island is a 300-mile-long mountain range, the Southern Alps. This range has 16 peaks over 10,000 feet high and more than 360 glaciers. Several rivers flow down the eastern slopes to the ocean.

North Island has hilly ranges and a volcanic plateau, but it is much less mountainous than South Island. North Island has fertile farmland and forest that support the lumber industry. In addition, its coastline has natural harbors that are used for seaports. Like South Island, North Island has many rivers running from the mountains to the sea.

New Zealand has few mineral resources. However, its swift-flowing rivers have allowed its people to build dams that generate electricity.
Also, North Island has a volcanic area with underground steam. Engineers have found ways to use this steam to power generators.

**FLAT AUSTRALIA** The land mass known as Australia is the smallest continent on earth. It is also the flattest. Near the eastern coast, running roughly parallel to it, is a chain of highlands called the Great Dividing Range. Unlike New Zealand’s mountains, few of these peaks rise higher than 5,000 feet. To the west of this range stretches a vast expanse of plains and plateaus, broken by only a few mountains.

Many other differences exist between Australia and New Zealand. For example, Australia has very few rivers. The largest is the Murray River, which flows into the Southern Ocean. Forestry is not a major industry in Australia, but the country is rich in minerals. It is the world’s leading supplier of bauxite, diamonds, opals, lead, and coal.

Along Australia’s northeast coast lies one of the wonders of nature. The Great Barrier Reef is often called the world’s largest coral reef, although it is really a 1,250-mile chain of more than 2,500 reefs and islands. Some 400 species of coral are found there.

**ICY ANTARCTICA** Antarctica is the fifth largest continent. Generally circular in shape, it is centered on the South Pole. Its topography is hidden by a thick ice sheet, but under the ice lies a varied landscape. The Transantarctic Mountains divide the continent in two. East Antarctica is a plateau surrounded by mountains and valleys. West Antarctica is a group of separate islands linked only by the ice that covers them.

Antarctica’s ice sheet is the largest supply of fresh water in the world. Geologists believe that resources such as coal, minerals, and perhaps even petroleum may lie beneath the ice. But in 1991, 26 nations agreed not to mine Antarctica for 50 years. In the next section, you will read about Antarctica’s harsh climate as well as the climates of Southeast Asia, Oceania, Australia, and New Zealand.
Interpreting a Relief Map

Two activities that are popular in New Zealand are mountain climbing and skiing. The relief map below shows mountainous areas, which are suitable to those activities. The mountains also provide some regions of New Zealand with spectacular scenery—especially in the Southern Alps of South Island.

**THE LANGUAGE OF MAPS** A relief map illustrates the differences in elevation that are found in a region. It does this with a combination of colors and shading. The lowest elevations are shown in green, and various shades of brown represent progressively higher elevations. The gray shading shows the locations of mountainous landforms.

1. **Seeing Patterns**
   Which of New Zealand’s two large islands is more mountainous?

2. **Drawing Conclusions**
   How high is Mount Cook?

3. **Making Inferences**
   Which island is better suited to farming? Why?
Climate and Vegetation

Main Ideas

• This region’s climates range from tropical to desert to polar icecap.
• There is a great diversity of plant and animal life, including some species found nowhere else in the world.

Places & Terms

outback

Connect to the Issues

environmental change

The hole in the ozone layer, located over Antarctica, has affected the climate of this region.

A HUMAN PERSPECTIVE

During the Vietnam War, American troops were sent to fight in unfamiliar Southeast Asia. Among the hardships they endured was the tropical climate. Few had ever lived in a place that had a monsoon season with constant rain. One soldier wrote to his wife, “We live in mud and rain. I’m so sick of rain that it is sometimes unbearable. At night the mosquitoes plague me. . . . The rain drips on me until I go to sleep from exhaustion.”

Another soldier wrote to a friend about the vegetation: “Try to imagine grass 8 to 15 feet high so thick as to cut visibility to one yard, possessing razor-sharp edges. Then try to imagine walking through it.” As these letters make clear, climate and vegetation can create serious obstacles to military operations—or other activities.

Widespread Tropics

Although the conditions that American soldiers encountered seemed unusual to them, they really aren’t rare. Vietnam is just one of many countries in this region with a tropical climate. In fact, tropical climates cover most of Southeast Asia and Oceania. Tropical climates fall into two categories, depending on when it rains during the year.

YEAR-ROUND RAINS

A tropical wet climate is found in coastal parts of Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam, and Oceania, and in most of Malaysia, Indonesia, and the Philippines. Temperatures are high. For example, most of Southeast Asia has an average annual temperature of 80°F. Parts of Southeast Asia receive over 100 inches of rain a year, with some places receiving more than 200 inches.

Although the climate is fairly consistent, variations do exist within the region. Elevation, ocean breezes, and other factors can create cooler temperatures. For example, Indonesia has some locations at such a high elevation that they have glaciers. (See the infographic on page 56.)

WET AND DRY SEASONS

Bordering the wet climate is the tropical wet and dry climate, in which monsoons shape the weather. As you read in Unit 8, monsoons are winds that cause wet and dry seasons. This climate is found in parts of Myanmar, Thailand, Laos, Cambodia, and Vietnam—generally to the north or inland of the wet climate. Parts of Oceania and northern Australia also have this climate.

Although temperatures are consistently hot, rainfall varies greatly within the climate zone. Local conditions and
landforms can affect precipitation amounts. For example, mountains create rain shadows.
Areas with monsoons often experience disastrous weather. During the wet season, typhoons can occur in Southeast Asia and Oceania.

**TROPICAL PLANTS** Southeast Asia has one of the greatest diversities of vegetation of any region. For example, it has a remarkable number of tree species. Near the equator are tropical evergreen forests, while deciduous forests are more common in the wet and dry climate zone. Teak, a valuable tree that Asians harvest commercially, comes from these deciduous forests. Southeast Asia also has many types of plants.

In general, Oceania does not have diverse vegetation. The low islands have poor soil and small amounts of rain, so plants don’t grow well. Some high islands have rich, volcanic soil and plentiful rain. These islands have abundant flowers and trees, such as the coconut palm.

**Bands of Moderate Climate**

Australia is the only inhabited continent that lies completely in the Southern Hemisphere. New Zealand is even farther south. Australia and New Zealand have generally moderate climates.

**HOT SUMMERS, MILD WINTERS** As Section 1 explained, a mountain chain runs parallel to the east coast of Australia. The strip between the mountains and ocean is divided mostly into two climate zones. The northern part of this strip has a humid subtropical climate, with hot summers, mild winters, and heavy rainfall. It is one of Australia’s wettest regions, receiving an average of 126 inches of rain a year. This climate also exists in northern Vietnam, Laos, Thailand, and Myanmar.
**REGION** Because it was cut off from contact with the other continents for centuries, Australia developed many unique plants and animals, such as those shown here.

What other Australian animals have you heard of?

**KANGAROO AND JOEY (BABY KANGAROO)**

**EMU**

**QUEENSLAND BOTTLE TREE**

**WOMBAT**

**PLATYPUS**

**TASMANIAN DEVIL**

**MILD SUMMERS, COOL WINTERS** New Zealand and the southern part of Australia’s east coast share a marine west coast climate. The seasons have mild temperatures because ocean breezes warm the land in the winter and cool it in the summer. New Zealand’s forests consist primarily of evergreens and tree ferns, which thrive in such a climate.

New Zealand receives rainfall year-round, although the amount varies dramatically from one part of the country to another. For example, the mountains of South Island cause rain to fall on their western slopes, so the eastern part of the island is drier. Mountains change the climate in another way. The mountainous inland areas of New Zealand are cooler than the coastal areas. Temperatures drop about three-and-a-half degrees for every 1,000-foot rise in elevation.

Mountains influence Australia’s climates, too. The Great Dividing Range forces moisture-bearing winds to rise and shed their rain before moving inland. For that reason, the marine west coast and humid subtropical climates exist only on the east coast. That coast is Australia’s most heavily populated region. The moist coasts are also the only parts of Australia with enough rain for trees that grow taller than 300 feet.

**BACKGROUND** This rate of temperature reduction is true in almost all mountain ranges.
Hot and Cold Deserts

As you learned earlier in this book, there are many types of desert. For example, two very different deserts exist in Australia and Antarctica.

**ARID AUSTRALIA** One-third of Australia is desert, lying in an oval in the center of the continent. This region receives less than 10 inches of rain a year and is too dry for agriculture or for grazing. Encircling the desert is a band of semiarid climate that receives no more than 20 inches of rain a year. Crops can only be grown there by using irrigation. Several factors cause Australia’s dryness. Because it lies in the tropics and subtropics, Australia is very hot, so rain evaporates easily. And as you read earlier, mountains and uplands force the winds from the ocean to rise and shed their rain on the coasts instead of the interior.

Very few people live in the dry interior. Australians call the unpopulated inland region the **outback**. The few people who live in the outback receive medical care from the Royal Flying Doctor Service.

**THE WHITE DESERT** With its lands located around the South Pole, Antarctica is earth’s coldest, driest continent. It has an icecap climate. In the winter, inland temperatures can fall to 70°F below zero or colder. Cold air doesn’t hold moisture well, so Antarctica’s air has only one-tenth the water vapor found in the atmosphere of temperate regions. As a result, Antarctica receives little precipitation and is often called a polar desert. But it has heavy snow and ice cover because the snow that does fall rarely melts.

Antarctica’s only plants are those, such as lichens and mosses, that can survive severe cold and long periods of darkness. Its animals are mostly sea life and birds, including several types of penguins.

In Section 3, you will learn about examples of human-environment interaction in this region.
**A HUMAN PERSPECTIVE** In May 2000, the Smithsonian Institution honored Mau Piailug for preserving traditional navigation skills. Mau was born in Micronesia. When he was four years old, he began to sail with his grandfather, who taught the boy how to navigate without using instruments. Those methods of navigation were similar to those used by ancient Polynesians. In 1976, Mau was the navigator during an experimental voyage in which a group used a Polynesian-style canoe to travel from Hawaii to Tahiti and back. Since then, Mau has taught many people in the Pacific Islands how to navigate using traditional skills. In doing so, he passed on important knowledge of how ancient people adapted to their environment.

**Traveling the Pacific**

In ancient times, people around the world found ways to travel great distances in spite of geographic challenges. For example, the people of Arabia discovered that the camel was the perfect pack animal to take across the desert. Similarly, the people who settled the islands of the Pacific developed ways to travel that vast and dangerous ocean.

**NAVIGATION CHARTS** Most scholars believe that the people who settled the Pacific Islands came from Southeast Asia. They first used land bridges and small rafts and canoes to reach the islands closest to the mainland. In time, they ventured farther out into the Pacific, which required more sophisticated navigation methods.

Pacific Islanders not only relied on stars for navigation, but they also used charts made of sticks and shells. The sticks showed the patterns of waves commonly found in a region. The shells gave the positions of islands. Pacific Islanders closely guarded the secret of how to use these charts until the late 1800s. About that time, they began to use European methods of navigation.
SPECIAL CANOES To sail the vast ocean, Pacific Islanders developed huge **voyaging canoes** with double hulls, shown above. Having two hulls made the craft stable and gave it the ability to carry lots of weight. The canoes also had sails to take advantage of the winds. Cabins were sometimes built on the platform atop the hulls to shelter the voyagers and their supplies. Those supplies usually included plants that the travelers hoped to grow in their new homeland.

The large voyaging canoes were awkward to use in the lagoons of the islands where Pacific Islanders settled. In those places, they used the **outrigger canoe**. An outrigger canoe has a frame, with an attached float, extending from one side. The float helps balance the canoe.

**Invasion of the Rabbits**

Just as the people who settled the Pacific Islands carried familiar plants with them, so did the Europeans who colonized Australia. They also brought European animals, such as the rabbit. The impact was disastrous. Although the rabbit is a small, timid animal, it proved to be a force strong enough to nearly ruin the Australian landscape.

**THE RABBIT PROBLEM** In Europe, many people raise or hunt rabbits for food. In 1859, Thomas Austin released 24 rabbits into Australia so he could hunt them. It was like infecting the continent with a cancer; the rabbit population grew faster than anyone could control it. A single pair of rabbits can have up to 184 descendants in 18 months. Plus, rabbits have few natural enemies—such as foxes—among Australia’s wildlife. By 1900, Australia had more than a billion rabbits.
Australia’s arid climate produces sparse vegetation. Rabbits graze close to the ground, so they kill or weaken the plants that do grow. Rabbits wiped out native plants and destroyed crops. They ruined pastures, reducing the land’s ability to feed herds of sheep. Areas stripped of vegetation suffered erosion. And some of Australia’s native animals became endangered because of competition for food.

**CONTROL MEASURES** Australians have made efforts to control the number of rabbits. They imported foxes to prey on rabbits, but the growing fox population endangered Australian wildlife just as rabbits had. In the early 1900s, the government built a 2,000-mile fence to keep rabbits from spreading to the southwest. This fence succeeded only temporarily before rabbits broke through to the new region.

In the 1950s, the government infected wild rabbits with a disease called myxomatosis. More than 90 percent of the total rabbit population died. As rabbit numbers decreased, Australian ranches could support nearly twice as many sheep. But rabbits became immune to the disease, and their numbers boomed again—to 300 million by the 1990s.

Now Australians are trying a combination of methods to reduce rabbit numbers: using poison, introducing new diseases, erecting fences, and destroying the warrens and burrows where rabbits live. No one knows if this new program will provide a permanent solution.

**Nuclear Testing**

Australia is not the only land in this region to be scarred by the consequences of human action. Beginning in the 1940s, the United States and the Soviet Union waged an arms race in which they competed to develop more powerful nuclear weapons. As part of its weapons development program, the United States wanted to test nuclear bombs without endangering American citizens. In the 1940s and 1950s, the United States conducted 66 tests in the Pacific.

**TESTS IN BIJIKI ATOLL** In the Marshall Islands of the central Pacific lies Bikini Atoll. An atoll is a ringlike coral island or string of small islands surrounding a lagoon. Bikini Atoll was the site of U.S. atomic-weapons tests. (Similar tests were also held on Enewetak Atoll.)

The U.S. government chose Bikini for testing because it lay far away from regular shipping and air travel routes. In 1946, the government moved the 167 Bikini Islanders to another atoll and conducted two atomic-weapons tests.

From 1951 to 1958, the U.S. government held about 60 more tests there. The most dramatic of these was the explosion of a hydrogen bomb that was code-named Bravo. That blast vaporized several islands.
The two-piece bikini bathing suit was named after the Bikini test because designers claimed the suit was “explosive.”

of the Bikini Atoll and contaminated the entire area with high levels of radiation. Many islanders were injured or became ill.

**LONG-TERM EFFECTS** In the meantime, the Bikini Islanders remained exiled from their homeland. The first atoll to which they were moved proved to be unable to support inhabitants, so in 1948, they were moved to the island of Kili. But they soon grew unhappy because conditions there made it impossible to grow enough food or to engage in fishing.

In the late 1960s, the United States government declared Bikini Atoll safe for humans, and some islanders returned home. Then, in 1978, doctors discovered dangerous levels of radiation in the islanders’ bodies. The affected islanders had to leave again. No one knows when Bikini Atoll will again be fit for human life. Many Bikinians insist that the island’s topsoil must be replaced before Bikini is habitable again.

In Chapter 31, you will read more about the history and culture of Oceania, Southeast Asia, Australia, and New Zealand.

**Background**

The Bikini Atoll and contaminated the entire area with high levels of radiation. Many islanders were injured or became ill.

**Taking Notes**

**HUMAN-ENVIRONMENT INTERACTION** Review the notes you took for this section.

- What is an example of humans adapting to the environment?
- What are examples of humans altering the environment?

**Main Ideas**

a. How did Pacific Islanders navigate the ocean in ancient times?

b. How have Australians tried to control the rabbit problem?

c. Why have the Bikini Islanders been unable to return home?

**Determining Cause and Effect** What do the atomic tests on Bikini reveal about the long-term effects of using atomic weapons?

Think about:
- how the blasts affect people and the environment

**Making Comparisons** Do research to learn about French atomic tests in the Pacific. Create a chart comparing the French tests to the U.S. tests. You might use such categories as location, impact on people, and current policy about the tests.
Reviewing Places & Terms

A. Briefly explain the importance of each of the following.

1. archipelago

2. Oceania

3. high island

4. low island

5. Great Barrier Reef

6. outback

7. voyaging canoe

8. outrigger canoe

9. atoll

10. Bikini Atoll

B. Answer the questions about vocabulary in complete sentences.

11. Which of the terms above are related to Australia?

12. Are atolls high islands or low islands? Explain.

13. Is the Great Barrier Reef most closely related to high islands or low islands? Explain.

14. Which would a tourist be more likely to visit, the outback or the Great Barrier Reef? Why?

15. Which of the subregions contain archipelagoes?

16. Where in Oceania are outrigger canoes used?

17. What are the important features of voyaging canoes?

18. Which of the terms above is associated with human damage to the environment?

19. Are high islands or low islands more likely to have prosperous economies? Why?

20. Which term or terms name a place in Oceania?

Main Ideas

Landforms and Resources (pp. 689–693)

1. What are the two distinct subregions of Southeast Asia?

2. What is the physical pattern formed by the mountain ranges and rivers of mainland Southeast Asia?

3. For what purpose do engineers use the underground steam found in the volcanic area of New Zealand?

4. What is one of the many differences between the physical geographies of Australia and New Zealand?

Climate and Vegetation (pp. 694–697)

5. Where is the tropical wet and dry climate found?

6. How does the Great Dividing Range influence Australia’s climate?

7. What are the main plants and animals of Antarctica?

Human-Environment Interaction (pp. 698–701)

8. On the navigation charts of Pacific Islanders, what did the shells represent?

9. Why did the rabbit population grow so quickly in Australia?

10. Why have the Bikini Islanders been unhappy with the places where the U.S. government resettled them?
Critical Thinking

1. Using Your Notes
   Use your completed chart to answer these questions.

   ![Chart]

   a. What subregion has a large diversity of both landforms and vegetation?
   b. How did the type of vegetation found in Australia make it an unsuitable place for the introduction of rabbits?

2. Geographic Themes
   a. LOCATION Where are the tropical climates of this region located relative to the equator?
   b. MOVEMENT How does the physical geography of Southeast Asia encourage movement?

3. Identifying Themes
   Consider the way that Pacific Islanders used shell maps (see page 698). How does the use of such maps demonstrate all five themes of geography?

4. Determining Cause and Effect
   What are some of the negative and positive effects of volcanic activity in Southeast Asia?

5. Identifying and Solving Problems
   In general, Oceania has few resources. What problem does this create for Pacific Islanders, and how might they solve it?

Geographic Skills: Interpreting Maps

Bikini Atoll
Use the map to answer the following questions.

1. PLACE Which channel leads to the lagoon inside the Bikini Atoll?
2. LOCATION What is the absolute location of the Bravo test site?
3. MOVEMENT How far did radiation travel from the Bravo test site in order to contaminate Bikini Island?

GeoActivity
In addition to Bikini Atoll, other atolls and islands were contaminated with radiation from the U.S. atomic-weapons tests. Do research to learn the names and locations of these islands and atolls. Then create a map showing the full area of radiation contamination.

hmhsocialstudies.com
MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY
Use the links at hmhsocialstudies.com to do research about active volcanoes in Southeast Asia. Look for such information as location and recent eruptions.

Writing About Geography Write a report of your findings. Include a map of the volcanoes and a chart listing recent eruptions. List the Web sites that were your sources.
Chapter 31
HUMAN GEOGRAPHY OF SOUTHEAST ASIA, OCEANIA, AND ANTARCTICA
Migration and Conquest

Three Subregions

Essential Question
How have foreign powers affected Southeast Asia, Oceania, and Antarctica?

What You Will Learn
In this chapter you will learn how migration and conquest have affected the people of Southeast Asia and Oceania.

SECTION 1
Southeast Asia

SECTION 2
Oceania

SECTION 3
Australia, New Zealand, and Antarctica

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes about the history, economics, culture, and modern life of each subregion.

hmhsocialstudies.com TAKING NOTES

HISTORY
Dreamtime of the Aborigines

 hmhsocialstudies.com VIDEO

TAKING NOTES
Use the graphic organizer online to take notes about the history, economics, culture, and modern life of each subregion.
Southeast Asia

Main Ideas
- Influenced by China and India, Southeast Asia developed many vibrant, complex cultures.
- European colonialism left a legacy that continues to affect the region's politics and economics.

Places & Terms
mandala
Khmer Empire
Indochina
Vietnam War
ASEAN

Connect to the Issues
industrialization

Since 1960, many Southeast Asian nations industrialized, while others lagged behind.

A HUMAN PERSPECTIVE  Much of Southeast Asia is haunted by its colonial past. One example is the divided island of Timor. The Netherlands ruled Western Timor, later part of Indonesia. Portugal ruled East Timor. In 1975, East Timor declared itself an independent state (even though some people living there wanted to join Indonesia). In response, Indonesia invaded the new nation and ruled it for 24 years.

In 1999, Indonesia let East Timor vote on the choice of limited self-rule within Indonesia or independence. When most voters chose independence, pro-Indonesia militias reacted with violence. The United Nations stepped in and helped East Timor prepare for nationhood. In May 2002, the country gained its independence.

The new nation is also one of the poorest. However, the development of a natural gas field in the Timor Sea should help solve East Timor's economic challenges. In fact, the revenue from the sale of the gas is expected to guarantee the new nation a steady income until 2020.

A Long History of Diversity

Since ancient times, many cultures have influenced Southeast Asia, yet it has retained its own character. Today the region includes the nations of Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam.

EARLY HISTORY  China and India influenced ancient Southeast Asia. China ruled northern Vietnam from 111 B.C. to A.D. 939. Chinese art, technology, political ideas, and ethical beliefs shaped Vietnam's culture. Hinduism and Buddhism spread from India and influenced religion and art in much of Southeast Asia. Yet, Southeast Asia kept some of its own traditions, such as more equal roles for women.

Early Southeast Asian states didn’t have set borders. Instead, they were mandalas, states organized as rings of power around a central court. Those regions of power changed in size over time. A mandala's region might overlap that of a neighbor, so rulers had to make alliances for a state to survive. The Khmer Empire was a powerful mandala that lasted roughly from the 9th to the 15th centuries in what is now Cambodia.

MOVEMENT  The temple complex of Angkor Wat in Cambodia was built in the 1100s and dedicated to the Hindu god Vishnu. How does this temple illustrate the movement of ideas?
**POWERFUL STATES** The years 1300 through 1800 were important to Southeast Asia’s development. Five powerful states existed where Myanmar, Vietnam, Thailand, Java, and the Malay Peninsula are now. Those states were similar to mandalas but were larger and more complex. Trade within the region was important to their economies.

During that period, the Burmese, the Vietnamese, the Thai, and the Javanese each began to define their national identities. Urbanization, or the growth of large cities, also took place. For instance, Malacca, on the Malay Peninsula, grew to have about 100,000 people in the early 1500s.

**Colonialism and Its Aftermath**

Southeast Asian states not only traded with each other but also with merchants from Arabia and India, who brought Islam to Southeast Asia. Islam attracted many followers, especially in the islands.

**EUROPEAN CONTROL** Large numbers of Europeans began to arrive in Southeast Asia in 1509. At that time, Europeans had little interest in setting up colonies there, except for the Spanish, who took over the Philippines. Instead, the goal of most Europeans was to obtain wealth.

Europeans used various business methods to take over much of Southeast Asia’s trade. As the region’s wealth flowed to Europe, local control in Southeast Asian states declined. By the 20th century, Europeans had made all of Southeast Asia except Siam (now Thailand) into colonies.

Colonialism changed Southeast Asia. First, colonial rulers set up centralized, bureaucratic governments with set routines and regulations. Second, Europeans forced the colonies to produce commodities that would help Europe’s economy. They included rubber, sugar, rice, tea, and coffee. Third, colonialism had the unintended effect of sparking nationalism. Groups that never had been allies united against European rule. And Southeast Asians who gained Western education learned about political ideas such as self-rule.

**Background**

The Burmese are the people of Myanmar, which used to be called Burma; the Javanese live in Indonesia.
Background

The name Indochina refers to the Indian and Chinese influences on the region. The colony took up only part of the Indochinese Peninsula.

Independent Claiming to take back "Asia for Asians," Japan occupied Southeast Asia during World War II. Southeast Asians soon realized that Japan was exploiting the region for its own benefit just as Europe had. But unlike the Europeans, the Japanese put Southeast Asians in leadership roles, which gave them valuable experience.

After the war ended, Southeast Asian leaders sought independence. Several Southeast Asian nations gained their freedom peacefully. Indonesia had to fight from 1945 to 1949 to gain independence from the Dutch.

Indochina, a French colony made up of Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam, suffered decades of turmoil. The Vietnamese defeated the French in 1954, winning independence for Cambodia, Laos, North Vietnam, and South Vietnam. The United States became involved in South Vietnam to prevent its takeover by Communist North Vietnam. The resulting conflict was the Vietnam War (1957–1975). In 1973, the United States withdrew. In 1975, South Vietnam surrendered, and Vietnam became one country, ruled by Communists. Also in that year, Communists took over both Cambodia and Laos.

An Uneven Economy

Agriculture is the main source of livelihood in Southeast Asia. Several nations began to industrialize in the 1960s, but industry is unevenly distributed across the region.

Traditional Economies The people of Cambodia, Myanmar, Laos, and Vietnam depend mostly on agriculture for income. Rice is the chief food crop in those countries, as it is in almost every Southeast Asian nation. Myanmar is heavily forested and produces much of the world’s teak, a yellowish-brown wood valued for its durability.

The lack of industry has many causes. The Vietnam War destroyed factories and roads. Thousands of refugees fled Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia after the war, reducing the work force. Political turmoil, especially in Cambodia and Myanmar, has continued to block growth.

But some economic growth has occurred. For example, Vietnam has built industry and sought foreign investment and trade.

Industry and Finance In general, Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand have more highly developed economies than others in the region. Those countries have long been members of ASEAN, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, an alliance that promotes economic growth and peace in the region. (The other four Southeast Asian countries did not join ASEAN until 1995 or later.)

Although these countries didn’t begin to industrialize extensively until the 1960s, manufacturing has grown quickly. The processing of agricultural products is the chief industry. Other industries include the production of textiles, clothing, and electronic products. Service industries are also important. For example, Singapore is a center of finance.

Connect to the Issues

Industrialization

Developing nations often seek foreign investors who can provide money to build industry. Most investors favor countries that show economic progress and have few political problems. This graph shows the amount of foreign investment in five Southeast Asian countries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

Connect to the Issues: Industrialization

What further effects do you think industrialization will have on Southeast Asia?
Energy sources and mining are significant. Brunei receives most of its wealth from petroleum and natural gas reserves. Since the 1980s, the country has restricted production in order to extend the life of its oil fields. Southeast Asia’s mineral resources include tin, which is found mostly in Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand.

### A Rich Mosaic of Culture

Although Southeast Asia has absorbed many influences from other regions, it has used them to create a culture that is distinctly its own.

**RELIGIOUS DIVERSITY** Southeast Asia has much religious diversity. Buddhism is widespread in the region, while the Philippines is mostly Catholic (as a result of Spanish rule), and Indonesia and Brunei are mostly Muslim. In addition, some Southeast Asians practice Hinduism, and others follow traditional local beliefs.

**RICH ARTISTIC LEGACY** Buddhism and Hinduism have influenced the region’s sculpture and architecture. Perhaps the most famous example is the ancient temple complex of Angkor Wat in what is now Cambodia. (See page 705.) Thailand’s Buddhist temples are modern examples of religious architecture.

Southeast Asia is also famous for its performing arts and literature. For example, Thailand and Indonesia have traditional forms of dance, in which richly costumed dancers act out stories. In Vietnam, poetry is highly respected. Nearly all Vietnamese know at least part of the 3,253-line poem “Kim van Kieu,” which is about love and sacrifice.

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**Growing up in...Thailand**

About 95 percent of the people who live in Thailand are Buddhists and follow an ancient tradition of Buddhism that stresses the importance of being a monk. This has led to a unique custom. During their late teens or early twenties, many Thai men become monks for a short time.

The new monks go to live in a monastery where they meditate and study Buddhist teachings. They also shave their heads, wear saffron (orange-yellow) robes, and give up their worldly possessions. Some Thai men remain monks their whole lives, but most leave the monastery after a short period, usually a few weeks or months. After his time as a monk, a young man is considered ready for adult life.

If you grew up in Thailand, you would pass the following milestones:

- At your birth, your parents might ask a Buddhist monk to help them choose your name.
- You would have to attend school for 6 years, between ages 7 and 14. Although higher education is available, very few people can afford it.
- You could vote at age 18.
- If you were a man 18 years of age, you might be drafted to serve in the army.

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Using the Atlas

Use the map on page 683 to learn about the major religions in Southeast Asia. What do you notice about the places where Catholicism and Islam are practiced?
Changing Lifestyles

Most Southeast Asians live in rural villages and follow traditional ways. However, a growing number of people are moving to cities and leading more modern lives—a trend taking place all around the world.

THE VILLAGES In many Southeast Asian villages, people live in wood houses built on stilts for protection against floods. Roofs are usually made of thatch, although wealthy families may have a tin roof. In Laos, Myanmar, and Thailand, most villages have a Buddhist temple that serves as the center of social life. In Indonesia, most villages have a group of leaders who govern by a system that stresses cooperation.

Some Southeast Asian villagers still wear traditional clothing, such as the longyi—a long, tightly wrapped skirt—of Myanmar. Yet modern conveniences are slowly beginning to change village life. For instance, listening to the radio is common in Indonesia and Thailand.

THE CITIES Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, and Singapore are examples of bustling cities with towering skyscrapers and modern business districts. In Southeast Asian cities, most people live in apartments. But there is a shortage of housing for the large numbers of people migrating to cities for jobs. Many of them live in makeshift shacks in slums. The dangers of doing that were shown by a disaster in Manila, Philippines. Hundreds of people had built shanties at a city dump. In July 2000, after a typhoon weakened a tower of garbage, it crashed onto those shacks and burst into flames. More than 100 people died.

Another region facing the changes caused by rural-to-urban migration is Oceania. You will read about that region in Section 2.
Krakatoa

Imagine an explosion so destructive that it sends volcanic ash 50 miles into the air and so loud that people hear it about 3,000 miles away. In 1883, the Indonesian volcano Krakatoa (also spelled Krakatau) erupted in an explosion that created those effects. But the blast was only the beginning of the disaster. The eruption caused the volcano to collapse into the sea and triggered a series of deadly tsunamis, or giant waves. The greatest of those towered 120 feet high. The tsunami swept the coasts of Java and Sumatra, killing more than 36,000 people.
Dust in the Wind
• Krakatoa threw so much ash and dust into the air that temperatures dropped by about 0.9°F around the world.
• The dust filtered light and caused spectacular sunsets around the world for about a year.
• The dust in the atmosphere also made the moon look shades of green and blue.

Five Significant Volcanoes Since 1800

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Casualties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1815</td>
<td>Tambora, Indonesia</td>
<td>92,000 dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1883</td>
<td>Krakatoa, Indonesia</td>
<td>36,000 dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>Mount Pelee, Martinique</td>
<td>30,000 dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Nevado del Ruiz, Colombia</td>
<td>25,000 dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Eyjafjallajökull, Iceland</td>
<td>No deaths, air travel disrupted across northern and western Europe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the Sunda Strait, in 1927, lava began to flow through a crack in the sea floor beneath the site of the old island. By 1928, a new island was born and named Anak Krakatoa, which means “child of Krakatoa.” The island is still volcanically active, but it is not considered dangerous.

All three cones disappeared, leaving only a small island. Massive amounts of sea water were displaced. The disturbance of the ocean created giant tsunamis. The tsunamis destroyed about 163 villages.
A HUMAN PERSPECTIVE  Noah Idechong has fought to protect the sea life of Palau, an archipelago east of the Philippines. Palauans have always earned their living by fishing, but in the 1980s, many species of fish were in danger of extinction because they were such popular menu items in Asian restaurants. Idechong began to study the problem in 1988.

His efforts paid off. In 1994, the year Palau became independent, it banned the export of certain species, and fish populations grew again. However, in 2000, the government planned building projects that would help the economy but strain the environment. Idechong kept working to save wildlife. He said, “Palau right now needs . . . people who can say what they want Palau to look like 50 years from now.” In other words, Palauans need to decide what to preserve in the face of change.

A History of the Islands

Like Palau, all the nations of Oceania except Nauru are island groups. They are Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Federated States of Micronesia, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu, and Vanuatu. (Some geographers consider Australia and New Zealand part of Oceania, but those nations are covered in Section 3.)

FIRST ISLANDERS  Prehistoric people journeyed from mainland Southeast Asia to nearby Pacific islands using small rafts or canoes and land bridges that have since disappeared. In time, they developed large...
voyaging canoes (see page 699) that enabled them to sail longer distances. For thousands of years, their descendants continued to migrate as far east as Hawaii, as far south as New Zealand, and as far west as Madagascar.

For centuries, the people of Oceania had little contact with the rest of the world, so they developed their own ways of life. Geographers divide Oceania into three regions, defined both by physical geography and culture. The regions are Micronesia, meaning “tiny islands,” Melanesia, meaning “black islands,” and Polynesia, meaning “many islands.”

CONTACT WITH THE WEST  Beginning in the 1500s, many Europeans explored the Pacific. Perhaps the most famous was the British captain James Cook, the first European to visit many of the islands.

In the 1800s, European missionaries arrived and tried to convert the islanders to Christianity. Traders came for products such as coconut oil, and sailors hunted whales. Settlers started plantations on which they could grow coconuts, coffee, pineapples, or sugar.

As a result, island societies began to decline. Many islanders died of diseases brought by the Europeans. Western ways often replaced traditional customs. And Europe and the United States took control of the islands and turned them into territories and possessions.

RECENT HISTORY  Oceania experienced turmoil in the 20th century. During World War II, the Allies and the Japanese fought fierce battles there to gain control of the Pacific. Afterward, some islands were used as nuclear test sites, not only by the United States (see Chapter 30) but...
also by other countries. Gradually, inhabitants of many of the islands moved toward self-rule. Since 1962, 12 different nations have gained independence. Foreigners still rule the other islands.

A Traditional Economy

Most of Oceania has an economy in which people work not for wages but at subsistence activities. These are activities in which a family produces only the food, clothing, and shelter they themselves need. The tiny island of Nauru is an exception. It has a prosperous economy based on the mining of phosphates, used in fertilizer. But Nauru’s phosphate deposits are expected to give out early in the 21st century.

AGRICULTURE As Chapter 30 explained, most low islands do not have plentiful or fertile soil. In spite of this, agriculture is the region’s main economic activity because many high islands do have soil that supports agriculture. The chief crops are bananas, sugar, cocoa, coffee, and copra, which is the dried meat of coconuts. Fishing also provides a significant source of income.

OTHER ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES Since the invention of jet travel, tourism has become very important to the economy of Oceania. This has been a mixed blessing. Although tourists spend money in the islands, they also require hotels, stores, roads, and vehicles. These threaten the islands’ environment and traditional ways of life.

A few islands besides Nauru have mining industries. For example, Papua New Guinea is developing a large copper mine with the help of foreign investment. Some industry also exists. Some of the larger towns have factories that produce goods such as coconut oil and soap. As in Southeast Asia, an increasing number of people in the Pacific Islands are moving to cities to find jobs.

Culture of the Islands

Oceania has a culture that blends traditional ways with the cultures of Europe and the United States.

LANGUAGE AND RELIGION Oceania is one of the most linguistically diverse regions in the world. Some 1,100 of the world’s languages are spoken there. The people of Papua New Guinea alone speak 823 languages. In addition, many Pacific Islanders speak European languages. English is the most common.

Because of missionaries’ work and colonialism, Christianity is the most widely spread religion. Even so, some Pacific Islanders still practice their traditional religions.
THE ARTS Many Pacific Islanders produce arts and crafts, such as baskets and mats woven from the leaves of palm trees or carved wooden masks. Some islanders make a living selling such items to tourists.

Island Life

As in Southeast Asia, two distinct ways of life exist on the islands: traditional village life and more modern city life.

TRADITIONAL LIFE Ways of life varied throughout the islands. In Polynesia, most people lived in villages, ranging from small clusters of houses to large walled settlements. The houses were usually wooden with thatched roofs. Generally, a chief led each village. The villages’ economies centered on fishing and farming. One major crop was **taro**, a plant with a starchy root. Taro can be eaten boiled, or it can be made into breads, puddings, or a paste called poi.

Many Polynesian societies were warlike and had frequent conflicts. In contrast, Micronesians tended to exist peacefully with their neighbors. Most Micronesians lived in extended family groups. As in Polynesia, they made a living by fishing and farming, with taro being a main crop.

In Melanesia, villages usually existed by the coast where people could fish. Inland, many people practiced shifting cultivation, moving often to let fields regain fertility. Other Melanesians were hunter-gatherers.

RECENT CHANGE Oceania has few cities, but they have been growing as many people move to them for education or jobs. Rapid urban growth has led to sprawling shantytowns and inadequate sanitation facilities. In addition, city dwellers are giving up their traditional ways of life.

But change is also helping Oceania. Modern communications systems can unify countries consisting of scattered island groups and also can link Oceania to the rest of the world. Section 3 will describe the two most westernized nations in the region: Australia and New Zealand.
In India, the traditional garment of women for centuries has been the sari—five to seven yards of unstitched cloth wrapped around the body. The most valuable saris are made of silk, but saris of cotton and synthetic fabrics are also common.

In Fiji, traditional outfits are made from tapa cloth, a nonwoven fabric made from the inner bark of trees. This woman is wearing a skirt of tapa cloth. Fijians often decorate the cloth with geometric designs painted in brown, black, or reddish bark dyes.
These Indians of Peru wear traditional wool clothing woven from llama hair; llamas are native to South America. Each village has its own set of traditional patterns that are woven into its cloth. Some of the designs indicate local landscapes; others depict animals or historical events.

Although colorful silk kimonos symbolize Japan, neither the fabric nor the robe itself originated there. Silk was first developed in China, and kimonos are patterned after a wide-sleeved Chinese robe, the p’ao.

GeoData

Tapa Cloth
- Tapa cloth is also made in other Melanesian islands, New Guinea, and northern Australia.
- The most popular material for tapa is the inner bark of the mulberry.

Silk
- The Chinese began to produce silk in about 2700 B.C. and kept their methods a secret until about 140 B.C.
- The wide silk or satin sash worn with a kimono is called an obi. It is about 12 feet long.

Cotton
- South Asia was one of the first regions of the world where cotton was cultivated—starting in about 3000 B.C.
- Indian men also wear a type of wrapped garment called a dhoti. Mohandas Gandhi wore a dhoti to show his allegiance to the common Indian man.

Wool
- Wool is the fiber forming the coats of such hairy mammals as sheep, goats, camels, and llamas.
- Intricate textiles have been produced in Peru since about 1000 B.C.
Australia, New Zealand, and Antarctica

Main Ideas
• Both Australia and New Zealand were colonized by Europeans and still have a strong European heritage.
• Because of its harsh climate, Antarctica has no permanent settlements.

Places & Terms
penal colony
Aboriginal people
Maori
Treaty of Waitangi
pakeha

Connect to the Issues
LAND CLAIMS The Aboriginal people of Australia are trying to reclaim ancestral lands.

A HUMAN PERSPECTIVE In 1788, Great Britain founded Sydney, Australia, as a penal colony—that is, a place to send prisoners. By the end of the 20th century, Sydney had overcome its origins and earned a reputation as a fun and fascinating international city. That has been due, in part, to a unique combination of physical and cultural geographic assets.

Sydney is located on a deep, beautiful harbor that not only allows the city to function as a port but also provides an arena for sailing and swimming. The mild climate there encourages such outdoor activities. In addition, Sydney has an increasingly diverse population. People who visit the city can view art and dine on food from many cultures.

In 2000, Sydney hosted the Olympic Games. With a physical environment that favors sports and a culture shaped by immigrants, the city seemed a perfect site for an international athletic event.

History: Distant European Outposts
Australia, New Zealand, and Antarctica made up the last region to be explored by Europeans. Australia and New Zealand became British colonies, even though they were already inhabited by people with ancient cultures of their own.

THE ORIGINAL INHABITANTS The Aboriginal people migrated to Australia from Asia at least 40,000 years ago. When Europeans arrived in Australia, there were an estimated 500 Aboriginal groups, speaking perhaps 200 different languages. The Aboriginal people had complex

Australia and New Zealand, Prehistory to 2000

1788 Great Britain starts a penal colony in Australia.

1769–1770 Captain James Cook (right) explores New Zealand and Australia.

1800

1851 Gold is discovered in New South Wales, Australia.

40,000 B.C. Australia is gradually settled by Aboriginal people. Their art includes rock paintings like this one in Kakadu National Park.
religious beliefs and social structures but a simple economy; they lived by hunting and gathering.

New Zealand was settled first by the Maori, who had migrated there from Polynesia more than 1,000 years ago. The Maori lived by fishing, hunting, and farming.

**EARLY EXPLORERS** During the 1600s and 1700s, several European explorers sailed in the coastal waters of New Zealand and Australia. Captain James Cook of Britain was the first to explore those two lands—New Zealand in 1769 and Australia’s east coast in 1770. Antarctica was first discovered in 1820.

**EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT** In 1788 Britain began to colonize Australia (called New South Wales until 1820) as a place to send prisoners. Having a colony in Australia also gave Britain more Pacific naval bases. New Zealand was colonized by hunters and whalers from Europe, America, and Australia. No permanent settlements were established in Antarctica because of its cold climate.

In Australia, the British colonists had violent conflicts with the Aboriginal people, many of whom were killed. Even greater numbers of native people died from diseases brought by Europeans.

In New Zealand in 1840, the British and several Maori tribes signed the **Treaty of Waitangi**, giving Britain control over New Zealand. But the English and the Maori translations of the treaty differed. The English version gave Great Britain complete control; the Maori version gave Britain “governorship.” Disagreement over who owned the land helped cause the Land Wars that lasted from 1845 to 1847 and from 1860 to 1872. In addition, tens of thousands of Maoris died from diseases.

Gold was discovered in Australia in 1851 and in New Zealand in 1861. Hundreds of thousands of people who dreamed of wealth flocked to the two countries, but few miners grew rich. Most, however, stayed there.
Modern Nations

Originally, several colonies existed in Australia, but in 1901, they joined into a single, independent nation. New Zealand became self-governing in 1907. Both Australia and New Zealand remained in the British Commonwealth, which is a free association of Great Britain and several of its former colonies.

RIGHTS AND LAND CLAIMS New Zealanders have a long tradition of concern for equal rights and the welfare of its citizens. In 1893, New Zealand became the first country to grant women the vote. It was also one of the first nations to provide pensions for its senior citizens.

In both Australia and New Zealand, native people generally have less education and higher rates of poverty than other citizens. Attempting to improve their lives, the Aboriginal people and the Maori have made claims for the return of their former lands. (See Chapter 32.)

ISSUES A recent issue in Australia was a movement to withdraw from the Commonwealth. In 1999, Australia held a referendum on becoming an independent republic, but voters defeated the proposal, because Australians could not agree on how to choose a head of state.

Antarctica remains unsettled. In 1959, 12 countries drafted a treaty preserving the continent for research. By 2000, 18 countries had scientific research stations there. Seven countries have claimed territory in Antarctica, but many other countries do not recognize those claims.
Economy: Meat, Wool, and Butter

As Commonwealth members, Australia and New Zealand prospered by exporting food products and wool to the United Kingdom. So neither country developed much industry. But, since 1950, their exports to the United Kingdom have declined. To continue to prosper, Australia and New Zealand must either develop industry or find other trading partners, such as the nations of nearby Asia.

**AGRICULTURE** Australia and New Zealand are major exporters of farm products. New Zealand earns much of its income by selling butter, cheese, meat, and wool to other countries. Ranching is so widespread in New Zealand that in 1998 the number of farm animals (including 47.6 million sheep and 8.8 million cattle) was 15 times greater than the number of people! Crops include vegetables and fruits. For example, New Zealand is the world’s largest producer of kiwi fruit.

Sheep ranching is also important in Australia, which is the largest exporter of wool in the world. Because so much of Australia is arid, less than ten percent of the land is used to grow crops.

**MINING** Australia earns a large part of its income from mining. It is the world’s top producer of diamonds, lead, zinc, and opals. In addition, it is a major producer of bauxite, coal, copper, gold, and iron ore.

The mining industry faces one difficulty. Many deposits lie in the outback, far from cities. As a result, it is expensive to build the roads and buildings necessary for the mines to operate. Because of the high costs of mining and because Australia has historically lacked capital (money or property invested in business), Australian companies have had to rely on foreign investment. Foreign investors control about half the mining industry, so not all the profits stay within Australia.

**MANUFACTURING AND SERVICE** Unlike most developed countries, Australia does not rely heavily on manufacturing. One of the major industries in both Australia and New Zealand is the processing of food products. Because of its forests, New Zealand also produces wood and paper products.

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**Geographic Thinking**

**Seeing Patterns**

What are the pros and cons of foreign investment in industry?

**PLACE** Sheep ranches dot the New Zealand landscape—here by Mount Egmont.

Why are more ranches than farms found in mountainous areas?
As in all developed countries, service industries have been growing. For example, nearly 65 percent of Australia’s jobs are in service industries such as government, communications, and tourism.

**THE ECONOMIC FUTURE** Both Australia and New Zealand want to develop a more diversified economy that is not so dependent on agriculture. But it will be difficult to develop manufacturing plants that can compete with those in nearby Asia, where the cost of labor is generally lower. Finding a way to maintain prosperity in the face of global economic change is a major issue for these two nations.

**Distinctive Cultures**

The British colonial past has shaped the cultures of Australia and New Zealand, but they also have developed in distinctive ways.

**AUSTRALIA’S CULTURE** Most Australians are of British descent, but that proportion is changing because of high rates of immigration from places like Greece, Italy, and Southeast Asia. More than 20 percent of Australians are foreign born. Only about one percent are of Aboriginal descent.

Like the British, Australians drive on the left side of the road, and many enjoy drinking tea. Christianity is the major religion. Australians speak English but also have many colorful terms that are all their own. For example, they call ranches “stations” and wild horses “brumbies.”

Australia’s environment and history have influenced the arts, too. The Aboriginal people have an ancient tradition of painting human and animal figures. Some of those works can be seen on rock walls around the country. Many Australian painters of European descent have portrayed the landscape. For example, Russell Drysdale is known for his pictures of the outback. Several Australian novelists have written adventure stories about life in the bush country.

**NEW ZEALAND’S CULTURE** The majority of New Zealanders are of European, mostly British, descent. They are called pakehas, a Maori term for white people. The Maori of New Zealand fared somewhat better than the Aboriginal people of Australia; about 8 percent of New Zealand’s people are descended from the Maori.

New Zealand’s culture blends British and Maori ways. For example, both English and Maori are official languages. Christianity is the main religion, but some churches combine biblical and Maori teachings.

Both cultures have shaped New Zealand’s art. Maori art, including intricate woodcarvings and poetic legends, still survives. Western art also thrives. Well-known New Zealand authors have included the novelist Janet Frame and the mystery writer Ngaio Marsh. New Zealand filmmakers Jane Campion and Peter Jackson have made movies that were popular in many countries. And the opera singer Kiri Te Kanawa is admired internationally.
Modern Life

Australians and New Zealanders have similar lifestyles. For example, about 70 percent of Australians and 70 percent of New Zealanders own their own homes—usually single-family homes with enough land to grow a small garden.

CITY AND COUNTRY Australia and New Zealand are two of the most urbanized countries in the world; 89 percent of Australians and 87 percent of New Zealanders live in urban areas. Australia’s big cities have the usual problems of pollution and traffic jams. In contrast, New Zealand’s cities are relatively quiet, uncrowded, and pollution-free because of its small population and lack of industry.

In both Australia and New Zealand, many ranchers live far away from settlements. New Zealand has a good system of roads, even in rural areas, which aids travel. In Australia, many wealthy ranchers own private airplanes to help them cross the vast distances in the country. Some of the largest ranches in Australia can have a total land area of thousands of square miles.

RECREATION Both countries have climates that allow people to spend a great deal of time outdoors. As a result, aquatic sports, tennis, and team sports, such as rugby, cricket, and soccer, are very popular. Australia has developed its own form of football, called Australian rules football. Because New Zealand is mountainous, skiing and mountain climbing are common there.

In Chapter 32, you will read about Aboriginal land claims in Australia, industrialization in Southeast Asia, and global environmental change.
A. Briefly explain the importance of each of the following.

1. Indochina
2. Vietnam War
3. ASEAN
4. Micronesia
5. Melanesia
6. Polynesia
7. subsistence activities
8. penal colony
9. Aboriginal people
10. Maori

B. Answer the questions about vocabulary in complete sentences.

11. Which of the above terms was a French colony in Southeast Asia?
12. What are the goals of ASEAN?
13. During the Vietnam War, the United States tried to protect South Vietnam from takeover by what group?
14. What are the three cultural regions of Oceania?
15. Which European nation used Australia as a penal colony?
16. Which of the above terms is the region from which the Maori migrated?
17. What is the name of the place to which the Maori migrated?
18. Which of the above terms name regions where you are likely to find subsistence activities?
19. What are some of the subsistence activities found there?
20. How long have Aboriginal people been living in Australia?

Main Ideas

Southeast Asia (pp. 705-711)

1. What were the distinctive characteristics of the states known as *mandalas*?
2. What effect did colonialism have on Southeast Asia?
3. What are some of the major changes that Southeast Asia has undergone since 1960?
4. What are some of the arts for which Southeast Asia is known?

Oceania (pp. 712-717)

5. How far east, south, and west did Pacific Islanders migrate?
6. What caused many island societies to decline starting in the 1800s?
7. What are the major economic activities in Oceania?

Australia, New Zealand, and Antarctica (pp. 718-723)

8. What prevents Australia from benefiting completely from its mining industry?
9. What historic actions demonstrated New Zealanders’ concern for equal rights and social welfare?
10. What is the major activity conducted in Antarctica?
### Critical Thinking

1. **Using Your Notes**
   Use your completed chart to answer these questions.

   ![Map of Australia](image.png)

   a. How does agriculture differ in the three subregions?
   b. When and how did various nations of the region gain independence from European control?

2. **Geographic Themes**
   a. **HUMAN-ENVIRONMENT INTERACTION** In what ways has the Pacific Ocean helped to shape the various cultures in this region?
   b. **MOVEMENT** What role did migration play in the settling of this region?

### Geographic Skills: Interpreting Maps

**Population Distribution of Australia**

Use the map at the right to answer the following questions.

1. **REGION** How would you describe the population distribution of Australia?
2. **PLACE** Identify the two most heavily populated cities of Australia. What do you notice about their surrounding regions?
3. **PLACE** Judging from this map, would you characterize Australia as a heavily populated or lightly populated country? Explain.

### GeoActivity

Copy this map on your own paper. Use the map on page 683 to make a climate map of Australia. Display the maps side by side with a caption explaining the link between climate and population distribution.

### Writing About Geography

Write a report comparing the two countries. Include maps, charts, and graphs to help present the information. List the Web sites that were your sources.
Essential Question

What are the relationships between the people and the land in the region?

What You Will Learn

In this chapter you will see how modern life is putting stress on the region’s ancient cultures and how industrialization is affecting the environment there.

SECTION 1
Aboriginal Land Claims

SECTION 2
Industrialization Sparks Change

CASE STUDY
Global Environmental Change

For more on these issues in Southeast Asia, Oceania, and Antarctica . . .

Gordon and Alick Pablo, elders of the Wuthathi Aboriginal people, bring a 200-year-old skull of an ancestor to be buried in their homeland.
A HUMAN PERSPECTIVE In 1972, the Australian government denied the claims of some Aboriginal people trying to regain ancestral lands. In response, Aboriginal protesters erected a tent on the lawn of Old Parliament House in Canberra and named it the Aboriginal Tent Embassy. They called it an embassy to symbolize their treatment as foreigners in their own country. They chose a temporary shelter instead of a building to symbolize that they had no permanent title to land.

Over the years, the Australian government tried to get rid of the tent embassy by force, by legal action, and by ignoring it in the hope that it would disappear. But in the year 2000, the embassy still stood. Protesters also set up a second tent embassy in Sydney during the Olympics to inform the world of their ongoing struggle to regain land.

Aboriginal People Lose Land
Traditionally, the Aboriginal people had a complex relationship with land. They didn’t farm or herd animals but lived by hunting and gathering whatever was available for food. Because of this, they depended completely on nature and saw many places as sacred.

BRITISH POLICY Because Aboriginal people did not use the land in the way that Westerners did—by farming it, mining it, and building on it—British colonists believed that they had no ties to the land. British authorities declared Australia to be Terra Nullius, a Latin term that means empty land. Therefore, the British government decided it had the right to take land without making treaties with Aboriginal leaders.

STOLEN LAND When Europeans began to settle Australia in 1788, they chose the most fertile regions. Aboriginal people tried to fight what
they saw as an invasion of their land, but they were defeated because the Europeans had superior weapons. Some Aboriginal people were forced to live on reserves, that is, tracts of less productive land set aside for them. Others lived on the edges of settlements and adopted some European ways, such as working on ranches.

**STOLEN CHILDREN** The Aboriginal people lost something even more precious than land. Between 1909 and 1969, the Australian government took about 100,000 mixed-race children and gave them to white families to promote assimilation. **Assimilation** occurs when a minority group gives up its culture and adopts the majority group’s culture. Today, Aboriginal people call those children the **Stolen Generation** and feel great anger over their loss. Many Aboriginal people are fighting assimilation by passing their culture on to their children. And one reason they are seeking to regain land is to preserve their way of life.

**Land Claims**

In recent decades, the Aboriginal people have made some progress in winning their rights and regaining ownership of some of their land.

**HARD-WON VICTORIES** The Aboriginal people were not recognized as full citizens of Australia until 1967. In that year, 91 percent of the Australian people voted to allow the federal government to pass special laws about Aboriginal rights.

The **Land Rights Act of 1976** gave Aboriginal people the right to claim land in the Northern Territory. As a result, Aboriginal people gained ownership of the reserves where they were living and some unoccupied land that the government had owned.

**THE MABO CASE** In 1992, the High Court of Australia handed down a decision that had a tremendous effect on land claims. The case involved Eddie Mabo, a Torres Strait Islander. Mabo had been shocked to learn that under Australian law, his family did not own their traditional lands in the Murray Islands. But because the Mabos had worked the land for generations, the High Court upheld Eddie Mabo’s claim. By reaching that decision in the **Mabo Case**, the Court recognized that Aboriginal people had owned land before the British arrived. So the Mabo case overturned the doctrine of **Terra Nullius**, by which Britain originally took the land.

**SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps**

1. **LOCATION** Some claims have been made by Torres Strait Islanders. Where is the Torres Strait?
2. **REGION** If the Aboriginal people were to receive all their land claims, roughly what percentage of Australia would they own?
THE WIK CASE  In 1996, the High Court decided another important case. The Wik people, an Aboriginal group, claimed land that some ranchers and mining companies were using. The case involved two issues that are unique to landholding in Australia.

- The government still owns huge chunks of Australia. Ranchers take out pastoral leases, in effect renting the land from the government.
- In earlier cases, Aboriginal people had to prove their traditional relationship to a piece of land in order to claim it.

Aboriginal people could not use land that was taken up by farming or ranching, so it was hard to prove they had a tie to such land. And before 1996, white Australians assumed that pastoral leases wiped out any native land claims. But in the Wik Case, the court ruled that Aboriginal people could claim land held under a pastoral lease.

As a result, many white Australians feared having to pay Aboriginal people for land use or even losing access to some land altogether. So the national government amended the Wik decision to wipe out many Aboriginal land claims. In response, Aboriginal groups threatened lawsuits. No one knows how the issue will be resolved. In Section 2, you will read about industrialization, another issue related to land use.

**Background**
About 42 percent of Australia is subject to pastoral leases.
A HUMAN PERSPECTIVE Some of the largest employers in Southeast Asia are makers of athletic shoes. They provide much-needed jobs for Southeast Asians, but many observers have accused the companies of abusing workers. For example, in 1995, Lap Nguyen began working at a shoe factory in Vietnam. In February 1996, she was promoted to team leader. A month later, she claimed that a manager who was upset about production hit her. Nguyen told a U.S. reporter about the incident.

In 1998, Nguyen talked to the press again, this time about low wages. Her managers were upset about the interview, and she eventually lost her job. The company said that she was a bad worker, but labor groups believe Nguyen lost her job for talking to reporters. As her story shows, growing industries create jobs but sometimes under harsh conditions.

Moving to Find Jobs

For many people struggling to escape poverty, any job—even one with long hours, low pay, and abusive managers—is better than none. For example, Deth Chrib of Cambodia works in a garment factory 16 hours a day, 7 days a week. She is glad she can support her family without resorting to illegal activities. Although her day is long, Deth Chrib says the job is “pretty easy, compared to working on a farm.” Across Southeast Asia, people are moving from farms to cities to find work.

Because of this, industrialization, or the growth of industry, and the growth of cities are closely linked. It is impossible to study industrialization without studying urban growth. People move to cities because of push factors. Push factors are forces that push people out of their homelands, while pull factors pull them to a new place.

PUSH FACTORS Many forces drive rural people off their land. Push factors in Southeast Asia include the following:

• Lost Resources Rural areas are suffering soil erosion, deforestation, and water overuse. For example, Thailand has a water shortage in farming areas because of overpumping. Scarce resources make it hard to earn a living.

Main Ideas

• The growth of industry in Southeast Asia has produced positive results such as new jobs and higher wages.
• The growth of industry also produced negative results such as overcrowded cities and pollution.

Places & Terms

industrialization
push-pull factors
• **Scarcity of Land** In the Philippines, for example, 3 percent of the country’s landowners hold 25 percent of the land. Sixty percent of rural families don’t have enough land to earn a living by farming.

• **Population Growth** As populations grow, land shortages become worse. Farmers who do own land often divide it among many heirs. As a result, the plots become too small to support a family.

**PULL FACTORS** Equally powerful forces attract people to cities. In Southeast Asia, pull factors include the following:

• **Industry** The opportunity to find a factory job is the biggest pull factor. Many people move to the city temporarily to earn money to send to relatives in rural areas. In 1993, workers in the Philippines sent $2.2 billion home, while Thai workers sent $983 million home.

• **Other Benefits** People move to cities seeking other benefits besides jobs, such as education and government services. However, the desire for education is usually related to a desire for jobs.

**IMPACT ON CITIES** As is true of cities all over the world, the cities of Southeast Asia are having difficulty dealing with such large numbers of immigrants. The availability of housing has not kept pace with the growing city population. As a result, many new arrivals live in slums.

A larger population generates more pollution. Traffic has increased because greater numbers of workers drive to jobs and greater numbers of trucks transport goods. This causes more air pollution; high levels of particulates are the most serious concern. In Bangkok, Thailand, an estimated 5,000 people a year die from breathing polluted air.

Another problem is the disposal of human waste. Most Southeast Asian cities do not have facilities to treat all their sewage. Untreated sewage, in turn, contaminates water supplies.

**Other Results of Industrialization**

The growth of industry in Southeast Asia has done more than create rapidly growing cities. It has also affected the economy and the environment.
ECONOMIC EFFECTS Several Southeast Asian countries have had rapid industrial growth since the 1960s. (See Chapter 31.) One result of this has been an increase in trade and exports.

As industry has grown, the region has seen higher incomes for some citizens. In many Southeast Asian countries, the middle class is expanding. But the income gap between rich and poor remains high. This has the potential to cause social unrest because crime rates often rise in societies in which a few people have wealth while high numbers of people live in poverty. You learned about income gaps in Unit 3.

ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS Population growth is not the only cause of increased air and water pollution. Industry can also damage the environment. Factories can pollute the air by burning fossil fuels, and the water and soil by carelessly disposing of toxic materials.

The nature of industry in Southeast Asia makes it hard to control such pollution. A single city may contain thousands of factories and shops. Many of these industries are very small, but together they create a great deal of waste. For example, 30,000 factories in Jakarta, Indonesia, discharge pollutants into the waterways.

Industry has also harmed the environment by using up valuable resources such as water and trees. For instance, textile companies in Bandung, Indonesia, have built illegal wells that deplete water supplies. As a result, some neighborhoods in that city have no water.

In the future, Southeast Asia must reduce the negative effects of industrialization while promoting the positive effects. Cities need to find ways to provide housing and services for all residents. Southeast Asian nations must continue to grow economically, so their citizens will have increased opportunities. The region as a whole must preserve its environment, or industries may abandon the region once its resources are gone. In the Case Study that follows, you will read about environmental changes such as global warming and the hole in the ozone layer.

Making Comparisons Would it be harder to monitor the pollution created by a few large factories or many small factories? Why?

Places & Terms Identify these terms and explain their relationship to recent events in Southeast Asia.

• industrialization
• push-pull factors

Main Ideas a. What are good and bad aspects of factory work?

b. What are the environmental effects of industrialization?

c. What are the economic effects of industrialization?

Geographic Thinking Drawing Conclusions If industries in Southeast Asia continue to use up the region’s resources, how might that affect urban growth? Think about:

• the push factors that drive people out of rural areas

ASKING GEOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS Study the cartogram of industrial output on page 733. Write three geographic questions about it, such as “What geographic factors enable Thailand to have more industrial output than its neighbors?” Choose one of your questions, do research to find the answer, and write a report about what you learn.
Interpreting a Cartogram

Even though Southeast Asia has been experiencing industrial growth as a region, not all Southeast Asian nations have prospered equally. A table listing the value of industrial output for the ten countries would give this information in numerical form. A cartogram shows the information visually.

**THE LANGUAGE OF MAPS** A cartogram is a special type of map that conveys a set of data, such as population or GDP. The sizes of the nations on the map are adjusted to reflect the amounts of data each one has. The cartogram below shows the value of industrial output for the nations of Southeast Asia.

---

**Industrial Output of Southeast Asia**

**1. Analyzing Data**

According to the cartogram, how much industrial output does Thailand have?

**2. Drawing Conclusions**

Which country or countries seem to have a small industrial output compared to their actual size?

**3. Drawing Conclusions**

Which country or countries seem to have a large industrial output compared to their actual size?

---

The key of this cartogram helps you to interpret the value of industrial output in two ways. It tells you that each small square equals 2 billion U.S. dollars. It also identifies the colors that the cartogram uses to identify ranges of output.

Cartograms adjust the sizes of countries to convey relative quantities. The countries' shapes are altered because a cartogram uses squares or straight lines.

Comparing a cartogram to a conventional map can show which countries have more or less of the data under study than you would expect from looking at their size alone.
As you have read in other units, many human activities harm the environment. Among these are the burning of fossil fuels and the use of chemicals such as chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) in aerosol cans. Many scientists fear these activities are changing the environment in ways that affect the whole world.

**Damage to the Environment**

Scientists believe that the use of fossil fuels has begun to heat the climate, and the use of chemicals has damaged the ozone layer.

**GLOBAL WARMING** The burning of fossil fuels releases carbon dioxide (CO2) into the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide is one of the greenhouse gases—gases that trap the sun’s heat. Greenhouse gases serve the useful function of preventing the escape of all the sun’s energy into space. Without them, the earth would be cold and lifeless.

Most scientists fear that the atmosphere now has too many greenhouse gases. CO2 emissions have increased 50 percent since the 1970s. Scientists believe that the increase in CO2 levels causes the atmosphere to trap too much heat, so temperatures have been gradually rising.

Some people disagree with the theory of global warming and say the temperature rise is due to natural processes. Other people say that temperatures fall within a normal range.

**OZONE HOLE** Another change is damage to the ozone layer, which exists high in the atmosphere. It absorbs most of the sun’s damaging ultraviolet rays. In the 1970s, scientists discovered a thinning of the ozone layer over Antarctica, often called a hole in the ozone layer. Chemicals such as the chlorine found in CFCs react with ozone and destroy it. Many governments have restricted the use of such chemicals, but others have delayed passing such laws because they are costly for industry.

**Looking Toward the Future**

Scientists fear that many problems may result from these changes to the environment. Because of that, many people and nations around the world are trying to halt the damage before it is too late.

**LONG-TERM EFFECTS** One fear about global warming is that even small temperature increases could melt the world’s ice caps. This would cause a rise in sea levels that might swamp coastal cities and islands. For example, the low islands of Oceania might disappear.
Some people predict that global warming might change patterns of evaporation and precipitation. This could make violent storms such as typhoons and droughts more common. The location of climate zones and agricultural regions might shift, upsetting the world’s economy.

People worry about the ozone layer hole because more ultraviolet rays will reach earth. Ultraviolet rays are linked to such problems as skin cancer, eye damage, and crop damage. Because it lies close to Antarctica, New Zealand may be at higher risk than other regions.

**TAKING ACTION** In 1992, the UN held the Earth Summit, a conference to discuss ways to pursue economic development while protecting the environment. Representatives of 178 nations attended.

In 1997, the UN held a convention in Kyoto, Japan, to discuss climate change. The conference wrote the Kyoto Protocol, guidelines for developed countries to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. In time, 165 nations signed the treaty. The United States signed the treaty, but the Senate didn’t ratify it—fearing that the guidelines might harm U.S. businesses.

On the next two pages are primary sources expressing different views about environmental problems. Use them to form your own opinion.

**SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps**

1. **PLACE** Where are the greatest temperature increases expected to occur?
2. **PLACE** What places in Oceania are expected to experience the least disruption?
Primary sources A to E on these two pages present differing opinions on global environmental change. Use these sources and your own research to create a political cartoon expressing your opinion. You might use the Internet and the library for research.

**Political Cartoon**

**Suggested Steps**

1. Use the sources here and your own research to decide if you believe that global warming and the ozone hole are problems.

2. Draw a pencil sketch of a cartoon expressing your opinion about global environmental change. As you decide what to draw, consider the following questions.
   - Do you think that the theories about environmental change are wrong? If so, why are people so concerned about the issue?
   - Do you think environmental change poses a threat to the world’s climate? If so, what should be done?

3. Show the sketch to a friend to see if you have conveyed your point. Use your friend’s feedback to make your cartoon more effective.

4. Create your final cartoon. You may wish to draw it lightly in pencil and then ink over the pencil marks. Post the cartoon in class.

**Materials and Supplies**

- Samples of political cartoons
- Drawing paper
- Pencils and erasers
- Felt-tip markers
- Computer
- Internet access

**PRIMARY SOURCE A**

**Educational Pamphlet** In 1994, the United Nations Environment Programme and the World Meteorological Organization published a pamphlet called Beginners Guide to the Convention to help people understand the Kyoto Protocol and the reasons for it.

Human beings seem to be changing the global climate. The results are uncertain, but if current predictions prove correct, the climatic changes over the coming century will be larger than any since the dawn of human civilization.

The principal change to date is in the earth’s atmosphere. . . . We have changed, and are continuing to change, the balance of gases that form the atmosphere. This is especially true of such key “greenhouse gases” as carbon dioxide (CO2), methane (CH4), and nitrous oxide (N2O). (Water vapour is the most important greenhouse gas, but human activities do not affect it directly.) . . . Greenhouse gases are vital because they act like a blanket around the earth.

Without this natural blanket the earth’s surface would be some 30°C colder than it is today.

The problem is that human activity is making the blanket “thicker” . . . The most direct result, says the scientific consensus, is likely to be a “global warming” of 1.5 to 4.5°C over the next 100 years.

**PRIMARY SOURCE B**

**Political Commentary** The American Policy Center is a conservative group that wants to promote free enterprise and reduce government regulations. It opposed the Kyoto Protocol and published the article “There is No Global Warming.”

There is no global warming. Period.

You can’t find a real scientist anywhere in the world who can look you in the eye and, without hesitation, . . . say “yes, global warming is with us.”

There is no evidence whatsoever to support such claims. Anyone who tells you that scientific research shows warming trends . . . is wrong. There is no global warming.

Scientific research through U.S. Government satellite and balloon measurements shows that the temperature is actually cooling—very slightly—.037 degrees Celsius.

A little research into modern-day temperature trends bears this out. For example, in 1936 the Midwest of the United States experienced 49 consecutive days of temperatures over 90 degrees. There were another 49 consecutive days in 1955. But in 1992 there was only one day over 90 degrees and in 1997 only 5 days.

There is no global warming. Period.
Data  The National Climatic Data Center collects data on temperature and precipitation. In the graph below, the line at zero represents the average annual world temperature for the period 1880 to 2000. The bars show how much the average temperatures for individual years were higher or lower than the average. Scientists use this graph to spot climate trends.

![Annual Global Surface Mean Temperature Anomalies](image)

News Article  On October 10, 2000, the New York Times published the article “Record Ozone Hole Refuels Debate on Climate” by Andrew C. Revkin. The article appeared in the science section of the paper.

The hole that opens in the ozone layer over Antarctica each southern spring formed earlier and grew bigger this year than at any time since satellites have been monitoring the polar atmosphere, scientists have reported.

The finding renewed suspicions among atmospheric scientists that global warming could be indirectly abetting the chemical reactions that destroy ozone, but many still say the growth of the hole could also be the result of natural . . . variations in Antarctic weather and other conditions . . .

The hole is closely watched because the stratosphere’s . . . layer of ozone . . . absorbs ultraviolet rays, which could contribute to skin cancers and cataracts and threaten agriculture and ecosystems if they reached the surface.

Satellite Images  Satellites took these images of ozone over Antarctica. The color blue represents areas with an extremely low concentration of ozone, while red shows a high concentration.

Have I . . .
- researched opinions on global environmental change?
- formed my own opinion based on evidence about the issue?
- created an interesting cartoon that clearly expresses that opinion?
- created a cartoon that is neat enough to print in a newspaper?
### Reviewing Places & Terms

**A. Briefly explain the importance of each of the following.**

1. assimilation
2. Stolen Generation
3. Land Rights Act of 1976
4. Mabo Case
5. pastoral leases
6. Wik Case
7. industrialization
8. push-pull factors

**B. Answer the questions about vocabulary in complete sentences.**

9. What is the relationship between the terms assimilation and Stolen Generation?
10. Who owned the Australian lands that were held by pastoral leases?
11. Which of the above terms is a pull factor leading to urban growth?
12. To which Australian territory did the Land Rights Act of 1976 apply?
13. What was the main decision in the Mabo Case?
14. What was the main decision in the Wik Case?
15. How would you apply the term push factors to the experience of the Aboriginal people in Australia?

### Main Ideas

#### Aboriginal Land Claims (pp. 727-729)

1. What does the Aboriginal Tent Embassy symbolize?
2. When the Aboriginal people fought European settlement, what enabled the Europeans to win?
3. How did Eddie Mabo prove his family’s land ownership?
4. Why did white Australians fear the Wik decision?

#### Industrialization Sparks Change (pp. 730-733)

5. Why do many people in Southeast Asia move temporarily to cities?
6. How has industrialization affected cities?
7. What effect has industrial growth had on trade and exports?

#### Global Environmental Change (pp. 734-737)

8. What are greenhouse gases?
9. What are the arguments against the theory of global warming?
10. What health problems may increase because of the hole in the ozone layer?
Critical Thinking

1. Using Your Notes
Use your completed chart to answer these questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Land Claims</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrialization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. What caused the hole in the ozone layer?
b. In what way are some of these issues linked? Explain.

2. Geographic Themes
   a. **HUMAN-ENVIRONMENT INTERACTION** How has industrialization affected Southeast Asia’s water supplies?
   b. **MOVEMENT** What impact might global warming have upon the movement of people?

3. Identifying Themes
Consider what you have learned about Aboriginal land claims, industrialization, and global environmental change. Which of the five geographic themes relate to all three issues? Explain.

4. Determining Cause and Effect
How did the Australian government’s policy of taking mixed-race children from their families affect the desire of the Aboriginal people to reclaim lands? Explain.

5. Drawing Conclusions
Overall, do you think industrialization is a positive or negative development for Southeast Asia? Explain.

Geographic Skills: Interpreting Graphs

**Annual Industrial Production Growth Rate**
Use the graph to answer the following questions.

1. **PLACE** For which country were statistics for the year 2000 not available?
2. **PLACE** How would you describe the pattern of industrial growth in Thailand?
3. **REGION** In which year did Southeast Asia as a whole experience economic problems? How can you tell?

**GeoActivity**
Research the industrial production growth rate for another Southeast Asian country. Copy this graph on your own paper and add the information for the country you researched.

Research the industrial production growth rate for another Southeast Asian country. Copy this graph on your own paper and add the information for the country you researched.

**For Additional Test Practice**
Use the links at hmhsocialstudies.com to do research about global warming. Look for additional evidence that either supports or refutes the theory.

**Creating a Database** Compile statistics that either support or refute the theory of global warming. Present these statistics in tables, charts, or graphs.
World Geography

Reference Section

**Skitbuildr Handbook**
Skills for reading, thinking, and researching  R1

**Glossary and Spanish Glossary**
Important terms and definitions  R16
Important terms and definitions translated into Spanish  R26

**Index**
Index of all topics in textbook  R36
Contents

CRITICAL THINKING AND GEOGRAPHY SKILLS

1.1  Analyzing Data  R2
1.2  Making Comparisons  R3
1.3  Making Inferences  R4
1.4  Drawing Conclusions  R5
1.5  Making Generalizations  R6
1.6  Making Decisions  R7
1.7  Seeing Patterns  R8
1.8  Determining Cause and Effect  R9
1.9  Identifying and Solving Problems  R10
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1.11 Creating a Sketch Map  R12
1.12 Creating Graphs and Charts  R13

USING TECHNOLOGY SOURCES

2.1  Creating a Multimedia Presentation  R14
2.2  Creating and Using a Database  R15
1.1 Analyzing Data

Defining the Skill

Analyzing data means studying quantitative information—numbers, proportions, and similar statistics. Data are often presented graphically, in graphs, charts, and maps. When you analyze data, you find patterns, make generalizations and comparisons, and locate facts.

Applying the Skill

The following line graph is titled “World Population Growth.” Use the listed strategies to analyze the data presented.

How to Analyze Data

**Strategy 1** Rephrase the title given for the graphic as a question that can lead you to its main idea. For example: “How has world population growth changed over time?”

**Strategy 2** To understand how data are displayed, choose one point on the graph. Identify what piece of data is shown at that point. For example, in the line graph, the point on the line that is right above the horizontal number 1000 represents how many billions of people lived in the world in the year 1000—just under one-half billion.

**Strategy 3** Make a comparison between two points or other parts on the graph. For example, compare the rate of world population growth between 1000 and 1500 with the rate over the following 500 years. You can see that the population barely grew at all between 1000 and 1500, but increased significantly between 1500 and 2000.

**Strategy 4** Answer the question you posed in Strategy 1 in order to summarize data and note a general pattern.

Write a Summary

Summarize the most important idea in your analysis of the data shown. This summary statement might, for example, answer the question suggested by the graph title.

*The world’s population did not even reach the 1-billion mark until the 1800s, but skyrocketed after that and is on its way to 10 billion.*

Practicing the Skill

Turn to Chapter 31, Section 1, “Southeast Asia.” Find the feature on page 707 titled “Industrialization.” Analyze the data in the bar graph shown. Write a summary of your analysis.
1.2 Making Comparisons

Defining the Skill

Making comparisons means thinking about similarities and differences. Two or more concepts are grouped together because of shared features, but they are distinguished from one another by other features.

Applying the Skill

The following passage tells about economic development. Use the listed strategies to compare two categories of nations.

How to Make Comparisons

Strategy 1 Note the concepts being compared. In this passage, categories of economic development are described.

Strategy 2 Look for words that signal similarities such as both, same, similar, and like. Look for words that signal differences or contrasts such as different, in contrast, however, and on the other hand.

Strategy 3 Sum up what you have learned by telling yourself (a) what concepts are being compared; (b) why they are grouped together; and (c) what their main differences are.

LEVELS OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Countries of the world have two different levels of economic development. Developing nations have a low GDP per capita. (GDP is Gross Domestic Product, the value of goods and services produced within a country over a year or other period of time.) Developing nations also have limited development on all levels of economic activities. These countries lack an industrial base and struggle to provide for their citizens’ basic needs. Many young countries and former colonies are found in this category.

Developed nations, on the other hand, are countries with a high per capita income and varied economy. Western European nations, Canada, and the United States are highly developed economies.

Make a Chart

One way to sum up the main points of comparison is with a chart that lists features. The chart below is based on the example passage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Developing nations</th>
<th>Developed nations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of economic activities</td>
<td>limited development, lack of industrial base</td>
<td>varied economy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>young countries, former colonies</td>
<td>Western European nations, Canada, U.S.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practicing the Skill

Turn to Chapter 5, Section 3, “Human-Environment Interaction.” Read “Building Cities” on page 128. Identify the main similarities and differences described, and show them in a chart.
1.3 Making Inferences

Defining the Skill
Making inferences involves using information that is directly stated in the text in order to think of, or infer, ideas that are not directly stated. You use logic and your own experience and knowledge to make inferences.

Applying the Skill
The passage below tells about a feature of the climate of South Asia. Use the listed strategies to make inferences about monsoons.

How to Make Inferences

**Strategy 1** Find statements of fact and other stated ideas, such as opinions and generalizations.

**Strategy 2** Ask yourself questions about the stated facts and ideas. Think of likely answers that are not directly stated. For example, the passage states that dry winds blow between October and May, and moist winds blow between June and September. Ask, “What else can I understand from that information?”

**Strategy 3** Make inferences from the facts and ideas. For example, you might infer that the region has two main seasons—a long dry one and a shorter wet one.

MONSOONS

Although climate varies throughout South Asia, the region as a whole is greatly affected by monsoons, or seasonal winds. Between October and May, dry winds blow across South Asia from the northeast. Between June and September, the winds reverse and blow in from the southwest, bringing moist air from the ocean. Heavy rains fall, especially in the southern and eastern portions of South Asia.

Rainfall is crucial to life on the subcontinent. Yet the monsoons can cause severe hardship for millions of South Asians, especially those living in the lowlands of India and Bangladesh. The monsoons are also highly unpredictable. Some areas may get too little rain, while others get too much. The monsoons are an essential but difficult feature of life in South Asia.

Make a Chart
A chart can show the inferences made from stated facts and ideas. The chart below is based on the passage you just read.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stated Facts and Ideas</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Inferences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The direction of the winds shifts seasonally, from the northeast to the southwest.</td>
<td>What causes the wind patterns to change?</td>
<td>Wind patterns change as Earth changes its position relative to the sun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heavy rains follow from winds coming from the ocean.</td>
<td>How do ocean winds carry water?</td>
<td>Water evaporates from the ocean, is carried by the air, and condenses over land.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The monsoons can cause severe hardship, especially in the lowlands.</td>
<td>What problems do the monsoons cause in the lowlands?</td>
<td>Damaging floods can result from monsoon rains.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practicing the Skill
Turn to Chapter 25, Section 2, “India’s Neighbors: Pakistan and Bangladesh.” Read the subsection “New Countries, Ancient Lands,” on pages 573–574. Use the facts and ideas to infer other ideas. Show your inferences in a chart.
1.4 Drawing Conclusions

Defining the Skill

Drawing conclusions means combining factual information with your own reasoning to formulate a statement that is likely to be true. To draw conclusions, look at the facts and think about what they mean.

Applying the Skill

The following passage offers facts about two of the world’s largest lakes. Use the listed strategies to draw conclusions about the information.

How to Draw Conclusions

Strategy 1 Read carefully to identify and understand the statements of fact, the items of information that can be proved true.

Strategy 2 Think about which facts fit together and how they fit. List the facts in a diagram and use your own experiences to understand how the facts relate to each other.

Strategy 3 Come up with a statement, different from one given in the text, that draws a conclusion about the factual information.

Make a Diagram

A diagram can highlight the facts that fit together to point to a conclusion. The diagram below shows a conclusion that can be drawn from the passage above.

Practicing the Skill

Turn to Chapter 10, Section 1. Read the subsection “Native Americans and the Spanish Conquest” on page 216. Make a diagram to show selected facts and the conclusion you drew from them.
1.5 Making Generalizations

Defining the Skill

Making a generalization means making a broad statement that applies to a number of examples. Generalizations can be made from examples given in one passage, in several sources, or from graphic aids.

Applying the Skill

The following two passages present examples on the same topic. Use the listed strategies to make a generalization based on the examples.

How to Make Generalizations

Strategy 1 Note the examples given on the same topic.

Strategy 2 Use a term such as generally or usually as you decide what the examples have in common.

Strategy 3 Formulate a logical, general statement that applies to all examples.

Make a Diagram

A diagram can show how examples add up to a generalization. The diagram below is based on the passages you just read.

Example: Canadian coastal ranges block warm Pacific air from reaching Canada’s interior.

Example: Western mountains of the United States trap Pacific moisture, making the lands on the Pacific side moist and the eastern side dry.

Example: Atlantic Ocean warmth is carried over Europe because no large mountain ranges block the winds.

Generalization: Mountains generally prevent ocean air from traveling farther inland.

Practicing the Skill

Find passages about the humid continental climate of the United States and Canada (page 124), of Europe (page 279), and of East Asia (page 626). Make a diagram to show examples and a generalization.
1.6 Making Decisions

Defining the Skill
Making decisions means choosing between two or more courses of action. When you analyze the decisions people have made, you think about the needs they were trying to meet and the consequences of each choice.

Applying the Skill
The following passage describes the problem of rapid population growth facing the Chinese government. Use the listed strategies to analyze the decisions made.

How to Make Decisions

Strategy 1 Look for a statement of the difficulty. Think about the choices facing the group.
Strategy 2 Consider possible consequences of each choice.
Strategy 3 Identify the decisions that were made.
Strategy 4 Identify actual consequences.

Make a Flow Chart
The process of decision-making can be shown in a flow chart. The flow chart below summarizes the decisions described in the passage you just read.

CONTROLLING CHINA’S POPULATION
One out of every five people in the world lives in China. China’s estimated population in the year 2000 was about 1.3 billion. Because of concerns about a rapidly expanding population, China in 1979 adopted a policy of one child per family. In addition, the country has age restrictions for marriage—a man must be 22 and a woman 20 before they can marry. These policies have reduced China’s birthrate dramatically.

However, the government policy of one child per family has run into opposition. Rural families, in particular, feel the need for more than one child to help work on their farms. As a result, the government has relaxed the one-child policy.

Practicing the Skill
Turn to Chapter 23, Section 1. Read “New Industry Requires More Workers,” on pages 525–526. Make a flow chart to show the choices faced by the nations’ governments and the consequences of the decisions made.
1.7 Seeing Patterns

Defining the Skill

Seeing patterns involves seeing the overall shape, organization, or trend of geographic characteristics. It often means noting variations or contrasts, and thinking about the “rules” that describe them and could apply to similar situations. Seasonal weather cycles are one example of a pattern; economic changes are another. Graphs, maps, charts, and text passages are all sources of information that help you see patterns.

Applying the Skill

The passage below tells about the economics of oil in North Africa. Use the listed strategies to think about the pattern described.

How to See Patterns

Strategy 1 Note any directly stated main ideas about details of geographic characteristics, or changes and contrasts. (If none is directly stated, try to make your own statement of comparison, based on the details in the passage.)

Strategy 2 Notice examples that support the ideas.

Strategy 3 Use the word pattern in a question about the information. For this passage, you could ask, “What economic pattern is seen in the oil-producing nations of North Africa?” Your answer will sum up the pattern you see. (The chart below has a possible answer.)

Make a Chart

Make a chart to sum up the pattern. The chart below organizes information from the passage you have just read.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Ideas About Contrasts and Changes</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Summary Statement of Pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The oil industry has transformed the economies of some North African countries</td>
<td>Algeria—oil major export and revenue source. Libya—oil about 99 percent of exports.</td>
<td>A single industry can power the economy of a nation but an unskilled labor force may not benefit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil helps the economy but also causes problems</td>
<td>Libya, Algeria, Tunisia face shortages of skilled workers. Libya—labor force lacks training and education. Foreign skilled workers get high-paying jobs. Unemployment, emigration.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practicing the Skill

Turn to Chapter 19, Section 5, “Southern Africa.” Read the subsection “Success at a Cost” on pages 455–456. Use the information in it to sum up the pattern you see. Use standard grammar, sentence structure, and punctuation in your summary.
1.8 Determining Cause and Effect

Defining the Skill
A **cause** is why something happens. An **effect** is what happens. A single cause can lead to one effect or multiple effects. One effect can have multiple causes. Cause-effect chains are also common, in which a cause leads to an effect that becomes the cause of another effect, and so on.

Applying the Skill
The following paragraphs sum up major events in the recent European past. Use the listed strategies to analyze the cause-effect relationships.

How to Determine Cause and Effect

**Strategy 1** Use the word *why* to formulate questions about the topic of the passage. Example: *Why was there conflict in Europe?* The answers you find will be the causes.

**Strategy 2** Look for words such as *because, cause, in order to,* and *reason,* which signal causes. Look for words such as *so, consequence,* and *result,* which signal effects.

**Strategy 3** Restate the cause-effect connections in your own words or in a diagram.

CONFLICT IN EUROPE

Western Europe experienced industrial growth in the 1800s. *Industrialism caused European nations to set up colonies in other lands in order to gain raw materials and markets.* Many European nations saw each other as rivals in the race to gain colonies.

The nationalistic rivalry and competition for colonies among European nations helped cause World War I. The Allied Powers (including France) fought the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and their allies). The Allies won and imposed harsh terms on Germany. *German resentment over those terms helped cause World War II,* in which Germany, led by Adolf Hitler and the Nazis, tried to conquer Europe.

Make a Diagram
A diagram can show how causes and effects are connected. Because the example passage tells how one event led to another, a cause-effect chain is a useful way to diagram its major ideas.

Practicing the Skill
Turn to Chapter 10, Section 4. Read the subsection “Native Peoples and Portuguese Conquest” on page 236. Make a diagram to show major cause-effect connections.
1.9 Identifying and Solving Problems

Defining the Skill

Identifying and solving problems means analyzing the difficulties that are faced by individuals and groups. You determine why the difficulties exist, how people try to overcome them, and what solutions, if any, are achieved.

Applying the Skill

The following paragraph describes a general problem related to the issue of national boundaries, and offers a particular African nation as an example. Use the listed strategies to understand the problem-solution connection.

How to Identify Problems and Solutions

**Strategy 1** Look for a statement of the problem. Note words such as problem, conflict, difficulty, or controversy. Use the details to ask yourself why the problem exists, and why people wish to overcome it.

**Strategy 2** Identify attempts to solve the problem.

**Strategy 3** Think about the outcome. Ask yourself whether the problem is solved, or whether the outcome is likely to lead to more difficulties.

Make a Chart

A chart can help you take notes and sum up important ideas about problems and solutions. The chart below shows problems and solutions in the passage you just read.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>Solution Attempts</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nigerian boundary lines artificially enclose the traditional lands of three groups of people.</td>
<td>One group, the Ibo, attempted to form a separate nation-state.</td>
<td>Civil war. Attempt to split away failed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ARTIFICIAL NATIONAL BOUNDARIES

Africa is a good example of how boundary lines can divide groups of people or put groups that have long been enemies together in one state. When parts of Africa were divided by European colonial powers, the boundary lines for Nigeria enclosed the traditional lands of the Hausa-Fulani people, the Yoruba people, and the Ibo people. Under British control, the three groups were forced to follow British rules. When Britain left, there was controversy over the control of the lands. One group, the Ibo, attempted to withdraw from Nigeria and form its own nation-state, Biafra. A civil war resulted, and the attempt to split away failed.

Practicing the Skill

Turn to Chapter 8, Section 2, “Urban Sprawl.” Read “Urban Sprawl’s Negative Impact” and “Solutions to Sprawl.” Make a chart to sum up the problem and possible solutions. Write a summary of the information presented in your chart using standard grammar, sentence structure, and punctuation.
1.10 Distinguishing Fact from Opinion

Defining the Skill

**Facts** are dates, numbers, names, and statements that can be proved true. **Opinions** are statements that express beliefs, values, and feelings. Although opinions cannot be proved true or false, they can be supported with facts and logical reasons. In order to decide whether to agree with stated opinions, readers must first separate opinion from fact.

Applying the Skill

The following paragraph tells how human-environment interaction affects climate and vegetation. Use the strategies listed below to distinguish fact from opinion.

How to Distinguish Fact from Opinion

**Strategy 1** Notice words that reveal the author’s beliefs or feelings. In the sample paragraph, unfortunately and careless show that opinions are being expressed.

**Strategy 2** Look for statements about future events. These statements are opinions because they cannot be proved.

**Strategy 3** Look for facts that are given as supporting reasons for the statements of opinion.

**Strategy 4** Identify ways in which you can check the facts.

Make a Chart

The chart below analyzes the facts and opinions from the passage above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinion 1</th>
<th>Supporting Facts 3</th>
<th>How to Check Facts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human-environment interaction results in unfortunate damage to soil and vegetation.</td>
<td>Fragile biomes such as the tundra are easily damaged. The desert land of the Sunbelt is easily eroded. Housing sub-divisions destroy vegetation.</td>
<td>Research current articles about human-caused damage to tundra. Research current articles about desert erosion in Sunbelt region. Research current articles about effects of development on vegetation in desert southwest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The tundra is threatened with oil leakage and spills.</td>
<td>Oil pipelines crisscross tundra regions.</td>
<td>Research oil-industry and news sources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Careless use of the land often leaves it in a condition that will not support life, even with sophisticated technological intervention.</td>
<td>None given</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practicing the Skill

Turn to Chapter 3, Section 2, and read the passage “Global Warming.” Show opinions and supporting facts in a chart.
### Creating a Sketch Map

#### Defining the Skill
When you are reading about routes, regions, landforms, political boundaries, or any other geographical information, try to visualize what is described. One way to clarify the information is by **creating a sketch map**. To sketch your own map, use one or more published maps as guides.

#### Applying the Skill
After reading the passage below, a student sketched the map shown. Read the listed strategies to see how the map was created.

**WESTWARD MOVEMENT**
From departure points such as Independence, Missouri, hundreds of thousands of pioneers left in covered wagons bound for the West. They blazed trails that crossed prairie, plains, desert, and mountains, moving toward the Pacific. A wagon train on the Oregon Trail might take up to six months to reach its destination 2,000 miles away.

### How to Create a Sketch Map

1. **Strategy 1** Choose a title that sums up what you will show in the map.

2. **Strategy 2** Consider the purpose of the map as you decide which standard features need to be included. Because the main purpose of this sketch map is to show journeys, it includes a scale of distance. Other maps may require lines of latitude and longitude, for example, and a compass rose.

3. **Strategy 3** Find one or more maps that you can use to guide the placement of elements and labels. For this sketch, the student consulted a historical map and a physical map.

4. **Strategy 4** Create a legend to explain any symbols or colors used.

### Wagon Trains Head West

#### Practicing the Skill
Turn to Chapter 12, Section 1. Read the introductory paragraph “A Human Perspective” on page 273. Create a sketch map of the route of Hannibal’s troops. Include the map elements needed to show why Hannibal’s achievement was so remarkable.
1.12 Creating Graphs and Charts

Defining the Skill

Whenever your research provides you with information involving numbers and quantities, you can create graphs and charts to show patterns in your data. Software programs tend to use the terms graphs and charts interchangeably. Kinds of graphs and charts include bar graphs, line graphs, pictographs, and pie graphs, which are also called pie charts. The kind you choose depends on your data.

Applying the Skill

The three visuals below are a pie chart, a bar graph, and a line graph. Use the listed strategies to think about their purposes and parts.

How to Create Graphs and Charts

Strategy 1 Organize your numerical data. Make a table with rows and columns, or use the grid layout of a spreadsheet. The headings in your table or spreadsheet will correspond to labels in your graph.

Strategy 2 Choose the type of graph to create. Are you showing changes over time? A line graph might be best. Are you making a series of comparisons? Consider a bar graph. Do you want to show how parts make the whole? A pie chart shows percentages.

Strategy 3 In line and bar graphs, plot the data along the axes. The X-axis is horizontal; the Y-axis is vertical. Make sure that both axes are labeled with words or numbers.

Strategy 4 Include a legend to indicate what each bar, line, or section represents.

Strategy 5 Add a title.

Practicing the Skill

Turn to Chapter 6, Section 3. Look at the data listed on page 147, accompanying the subsection “The Midwest.” Show the data in two clearly labeled pie charts. Use graphing software if possible. Write a generalization about the information in each chart using standard grammar, sentence structure, and punctuation.
2.1 Creating a Multimedia Presentation

Defining the Skill
Print is a medium of communication. Video and audio recordings, Web pages, and photographic slides are other examples of media. To create a multimedia presentation, you collect and display information so that your audience watches, listens, and learns.

Applying the Skill
A multimedia presentation can incorporate high-tech electronics, but it does not have to. A photo essay with audio background, for example, is also an effective multimedia presentation. Use the listed strategies to create your own multimedia presentation.

How to Create a Multimedia Presentation

Strategy 1 Choose a topic that lends itself to multimedia. Consider using still or moving images, a script for one or more speakers, sound effects, and music. You might create a travelogue, for example, in which you show your audience a place, and develop a narrative to go with the visual images.

Strategy 2 Research the topic to get a general overview. Then narrow the topic to one of manageable size. Make an outline to show the steps you will take to develop your presentation.

Strategy 3 Collect information. Then select the text, images, and audio you plan to use. Show your plan graphically, using a storyboard format, for example.

Strategy 4 Put your presentation together.

Practicing the Skill
Turn to Chapter 4 and read Section 4, “Urban Geography.” Choose a topic that you think will work well for a multimedia presentation. Do research, narrow the topic, and make an outline for a future presentation.
2.2 Creating and Using a Database

Defining the Skill

A database is any listing system in which related information is organized so that particular items can be retrieved. An electronic library catalog is an example of a database; new information can be added based on the categories, and users input search terms in order to pull out specific listings. Specialized software programs are used to create large, complex databases. Spreadsheet programs are frequently used to create less complex databases.

Applying the Skill

The table below is part of a database for statistics about the countries of Latin America. Use the listed strategies to understand the organization of a database.

How to Create or Use a Database

Strategy 1 Identify or name the topic of the database table.

Strategy 2 Define or identify the categories of data. In a computer database, these categories are called fields, and correspond to column headings. A field can specify names, dates or other numbers, or text.

Strategy 3 The data in each row of a database table form a record. The records are sorted by a particular field—usually alphabetically, or numerically in ascending or descending order. In the table shown, the records are sorted alphabetically by country name.

Strategy 4 To find a particular piece of data in an existing database, choose a search criterion. The table shown could lead to a list of all countries in which life expectancy is 70 or lower, for example.

### Regional Statistics: Latin America (year 2000 estimates)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/Capital</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Life Expectancy (1995–2000)</th>
<th>Birthrate per 1,000 pop.</th>
<th>Infant Mortality per 1,000 live births</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antigua and Barbuda/St. John’s</td>
<td>68,000</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina/Buenos Aires</td>
<td>37,048,000</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahamas/Nassau</td>
<td>310,000</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbados/Bridgetown</td>
<td>259,000</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belize/Belmopan</td>
<td>254,000</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia/La Paz, Sucre</td>
<td>8,281,000</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil/Brasilia</td>
<td>170,115,000</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile/Santiago</td>
<td>15,211,000</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia/Bogota</td>
<td>40,037,000</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica/San José</td>
<td>3,589,000</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practicing the Skill

Use spreadsheet or database software to input the following fields from the “Regional Data File” for the 50 U.S. states, shown on pages 110–112: Name of State, Population, Population Density, Total Area (square miles). Sort the data (a) alphabetically by name of state and (b) by population, in descending order.
Aboriginal people n. people who migrated to Australia from Asia at least 40,000 years ago; the original settlers of the land. (p. 718)

absolute location n. the exact place on earth where a geographic feature is found. (p. 6)

acculturation n. the cultural change that occurs when individuals in a society accept or adopt an innovation. (p. 72)

acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) n. a disease caused by the human immunodeficiency virus, or HIV. (p. 465)

Aksum n. an important trading capital from the first to the eighth centuries a.d. in what is now Ethiopia; it flourished due to its location near the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. (p. 431)

alluvial plain n. land that is rich farmland, composed of clay, silt, sand, or gravel deposited by running water. (p. 553)

Amazon River n. the second longest river in the world, and one of South America’s three major river systems, running about 4,000 miles from west to east, and emptying into the Atlantic Ocean. (p. 203)

Andes Mountains n. a large system of mountain ranges located along the Pacific coast of Central and South America. (p. 201)

anti-Semitism n. discrimination against Jewish people. (p. 315)

apartheid (uh•PAHRT•hyt) n. a policy of complete separation of the races, instituted by the white minority government of South Africa in 1948. (p. 454)

Appalachian Mountains n. one of two major mountain chains in the eastern United States and Canada, extending 1,600 miles from Newfoundland south to Alabama. (p. 119)

aqueduct n. a structure that carries water over long distances. (p. 292)

aquifer n. an underground layer of rock that stores water. (p. 421)

archipelago n. a set of closely grouped islands. (pp. 553, 689)

ASEAN n. the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, an alliance that promotes economic growth and peace in the region. (p. 707)

Ashanti n. a people who live in what is now Ghana, in West Africa, and who are known for their artful weaving of colorful asafo, or kente cloth. (p. 444)

assimilation n. a process whereby a minority group gradually gives up its own culture and adopts the culture of a majority group. (p. 728)

Aswan High Dam n. a dam on the Nile River in Egypt, completed in 1970, which increased Egypt’s farmable land by 50 percent and protected it from droughts and floods. (p. 426)

Atlantic Provinces n. the provinces in Eastern Canada—Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland. (p. 166)

atmosphere n. the layers of gases immediately surrounding the earth. (p. 28)

atoll n. a ringlike coral island or string of small islands surrounding a lagoon. (pp. 553, 700)

GLOSSARY

balkanization n. the process of breaking up a region into small, mutually hostile units. (p. 311)

Baltic Republics n. the countries of Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia, located on the eastern coast of the Baltic Sea. (p. 361)

Bantu migration n. the movement of the Bantu peoples southward throughout Africa, spreading their language and culture, from around 500 b.c. to around a.d. 1000. (p. 448)

basic necessity n. food, clothing, and shelter. (p. 593)

Benelux n. the economic union of Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg. (p. 296)

Beringia n. a land bridge thought to have connected what are now Siberia and Alaska. (p. 127)

Berlin Conference n. a conference of 14 European nations held in 1884–1885 in Berlin, Germany, to establish rules for political control of Africa. (p. 432)

Berlin Wall n. a wall erected by East Germany in 1961 to cut the capital of Berlin in two, and later dismantled in 1989. (p. 298)

Bikini Atoll n. the isolated reef, located in the Marshall Islands of the central Pacific, that was the site of U.S. nuclear bomb tests, consequently contaminating the atoll with high levels of radiation and driving its inhabitants away. (p. 700)

biodiversity n. the variety of organisms within an ecosystem. (p. 245)

biological weapon n. a bacterium or virus that can be used to harm or kill people, animals, or plants. (p. 175)

biome n. a regional ecosystem. (p. 65)

biosphere n. all the parts of the earth where plants and animals live, including the atmosphere, the lithosphere, and the hydrosphere. (p. 28)

birthrate n. the number of live births per total population, often expressed per thousand population. (p. 78)

blizzard n. a heavy snowstorm with winds of more than 35 miles per hour and reduced visibility of less than one-quarter mile. (p. 52)

Boxer Rebellion n. an uprising in China in 1900, spurred by angry Chinese militants, or Boxers, over foreign control; several hundred Europeans, Christians, and Chinese died. (p. 636)

British Columbia n. Canada’s westernmost province, located within the Rocky Mountain range. (p. 169)

Buddhism n. a religion that originated in India about 500 b.c. and spread to China, where it grew into a major religion by a.d. 400. (p. 638)

calypso n. a style of music that began in Trinidad and combines musical elements from Africa, Spain, and the Caribbean. (p. 227)

Canadian Shield n. a northern part of the interior lowlands that is a rocky, flat region covering nearly two million square miles and encircling Hudson Bay. (p. 119)

canopy n. the area encompassing the tops of the trees in a rain forest, about 150 feet above ground. (p. 422)

capoeira n. a martial art and dance that developed in Brazil from Angolans who were taken there by the Portuguese from Africa. (p. 239)
Carnival  

n. the most colorful feast day in Brazil. (p. 239)

carrying capacity  

n. the number of organisms a piece of land can support without negative effects. (p. 82)

Carthage  

n. one of the great empires of ancient Africa, situated on a triangular peninsula on the Gulf of Tunis on the coast of the Mediterranean Sea. (p. 438)

cartographer  

n. a mapmaker. (p. 10)

cash crop  

n. a crop grown for direct sale, and not for use in a region, such as coffee, tea, and sugar in Africa. (p. 433)

caste system  

n. the Aryan system of social classes in India and one of the cornerstones of Hinduism in which each person is born into a caste and can only move into a different caste through reincarnation. (p. 571)

Caucasus  

n. a region that straddles the Caucasus Mountains and stretches between the Black and Caspian seas. (p. 385)

caudillo  

(kow•DE•yoh)  

n. a military dictator or political boss. (p. 249)

Central Asia  

n. a region that includes the republics of Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. (p. 346)

central business district (CBD)  

n. the core of a city, which is almost always based on commercial activity. (p. 89)

cerrado  

(seh•RAH•doh)  

n. a savanna that has flat terrain and moderate rainfall, which make it suitable for farming. (p. 202)

Chang Jiang  

(or Yangtze River)  

the longest river in Asia, flowing about 3,900 miles from Xizang (Tibet) to the East China Sea. (p. 621)

chaparral  

n. the term, in some locations, for a biome of drought-resistant trees. (p. 66)

Chechnya  

n. one of the republics that remains a part of Russia after the collapse of the Soviet Union despite independence movements and violent upheaval. (p. 386)

chemical weathering  

n. a process that changes rock into a new substance through interactions among elements in the air or water and the minerals in the rock. (p. 43)

chemozem  

n. black topsoil, one of the world’s most fertile soils. (p. 345)

cholera  

n. a treatable infectious disease that can be fatal and is caused by a lack of adequate sanitation and a clean water supply. (p. 465)

city  

n. an area that is the center of business and culture and has a large population. (p. 87)

city-state  

n. an autonomous political unit made up of a city and its surrounding lands. (p. 289)

climate  

n. the typical weather conditions at a particular location as observed over time. (p. 50)

coalition  

n. an alliance. (p. 174)

Cold War  

n. the conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union after World War II, called “cold” because it never escalated into open warfare. (p. 363)

collective farm  

n. an enormous farm in the Soviet Union on which a large team of laborers were gathered to work together during Joseph Stalin’s reign. (p. 364)

Columbian Exchange  

n. the movement of plants, animals, and diseases between the Eastern and Western hemispheres during the age of exploration. (p. 136)

command economy  

n. a type of economic system in which production of goods and services is determined by a central government, which usually owns the means of production. Also called a planned economy. (pp. 91, 364)

commodity  

n. an agricultural or mining product that can be sold. (p. 462)

communism  

n. a system in which the government holds nearly all political power and the means of production. (p. 83)

confederation  

n. a political union. (p. 156)

Confucianism  

n. a movement based on the teachings of Confucius, a Chinese philosopher who lived about 500 B.C.: Confucius stressed the importance of education in an ordered society in which one respects one’s elders and obeys the government. (p. 638)

coniferous  

adj. another word for needleleaf trees. (p. 66)

constitutional monarchy  

n. a government in which the ruler’s powers are limited by a constitution and the laws of a nation. (p. 580)

continent  

n. a landmass above water on the earth. (p. 27)

Continental Divide  

n. the line of the highest points in North America that marks the separation between rivers flowing eastward and westward. (p. 120)

continental drift  

n. the hypothesis that all continents were once joined into a supercontinent that split apart over millions of years. (p. 29)

continuity  

n. a region’s distance from the moderating influence of the sea. (p. 350)

continental shelf  

n. the earth’s surface from the edge of a continent to the deep part of the ocean. (p. 36)

convection  

n. the transfer of heat in the atmosphere by upward motion of the air. (p. 54)

copra  

n. the dried meat of coconuts. (p. 714)

core  

n. the earth’s center, made up of iron and nickel; the inner core is solid, and the outer core is liquid. (p. 28)

crude oil  

n. petroleum that has not been processed. (p. 497)

Crusades  

n. a series of wars launched by European Christians in 1096 to capture the Holy Land (Palestine) from Muslims. (p. 291)

crust  

n. the thin rock layer making up the earth’s surface. (p. 28)

cultural crossroad  

n. a place where various cultures cross paths. (p. 310)

cultural hearth  

n. the heartland or place of origin of a major culture; a site of innovation from which basic ideas, materials, and technology diffuse to other cultures. (pp. 72, 222)

culture  

n. the total of knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors shared by and passed on by members of a group. (p. 71)

cyclone  

n. a violent storm with fierce winds and heavy rain; the most extreme weather pattern of South Asia. (p. 558)

czar  

n. the emperor of Russia prior to the Russian Revolution of 1917 and the subsequent creation of the Soviet Union in 1922. (p. 362)

Dead Sea  

n. a landlocked salt lake between Israel and Jordan that is so salty that almost nothing can live in its waters; it is 1,349 feet below sea level, making it the lowest place on the exposed crust of the earth. (p. 489)
**debt-for-nature swap n.** a debt-reducing deal wherein an organization agrees to pay off a certain amount of government debt in return for government protection of a certain portion of rain forest. (p. 247)

**decentralized adj.** an organized characteristic of broadleaf trees, such as maple, oak, birch, and cottonwood. (p. 66)

**deforestation n.** the cutting down and clearing away of trees and forests. (p. 246)

**delta n.** a fan-like landform made of deposited sediment, left by a river that slows as it enters the ocean. (p. 43)

**democracy n.** a type of government in which citizens hold political power either directly or through elected representatives. (p. 83)

**desalinization n.** the removal of salt from ocean water. (p. 496)

**desertification n.** an expansion of dry conditions to moist areas that are next to deserts. (p. 424)

**died n.** a version of a language that reflects changes in speech patterns due to class, region, or cultural changes. (p. 73)

**dictatorship n.** a type of government in which an individual or a group holds complete political power. (p. 83)

**diffusion n.** the spread of ideas, inventions, or patterns of behavior to different societies. (p. 72)

**dike n.** an earthen bank used to direct or prevent the passage of water. (p. 282)

**distance decay n.** a term referring to the concept that increasing distances between places tend to reduce interactions among them. (p. 389)

**diversify v.** to increase the variety of products in a country's economy; to promote manufacturing and other industries in order to achieve growth and stability. (p. 462)

**Dome of the Rock n.** a shrine in Jerusalem, located on the Temple Mount, which houses the spot where Muslims believe Muhammad rose into heaven and where Jews believe Abraham prepared to sacrifice his son Isaac to God. (p. 511)

**Dominion of Canada n.** the loose confederation of Ontario (Upper Canada), Quebec (Lower Canada), Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, created by the British North America Act in 1867. (p. 156)

**drainage basin n.** an area drained by a major river and its tributaries. (p. 33)

**drip irrigation n.** the practice of using small pipes that slowly drip water just above ground to conserve water to use for crops. (p. 496)

**drought n.** a long period without rain or with very minimal rainfall. (p. 53)

**dynasty n.** a series of rulers from the same family. (p. 635)

**earthquake n.** a sometimes violent movement of the earth, produced when tectonic plates grind or slip past each other at a fault. (p. 39)

**economic system n.** the way people produce and exchange goods. (p. 91)

**economic tiger n.** a country with rapid economic growth due to cheap labor, high technology, and aggressive exports. (p. 645)

**economy n.** the production and exchange of goods and services among a group of people. (p. 91)

**ecosystem n.** an interdependent community of plants and animals. (p. 65)

**El Niño (el NEEN•w•n•) n.** a weather pattern created by the warming of the waters off the west coast of South America, which pushes warm water and heavy rains toward the Americas and produces drought conditions in Australia and Asia. (p. 57)

**entrepreneur n.** a person who starts and builds a business. (p. 575)

**epicenter n.** the point on the earth's surface that corresponds to the location in the earth where an earthquake begins. (p. 39)

**equator n.** the imaginary line that encircles the globe, dividing the earth into northern and southern halves. (p. 6)

**equinox n.** each of the two days in a year on which day and night are equal in length; marks the beginning of spring and autumn. (p. 49)

**erosion n.** the result of weathering on matter, created by the action of wind, water, ice, or gravity. (p. 43)

**escarpment n.** a steep slope with a nearly flat plateau on top. (p. 417)

**estuary n.** a broadened seaward end of a river, where the river's currents meet the ocean's tides. (p. 563)

**ethnic cleansing n.** the policy of trying to eliminate an ethnic group. (p. 320)

**ethnic group n.** a group of people who share language, customs, and a common heritage. (p. 71)

**Eurasia n.** the combined continent of Europe and Asia. (p. 346)

**euro n.** a common currency proposed by the European Union for its member nations. (p. 305)

**European Environmental Agency n.** an agency that provides the European Union with reliable information about the environment. (p. 324)

**Everglades n.** a large subtropical swampland in Florida of about 4,000 square miles. (p. 126)

**export n.** a product or good that is sold from one economy to another. (p. 140)

**F**

**Fang sculpture n.** carved boxes containing the skulls and bones of deceased ancestors, created by the Fang, who live in Gabon, southern Cameroon, and Equatorial Guinea. (p. 451)

**fault n.** a fracture in the earth's crust. (p. 39)

**federal republic n.** a nation whose powers are divided among the federal, or national, government and various state and local governments. (p. 139)

**feudalism n.** a political system prevailing in Europe from about the 9th to about the 15th centuries in which a king allowed nobles the use of his land in exchange for their military service and their protection of the land. (p. 297)

**fertility rate n.** the average number of children a woman of childbearing years would have in her lifetime, if she had children at the current rate for her country. (p. 78)

**First Nations n.** a group of Canada’s Native American people. (p. 159)

**fjord (fyawrd) n.** a long, narrow, deep inlet of the sea between steep slopes. (p. 273)
folk art n. handmade items, such as pottery, woodcarving, and traditional costumes, produced by rural people with traditional lifestyles, instead of by professional artists. (p. 314)

cold water n. water pumped from underground aquifers. (p. 496)

free enterprise n. an economic system in which private individuals own most of the resources, technology, and businesses, and can operate them for profit with little control from the government. (p. 140)

frontier n. the free, open land in the American West that was available for settlement. (p. 137)

Ganges River n. river in South Asia; an important water resource flowing more than 1,500 miles from its source in a Himalayan glacier to the Bay of Bengal. (p. 560)

Gaza Strip n. a territory along the Mediterranean Sea just northeast of the Sinai Peninsula; part of the land set aside for Palestinians, which was occupied by Israel in 1967. (p. 527)

Geographic Information System (GIS) n. technology that uses digital map information to create a databank; different "data layers" can be combined to produce specialized maps. GIS allows geographers to analyze different aspects of a specific place to solve problems. (p. 13)

geography n. the study of the distribution and interaction of physical and human features on the earth. (p. 5)

GLACIATION n. the changing of landforms by slowly moving glaciers. (p. 44)

glacier n. a large, long-lasting mass of ice that moves because of gravity. (p. 44)

global economy n. the merging of regional economies in which nations become dependent on each other for goods and services. (p. 666)

global network n. a worldwide interconnected group. (p. 173)

glacial warming n. the buildup of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, preventing heat from escaping into space and causing rising temperatures and shifting weather patterns. (p. 246)

globe n. a three-dimensional representation of the earth. (p. 10)

Gobi Desert n. a desert located in northern China and southeastern Mongolia, and a prime area for finding dinosaur fossils. (p. 627)

Golan Heights n. a hilly plateau overlooking the Jordan River and the Sea of Galilee; a strategic location that has been the site of conflict in Southwest Asia for decades. (p. 487)

Gorée Island n. an island off the coast of Senegal that served as a major departure point for slaves during the slave trade. (p. 442)

Great Barrier Reef n. a 1,250-mile chain of more than 2,500 reefs and islands along Australia’s northeast coast, containing some 400 species of coral. (p. 692)

Great Game n. a struggle between the British Empire and the Russian Empire for control of Central Asia in the 19th century. (p. 376)

Great Kanto Earthquake n. an earthquake in 1923 in Japan that killed an estimated 140,000 people and left the city of Tokyo in ruins. (p. 682)

Great Lakes n. a group of five freshwater lakes of central North America between the United States and Canada; the lakes are Huron, Ontario, Michigan, Erie, and Superior. (p. 121)

Great Plains n. a vast grassland of central North America that is largely treeless and ascends to 4,000 feet above sea level. (p. 119)

Great Zimbabwe n. a city established in what is now Zimbabwe by the Shona around 1000; it became the capital of a thriving gold-trading area. (p. 453)

greenhouse effect n. the layer of gases released by the burning of coal and petroleum that traps solar energy, causing global temperature to increase. (p. 58)

Green Revolution n. an agricultural program launched by scientists in the 1960s to develop higher-yielding grain varieties and improve food production by incorporating new farming techniques. (p. 569)

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) n. the value of only goods and services produced within a country in a period of time. (p. 95)

Gross National Product (GNP) n. the total value of all goods and services produced by a country in a period of time. (p. 94)

ground water n. the water held under the earth’s surface, often in and around the pores of rock. (p. 33)

guest worker n. a largely unskilled laborer, often an immigrant from South and East Asia, brought in to oil-boom countries to fill job openings that the region’s native peoples find culturally or economically unacceptable. (p. 525)

hemisphere n. each half of the globe. (p. 6)

high islands n. Pacific islands created by volcanoes. (p. 691)

Himalaya Mountains n. a mountain range in South Asia that includes Mount Everest, the world’s tallest mountain peak. (p. 551)

Hinduism n. the dominant religion of India. (p. 560)

Holocaust n. the Nazi program of mass murder of European Jews during World War II. (p. 298)

Huang He (hwahng huh) n. a river in northern China, also called the Yellow River, that starts in the Kunlun Mountains and winds east for about 3,000 miles, emptying into the Yellow Sea. (p. 621)

human resources n. the skills and talents of employed people. (p. 531)

humus n. organic material in soil. (p. 45)

hurricane n. a storm that forms over warm, tropical ocean waters. (p. 51)

hydrologic cycle n. the continuous circulation of water among the atmosphere, the oceans, and the earth. (p. 32)

hydrosphere n. the waters comprising the earth’s surface, including oceans, seas, rivers, lakes, and vapor in the atmosphere. (p. 28)

Ijsselmeer (EYE-suh-MAIR) n. a freshwater lake separated from the North Sea by a dike and bordered by polders. (p. 283)

illiteracy n. the inability to read or write. (p. 593)

Inca n. a member of the Quechen peoples of South America who built a civilization in the Andes Mountains in the 15th and 16th centuries. (p. 230)

Indochina n. a French colony comprised of Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam; it won independence from France in 1954. (p. 707)

industrialization n. the growth of industry in a country or a society. (p. 730)
Indus Valley civilization *n.* the largest of the world’s first civilizations in what is now Pakistan; this was a highly developed urban civilization, lasting from 2500 B.C. to about 1500 B.C. (p. 573)

infant mortality rate *n.* the number of deaths among infants under age one as measured per thousand live births. (p. 79)

infrastructure *n.* the basic support systems needed to keep an economy going, including power, communications, transportation, water, sanitation, and education systems. (pp. 94, 177, 212)

innovation *n.* taking existing elements of society and creating something new to meet a need. (p. 72)

Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) *n.* the political party introduced in 1929 in Mexico that helped to introduce democracy and maintain political stability for much of the 20th century. (p. 218)

Islam *n.* a monotheistic religion based on the teachings of the prophet Muhammad, and the biggest cultural and religious influence in North Africa. (pp. 439, 503)

Jakota Triangle *n.* a zone of prosperity during the 1980s and early 1990s—Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan. (p. 666)

Jordan River *n.* a river that serves as a natural boundary between Israel and Jordan, flowing from the mountains of Lebanon with no outlet to the Mediterranean Sea. (p. 489)

junta (HOON•tah) *n.* a government run by generals after a military takeover. (p. 249)

Kashmir *n.* a region of northern India and Pakistan over which several destructive wars have been fought. (p. 574)

Khmer Empire *n.* a powerful empire that lasted roughly from the 9th to the 15th centuries in what is now Cambodia. (p. 706)

King Leopold II *n.* the Belgian king who opened up the African interior to European trade along the Congo River and by 1884 controlled the area known as the Congo Free State. (p. 449)

KLA (Kosovo Liberation Army) *n.* a group that fought against Serbian attempts to control the region of Kosovo in the 1990s. (p. 321)

Kunlun Mountains *n.* mountains located in the west of China that are the source of two of China’s great rivers, the Huang He (Yellow) and the Chang Jiang (Yangtze). (p. 619)

Kurds *n.* an ethnic group in Southwestern Asia that has occupied Kurdistan, located in Turkey, Iraq, and Iran, for about a thousand years, and who have been involved in clashes with these three countries over land claims for most of the 20th century. (p. 516)

Land Rights Act of 1976 *n.* a special law passed for Aboriginal rights in Australia giving Aboriginal people the right to claim land in the Northern Territory. (p. 728)

Landsat *n.* a series of satellites that orbit more than 100 miles above the earth. Each satellite picks up data in an area 115 miles wide. (p. 12)

latitude (lines) *n.* a set of imaginary lines that run parallel to the equator, and that are used in locating places north or south. The equator is labeled the zero-degree line for latitude. (p. 6)

lava *n.* magma that has reached the earth’s surface. (p. 40)

lithosphere *n.* the solid rock portion of the earth’s surface. (p. 28)

llanos (LAH•nohs) *n.* a large, grassy, treeless area in South America, used for grazing and farming. (p. 202)

lock *n.* a section of a waterway with closed gates where water levels are raised or lowered, through which ships pass. (p. 129)

loess (LOH•uhs) *n.* wind-blown silt and clay sediment that produces very fertile soil. (p. 44)

longitude (lines) *n.* a set of imaginary lines that go around the earth over the poles, dividing it east and west. The prime meridian is labeled the zero-degree line for longitude. (p. 6)

Louisiana Purchase *n.* the territory, including the region between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains, that the United States purchased from France in 1803. (p. 136)

low islands *n.* Pacific islands made of coral reefs. (p. 691)

Mabo Case *n.* in Australia, the law case that upheld Aboriginal Eddie Mabo’s land claim by which the Court recognized that Aboriginal people had owned land before the British arrived. (p. 728)

Mackenzie River *n.* Canada’s longest river, which is part of a river system that flows across the Northwest Territories to the Arctic Ocean. (p. 121)

magma *n.* the molten rock material formed when solid rock in the earth’s mantle or crust melts. (p. 28)

malaria *n.* an infectious disease of the red blood cells, carried by mosquitoes, that is characterized by chills, fever, and sweating. (p. 466)

mandala *n.* in Tibetan Buddhism, a geometric design that symbolizes the universe and aids in meditation. (p. 583)

mantle *n.* a rock layer about 1,800 miles thick that is between the earth’s crust and the earth’s core. (p. 28)

Maoi *n.* the first settlers of New Zealand, who had migrated from Polynesia more than 1,000 years ago. (p. 719)

Mao Zedong *n.* the leader of the Communists in China who defeated the Nationalists in 1949; he died in 1976. (p. 636)

map projection *n.* a way of mapping the earth’s surface that reduces distortion caused by converting three dimensions into two dimensions. (p. 10)

map *n.* a two-dimensional graphic representation of selected parts of the earth’s surface. (p. 10)

maquiladora *n.* a factory in Mexico that assembles imported materials into finished goods for export. (p. 220)
market economy n. a type of economic system in which production of goods and services is determined by the demand from consumers. Also called a demand economy or capitalism. (pp. 91, 313)

Massif Central [mæ•SIF sahn•traHL] n. the uplands of France, which account for about one-sixth of French lands. (p. 275)

Mecca n. the holiest city of Islam, located in Saudi Arabia, where people make pilgrimages to fulfill Islamic religious duty. (p. 503)

mechanical weathering n. natural processes that break rock into smaller pieces. (p. 42)

megalopolis n. a region in which several large cities and surrounding areas grow together. (p. 146)

Melanesia n. a region in Oceania meaning “black islands.” (p. 713)

Meseta (meh•SEH•tah) n. the central plateau of Spain. (p. 275)

Mesopotamia n. a region in Southwest Asia between the Tigris and the Euphrates rivers, which was the location of some of the earliest civilizations in the world; part of the cultural hearth known as the Fertile Crescent. (p. 516)

métis (may•TEES) n. a person of mixed French-Canadian and Native American ancestry. (p. 161)

metropolitan area n. a functional area including a city and its surrounding suburbs and exurbs, linked economically. (pp. 87, 148)

microcredit n. a small loan available to poor entrepreneurs, to help small businesses grow and raise living standards. (p. 575)

Micronesia n. one of three regions in Oceania, meaning “tiny islands.” (p. 713)

Midwest n. the region that contains the 12 states of the north-central United States. (p. 147)

migration n. the movement of peoples within a country or region. (p. 135)

Mississippi River n. a major river that runs north-south almost the length of the United States, from Minnesota to the Gulf of Mexico, and is part of the longest river system on the continent. (p. 121)

mistral (MIHS•truhl) n. a cold, dry wind from the north. (p. 279)

Mobutu Sese Seko n. the leader of Zaire, which is now the Democratic Republic of the Congo, from its independence in 1960 until 1997. He brought the country’s businesses under national control, profited from the reorganization, and used the army to hold power. (p. 450)

monarchy n. a type of government in which a ruling family headed by a king or queen holds political power and may or may not share the power with citizen bodies. (p. 83)

monsoon n. a seasonal wind, especially in South Asia. (p. 558)

moraine n. a ridge of ice or glacier that continues to move under its own weight. (p. 44)

mortality rate n. the number of deaths per thousand. (p. 79)

mosque n. an Islamic place of worship, where Muslims pray facing toward the holy city of Mecca. (p. 504)

Mount Kilimanjaro n. a volcano in Tanzania in Africa, also Africa’s highest peak. (p. 417)

Mughal Empire n. the Muslim empire established by the early 1500s, consisting of many Hindu rulers with new customs that sometimes conflicted with those of native Hindus. (p. 568)

Muhammad n. the founder and a prophet of Islam, who lived part of his life in the city of Mecca. (p. 503)

multinational n. a corporation that engages in business worldwide. (p. 142)

Mutapa Empire n. a state founded in the 15th century by a man named Mutata that extended throughout all of present-day Zimbabwe except the eastern part. (p. 453)

N

Nagorno-Karabakh n. the mountainous area of Azerbaijan, fought over by Armenia and Azerbaijan. (p. 386)

nation n. a group of people with a common culture living in a territory and having a strong sense of unity. (p. 83)

nationalism n. the belief that people should be loyal to their nation, the people with whom they share land, culture, and history. (p. 297)

national-state n. the name of a territory when a nation and a state occupy the same territory. (p. 83)

natural resource n. a material on or in the earth, such as a tree, fish, or coal, that has economic value. (p. 93)

needleleaf adj. characteristic of trees like pine, fir, and cedar, found in northern regions of North America. (p. 66)

Nelson Mandela n. one of the leaders of the African National Congress who led a struggle to end apartheid and was elected president in 1994 in the first all-race election in South Africa. (p. 454)


Niger delta n. delta of the Niger River and an area of Nigeria with rich oil deposits. (p. 424)

Nile River n. the world’s longest river, flowing over 4,000 miles through the Sudan Basin into Uganda, Sudan, and Egypt. (p. 416)

nomad n. a person with no permanent home who moves according to the seasons from place to place in search of food, water, and grazing land. (pp. 127, 378)

nonviolent resistance n. a movement that uses all means of protest except violence. (p. 568)

Nordic countries n. countries of northern Europe, including Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden. (p. 302)

NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement) n. an important trade agreement creating a huge zone of cooperation on trade and economic issues in North America. (p. 220)

North Atlantic Drift n. a current of warm water from the Tropics. (p. 278)

Nunavut n. one of Canada’s territories and home to many of Canada’s Inuit; it was carved out of the eastern half of the Northwest Territories in 1999. (p. 169)

O

oasis n. a place where water from an aquifer has reached the surface; it supports vegetation and wildlife. (pp. 421, 492)

Oceania n. the group of islands in the Pacific, including Melanesia, Micronesia, and Polynesia. (p. 690)

Olduvai Gorge n. a site of fossil beds in northern Tanzania, containing the most continuous known record of humanity over the past two million years, including fossils from 65 hominids. (p. 431)

oligarchy (ahl•ih•GAHR•kee) n. a government run by a few persons or a small group. (p. 249)
“one-commodity” country n. a country that relies on one principal export for much of its earnings. (p. 462)
Ontario n. one of Canada’s Core Provinces. (p. 167)
OPEC n. the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, a group established in 1960 by some oil-producing nations to coordinate policies on selling petroleum products. (p. 505)
Orinoco River n. a river mainly in Venezuela and part of South America’s northernmost river system. (p. 202)
outback n. the dry, unpopulated inland region of Australia. (p. 697)
outrigger canoe n. a small ship used in the lagoons of islands where Pacific Islanders settled. (p. 699)
ozone n. a chemical created when burning fossil fuels react with sunlight; a form of oxygen. (p. 325)

Pacific Rim n. an economic and social region including the countries surrounding the Pacific Ocean, extending clockwise from New Zealand in the western Pacific to Chile in the eastern Pacific and including the west coast of the United States. (p. 645)
pakehas n. a Maori term for white people, for the New Zealanders of European descent. (p. 722)
Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) n. a group formed in the 1960s to regain the Arab land in Israel for Palestinian Arabs. (p. 513)
Palestinians n. a displaced group of Arabs who lived or still live in the area formerly called Palestine and now called Israel. (p. 527)
pampas (PAHM-puhs) n. a vast area of grassland and rich soil in south-central South America. (p. 202)
Panama Canal n. a ship canal cut through Panama connecting the Caribbean Sea with the Pacific Ocean. (p. 226)
pandemic n. a disease affecting a large population over a wide geographic area. (p. 435)
Paraná River n. a river in central South America and one of its three major river systems, originating in the highlands of southern Brazil, travelling about 3,000 miles south and west. (p. 203)
parliament n. a representative lawmaking body whose members are elected or appointed and in which legislative and executive functions are combined. (pp. 158, 303)
parliamentary government n. a system where legislative and executive functions are combined in a legislature called a parliament. (p. 158)
particulate n. a very small particle of liquid or solid matter. (p. 324)
partition n. separation; division into two or more territorial units having separate political status. (p. 574)
pastoral lease n. in Australia, a huge chunk of land still owned by the government; ranchers take out leases, renting the land from the government. (p. 729)
PCB n. an industrial compound that accumulates in animal tissue and can cause harmful effects and birth defects; PCBs were banned in the United States in 1977. (p. 631)
peat n. partially decayed plant matter found in bogs. (p. 277)
penal colony n. a place to send prisoners. (p. 718)
per capita income n. the average amount of money earned by each person in a political unit. (p. 94)
permafrost n. permanently frozen ground. (pp. 63, 123)
polder n. land that is reclaimed from the sea or other body of water by diking and drainage. (p. 282)
Polynesia n. one of three regions in Oceania, meaning “many islands.” (p. 713)
population density n. the average number of people who live in a measurable area, reached by dividing the number of inhabitants in an area by the amount of land they occupy. (p. 81)
population pyramid n. a graphic device that shows gender and age distribution of a population. (p. 79)
postindustrial economy n. an economic phase in which manufacturing no longer plays a dominant role. (p. 142)
Prairie Provinces n. in Canada, the provinces west of Ontario and Quebec—Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta. (p. 168)
precipitation n. falling water droplets in the form of rain, sleet, snow, or hail. (p. 50)
prevailing westerlies n. winds that blow from west to east. (p. 124)
prime meridian n. the imaginary line at zero meridian used to measure longitude east to west, and dividing the earth’s east and west halves; also called the Greenwich Meridian because it passes through Greenwich, England. (p. 6)
prime minister n. the head of a government; the majority party’s leader in parliament. (p. 158)
privatization n. the selling of government-owned business to private citizens. (p. 388)
province n. a political unit. (p. 156)
pull factor n. a factor that draws or attracts people to another location. (p. 81, 211)
push factor n. a factor that causes people to leave their homelands and migrate to another region. (pp. 81, 211, 730)
Pyongyang n. the largest city in North Korea, with more than 2.5 million people. (p. 650)

Q

Qin Ling Mountains n. mountains in southeastern and east-central China; they divide the northern part of China from the southern part. (p. 619)
Quebec n. one of Canada’s Core Provinces. (p. 167)
Quechua (KECH-wuh) n. the language of the Inca Empire, now spoken in the Andes highlands. (p. 231)

R

rai n. a kind of popular Algerian music developed in the 1920s by poor urban children that is fast-paced with danceable rhythms; was sometimes used as a form of rebellion to expose political unhappiness. (p. 440)
rain forest n. a forest region located in the Tropical Zone with a heavy concentration of different species of broadleaf trees. (pp. 66, 207)
rain shadow n. the land on the leeward side of hills or mountains that gets little rain from the descending dry air. (p. 51)
raj n. the period of British rule in India, which lasted for nearly 200 years, from 1857 to 1947. (p. 568)
Ramadan n. an Islamic practice of month-long fasting from sunup to sundown. (p. 576)
rate of natural increase n. also called population growth rate—the rate at which population is growing, found by subtracting the mortality rate from the birthrate. (p. 79)
**recession** *n.* an extended period of decline in general business activity. (p. 667)

**Red Army** *n.* the name of the Soviet Union’s military. (p. 371)

**refinery** *n.* a place where crude oil is converted into useful products. (p. 497)

**Reformation** *n.* a movement in Western Europe beginning in 1517, when many Christians broke away from the Catholic Church and started Protestant churches; this led to mutual hostility and religious wars that tore apart Europe. (p. 297)

**reggae** *n.* a style of music that developed in Jamaica in the 1960s and is rooted in African, Caribbean, and American music, often dealing with social problems and religion. (p. 227)

**relative location** *n.* describes a place in relation to other places around it. (p. 6)

**relief** *n.* the difference in elevation of a landform from the lowest point to the highest point. (p. 36)

**religion** *n.* the belief in a supernatural power or powers that are regarded as the creators and maintainers of the universe, as well as the system of beliefs itself. (p. 75)

**Renaissance** *n.* a time of renewed interest in learning and the arts that lasted from the 14th through 16th centuries; it began in the Italian city-states and spread north to all of Europe. (p. 291)

**representative democracy** *n.* a government in which the people rule through elected representatives. (p. 139)

**republic** *n.* a government in which citizens elect representatives to rule on their behalf. (p. 290)

**reserve** *n.* public land set aside for native peoples by the government. (p. 162)

**Richter scale** *n.* a way to measure information collected by seismographs to determine the relative strength of an earthquake. (p. 40)

**rift valley** *n.* a long, thin valley created by the moving apart of the continental plates, present in East Africa, stretching over 4,000 miles from Jordan in Southwest Asia to Mozambique in Southern Africa. (p. 416)

**Ring of Fire** *n.* the chain of volcanoes that lines the Pacific Rim. (pp. 41, 661)

**Rocky Mountains** *n.* a major mountain system of the United States and Canada, extending 3,000 miles from Alaska south to New Mexico. (p. 119)

**Rub al Khali** *n.* also known as the Empty Quarter; one of the largest sandy deserts in the world, covering about 250,000 square miles; located on the Arabian Peninsula. (p. 491)

**Russian Revolution** *n.* the revolt of 1917, in which the Russian Communist Party, led by V. I. Lenin, took control of the government from the czars. (p. 363)

**runoff** *n.* rainfall not absorbed by soil, which can carry pesticides and fertilizers from fields into rivers, endangering the food chain. (p. 353)

**Sahara** *n.* the largest desert in the world, stretching 3,000 miles across the African continent, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Red Sea, and measuring 1,200 miles from north to south. (p. 420)

**Sahel** *n.* a narrow band of dry grassland, running east to west on the southern edge of the Sahara, that is used for farming and herding. (p. 424)

**St. Lawrence Seaway** *n.* North America’s most important deepwater ship route, connecting the Great Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean by way of the St. Lawrence River. (p. 129)

**St. Petersburg** *n.* the old capital of Russia, established by Peter the Great, who moved it there from Moscow because St. Petersburg provided direct access by sea to Western Europe. (p. 362)

**salt flat** *n.* flat land made of chemical salts that remain after winds evaporate the moisture in the soil. (p. 492)

**samba** *n.* a Brazilian dance with African influences. (p. 239)

**samurai** *n.* a professional soldier in Japan who served the interests of landowners and clan chiefs. (p. 651)

**satellite nation** *n.* a nation dominated by another country. (p. 312)

**savanna** *n.* the term for the flat, grassy, mostly treeless plains in the tropical grassland region. (p. 66)

**seawork** *n.* a term for the flat, grassy, mostly treeless plains in the tropical grassland region. (p. 66)

**sectionalism** *n.* a structure used to control the sea’s destructive impact on human life. (p. 283)

**sediment** *n.* small pieces of rock produced by weathering processes. (p. 42)

**seismograph** *(SYZ•muh•grah)* *n.* a device that measures the size of the waves created by an earthquake. (p. 39)

**Seoul** *n.* the largest city in South Korea, with a population of more than ten million people. (p. 650)

**Serengeti** *n.* an area of East Africa, containing some of the best grasslands in the world and many grazing animals. (p. 422)

**service industry** *n.* any kind of economic activity that produces a service rather than a product. (p. 142)

**Sherpa** *n.* a person of Tibetan ancestry in Nepal, who serves as the traditional mountain guide of the Mount Everest region. (p. 582)

**Shi’ite** *n.* one of the two main branches of Islam including most Iranians and some populations of Iraq and Afghanistan. (p. 517)

**shogun** *n.* the general of the emperor’s army with the powers of a military dictator, a position created by the Japanese emperor in 1192 after a struggle between two powerful clans. (p. 651)

**Siberia** *n.* a region of central and eastern Russia, stretching from the Ural Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, known for its mineral resources and for being a place of political exile. (p. 349)

**Siddhartha Gautama** *n.* the founder of Buddhism and known as the Buddha, born in southern Nepal in the sixth century B.C. (p. 582)

**Silicon Glen** *n.* the section of Scotland between Glasgow and Edinburgh, named for its high concentration of high-tech companies. (p. 305)

**Silk Road** *n.* the 4,000-mile route between China and the Mediterranean Sea, named for the costly silk acquired in China. (p. 375)

**silt** *n.* loose sedimentary material containing very small rock particles, formed by river deposits and very fertile. (p. 426)

**Sinhalese** *n.* an Indo-Aryan people who crossed the strait separating India and Sri Lanka in the sixth century B.C. and who created an advanced civilization there, adopting Buddhism. (p. 584)
sirrocco (suh•RAHK•oh) n. a hot, steady south wind that blows from North Africa across the Mediterranean Sea into southern Europe, mostly in spring. (p. 279)
slash-and-burn adj. a way of clearing fields for planting by cutting trees, brush, and grasses and burning them. (p. 210)
smart growth n. the efficient use and conservation of land and other resources. (p. 178)
smog n. a brown haze that occurs when gases released by burning fossil fuels react with sunlight. (p. 324)
society n. a group that shares a geographic region, a common language, and a sense of identity and culture. (p. 71)
soil n. the loose mixture of weathered rock, organic matter, air, and water that supports plant growth. (p. 45)
solar system n. consists of the sun and nine known planets, as well as other celestial bodies that orbit the sun. (p. 27)
solstice n. either of two times of year when the sun’s rays shine directly overhead at noon at the furthest points north or south, and that mark the beginning of summer and winter; in the Northern Hemisphere, the summer solstice is the longest day and the winter solstice the shortest. (p. 49)
South, the n. a region that covers about one-fourth of the land area of the United States and contains more than one-third of its population. (p. 148)
South Slav n. a person who migrated from Poland or Russia and settled in the Balkan Peninsula around 500. (p. 319)
Spanish conquest n. the conquering of the Native Americans by the Spanish. (p. 217)
sphere of influence n. a method of dividing foreign control in China, after the country was forced to sign a series of treaties granting special privileges to the Europeans. China was partitioned for control by Britain, France, Germany, and Russia, among others. (p. 636)
state n. a political term describing an independent unit that occupies a specific territory and has full control of its internal and external affairs. (p. 83)
stateless nation n. a nation of people that does not have a territory to legally occupy, like the Palestinians, Kurds, and Basques. (p. 526)
stateless society n. one in which people use lineages, or families whose members are descended from a common ancestor, to govern themselves. (p. 443)
steppe n. the term used for the temperate grassland region in the Northern Hemisphere. (p. 66)
Stolen Generation n. in Australia, what Aboriginal people today call the 100,000 mixed-raced children who were taken by the government and given to white families to promote assimilation. (p. 728)
storm surge n. high water level brought by a cyclone that swamps low-lying areas. (p. 562)
strategic commodity n. a resource so important that nations will go to war to ensure its steady supply. (p. 529)
subcontinent n. a landmass that is like a continent, only smaller, such as South Asia, which is called the Indian subcontinent. (p. 551)
subsistence activity n. an activity in which a family produces only the food, clothing, and shelter they themselves need. (p. 714)
suburb n. a political unit or community touching the borders of the central city or touching other suburbs that touch the city. (pp. 87, 138)
sultan n. a ruler of a Muslim country. (p. 585)
summer monsoon n. the season when winds blow from the southwest across the Indian Ocean toward South Asia, from June through September, with winds stirring up powerful storms and causing severe flooding. (p. 597)
Sunnī n. one of the two main branches of Islam, comprising about 83 percent of all Muslims, including those in Turkey, Iraq, and Afghanistan. (p. 517)
supra n. Georgian (Russian) term for dinner party, with many dishes and courses, toasts, and short speeches. (p. 374)
sustainable community n. a community where residents can live and work in harmony with the environment. (p. 178)
sweatshop n. a workplace where people work long hours for low pay under poor conditions to enrich manufacturers. (p. 667)

T
taiga n. a nearly continuous belt of evergreen coniferous forests across the Northern Hemisphere, in North America and Eurasia. (p. 351)
Taklimakan Desert n. a desert located in western China between the Tian Shan and Kunlun mountains. (p. 627)
Taliban n. a strict Muslim group in Afghanistan that has imposed rigid rules on society, including prescribed clothing styles for both men and women, restrictions on the appearance of women in public places, and regulations on television, music, and videos. (p. 519)
Tamil n. a Dravidian Hindu, who arrived in Sri Lanka in the fourth century, settling in the north while the Sinhalese moved further south. (p. 584)
Taoism n. a philosophy based on the book Tao Te Ching and the teachings of Lao-Tzu, who lived in China in the sixth century B.C. and believed in preserving and restoring harmony in the individual, with nature, and in the universe, with little interference from the government. (p. 638)
taro n. a tropical Asian plant with a starchy root, which can be eaten as a boiled vegetable or made into breads, puddings, or a paste called poi. (p. 715)
tectonic plate n. an enormous moving shelf that forms the earth’s crust. (p. 37)
Tenochtitlan (teh•NOH•tee•TLAHN) n. the ancient Aztec capital, site of Mexico City today. (p. 217)
terpen n. high earthen platforms used in seaworks. (p. 283)
terraced farming n. an ancient technique for growing crops on hillsides or mountain slopes, using step-like horizontal fields cut into the slopes. (p. 211)
terrorism n. the use of, or threatened use of, force or violence against individuals or property for the purpose of intimidating or causing fear for political or social ends. (p. 173)
theocratic adj. a form of government in which religious leaders control the government, relying on religious law and consultation with religious scholars. (p. 504)
Three Gorges Dam n. a dam begun in the late 20th century on the Chang Jiang in China, to help control flooding, generate power, and allow ships to sail farther into China. (p. 628)
Three Kingdoms n. the kingdoms formed in the peninsula of Korea by A.D. 300—Koguryo in the northeast, Paekche in the southwest, and Silla in the southeast. (p. 647)
Tigris River n. one of the most important rivers of Southwest Asia; it supported several ancient river valley civilizations, and flows through parts of Turkey, Syria, and Iraq. (p. 489)
tornado n. a powerful funnel-shaped column of spiraling air. (p. 51)
topographic map n. a general reference map; a representation of natural and man-made features on the earth. (p. 11)
topography n. the combined characteristics of landforms and their distribution in a region. (p. 36)
Transcaucasia n. a region that consists of the republics of Armenia, Azerbaijan, and Georgia; located between the Caucasus Mountains and the borders of Turkey and Iran. (p. 346)
Trans-Siberian Railroad n. a railroad that would eventually link Moscow to the Pacific port of Vladivostok; built between 1891 and 1903. (p. 355)
Treaty of Tordesillas n. a treaty between Spain and Portugal in 1494 that gave Portugal control over the land that is present-day Brazil. (p. 236)
Treaty of Waitangi n. the treaty signed by the British and Maori in 1840 giving Britain control over New Zealand. (p. 719)
tsunami (tsu•NAH•mee) n. a giant ocean wave, caused by an underwater earthquake or volcanic eruption, with great destructive power. (pp. 40, 662)
tuberculosis n. a respiratory infection spread by human contact, which often accompanies AIDS. (p. 466)
tundra n. the flat treeless lands forming a ring around the Arctic Ocean; the climate region of the Arctic Ocean. (p. 63)
typhoon n. a tropical storm, like a hurricane, that occurs in the western Pacific. (pp. 51, 625)

U

USSR n. the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, or Soviet Union, formed in 1922 by the Communists and officially dissolved in 1991. (p. 363)
UNICEF (United Nations Children’s Fund) n. an international watchdog and relief organization for children. (p. 665)
United Provinces of Central America n. the name of Central America after the region declared independence from Mexico in 1823. (p. 223)
upland n. a hill or very low mountain that may also contain mesas and high plateaus. (p. 275)
Ural Mountains n. the mountain ranges that separate the Northern European and West Siberian plains and used as the dividing line between Europe and Asia. (p. 346)
urban geography n. the study of how people use space in cities. (p. 87)
urbanization n. the dramatic rise in the number of cities and the changes in lifestyle that result. (p. 88)
urban sprawl n. poorly planned development that spreads a city’s population over a wider and wider geographic area. (p. 176)

V

volcano n. a natural event, formed when magma, gases, and water from the lower part of the crust or mantle collect in underground chambers and eventually erupt and pour out of cracks in the earth’s surface. (p. 40)

W

voyaging canoe n. a large ship developed by Pacific Islanders to sail the ocean. (p. 699)
wadi n. a riverbed that remains dry except during the rainy seasons. (p. 488)
water table n. the level at which rock is saturated. (p. 33)
weather n. the condition of the atmosphere at a particular location and time. (p. 50)
weathering n. physical and chemical processes that change the characteristics of rock on or near the earth’s surface, occurring slowly over many years. (p. 42)
West n. North American region, consisting of 13 states, that stretches from the Great Plains to the Pacific Ocean and includes Alaska to the north and Hawaii in the Pacific. (p. 148)
West Bank n. in Israel, a strip of land on the west side of the Jordan River, originally controlled by Jordan, which is part of the land set aside for Arab Palestinians. (p. 527)
Western Wall n. for Jews, the holiest site in Jerusalem; the only remaining portion of the Second Temple, built in 538 B.C. and destroyed in A.D. 70 by the Romans. (p. 510)
Wik Case n. in Australia, the court ruled in this case that Aboriginal people could claim land held under a pastoral lease. (p. 729)
winter monsoon n. the season when dry winds blow from the northeast across the Himalaya Mountains toward the sea from October through February, sometimes causing drought. (p. 597)

X

Xi Jiang (shee JYAHNG) n. also called the West River; the river that flows eastward through southeast China and joins the Pearl River (Zhu Jiang) to flow into the South China Sea, forming an estuary between Hong Kong and Macao. (p. 621)

Y

yurt n. a tent of Central Asia’s nomads. (p. 379)

Z

Zionism n. a movement that began in the 19th century to reestablish a Jewish state in the Jewish homeland. (p. 511)
Zuider Zee (ZEYE•duhr ZAY) n. former inlet of the North Sea in the Netherlands. (p. 283)
Aboriginal people [Aborígenes] s. gente que emigró a Australia desde Asia, hace al menos 40,000 años; los pobladores originales de la tierra. (p. 718)

absolute location [ubicación absoluta] s. el lugar exacto en la Tierra donde se encuentra un accidente geográfico. (p. 6)

acculturation [aculturación] s. el cambio cultural que ocurre cuando las personas en una sociedad aceptan o adoptan una innovación. (p. 72)

acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) [síndrome de inmunodeficiencia adquirida (SIDA)] s. enfermedad producida por el virus de la inmunodeficiencia humana o VIH. (p. 485)

Aksum [Aksum] s. una importante capital comercial desde el s. I al s. VIII de nuestra era, situada en lo que hoy es Etiopía; floreció debido a su ubicación junto al Mar Rojo y el Océano Índico. (p. 431)

alluvial plain [llanura aluvial] s. tierra fértil para la labranza, formada por depósitos de arcilla, limo, arena o grava producidos por las aguas corrientes. (p. 553)

Amazon River [Río Amazonas] s. el segundo río más largo del mundo y uno de los tres principales sistemas fluviales de América del Sur. Se extiende unas 4,000 millas (6,436 km) de oeste a este y desemboca en el Océano Atlántico. (p. 203)

Andes Mountains [Cordillera de los Andes] s. una larga cordillera que se extiende a lo largo de la costa del Pacífico de Centroamérica y América del Sur. (p. 201)

anti-Semitism [antisemitismo] s. discriminación contra los judíos. (p. 315)

apartheid [apartheid] (a-par-zeid) s. política de separación completa de las razas, implementada por el gobierno de la minoría blanca de Sudáfrica en 1948. (p. 456)

Appalachian Mountains [Montes Apalaches] s. una de las dos cordilleras más importantes en la región Este de los Estados Unidos y Canadá, que se extiende 1,600 millas (2,575 km) desde Terranova (Newfoundland) hacia el sur hasta Alabama. (p. 119)

aqueduct [acueducto] s. estructura para transportar agua por largas distancias. (p. 292)

aquifer [acuífero] s. capa subterránea de roca donde se almacena agua. (p. 421)

archipelago [archipiélago] s. grupo de islas cercanas. (pp. 553, 689)

ASEAN [ANSA] s. Asociación de Naciones del Sudeste Asiático, una alianza que promueve el desarrollo económico y la paz en la región. (p. 707)

Ashanti [Ashanti] s. gente que vive en lo que es ahora Ghana, en África Occidental, renombrada por sus diseños artísticos de ropa asaia o kente que usa la realeza. (p. 444)

assimilation [asimilación] s. proceso por el cual un grupo minoritario gradualmente se desprende de su propia cultura y adopta la cultura del grupo mayoritario. (p. 728)

Aswan High Dam [La gran presa de Asuán] s. presa en el río Nilo de Egipto, construida en 1970, la cual aumentó las tierras arables de Egipto en un 50 por ciento y las protegió contra las sequías y las inundaciones. (p. 426)

Atlantic Provinces [Las provincias atlánticas] s. las provincias en la región este del Canadá: Isla Príncipe Eduardo, Nueva Brunswick, Nueva Escocia y Terranova o Newfoundland. (p. 166)

atmosphere [atmósfera] s. las capas gaseosas que envuelven inmediatamente la Tierra. (p. 28)

atoll [atolón] s. isla coralina en forma anular o un conjunto de pequeñas islas que rodean una laguna central. (pp. 553, 700)

balkanization [balcanización] s. proceso por el cual una región se fragmenta en unidades pequeñas, mutuamente hostiles. (p. 311)

Baltic Republics [Países Bálticos] s. los países de Latvia, Lituania y Estonia, ubicados en la costa este del mar Báltico. (p. 361)

Bantu migration [migración bantu] s. desplazamiento de los pueblos bantu hacia el sur a través de África, que propagaron su lengua y su cultura desde alrededor del año 500 antes de nuestra era hasta alrededor del año 1000 de nuestra era. (p. 448)

basic necessity [necesidades básicas] s. alimentos, ropa y vivienda. (p. 593)

Benelux [Benelux] s. la unión económica de Bélgica, Países Bajos (Nederland) y Luxemburgo. (p. 296)

Beringia [Behring] s. puente de tierra que se cree conectaba lo que son ahora Siberia y Alaska. (p. 127)

Berlin Conference [Conferencia de Berlín] s. una conferencia de 14 países europeos realizada en 1884-1885 en Berlín, Alemania, para establecer normas de control político de África. (p. 432)

Berlin Wall [Muro de Berlín] s. muro construido por Alemania Oriental en 1961 para dividir la capital de Berlín en dos, derruido en 1989. (p. 298)

Bikini Atoll [Atolón Bikini] s. arrecife aislado en las Islas Marshall del Pacífico central, donde se efectuaron experimentos de bombas nucleares estadounidenses, lo que contaminó el atolón con altos niveles de radiación, y ahuyentó a sus habitantes. (p. 700)

biodiversity [biodiversidad] s. la variedad de organismos en un ecosistema. (p. 245)

biological weapon [arma biológica] s. bacteria o virus que se puede utilizar para dañar o matar personas, animales o plantas. (p. 175)

biome [bioma] s. un ecosistema regional. (p. 65)

biosphere [biósfera] s. todas las partes de la Tierra donde viven plantas y animales, incluyendo la atmósfera, la litosfera y la hidrosfera. (p. 28)

birthrate [índice de natalidad] s. el número de nacimientos vivos por total de la población, con frecuencia expresado por miles de habitantes. (p. 78)

blizzard [ventisca] s. tormenta de nieve fuerte con vientos de más de 35 millas (55 km) por hora y visibilidad reducida de menos de un cuarto de milla (0.40 km). (p. 52)

Boxer Rebellion [Guerra de los bóxers] s. rebelión en China en 1900, producida por militantes chinos enfurecidos, o bóxers, por el control extranjero; cientos de europeos, cristianos y chinos murieron. (p. 636)

British Columbia [Columbia Británica] s. la provincia más occidental de Canadá en las Montañas Rocosas. (p. 169)

Buddhism [Budismo] s. religión originada en la India por el año 500 antes de nuestra era, que se extendió hacia China, donde se convirtió en una religión importante alrededor del año 400 de nuestra era. (p. 638)

calypso [calypso] s. estilo de música que comenzó en Trinidad y combina elementos musicales de África, España y el Caribe. (p. 227)

Canadian Shield [escudo canadiense] s. parte norteña de las tierras bajas interiores que es una región rocosa y plana que cubre casi dos millones de millas cuadradas (cinco millones doscientos mil kilómetros cuadrados) y encierra la Bahía de Hudson. (p. 119)

canopy [bóveda] s. área que comprende la parte superior de los árboles en una selva tropical, a unos 150 pies (45 metros) sobre el suelo. (p. 422)

capoeira [capoeira] s. arte marcial y danza que desarrollaron en Brasil los angolanos que fueron llevados allí desde el África por los portugueses. (p. 239)

carnival [Carnaval] s. el día de fiesta más llamativo de Brasil. (p. 239)
SPANISH GLOSSARY

**carrying capacity** [capacidad de soporte] s. número de organismos que un pedazo de terreno puede soportar sin efectos negativos. (p. 82)

**Carthage** [Cartago] s. uno de los grandes imperios de África en la antigüedad, situado en una península triangular en el Golfo de Túnez en la costa del Mar Mediterráneo. (p. 438)

**cartographer** [cartógrafo] s. persona que levanta mapas. (p. 10)

**cash crop** [cultivo industrial o comercial] s. producto cultivado para la venta directa y no para uso en una región, como café, té y azúcar en África. (p. 433)

**caste system** [sistema de castas] s. el sistema ario de clases sociales en la India y uno de los pilares del hinduismo en el cual cada persona nace dentro de una casta y sólo puede pasar a otra casta mediante la reencarnación. (p. 571)

**Caucasus** [Cáucaso] s. región que comprende el sistema montañoso del mismo nombre y se extiende entre el mar Negro y el Caspio. (p. 385)

**caudillo** [caudillo] s. dictador militar o líder político. (p. 249)

**Central Asia** [Asia Central] s. región que incluye las repúblicas de Kazajistán, Kirguistán, Tayikistán, Turkmenistán y Uzbekistán. (p. 346)

**central business district (CBD)** [distrito comercial central (DCC)] s. el centro de una ciudad, en el cual casi siempre se desarrollan actividades comerciales. (p. 89)

**cerrado** [cerrado] s. una sabana que tiene terreno plano y lluvias moderadas, lo que la hace apta para la agricultura. (p. 202)

**Chang Jiang** [Chang Jiang] s. (o Río Yang-tse) el río más largo del Asia, que fluye unas 3.900 millas (6.275 km) desde Xizang (Tibet) hasta el mar de la China oriental. (p. 621)

**Chaparral** [chaparral] s. término, en algunos lugares, para una bioma de árboles resistentes a la sequía. (p. 66)

**Chechnya** [Chechenia] s. una de las repúblicas que continúa siendo parte de Rusia después del colapso de la Unión Soviética a pesar de los movimientos independentistas y levantamientos violentos. (p. 386)

**chemical weathering** [meteorización química] s. proceso por el cual una roca se convierte en una nueva sustancia a través de la interacción entre los elementos en el aire o el agua y los minerales en la roca. (p. 43)

**chemozen** [quimiozen] s. capa superior negra del suelo, una de las tierras más fértil del mundo. (p. 345)

**cholera** s. enfermedad infecciosa tratable que puede ser mortal y es producida por la falta de medidas higiénicas adecuadas y de suministro de agua limpia. (p. 465)

**city** [ciudad] s. zona que es el centro de los negocios y la cultura y tiene una población numerosa. (p. 87)

**city-state** [ciudad-estado] s. una unidad política autónoma compuesta por una ciudad y los terrenos circundantes. (p. 289)

**climate** [clima] s. las condiciones atmosféricas típicas de un lugar específico que se observan con el tiempo. (p. 50)

**coalition** [coalición] s. alianza. (p. 174)

**Cold War** [Guerra Fría] s. el conflicto entre los Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética después de la II Guerra Mundial, llamada “fría” porque nunca se intensificó hasta el grado de convertirse en una guerra abierta. (p. 363)

**collective farm** [granja colectiva] s. un gran equipo de peones reunidos para trabajar juntos en enormes granjas en la Unión Soviética, durante el gobierno de Josif Stalin. (p. 364)

**Columbian Exchange** [Intercambio Colombino] s. el intercambio de plantas, animales y enfermedades entre el hemisferio oriental y el hemisferio occidental durante la era de las exploraciones. (p. 136)

**command economy** [economía dirigida] s. tipo de sistema económico en el cual la producción de bienes y servicios es determinada por un gobierno central, el cual usualmente es dueño de los medios de producción. Llamado también “economía planificada”. (pp. 91, 364)

**commodity** [bien de consumo] s. un producto agrícola o de minería que se puede vender. (p. 462)

**communism** [comunismo] s. sistema en el cual el gobierno retiene casi todo el poder político y los medios de producción. (p. 83)

**confederación** [confederación] s. una unión política. (p. 156)

**Confucianism** [Confucianismo] s. movimiento basado en las enseñanzas de Confucio, filósofo chino que vivió alrededor del año 500 antes de nuestra era; Confucio enfatizaba la importancia de la educación en una sociedad ordenada en la cual las personas respetan a sus mayores y obedecen al gobierno. (p. 638)

**coniferous** [conífero] adj. otro término para los árboles de hojas perennes y acículares. (p. 66)

**constitutional monarchy** [monarquía constitucional] s. sistema de gobierno en el cual los poderes del gobernante están limitados por una constitución y las leyes de la nación. (p. 580)

**continent** [continente] s. una masa de tierra firme sobre el agua en la Tierra. (p. 27)

**Continental Divide** [La Divisoria Continental] s. la línea de los picos más altos en América del Norte que marca la separación entre los ríos que fluyen hacia el este y hacia el oeste. (p. 120)

**continental drift** [deriva de los continentes] s. la hipótesis de que los continentes fueron una vez un supercontinente que se dividió lentamente a través de millones de años. (p. 29)

**continuity** [continuidad] s. la distancia de una región de la influencia moderadora del mar. (p. 350)

**continental shelf** [plataforma continental] s. la superficie de la Tierra desde el borde de un continente hasta la parte profunda del océano. (p. 36)

**convection** [convección] s. la transferencia de calor en la atmósfera por el movimiento ascendente del aire. (p. 54)

**copra** s. la pulpa seca del coco. (p. 714)

**core** s. el núcleo de la Tierra, compuesto de hierro y níquel; el centro interior es sólido, el centro exterior es líquido. (p. 28)

**crude oil** [petróleo crudo] s. petróleo que no ha sido procesado. (p. 497)

**Crusades** [Cruzadas] s. una serie de guerras impulsadas por los cristianos europeos en 1096 para recuperar la Tierra Santa (Palestina) de los musulmanes. (p. 291)

**crust** [corteza] s. la capa delgada de rocas que compone la superficie de la Tierra. (p. 28)

**cultural crossroad** [cruce cultural] s. un lugar donde convergen varias culturas. (p. 310)

**cultural hearth** [centro cultural] s. el centro o lugar de origen de una cultura importante; un lugar de innovaciones desde el cual se difunden ideas, materiales y tecnologías fundamentales a otras culturas. (pp. 72, 222)

**culture** [cultura] s. el total de conocimientos, actitudes y comportamientos compartidos y transmitidos por los miembros de un grupo. (p. 71)

**cyclone** s. una tormenta violenta con vientos fuertes y mucha lluvia; el patrón climatológico más extremo del Asia Meridional. (p. 558)

**czar** [zar] s. el emperador de Rusia antes de la Revolución de 1917 y de la subsiguiente creación de la Unión Soviética en 1922. (p. 362)

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**Dead Sea** [Mar Muerto] s. lago salado, sin salida al mar, entre Israel y Jordania, con un nivel de salinidad tan alto que casi nada puede vivir en sus aguas; se encuentra a 1.349 pies (411 m) por debajo del nivel del mar, lo que lo convierte en el lugar más bajo en la corteza expuesta de la Tierra. (p. 489)
debt-for-nature swap [Intercambio de deuda por naturaleza] s. acuerdo para reducir una deuda por el cual una organización acepta pagar cierta cantidad de una deuda gubernamental a cambio de protección gubernamental de cierta parte de una selva tropical. (p. 247)
deciduous [caducifolio] adj. característica de los árboles de hojas anchas, como el arce, el roble, el abedul y el álamo de Virginia. (p. 66)
deforestation [deforestación] s. el corte y la eliminación de árboles y bosques. (p. 246)
delta [delta] s. zona de forma de abanico formada por sedimentos depositados dejados por un río que disminuye su velocidad al desembocar en el océano. (p. 43)
democracy [democracia] s. tipo de gobierno en el cual los ciudadanos ejercen el poder político sea directamente o mediante representantes elegidos. (p. 83)
desalination [desalinización] s. la eliminación de sal del agua del océano. (p. 496)
desertification [desertización] s. ampliación de condiciones secas a zonas húmedas que se encuentran próximas a desiertos. (p. 424)
dialect [diálecto] s. una versión de un idioma que refleja cambios en patrones de habla por factores relacionados con cambios de clase, regionales o culturales. (p. 73)
dictatorship [dictadura] s. tipo de gobierno en el cual un individuo o grupo de individuos tienen el poder político completo. (p. 83)
diffusion [difusión] s. la diseminación de ideas, invenciones o patrones de comportamiento hacia otras sociedades. (p. 72)
dike [dique] s. muro de tierra usado para contener o desviar el curso de las aguas. (p. 282)
distance decay [deterioro de la distancia] s. término que se refiere al concepto de que a mayor distancia entre dos puntos, menor interacción entre los mismos. (p. 389)
diverse [diversificar] v. aumentar la variedad de productos en la economía de un país; promover la industria fabril y otras industrias con el propósito de lograr el desarrollo y la estabilidad. (p. 462)
Dome of the Rock [Cúpula de la Roca] s. un santuario en Jerusalén, ubicado en el monte del Templo, que contiene el lugar donde los musulmanes creen que Mahoma se elevó a los cielos y donde los judíos creen que Abraham preparó el sacrificio de su hijo Isaac a Dios. (p. 511)
Dominion of Canada [Dominio de Canadá] s. la amplia confederación de Ontario (Alto Canadá), Quebec (Bajo Canadá), Nueva Escocia y Nuevo Brunswick, creada por el Acta de la América del Norte Británica en 1867. (p. 156)
drainage basin [cuencas de drenaje] s. una zona drenada por un río importante y sus afluentes. (p. 33)
drip irrigation [irrigación por goteo] s. la práctica de usar tubos pequeños que lentamente gotean agua justo sobre el suelo para conservar agua para usarse en los cultivos. (p. 496)
drought [sequía] s. un largo período sin lluvia o con precipitación mínima. (p. 53)
dynasty [dinastía] s. una serie de gobernantes de la misma familia. (p. 635)
earthquake [terremoto] s. un movimiento a veces violento de la tierra, producido cuando placas tectónicas se tocan o deslizan una sobre otra en una falla. (p. 39)
economic system [sistema económico] s. la forma como la gente produce e intercambia bienes. (p. 91)
economic tiger [tigre económico] s. un país con rápido crecimiento económico debido al bajo coste de la mano de obra, la alta tecnología y las exportaciones agresivas. (p. 645)
economy [economía] s. la producción y el intercambio de bienes y servicios entre un grupo de personas. (p. 91)
ecosystem [ecosistema] s. una comunidad interdependiente de plantas y animales. (p. 65)
El Niño [El Niño] s. un patrón meteorológico creado por el calentamiento de las aguas de las costas occidentales de América del Sur, que empuja aguas cálidas y fuertes lluvias hacia el continente americano y produce condiciones de sequía en Australia y Asia. (p. 57)
entrepreneur [empresario] s. persona que inicia y desarrolla un negocio. (p. 575)
epicenter [epicentro] s. el punto en la superficie terrestre que corresponde a la ubicación en la Tierra donde comienza un terremoto. (p. 39)
equator [ecuador] s. la línea imaginaria que rodea la esfera terrestre, dividiendo la Tierra en las mitades norte y sur. (p. 6)
equinox [equinoccio] s. cada uno de los dos días del año en los cuales el día y la noche tienen la misma duración; marca el comienzo de la primavera y el otoño. (p. 49)
erosion [erosión] s. el resultado del desgaste de la materia producido por la acción del viento, el agua, el hielo o la gravedad. (p. 43)
escarpment [escarpa] s. declive empinado de un terreno con una meseta casi plana en la cima. (p. 417)
estuary [estuario] s. desembocadura de un río con una amplia apertura por donde las corrientes del río chocan con las mareas del océano. (p. 563)
economic cleansing [limpieza étnica] s. la política de tratar de eliminar a un grupo étnico. (p. 320)
economic group [grupo étnico] s. un grupo de personas que comparten un idioma, costumbres y una herencia común. (p. 71)
Euphrates River [Río Éufrates] s. un río en el Sudoeste asiático que sirvió de apoyo a varias civilizaciones antiguas, fluye a través de regiones de Turquía, Siria e Irak y desemboca en el Golfo Pérsico. (p. 489)
Eurasia [Eurasia] s. los continentes combinados de Europa y Asia. (p. 346)
euro [euro] s. moneda común propuesta por la Unión Europea para sus naciones miembros. (p. 305)
European Environmental Agency [Agencia Europea del Medio Ambiental] s. esta agencia proporciona a la Unión Europea información confiable sobre el medio ambiente. (p. 324)
Everglades [Everglades] s. una amplia zona de terrenos pantanosos subtropicales en la Florida, de cerca de 4.000 millas cuadradas (10.400 kilómetros cuadrados). (p. 126)
export [exportación] s. un producto o bien que se vende desde una economía a otra. (p. 140)

F

Fang sculpture [esculturas de los fangs] s. cajas talladas que contienen las calaveras y los huesos de los antepasados muertos, creadas por los fangs, que vivieron en Gabón, la región sur de Camerún y Guinea Ecuatorial. (p. 451)
fault [falla] s. una fractura en la corteza terrestre. (p. 39)
folk art [arte folcúrico] s. artículos hechos a mano, como cerámica, objetos tallados en madera y trajes tradicionales, elaborados por habitantes de zonas rurales que llevan estilos de vida tradicionales, no por artistas profesionales. (p. 314)
federal republic [república federal] s. una nación cuyos poderes están divididos entre el gobierno federal o nacional y varios gobiernos estatales o locales. (p. 139)
federalism [federaлизm] s. un sistema político imperante en Europa entre el s. IX y el s. XV, en el cual el rey permitía a los nobles el uso de sus tierras a cambio de servicios militares y la protección de la tierra. (p. 297)
fertility rate [índice de fertilidad] s. el número promedio de hijos que una mujer en edad fértil tendría durante su vida si tuviese hijos de acuerdo con el índice vigente para su país. (p. 78)
First Nations [Primeras Naciones] s. un grupo de indígenas del Canadá. (p. 159)
**G**

Ganges River [Río Ganges] s. río en el Sur de Asia, un importante recurso acuático que fluye más de 1.500 millas (2.415 km) desde su fuente en un glaciar del Himalaya hasta la Bahía de Bengala. (p. 560)

Gaza Strip [Franja de Gaza] s. territorio a lo largo del Mar Mediterráneo, justo al noreste de la Península del Sinaí; parte del territorio asignado a los palestinos y que fue ocupado por Israel en 1967. (p. 527)

Geographic Information System (GIS) [Sistema de Información Geográfica (GIS por sus siglas en inglés)] s. tecnología que usa información de mapas digitalizados para crear un banco de datos; diferentes “capas de datos” pueden combinarse para producir mapas especializados. El GIS permite a los geógrafos analizar diferentes aspectos de un lugar específico para resolver problemas. (p. 13)

geography [geografía] s. estudio de la distribución y la interacción de las características físicas y humanas de la Tierra. (p. 5)

glaciation [glaciación] s. cambios en los accidentes geográficos debido al lento movimiento de los glaciares. (p. 44)

glacier [glaciar] s. una masa de hielo grande y duradera que se mueve debido al efecto de la gravedad. (p. 44)

global economy [economía global] s. la fusión de economías regionales por la cual las naciones se vuelven dependientes unas de otras para la producción de bienes y servicios. (p. 666)

global network [red mundial] s. grupo que se mantiene conectado alrededor del mundo. (p. 173)

global warming [calentamiento global] s. la acumulación de dióxido de carbono (anhidrido carbónico) en la atmósfera, lo que evita que el calor escape al espacio, aumentando las temperaturas y ocasionando cambios en las condiciones meteorológicas. (p. 246)

globe [globo] s. una representación tridimensional de la Tierra. (p. 10)

Gobi Desert [Desierto de Gobi] s. desierto ubicado en el norte de China y en el sudeste de Mongolia, zona importante para la localización de fósiles de dinosaurios. (p. 627)

Golan Heights [Altos del Golán] s. meseta montañosa que se eleva sobre el Río Jordán y el Mar de Galilea; un punto estratégico que ha sido sitio de conflictos en el Sudeste asiático durante décadas. (p. 487)

Gorée Island [Isla de Gorée] s. isla en las costas de Senegal que sirvió como importante punto de partida de esclavos durante el tráfico de esclavos. (p. 442)

Great Barrier Reef [La Gran Barrera de Coral] s. una cadena de 1.250 millas (2.000 km) de más de 2.500 arrecifes e islotes a lo largo de la costa noreste de Australia, que contiene unas 400 especies de coral. (p. 692)

Great Game [El Gran Juego] s. un conflicto entre el Imperio Británico y el Imperio Ruso por el control del Asia Central en el s. XIX. (p. 376)

Great Kanto Earthquake [El Gran Terremoto de Kanto] s. terremoto ocurrido en 1923 en Japón que causó la muerte de aproximadamente 140.000 personas y dejó la ciudad de Tokio en ruinas. (p. 662)

Great Lakes [Grandes Lagos] s. grupo de cinco lagos de agua dulce en la región central de América del Norte entre los Estados Unidos y Canadá; los lagos son el Hurón, el Ontario, el Michigan, el Erie y el Superior. (p. 121)

Great Plains [Grandes Llanuras] s. una amplia zona de praderas en la región central de América del Norte, carente de árboles en su mayor parte, que se eleva hasta 4.000 pies (1.200 metros) sobre el nivel del mar. (p. 119)

Great Zimbabwe [El Gran Zimbabwe] s. un emplazamiento urbano en lo que es hoy Zimbabwe fundado por los shonas alrededor del año 1000; se convirtió en la capital de una próspera zona de comercio de oro. (p. 453)

greenhouse effect [efecto invernadero] s. la capa de gases emitidos por la quema de carbón y petróleo que atapa la energía solar, elevando la temperatura de la Tierra. (p. 58)

Green Revolution [La Revolución Verde] s. programa agrícola lanzado por científicos en la década de 1960 para producir variedades de granos de mayor rendimiento y mejorar la producción de alimentos incorporando nuevas técnicas de labranza. (p. 569)

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) [Producto Interior Bruto (PIB)] s. el valor de sólo bienes y servicios producidos en un país durante un período determinado. (p. 95)

Gross National Product (GNP) [Producto Nacional Bruto (PNB)] s. el valor total de todos los bienes y servicios producidos por un país durante un período determinado. (p. 94)

ground water [agua subterránea] s. agua retenida debajo de la superficie terrestre, con frecuencia en y alrededor de los poros de las rocas. (p. 33)

guest worker [trabajador invitado] s. trabajadores poco calificados, a menudo inmigrantes del Sur y el Este de Asia, trasladados a los países productores de petróleo para ocupar puestos de trabajo que las personas nacidas en la región consideran cultural y económicamente inaceptables. (p. 525)

**H**

hemisphere [hemisferio] s. cada una de las dos mitades de la esfera terrestre. (p. 6)

high islands [Islas altas] s. islotes del Pacífico creadas por volcanes. (p. 691)

Himalaya Mountains [Himalaya] s. cordillera del Sur de Asia que incluye el Monte Everest, el pico más alto del mundo. (p. 551)

Hinduism [Hinduismo] s. la religión dominante en la India. (p. 560)

Holocaust [Holocausto] s. programa de los nazis de asesinatos masivos de judíos europeos durante la II Guerra Mundial. (p. 298)

Huang He [Huang He] s. río del Norte de China, llamado también Río Amarillo, que nace en las Montañas Kunlun y se extiende unas 3.000 millas (4.800 km) hacia el Este, desembocando en el mar Amarillo. (p. 621)

human resources [recursos humanos] s. las aptitudes y los talentos de la gente que trabaja. (p. 531)

humus [humus] s. material orgánico en el suelo. (p. 45)

hurricane [huracán] s. una tormenta que se forma sobre las aguas cálidas de los océanos tropicales. (p. 51)

hydrologic cycle [ciclo hidrológico] s. la continuación circulación de agua entre la atmósfera, los océanos y la Tierra. (p. 32)

hydrosphere [hidrosfera] s. las aguas que comprenden la superficie de la Tierra, incluyendo océanos, mares, ríos y el vapor en la atmósfera. (p. 28)

**I**

Ijsselmeer [Ijsselmeer] s. lago de agua dulce separado del Mar del Norte por un dique y bordeado por polders. (p. 283)

illiteracy [analfabetismo] s. la incapacidad de leer o escribir. (p. 593)

Inca [Inca] s. miembro del pueblo quechua en América del Sur, que desarrolló una civilización en los Andes en los siglos XV y XVI. (p. 230)

Indochina [Indochina] s. colonia francesa compuesta por Camboya, Laos y Vietnam; obtuvo la independencia de Francia en 1954. (p. 707)
industrialization [industrialización] s. el desarrollo de la industria en un país o en una sociedad. (p. 730)

Indus Valley civilization [Civilización del Valle del Indo] s. la más grande de las primeras civilizaciones del mundo en lo que hoy es Pakistán; fue una civilización urbana altamente desarrollada, que duró desde el 2500 hasta cerca del 1500 antes de nuestra era. (p. 573)

infant mortality rate [índice de mortalidad infantil] s. el número de muertes de niños menores de un año, calculado por cada mil nacimientos vivos. (p. 79)

infrastructure [infraestructura] s. los sistemas básicos de apoyo necesarios para mantener una economía en desarrollo, que incluyen sistemas de suministro de energía, comunicaciones, transporte, aguas, servicios sanitarios y educación. (pp. 94, 177, 212)

innovation [innovación] s. tomar los elementos existentes en una sociedad para crear algo nuevo con el propósito de satisfacer una necesidad. (p. 72)

Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) [Partido Revolucionario Institucional (PRI)] s. partido político creado en México, en 1929, que ayudó a introducir la democracia y mantener la estabilidad política durante la mayor parte del siglo XX. (p. 218)

Islam [Islam] s. religión monotheísta basada en las enseñanzas del profeta Mahoma y la mayor influencia cultural y religiosa en el Norte de África. (pp. 439, 503)

Jakota Triangle [Triángulo de Jakota] s. zona de prosperidad en la década de 1980 y comienzos de la década de 1990, que comprende Japón, Corea del Sur y Taiwán. (p. 666)

Jordan River [Río Jordán] s. río que sirve como frontera natural entre Israel y Jordania, y fluye desde los montes de Libano sin desembocar en el Mar Mediterráneo. (p. 489)

junta [junta] s. gobierno dirigido por generales después de un golpe militar. (p. 249)

Kashmir [Cachemira (Kashmir)] s. región del Norte de la India y Pakistán sobre la que se han librado varias guerras destructivas. (p. 574)

Khmer Empire [Imperio Khmer] s. poderoso imperio que duró aproximadamente del siglo IX al siglo XV, en lo que hoy es Camboya. (p. 706)

King Leopold II [Rey Leopoldo II] s. rey de Bélgica que abrió el interior del África al comercio europeo a lo largo del río Congo y para 1884 controlaba la zona conocida como el Estado Libre del Congo. (p. 449)

KLA (Kosovo Liberation Army) [ELK (Ejército de Liberación de Kosovo)] s. grupo que combatió contra los intentos de los serbios de controlar la región de Kosovo en la década de 1990. (p. 321)

Kunlun Mountains [Cordillera Kunlun] s. cordillera ubicada en el Oeste de China que es la fuente de dos de los principales ríos de China, el Huang He (río Amarillo) y el Chang Jiang (Yangtze). (p. 619)

Kurds [Kurdos] s. grupo étnico en el sudoeste de Asia, que ha ocupado la región de Kurdistán, ubicada en Turquía, Irak e Irán, por cerca de mil años, y que ha estado involucrado en enfrentamientos con estos tres países por recobrar tierras durante la mayor parte del siglo XX. (p. 516)

Landfill [vertedero] s. método de eliminación de residuos sólidos por el cual los residuos son enterrados entre capas de tierra con el propósito de rellenar o recuperar terrenos bajos. (p. 631)

Landform [accidente geográfico] s. una característica de la superficie terrestre formada naturalmente. (p. 33)

landlocked [sin litoral] adj. que no tiene salida al mar. (p. 84)

land reform [reforma agraria] s. proceso por el cual se dividen grandes latifundios con el propósito de lograr una distribución más equitativa de la tierra entre los agricultores. (pp. 250, 569)

Land Rights Act of 1976 [Ley de Derechos de Tierra de 1976] s. una ley especial promulgada en beneficio de los derechos de los aborígenes en Australia, dándoles el derecho de reclamar tierras en el Territorio Norte. (p. 726)

Landsat [Landsat] s. una serie de satélites que orbitan a más de 100 millas (160 km) sobre la Tierra. Cada satélite recoge información en una zona de 115 millas (185 km) de ancho. (p. 12)

latitude (lines) [latitudes (líneas)] s. un conjunto de líneas imaginarias que corren paralelas al ecuador, las cuales son usadas para localizar lugares al Norte y al Sur. El ecuador es denominado la línea de cero grados de latitud. (p. 6)

Java [Java] s. isla que ha llegado hasta la superficie terrestre. (p. 40)

lithosphere [litosfera] s. la capa de roca sólida de la superficie terrestre. (p. 28)

llanos [llanos] s. una extensa zona de praderas sin árboles de América del Sur, utilizada para pastoreo y labranza. (p. 202)

lock [esclusa] s. una sección de una vía acuática con puertas de entrada y salida donde se llenan o vacían de agua los espacios entre las mismas, a través de las cuales pasan los barcos. (p. 129)

loess [loess] s. sedimentos de limo o arcilla depositados por el viento que producen tierras muy férteles. (p. 44)

longitude (lines) [longitud (líneas)] s. un conjunto de líneas imaginarias que circundan la Tierra por los polos, dividiéndola en las zonas Este y Oeste. El primer meridiano (meridiano de Greenwich) ha sido designado como la línea de cero grados para longitud. (p. 6)

Louisiana Purchase [La Compra de Luisiana] s. el territorio, incluyendo la región entre el río Mississippi y las Montañas Rocosas, que los Estados Unidos compró a Francia en 1803. (p. 136)

low islands [Islas bajas] s. islas del Pacífico formadas por arrecifes de coral. (p. 691)

Mabo Case [el caso Mabo] s. en Australia, el proceso jurídico por el cual se declaró con lugar la reclamación de tierra del aborigen Eddie Mabo, por medio del cual el tribunal reconoció que los aborígenes eran dueños de tierras antes de la llegada de los británicos. (p. 728)

Mackenzie River [Río Mackenzie] s. el río más largo del Canadá, el cual es parte de un sistema fluvial que fluye a lo largo de los Territorios del Noroeste hasta el Océano Ártico. (p. 121)

magma [magma] s. material de roca fundida creada cuando roca sólida en el manto o corteza funde. (p. 28)

malaria [malária] s. enfermedad infecciosa de los glóbulos rojos propagada por mosquitos, que se caracteriza por escalofríos, fiebre y sudor. (p. 466)

mandala [mandala] s. diseño geométrico usado en el budismo tibetano como símbolo del universo y que ayuda en la meditación. (p. 583)

mandala [mandala] s. un estado organizado como un anillo de poder alrededor de una corte central, que con frecuencia cambiaba de tamaño con el tiempo y que era usado en lugar de fronteras en los antiguos estados del sudeste asiático. (p. 705)

mante [manto] s. una capa de roca de unas 1.800 millas (2.896 km) que está entre la corteza y el centro de la Tierra. (p. 28)

Maori [Maori] s. los primeros pobladores de Nueva Zelanda, que emigraron de Polinesia hace más de 1.000 años. (p. 719)

Mao Zedong [Mao Zedong] s. líder de China comunista que derrotó a los Nacionalistas en 1949; falleció en 1976. (p. 636)
map projection [proyección cartográfica] s. una forma de trazar el mapa de la superficie de la Tierra que reduce la distorsión causada convirtiendo tres dimensiones en dos dimensiones. (p. 10)

map [mapa] s. representación gráfica bidimensional de partes selectas de la superficie de la Tierra. (p. 10)

maquiladora [maquiladora] s. fábrica en México que ensambla materiales importados para convertirlos en productos acabados de exportación. (p. 220)

market economy [economía de mercado] s. tipo de sistema económico en el cual la producción de bienes y servicios se determina por la demanda de los consumidores. Llamado también economía de demanda o capitalismo. (pp. 91, 313)

Massif Central [Massif Central] s. las tierras altas de Francia, que abarcan un sexto del territorio francés. (p. 275)

Mecca [Meca] s. la ciudad más sagrada del Islam, situada en Arabia Saudita, a la que la gente hace peregrinaciones para cumplir con deberes religiosos islámicos. (p. 503)

mechanical weathering [meteorización mecánica] s. proceso natural por el cual las rocas se descomponen en pedazos más pequeños. (p. 42)

megalopolis [megalópolis] s. una región en la cual varias ciudades grandes y las áreas circundantes se unen. (p. 146)

Melanesia [Melanesia] s. región en Oceanía que significa “islas negras.” (p. 713)

Meseta [Meseta] s. la planicie central de España. (p. 275)

Mesopotamia [Mesopotamia] s. una región en el sudeste asiático entre los ríos Tigris y Eufrates, donde se desarrollaron algunas de las civilizaciones más antiguas del mundo; parte del corazón cultural denominado la Media Luna de las tierras fértilles. (p. 516)

métils [métils] s. una persona con antepasados franco-canadienses e indígenas americanos. (p. 161)

metropolitan area [área metropolitana] s. área funcional que incluye una ciudad y los suburbios y exurbios que la rodean, económicamente ligados entre sí. (pp. 87, 148)

microcredit [microcrédito] s. un pequeño préstamo disponible a los empresarios de escasos recursos para ayudar a las empresas pequeñas a desarrollarse y elevar los niveles de vida. (p. 575)

Micronesia [Micronesia] s. una de las tres regiones de Oceanía, el nombre significa “islas pequeñas”. (p. 713)

Midwest [El Medio-Oeste] s. la región que contiene los 12 estados de la zona Norte-Central de los Estados Unidos. (p. 147)

migration [migración] s. el desplazamiento de gente dentro de un mismo país o región. (p. 135)

Mississippi River [Río Mississippi] s. un importante río que fluye de norte a sur por casi todo el largo de los Estados Unidos, desde Minnesota hasta el Golfo de México y forma parte del sistema fluvial más largo del continente. (p. 121)

mistral [mistral] s. viento frío y seco del norte. (p. 279)

Mobutu Sese Seko [Mobutu Sese Seko] s. líder de Zaire, la actual República Democrática del Congo, después de su independencia en la década de 1960 hasta 1997. Puso los negocios del país bajo el control nacional, se benefició de la reorganización y utilizó el ejército para conservar el poder. (p. 450)

monarchy [monarquía] s. tipo de gobierno en el cual una familia gobernante dirigida por un rey o una reina, tiene el poder y puede o no compartirla con organismos ciudadanos. (p. 83)

monsoon [monzón] s. viento estacional, especialmente en el Asia meridional. (p. 558)

moraine [morrena] s. una cadena o colina de rocas transportada y finalmente depositada por un glaciar. (p. 44)

mortality rate [índice de mortalidad] s. el número de muertes por cada mil. (p. 79)

mosque [mezquita] s. un lugar de culto islámico, donde los mahomaan rezan con el rostro orientado hacia la ciudad sagrada de la Meca. (p. 504)

Mount Kilimanjaro [Monte Kilimanjaro] s. un volcán en Tanzania en el África, es el pico más alto de África. (p. 417)

Mughal Empire [Imperio Mughal] s. el imperio musulmán establecido a comienzos del siglo XVI y que se extendió por gran parte de la India, importando nuevas costumbres que algunas veces entraban en conflictos con las de los hindúes nativos. (p. 568)

Muhammad [Mahoma] s. fundador y profeta del Islam, que vivió parte de su vida en la ciudad de la Meca. (p. 503)

multinational [multinacional] s. una compañía que realiza operaciones comerciales en todo el mundo. (p. 142)

Mutapa Empire [Imperio de Monomotapa] s. un estado fundado en el siglo XV por un hombre llamado Mutota y que se extendió por todo lo que hoy es Zimbabwe excepto su parte oriental. (p. 453)

N

Nagomo-Karabakh [Nagorno-Karabakh] s. la zona montañosa de Azerbaiyán, por la cual combatieron Armenia y Azerbaiyán. (p. 386)

nation [nación] s. un grupo de personas con una cultura común que viven en un territorio y tienen un fuerte sentido de unidad. (p. 83)

nationalism [nacionalismo] s. la creencia de que la gente tiene que ser leal con su nación y con las demás personas con la que comparte la tierra, la cultura y la historia. (p. 297)

nation-state [nación-estado] s. nombre de un territorio cuando una nación y un estado ocupan el mismo territorio. (p. 83)

natural resource [ recurso natural] s. material sobre o dentro de la Tierra, como un árbol, un pez o el carbón, que tiene valor económico. (p. 83)

needleleaf [acicular] adj. característica de las hojas de ciertos árboles como el pino, el abeto y el cedro, que se encuentran en las regiones del norte de América del Norte. (p. 454)


Niger delta [Delta del Níger] s. delta del río Níger y zona de Nigeria rica en depósitos de petróleo. (p. 424)

Nile River [Río Nilo] s. el río más largo del mundo, que recorre más de 4,000 millas (6.436 km) a través de la cuenca del Sudán, hasta Uganda, el Sudán y Egipto. (p. 416)

nomad [nómada] s. persona que no tiene residencia permanente y se traslada según las estaciones de un lugar a otro en busca de alimentos, agua y tierra para pastoreo. (p. 127, 378)

nonviolent resistance [resistencia pacífica] s. un movimiento que usa todos los medios de protesta excepto la violencia. (p. 568)

Nordic countries [países nórdicos] s. países del norte de Europa, entre ellos Dinamarca, Finlandia, Islandia, Noruega y Suecia. (p. 302)

NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement) [NAFTA (Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte)] s. un acuerdo comercial importante que creó una amplia zona de cooperación sobre asuntos comerciales y económicos en América del Norte. (p. 220)

North Atlantic Drift [Corriente del Atlántico Norte] s. una corriente de agua calida proveniente de los Trópicos. (p. 278)

Nunavut [Nunavut] s. uno de los territorios del Canadá, donde viven muchos de los esquimales del Canadá; fue forjado de la mitad este de los Territorios Noroestes en 1999. (p. 169)

o

oasis [ oasis] s. un lugar donde agua de un acuífero ha llegado hasta la superficie; permite el desarrollo de vegetación y fauna. (pp. 421, 492)
Oceania [Oceania] s. grupo de islas del Pacífico, que incluye Melanesia, Micronesia y Polinesia. (p. 690)

Olduvai Gorge [Garganta Olduvai] s. un lugar de capas fosilíferas en el norte de Tanzania, que contiene el histórico más continuo que se conoce de vida humana en los últimos 2 millones de años, incluyendo fósiles de 65 homínidos. (p. 431)

oligarchy [oligarquía] s. un gobierno dirigido por unas cuantas personas o un pequeño grupo. (p. 249)

“one-commodity” country [país de “un solo producto”) s. país que depende de un producto de exportación principal para muchos de sus ingresos. (p. 462)

Ontario [Ontario] s. una de las Provincias más importantes del Canadá. (p. 167)

OPEC [OPEP] s. Organización de Países Exportadores de Petróleo, grupo establecido en 1960 por algunos países productores de petróleo para coordinar políticas sobre venta de productos de petróleo. (p. 505)

Orinoco River [Río Orinoco] s. río que corre principalmente por Venezuela y forma parte del sistema fluvial más hacia el norte de América del Sur. (p. 202)

outback [“outback”) s. zona seca y despoblada en el interior de Australia. (p. 697)

outrigger canoe [canoa con balancines] s. una embarcación pequeña usada en las lagunas de islas en las que se establecieron isleños del Pacífico. (p. 699)

ozone [ozono] s. una substancia química que se produce cuando combustibles fósiles en combustión reaccionan con la luz del sol; una forma de oxígeno. (p. 325)

P

Pacific Rim [Cuencas del Pacífico] s. una región económica y social que incluye los países que rodean el Océano Pacífico, la cual se extiende en el sentido de las manecillas del reloj desde Nueva Zelanda en la región occidental del Pacífico hasta Chile en la región oriental del Pacifico e incluye la costa oeste de los Estados Unidos. (p. 645)

pakehas [pakehas] s. término maori para designar a las personas blancas, a los neozelandeses de ascendencia europea. (p. 722)

Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) [Organización para la Liberación de Palestina (OLP)] s. grupo formado en la década de 1960 para recuperar las tierras árabes en Israel para los árabes palestinos. (p. 513)

Palestinians [Palestinos] s. grupo de árabes desplazados que vivían o viven todavía en la zona llamada anteriormente Palestina y ahora denominada Israel. (p. 527)

pampas [pampas] s. amplia zona de praderas y tierras fértiles en la región sur-central de América del Sur. (p. 202)

Panama Canal [Canal de Panamá] s. canal para embarcaciones a través de Panamá que conecta el Mar Caribe con el océano Pacífico. (p. 226)

pandemic [pandemia] s. una enfermedad que afecta a un gran número de habitantes de una amplia zona geográfica. (p. 435)

Paraná River [Río Paraná] s. río en la región central de América del Sur y uno de sus tres sistemas fluviales más importantes, que nace en las tierras altas del Sur del Brasil y fluye unas 3.000 millas (4.827 km) hacia el sur y el oeste. (p. 203)

parliament [parlamento] s. cuerpo legislativo representativo cuyos miembros son elegidos o designados y cuyas funciones legislativas y ejecutivas están combinadas. (pp. 158, 303)

parliamentary government [gobierno parlamentario] s. sistema en el cual las funciones legislativas y ejecutivas están combinadas en una legislatura llamada parlamento. (p. 158)

particulate [macroparticula] s. partícula muy pequeña de materia líquida o sólida. (p. 324)

partition [partición] s. separación; división en dos o más unidades territoriales con estatus político separado. (p. 574)

pastoral lease [arrendamiento pastoral] s. en Australia, gran extensión de terreno que todavía es propiedad del gobierno; los rancheros arriendan la tierra del gobierno. (p. 729)

PCB [PCB (policlorobifenilo)] s. un compuesto industrial que se acumula en el tejido animal y puede ocasionar efectos perjudiciales y defectos congénitos; el PCB fue prohibido en los Estados Unidos en 1977. (p. 631)

peat [turbas] s. materia vegetal parcialmente descompuesta que se encuentra en las turberas. (p. 277)

penal colony [colonia penal] s. lugar donde son enviados los prisioneros. (p. 718)

per capita income [ingreso per cápita] s. la cantidad de dinero promedio que gana una persona en una unidad política. (p. 94)

permafrost [permafrost (pergelisol)] s. terreno permanentemente congelado. (pp. 63, 123)

polder [pólter] s. terreno protegido contra el mar u otra masa de agua mediante diques o drenaje. (p. 282)

Polynesia [Polinesia] s. una de las tres regiones de Oceanía, cuyo nombre significa, “muchas islas”. (p. 713)

population density [densidad poblacional s. el número promedio de habitantes de una zona mensurable, el cual se obtiene dividiendo el número de habitantes en la zona por la cantidad de tierra que ocupan. (p. 81)

population pyramid [pirámide poblacional] s. un dispositivo gráfico que muestra la distribución de una población por sexo y edad. (p. 79)

postindustrial economy [economía postindustrial] s. fase económica en la cual la manufactura no desempeña un papel dominante. (p. 142)

Prairie Provinces [Las Provincias de las Praderas] s. en Canadá, las provincias que se encuentran al oeste de Ontario y Quebec: Manitoba, Saskatchewan y Alberta. (p. 168)

precipitation [precipitación] s. gotas de agua que caen en forma de lluvia, aguanieve, nieve o granizo. (p. 50)

prevailing westerlies [vientos de oeste predominantes] s. vientos que soplan de oeste a este. (p. 124)

prime meridian [primer meridiano] s. la línea imaginaria a cero meridiano usada para medir longitud de este a oeste, y que divide la Tierra en dos mitades, este y oeste; llamado meridiano de Greenwich porque pasa por Greenwich, Inglaterra. (p. 6)

prime minister [primer ministro] s. la cabeza del gobierno; el líder del partido de la mayoría en el parlamento. (p. 158)

privatization [privatización] s. la venta de empresas propiedad del Estado a ciudadanos privados. (p. 388)

province [provincia] s. una unidad política. (p. 156)

pull factor [factor de atracción] s. un factor que atrae o arrastra a personas a otro lugar. (pp. 81, 211)

push factor [factor de empuje] s. un factor que hace que la gente abandone sus hogares y emigre a otra región. (pp. 81, 211, 730)

Pyongyang [Pyongyang] s. la ciudad más grande de Corea del Norte, con más de 2.500 millones de habitantes. (p. 650)

Q

Qin Ling Mountains [Montañas de Qin Ling] s. montañas de la región sudeste y este central de China; dividen la parte norte de China de la parte sur. (p. 619)

Quebec [Quebec] s. una de las provincias más importantes del Canadá. (p. 167)

Quechua [Quechua] s. idioma del Imperio Inca, hablado actualmente en las tierras de la zona andina. (p. 231)

R

raí [rai] s. tipo de música popular argelina compuesta en la década de 1920 por niños pobres de las zonas urbanas, con ritmos rápidos bailables; algunas veces se usó como forma de rebeldía para expresar el descontento político. (p. 440)
rain forest [selva tropical] s. una región selvática ubicada en la Zona Tropical con una gran concentración de diferentes especies de árboles de hojas anchas. (p. 66, 267)
rain shadow [sombra de lluvia] s. la tierra del lado de sombra de colinas o montañas que recibe muy poca lluvia del aire seco descendiente. (p. 51)
raja [raj] s. el período de gobierno británico en la India que duró cerca de 200 años, de 1857 a 1947. (p. 568)
Ramadan [Ramadán] s. práctica islámica de ayunar un mes desde que sale el sol hasta que se pone. (p. 576)
rate of natural increase [tasa de crecimiento natural] s. la tasa de crecimiento demográfico; la tasa de crecimiento poblacional que se encuentra restando la tasa de mortalidad de la tasa de natalidad. (p. 79)
recession [recesión] s. un período prolongado de descenso en la actividad comercial general. (p. 667)
Red Army [El Ejército Rojo] s. nombre del ejército de la Unión Soviética. (p. 371)
refinery [refinería] s. lugar donde el petróleo crudo es convertido en productos útiles. (p. 497)
Reformation [Reforma] s. movimiento en Europa Occidental iniciado en 1517, cuando muchos cristianos se desligaron de la Iglesia Católica para fundar iglesias protestantes; esto produjo hostilidades mutuas y guerras religiosas que desgarraron a Europa. (p. 297)
reggae [reggae] s. un estilo de música creado en Jamaica en la década de 1960, que tiene sus raíces en la música africana, caribeña y americana, con frecuencia trata sobre problemas sociales y religión. (p. 227)
relative location [ubicación relativa] s. describe a lugar en relación con otros lugares que lo rodean. (p. 6)
relief [relieve] s. la diferencia en elevación de una forma fisiográfica, desde el punto más bajo hasta el punto más alto. (p. 36)
religion [religión] s. la creencia en un poder o poderes sobrenaturales que se consideran como los creadores y conservadores del universo, así como el propio sistema de creencias. (p. 79)
Renaissance [Renaissance] s. época de renovado interés por la educación y las artes que duró del s. XIV al s. XVI; comenzó en los estados-ciudades italianos y se extendió hacia el norte por toda Europa. (p. 291)
representative democracy [democracia representativa] s. un gobierno en el cual el pueblo gobierna mediante sus representantes elegidos. (p. 139)
republic [república] s. gobierno en el cual los ciudadanos eligen a sus representantes para que gobiernen en su nombre. (p. 290)
reserve [reserva] s. terrenos públicos destinados por el gobierno para los pueblos indígenas. (p. 162)
Richter scale [escala de Richter] s. una forma de medir información registrada por los sismógrafos para determinar la fuerza relativa de un terremoto. (p. 40)
rift valley [Valle del Rift] s. un valle largo y delgado creado por la separación de las placas continentales, presente en África Oriental, el cual se prolonga por 4,000 millas (6.436 km) desde Jordania en el Sudoeste asiático hasta Mozambique en el Sur de África. (p. 416)
Ring of Fire [El Anillo de Fuego] s. la cadena de volcanes que bordea la cuenca del Pacífico. (pp. 41, 661)
Rocky Mountains [Las Montañas Rocosas] s. un importante sistema montañoso de los Estados Unidos y el Canadá que se extiende por 3,000 millas (4,827 km) desde Alaska hacia el Sur hasta Nuevo México. (p. 119)
Rub al Khali [Rub' Al Jali] s. conocido también como el Cuarto Vacío, uno de los desiertos arenosos más grandes del mundo, abarca cerca de 2,500.000 millas cuadradas (650 mil kilómetros cuadrados); ubicado en la península Arábiga. (p. 491)
Russian Revolution [Revolución Rusa] s. la revuelta de 1917 por la cual el Partido Comunista Ruso dirigido por V. I. Lenin, tomó el control del gobierno de los zares. (p. 363)
runoff [escorrentía] s. agua de lluvia no absorbida por el suelo y que puede transportar pesticidas y fertilizantes de los campos a los ríos, poniendo en peligro la cadena alimentaria. (p. 353)
substitution activity  [actividad de sustitución]  s. una actividad en la cual una familia produce únicamente los alimentos, la ropa y la vivienda que necesita. (p. 714)

suburb [suburbio] s. una unidad o comunidad política que linda con la ciudad central o con otros suburbios que lindan con la ciudad. (pp. 87, 138)
sultan [sultán] s. el gobernante de un país musulmán. (p. 585)
summer monsoon [monzón húmedo (verano)] s. la estación cuando los vientos soplan desde el sudoeste a través del Océano Índico hacia Asia del Sur, desde junio hasta septiembre, cuando los vientos producen fuertes tormentas y graves inundaciones. (p. 597)
Sunni [Suni] s. una de las dos principales ramas del Islam, la cual abarca cerca del 83 por ciento de todos los musulmanes, incluyendo los que viven en Turquía, Irak y Afganistán. (p. 517)
supra [supra] s. término georgiano (ruso) para designar una cena con muchos platos, brindis y discursos cortos. (p. 374)
sustainable community [comunidad sostenible] s. una comunidad cuyos residentes pueden vivir y trabajar en armonía con el medio ambiente. (p. 178)
sweatshop [fábrica explotadora] s. un lugar de trabajo donde se trabajan largas horas por salario bajo y en malas condiciones para enriquecer a los fabricantes. (p. 667)

GLOSSARY

Silk Road [La Ruta de la Seda] s. la ruta de 4.000 millas (6.436 km) entre China y el Mar Mediterráneo, así llamada por la costosa seda adquirida en China. (p. 375)
silt [limo] s. material sedimentario suelto que contiene partículas de roca muy pequeñas, formado por depósitos de ríos y muy fértil. (p. 426)
Sinhalense [cingalés] s. pueblo indo-ario que cruzó el estrecho que separa la India y Sri Lanka en el siglo sexto antes de nuestra era y creó una civilización avanzada, adoptando el budismo. (p. 584)
sierra [siroco] s. viento cálido y constante del Sur que sopla desde África del Norte a través del Mar Mediterráneo hasta el Sur de Europa, usualmente en la primavera. (p. 279)
slash-and-burn [cortar y quemar] s. método para despejar los campos para plantar, que consiste en cortar y quemar árboles, arbustos y hierbas. (p. 210)
smart growth [crecimiento inteligente] s. el uso eficiente y la conservación de la tierra y otros recursos. (p. 178)
smog [smog] s. una niebla marrón que se produce cuando los gases liberados por combustibles fósiles en combustión reaccionan con la luz solar. (p. 324)
society [sociedad] s. un grupo que comparte una región geográfica, un idioma común y un sentido de identidad y cultura. (p. 71)
soil [suelo] s. la mezcla suelta de roca meteorizada, material orgánico, aire y agua que permiten el crecimiento de las plantas. (p. 45)
solar system [sistema solar] s. se compone del sol y nueve planetas conocidos, así como otros cuerpos celestes que gravitan alrededor del sol. (p. 27)
solstice [solsticio] s. cualquiera de dos épocas en el año cuando los rayos solares brillan directamente arriba al mediodía en los puntos más alejados al norte o al sur, y que marcan el comienzo del verano o el invierno; en el Hemisferio Norte, el solsticio de verano es el día más largo y el solsticio de invierno, el más corto. (p. 49)
South, the [sur, el] s. una región que cubre aproximadamente un cuarto de la superficie terrestre de los Estados Unidos y contiene más de un tercio de su población. (p. 148)
South Slav [eslavo del sur] s. una persona que emigró de Polonia y Rusia y se estableció en la Península Balcánica alrededor del año 500. (p. 319)
Spanish conquest [conquista española] s. la conquista de los pueblos indígenas americanos por los españoles. (p. 217)
sphere of influence [esfera de influencia] s. un método de dividir el control extranjero en China, después de que el país fuera obligado a firmar una serie de tratados otorgando privilegios especiales a los europeos. China fue dividida para el control por Francia, Alemania y Rusia, entre otras potencias. (p. 636)
state [estado] s. término político para describir una unidad independiente que ocupa un territorio específico y tiene pleno control de sus asuntos internos y externos. (p. 83)
stateless nation [nación sin estado] s. un pueblo que no tiene un territorio que pueda ocupar legalmente, como los palestinos, los kurdos y los vascos. (p. 526)
stateless society [sociedad sin estado] s. una sociedad en la cual la gente usa linajes o familias cuyos miembros descienden de un antepasado común para gobernarse. (p. 443)
steppe [estepa] s. término usado para la región de praderas templadas en el Hemisferio Norte. (p. 66)
Stolen Generation [La Generación Robada] s. en Australia, término que utilizan los aborígenes actuales para denominar a los 100.000 niños de raza mixta que fueron tomados por el gobierno y entregados a familias blancas para promover la asimilación. (p. 728)
storm surge [olas ciclónicas] s. altos niveles de agua producidos por un ciclón que inunda zonas de bajo nivel. (p. 562)
strategic commodity [recurso estratégico] s. un recurso tan importante que las naciones están dispuestas a ir a la guerra para asegurar el suministro continuo del mismo. (p. 529)
subcontinent [subcontinente] s. una masa de tierra similar a un continente, aunque de menor extensión, como Asia del Sur, denominada el subcontinente Indo. (p. 551)
suburb [suburbio] s. una unidad o comunidad política que linda con la ciudad central o con otros suburbios que lindan con la ciudad. (pp. 87, 138)
sultan [sultán] s. el gobernante de un país musulmán. (p. 585)
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GLOSSARY

T

taiga [taiga] s. una faja casi continua de bosques coníferos de hojas perennes, a través del Hemisferio Norte en América del Norte y Eurasia. (p. 351)
Taklimakan Desert [Takla-Makan] s. desierto ubicado en la región occidental de China entre las montañas de Tian Shan y Kunlun. (p. 627)
Taliban [Talibán] s. un grupo musulmán estricto en Afganistán que ha impuesto reglas muy rígidas en la sociedad, incluyendo estilos de vestuario para hombres y mujeres, restricciones en la apariencia de las mujeres en lugares públicos y reglamentos para la televisión, la música y los videos. (p. 519)
Tamil [Tamil] s. hindú dravidio que llegó a Sri Lanka en el s. IV y se estableció en el norte, mientras los sinhaleses se trasladaron más al sur. (p. 584)
Taoism [Taoismo] s. filosofía basada en el libro Tao Te Ching y las enseñanzas de Lao-Tse, que vivió en China en el siglo VI antes de nuestra era, quien creía en conservar y restaurar la armonía dentro del individuo, con la naturaleza y con el universo, con poca intervención del gobierno. (p. 638)
taro [taro] s. planta tropical de Asia con raíz a base de féculas, la cual se puede comer como un vegetal hervido o preparada como pan, budín o una pasta llamada “poi”. (p. 715)
tectonic plate [placa tectónica] s. una enorme plataforma móvil que forma la corteza de la Tierra. (p. 37)
Tenochtitlan [Tenochtitlán] s. la antigua capital de los aztecas, donde se encuentra la Ciudad de México en la actualidad. (p. 217)
terpen [terpén] s. plataformas altas de tierra de barro usadas en trabajos de mar. (p. 283)
terraced farming [cultivo en andenes] s. una técnica antigua para cultivar la tierra en laderas o pendientes de montañas, utilizando campos horizontales a manera de peldaños, cortados en las pendientes. (p. 211)
terrorism (terrorismo) s. uso ilegal o amenazante de la fuerza, o violencia, contra individuos o propiedades, con el propósito de intimidar o causar temor con fines políticos o sociales. (p. 173)
theocratic (teocrático) adj. una forma de gobierno en la cual líderes religiosos controlan el gobierno con leyes religiosas y consultando con eruditos religiosos. (p. 504)
Three Gorges Dam [Presa de las Tres Gargantas] s. una presa que se comenzó a construir a finales del siglo XX en Chang Jiang, China, para ayudar a controlar las inundaciones, generar energía y permitir que los barcos naveguen más hacia el interior de China. (p. 628)
Three Kingdoms [Los Tres Reinos] s. los reinos formados en la península de Corea por el año 300 de nuestra era: Koguryo en el norte, Paikche en el sudoeste y Silla en el sudeste. (p. 647)

Tigris River [Río Tigre] s. uno de los ríos más importantes del Sudeste Asiático; sirvió de base a varias civilizaciones antiguas en el valle del río y fluye por partes de Turquía, Siria e Irak. (p. 489)

tornado [tornado] s. una poderosa columna de aire en espiral en forma de túnel. (p. 51)

topographic map [mapa topográfico] s. un mapa para referencia general; representación de características terrestres, naturales y hechas por el hombre. (p. 11)

topography [topografía] s. las características combinadas de formas fisiográficas y su distribución en una región. (p. 36)

Transcaucasia [Transcaucasia] s. una región compuesta por las repúblicas de Armenia, Azerbaiyán y Georgia; situada entre el Cáucaso y las fronteras de Turquía e Irán. (p. 346)

Trans-Siberian Railroad [Ferrocarril Transiberiano] s. un ferrocarril que uniría Moscú con el Puerto de Vladivostok en el Pacífico; construido entre 1891 y 1903. (p. 355)

Treaty of Tordesillas [Tratado de Tordesillas] s. un tratado entre España y Portugal firmado en 1494, por el cual Portugal obtuvo el control de la tierra que hoy constituye el Brasil. (p. 236)

Treaty of Waitangi [Tratado de Waitangi] s. un tratado firmado por los británicos y los maorís en 1840, por el cual Gran Bretaña obtuvo el control de Nueva Zelanda. (p. 719)

tsunami [tsunami] s. una ola oceanica gigantesca, producida por un terremoto o erupción volcánica subacuática, con gran poder de destrucción. (pp. 40, 662)

tuberculosis [tuberculosis] s. una infección respiratoria propagada a través del contacto humano, que con frecuencia acompaña a SIDA. (p. 466)

tundra [tundra] s. las tierras planas sin árboles que forman un arco alrededor del Océano Ártico; la región climática del Océano Ártico. (p. 63)

typhoon [tifón] s. una tormenta tropical, como un huracán, que se da en la región occidental del Pacífico. (pp. 51, 626)

U

USSR [URSS] s. la Unión de Repúblicas Socialistas Soviéticas o Unión Soviética, formada en 1922 por los comunistas y disuelta oficialmente en 1991. (p. 383)

UNICEF [United Nations Children’s Fund] [UNICEF (Fondo de las Naciones Unidas para la Infancia)] s. organización internacional de vigilancia y ayuda para los niños. (p. 665)

United Provinces of Central America [Provincias Unidas de Centroamérica] s. nombre de Centroamérica después de que la región declaró su independencia de México en 1823. (p. 223)

upland [tierras altas] s. una colina o una montaña muy baja que también puede contener mesas y planicies altas. (p. 275)

Ural Mountains [Montes Urales] s. la cordillera que separa las planicies del norte de Europa y Siberia Occidental y utilizada como línea divisoria entre Europa y Asia. (p. 346)

urban geography [geografía urbana] s. el estudio de cómo las personas utilizan el espacio en las ciudades. (p. 87)

urbanization [urbanización] s. el dramático aumento en el número de ciudades y los cambios en estilos de vida que resultan del mismo. (p. 88)

urban sprawl [expansión urbana descontrolada] s. desarrollo mal planificado que extiende la población de una ciudad por una zona geográfica cada vez más amplia. (p. 176)

V


volcano [volcán] s. un evento natural, formado cuando magma, gases y agua de la parte inferior de la corteza o capa se acumulan en cámaras subterráneas y posteriormente hacen erupción y surgen por grietas en la superficie terrestre. (p. 40)

voyaging canoe [canoa viajera] s. una embarcación grande construida por habitantes de las islas del Pacífico para navegar por el océano. (p. 699)

W

wadi [wad] s. lecho de un río que permanece seco excepto durante la estación lluviosa. (p. 488)

water table [nivel hidrostático] s. el nivel en el cual las rocas se saturan. (p. 33)

weather [clima] s. las condiciones atmosféricas en un lugar y tiempo específicos. (p. 50)

weathering [meteorización] s. proceso químico y físico que cambia las características de las rocas en o cerca de la superficie terrestre, lo cual ocurre lentamente durante el lapso de muchos años. (p. 42)

West [Oeste] s. región de América del Norte compuesta por 13 estados, que se extiende desde las Grandes Llanuras hasta el Océano Pacífico e incluye Alaska por el norte y Hawai en el Pacífico. (p. 148)

West Bank [Cisjordania] s. en Israel, una franja de tierra en el lado oeste del Río Jordán, originalmente controlada por Jordania, que forma parte de la tierra destinada para los árabes palestinos. (p. 527)

Western Wall [El Muro de los Lamentos] s. para los judíos, el sitio más sagrado de Jerusalén; lo único que queda del Segundo Templo, construido en 538 antes de nuestra era y destruido en el 70 de nuestra era por los romanos. (p. 510)

Wik Case [el caso Wik] s. en Australia, los tribunales dispusieron en este caso que los aborígenes pueden reclamar tierras retenidas bajo arrendamiento pastoral. (p. 729)

winter monsoon [monzón seco (invierno)] s. la estación cuando los vientos secos soplan desde el noreste a través de los montes Himalaya hacia el mar desde octubre hasta febrero, algunas veces causando sequías. (p. 597)

X

Xi Jiang [Xi Jiang] s. llamado también el Río del Oeste; río que fluye hacia el este a través del sudeste de China y se une con el Río Perla (Zhu Jiang) para desembocar en el Mar del Sur de China, formando un estuario entre Hong Kong y Macao. (p. 621)

Y

yurt [yurt] s. una tienda de nómadas del Asia Central. (p. 379)

Z

Zionism [sionismo] s. movimiento iniciado en el siglo XIX para volver a establecer una patria judía en la tierra natal de los judíos. (p. 51)

Zuider Zee [Zuiderzee] s. antiguo lago interior de los Países Bajos en el Mar del Norte. (p. 283)
An i preceding a page reference in italics indicates that there is an illustration, and usually text information as well, on that page. An m or a c preceding an italic page reference indicates a map or a chart, as well as text information on that page.

Abbas, Mahmoud. See Mazen, Abu.
Abdul al-Aziz, 505
Abkhazia, i372, 386
Aboriginal people, i676, 718, 719, 722, i726, 727–729
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