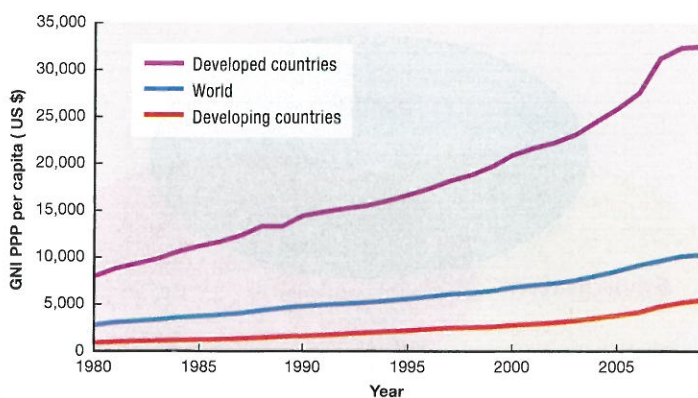


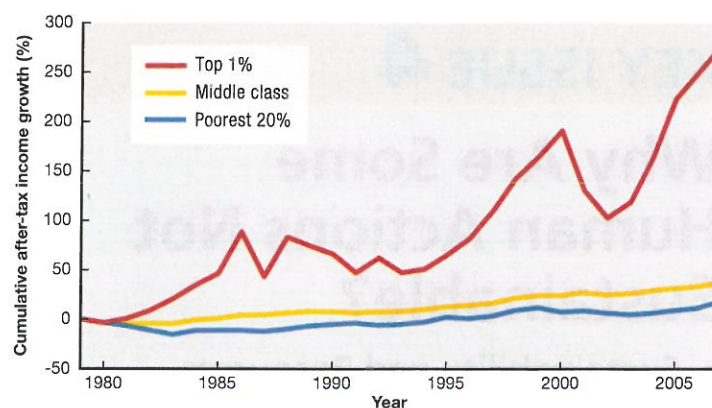
computer and a service provider. Seconds count. Broadband service requires proximity to a digital subscriber line (DSL), a cable line, or other services. Most importantly, a person must be able to afford to pay for the communications equipment and service.

Global culture and economy are increasingly centered on the three core, or hearth, regions of North America, Europe, and Japan. These three regions have a large percentage of the world's advanced technology, capital to invest in new activities, and wealth to purchase goods and services. From "command centers" in the three major world cities of New York, London, and Tokyo, key decision makers employ modern telecommunications to send orders to factories, shops, and research centers around the world—an example of hierarchical diffusion. Meanwhile, "nonessential" employees of the companies can be relocated to lower-cost offices outside the major financial centers. For example, Fila maintains headquarters in Italy but has moved 90 percent of its production of sportswear to Asian countries. Mitsubishi's corporate offices are in Japan, but its electronics products are made in other Asian countries.

Countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America contain three-fourths of the world's population and nearly all of its population growth. However, these countries find themselves on a periphery, or outer edge, with respect to the wealthier core regions of North America, Europe, and Japan. Global investment arrives from the core through hierarchical diffusion of decisions made by transnational corporations. People in peripheral regions, who once toiled in isolated farm fields to produce food for their families, now produce crops for sale in core regions or have given up farm life altogether and migrated to cities in search of jobs in factories and offices. As a result, the global economy has produced greater disparities than in the past between the levels of wealth and well-being enjoyed by people in the core and in the periphery. The increasing gap in economic conditions between regions in the core and periphery that results from the globalization of the economy is known as **uneven development** (Figure 1-35).



▲ **FIGURE 1-35 INCOME GAP BETWEEN RICH AND POOR COUNTRIES** Income has increased much more rapidly in developed countries than in developing ones.



▲ **FIGURE 1-36 INCOME GROWTH OF THE WEALTHIEST 1 PERCENT** Between 1979 and 2007, the income of the wealthiest 1 percent in the United States grew by 278 percent, compared to an increase of approximately 34 percent for everyone else.

Economic inequality has also increased within countries. In the United States, the share of the national income held by the wealthiest 1 percent increased from 7 percent to 17 percent between 1979 and 2007, according to the Congressional Budget Office. The income of the wealthiest 1 percent increased by 278 percent, whereas the income of the poorest 20 percent increased by 18 percent, and the income of those in the middle increased by 38 percent (Figure 1-36).

In a global culture and economy, every area of the world plays some role intertwined with the roles played by other regions. Workers and cultural groups that in the past were largely unaffected by events elsewhere in the world now share a single economic and cultural world with other workers and cultural groups. The fate of an autoworker in Detroit is tied to investment decisions made in Mexico City, Seoul, Stuttgart, and Tokyo.

Pause and Reflect 1.3.5

What are the main differences between countries in the core regions and those in the periphery?

CHECK-IN: KEY ISSUE 3

Why Are Different Places Similar?

- ✓ Geographers examine at all scales, though they are increasingly concerned with the global scale.
- ✓ Distribution has three properties—density, concentration, and pattern—and different cultural groups display different distributions in space.
- ✓ Places are connected through networks, and phenomena spread through relocation and expansion diffusion.
- ✓ In spite of space-time compression, peripheral regions in the global economy often have unequal access to the goods and services available in core regions.

KEY ISSUE 4

Why Are Some Human Actions Not Sustainable?

- Sustainability and Resources
- Sustainability and Human–Environment Relationships

Learning Outcome 1.4.1

Describe the three pillars of sustainability.

Geography is distinctive because it encompasses both social science (human geography) and natural science (physical geography). This book focuses on human geography but doesn't forget that humans are interrelated with Earth's atmosphere, land, water, and vegetation, as well as with its other living creatures.

From the perspective of human geography, nature offers a large menu of resources available for people to use. A **resource** is a substance in the environment that is useful to people, economically and technologically feasible to access, and socially acceptable to use. A substance is merely part of nature until a society has a use for it. Food, water, minerals, soil, plants, and animals are examples of resources.

Sustainability and Resources

Earth's resources are divided between those that are renewable and those that are not:

- A **renewable resource** is produced in nature more rapidly than it is consumed by humans.
- A **nonrenewable resource** is produced in nature more slowly than it is consumed by humans.

Geographers observe two major misuses of resources:

- Humans deplete nonrenewable resources, such as petroleum, natural gas, and coal.
- Humans destroy otherwise renewable resources through pollution of air, water, and soil.

The use of Earth's renewable and nonrenewable natural resources in ways that ensure resource availability in the future is **sustainability**. Efforts to recycle metals, paper, and plastic, develop less polluting industrial processes, and protect farmland from suburban sprawl are all examples of practices that contribute to a more sustainable future.

THREE PILLARS OF SUSTAINABILITY

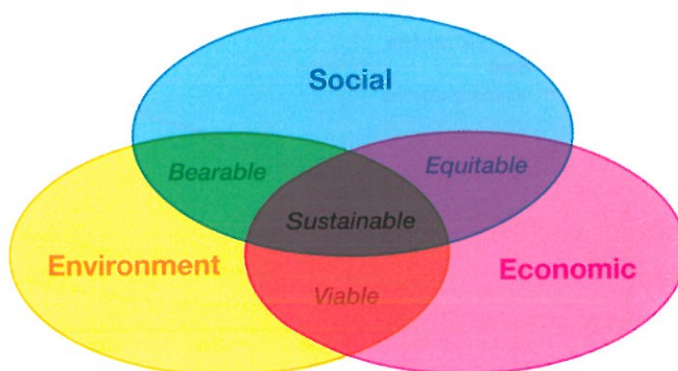
According to the United Nations, sustainability rests on three pillars: environment, economy, and society. The UN report *Our Common Future* is a landmark work in recognizing sustainability as a combination of natural and human elements. The report, released in 1987, is frequently called the Brundtland Report, named for the chair of the World Commission on Environment and Development, Gro Harlem Brundtland, former prime minister of Norway.

Sustainability requires curtailing the use of nonrenewable resources and limiting the use of renewable resources to the level at which the environment can continue to supply them indefinitely. To be sustainable, the amount of timber cut down in a forest, for example, or the number of fish removed from a body of water must remain at a level that does not reduce future supplies.

The Brundtland Report argues that sustainability can be achieved only by bringing together environmental protection, economic growth, and social equity (Figure 1-37). The report is optimistic about the possibility of promoting environmental protection at the same time as economic growth and social equity.

THE ENVIRONMENT PILLAR. The sustainable use and management of Earth's natural resources to meet human needs such as food, medicine, and recreation is **conservation**. Renewable resources such as trees and wildlife are conserved if they are consumed at a less rapid rate than they can be replaced. Nonrenewable resources such as petroleum and coal are conserved if we use less today in order to maintain more for future generations (Figure 1-38, left).

Conservation differs from **preservation**, which is the maintenance of resources in their present condition, with as little human impact as possible. Preservation takes the view that the value of nature does not derive from human needs and interests but from the fact that every plant and animal living on Earth has a right to exist and should be preserved, regardless of the cost. Preservation does not regard nature as a resource for human use. In contrast, conservation is compatible with development but only



▲ **FIGURE 1-37 THREE PILLARS OF SUSTAINABILITY** The UN's Brundtland Report considers sustainability to be a combination of environmental protection, economic development, and social equity.



▲ **FIGURE 1-38** THREE PILLARS OF SUSTAINABILITY IN THE TROODOS MOUNTAINS OF CYPRUS

Conservation of wildlife in the Troodos Mountains, Cyprus. (left) The environment pillar. The area is known for its outstanding rock formations. Much of the area is protected as national forests and UN World Heritage sites. (center) The economy pillar: Tourism is a major economic activity. (right) The social equity pillar. Local residents watch the tourists pass by. Some of the money generated by relatively wealthy tourists helps make life more bearable for residents living in a rugged environment.

if natural resources are utilized in a careful rather than a wasteful manner.

THE ECONOMY PILLAR. Natural resources acquire a monetary value through exchange in a marketplace (Figure 1-38 (center)). In a market economy, supply and demand are the principal factors determining affordability. The greater the supply, the lower the price; the greater the demand, the higher the price. Consumers will pay more for a commodity if they strongly desire it than if they have only a moderate desire. However, geographers observe that some goods do not reflect their actual environmental costs. For example, motorists sitting in a traffic jam do not have to pay a fee for the relatively high level of pollution their vehicles are emitting into the atmosphere.

The price of a resource depends on a society's technological ability to obtain it and to adapt it to that society's purposes. Earth has many substances that we do not use today because we lack the means to extract them or the knowledge of how to use them. Things that might become resources in the near future are potential resources.

THE SOCIETY PILLAR. Humans need shelter, food, and clothing to survive, so they make use of resources to meet these needs. Homes can be built of grass, wood, mud, stone, or brick. Food can be consumed by harvesting grains, fruit, and vegetables or by eating the flesh of fish, cattle, and pigs. Clothing can be made from harvesting cotton, removing skins from animals, or turning petroleum into polyester.

Consumer choices can support sustainability when people embrace it as a value. For example, a consumer might prefer clothing made of natural or recycled materials to clothing made directly from petroleum products. Society's values are the basis for choosing which resources to use (Figure 1-38 (right)).

SUSTAINABILITY'S CRITICS

Some environmentally oriented critics have argued that it is too late to discuss sustainability. The World Wildlife Fund (WWF), for example, claims that the world surpassed its sustainable level around 1980. The WWF Living Planet Report reaches its pessimistic conclusion by comparing the amount of land that humans are currently using with the amount of "biologically productive" land on Earth. "Biologically productive land" is defined as the amount of land required to produce the resources currently consumed and handle the wastes currently generated by the world's 7 billion people at current levels of technology.

The WWF calculates that humans are currently using about 13 billion hectares of Earth's land area, including 3 billion hectares for cropland, 2 billion for forest, 7 billion for energy, and 1 billion for fishing, grazing, and built-up areas. However, according to the WWF, Earth has only 11.4 billion hectares of biologically productive land, so humans are already using all of the productive land and none is left for future growth.

Others criticize sustainability from the opposite perspective: Human activities have not exceeded Earth's capacity, they argue, because resource availability has no maximum, and Earth's resources have no absolute limit because the definition of resources changes drastically and unpredictably over time. Environmental improvements can be achieved through careful assessment of the outer limits of Earth's capacity.

Critics and defenders of sustainable development agree that one important recommendation of the UN report has not been implemented—increased international cooperation to reduce the gap between more developed and less developed countries. Only if resources are distributed in a more equitable manner can poorer countries reduce the gap with richer countries.

EARTH'S PHYSICAL SYSTEMS

Learning Outcome 1.4.2

Describe the three abiotic physical systems.

Geographers classify natural resources as part of four inter-related systems. These four physical systems are classified as either biotic or abiotic. A **biotic** system is composed of living organisms. An **abiotic** system is composed of nonliving or inorganic matter. Three of Earth's four systems are abiotic:

- The **atmosphere**: a thin layer of gases surrounding Earth.
- The **hydrosphere**: all of the water on and near Earth's surface.
- The **lithosphere**: Earth's crust and a portion of upper mantle directly below the crust.

One of the four systems is biotic:

- The **biosphere**: all living organisms on Earth, including plants and animals, as well as microorganisms.

The names of the four spheres are derived from the Greek words for "stone" (*litho*), "air" (*atmo*), "water" (*hydro*), and "life" (*bio*).

ATMOSPHERE. A thin layer of gases surrounds Earth at an altitude up to 480 kilometers (300 miles). Pure dry air in the lower atmosphere contains approximately 78 percent nitrogen, 21 percent oxygen, 0.9 percent argon, 0.036 percent carbon dioxide, and 0.064 percent other gases (measured by volume). As atmospheric gases are held to Earth by gravity, pressure is created. Variations in air pressure from one location to another are responsible for

producing such weather features as wind blowing, storms brewing, and rain falling.

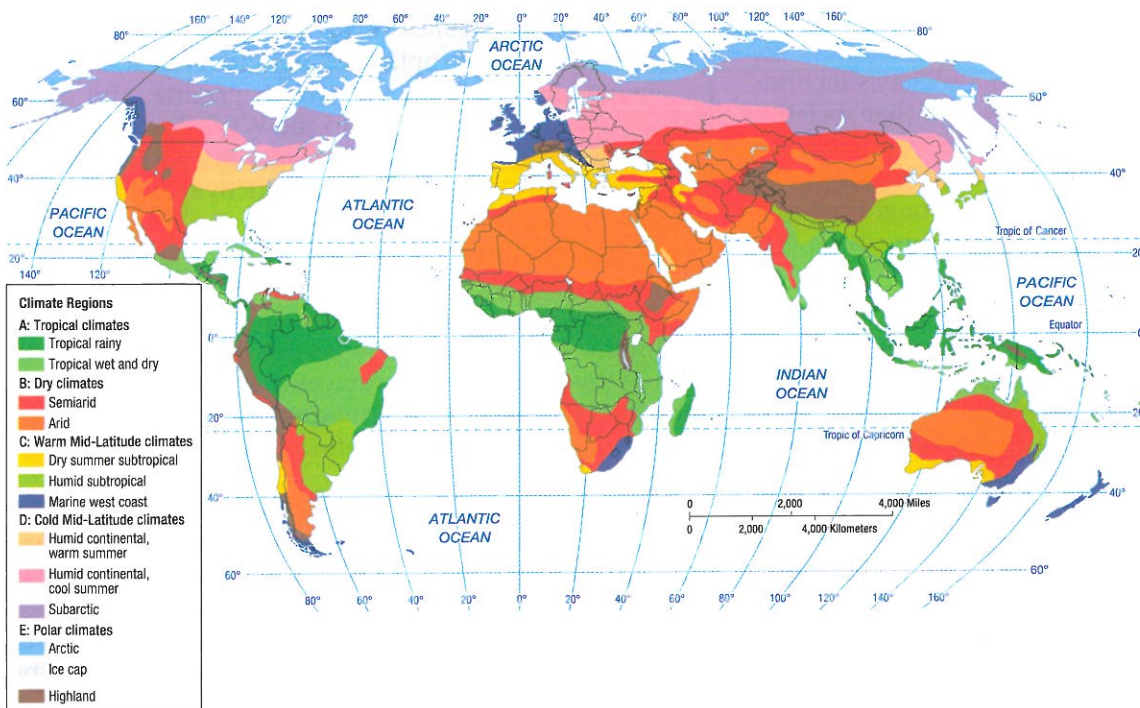
The long-term average weather condition at a particular location is **climate**. Geographers frequently classify climates according to a system developed by German climatologist Vladimir Köppen. The modified Köppen system divides the world into five main climate regions that are identified by the letters A through E, as well as by names:

- A: Tropical Climates
- B: Dry Climates
- C: Warm Mid-Latitude Climates
- D: Cold Mid-Latitude Climates
- E: Polar Climates

The modified Köppen system divides the five main climate regions into several subtypes (Figure 1-39). For all but the B climate, the basis for the subdivision is the amount of precipitation and the season in which it falls. For the B climate, subdivision is made on the basis of temperature and precipitation.

Humans have a limited tolerance for extreme temperature and precipitation levels and thus avoid living in places that are too hot, too cold, too wet, or too dry. Compare the map of global climate to the distribution of population (see Figure 2-3). Relatively few people live in the Dry (B) and Polar (E) climate regions.

HYDROSPHERE. Water exists in liquid form in the oceans, lakes, and rivers, as well as groundwater in soil and rock. It can also exist as water vapor in the atmosphere, and as ice in glaciers. Over 97 percent of the world's water is in the oceans. The oceans supply the atmosphere with water vapor, which returns to Earth's surface as precipitation, the most



◀ **FIGURE 1-39 CLIMATE REGIONS** Geographers frequently classify global climates according to a system developed by Vladimir Köppen. The modified Köppen system divides the world into five main climate regions, represented by the letters A, B, C, D, and E.



▲ **FIGURE 1-40 MONSOON IN INDIA** People are working in a rice field during the rainy season.

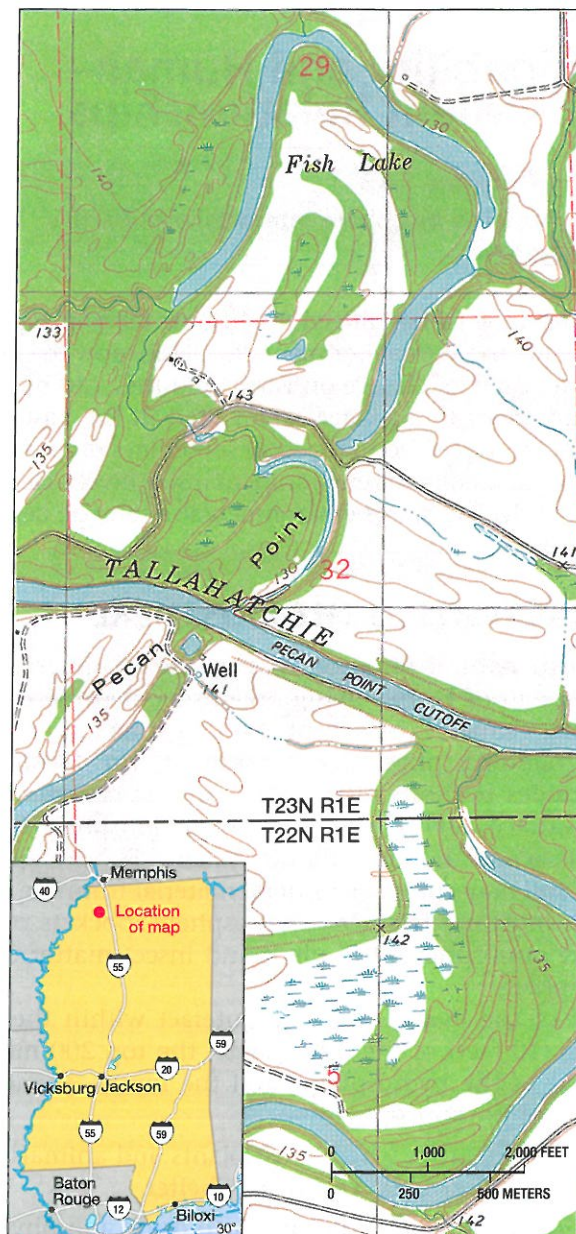
important source of freshwater. Consumption of water is essential for the survival of plants and animals, and a large quantity and variety of plants and animals live in it. Because water gains and loses heat relatively slowly, it also moderates seasonal temperature extremes over much of Earth's surface.

The climate of a particular location influences human activities, especially production of the food needed to survive. People in parts of the A climate region, especially southwestern India, Bangladesh, and the Myanmar (Burma) coast, anxiously await the annual monsoon rain, which is essential for successful agriculture and provides nearly 90 percent of India's water supply (Figure 1-40). For most of the year, the region receives dry, somewhat cool air from the northeast. In June, the wind direction suddenly shifts, bringing moist, warm, southwesterly air, known as the *monsoon*, from the Indian Ocean. The monsoon rain lasts until September. In years when the monsoon rain is delayed or fails to arrive—in recent decades, at least one-fourth of the time—agricultural output falls and famine threatens in the countries of South Asia, where nearly 20 percent of the world's people live. The monsoon rain is so important in India that the words for “year,” “rain,” and “rainy season” are identical in many local languages.

LITHOSPHERE. Earth is composed of concentric spheres. The core is a dense, metallic sphere about 3,500 kilometers (2,200 miles) in radius. Surrounding the core is a mantle about 2,900 kilometers (1,800 miles) thick. The crust is a thin, brittle outer shell 8 to 40 kilometers (5 to 25 miles) thick. The lithosphere encompasses the crust, a portion of the mantle extending down to about 70 kilometers (45 miles). Powerful forces deep within Earth bend and break the crust to form mountain chains and shape the crust to form continents and ocean basins.

Earth's surface features, or landforms, vary from relatively flat to mountainous. Geographers find that the study of Earth's landforms—a science known as geomorphology—helps to explain the distribution of people and the choice of economic activities at different locations. People prefer living on flatter land, which generally is better suited for agriculture. Great concentrations of people and activities in hilly areas may require extensive effort to modify the landscape.

Topographic maps, published for the United States by the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS), show details of physical



▲ **FIGURE 1-41 TOPOGRAPHIC MAP** A portion of a topographic map published by the U.S. Geological Survey shows physical features in northwestern Mississippi. The brown lines are contour lines that show the elevation of any location. The portion of the topo map shown here is part of sections 29 and 32 on the township and range map (Figure 1-30).

features, such as bodies of water, forests, mountains, valleys, and wetlands. They also show cultural features, such as buildings, roads, parks, farms, and dams. “Topos” are used by engineers, hikers, hunters, people seeking home sites, and anyone who really wants to see the lay of the land (Figure 1-41). The brown lines on the map are contour lines that show the elevation of any location. Lines are further apart in flatter areas and closer together in hilly areas.

Pause and Reflect 1.4.2

Why would maps of Earth's hydrosphere, lithosphere, and biosphere be important in the quest for sustainability?

Sustainability and Human–Environment Relationships

Learning Outcome 1.4.3

Explain how the biosphere interacts with Earth's abiotic systems.

Modern technology has altered the historic relationship between people and the environment. People are now the most important agents of change on Earth, and they can modify the environment to a greater extent than in the past. Geographers are concerned that people sometimes use modern technology to modify the environment insensitively. Human actions can deplete scarce environmental resources, destroy irreplaceable resources, and use resources inefficiently.

INTERACTIONS IN THE BIOSPHERE

The fourth natural resource system, the biosphere, encompasses all of Earth's living organisms. Because living organisms cannot exist except through interaction with the surrounding physical environment, the biosphere also includes portions of the three abiotic systems near Earth's surface. Living organisms in the biosphere interact with each of the three abiotic systems. For example, a piece of soil may comprise mineral material from the lithosphere, moisture from the hydrosphere, pockets of air from the atmosphere, and plant and insect matter from the biosphere.

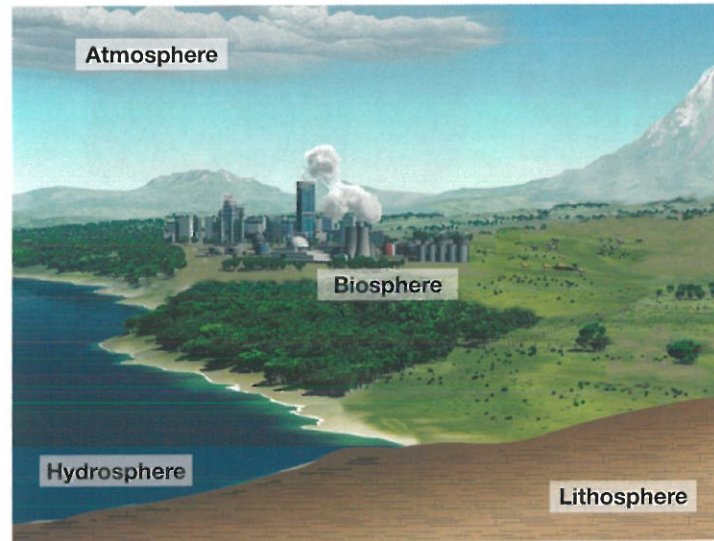
Most of the living organisms interact within the top 3 meters (10 feet) of the lithosphere, the top 200 meters (650 feet) of the hydrosphere, and the lowest 30 meters (100 feet) of the atmosphere:

- The lithosphere is where most plants and animals live and where they obtain food and shelter.
- The hydrosphere provides water to drink and physical support for aquatic life.
- The atmosphere provides the air for animals to breathe and protects them from the Sun's rays.

A group of living organisms and the abiotic spheres with which they interact is an **ecosystem** (Figure 1-42). The scientific study of ecosystems is **ecology**. Ecologists study interrelationships between living organisms and the three abiotic environments, as well as interrelationships among the various living organisms in the biosphere.

Human geographers are especially interested in ecosystems involving the interaction of humans with the rest of the biosphere and the three abiotic spheres (Figure 1-43): If the atmosphere contains pollutants, or its oxygen level is reduced, humans have trouble breathing. Without water, humans waste away and die. A stable lithosphere provides humans with materials for buildings and fuel for energy. The rest of the biosphere provides humans with food.

For example, human actions contribute to the destruction of soil, the material that forms on Earth's surface at



▲ **FIGURE 1-42 ECOSYSTEMS** Geographers are especially interested in the ecosystem of a city, because approximately half of Earth's humans live in urban areas. The lithosphere provides the ground and the materials to erect homes and businesses. The hydrosphere provides the water for urban dwellers to consume. The atmosphere is where urban dwellers emit pollutants. Some plants and other animals of the biosphere thrive along with humans in the cities, whereas others struggle.

the thin interface between the air and the rocks. Two basic problems contribute to the destruction of soil:

- **Erosion.** Erosion occurs when the soil washes away in the rain or blows away in the wind. Farmers contribute to erosion through inappropriate choices. To reduce erosion, farmers can avoid steep slopes, plow less, and plant crops whose roots help bind the soil.
- **Depletion of nutrients.** Soil contains the nutrients necessary for successful growth of plants, including those useful to humans. Nutrients are depleted when plants withdraw more nutrients than natural processes can replace. Each type of plant withdraws certain nutrients from the soil and restores others. To minimize depletion, farmers can plant different crops from one year to the next so that the land remains productive over the long term.

CULTURAL ECOLOGY: INTEGRATING CULTURE AND ENVIRONMENT

Human geographers are especially interested in the fact that different cultural groups modify the natural environment in distinctive ways. The geographic study of human–environment relationships is known as **cultural ecology**. The roots of cultural ecology reach back more than 200 years, to an era when early scientists traveled the globe, observing how people lived in different environments.

ENVIRONMENTAL DETERMINISM. Pioneering nineteenth-century German geographers Alexander von Humboldt (1769–1859) and Carl Ritter (1779–1859) believed that the physical environment *caused* social development, an approach called **environmental determinism**.



▲ **FIGURE 1-43 POSSIBILISM: ALTERNATIVE BEHAVIORS** (left) Some humans prefer to mow their lawn. (right) Others prefer to let wildflowers grow.

According to Humboldt and Ritter, human geographers should apply laws from the natural sciences to understanding relationships between the physical environment and human actions. They argued that the scientific study of social and natural processes is fundamentally the same. Natural scientists have made more progress in formulating general laws than have social scientists, so an important goal of human geographers is to discover general laws. Humboldt and Ritter urged human geographers to adopt the methods of scientific inquiry used by natural scientists.

Other influential geographers adopted environmental determinism in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Friedrich Ratzel (1844–1904) and his American student Ellen Churchill Semple (1863–1932) claimed that geography was the study of the influences of the natural environment on people.

Another early American geographer, Ellsworth Huntington (1876–1947), argued that climate was a major determinant of civilization. For instance, according to Huntington, the temperate climate of maritime northwestern Europe produced greater human efficiency as measured by better health conditions, lower death rates, and higher standards of living.

POSSIBILISM. To explain relationships between human activities and the physical environment, modern geographers reject environmental determinism in favor of possibilism. According to **possibilism**, the physical environment may limit some human actions, but people have the ability to adjust to their environment. People can choose a course of action from many alternatives in the physical environment.

For example, the climate of any location influences human activities, especially food production. From one generation to the next, people learn that different crops thrive in different climates—rice requires plentiful water, whereas wheat survives on limited moisture and actually grows poorly in very wet environments. On the other hand, wheat is more likely than rice to be grown successfully in colder climates. Thus, under possibilism, people can choose the crops they grow and yet be compatible with their environment.

Some human impacts on the environment are based on deep-seated cultural values. Why do we plant our front yard with grass, water it to make it grow, mow it to keep it from growing tall, and impose fines on those who fail to mow often enough? Why not let dandelions or wildflowers grow instead (Figure 1-43)? Why does one group of people consume the fruit from deciduous trees and chop down the conifers for building materials, whereas another group chops down the deciduous trees for furniture while preserving the conifers as religious symbols? Are some of these actions more sustainable than others?

A people's level of wealth can also influence its attitude toward modifying the environment. A farmer who possesses a tractor may regard a hilly piece of land as an obstacle to avoid, but a poor farmer with a hoe may regard hilly land as the only opportunity to produce food for survival through hand cultivation.

POSSIBILISM AND SUSTAINABILITY. Human geographers use the cultural ecology, or human–environment, approach to understand whether particular patterns and processes are sustainable. For example, world population growth is a problem if the number of people exceeds the capacity of the physical environment to produce food. However, people can adjust to the capacity of the physical environment by controlling their numbers, adopting new technology, consuming different foods, migrating to new locations, and taking other actions.

The physical environment is not always the most significant factor in human decisions. People can fashion a landscape by superimposing new forms on the physical environment. For example, the critical factor in selecting a site for a cotton textile factory is not proximity to a place where cotton is grown. A more important factor in selecting a suitable location is access to a supply of low-cost labor. Economic systems, political structures, living arrangements, religious practices, and human activities can produce distinctive landscapes that do not stem primarily from distinctive physical features. The geographer's job is to sort out the associations among various social characteristics, each of which is uniquely distributed across Earth's surface.

MODIFYING THE ENVIRONMENT

Learning Outcome 1.4.4

Compare ecosystems in the Netherlands and southern Louisiana.

Few ecosystems have been as thoroughly modified by humans as the Netherlands and Florida's Everglades. Because more than half of the Netherlands lies below sea level, most of the country today would be under water if it were not for massive projects to modify the environment by holding back the sea. Meanwhile, the fragile landscape of south Florida has been altered in insensitive ways.

THE NETHERLANDS: SUSTAINABLE ECOSYSTEM. The Dutch have a saying that "God made Earth, but the Dutch made the Netherlands." The Dutch have modified their environment with two distinctive types of construction projects—polders and dikes.

A **polder** is a piece of land that is created by draining water from an area. Polders, first created in the thirteenth century, were constructed primarily by private developers in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and by the government during the past 200 years. All together, the Netherlands has 6,500 square kilometers (2,600 square miles) of polders, comprising 16 percent of the country's land area (Figure 1-44). The Dutch government has reserved most of the polders for agriculture to reduce the country's dependence on imported food. Some of the polders are used for housing, and one contains Schiphol, one of Europe's busiest airports.

The second distinctive modification of the landscape in the Netherlands is the construction of massive dikes to prevent the North Sea, an arm of the Atlantic

Ocean, from flooding much of the country. The Dutch have built dikes in two major locations—the Zuider Zee project in the north and the Delta Plan project in the southwest.

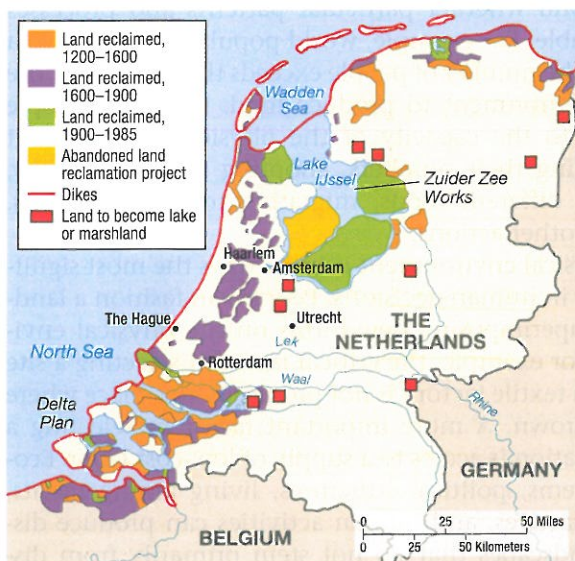
The Zuider Zee, an arm of the North Sea, once threatened the heart of the Netherlands with flooding. A dike completed in 1932 caused the Zuider Zee to be converted from a saltwater sea to a freshwater lake called Lake IJssel. Some of the lake has been drained to create several polders.

A second ambitious project in the Netherlands is the Delta Plan. Several rivers that flow through the Netherlands to the North Sea split into many branches and form a low-lying delta that is vulnerable to flooding. After a devastating flood in January 1953 killed nearly 2,000 people, the Delta Plan called for the construction of several dams to close off most of the waterways.

Once these two massive projects were finished, attitudes toward modifying the environment changed in the Netherlands. The Dutch scrapped plans to build additional polders in the IJsselmeer in order to preserve the lake's value for recreation.

The Dutch are deliberately breaking some of the dikes to flood fields. A plan adopted in 1990 called for returning 263,000 hectares (650,000 acres) of farms to wetlands or forests. Widespread use of insecticides and fertilizers on Dutch farms has contributed to contaminated drinking water, acid rain, and other environmental problems.

Global warming could threaten the Netherlands by raising the level of the sea around the country by between 20 and 58 centimeters (8 and 23 inches) within the next 100 years. Rather than build new dikes and polders, the Dutch have become world leaders in reducing the causes of global warming by acting to reduce industrial pollution and increase solar and wind power use, among other actions.



▲ FIGURE 1-44 SUSTAINABLE ECOSYSTEM: THE NETHERLANDS (left) The Dutch people have considerably altered the site of the Netherlands through creation of polders and dikes. (right) A polder in North Holland has been created by pumping the water from the site into the canal.



▲ FIGURE 1-45 UNSUSTAINABLE ECOSYSTEM: SOUTH FLORIDA
To control flooding in central Florida, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers straightened the course of the Kissimmee River, which had meandered for 160 kilometers (98 miles) from near Orlando to Lake Okeechobee. The water was rechanneled into a canal 90 meters wide (300 feet) and 9 meters deep (30 feet), running in a straight line for 84 kilometers (52 miles).

SOUTH FLORIDA: UNSUSTAINABLE ECOSYSTEM. Sensitive environmental areas in South Florida include barrier islands along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, the wetlands between Lake Okeechobee and the Everglades National Park, and the Kissimmee River between Lake Kissimmee and Lake Okeechobee (Figure 1-45). These lowlands have been modified less sensitively than those in the Netherlands.

The Everglades was once a very wide and shallow freshwater river 80 kilometers (50 miles) wide and 15 centimeters (6 inches) deep, slowly flowing south from Lake Okeechobee to the Gulf of Mexico. A sensitive ecosystem of plants and animals once thrived in this distinctive landscape, but much of it has been destroyed by human actions.

The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers built a levee around Lake Okeechobee during the 1930s, drained the northern one-third of the Everglades during the 1940s, diverted the

Kissimmee River into canals during the 1950s, and constructed dikes and levees near Miami and Fort Lauderdale during the 1960s. The southern portion of the Everglades became a National Park. These modifications opened up hundreds of thousands of hectares of land for growing sugarcane and protected farmland as well as the land occupied by the growing South Florida population from flooding. But they had unintended consequences for South Florida's environment.

Polluted water, mainly from cattle grazing along the banks of the canals, flowed into Lake Okeechobee, which is the source of freshwater for half of Florida's population. Fish in the lake began to die from the high levels of mercury, phosphorous, and other contaminants. The polluted water then continued to flow south into the National Park, threatening native vegetation such as sawgrass and endangering rare birds and other animals.

A 2000 plan called for restoring the historic flow of water through South Florida while improving flood control and water quality. A 2008 plan called for the state to acquire hundreds of thousands of acres of land from sugarcane growers. But to date, few elements of the plans to restore the Everglades have been implemented. One-half of the Everglades has been lost to development. In an ironic reminder of the Dutch saying quoted earlier, Floridians say, "God made the world in six days, and the Army Corps of Engineers has been tinkering with it ever since."

A generation ago, people concerned with environmental quality proclaimed, "Think global, act local." The phrase meant that the environment was being harmed by processes such as global warming that were global in scale, but it could be improved by actions, such as consuming less gasoline, that were local in scale. Contemporary geographers offer a different version of the phrase: "Think and act both global and local." All scales from local to global are important in geography—the appropriate scale depends on the specific subject.

Pause and Reflect 1.4.4

Both the Netherlands and the Florida Everglades face threats to their sustainability. Which is better positioned to face future challenges? Explain your answer.

CHECK-IN: KEY ISSUE 4

Why Are Some Human Actions Not Sustainable?

- ✓ Sustainability combines environment, economy, and society.
- ✓ The interaction of humans and other living organisms with other physical systems results in ecosystems that may or may not be sustainable.

Summary and Review

KEY ISSUE 1

How Do Geographers Describe Where Things Are?

Geography is most fundamentally a spatial science. Geographers use maps to display the location of objects and to extract information about places. Early geographers drew maps of Earth's surface based on exploration and observation. Today contemporary tools, such as remote sensing, GPS, and GIS, assist geographers in understanding reasons for observed regularities across Earth.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.1.1: Explain differences between early maps and contemporary maps.

- Some of the earliest maps were used for navigation. Maps have had many other uses as tools of reference and communication.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.1.2: Describe the role of map scale and projections in making maps.

- Contemporary maps indicate scale in three ways. Four types of distortion can occur in the transfer of Earth's round surface to a flat map.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.1.3: Explain how latitude and longitude are used to locate points on Earth's surface.

- Latitude indicates position north or south of the equator, and longitude indicates position east or west of the prime meridian.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.1.4: Identify contemporary analytic tools, including remote sensing, GPS, and GIS.

- Geographers today use the tools of Geographic Information Science (GIScience). Data gathered by remote sensing and GPS to measure changes over time and the characteristics of places can be combined and analyzed using geographic information systems (GIS).

THINKING GEOGRAPHICALLY 1.1: Mapping is partially a science, but it also involves a lot of human judgment. Provide examples of human judgment in mapping, such as in the creation of the geographic grid and in contemporary tools.

GOOGLE EARTH 1.1: What are the precise latitude and longitude of the U.S. Capitol building?



KEY ISSUE 2

Why Is Each Point on Earth Unique?

Every place on Earth is in some respects unique. Geographers also identify unique regions as areas distinguished by distinctive combinations of cultural as well as economic and environmental features. The distribution of features helps to explain why every place and every region is unique.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.2.1: Identify geographic characteristics of places, including toponym, site, and situation.

- Location is the position something occupies on Earth. Geographers identify a place's location using place names, site, and situation.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.2.2: Identify the three types of regions.

- A formal region is an area within which everyone shares distinctive characteristics. A functional region is an area organized around a node. A vernacular region is an area that people believe exists.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.2.3: Describe two geographic definitions of culture.

- Culture can refer to cultural values such as language and religion, or to material culture such as food, clothing, and shelter.

THINKING GEOGRAPHICALLY 1.2: Describe the site and situation of your hometown.

GOOGLE EARTH 1.2: What characteristics of site and situation are visible in an aerial view of New Orleans?



Key Terms

Abiotic (p. 32) Composed of nonliving or inorganic matter.

Atmosphere (p. 32) The thin layer of gases surrounding Earth.

Biosphere (p. 32) All living organisms on Earth, including plants and animals, as well as microorganisms.

Biotic (p. 32) Composed of living organisms.

Cartography (p. 5) The science of making maps.

Climate (p. 32) The long-term average weather condition at a particular location.

Concentration (p. 22) The spread of something over a given area.

Connection (p. 26) Relationships among people and objects across the barrier of space.

Conservation (p. 30) The sustainable management of a natural resource.

Contagious diffusion (p. 26) The rapid, widespread diffusion of a feature or trend throughout a population.

Cultural ecology (p. 34) A geographic approach that emphasizes human–environment relationships.

Cultural landscape (p. 16) The fashioning of a natural landscape by a cultural group.

Culture (p. 18) The body of customary beliefs, social forms, and material traits that together constitute a group's distinct tradition.

Density (p. 22) The frequency with which something exists within a given unit of area.

KEY ISSUE 3

Why Are Different Places Similar?

Geographers work at all scales, from local to global. The global scale is increasingly important because few places in the contemporary world are totally isolated. Because places are connected to each other, they display similarities. Geographers study the interactions of groups of people and human activities across space, and they identify processes by which people and ideas diffuse from one location to another over time.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.3.1: Give examples of changes in economy and culture occurring at global and local scales.

- Globalization means that the scale of the world is shrinking in terms of economy and culture.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.3.2: Identify the three properties of distribution across space.

- Density is the frequency with which something occurs, concentration is the extent of spread, and pattern is the geometric arrangement.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.3.3:

Describe different ways in which geographers approach aspects of cultural identity such as gender, ethnicity, and sexuality.

- Males and females, whites and minorities, heterosexuals and homosexuals occupy different places and move across space differently.
- Critical geographers have developed different approaches to studying how different cultural groups perceive, experience, organize, and move through space.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.3.4: Describe how characteristics can spread across space over time through diffusion.

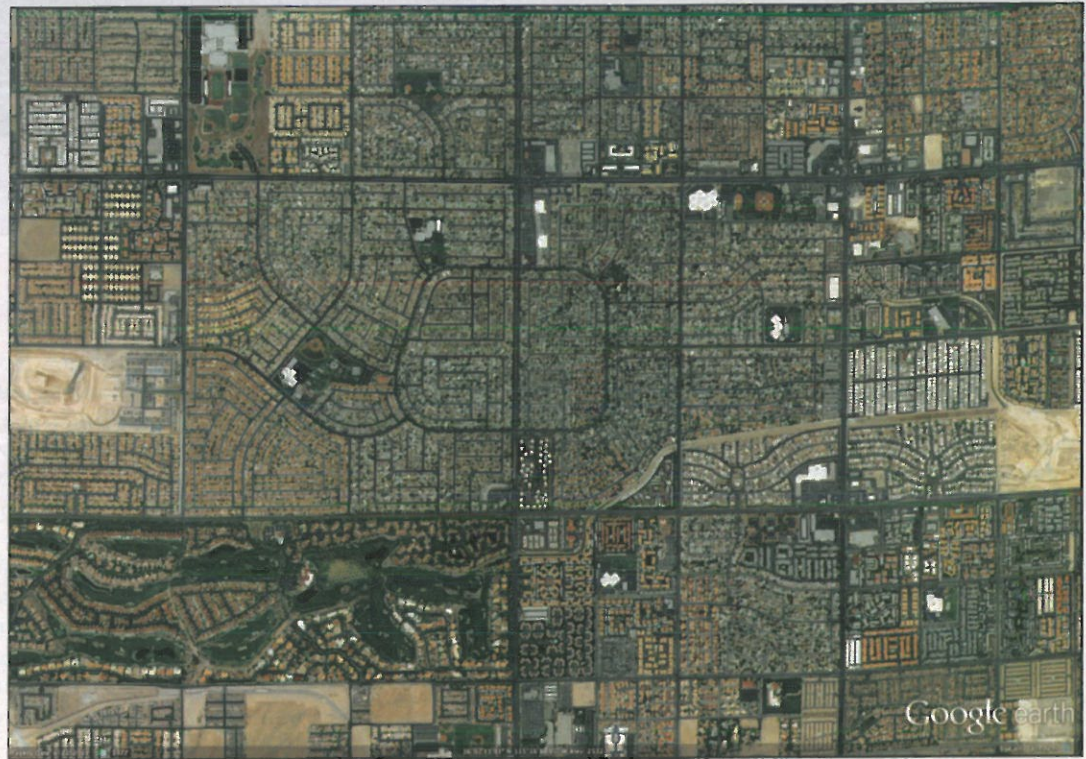
- Something originates at a hearth and diffuses through either relocation diffusion (physical movement) or expansion diffusion (additive processes).

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.3.5: Explain how places are connected through networks and how inequality can hinder connections.

- Electronic communications have removed many physical barriers to interaction for those with access to them.

THINKING GEOGRAPHY 1.3: Imagine that a transportation device (perhaps like *Harry Potter's* floo powder) would enable all humans to travel instantaneously to any location on Earth. What might be the impact on the distribution of people and activities across Earth?

GOOGLE EARTH 1.3: How have the properties of distribution of Spring Valley, Nevada, changed over time?



Diffusion (p. 26) The process of spread of a feature or trend from one place to another over time.

Distance decay (p. 28) The diminishing in importance and eventual disappearance of a phenomenon with increasing distance from its origin.

Distribution (p. 22) The arrangement of something across Earth's surface.

Ecology (p. 34) The scientific study of ecosystems.

Ecosystem (p. 34) A group of living organisms and the abiotic spheres with which they interact.

Environmental determinism (p. 34) A nineteenth- and early twentieth-century approach to the study of geography which argued

that the general laws sought by human geographers could be found in the physical sciences. Geography was therefore the study of how the physical environment caused human activities.

Expansion diffusion (p. 26) The spread of a feature or trend among people from one area to another in an additive process.

Formal region (or uniform or homogeneous region) (p. 16) An area in which everyone shares in common one or more distinctive characteristics.

Functional region (or nodal region) (p. 17) An area organized around a node or focal point.

Geographic information science (GIScience) (p. 12) The development and analysis of data about Earth acquired through satellite and other electronic information technologies.

KEY ISSUE 4

Why Are Some Human Actions Not Sustainable?

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.4.1: Describe the three pillars of sustainability.

- Sustainability is the use of Earth's natural resources in ways that ensure availability in the future. This is accomplished through a combination of environmental, economic, and social action.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.4.2: Describe the three abiotic physical systems.

- Earth comprises four physical systems: the atmosphere, hydrosphere, lithosphere, and biosphere.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.4.3: Explain how the biosphere interacts with Earth's abiotic systems.

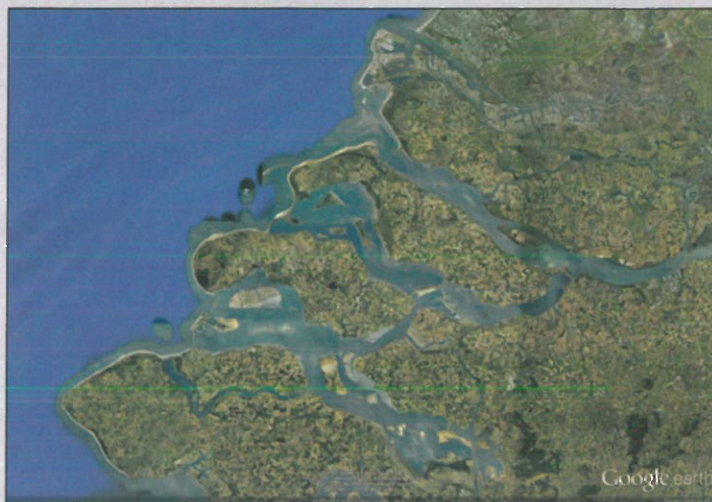
- An ecosystem comprises a group of living organisms in the biosphere and their interaction with the atmosphere, lithosphere, and biosphere.

LEARNING OUTCOME 1.4.4: Compare ecosystems in the Netherlands and southern Louisiana.

- The Dutch have modified the ecosystem of their land in a more sustainable manner than has been the case in southern Louisiana.

THINKING GEOGRAPHICALLY 1.4: What activities in your community appear to be promoting sustainability?

GOOGLE EARTH 1.4: How many dams do you see along the southwestern coast of the Netherlands, in the vicinity of the town of Stellendam?



Geographic information system (GIS) (p. 12) A computer system that stores, organizes, analyzes, and displays geographic data.

Global Positioning System (GPS) (p. 12) A system that determines the precise position of something on Earth through a series of satellites, tracking stations, and receivers.

Globalization (p. 20) Actions or processes that involve the entire world and result in making something worldwide in scope.

Greenwich Mean Time (GMT) (p. 11) The time in the zone encompassing the prime meridian, or 0° longitude.

Hearth (p. 26) The region from which innovative ideas originate.

Hierarchical diffusion (p. 26) The spread of a feature or trend from one key person or node of authority or power to other persons or places.

Housing bubble (p. 20) A rapid increase in the value of houses followed by a sharp decline in their value.

Hydrosphere (p. 32) All of the water on and near Earth's surface.

International Date Line (p. 11) An arc that for the most part follows 180° longitude, although it deviates in several places to avoid dividing land areas. When you cross the International Date Line heading east (toward America), the clock moves back 24 hours, or one entire day. When you go west (toward Asia), the calendar moves ahead one day.

Latitude (p. 10) The numbering system used to indicate the location of parallels drawn on a globe and measuring distance north and south of the equator (0°).

Lithosphere (p. 32) Earth's crust and a portion of upper mantle directly below the crust.

Location (p. 14) The position of anything on Earth's surface.

Longitude (p. 10) The numbering system used to indicate the location of meridians drawn on a globe and measuring distance east and west of the prime meridian (0°).

Map (p. 5) A two-dimensional, or flat, representation of Earth's surface or a portion of it.

Map scale (p. 8) The relationship between the size of an object on a map and the size of the actual feature on Earth's surface.

Mental map (p. 17) A representation of a portion of Earth's surface based on what an individual knows about a place, containing personal impressions of what is in the place and where the place is located.

Meridian (p. 10) An arc drawn on a map between the North and South poles.

Network (p. 28) A chain of communication that connects places.

Nonrenewable resource (p. 30) Something produced in nature more slowly than it is consumed by humans.

Parallel (p. 10) A circle drawn around the globe parallel to the equator and at right angles to the meridians.

Pattern (p. 23) The geometric or regular arrangement of something in a study area.

Place (p. 14) A specific point on Earth distinguished by a particular characteristic.

Polder (p. 36) Land created by the Dutch by draining water from an area.

Possibilism (p. 35) The theory that the physical environment may set limits on human actions, but people have the ability to adjust to the physical environment and choose a course of action from many alternatives.

Preservation (p. 30) The maintenance of resources in their present condition, with as little human impact as possible.

Prime meridian (p. 10) The meridian, designated as 0° longitude, that passes through the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, England.

Projection (p. 9) A system used to transfer locations from Earth's surface to a flat map.



Region (p. 16) An area distinguished by a unique combination of trends or features.

Regional (or cultural landscape) studies (p. 16) An approach to geography that emphasizes the relationships among social and physical phenomena in a particular study area.

Relocation diffusion (p. 26) The spread of a feature or trend through bodily movement of people from one place to another.

Remote sensing (p. 12) The acquisition of data about Earth's surface from a satellite orbiting the planet or from other long-distance methods.

Renewable resource (p. 30) Something produced in nature more rapidly than it is consumed by humans.

Resource (p. 30) A substance in the environment that is useful to people, is economically and technologically feasible to access, and is socially acceptable to use.

Scale (p. 20) Generally, the relationship between the portion of Earth being studied and Earth as a whole.

Site (p. 14) The physical character of a place.

Situation (p. 15) The location of a place relative to another place.

Space (p. 22) The physical gap or interval between two objects.

Space-time compression (p. 28) The reduction in the time it takes to diffuse something to a distant place as a result of improved communications and transportation systems.

Stimulus diffusion (p. 27) The spread of an underlying principle even though a specific characteristic is rejected.

Sustainability (p. 30) The use of Earth's renewable and nonrenewable natural resources in ways that do not constrain resource use in the future.

Toponym (p. 14) The name given to a portion of Earth's surface.

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Transnational corporation (p. 20) A company that conducts research, operates factories, and sells products in many countries, not just where its headquarters or shareholders are located.

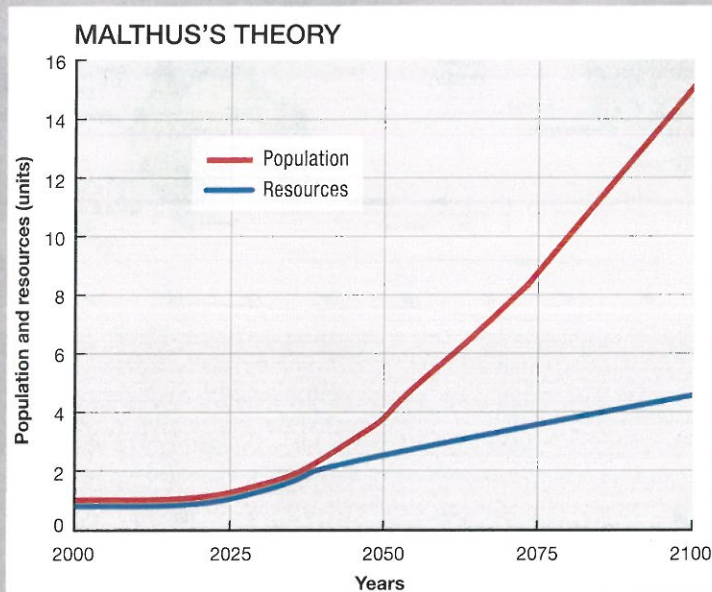
Uneven development (p. 29) The increasing gap in economic conditions between core and peripheral regions as a result of the globalization of the economy.

Vernacular region (or perceptual region) (p. 17) An area that people believe exists as part of their cultural identity.

Chapter

2

Population and Health



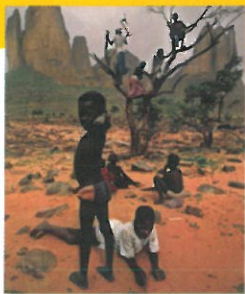
Why did Thomas Malthus think that this chart doomed humanity? Why do some people still think so? Page 60.



How did this water pump in London lead to the birth of GIS? Page 65.

KEY ISSUE 1

Where Is The World's Population Distributed?

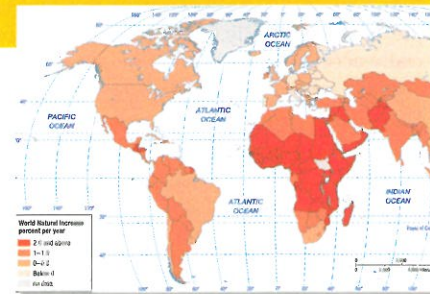


A Crowded Planet—In Places p. 45

Manhattan's teeming throngs and Montana's wide open spaces—why aren't people spread out more evenly across Earth?

KEY ISSUE 2

Why Is Global Population Increasing?



More and More of Us p. 50

All humans are born, and all must pass away—but their years on Earth vary, depending on where they live.