

Chapter One: Introduction to Political Geography

Introduction

Dear learner, in this unit concerned with the definition of political geography, historical background of political geography and the approach of political geography.

The term “political geography” has been used at least since the eighteenth century, when it was understood as a set of information on the political organization of countries, new territories, and markets involved in the world or the national economy. However, political geography as a particular discipline emerged much later, when representations about its content, categories, and methods started to be formed because of the accumulation of geographical knowledge. The year of the publication of Friedrich Ratzel’s *Politische Geographien* (1897) can be considered the birth of contemporary political geography.

The traditional subject matter of geography the relationships between people and nature, people and space, people and places cannot be separated from political considerations. The explicit focus on these considerations constitutes the general subject matter of political geography. In the nineteenth and early twentieth century’s geography had a very strong political focus’ Bowman was explicitly concerned with the relations between politics and geography in both their published work and their public lives.

Political Geography is a discipline that is concerned with Politics and Geography. While politics is its adjective, geography constitutes its basic identity, so that it is pre-eminently a branch of human geography. As a social science discipline, human geography is fundamentally focused on spatial organization of society and distance based societal relations on the one hand, and the social organization of geographical space-the earth-territory-on the other. The purpose of geographical study is to assess and analyze the problems and prospects inherent in a given situation in order that research can contribute to the task of achieving societal goals and objectives. Politics is both consequence and the cause of social organization in specific time and space contexts. Political geography is about the use of power to administer, control, and fix territorial space. To understand the nature of political geography, therefore, it is necessary to understand the nature of politics both as a process and as a field of study as well as human geography.

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Objectives of the unit

At the end of this unit the students will be able to:

- ✓ Define the political geography
- ✓ Identify the relationship between geography and politics
- ✓ Explain the main approaches for the study of political geography
- ✓ Understand the historical background of political geography
- ✓ Discuss the main concept of personal space
- ✓ Explain the difference between territory and territoriality

1.1 Geography and Politics

Activity:

1. What is geography?
2. What is politics?
3. What is political geography?

Geography - is often referred to as a spatial science, i.e. the discipline concerned with the use of earth space. Geography might better be defined as the study of spatial variation, of how-and-why-things differs from place to place on the surface of the earth. It is, further, the study of how observable spatial patterns evolved through time.

Politics- is a central element or key issue of discussion investigated by different disciplines. Such as Economic, social and cultural phenomena cannot be conceived without an understanding of world politics. It is the science of governments of states. It is also defined as the art and practice of government of human societies

Political geography -is a diverse and ever-changing field of geographic enquiry. As such it defies easy definition. It has moved from being an account of the distribution and arrangement of power at different (though overlapping and interdependent) geographical scales to a consideration of how power diffuses across different scales.

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Traditionally geography has been defined broadly as the study of the earth's surface. But, as far as human activity is concerned this is often thought to involve four (overlapping) aspects. These are:

- I. **Space:** geographers study the spatial distribution of human activities. They are also interested in the influence of spatial organization on social, political, economic and cultural process.
- II. **Place:** the characteristics of places, the relationship between people and their places, and the diverse role of places in human activities.
- III. **Landscape:** geography focuses on the development of landscapes, and the meaning and significance of landscapes of people.
- IV. **Environment:** geographers are interested in the relationship between people and their environments, including their understandings of environments and their use of environmental resources of all kinds.

The phrase „**world politics**“ itself conveys a sense of a geographical scale beyond that of any particular state or a locality in which states and other actors come together to engage in a number of activities (diplomacy, military action, aid, fiscal and monetary activities, legal regulation, charitable acts, etc.) In the commonsense view politics is about governments, political parties, elections, and public policy, or about war, peace and foreign affairs.

There are two ways of understanding of politics.

A. **Formal politics:** is defined as the operation of constitutional system of government and its publicly defined institutions and procedures. The implication is that politics is a separate sphere of life involving certain types of people (political and civil servants of organizations (state institutions)). The political system may accord the people formal political rights (such as the right to vote, or own property) or formal political duties (such as the duty to serve on a jury, or to pay tax). Alternatively it may from time to time affect the society in which one lives, through changes in public policy, for example in the sphere of education or environmental protection. Formal politics is seen as something that can sometimes affect everyday life, but really part of everyday life. The rest of people interact with this separate sphere in limited and usually legally defined ways. Formal politics is seen as something that can sometimes affect everyday life, but it is not part of everyday life, for example, issues about election, war, public policy, political parties, foreign affairs and soon.

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B. Informal politics- it can be summed up the phrase ‘politics is everywhere’. A good example is the idea of office politics. It is about exercising power, getting people to do things. Household politics I.e. Households (parents) attempt to influence children, women to do more house work than men do, is also considered as informal politics. In fact, if informal politics is to be mentioned, there is no aspect of life, which is not political. So, politics is really everywhere.

Informal politics can be summed up by the phrase politics is **everywhere**. It is about forming alliances, exercising power, getting people to do things, developing influence, protecting, and advancing particular goals and interests. In the field of education, some subjects and **points of view are taught while others are not**, some children benefit more from education than others even of television (some people gave more chances to have their say on TV than others)

1.2. The two ways of relationship between geography and politics

Activity:

- 1.what is Politics of Geography
2. What means of Geography of Politics?

1.2.1 The Politics of Geography

The political geography is to examine the interventions made by geographers into ‘live’ political issues. It should be obvious from what has already been said that much political geography is far removed from the model of detached academic neutrality much touted in various circles. Instead, the imperialist leanings and political biases of the likes of Mackinder, Ratzel’s, and Bowman have been obvious. The ways in which political geographers have interacted with those in the world of ‘real’ politics have varied over time. It could be said that many geographers, particularly in the past, saw their role as supporters of those in power and their work as serving clear political ends. More recently many geographers have seen their role more as one of a critical observation and a questioning of accepted orthodoxies rather than a willing subservience to power. Among other things this has involved focusing attention on the complicity of geography in colonialism, for example, and casting light on the political agendas underpinning some geographical research and the ideological nature of much ‘objective’ research. Here are three relatively recent examples of geography and politics intersecting in a very direct way:

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Shell in Nigeria-Throughout the Niger Delta region the activities of Shell have proved controversial in terms of allegations of environmental damage and human rights abuses. In the region of Ogoniland local activists and environmental campaigners have argued that Shell brought little if any benefit to local people and that their activities were detrimental to the environment.

Academic Boycotts-The issue of an academic boycott of Israel has recently exercised the minds of some geographers. Calls for a full academic boycott of Israeli academic institutions have been circulating for some time. These have emanated both from Palestinian groups and from academics in other countries.

Elsevier and Arms Fairs-A recent political issue with which some geographers wrestled concerned the links between Elsevier Political geography has been shaped by a variety of influences including intellectual currents within the broader discipline and political events and practices beyond the academy. It continues to evolve and displays considerable vibrancy both in terms of the range of issues now considered and the variety of approaches brought to bear.

Generally, the perspective emphasizes that geography, the real distribution/differentiation of people and objects in space has a very real and measurable impact on politics. Regionalism and sectionalism could provide a good example of how geography shapes politics. Different groups with different identities religion or ethnic- sometimes coexist within the same state boundaries. As times discordance between legal and political boundaries and the distribution of populations with distinct identities leads to movements to claim or reclaim particular territories. These movements, whether conflictual or peaceful, are known as regional movements. Regionalism is a feeling of collective identity based on a populations politics, territorial identification within a state or across state boundaries. In addition to this self-determination activity of different groups is also considered as another example. I.e. Territory is often regarded as a space to which a particular group attaches its identity.

1.2.2 The Geography of Politics

According to, Geography of Politics analyses how politics (the tactics or operations of the state) shapes geography. A clear way how politics shapes geography is to show how systems of political representation are geographically anchored. Example, USA, has a political system in

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which democratic rule and territorial organization are linked together on the concept of territorial representation. A democratic rule is a system in which public policies and officials are directly chosen by popular vote, whereas territorial organization is a system of government formally structured by area, not by social groups. State power, therefore, is applied within geographical units and state representatives are chosen from geographical units.

1.3. Definition of political geography

Political geography is a systematic field, one of the oldest in geography, focuses on the spatial expressions of political behavior. Boundaries on land and on the oceans, the roles of capital cities, power relationships among states, administrative systems voter behavior, conflicts over resources, and even matters involving outer space have politico-geographical dimensions. **Modern political geography** also focuses on political behavior and the way this varies across the cultural landscape.

Definitions given by famous political geographers:

Hartshorne (1954): Defined as “the study of the areal differences and similarities”. **Cohen and Rosenthal (1971):** stated “...political geographers are concerned with the geographical consequences of political decisions and actions, the geographical factors, which were considered during the making of any decisions, and role of any decisions, and role of any geographical factors, which influenced the outcome of political actions, e.g. the importance and contribution of Suez Canal to Egypt in world politics. **Weigert:** Political Geography is concerned with a particular aspect of earthman relationships and with a special kind of emphasis... the relationship between geographical factors and political entities. **Alexander:** Political Geography is the study of political regions or features of the earth’s surface.

Political Geography is the study of variation of political phenomena from place to place in interconnection with variations in other features of the earth as the home of man. On the other hand, studies in political geography should clearly demonstrate the spatial causes and effects of political processes; if neither of these is apparent, the subject is not a political geographical one.

These definitions demonstrate that there is no generally accepted definition of the field. Although many critics assail this vagueness as a fault, in reality it might be considered as a **virtue**. The **lack of rigidity** defined focus of precise boundaries has enabled political geographers to

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investigate various phenomena that exhibit both political and spatial, or geographic characteristics without being concerned about straying from the central theme of the field. Political geography draws from other social and behavioral sciences, such as political sciences, economics, history and psychology, **but** concepts from **physical geography** are important to the students of the discipline. None human elements of the world, such water bodies, landforms, climates and resources **are important in the study of political decisions and actions**. The two integral parts of political geography are **spatial distributions** and **political phenomena**. *Spatial distributions* include objects that are spread out from each other in space, on the surface that usually means the surface of the earth, e.g. Population, minerals, cities, rivers etc. *Political phenomena* include all those activities and actions of man that are political in nature. We can make map of the political phenomena (voting) in order to describe the spatial distribution of the results.

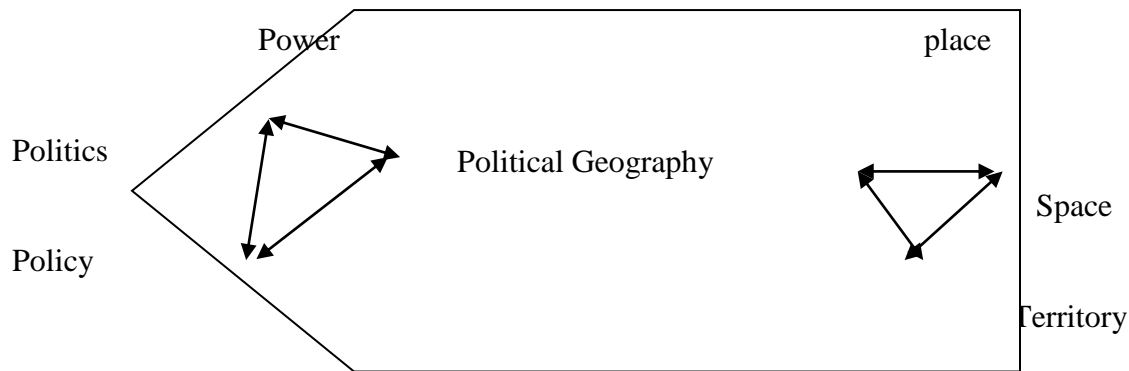


Figure 1.1, Political Geography as the interaction of Politics and Geography

On one side is the triangle of power, politics, and policy. Here power is the commodity that sustains the other two. If money makes the economic world go around, power is the medium of politics. Politics is the whole set of process that are involved in achieving, exercising, and resisting power from the functions of the state to election to welfare to office gossip. Policy is the intended outcome, the things that power allows one to achieve and that politics is about being in position to do. The interaction of these three entities is the concern of political science.

Political geography is about the interaction of these entities and a second triangle of space, place and territory. In this triangle, space (spatial patterns or spatial relations) is the core commodity of geography. Place is a particular point in space, while territory represents a more formal attempt

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to define and delimit a portion of space, inscribed with a particular identity and characteristics. Political geography recognizes these six entities, power, politics, policy, space, place and territory are the intrinsically linked, but a piece of political geographical research does not need to explicitly address them all. For instance spatial variations in policy implementation are a concern of political geography, the influence of territorial identity on voting behavior. Therefore, political geography embraces an innumerable multitude of interactions of the above entities. Because of this political geography has only frontier zone, not borders.

1.4. Scope of Political Geography

Political geography is varied and wide ranging field of learning and research exciting and endlessly fascinating to the student and useful to the practitioner in many fields. The field of political geography grew from geographers' interest in the spatial nature of the national state. Political geography is the **analysis of how political systems and structures from the local to international** levels influence and is influenced by the spatial distribution of resources, events, and groups and by interactions among sub-national, national and international political units across the globe. It focuses on, on one hand; how groups interact particularly the ways they manipulate each other in pursuit of controlling resources and on the other, on how these social, economic, and political activities determine the use of, and there by modify, the resource base.

1.5 Approaches to the Study of Political Geography

Activity:

1. What are the main approaches of political geography?
2. Can you list and explain each approach?

There are six approaches that employed by political geography.

1.5.1. The Power Analysis Approach

It is commonly used by non-geographers. Some of who like to define geography as one of the several power resources of in relations. One such study, for example divides national power in to five components: geographic, economic, political, sociological and military. The geographic element include location, size and shape of the area, the degree to which land is arable or barren,

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the effect of climate, and the reservoir of natural resources with which the land is endowed. This is, however, represents a limited geographical approach, for geographers do not isolate geography as determinant of national power. A fully geographic approach would make an inventory of pertinent categories and relates this inventory to politically significant phenomena.

The categories include:

- I. The physical environment (landforms, climate, soils, vegetation, water bodies etc).
- II. Movement (the directional flow of transportation and communication of goods, men and ideas).
- III. Raw materials, semi-finished and finished goods (employed and potential, in both time and space terms)
- IV. Population (in its various characteristics, particularly qualitative and ideological)
- V. The body politic (its various administrative forms, ideals, and goods in their areal expression, as a country, national and international block frameworks).

All of these five categories are all viewed from within spatial framework, geographers also work space as six and direct category. In these sense the location, shape and boundaries of political entities analyzed, as well as the impact of space up on the internal character and external relations of such political entities.

1.5.2. The Historical Approach

Is generally, adopted in studies, which describes the evolution of a political or social unit through time. Historical political geography has its focus on the past, both for the sake of understanding the past better and for analyzing current problems. “People will not look forward to posterity who never looks back ward to their ancestors” E. Burke. While much that now exist can only be understood in terms of what existed in the past, most studies in historical political geography have their greatest value in explaining the past. To rely upon them as guides to projecting political roles and activities of states today can prove fruitless and even misleading.

1.5.3. The Morphological Approach

It is the study of form and structure. It calls for a descriptive and interpretive analysis of the external and internal structure of the state area as a geographic object. The external morphological attributes include size, shape, location and boundaries, whereas the internal

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morphological subdivisions include core areas, the capital, and the cultural regions. It studies political areas according to their form that are their patterns and structural features. Patterns refer to the arrangement formed by the association of political units, whether national states, regional blocks, global alliances, or international administrative divisions, as expressed by location, size and shape. Structure on the other hand refers to the spatial features that political units have in common i.e. population and economic cores, capitals, boundaries, and underdeveloped or otherwise problem units.

1.5.4. The Functional Approach

It is concerned with the functioning of an area as a political unit. Every political unit has subordinate areas of organization, each with its own governmental functions. These subordinate areas must have stronger political associations with the state than with one another or with outside state. For the state to function properly it must have unity, homogeneity, coherence and viability basic requirements for such unity. Viability of the state is related, not only domestic economic relations, but also economic, strategic and political relations with other states.

Thus, the functional approach would study state strengthening or centralizing forces and state strengthening forces as they are related to space. Example, with in USA, one of the function of the state is to keep freedom of passage across interstate lines. Another example of the functional approach can be drawn from a state's external economic relations. The function of the state is to create or to maintain economic viability for its citizens. Law on foreign trade, including subsidies, tariff, and embargos are tools used by the state to promote this particular function.

1.5.5. The Behavioral Approach

Behavior refers to the sequence of interrelated biological and mental operations by which organisms respond to stimuli. The perception and attitudes toward foreign countries among political decision-makers may well affect foreign policy.

1. Individual behavior- one man's behavior
2. Aggregate behavior- includes such types as mass-group, institutional, and international behavior.

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3. Spatial behavior- indicates where the various attributes of space center in to behavioral- as a salient and independent variable. The perception of and attitude towards foreign countries among political decision-makers may well affect foreign policy.
4. Territorial behavior- the propensity to possess, occupy, and defend a particular portion of area refers to the spatial patterns of behavior, in which each occurrences can be located by geographical coordinates and the resulting pattern can be analyzed.

1.5.6. The Systematic Approach

It is derived from general system theory. The essence of general system theory is that it focus on systems of interrelated objects (person or thing), which enter the system of framework as an inputs, exit as outputs, and interact within it as elements that feed or flow internally. The emphasis is on the unity or the wholeness of the framework. Systems, in to which new elements enter and from which elements leave, are open systems, in contrast to the closed ones which function through the internal generating of energy.

The geopolitical system is advanced as a unit within which the political process interacts with geographical space. Political transactions, structures and societal forces are the component of the process; place, area and landscape are the components of geographical space. Process and space interact through the nation of political action areas, and various ideological attachments, organization and perceptions, practices these action areas.

1.6. Historical Background of Political Geography

Activity:

1. Can you explain about the Historical Background of Political Geography?
2. Discuse about the terms **Territory and Territoriality**

1.6.1. The Development of Political Geography before the Second World War

Political geography is along established sub-fields in the wider discipline of geography. Aristotle is often taken to be the first political geographer. This is because Aristotle, writing some 2300 years ago in ancient Greece, produced a study of the state in which he adopted an environmental deterministic approach to considering the requirements for boundaries, the capital city, and the

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ratio between territory size and population. In addition to Aristotle, the Greco-Roman geographer Strabo also examined how the Roman Empire was able to overcome the difficulties caused by its great size to function effectively.

From about 14th century through the 19th century scholars interested in political geography and theorized that the state operated cyclically and organically. What this meant was that states consolidated and fragmented based on complex relationships among and different factors. These factors broadly include population size, composition, agricultural productivity, land area, and the role of the city.

Political geography actually predates both economic and social geography and has traditionally attracted the most prominent geographers to its subject matter. Before the emergence of modern geography the term political geography was applied generally to human aspects of geography. With the establishment of geography in universities, human aspects of geography were given new names, indicating the creation of sub disciplines. In this way a political geography was created alongside colonial geography and commercial geography. This particular trilogy of human geographical knowledge reflects the concerns of new geography were being developed.

It should be emphasized that political geography was established as sub discipline of geography with the publication of Friedrich Ratzel's "politiche geographie" in 1897. Ratzel sometimes referred to as the father of political geography. Ratzel as a founder of political geography is remembered today for his organic theory of the state and the concept of 'living space' in which vigorous societies could expand. Ratzel's model portrays the state as behaving like a biological organism; thus its growth and change are seen as natural and inevitable. But Ratzel's political geography was much more than this. In keeping with the geography of his era, Ratzel defined a broadly based environmental approach to political geography very different from the narrow "political studies" currently in use.

The establishment of political geography cannot be discussed without mention of Sir Halford Mackinder's "geographical pivot of history" which later developed in to heart land theory. This initiated a geostrategic tradition in political geography and it still provides a framework for strategic thinking in cold war phases of USA and former USSR relations. The first major

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opportunity for Mackinder to apply his ideas came with the First World War. Mackinder and many other geographers were government advisors at Versailles where the task of redrawing the map of Europe brought geography and geographers in to public view.

1.6.2. The Development of Political Geography after the Second World War

In the early post Second World War period political geography retreated in to safer realm of the study at the scale of the individual state. By the early 1950's there began a trend towards shedding some of the environmental baggage of political geography and making the field more narrowly systematic in character. This time for vital papers attempted to provide a new rigorous framework for analyzing the geography of political areas and the modern state in particular. Interestingly, the political events of the late 1960's in Europe and USA had a profound effect on all social sciences. In human geography it brought the political dimension to the fore. This was expressed in three distinctive ways.

1. Economic and social geography included political variables in their analyses and interpretations;
2. As geography become more politicized radical geography was created, firmly establishing Marxist geography; and
3. There was the rival of political geography.

Different from the 1960's two main research areas came to dominate the growing political geography of the 1970's. First, urban conflicts became very common topic in human geography, this in turn become an important part of a new urban political geography. The second growth was electoral geography, where the techniques of the quantitative revolution were, at last, comprehensively applied in political geography. In this context, three areas of interest were identified.

- I. The geography of voting;
- II. Geographical influences in voting; and
- III. The geography of representation

But, this research growth did not overcome the uncoordinated nature of political geography; if anything it enhanced the lack of coherence. Political geography continues to prosper in the 1980's as most reviewers proclaim its remarkable resurgence. This time, three groups of political

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geographers may be identified. The first group refers to the status quo. This group largely accepts current institutions and society and it continues to research many of the topics of traditional political geography. Their ultimate concern is for political order and stability. The second group is that of the reformist group. It is in fact dissatisfied with current institutions and society and advocates limited change. Finally, there has been some merger between political geography and radical geography among political geographers who neither accept nor wish to reform the existing social and political order. Marxist theories of imperialism, the state and the local state are applied within the three scale framework. Alternatively, the “the world system analysis” has been adapted to political geography to attempt to explain the convenient existence of these three scales and to understand their interrelationships. This is because geographical scale is itself political.

Summary

Political geography is an academic discipline studying the interaction between political activity of people and integral geographical space, which includes physical, economic, social, cultural, and political spaces. Their superposition differentiates integral geographical space and creates socioeconomic and natural conditions for all forms of human activity, and geographical places with their unique history, structure of economy and settlements, composition of population, its identity, culture, way of life, etc. In other words, political geography deals with the relationship between political activity and geographical conditions under which it develops.

The contemporary set of subjects of political-geographical studies is being shaped as a result of (1) an analysis of “traditional” problems of human geography from a political perspective (for instance, the restructuring of urban space or the localization of nuclear power stations, protection of the environment, or the spatial distribution of ethnic minorities) and (2) a study of properly political problems by geographical methods (the role of the state, conflict resolution, or electoral systems). Definitions, the object, and the structure of political geography are considered. Most attention is paid to the history of world political geography: to the stages of its development since the late nineteenth century and especially to theoretical achievements and approaches of this discipline nowadays to the origin, problems, and concepts of what is termed the “new” political geography.

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The central focus of political geography is best understood from the point of view of the twin concepts of territory and territoriality. Territory is a general term used to describe areas of land or sea over which states and other political entities claim to exercise some form of control, while territoriality is the attempt by an individual or group to establish control over a clearly demarcated territory.

Review questions

Part I. True/false

Write **True**, if the statement is correct, **false**, if the statement is incorrect.

1. From 14th -19th century scholars interested in political geography and theorized that the state operated cyclically and organically.
2. Household politics is the best example of formal politics.
3. According to Hartshorne (1954), Definitions of **Political geography** is the study of the areal differences and similarities

Part II. Multiple choices

Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

1. One of the following is the subject matter of political geography?
A. Territory
B. place
C. power
D. Space
E. All of the above
F. None of the above
2. Who is taken to be the first political geographer?
A. Ratzel
B. Strabo
C. Aristotle
D. Mackinder
E. None of the above
3. People will not look forward to posterity who never looks backward to their ancestors. This proverb indicates which approach of political geography.
A. Power analysis approach
B. Historical approach
C. Morphological approach
D. Functional approach

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4. Of the following one is not correctly matched. Which one is it?

- A. Territory- space
- B. The politics of geography – regionalism
- C. Politics – power
- D. The geography of politics – democratic rule and territorial organization
- E. None of the above

5. The following approach of political geography is descriptive and interpretative analysis of the external and internal structure of the state as a geographic object.

- A. Historical approach
- B. Functional approach
- C. Systematic approach
- D. Power analysis approach
- E. Morphological approach

Part III. Short answer

Define the following words:

1. Geography

2. Politics

3. political geography

4. Historical Background of Political Geography

Chapter Two: State

Introduction

Dear learner! Welcome to this chapter, the chapter consist the definition of the state, the origin of the state, size, shape and location of the state, the concept of nation and nation state and the last forces for the state.

The State is the politically organized people of a definite territory. State is a community of persons, more or less numerous, permanently occupying a definite portion of territory, independent, or nearly so, of external control, and possessing an organized government to which the great body of inhabitants render habitual obedience. On the other hand, the state is a territorial society divided into governments and subjects, whether individuals or associations of individuals, whose relationships are determined by the exercise of this supreme cohesive power.

Geographers use the words State and Nation somewhat differently than the way they are used in everyday speech; the confusion arises because each word has more than one meaning. A State can be defined as either (1) any of the political units forming a federal government (e.g., one of the United States) or (2) an independent political entity holding sovereignty over a territory (e.g., the United States). In this latter sense, State is synonymous with country or nation. That is, a nation can also be defined as (a) an independent political unit holding sovereignty over a territory (e.g., a member of the United Nations). But it can also be used to describe (b) a community of people with a common culture and territory (e.g., the Kurdish nation). The second definition is not synonymous with State or country.

Objectives of the chapter

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- ✓ Define State
- ✓ Know the origin of State
- ✓ Distinguish State, Nation, Nation -state
- ✓ Describe centrifugal and centripetal forces of State
- ✓ Explain the size, shape and location of States
- ✓ Explain the emergency of the state
- ✓ Describe different forms of State

2.1 Definition of State

Activity:

1. What is the state?
2. Can you explain the origin of the state?

A State on international level is an independent political unit occupying a defined, permanently populated territory having full sovereign control over its and foreign affairs. Not all recognized territorial entities are States. With the exception of Antarctica no significant territorial area is free from State control. Antarctica, for example, has neither established government nor permanent population; it is therefore, not a State.

The first political units came in to being when families bonded together in to clans in order to defend their claimed territory against intruders. The most urgent needs were for a food supply. Thus, the occupation of particular areas was related to how the land could satisfy the need for food. Naturally hunters and gatherers needed more space than nomads did, and nomads do needed more space than farmers do. It was then either to defend small area than larger area that people were organized. The transition from hunting to pastoral stage and to farming activity brought our ancestors closer to a delineated territory.

The division of the world into bounded political units, commonly referred to as states, is the best-known example of formalized territories and of political–territorial organization. As a consequence, the state has long been a central element in political geography with a focus on various facets of the state including their origins, spatial development, key properties, roles, and functions. Traditional approaches in political geography have tended to take the state for granted. However, while it may be the dominant form of political territorial organization in the contemporary world, it has not always been so. Nevertheless, the state has been naturalized in much political geography. Geographers such as Ratzel developed ‘organic’ theories of the state which likened it to a natural entity which needed living space. Others devised theories of state growth in which it was argued states evolved through phases from youth to maturity, similar to rivers. These ideas can be seen as part of the broader trend of devising theories of political

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behavior analogous to natural processes. Ideas of state stability or instability were often linked to state size in terms of either land area or population and the extent of internal regional differences, whether physical, economic, or cultural. These centrifugal or centripetal pressures would help to determine state stability or instability. Conflicts between states, especially border disputes, have also been a focus of attention. While earlier consideration of borders tended to explore distinctions between natural boundaries (such as rivers) and artificial boundaries (lines of latitude or longitude, for example), more recent perspectives have broadened to examine borders, not just as lines dividing territories, but as social and discursive constructs which can have important ramifications in people's everyday lives. They may have a profound impact on people's ability to travel and on a whole range of 'ordinary' activities. For some, such as nomadic groups, borders may be irritants that disrupt their social practices. Some borders are more significant than others; the French-Spanish border is less significant

2.2. State, Nation, and Nation-state

Activity:

1. What is the state?
2. What is nation?
3. Explain about the nation-state?

To avoid confusion, we shall define a State on the international level as an independent political unit occupying a defined, permanently populated territory and having full sovereign control over its internal and foreign affairs. We will use country as a synonym for the territorial and political concept of "State." Nor are colonies or protectorates recognized as States. Although they have defined extent, permanent inhabitants, and some degree of separate governmental structure, they lack full control over all of their internal and external affairs.

State: has a legal personality and as such in international law possesses certain rights and duties. According to the Montevideo convention on rights and duties of States (1933), which widely regarded as a classic definition, State must possess the following qualifications: a permanent population, a defined territory, and a government capable of maintaining effective control over its territory and of conducting international relations with other States

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Nation: refers to a group of people who share some or all of common identifies (cultural traits) such as history, language, religion, ethnic or racial group, political institution, a common economic life, and a geographical location.

A nation- state: is a state consisting of homogenous group of people governed by their own state. In short it is a state with only one nation within its borders. This does not mean simply a minority ethnic group, but a nationalistic group with in a state, example, Japan, Iceland, Sweden, Uruguay, Egypt, New Zealand, Poland, and Portugal

2.2.1 The State

State can be defined as the politically organized society or apolitical system. If we take society as a system, the state represents one of the sub systems of the society-called the political system. The state can also be understood as the most supreme organ or institution of the society. The state refers to all institutions, agencies and agents that operate within a given territorial space, have legitimate power and authority over us, and can legitimately utilize force as a ultimate sanction against us if we fail to accept its rules or orders or resist its actions or act against it.

The state possesses five essential elements are Population, Territory, Government, Sovereignty and Organized Economy.

1. **Population:** The State is a human institution. It is the people who make a State, so Antarctica is not a State as it is without any human population. Because the population must be able to sustain a state .States should be large enough to be self-sufficing and small enough to be well-governed, but it is difficult to fix the size of the people of a state. In modern times we have India and China which have huge population and countries like San Marino with a very small population. The quality of the population is also important for the state requires healthy, intelligent and disciplined citizens. Therefore, the state with a homogenous people can be governed easily.
2. **Territory-** a State must occupy a definite portion of the earth's land surface and should have more or less generally recognized limits, even if some of its boundaries are undefined or disputed. Just as every person belongs to a state, so does every square yard of earth. There is no state without a fixed territory. Living together on a common land binds people together. Some call their countries as fatherland and some call it motherland without a fixed territory it would be difficult to conduct external relations. It is essential

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for the identification if one state attempts to conquer the territory of another. The territory may be small or large, but the state has to have a definite land, it may be as small as San Marino, which has an area of 62 Square kilometers, or it may be as large as India, USA, Russia or China.

3. **Government:** The government is the particular group of people, the administrative bureaucracy that controls the state apparatus at a given time. That is, governments are the means through which state power is employed. States are served by a continuous succession of different governments. Function is to enforce existing laws, legislate new ones, and arbitrate conflicts via their monopoly on violence.
4. **Sovereignty:** sovereign/sovereignty is highest power; final power; having supreme power and authority. State is an area that has a sovereign government; there is no higher power that can make rules for that place. A state has the final power to make rules for people living in the region it controls, a state is a legal unit controlling a certain territory within which ultimate political power and authority reside in (belong to) a sovereign central government
5. **Organized economy-** While every society have some form of economic system, a state invariably has responsibility for many economic system, a state invariably has responsibility for many economic activities, even if they include little more than the issuance and supervision of money and the regulation of foreign trade .

Political criteria of a state are sovereignty and recognition

Sovereignty: means power over the people of an area unrestrained by laws originating outside the area or independence completely free of direct external control. In other word, internationally recognized control a State has over the people and territory within its boundaries. For example colonies or protectorates are not recognized as States. Although they have defined extent, permanent inhabitants, and some degree of separate governmental structure, they lack full control over all of their internal and external affairs.

Recognition: For a political unit to be accepted as a state with an international personality of its own, it must be recognized as such by a significant portion of the international community the existing states. Means power over the people of an area unrestrained by laws originating outside the area or independence completely free of direct external control.

2.2.2 The Nation

Nation" as a conceptual entity refers to a grouping of people who, at a minimum, share a sense of common identity (usually associated with a particular territory or homeland) and a desire for political sovereignty. And also mean a reasonably large group with a common culture, sharing one or more important culture traits, such as religion, language, political institutions, values, and historical experience. They are clearly distinguishable from others who do not share their culture. . Example, the people of France are called French. Their "Frenchness" is demonstrated primarily by their speaking the French language, though it is spoken by a significant part of the people of Belgium and Switzerland. But within the whole body of French speakers, a complex of social ideas and attitudes, French tradition and culture distinguish as the French themselves. This is the cement which binds the people together and makes them cohere in to a nation.

The members of a nation recognize a common identity, but they need not to reside within common geographical area, example Jewish nation refers to members of the Jewish culture and faith throughout the world regardless of their place or origin. On the other hand, when a nation does not have a territory to call its own or nations without state, we call it Stateless nation, Example- Kurds.

The concept of a nation is essentially a geographical (territorial) concept because, a nation denotes a group of people with a strong sense of belongingness to their homeland, and also place loyalty to the groups as a whole. Nationalism- Is the feeling of belonging to as well as the belief that a nation has a natural right to determine its own affairs. The desire of cultural, linguistic and religious groups to achieve a political status that would give them a limited measure of self-government, sufficient at least to allow them to protect and defend their cultural individuality, is a fairly recent phenomena. Nationalities come in to existence only when certain objective bonds delimit a social group.

A nationality generally has several attributes, of these very few have all of them.

Common descent- belief in a common biological descent may have some cohesive force among tribal societies.

Common language- is the most frequent and obvious sign of social cohesion. Nevertheless some separate nations such as Australia, New Zealand, Great Britain, USA, and Canada speak English.

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Religion- it is a powerful political force. Example, in Arab world, the Catholic Church constitutes a significant part of the cement of the Polish and Irish nations.

2.2.3 The Nation-State

The nation-state is a state that self-identifies as deriving its political legitimacy from serving as a sovereign entity for a country as a sovereign territorial unit. The term "nation-state" implies that the two geographically coincide, and this distinguishes the nation-state from the other types of state, which historically preceded it. Clear examples of nation-states (where ethnic groups which make up more than 95 percent of the population are shown) include: Albania, Armenia, Bangladesh, Lesotho, Malta, Poland, Portugal, and Swaziland. Japan, Sweden, Uruguay, Egypt and New Zealand are all nation-state,

The nation-state is the dominant political entity of the modern world. However, it is comparatively recent phenomenon. It developed in Europe between the 16th and 19th centuries after the collapse of the Holy Roman Empire and the emergence of the centralized state claiming exclusive and monopolistic authority within a defined territorial area. Being a nation-state likely to show the greatest stability and permanence when it corresponds closely with a nation. It is also an instrument for national unity, in economic, social and cultural life. It also used for more centralized and uniform public administration. But today many of states are multinational states.

Multinational states are states which are composed of more than one ethnic or religious group, Example, Ethiopia, USA, Canada, South Africa, Spain, France, and Russia. Alternatively, a single nation may be dispersed across and be predominant in two or more states. This is the case with the part-nation state. Here, a people's sense of nationality exceeds the areal limits of a single state. An example is the Arab nation, which dominates 17 states. On the other hand, there is the special case of the **stateless nation**, a people without a state.

2.3 Emergency and evolution of modern State

For the first 2 million years of his existence, man lived in bands or villages which, as far as we can tell, were completely autonomous. Not until perhaps 5000 B.C. did villages begin to aggregate into larger political units. But, once this process of aggregation began, it continued at a progressively faster pace and led, around 4000 B.C., to the formation of the first State in

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history. (State in this section refers to an autonomous political unit, encompassing many communities within its territory and having a centralized government with the power to collect taxes, draft men for work or war, and decree and enforce laws.) Although it was by all odds the most far-reaching political development in human history, the origin of the State is still very imperfectly understood. Indeed, not one of the current theories of the rise of the state is entirely satisfactory.

Clearly, theories of the origin of the State are relatively modern. Classical writers like Aristotle, unfamiliar with other forms of political organization, tended to think of the State as “natural,” and therefore as not requiring an explanation. However, the age of exploration, by making Europeans aware that many people’s throughout the world lived, not in States, but in independent villages or tribes, made the State seem less natural, and thus more in need of explanation. The Various philosophers explain different ways of the Emergence and evolution of modern State as follow:

1. Voluntaristic theories

The most widely accepted of modern Voluntaristic theories is “**automatic**” theory. According to this theory the invention of agriculture automatically brought into being a surplus of food, enabling some individuals to divorce themselves from food production and to become potters, weavers, smiths, masons, and so on, thus creating an extensive division of labor. Out of this occupational specialization there developed a political integration which united a number of previously independent communities into a State.

Another current Voluntaristic theory of State origins is Karl Wittfogel’s “**hydraulic hypothesis.**” Wittfogel’s sees the State arising in the following way. In certain arid and semi-arid areas of the world, where village farmers had to struggle to support themselves by means of small-scale irrigation, a time arrived when they saw that it would be to the advantage of all concerned to set aside their individual autonomies and merge their villages into a single large political unit capable of carrying out irrigation on a broad scale. The body of officials they created to devise and administer such extensive irrigation works brought the State into being.

2. Social Contract Theory

In moral and political philosophy, the **social contract** is a theory or model, originating during the **age of enlightenment** that typically addresses the questions of the origin of society and the legitimacy of the authority of the state over the individual. Social contract arguments typically hypothesize that, individuals have consented, either openly or tacitly, to surrender some of their freedoms and submit to the authority of the ruler or magistrate, in exchange for protection of their remaining rights. The question of the relation between natural and legal rights, therefore, is often an aspect of social contract theory.

Social Contract Theory: starts with the assumption that, man lived originally in a 'state of nature', antecedents (background) to the formation of political organization. In this condition he was subject only to such rules of natural law as are prescribed by nature itself, and was the possessor (holder) of natural rights. The theorists like: **Hobbes**; It was a state of war, a savage state; men were selfish and aggressive brutes. Every man was the enemy of every other man. To avoid fear and danger of this terrible situation, men agreed to setup an authority. **John Locke**; Life in the state of nature was one of the peace and ease. Freedom and tranquility (harmony) prevailed. Men were bound by the law of nature and possessed certain natural rights, but there was the absence of an agency to interpret and implement the law of nature, so men agreed to create a common authority and, **Rousseau**; People led to a ideal life and enjoyed 'idyllic happiness' in the state of the nature. But the rise of property produced evils. To escape from them men set up authority by contract

3. The force theory

The state came into existence as a result of the forced subjection of the weak to the strong. Two arguments in force theory:

- 1) One group of thinkers used this theory to justify the state on the ground that the state is power, that might makes right and that the essence of the state is a sovereign will.
- 2) Second group, to attack the state because of its injustice and urge individual freedom and limited state action .In middle ages theologians argued that, the state was based upon force and injustice and decried the origin of earthly sovereignty in order to subordinate temporal to spiritual power. Individualist & anarchist believe that the State is an evil

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because of their desire for individual freedom. Socialist believes that, the state resulted from the aggression and exploitation of laborers by capitalist and attack, not the idea of the state itself.

Historical or archeological evidence of war is found in the early stages of State formation in Mesopotamia, Egypt, India, China, Japan, Greece, Rome, Northern Europe, Central Africa, Polynesia, Middle America, Peru, and Colombia, to name only the most prominent examples. Yet, though warfare is surely a prime mover in the origin of the State, it cannot be the only factor. After all, wars have been fought in many parts of the world where the State never emerged. Thus, while warfare may be a necessary condition for the rise of the State, it is not a sufficient one. Or, to put it another way, while we can identify war as the mechanism of State formation, we need also to specify the conditions under which it gave rise to the State

4. The Divine Theory

During the large part of human history the state was viewed as direct divine creation. Early oriental empires rulers claimed a divine right to control the affairs of their subjects and this right was seldom questioned. The Hebrews believed – divine origin. Spat between State Concept & Christianity Pope.

5. Environmental Circumscription

One promising approach is to look for those factors common to areas of the world in which States arose indigenously areas such as the Nile, Tigris-Euphrates, and Indus valleys in the Old World and the Valley of Mexico and the mountain and coastal valleys of Peru in the New. These areas differ from one another in many ways in altitude, temperature, rainfall, soil type, drainage pattern, and many other features. They do, however, have one thing in common: they are all areas of circumscribed agricultural land. Each of them is set off by mountains, seas, or deserts and these environmental features sharply delimit the area that simple farming peoples could occupy and cultivate. In this respect these areas are very different from, say, the Amazon basin or the eastern woodlands of North America, where extensive and unbroken forests provided almost unlimited agricultural land. So that agricultural land had its own significance for the origin of the State.

6. Political Evolution

Although the aggregation of villages into chiefdoms, and of chiefdoms into kingdoms, was occurring by external acquisition, the structure of these increasingly larger political units was being elaborated by internal evolution. These inner changes were, of course, closely related to outer events. The expansion of successful states brought within their borders conquered peoples and territory which had to be administered. And it was the individuals who had distinguished themselves in war who were generally appointed to political office and assigned the task of carrying out this administration. Besides maintaining law and order and collecting taxes, the functions of this burgeoning class of administrators included mobilizing labor for building irrigation works, roads, fortresses, palaces, and temples

2.4 Forces working for or against state Viability

Activity:

1. What means of forces?
2. List and explain the two types of forces that affect the state viability.

A state is likely to show the greatest stability and permanence when it *corresponds closely with a nation*, but *today many states is multinational states*. E.g. Ethiopia, Canada, South Africa. The **stability** of state depends upon **two** factors, which contribute either to its **strength** or **weakness**. At any moment in time, a State is characterized by forces that promote unity and national stability and by others that disrupt them. These forces may be internal or external. Political geographers refer to the former as **centripetal forces**. These are factors that bind together the people of a state that enable it to function and give it strength. **Centrifugal forces**, on the other hand, destabilize and weaken a state. If centrifugal forces are stronger than those promoting unity, the very existence of the state will be threatened.

2.4.1 Centrifugal Forces (weakening forces)

Any states there are forces tending to reduce its cohesion, in extreme cases they may break the state, and such centrifugal tendencies may result from the **simple geographical factors** of size, shape and difficulty of communication and transportation within the state. **More actively felt** is the division of the state's population into contrasting cultural, religious and linguistic

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communities. **The friction generated** by their conflict threatens the stability or even the existence of the state. The friction generated by their conflict threatens the stability or even the existence of the state. Example, Canada, India, Belgium. **Serious difficulties** may arise for a state if any of its regions have closer relations with regions of outside states than those with in the state, further where regions differ in social character, the tendency of the state to force some degree of uniformity of social life meets with resistance, thus the very attempt to produce unity may intensify diversity. Example, the major regions of Canada, is more closely related in certain respects with the adjacent areas of the USA than the other regions. The uninhabited or sparsely inhabited areas were created and still create a feeling of .Outside interference are commonly less important than the centrifugal forces that result from diversity of character of the population. And the very attempt to produce unity may intensify diversity.

A country whose population is bound not by a shared sense of nationalism but is split by several local primary allegiances suffers from sub-nationalism. That is, many people give their primary allegiance to traditional groups or nations that are smaller than the population of the entire state. Sub-nationalism can be a disruptive centrifugal force, particularly if a group believes that its right to self-determination has not been achieved. **Self-determination** is the concept that nationalities have the right to govern themselves in their own state or territory, a right to self-rule. They may try to carve out a new nation-state from portions of existing areas.

In Western Europe, five countries (the United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Italy, and Spain) contain political movements whose members reject total control by the existing sovereign state and who claim to be the core of a separate national entity. Some separatists would be satisfied with regional autonomy, usually in the form of self-government or "home rule"; others seek complete independence for their regions. Nationalist challenges to state authority affect many countries outside of Western Europe, of course. The Basques of Spain and the Bretons of France have their counterparts in the Palestinians in Israel, the Sikhs in India, the Tamils in Sri Lanka, the Moro's in the Philippines, and many others.

Other characteristics common to many separatist movements are a **peripheral location and social and economic inequality**. Troubled regions tend to be peripheral, often isolated in rural pockets, and their location away from the seat of central government engenders feelings of

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alienation, exclusion, and neglect. Second, the dominant culture group is often seen as an exploiting class that has suppressed the local language, controlled access to the civil service, and taken more than its share of wealth and power. Poorer regions complain that they have lower incomes and greater unemployment than prevail in the rest of the state, and that "outsiders" controls key resources and industry. Separatists in relatively rich regions believe that they could exploit their resources for themselves and do better economically without the constraints imposed by the central state.

2.4.2 Centripetal Forces

These are forces which tend to strengthening and unifying the state. The fact that country has a name, government and defines territorial limits, all that does not produce a state. To accomplish that, it is necessary to establish centripetal forces that will bind together the regions of the state.

The instruments of the national cohesion

The most prominent of these forces are nationalism, unifying institutions, organizations and administration, and transport and communication.

1. Nationalism: - One of the most powerful of the centripetal forces is nationalism, identification with the state and the acceptance of national goals. Nationalism is based on the concept of allegiance to a single country; it thus fosters a feeling of collective distinction from all other peoples and lands. It is an emotion that provides a sense of identity and loyalty and of collective distinction from all other peoples and lands. Citizens of Canada and the United States, for example, have their separate sense of distinction, emotional ties to separate societies, loyalty to different national symbols, recollection of different histories, and dedication to distinctive national roles and purposes. The border that separates the two countries, though open and unguarded, reflects those differences and marks a discontinuity in the North American cultural fabric.

States purposely try to instill feelings of allegiance in their citizens, for such feelings give the political system strength. People who have such allegiance are likely to accept common rules of action and behavior and to participate in the decision-making process establishing those rules. In addition, a sense of unity binding the people of a state together is necessary to overcome the divisive forces present in most societies. Not everyone, of course, will feel the same degree of commitment or loyalty. The important consideration is that the majority of a state's population

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accepts its ideologies, adhere to its laws, and participate in its effective operation. For many countries, such acceptance and adherence have come only recently and partially; in some, they are frail and endangered.

Iconography is the study of the symbols that bind a people together. National anthems and other patriotic songs; flags, national sports teams, and officially designated or easily identified flowers and animals; and rituals and holidays are all developed as symbols of a state in order to attract allegiance. They ensure that all citizens, no matter how diverse the population may be, will have at least these symbols in common. They impart a sense of belonging to a political entity called, for example, Japan or Canada.

2. Unifying Institutions: A number of institutions help to develop the sense of commitment and cohesiveness essential to the state. Schools, particularly elementary schools, are among the most important of these. Children learn the history of their own country and relatively little about other countries. Schools are expected to inculcate the society's goals, values, and traditions and to teach the common language that conveys them. Allegiance to the state is accepted as the norm, and youngsters are guided to identify with their country.

The armed forces (military) and, sometimes, a state church are the other institutions. The military organization fulfills a primary state goal: the provision of security, both internal and external. A high percentage of most states' budgets are spent to secure such protection. And the religion of the majority of the people may be designated a state church. In such cases the church sometimes becomes a force for cohesion, helping to unify the population. This is true of the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland, Islam in Iran, and Judaism in Israel.

3. Organization and Administration: A further bonding force is public confidence in the effective organization of the state. Can it provide security from external aggression and internal conflict? Are its resources distributed and allocated in such a way as to be perceived to promote the economic welfare of all its citizens? Are all citizens afforded equal opportunity to participate in governmental affairs? Are there institutions that encourage consultation and the peaceful settlement of disputes? How firmly established are the rule of law and the power of the courts? Is the system of decision making responsive to the people's needs?

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These are not questions of democracy or dictatorship but of citizen perception of the propriety and legitimacy of governmental control. The answers to them, and the relative importance of the answers, will vary from country to country, but they and similar ones are implicit in the expectation that the state will. If those expectations are not fulfilled, the loyalties promoted by national symbols and unifying institutions may be weakened or lost.

4. Transportation and Communication: A state's transportation network fosters political integration by promoting interaction between areas and by joining them economically and socially. The role of a transportation network in uniting a country has been recognized since ancient times. The saying that all roads lead to Rome had its origin in the impressive system of roads that linked Rome to the rest of the empire. Centuries later, a similar network was built in France, linking Paris to the various departments of the country. Roads and railroads have played a historically significant role in promoting political integration. In the United States and Canada, they not only opened up new areas for settlement, but they increased interaction between rural and urban areas.

Communication systems- the national media are the major instruments in informing and influencing the people I.e. Promotion of national unity by powerful mass media and education systems. Transportation and communication, while encouraged within a state, are frequently curtailed or at least controlled between states as a conscious device for promoting state cohesion through limitation on external spatial interaction. The mechanisms of control include restrictions on trade through tariffs or embargoes, legal barriers to immigration and emigration, and limitations on travel through passports and visa requirements.

2.5 Geographic Characteristics of States

Activity:

1. How you understanding the Geographic Characteristics of States?
2. You think! The size, shape and location of the state are affecting in political geography?

Every state has certain geographic characteristics by which it can be described and that set it apart from all other states. The size, shape, and relative location of any one state combine to

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distinguish it from all others. These physical geographic characteristics are of more than academic interest, because they also affect the power and stability of countries.

2.5.1 Size of the State

In general, the larger the state, the better the chance that there will be enough resources to support the state, but size can also hinder the effective control of a state's people and/or resources. Canada, Russia and Australia are large states but have relatively small areas capable of supporting agriculture.

The sovereign states in the world today range in size from the smallest the Vatican City state with an area of 44 ha, to Russia with an area of 16,889,390 square km.

Russia's surface area accounts for some 11% of the land surface of the world. The other large countries are:

Canada – 9,922,000 square km

China - 9,560,000 square km

USA - 9,528,000 square km

Brazil – 8,250,000 square km

Australia – 7,951,000 square km

States exceeding 2.5 million square km are described as very large, while those fewer than 25,000 square km are referred to as very small. Small states range from 25,000-150,000 square km, medium sized states from 150,000 – 350,000 square km. and large sized states from 350,000 – 2.5 million square km.

Example Very small---- Burundi, Lebanon, the Vatican City

Small ----- Netherlands, Liberia

Medium ----- UK, Poland

Large ----- France, Ethiopia

Very large ----- Russia Canada

Size of a state has both **advantages** and **disadvantages**

A. disadvantages of state size: A large country may not necessarily endow with resources. The location, physiographic and the shape of a state often enhances or diminishes the value or large size. Defensive size may be nullified by difficulties of administration and circulation. Population may be large or small, evenly or unevenly distributed, ethnically homogeneous or variegated

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regardless of the measurements of territory. A very large state sparsely populated may experience internal division, especially if the area intervening between the populated regions are **both difficult to cross and unproductive**.

Australia, Canada, and Russia, though large, have relatively small areas capable of supporting productive agriculture. **Australia's central desert**, **Siberia**, and the **Canadian shield** all exemplify the barrier effect of vastness. Nevertheless most very large states attempt to **diminish** the empty aspect of their sparsely populated regions by **encouraging settlement** in those areas by practicing population policies aimed at rapid growth. The size of a state is related in many ways to its **effective national territory** or **acumen**. Many of the states that evolved in various parts of the world **ultimately broke up** because their **frontiers** extend too far **outward** to be integrated with the **central area of the state**. Continued growth meant growing strength up to a certain point, after which it meant increasing vulnerability. This was one of the reasons to the collapse of the Aztec Empire, ancient Ghana, and the Roman Empire. It also has been a major factor in the breakup of more recent colonial empires, and such states as India and Pakistan and Sudan.

B. The advantages of the state size: Generalization regarding size might be made attention is paid to location (relative location, with reference to environmental regions, mineralized belts, and trade routes). For instance, USA lies in the middle latitudes, in world zones of many transitions (in terms of soil and climate etc), and fronting two oceans. Depending on location, then, size and environmental diversification are indeed related. A state that has a larger area than, When a land is too large for its population:

- Its defense is a burden
- The fields are inadequately farmed
- There is too large margin of the natural products
- Administration becomes increasingly difficult over long distances and thus less and less efficient.

On the other hand, when the country is too small to maintain its population, it is at the mercy of its neighbors from whom alone it can obtain commodities it lacks, and this produces aggression. Another has a chance to find a greater percentage of such resources with its borders. But these known resources themselves are not evenly distributed, they are scattered in patches across the globe.

2.5.2. The Shape of the State Area

Like size, a country's shape may affect its prospects of development and control. The geographical shape of a state presents only a degree less acute than those raised by its area. There are 4 categories of the shapes of states:

1. Elongated (attenuated) shape

It may be defined as state that is at least six times as long as its average width. Thus Chile, Norway, Sweden, Togo, the Gambia, Italy, Panama and Malawi are among the states in this category. Depending to a certain extent on the state's location with reference to world's cultural area, elongation may involve internal division, example the north -south division of Italy. Furthermore; the physiographic contrast within the elongated state may accentuate other divisions. Chile, for example, possesses at least 3 distinct environmental regions. The central region is Mediterranean in nature, the south is under maritime west coast condition, and the north is desert. The internal diversification of a state resulting from its straddling of several environmental and cultural zones may be advantageous.

2. Compact shape

Compact state is a state possessing a roughly circular, oval, or rectangular territory in which the distance from the geometric center to any point on the boundary exhibits little variance. It lies at about the same distance from the geometrical center at state. Compact states enclose a maximum of territory with in a minimum of boundary are without peninsulas, islands, or other remote extensions of the national spatial framework. Assuming no major topographical barriers, the most efficient national shape would be a circle with the capital located in the center. In such a country, all places could be reached from the center in a minimal amount of time and with the least expenditure for roads, railway lines, and so on. It would also have the shortest possible borders to defend. A perfect circle is an unlikely possibility, but some countries, Uruguay, Zimbabwe, and Poland are examples do have roughly circular shapes, forming a compact state.

Advantages

1. The boundary is the shortest possible distance in view of the area enclosed
2. Since there are no peninsulas, islands, or other protruding parts, the establishment of effective communications to all parts of the country should be easier here than under any other shape conditions(unless there are several physiographic barriers)

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3. Consequent to the second effective control is theoretically more easily maintained here than in any other country.

3. Prorupt state

It is nearly compact, but possess and extension of territory in the form of a peninsula, or “corridor” leading away from the main body of the territory. Such Prorupt states and territories often face serious internal difficulties, for the Proruption frequently is either the most important of the political entity or a distant problem of administration. Proruption may simply reflect peninsular elongations of land area, as in the case of Myanmar and Thailand. In other cases, the extensions have an economic or strategic significance, having been designed to secure state access to resources or to establish a buffer zone between states that would otherwise adjoin. The proruptions of Afghanistan, Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Namibia fall into this category. The Caprivi Strip of Namibia, for example, which extends eastward from the main part of the country, was designed by the Germans to give what was then their colony of Southwest Africa access to the Zambezi River. Whatever their origin, proruptions tend to isolate a portion of a state.

4. Fragmented state

It includes countries composed entirely of islands (e.g., the Philippines and Indonesia), countries that are partly on islands and partly on the mainland (Italy and Malaysia), and those that are chiefly on the mainland but whose territory is separated by another state (the United States). Fragmentation makes it harder for the state to impose centralized control over its territory, particularly when the parts of the state are far from one another. Fragmentation helped lead to the disintegration of Pakistan. It was created in 1947 as a fragmented state, but East and West Pakistan were 1610 kilometers (1000 mi) from one another. That distance exacerbated economic and cultural differences between the two, and when the eastern part of the country seceded in 1971 and declared itself the independent state of Bangladesh, West Pakistan was unable to impose its control.

A special case of fragmentation occurs when a territorial outlier of one state, an **exclave**, is located within another state. Before German unification, West Berlin was an outlier of West Germany within East Germany (the German Democratic Republic). Europe has many such outlying bits of one country inside another. Kleinwalsertal, for example, is a piece of Austria accessible only from Germany. Baarle-Hertog is a fragment of Belgium inside Holland.

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5. Perforated state

The counterpart of an exclave helps to define the fifth class of shapes, the **perforated state**. A perforated state completely surrounds a territory that it does not rule. It is impossible to reach the perforating state without crossing the territory or air space of perforated state. Example, San Marino perforates Italy; Lesotho surrounds the republic of South Africa. The enclave, the surrounded territory, may be independent or may be part of another state. Two of Europe's smallest independent states, San Marino and Vatican City, are enclaves that perforate Italy. As an exclave of West Germany, West Berlin perforated the national territory of former East Germany and was an enclave in it. The stability of the perforated state can be weakened if the enclave is occupied by people whose value systems differ from those of the surrounding country.

Exclave and Enclave

Small pockets of land lying outside the main territory, as islands within the territory of neighboring states are exclaves. Nevertheless, these exclaves are of some importance on political geography for they may depend for their survival on their connections with homeland. Their boundary may be under great stress. An **enclave** is a territory whose geographical boundaries lie entirely within the boundaries of another territory. An exclave, on the other hand, is a territory legally or politically attached to another territory with which it is not physically contiguous.

Although the meanings of both words are **close**, an exclave may **not necessarily** be an enclave or vice versa. **E.g.** Lesotho is an enclave in South Africa, but it is not politically attached to anything else, meaning that it is not an exclave. A country surrounded by another but having access to the sea is not considered an enclave, regardless of size. Enclaves may be created for a variety of historical, political or geographical reasons. Some areas have been left as enclaves by changes in the course of a river. An **enclave state** is a state entirely enclosed within the territory of another state. "Enclaved states" in international law are sovereign states landlocked within another state. There are currently **three** such states: Lesotho, San Marino, and the Vatican. Additional confusion results from calling states without sea access enclaved countries. The correct term in this respect would be a landlocked country. There are currently 42 landlocked in the world.

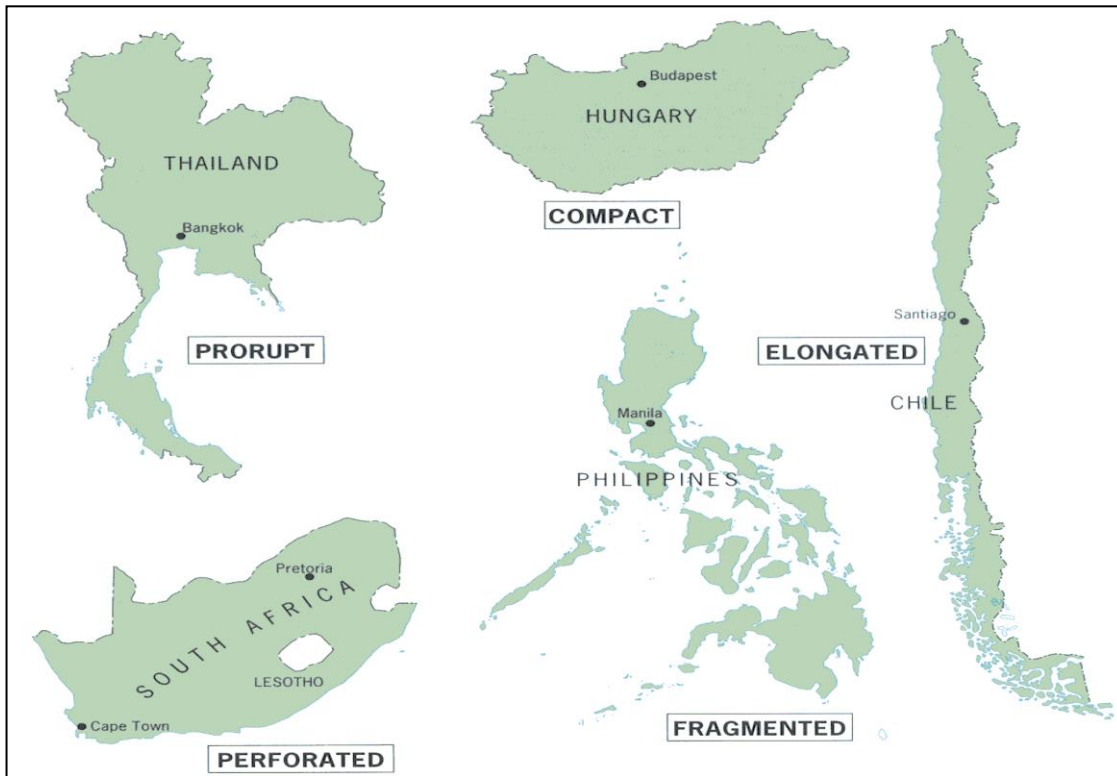


Figure 2.1 Shape of the state

There are four problems related to the shape and the physical geography of a state

1. Divided state

The states have different divisions based on the control of a continuous territory is one of the principal requisites for the smooth functioning of a political entity. Yet a number of states are divided in some way. Example, Canada separates the state of Alaska from the continental USA. Here most of the traffic between them would go by sea in any case. Egypt and Panama are divided into two by the canals of the Suez and Panama respectively.

2. Physical barriers within the state

Within any state, the degree of the unity and ease of administration are influenced by the terrain and the resulting difficulty of travel. Example, Ecuador appears as a compact state of medium size. In reality, it is divided into three almost equal physical regions, the plain along the Pacific coast, the ranges and the high plateaus of the Andes, the plains that slope down in the east toward the Amazon.

3. The state as a national unit

Political theorists of the 18th century argued that there was a right and proper limit to the size of state. Therefore, a framework for the establishment and territorial extent of state should be implicit in the relief and drainage patterns and in the other aspects of the physical landscape. River basins in several cases were regarded as such natural units. Anyway, the tendency for at least century has been to make the state accord with the nation, not with some arbitrarily chosen frame work in physical Geography.

2.5.3 Location of the State

The geographic location of a state as distinct from its shape and size is significant in two ways:

1. **Absolute location:** in relation to the territorial globe, this influences in particular, its climate. Although both Canada and Russia are extremely large, their absolute location in the upper-middle latitudes reduces their size advantages when agricultural potential is considered. To take another example, Iceland has a reasonably compact shape, but its location in the North Atlantic Ocean, just south of the Arctic Circle, means that most of the country is barren. Settlement is confined to the rims of the island. As important as absolute location is a state's relative location, its position compared to that of other countries. Landlocked states, those lacking ocean frontage and surrounded by other states, are at a geographic disadvantage. They lack both easy access to maritime (seaborne) trade and to the resources found in coastal waters and submerged lands

2. **Relative Location:** in relation to other states. **Buffer states** are small political units located between large nations. They survive because they separate states that would otherwise be powerful neighbors and because the attempt to conquer them would be met, not by the relatively weak resistance of the buffer, but by the much stronger opposition of the other neighbor. Thus the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxemburg have survived as buffer between France and Germany; Poland and ex-Czechoslovakia, and Rumania as buffer between Central Europe and the ex-Soviet Union. During 19th century the **British** in **India** feared most the growing power of **Czarist Russia** to the **north**. **This is not to suggest that these states existed only by virtue of their role as buffers**, but the fact that some powers wanted them to serve as such imbalances their importance and allowed them to acquire more territory than might otherwise have done

For this reason, they created or maintained the **buffer states of Iran (Persia) and Afghanistan** between the **then British** territories and **Russia**

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In a few instances, a favorable relative location constitutes the primary resource of a state. Singapore, a state of only 580 square kilometers (224 sq. mi) and 3.5 million people, is located at a crossroads of world shipping and commerce. Based on its port and commercial activities, and buttressed by its more recent industrial development, Singapore has become a notable Southeast Asian economic success. In general, history has shown that countries benefit from a location on major trade routes, not only from the economic advantages such a location carries, but also because they are exposed to the diffusion of new ideas and technologies.

2.6 State in the global perspective

2.6.1. The Laws of the Spatial Growth of States

International law defines as the province of a state that part of the earth, which is subjected to the government of the state. Political geography as well is rooted in this definition, but has nothing to do with the clauses and provisos through which international law expands the domain of the state into either the sky or the earth to an indeterminate distance or extends that domain to all ships. Laws of the spatial growth of states, which are developed by Ratzel's, are the following:

1. The size of the state grows with its culture (size will increase as culture develops):

The expansion of geographic horizons, a product of the physical and intellectual exertions of countless generations, continually presents new areas for the spatial expansion of populations. To master these areas politically, to amalgamate them and to hold them together requires still more energy. Such energy can be developed only slowly by and through culture. Culture increasingly produces the bases, means for the cohesion of the members of a population, and continually extends the circle of those who, through recognition of their homogeneity, are joined together.

2. The growth of states follows other manifestation of the growth of peoples, which must necessarily precede the growth of the state:

This indicates, territorial growth of a state follows other aspects of development. Without political purposes of their own people come in to closest relationship, the mutual interest of people which binds together prepares the ground for political advancement and unification. Like, Commerce and communication far precede politics which follows in their path and can never be sharply separated from them. Peaceful intercourse is the preliminary condition of the growth of the state.

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3. The growth of the state proceeds by annexation of smaller members in to the aggregate.

At the same time the relationship of the population to the land becomes continuously closer. In other word, a state grows by absorbing smaller units. From the mechanical integration of areas of the most varied sizes, populations, and cultural levels there arises, through proximity, communication and the intermixture of their inhabitants, an organic growth.

4. The boundary is the peripheral organ of the state, the bearer of its growth as well as its fortification, and takes part in all of the transformations of the organism of the state.

Spatial growth manifests itself as a peripheral phenomenon in pushing outward the frontier which must be crossed by the carriers of growth. Means Boundaries are peripheral organs that take part in all transformations of the state. In other word, the frontier is the peripheral organ of the state that reflects the strength and growth of the state; hence, it is not permanent.

5. In its growth the state strives toward the envelopment of politically valuable positions.

In its growth and evolution the state practices selection of geographical benefits in that it occupies the good positions of a district before the poor. If its growth is related to the dispossession of other states, it victoriously captures the good areas and the dispossessed continue in the bad.

6. The first stimuli to the spatial growth of states come to them from the outside.

Initial stimulus for growth is external. In other word, the impetus for growth comes to a primitive state from a more highly developed civilization. The growth of primitive states has never been advanced without foreign influence. The origin of such growth is colonization in the border sense. Men from regions of larger spatial conceptions carry the idea of larger states in to districts to less spatial concepts. Australia, America, and Africa south of the equator, which prior to coming of the Europeans were left to their inhabitants and were the least stimulated areas of the earth, also exhibit the poorest development of states.

7. The general tendency toward territorial annexation and amalgamation is transmitted from the state to state and continually increases in intensity.

With an increasing estimation of its political values the land has become of increasingly greater influence as a measure of political power and as a spoil in state struggles. The drive toward the building of continually larger states continues throughout the entire of history.

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2.6.2. The Territory of the State

A state must have territory. Neither in law, custom, or current practice, however, are any guidelines about the territorial characteristics necessary for either for formal recognition of a state or for the survival.

Acquisition of territory: A state can acquire territory under international law (with a few minor exceptions). In fact, however, international law was and is being created by states, so there can be no formal rules for the acquisition of territory until states make the rules. Furthermore, states came into existence gradually through the actions of peoples or sovereigns.

Occupation: At first, discovery alone was given some status as a basis for a claim, but it was frequently challenged and seldom sustained. By the 18th century discovery alone was no longer adequate, it had to be followed by effective occupation. There have been a great many disputes over definition of effective occupation and its importance visa-a visa other claims to territory, and some of these disputes survive today. But since there is probably no undiscovered land remaining in the world and little unclaimed land, this basis for claims is of historical and legal interest.

Prescription: If an area claimed by a state is occupied by another state for years without serious objection by the original claimant, the title, whether or not clear and organized, may be considered abandoned and may pass to the occupying state. The rise of nationalism, however, has virtually eliminated prescription as a means of transferring territory, except for a few small and remote islands.

Conquest and annexation: Historically, territory has changed hands through conquest at least as often as by any other means. Conquest alone, however, does not enough. Conquerors must take steps to annex the new territory and incorporate it into their own, extending their laws over it, giving it representation in the national legislatures appointing administrators, or otherwise making the annexation effective.

Voluntary cession: Formerly, it was quite common for territory (with its inhabitants) to pass from one country to another simply by agreement. Today voluntary cession is rare. Remote Island is still being transferred, as when Christmas Island in the Indian Ocean was transferred from Britain to Australia in 1950. Minor boundary adjustments, generally involving exchange of territory, have been quite common in Europe since World War II.

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Accretion: is the addition of land to a state by natural processes. This most commonly results from a gradual shift in the bed of a river that has been adopted as an international boundary. If the river changes courses suddenly, as a result of flood or earth quake, for example, the process is called allusion, and the boundary customarily remains in place. Land is also accreted in deltas, along emerging coastlines, as islands built up by rivers and ocean currents, and soon.

Acquisition rights: often one state grants the use of territory to another without title or sovereignty actually changing hands. Such transfer of rights takes the form of leases and servitudes. Today they have become rare. Example, USA in 1903 acquired from panama rights to the “use, occupation, and control” of a zone for the construction, operation and defense of an inter-oceanic canal, which it now gradually giving up.

2.6.3. Structure of the state

Activity:

1. Explain the structure of the state.
2. What means of federalism and unitary state?

Federalism is a system under which significant government powers are divided between the central government and smaller units, such as regions/states. In a confederation, the constituent states get together for certain common purposes but retain ultimate individual authority and can veto major central governmental actions. The United Nations, the European Union, and the American government under the Articles of Confederation are examples. In a unitary system, the central government has all the power and can change its constituent units or tell them what to do. Japan and France have this kind of government

In terms of the patterns of power distribution among the central and local or sub-national government, states can be classified in to two: Unitary state and Federal state. State organization is the result of lengthy processes of experimentation and modification. State systems are continually being altered, sometimes through deliberation and consultation and at other times because the system cannot withstand certain centrifugal pressures or forces.

2.6.3.1 The Unitary State

The word “unitary” derives from the Latin unit as (unity). It emphasizes the oneness of the state and implies a high degree of internal homogeneity and cohesiveness. A Unitary form of government is one in which sovereignty is wholly in the hands of the national government, so that the states and localities are dependent on its will. The unitary state is built up around a single political centre and the territory of the state is under the control of this centre. Examples include Britain and France where political power is concentrated respectively in London and Paris. A unitary state has a single ultimate sovereignty.

- ❖ An ideal unitary state should not be in the “large” or “very large” categories of state territory.
- ❖ It should be also compact in shape.
- ❖ A fragmented or Prorupt territory may present obstacles to unity and cohesion
- ❖ The unitary state should be relatively densely populated and effectively inhabited.
- ❖ The unitary state should have only one core area.
- ❖ Multi-core states reflect strong regionalism and undesirable condition in unitary states
- ❖ Theoretically the most suitable location for the single core area of the unitary state is **central to its compact territory**. This brings all peripheral areas within the shortest distance of the capital city and makes the presence of the core area the capital strongly felt in all parts of the state.

A. Evolution and Present Distribution of Unitary States

Few of the unitary States in existence today conform to the ideal model. Several examples that show a close approximation to the ideal occur in Western Europe. The old European States fostered a strong central authority, and it is here that the unitary State as it is known today emerged. In 1995 there were fewer than two dozen federal states and more than 150 unitary States.

France is often cited as the best example of the unitary state. Though large by European standards (544,000-sq. km.), this country, apart from Corsica, is compact in shape. It has a core area with a lengthy history, and at its heart is a capital city of undoubted eminence as well as a large, politically conscious population with much historical momentum and strong traditions.

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Modern France was forged, in effect, by Napoleon, who swept away the old system of loosely tied divisions and replaced them with 90 separate "departments," based on rough equality of size. Each of these departments had the same relationship to the central political authority as did the next, and each sent representatives to Paris. Napoleon also developed an entirely new system of communications, focusing very strongly on Paris, to act as a unifying agent. Until the days of Napoleon, allegiance in France had been to individual divisions rather than to France, despite the forces of revolution and the overthrow of the monarchy. France today may be considered as nearly completely a nation-state.

Most of the former colonial territories of the world have adopted a unitary form of organization, especially those in which the indigenous population has taken control. In Latin America, including the Caribbean, all countries except Venezuela, Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina function as unitary states. In Africa and in the Middle East, all Arab countries are unitary states, and the majority of the black African states have also chosen this form of organization. Africa south of the Sahara affords excellent examples of recent experimentation with European concept of government. In Asia, only India and Malaysia are unitary states. Comparatively few unitary states approach the ideal. A number are territorially fragmented, including Japan, the Philippines, Indonesia, and New Zealand, and several are in size categories that required internal homogeneity and unity, such as China and Sudan.

B. Types of Unitary States

Two types of centralized states are recognized.

- 1. Centralized** – this is the average unitary state, true to the basic rule of centralization of governmental authority but without excesses either in the direction of totalitarianism or in the direction of devolution of power. Normally, in such a state stability has been achieved by virtue of the homogeneity of the population and binding elements of the culture and traditions. States in this category usually possess only one core area. They are generally older states. Most examples are found in Europe, such as Denmark, Sweden and the Netherlands. The population participates in government through the democratic election of representatives. No single ethnic minority or political party has sole claim to leadership, which doesn't mean that there is no ethnic diversity within centralized unitary states and no regionalism. The overriding factors of proximity, inter

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digitation, interdependence, historical association produce the centripetal forces that bind the state together.

2. **Highly centralized** – in this type of unitary state, internal diversity, ethnic heterogeneity, tribalism or regionalism that threatens to disrupt the state system is countered by tight and omnipotent control. The leader or leaders often are the representatives of a minority group within the country or of the only political party they may operate within the state. Cuba in Latin America, Equatorial Guinea and Libya in Africa, and Saudi Arabia and Indonesia in Asia are some current highly centralized unitary states.

2.6.3.2 The Federal State

First of all the idea of federalism was adoption of an idea with ancient Greek and roman roots. The term comes from the Latin feoderis; it means alliance and co-existence, a union of consensus and common interest. Federalism is the ideology which holds that the ideal organization of human affairs is best reflected in the celebration of diversity through unity. Federal state is a type of sovereign state characterized by a union of partially self-governing states or regions united by a central (federal) government. In federalism, the self-governing status of the component states is typically constitutionally entrenched and may not be altered by a unilateral decision of the central government

All large states, except china, have a federal constitution at the present time. Several small states, in there is strong regional feelings, have also adopted this practice of federation. The most federal practice began in the USA, where, after the revolt of the American colonies, thirteen states found themselves with a common language, and a material culture that did not differ greatly between them, and a distrust of strong centralized government. Examples of world federal states- Russia, Argentina, India, brazil, Mexico, Ethiopia, Germany, Nigeria, Switzerland, Pakistan etc.

A. Features of Federal State

1. In unitary state the central government exercises in power equally over all parts of the state. But the federal framework permits a central government to represent the various entities within the state where they have common interest, defense, foreign affairs and communications.

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2. It allows these various entities to retain their own identities and to have their own law, policies and customs in certain fields. Thus, each entity (such as a state, province or region) has its own capital city, its own governor and its own internal budget. In turn each represented in the federal capital.
3. Federal states, like unitary states, evolve and change overtime.
4. Theoretically, the federal framework is especially suitable for states in the large and very large categories. Poor communication and ineffective occupation of large areas within the state still affect for example Brazil. These impediments to contact and to control might disrupt unitary state, where as federal framework state; whereas federal framework can withstand such centrifugal forces.
5. In terms of shape, fragmented states and prorupted states may be served by a federal system. An elongated state possessing more than one core area also might turn to a federal arrangement.
6. Federal states can adjust to the presence of more than one core (a number of subsidiary cores) more easily than unitary states. Ideally, the government of the federal state functions in a capital city located in an area of federal territory set off within the state for the specific purpose of administration. This fore stalls any friction over the choice of an existing major city as the capital and prevents regional favoritism from occurring, as it has in some federal states. Example in Nigeria, an existing city (Lagos) was separated from the western region and made the capital for two reasons.
 1. It was a long term colonial capital and housed most government records and existing facilitates.
 2. It happens to be the leading port of the country, thus guaranteeing the landlocked north exists through a federal rather than a regional port.

The federal arrangement is also a political solution for those territories occupied by peoples of widely different ethnic origins, languages, religions or cultures. By their flexibility, federal frameworks have able to accommodate expanding territories. Provisions are often made for areas not yet incorporated. USA, India, Mexico, Brazil, the unification of Germany (facilitated by clause of the West Germany federal constitution). Another advantages offered by the federal arrangement it its encouragement of individual and local enterprise. Economic development in

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USA took place as fast as it did largely for this reason. The westwards push of Brazil, as exemplified by the relocation of the capital, is an effort to stimulate a similar chain of events in its hinterlands.

B. Types of Federal States

A federation does not create unity out of diversity; rather it enables the two to exist. The centripetal forces must outweigh the centrifugal forces present in any federal state. There are several different types of federal state. In some present day federal states, such as Australia and Argentina, internal variety and diversity seem so insignificant (compared to that existing in other countries) that a unitary arrangement might be just effective. Other federal states, including Canada, Ethiopia and Nigeria, incorporate such diversity that a certain amount of give and take was and remains essential for the well-being of state. In still other federal states, the geographic obstacles to any unitary system rendered a federal arrangement imperative.

Another category of federations that must be considered is those that have failed. The world is littered with the wreckage of federations that have been proposed but never consummated, that have been created only to fragment relatively quickly, and that have survived but only after conversion into unitary states. Most resulted from the break-up of empires, and federation was seen as a way of managing, if not solving, many of the different problems engendered by decolonization.

2.6.3.4. Regional States

As federal states become more centralized and unitary states grant more autonomy to regions within them, it has become increasingly difficult in applying the old labels to new situations. Nowadays, for states approaching a midway area between federalism and Unitarianism, the term regional state is used. In this category are placed those states in which considerable autonomy has been granted to regions within them, generally regions of ethnic distinctiveness or remoteness from the core area. Example, the United Kingdom has guaranteed regional autonomy to many of its regions, Finland and Spain.

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Summary

State has a legal personality and as such in international law possesses certain rights and duties. The state possesses five essential elements are Population, Territory, Government, Sovereignty and Organized Economy. **Nation** as a conceptual entity refers to a grouping of people who, at a minimum, share a sense of common identity (usually associated with a particular territory or homeland) and a desire for political sovereignty. And also mean a reasonably large group with a common culture, sharing one or more important culture traits, such as religion, language, political institutions, values, and historical experience

The nation-state is a state that self-identifies as deriving its political legitimacy from serving as a sovereign entity for a country as a sovereign territorial unit. **A nation- state** is a state consisting of homogenous group of people governed by their own state. In short it is a state with only one nation within its borders. This does not mean simply a minority ethnic group, but a nationalistic group with in a state, example, Japan, Iceland, Sweden, Uruguay, Egypt, New Zealand, Poland, and Portugal.

State cohesiveness is prompted by a number of centripetal forces. Among these are national symbols, a variety of institutions, and confidence in the aims, organization, and administration of government. Transportation and communication connections are also important in their economic and political integration and in uniting national cores and peripheries Destabilizing centrifugal forces, particularly ethnically based separatist movements, threaten the cohesion and stability of many states.

State organization is the result of lengthy processes of experimentation and modification. State systems are continually being altered, sometimes through deliberation and consultation and at other times because the system cannot withstand certain centrifugal pressures or forces. The world's countries are divided into two broad categories – Unitary and Federal states. The unitary state emphasizes the oneness of the state and implies a high degree of internal homogeneity and cohesiveness. Federal state is a type of sovereign state characterized by a union of partially self-governing states or regions united by a central (federal) government. In federalism, the self-governing status of the component states is typically constitutionally entrenched and may not be altered by a unilateral decision of the central government.

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Review questions

Part I. true /false

1. A federation does not create unity out of diversity; rather it enables the two to exist.
2. Prorupt state **is** possessed and extension of territory in the form of a peninsula, or corridor leading away from the main body of the territory.
3. Large size of the state is not hinder for the effective control of a state's people and/resources.
4. All recognized territorial entities can be considered as states.
5. One of the most powerful of the centripetal forces is nationalism.

Part II; Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

1. One of the following is not regarded as an instrument that tends to strength the unity of a state.
A. National media C. Nationalism
B. Religious institutions D. Sparsely inhabited areas
2. Which one of the following is **false** about nation-state?
A. It is the dominant political entity of modern world
B. It is comparatively a recent phenomenon
C. Consist heterogeneous group of people
D. Has greatest stability and permanence population
3. Which one of the following is fulfilling for considering as a state?
A. Territory B. permanent resident population
C. Government D. none of the above F. All of the above
4. Which one of the following is the attribute of nationality?
A) Common descent C) Religion
B) Common language D) Territory E) All are answer
5. Which one of the following is **true** related with the features of federal states?
A. All large states have a federal constitution at present time
B. Like unitary states, federal states also evolves and changes through time
C. Fragmented and Prorupted states do served by a federal system
D. Federal states can adjust to the presence of less than one core

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E. All of the above

F. None of the above

6. Which one of the following is **invalid** about features of unitary state?

A. The unitary state should be relatively densely populated and effectively inhabited

B. It is compact in shape

C. The unitary state should have one core area

D. The unitary state should not be large in terms of territory

E. All Arab countries are unitary states

F. None of the above

7. ____ is the addition of land to a state by natural processes.

A. Accretion B. Acquisition rights C. Conquest and annexation D. Prescription E. All

Part III, short answer

1. List and discuss the Laws of the Spatial Growth of States

2. Explain the advantages and disadvantages of the size of the state.

3. What means of regional state?

4. Discuss about the centrifugal and centripetal forces of the state.

Chapter Three: Frontiers and Boundaries

Introduction

Dear learner! In this chapter you read about the frontiers and boundaries in internationally, within the international boundaries all modern sovereign state are bounded and confide to their legal limits. The terms „frontier“ and „boundary“ have been widely used, often interchangeably, by geographers and others to describe political divisions, especially at national level. Today, frontiers disappeared under the global tide of human settlement and economic development, to be replaced by boundaries, which are more lines of demarcation. Political frontiers and boundaries separate areas subject to different political control of sovereignty. Frontiers are zones of varying widths, which were common features of the political landscape centuries ago. By the beginning of the 20th c most remaining frontiers had disappeared and had been replaced by boundaries, which are lines. Frontiers may consist of uninhabited or sparsely populated areas of marginal utility at the current level of technology, so that the States on either side of the frontier may not feel the need to define the precise areal limits of their political jurisdiction.

Most of the countries of our world did not emerge at one time with a single set of international limits. That is certainly the case with countries in Europe, North and South America, and Asia. Although it is true that many African countries, such as Somalia and Mozambique, became independent within a set of boundaries, which have not been altered, research in to their colonial antecedents reveals a variety of colonial boundaries. A significant part of the history of several countries concerns the struggle for territory, and the identification of previous national boundaries on a single map provides a shorthand account of stages in the progress to the present pattern of states.

Objectives of the chapter

At the end of this chapter, you will be able to:

- ❖ Define frontier and boundary
- ❖ Explain the types of boundaries
- ❖ Understand the stages in boundary development
- ❖ Distinguish the origin and types of boundary disputes

3.1. Modern concepts of Frontiers and boundaries

Activity:

What are frontiers?

What are boundaries?

Can you explain the difference between frontiers and boundaries?

3.1.1 The frontier

Is used in two senses; it can refer to either the political division between two countries **or** the division between the division between the settled and uninhabited parts of one country. In each sense the frontier is considered a **zone**. It is a politico geographical area lying between the integrated region of the political unit and into which expansion could take place. Before boundaries were delimited, nations or empires were likely to be separated by frontier zones, ill-defined and fluctuating areas marking the effective end of a state's authority. Such zones were often uninhabited or only sparsely populated and were liable to change with shifting settlement patterns. Many present-day international boundaries lie in former frontier zones, and in that sense the boundary line has replaced the broader frontier as a marker of a state's authority. Frontier regions occur where boundaries are very weakly developed. They involve zones of underdeveloped territoriality, areas that are distinctive for their marginality rather than for their belonging.

Frontier can be an area between two states where a precise boundary has never been defined such as most of the area between Saudi Arabia and Yemen. It is a border zone, unclaimed, unsettled and unused, in to which peoples from each side way at times intrude but over which neither sides claims or exercises an exclusive control. It is outer oriented i.e. its main attention is directed towards the outlying areas. The frontier is a manifestation of centrifugal forces. At the local level many examples of frontier, or marginal, region exist. Although the residents of most towns and cities recognize a series of distinctive districts and neighborhoods, these are often separated by zones or spaces that are marginal. Not fully integrated into the territorial realm of any one socio-cultural group, these spaces are often transitional in nature, with a relatively rapidly changing pattern of land use and an equally rapidly changing profile of residents.

3.1.2. Boundaries

Boundaries are lines that are demarcated with exactitude on the surface of the earth. All boundaries are imaginary lines, which define an area or a territory they may or may not have been demarcated on the ground or in the other words reduced to visible boundary. Boundary is a finite and precise line surrounding and defining the territory of a state. In fact it is not a line but a plane, a vertical plane that cuts through the air space, the soil, and the sub soil of the adjacent states. It is inner oriented (i.e. created and maintained by the will of the central government. It is the outer limit within which a government exercises effective control). No portion of the earth's land surface is outside the claimed control of a national unit, that even uninhabited Antarctica has had territorial claims imposed upon it. Each of the world's states is separated from its neighbors by international boundaries, or lines that establish the limit of each state's jurisdiction and authority.

Boundaries indicate where the sovereignty of one state ends and that of another begins. Within its own bounded territory, a state administers laws, collects taxes, provides for defense, and performs other such governmental functions. Thus, the location of the boundary determines the kind of money people in a given area use, the legal code to which they are subject, the army they may be called upon to join, and the language and perhaps the religion children are taught in school. These examples suggest how boundaries serve as powerful factor of cultural variation over the earth's surface.

Specifically boundaries have the following functions:

- It is important for defensive function
- Boundaries mark the limit of state jurisdiction
- Commercial function of boundary (the government can erect tariff walls against outside competition for its market and thus assist international industries.
- Legal function- residents living within sight of the border may have closer linguistic, historical and religious ties with the people, on the other side; they are subject to the regulations prevailing on their side of the boundary. Furthermore, the government usually attempts to control emigration and immigration at points along the borders.
- Serve as a state symbols of sovereignty, and foster nationalism
- Needed for administrative purposes

3.1.3. The deference between frontier and boundary

Frontier is the outer oriented. Its main attention is directed towards the outlying areas, which are both a source of danger and a coveted prize.

Boundary is inner oriented. It is created and maintained by the will of the central government. It is the outer line of effective control exercised by the central government. The frontier is a manifestation of centrifugal forces. On the other hand, the range and vigor of centripetal forces is indicated by the boundary. The frontier is an integrating factor. Being a zone of transition from the sphere of the way of life to another, and representing forces which are neither fully assimilated nor satisfied with either, it provides an excellent opportunity for mutual interpretation and sway. The boundary is on the contrary, a separating factor. It is the boundary that impinges on life. Few natural obstacles restricted the movement of persons, things and even ideas completely as do the boundaries of some states. The boundary is defined and regulated by law, national and international, and as such its status and characteristics are more uniform and can be defined with some precision. But the frontier is a phenomenon of history like history it may repeat itself but again like history it is frontier always unique.

3.2 Boundary Making

Activity:

1. How to make boundary?
2. What are the main criteria to make boundary?
3. What are the main classifications of boundary?

The **ideal sequence** of events in establishing a boundary is as follows: The **first stage** involves the description of the boundary and the terrain through which it runs this description identified, as exactly as exactly possible, the location of boundary being established. This first stage often **formalized in treaties** is referred to as the **definition of the boundary** .The **second stage** is that when the treaty makers have completed their definition of the boundary in question, their work is placed before cartographers who, using large scale maps and air photographers plot the boundary is demarcated a variety of method is employed. A mere line of poles or stones may suffice. The final stage in boundary making is administration that is establishing some regular procedure

maintaining the boundary markers, setting minor local disputes over the boundary, use of waterways in the border area and attending to other housekeeping matters.

3.2.1. Criteria for Boundaries

Political geographers define boundaries based on:

1. **Ethnic:** some political geographers have felt that ethnic criteria may be the most appropriate for the definition of international boundaries. In other word, boundaries should be drawn so as to separate peoples who are culturally uniform so that a minimum of stress will be placed on them. Example, the states of India, Pakistan and Burma were established on the bases that may loosely be called ethnic. However it is difficult to completely or exactly separate people of the different character because the world population is too heterogeneous and inter digitated.

2. **Language:** it might also be proposed as a basis for boundary definition. But map of the world's languages shows patchwork of great complexity that would immeasurably compound the boundary framework existing today. Many states are a multilingual and would be fragmented in such effort. In this case then a boundary will inevitably a barrier between adjacent states. If a boundary separates which speak different languages, they are not likely to understand each other well, and with the result that relations may remain hostile across their international boundary.

3. **Religion:** peoples of varied races and languages have accepted the same faith, and people speaking the same language have adopted different religions. Nevertheless, in areas where religion has been strong sourced of internal friction, it has been a major basis for boundary definition. A good example is the portion of the Indian sub-continent it to (mainly Hindu) India and (mainly Muslim) Pakistan.

4. **Physical features:** many political boundaries of the world lie along prominent physical features in the landscape. Such boundaries have become known as physiographic political boundaries. I.e. it refers to any prominent physical feature paralleled by a political boundary; a river, mountain range, or escarpment. These would seem to be especially acceptable criteria, since pronounced physical features often also separate culturally different areas.

3.2.2. Stages in the Development of Boundaries

1. **Allocation of boundary:** refers to the political decision on the distribution of territory which is an alignment on a text or by marking on a map. In the other hand, involves the description of the boundary and the terrain through which it runs. This description identified as exactly as, the location of the boundary being established. It is formalized in treaties. Boundary definition is a general agreement between two states about the allocation of territory, a verbal description of the boundary and the area through which it passes

2. **Delimitation:** involves the selection of a specific boundary site. it is when the treaty makers have completed their definition of the boundary and using large scale maps and air photographs, plot the boundary as exactly as possible. It involves the selection of a specific boundary site.

The retention of the arbitrary straight lines occurred when one or more of the following conditions applied.

- ✓ Straight lines were preserved if the borders lacked any economic and if the surveying of the boundary would have been unnecessary and unjustifiable expense.
- ✓ Straight lines persisted if the borders lacked when the two countries concerned were unable to agree on any alternation. Example Angola and Namibia. It was usual for straight lines to be maintained when the same colonial power came in to possession of the separated territories. Example, Egypt and Sudan, Kenya and Tanzania by British, Botswana and Namibia.

3. **Demarcation:** involves the identification of delimited line in the field, the construction of monuments or other visible features to mark the line, and the maintenance of the markings put on the ground. It is the task of making the boundaries on the ground. When the boundary is demarcated variety of method is employed. Example, a mere line poles or stones may suffice. Often demarcation does not follow promptly after delimitation; in fact there are many boundaries which have never been demarcated.

The markers may be intermittent, like poles or pillars, or be continuous fences or walls. Most international boundaries are not demarcated-for example, that between the United States and Canada for most of its length. The "Iron Curtain" formerly separating Soviet-dominated Eastern Europe from West Germany and Austria, in contrast, was marked along much of its length by fences, watch towers, and mine fields

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Criteria for Ideal Boundary: Ideal boundary is non-existent, but some boundaries approach it. Such boundary should offer the concerned four values:

- ✓ It should give unity and completeness to the area delineated. No culture within the boundary should feel incompatible and incomplete. No large number of nationals should be excluded from national area.
- ✓ The boundary should not isolate the state (like the historical Great Wall of China and the Berlin wall) but rather should aid communication and exchange with neighbors. Ideas and goods should find easy access across boundaries in order to encourage cultural and material efficiency and advancement.
- ✓ the boundary should afford protection from potential outside forces that might threaten the government or territory of the state
- ✓ The boundary should be arrived at by mutual agreement, and should be satisfactory to all concerned.

3.3 Classification of Boundaries

Morphological classification: is a classification according to their relationship to conspicuous features of the landscape. From the morphological point of view, boundaries may be: Follow the course of a mountain or hill range, Follow the line of rivers, canals and lakes, Run through a desert, a forest, or a swamp and, Conform to some other feature that may once have been conspicuous in the landscape. Generally, there are three main types of boundaries in the real world. These are natural, geometric and cultural boundaries.

- A. Geometric boundaries:** are first and foremost lines of latitude (parallels) and longitude (meridians). These are easy to define on paper and their demarcation in the field with modern methods of surveying presents no problems. In the absence of clearly determined physical features, boundaries have frequently been determined in geometrical term. But the use of geometric lines implies, in general, an ignorance of the nature of the terrain. Their use shows a total lack of concern for such people as may live in the area to be divided, and in some instances they have, in fact, cut across total territories. Such boundaries are politically successful only when they are antecedents to settlement, if not also entirely pioneer. Example, most of the western USA is created by geometric boundaries.

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Frequently delimited as segments of parallels of latitude or meridians of longitude, they are found chiefly in Africa, Asia, and the Americas. The western portion of the United States-Canada border, which follows the 49th parallel, is an example of a geometric boundary. Many such boundaries were established when the areas in question were colonies, the land was only sparsely settled, and detailed geographic knowledge of the frontier region was lacking.

B. Natural (physical) boundaries – are those boundaries based on recognizable physiographic features, such as mountains, rivers, and lakes. It is the most primitive and ancient boundaries. Although they might seem to be attractive as borders because they actually exist in the landscape and are visible dividing elements, many natural boundaries have proved to be unsatisfactory. That is, they do not effectively separate states.

Mountains and hills: boundaries drawn along mountains and hills, which seemed so unambiguous when first delimited have, proved to be the source of bitter controversy. Example the boundary between china and India was designed to follow the line of Himalayas and other ranges but it is disputed. Many international boundaries lie along mountain ranges, for example in the Alps, Himalayas, and Andes, but while some have proved to be stable, others have not. Mountains are rarely total barriers to interaction. Although they do not invite movement, they are crossed by passes, roads, and tunnels. High pastures may be used for seasonal grazing, and the mountain region may be the source of water for hydroelectric power. Border disputes between China and India are in part the result of the failure of mountain crests and headwaters of major streams to coincide.

Rivers, canals and lakes- have the advantage of being more clearly marked on maps and more narrowly defined on the land than mountains and hills. The decision to locate boundary along the water course itself raises problems. These are two kinds.

- I. The position of the boundary, which is a line, in relation to river itself, which has width.
- II. The natural changes which occur in the bed of the river. It is quite inadequate to specify in the delimitation clauses of a treaty that the boundary shall follow the river.

Rivers can be even less satisfactory as boundaries. In contrast to mountains, rivers foster interaction. River valleys are likely to be agriculturally or industrially productive and to be densely populated. For example, for hundreds of miles the Rhine River serves as an international boundary in Western Europe. It is also a primary traffic route lined by chemical plants, factories,

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blast furnaces, and power stations and dotted by the castles and cathedrals that make it one of Europe's major tourist attractions. It is more a common intensively used resource than a barrier in the lives of the nations it borders.

Forest, swamps and deserts- these features of the earth's surface have in common only their irregular extent and their scanty population. When peoples penetrated slowly from each other it can create dispute.

C. Cultural boundaries: it is based on language, religion social barriers. These boundaries usually involve wars, disputes and constant changes. Example, north Ireland and Ireland republic, India and Pakistan, Israel and Palestine. Other classifications have been devised that can be quite useful in analyzing boundaries and boundary problems.

1. **Functional classification-** for what purpose the boundary is designed. It might reflect whether the boundary was originally(primarily) for defensive purposes, as a separator of cultures, administrative purpose, or ideological bases(communist or non-communist areas)
2. **Genetic classification-** it is based on when the boundary was laid out; the origin is related to the development of the societies, which they separate.
 - **Antecedent boundary-** it is boundary drawn before an area is well populated and prior to the cultural landscape features. Example, the western portion of the United States-Canada boundary is such an antecedent line, established by a treaty between the United States and Great Britain in 1846.
 - **Subsequent boundary-** a border drawn to accommodate existing cultural differences. Example the boundary between Pakistan and India, Northern Ireland and Ireland republic.
 - **Superimposed-** is a boundary imposed on an area by a conquering or colonizing power that is unconcerned about the preexisting cultural patterns. Example-the colonial powers in 19th-century Africa superimposed boundaries upon established African cultures without regard to the tradition, language, religion, or tribal affiliation of those whom they divided. Other examples are Indonesia and Papua New Guinea.
 - **Relict boundaries-** is a former boundary line that once had meaning but no longer function as such, usually marked by landscape features. Example North and South Vietnam. The abandoned castles dotting the former frontier zone between Wales and

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England are examples of a relict boundary. They are also evidence of the disputes that sometimes attend the process of boundary making.

- **Legal classification-** could consider those boundaries that are settled and recognized in the international law; those recognized only by the adjacent and some others.

3.4 Boundary Disputes

Activity:

1. What means of boundary disputes?
2. What are the types of Boundary Disputes?
3. Can you try to explain the Origin of Boundary Disputes?

Bounding of state with finite lines often leads to dispute over the location of the boundary. Disagreements of this kind between states can range from purely technical differences over the precise alignment of the boundary, sometimes even within a greed delimitation, properly called a boundary dispute, to claims over pieces of territory, large or small, properly called territorial disputes. There is no clear cut definition of the point at which boundary dispute becomes territorial dispute, i.e. how much ground is involved to warrant calling a dispute territorial rather than boundary.

Boundaries create many possibilities and provocations for conflict. Since World War II, almost half of the world's sovereign states have been involved in border disputes with neighboring countries. Just like householders, states are far more likely to have disputes with their neighbors than with more distant parties. It follows that the more neighbors a state has, the greater the likelihood of conflict.

The analysis of any international boundary dispute should provide information on the following aspects.

First- it is necessary to uncover the cause of the dispute. In most cases the cause will be found in the boundary history; which will reveal that the evolution of the boundary is incomplete.

Second- it is important to identify the trigger action, which created a situation where one side judged it necessary to argue in favor of rectification of the boundary.

Third- this important aspect concerns the aims of the government initiating boundary disputes. In many cases governments will be seeking additional territory or relief from some unacceptable administrative irritation connected with the boundary.

3.4.1 Types of Boundary Disputes

Although the causes of boundary disputes and open conflict are many and varied, they can reasonably be placed into four categories.

1. Territorial boundary dispute- it refers to claims over pieces of territory, large or small; and these results from some quality of the neighboring borderland, which makes it attractive to the country initiating the dispute. Territorial disputes over the ownership of a region often, though not always, arise when a boundary that has been superimposed on the landscape divides an ethnically homogeneous population. Each of the two states then has some justification for claiming the territory inhabited by the ethnic group in question. The Balkan countries of Eastern Europe offer numerous examples of such territorial disputes. Regional tensions provided the sparks that helped ignite both World Wars, and the area is far from stable today. Ethnic minority problems fueled by historic enmities affect all the Balkan countries.

Even land that might seem to be without value can become the subject of a territorial conflict. Since the early 1970s, thousands of people have been killed in a series of battles between Chad and Libya over ownership of an Aozou Strip, a 100,000 square kilometer (36,000 sq. mi.) piece of desert. The boundary between what is now Libya and Chad was originally set by France and Britain in 1899. In 1935, at the request of Italy, which had seized Libya, France agreed to move the boundary 100 kilometers (60 miles) south. Italy did not ratify the agreement, however, and Chad gained its independence with the original boundary intact. Libya disagrees, claiming the strip belongs to it.

2. Positional boundary dispute: it is a type of boundary dispute concerns the actual location of the boundary and usually involves controversy over the interpretation of terms used in defining the boundary at the stage of allocation, delimitation, or demarcation. For example, where does the line actually lay in a wide river chosen a boundary, or which common mountain ridge in actual ground was intended as the boundary the treaty framers. The vague pre 1993 boundary delimitation between Iraq and Kuwaitis was the best example. Other example, the boundary between Argentina and Chile, originally defined during Spanish colonial rule, was to follow the highest peaks of the southern Andes and the watershed divides between east-and west-flowing rivers. Because the terrain had not been adequately explored, it wasn't apparent that the two do

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not always coincide. In some places, the water divide is many miles east of the highest peaks, leaving a long, narrow area of several hundred square miles in dispute. During the late 1970s, Argentina and Chile nearly went to war over the disputed territory, whose significance had been increased by the discovery of oil and natural gas deposits.

On the other hand positional boundary dispute often originate in political differences such as historical claims on lost lands or irredentist policies promoting union of ethnic groups separated by a boundary. Disputes over the sovereignty of islands are also example of territorial disputes.

3. **Functional boundary dispute** – arise when neighboring states disagree over policies to be applied along a boundary. Such policies may concern immigration, the movement of traditionally nomadic groups, customs regulations, or land use. U.S. relations with Mexico, for example, have been affected by the increasing number of illegal aliens entering the United States from Mexico. In Central America, relations between Honduras and El Salvador, two countries that have long disputed their common boundary, worsened in the late 1970s, when Honduras expelled Salvadoran farmers who had illegally occupied available agricultural land in western Honduras.

4. **Dispute over resource development**- it concerns the use of some trans-boundary resources such as a river or coalfield. Disputes of this kind usually have as their aim the creation of some organization which will govern use of the particular resource Neighboring states are likely to covet the resources -whether they are valuable mineral deposits, fertile farmland, or rich fishing grounds-lying in border areas and to disagree over their use. In recent years, the United States has been involved in disputes with both of its immediate neighbors, Mexico and Canada, over the shared resources of the Colorado River and Gulf of Mexico in the south and the Georges Bank fishing grounds in the northeast. As another example, for over 35 years India and Bangladesh have disputed the shared water resources of the Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers, two of the world's largest waterways. They have been unable to agree on a long-term water management plan that would permit irrigation of more of the arable land in the river valleys, improve flood control, help stem deforestation, and allow development of the basin's hydroelectric potential.

3.4.2 The Origin of Boundary Disputes

There is a many origin or causes of boundary disputes, but the major ones are the following.

- I. The boundary might have been drawn without full knowledge of the distribution of people or topographical features. Many of the boundaries of Africa were drawn through areas for which no precise information was available; this was particularly the case during the stage of allocation.
- II. At the conclusion of war, new boundaries sometimes were forced on the defeated country, which did not correspond with established patterns.
- III. It is possible for new distribution of population to develop after the boundary is drawn and to give rise to territorial claims. This is especially possible following the establishment of an antecedent boundary. After the state of Chile and Bolivia had been established, valuable guano and nitrate deposits were discovered in the coastal areas of all three states, with the richest deposits being located in Bolivia.
- IV. Civil wars may promote territorial disputes in two ways. When a country is involved in a civil war, it is unlikely to engage in territorial claims, which might invite attack. However, once that civil war is concluded and the country's strength is renewed it may begin actively to prosecute claims o external territory. On the other hand, when a country is engaged in a civil war its capacity to resist external aggression is reduced and territorial claims may be pressed against it. Example the Somalia government obviously decided to serious fighting in Eritrea province of Ethiopia in June 1975 provided an excellent opportunity to try to settle the Somali claim to the Haud and Ogden by force.
- V. The transfer of power to indigenous government during the process of colonization has caused territorial disputes to flare. The new governments have often undertaken a much more diligent surveillance of their boundaries than the colonial administrations, example Uganda's claim to western Kenya, Somalia's claim to Ogden.

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Summary

The terms „frontier“ and „boundary“ have been widely used, often interchangeably, by geographers and others to describe political divisions, especially at national level. Today, frontiers disappeared under the global tide of human settlement and economic development, to be replaced by boundaries, which are more lines of demarcation. Political frontiers and boundaries separate areas subject to different political control of sovereignty. Frontiers are zones of varying widths, which were common features of the political landscape centuries ago. By the beginning of the 20th c most remaining frontiers had disappeared and had been replaced by boundaries, which are lines.

Boundaries are three main types of boundaries in the real world. These are natural, geometric and cultural boundaries. **Geometric boundaries:** are first and foremost lines of latitude (parallels) and longitude (meridians), **Cultural boundaries** – it is based on language, religion social barriers. These boundaries usually involve wars, disputes and constant changes. Example north Ireland and Ireland republic, India and Pakistan, Israel and Palestine and, **Natural (physical) boundaries** are those boundaries based on recognizable physiographic features, such as mountains, rivers, and lakes. It is the most primitive and ancient boundaries

Boundaries, the legal definition of a state's size and shape, determine the limits of its sovereignty. They may or may not reflect pre-existing cultural landscapes and in any given case may or may not prove to be viable. Whatever their nature, boundaries are at the root of many international disputes. Although the causes of boundary disputes and open conflict are many and varied, they can reasonably be placed into four categories. These are: Territorial boundary dispute which refers to claims over pieces of territory, large or small; Positional boundary dispute which concerns the actual location of the boundary and usually involves controversy over the interpretation of terms used in defining the boundary at the stage of delimitation, or demarcation; Functional boundary dispute which arise when neighboring states disagree over policies to be applied along a boundary; and Dispute over resource development which concerns the use of some trans-boundary resources such as a river or coalfield.

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Review questions

Part I, true/false

1. Frontiers is a politico geographical area lying between the integrated region of the political unit
2. Geometric boundaries are easy to define on paper and their demarcation in the field
3. From natural boundary, Rivers are not clearly marked on maps and more narrowly defined on the land
4. The difference between Frontier and boundary is outer and inner oriented respectively.

Part II. Multiple Choices

Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

1. Of the following, one is the Criteria for Boundaries.
A. language B. Ethnic C. Religion D. physical feature
2. One of the following is not considered as the origin of boundary disputes.
A. Lack of knowledge about the distribution of people or topographical features
B. At the conclusion of war
C. Civil wars
D. Transfer of power to indigenous government particularly during colonization
E. No answer
2. From the types of boundary disputes, arise when neighboring states disagree over policies to be applied along a boundary is___.
A. Territorial boundary dispute
B. Dispute over resource development
C. Functional boundary dispute
D. Positional boundary dispute
E. None of the above
3. The boundary between India and Pakistan is an example of___.
A. Geometric boundary
B. Natural boundary
C. Cultural boundary
D. all of the above

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5. Among the following boundary types, which one is identified as the most primitive?
- A. Geometric boundaries
 - B. Natural boundaries
 - C. Cultural boundaries
 - D. None of the above
6. Which one of the following is not true about Criteria for Ideal Boundary?
- A. It should give unity and completeness to the area delineated
 - B. The boundary should not isolate the state
 - C. The boundary should afford protection from potential outside forces
 - D. The boundary should be arrived at by mutual agreement
 - E. All of the above

Part III Matching

For phrases that are listed under column 'A', match their correct answer from column 'B'.

- | A | B |
|------------------------|--|
| 1. Antecedent boundary | A. former boundaries but no longer functional |
| 2. Subsequent boundary | B. drawn by colonial powers |
| 3. Relict boundaries | C. drawn prior to cultural landscape features |
| 4. Legal boundary | D. settled and recognized in the international law |
| 5. Superimposed | E. unconcerned about the preexisting cultural patterns |
| | F. drawn to accommodate existing cultural differences |

Chapter Four: Core Areas and Capitals

Introduction

Dear learner! In this chapter you read about the core areas and capitals. Core-area is defined as the nuclear area in which the state originated, and around which, through a gradual process of territorial expansion and accretion, the state had succeeded in achieving its present territorial proportions. As time passed, the entire territory of the state became ideologically and emotionally bound to the core area through the rise of motherland/fatherland sentiment of loyalty to a common homeland and cultural hearth.

Many states have come to assume their present shape, and thus the location they occupy, as a result of growth over centuries. They grew outward from a central region, gradually expanding in to surrounding territory. The original nucleus or core area of a state usually contains its densest population and largest cities, the most highly developed transportation system, the most developed economic base. Easily recognized and unmistakably dominant national cores include the Paris Basin of France; London and southeastern England; Moscow and the major cities of European Russia; northeastern United States; and the Buenos Aires megalopolis in Argentina. Not all countries have such clearly defined cores - Chad, Mongolia, or Saudi Arabia, for example - and some may have two or more rival core areas. Ecuador, Nigeria, Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Vietnam are examples of multi core states.

The capital city of a state is usually within its core region and frequently is the very focus of it, dominant not only because it is the seat of central authority but because of the concentration of population and economic functions as well. That is, in many countries the capital city is also the largest or primate city, dominating the structure of the entire country. Paris in France, London in the United Kingdom, and Mexico City are all examples of that kind of political, cultural, and economic primacy. Many states originally grew around urban centers that possessed modality and attend strength and performance. Many were market centers for large tributary areas; others were fortifications to which the population retreated every night after farming the surrounding lands. As the influences of these cities expanded, far-flung territories came under the control of

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the political authority located there. Capitals have often evolved as centers of trade and government because of their fortuitous situation.

Objectives of the chapter

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- ❖ Understand the concept of core area and capitals
- ❖ Identify the various core areas around the world
- ❖ Explain the major types of capitals
- ❖ Discuss the functions of capitals

4.1. Core Area Concept

Activity:

1. What means of core area?
2. Explain about core area in the world

Core area is one of the most germinal concepts in political geography; the core-area concept has seldom been clearly defined. The concept has been variously used to embrace both past and present areas of political dominance, areas of dominant national consciousness, and areas of economic leadership within the concerned states.

Core areas may develop in regions offering favorable geographic qualities, in particular superior transportation and communication conditions, an abundant endowment with resources, and a good access to population centers and markets. Some cores are rooted in historical-cultural locations of a specific significance, while others developed as a result of political decisions and administrative policies.

In the modern political history, it is generally recognized that the concept of 'core area' was first applied by Friedrich Ratzel. In his book 'Politische Geographie' published in 1897. Ratzel put forth the idea of states beginning as small 'territorial cells'. Which through a gradual process of growth became larger and larger as they annexed more and more areas and as their population increased partly by natural growth and partly by absorption of smaller neighboring communities" and eventually evolved into states or empires.

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Normally it is understood that the core area is the heart of the state without which state cannot exist, while it is easy to understand the concept of core area. It is not quite easy to define it in exact terms. The problem is how to give the exact dimension and demarcate the line of core area of a state or region. It is de rigueur that the political, social and economic development of each state system has to be considered in order to determine the line through which the core area runs. It is also important to see that in which context the core areas are to be considered for e.g. global, regional, and state level. In this case the variation in the level of scale attains vital importance. Whatever, the criteria may be no core area exists today without a certain degree of urbanization which is normally greater than elsewhere in the state.

Although, it is not difficult to form a sort of subjective image of the concept of core area, political geographers have not been able to agree entirely on a specific definition and appropriate usage of the term. This was pointed out by Andrew Burghardt, who suggested that one may begin to solve the problem by distinguishing between different types of 'core' areas. His classification of core area is based on "historical and contemporary" aspects as well. From the historical point of view, the case in which a small territory grows into a larger state, perhaps over a period of long time, as described by Ratzel and Whittlesey, is called a 'nuclear core'. The other type is the 'original core', which was never the 'Kernel' of the state around which the accretion of territory took place. Instead it was always the area of greatest political and economic importance within a larger framework. Finally, the contemporary core is described as the area which at present constitutes greatest political and economic significance of the state. While the first two historical interpretations of the role of core areas are of great interest. "The concept of the 'contemporary core' area holds the greatest values for political geographers". It not only involves functioning of the state but is also the most concentrated region which is more than the political heart of the state. When we consider core area as a functional region we draw its boundaries according to criteria other than the geographical and political ones.

4.1.1. Characteristics and the Process of a Core Area

The core area must have considerable advantage in order to perform the role in forming a particular group of states. "The area must be in a position to defend itself against encroachment and conquest from neighboring core areas. Besides, it must have been capable at an early date of

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generating a surplus income above the subsistence level, necessary to equip armies and to play the role in contemporary power politics that territorial expansion necessarily predicts".

The development of core area elsewhere in America, Africa and Australia has taken place over a short period of time. In some African states, the evolution of the true core area is still in the process indicating the initial stages in character. In America and Australia core areas are already well established. The core regions of the United States and Canada are those areas where primary manufacturing units are concentrated. Core areas in Asia exhibit varying characteristics. The colonial legacy, authoritarian political culture, despite formal democratic model, made core region in Asia concentrated in those areas which have political and industrial base. However, the unique change brought by scientific, technological innovations and modern communications have belated in forming new core in Asia. The process of core area formation in Asia is a continuous process.

Based on spatial considerations core areas can be centrally located core area, such as in France and South Africa, marginally located in the national territory like Brazil Argentina and many other states. Spatial considerations immediately lead to other problematic characteristics of states core areas: certain states possess more than one focus, thus, are recognized multi-core, single core, and no core states. Nigeria, for example, has three core areas: one in the south west, one in the south east, and a third in the north. Ecuador has two core areas: one centered on the coast and another on the highland interior. Thailand has a single core area; Mauritania and Chad have no core units. The criterion of scale can be carried further, that there are continental and world core areas as well. For example, the USA- Canadian core in the eastern North America is such a continental core area, and in Europe a developing continental core can be recognized as well.

4.1.2. Core Areas around the World

The States of the modern world have not, in general, been created suddenly or abruptly. In most instances they have grown slowly over a period of centuries. Sometimes, their growth was interrupted by the loss of territory. Some states, such as Ethiopia, Hungary, Bulgaria and perhaps Germany, look back nostalgically to a time when they covered a greater territorial area than they

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now do. Some have even made the recovery of a former "greater" state a dominant objective of policy, with disastrous effects on their relations with neighboring states.

A minority of states has not grown they have been created. In some instances a state so created happened to coincide with a nation and may so have reflected the political aspirations of a national group. But generally it was not for this reason that the state was created, but to suit the needs and conveniences of other states. Thus Albania appeared on the map in 1913 because it suited the Great Powers of Europe to create it rather than to dispute with one another over the control of strategically important territory. Similarly, Palestine, Syria and Iraq were created primarily to satisfy the power needs of Great Britain and France. The new states of Africa- Ghana, Guinea, Nigeria and others- reflect in their territorial limits the decisions reached around the council tables in London, Paris, or elsewhere. They were never conceived as corresponding to anything in the economic life or the material or spiritual culture of the African peoples themselves. In general, whatever may have been the later vicissitudes of the state area, most states have grown from a core area where their governments and ideal's first began to take shape.

The term 'core area' has been used to embrace past and present areas of political dominance, area of intense national or cultural consciousness and areas of economic leadership. The picture is obviously confused, and the following points and recommendations on terminology may help to clarify the **types** of the core areas.

- 1. Germinal core areas.** These are core areas (nuclear areas) that clearly influenced the growth i.e. the expansion of political control of a number of states. Example France, Russia, England. In some cases, such as that of Muscovites Russia, the limits of the state advanced with the extension of political control from the core; in others, such as early medieval England, more effective control was exported from the core area over the territory which was enclosed by pre existing boundaries.
- 2. National core area.** It is an area, which has not played a germinal role, may still be associated with an intensity of national sentiment and contain a large proportion of national symbols. Almost invariably such an area will include the state capital which provides practical expression to the area's highly developed political consciousness. The Budapest area provides an example of what might be termed a national core area.

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- 3. Economic core area.** Within each state is an area which, to a greater or lesser extent, is in a leading economic position. In some states, economic activities may be highly concentrated, as in Ethiopia and the Irish republic where economic affairs are dominated by the Addis Ababa - Akaki, and Dublin areas, respectively, while in other cases, such as India, the dominance of a single economic region is much less marked. The leading economic region of a state may be termed is economic core area and defined without recourse to any but economic criteria. The level of agricultural productivity, the intensity of market potential, the magnitude of manufacturing and the degree of urbanization may define this.
- 4. Separatist core area.** Some states include areas where, for historical and cultural reasons, separatist sentiments are strongly felt, usually by a national minority. These feelings may be equally associated with all parts of the minority homeland, as in Scotland or Brittany, or they may be focused on a particular cultural center, which has played a leading role in separatist iconography, such as Kiev in the Ukraine or Zagreb in Croatia. Only where the latter is the case could the term separatist core area be used.
- 5. Relic germinal, political, economic or separatist core area.** The germinal, national, and economic functions seldom occur in isolation, but usually appear in combination; the London and Paris areas combine all three roles. In some cases the development of the state has been associated with the transference of political, economic or psychological leadership from one area to another, or with one germinal core area being superseded by another. For example, political control in China and Ethiopia have migrates between northern and southern core areas. An area, which has formerly served as a core area may be, termed a relic germinal, political, economic or separatist core area.
- 6. Subsidiary areas.** Subsidiary areas may be associated with germinal, national, economic or separatist functions, and can be described as 'secondary' germinal, national, economic or separatist core areas. In Europe most core areas are nuclear, original, or contemporary-include one or more urban centers. The Paris Basin is the core area of France, and Paris is the focus of the Paris Basin. Normally in Europe, these cities are national capitals as well as the largest cities. In the United States and Canada, the core area is located in the eastern portions of the countries.

In each the core area contains roughly half the total population of the country and nearly three-quarters of the industrial employment. It is also the cultural and political heart of the State, the

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area in which the State idea originated, from which the westward movement began, where the capital cities emerged. Both countries are developing subsidiary core areas to the west, but the eastern core area, essentially one core area shared by two States, remains unrivalled.

We may recognize states with distinct core areas (Czechia, Great Britain) and those without distinct core areas (Albania, Belgium). The core area can be centrally located (Hungary, France) or marginally located (Slovakia, Argentina). We may recognize multi core states (Nigeria, Spain), single core states (Thailand, Egypt), and even no-core states (Mauritania, Chad). The last example is characteristic especially for Africa where a number of states are so sparsely populated or such recently created that they have no true cores at all, yet. The cores are developing here generally around the capitals, a process quite the reverse of that observed in the course of history in Europe. Some core areas have a character of a small compact region (Greece, Sudan), some constitute rather a large area (Russia, Sweden).

4.1.3. The Core Area Today

The historic core may no longer be of significance, since the center of the state activity may in a few cases have moved away from its historic focus. Such core areas are very much larger in both area and population than the capital cities themselves. They contain satellite towns and are distinguished by industries, which are attracted toward but not necessarily into the capital itself. Relatively dense population and a well-developed transportation net characterize them, as a general rule.

The extent of such a core area can be measured by a number of indices. Foremost among these is the transportation and communication network. The daily movement of commuters, the flow of goods between factory and market, the circulation of newspapers, the reception of TV programs can be used to define such areas. So also can the intensity of telephone calls, the density of telephones and the volume of use are one measure of the degree of communication within the core area as contrasted with the lower density and level of use outside the core area. Judged by such criteria, the core area of the USA is today the region extending north of Boston to south of Washington, D.C, and sometimes known as "megalopolis." That of Canada is the area extending from Montreal into the Lakes Peninsula of Ontario, to the west of Toronto.

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The core area commonly plays a dominant political role. Peoples living at a distance from it are apt to resent the power, which it can exercise, and the wealth it can attract to itself. It is common for people who live in the remote and peripheral parts of a complex state-area to feel more cut-off, isolated, and neglected than perhaps they are. One would expect antipathy toward the core area to increase with distance from it. Such distrust or even hostility may, however, be tempered by the fact that many people from the outlying areas seek to migrate to the core area and that the latter is dependent for its growth on such migration. Conversely, those who live in the core area adopt a patronizing attitude toward provincials, regarding them as in some degree unsophisticated and uneducated.

Generally, in every state of the modern world there is a core area today in which the principal institutions of economic, political, and social life of the nation are located. Many of these activities are carried on in the national capital: occasionally one finds them shared between neighboring cities, as they are between Washington and New York City: between Ottawa, Montreal, and Toronto: between New Delhi and the Indian port cities of Bombay and Calcutta. But, whether specialized or not in this sense, one finds that in almost every case there is a region within which most of these activities are concentrated.

4.2 Capitals

Activity:

1. Define the capitals

2. Discuss about the functions of capital

By extension, the word capital can refer to cities predominant in spaces on various scales. Federal states have capitals, as do certain regions, while in France these capitals are referred to as prefectures, a trend observed in other centralized systems. The word is also used today for cities housing supranational institutions. Brussels is often referred to as the "capital of Europe". The word capital is likewise used to refer to the dominant position of a town or city in a sector that has nothing to do with politics. Thus we can encounter expressions such as "economic capital", "cultural capital", or "religious capital".

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The term capital is indeed fairly flattering, and has a wider, much more identifiable somatic field than "metropolis" for instance. It is thus not surprising to find it used for marketing purposes. For instance, Stockholm since 2005 has promoted itself by taking on the title of the "capital of Scandinavia". The same logic is found in the title of "green capital" or "European capital of culture" awarded to certain cities.

Generally speaking, the capital, or capital city, can be defined as a city that is the seat of the administration and government of a «**State**». There is only one capital, and it has considerable political and symbolic importance on the scale of the national «**territory**» to which it belongs. However capital cities do not necessarily dominate large global urban networks and their role is increasingly challenged, as indeed is that of the States that they represent. Yet capital cities have never been more numerous than they are today, on account of the increase in the number of States since 1945. They are mainly seats of power and decision, including the economic sphere. At the same time, despite the very wide diversity of the forms they take, they are geographical objects with particular features.

Etymologically, the word "capital" (from the Latin caput) refers to the city at the "head" of a territory. In other languages the term can also be derived from the expressions meaning the "main city", as in German Hauptstadt. In French the word capital, as in English, gives precedence to the link with the State government. In French it is distinguished from "chef-lieu" (literally "head place") which for its part can be a very small local "capital" or administrative centre. While capital cities have often been the subject of monographic studies, their "capital city" identity as a category or concept has rarely been studied. Dictionaries of geography, if they mention the word, generally include short entries around the theme of typologies.

Capital cities take on very diverse forms, in particular because, unlike other urban entities, neither their size, nor their morphology, nor even their overall function, contribute to their definition. There are four essential characteristics for a State capital. The capital city has a unique status in its territory; its existence is essential for that territory; it is urban in form; it entertains a symbolic link with the State.

The logics behind the location of capital cities exhibit two main trends, combining the need for adequate «**accessibility**» and the ability to control the territory. The first requirement tends to

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favor central spaces, which means that certain present-day capitals carry the mark of earlier «centralities» (Berlin, Moscow, and Washington DC). Other capital city locations put more emphasis on their role as an interface between the outside world and the rest of the country, in particular taking the form of large ports (Bangkok, Buenos Aires, Copenhagen, Dakar, and London).

Capital cities contribute to making up the history of the State they administer. From a geo-historical viewpoint, modern capitals cannot be envisaged solely in the setting of Westphalia sovereignty, running a minimal administration and wielding power over a territory. The cities the most long-established as capitals were often the first cities to be the seats of a sedentary power (rather than a provisional location for a travelling court). Then in the modern era they came to house institutions at national level (parliaments, ministries etc) and the beginnings of a diplomatic corps established in Embassies. In 18th century Europe, the capital city also became an urban entity that the national power tended to shape to promote itself, by way of the construction of palaces, national monuments, and large avenues with grand perspectives.

Today state capitals are not necessarily in a dominant position in urban networks, because being the seat of state power is not the only factor generating metropolisation. The capital is obviously a decisional centre, extending to the economic sector, and it contributes to the international outreach of the urban area. But this is not the only condition. Cities like New York, Shanghai or Sao Paulo, or Barcelona and Milan in Europe, appear as highly prominent metropolises despite the fact that they are not capital cities. In city systems increasingly governed by globalization, involving above all economic logics that escape state influence, the status of the capital city seems to be losing importance. Thus a "capital city" is no longer a "metropolis", nor is it a "global city". In many States, the capital is not a large city. The function of seat of power is extremely flexible, ranging from highly centralized States to those that function in federal or decentralized manner. The importance of the capital in the structuring of the State is also very variable. Often the capital houses most of the national institutions, but in some cases its status is reduced to a symbolic dimension. Similarly, there are States in which the capital houses neither the parliament nor the ministries, for instance Amsterdam in the Netherlands.

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Capital cities, even when they are small, tend to draw fairly wealthy populations, and contribute to the prosperity of the regions in which they are located. They are characterized by a marked concentration of certain specific functions, often with substantial fallout in terms of employment, direct or indirect, generally well-paid, although this is difficult to quantify. In addition to their political functions, the large numbers of jobs in the administration, in embassies and consulates, in the media and even in tourism and luxury retailing are marked features. The influence of these sectors can of course vary considerably according to the position of the city in the national urban network, and according to the power of the State concerned, which will determine the numbers of diplomats, journalists, and prominent guests frequenting the city. However capital city status generally produces regions that are wealthy. In the European Union, the Berlin Land is the only capital city region where GDP per inhabitant is below the national average.

Some capital cities have been relocated outside of peripheral national core regions, at least in part to achieve the presumed advantages of centrality. Two examples of such relocation are from Karachi inland to Islamabad in Pakistan, and from Istanbul to Ankara, in the center of Turkey's territory. A particular type of relocated capital is the forward-thrust capital city, one that has been deliberately sited in a state's frontier zone to signal the government's awareness of regions away from the core and its interest in encouraging more uniform development. In the late 1950s, Brazil moved its capital from Rio de Janeiro to the new city of Brasilia to demonstrate its intent to develop the vast interior of the country. The West African country of Nigeria has been building the new capital of Abuja near its geographic center since the late 1970s, with the relocation there of government offices and foreign embassies in the early 1990s. The British colonial government relocated Canada's capital six times between 1841 and 1865, in part seeking centrality to the mid-19th century population pattern and in part seeking a location that bridged that country's cultural divide.

4.2.1 Functions of Capitals

Activity:

1. What are the main functions of capitals?
2. Discuss about the types of Capitals

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Capital cities perform certain distinct functions.

- It is the place for legislative gathering and the residence of the chief of the state.
- It is a prime place for the states reception of external influences, for embassies and international trade organization, offices are located there.
- In most states the capitals city is also the most cosmopolitan city
- Capital cities must act also as a binding agent in federal states. In federal state of a great diversity, the capital city can be the only place to which all the people can look for guidance.
- It is also a source of power and authority, either to ensure control over outlying and loosely tied districts of the state or to defend the state against undesirable external influences. The capital is most frequently located in the economic heart of the country, from which much of the image of strength of the State emanates. Functions of capital cities have changed much over time.

4.2.2 Types Capitals

Capitals can view from the point of view of their position with reference to the state territory and the core of the State .this result in three classes of capital cities:

1. **Permanent capitals**- it might also be called historic capitals. They have functioned as the leading economic and cultural center for their state over a period of several centuries. Example Athens, London, Rome, and Paris
2. **Introduced capitals**- Tokyo, in fact, was introduced to become the focal point of Japan when the revolutionary event referred to as the Meiji Restoration occurred. Recent history has seen similar choices made in other countries, but while Tokyo (then called Edo or Eastern City) was already substantial urban center, other capitals were created, literally, from scratch. They replaced other capitals in order to perform new functions, functions perhaps in addition to those normally expected of the seat of government.

Introduced capitals have also come about by less lofty action. Intense interstate rivalries among Australia's individual states made it impossible to select one of that country's several large cities as the permanent national capital, and a compromise had to be reached. That compromise was the new capital of Canberra, built in federal territory

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carved out of the State of New South Wales. Despite the general absence of planning for a time when the colonial city in Africa would serve as a national capital, the vast majority of former colonial States have retained the former European headquarters as the national capital.

3. **Divided capitals:** In certain States the functions of governments are not concentrated in one city, but divided among two or even more. Such a situation suggests- often reflects- compromise rather than convenience. In the Netherlands (a kingdom) the parliament sits in The Hague (the legislative capital), but the royal palace is in Amsterdam (the "official" capital). In Bolivia the intense rivalry between the cities of La Paz and Sucre produced the arrangements existing today whereby the two cities share the functions of government.

In South Africa, following the war between Boer and Briton, a union was established in which the Boer capital, Pretoria, retained the administrative functions, while the British headquarters, Cape Town, became the legislative headquarters. As a further compromise, the judiciary functions in Bloemfontein, capita of one the old Boer republics that fought in the Boer War. The reason appears to satisfy the desire of both Africans-and English-speaking South Africans. Cape Town is the largest English-speaking city in the Union; Bloemfontein and Pretoria are the chief cities, respectively, of the Afrikaans-speaking Orange Free State and Transvaal.

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Summary

The concept of core area has seldom been clearly defined. The concept has been variously used to embrace both past and present areas of political dominance, area of intense national or cultural consciousness and areas of economic leadership. With a view to clearing the confusion of terms, Andrew Burghardt (1969) suggested that we may, from a chronological perspective, view core areas in two different ways, one as (i) historically oriented, and (ii) contemporary core areas. Under the historical oriented perspective, there are important categories: (a) nuclear core, represented by those cases in which a small original territory has grown in to a large state through intermittent absorption of adjacent lands and peoples through a slow process of growth and (b) original core, consisting of an original area of the greatest political and economic importance, which owing to certain unfavorable circumstances, could not play the germinal role and, for that reason, failed to become the nucleus around which the subsequent accretion of territory and population took place. The second concept of core area is the contemporary core, representing the area within the State which is presently endowed with the greatest economic and political significance – the one that stands out as its present day acumen, its most densely populated and developed region.

Capital cities, even when they are small, tend to draw fairly wealthy populations, and contribute to the prosperity of the regions in which they are located. They are characterized by a marked concentration of certain specific functions, often with substantial fallout in terms of employment, direct or indirect. On the other hand, National capitals are the cities having the greatest concentration of political power in their respective countries. They are the seat of the national legislature and the executive. The capital is generally also the central focus of the country. But in many cases, especially in federal states, its commercial and industrial importance is less than that of other cities in the same country, since the factors that influence the choice of the site for a capital are often political and strategic rather than economic.

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Review questions

Part I, True/False

Write, true if statement is correct and false if the statement is incorrect.

1. The development of core area elsewhere in America, Africa and Australia has taken place over a short period of time.
2. The germinal, national, and economic functions often occur in isolation.
3. Core area is one of the most germinal concepts in political geography
4. Today state capitals are not necessarily in a dominant position in urban networks.
5. Capital cities perform as a source of power and authority.

Part II. Multiple choices

1. Of the following is the type of core area, which has **not** played a germinal role
 - A. National core area.
 - B. Subsidiary areas
 - C. separatist core area
 - D. None of the above
2. One of the following is **odd** related to the characteristics of core areas of today.
 - A. They are very much larger in both area and population.
 - B. They do not contain satellite towns.
 - C. They are distinguished by industries.
 - D. They have relatively dense population.
 - E. They have well developed transportation and communication network.
3. Which one of the following is included the function of capitals?
 - A. It is the place for legislative gathering and the residence of the chief of the state.
 - B. It is a prime place for the states reception of external influences
 - C. most cosmopolitan city
 - D. act as a binding agent in federal states
 - E. All of the above
4. Capitals that have functioned as the leading economic and cultural center for their state over a period of several centuries is___.
 - A. Permanent capitals
 - B. Introduced capitals
 - C. Divided capitals
 - D. None of the above
5. Which of the following is classified as a permanent capital?
 - A. Amsterdam
 - B. Tokyo
 - C. Athens
 - D. Cape Town
 - E. none of the above

Chapter Five: Power and Resource

Introduction

Dear students! This chapter consists of the power and resources and their types. The resource has a vital role for political geography. It is impossible to consider the population of a state, its efficiency and effectiveness, without, at the same time, discussing the resources, which are available for its use. People must have land on which to live and to grow their food. Almost all food is derived directly from the soil, and its volume and quality depend directly on the extent and nature of the soil.

National power is defined as the sum of all resources available to a nation in the pursuit of national objectives. National power is composed of various elements, also referred to as instruments or attributes; but the major ones are resources and population. A nation's natural resources often determine its wealth and status in the world economic system, by determining its political influence. It plays a major role in the ability of a nation to acquire national power. So in order to be considered in the power potential of the state, the resources must be developed and available, or available after a very short delay. This pre-supposes the construction of a transportation net to bring the raw resources to the factories for processing and the finished goods to those locations where their use is the most effective.

Objectives of the chapter

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- ❖ Explain the meaning and faces of power
- ❖ Describe the relationship of power with resource and population
- ❖ Discuss resource definition and types

5.1 The power

Activity:

1. What is power?
2. Can you explain the classifications of power?

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Power is participation in making of decisions. Power may be defined as the capacity of an individual, group of individuals, to modify the conduct of other individuals or groups in the manner, which he desires.

Power is defined as by Max Weber the German sociologist and political scientist (1864-1920): "the possibility of imposing one's will upon the behavior of other persons". The will to impose is reflected by: threat of physical punishment, promise of reward, exercise of persuasion, or a deeper moral/cultural force that causes a person or persons subject to the exercise of power to abandon their own preferences and accept those of others. *The power of actor A over actor B is the amount of resistance on the part of B which can be potentially overcome by A.*"

The definition of power in terms of decision making adds an important element to the production of intended effects on other persons-namely, the availability of sanctions when the intended effects are not forthcoming. It is the threat of sanctions, which differentiates power from influence in general. Power is a special case of the exercise of influence: it is the process of affecting policies of others with the help of (actual or threatened) severe deprivations for nonconformity with the policies intended. This is not to say that the exercise of power rests always, or even generally, on violence.

Power taken by themselves; they can become instruments in the hands of one seeking power. To convert them into power, the power seeker must find human beings who value the things sufficiently to obey his orders in return. It is, therefore, to study politics as the process of acquiring, distributing, and losing power without taking into consideration the major objectives of the human beings involved in the situation studied.

Since power is comprised under influence, one may speak of the weight, scope, and domain of power in the senses defined for the exercise of influence. The weight of power is the degree of participation in the making of decisions; its scope consists of the values whose shaping and enjoyment are controlled; the domain of power consists of the persons over whom power is exercised. All three enter into the notion of "amount" of power. Increase or decrease in power may involve a change in its weight (as when limitations in suffrages are imposed or lifted), in its scope (as when economic practices are brought under or freed from control), or in its domain (as when a state brings new peoples under its dominion by conquest or loses them by secession).

5.1.1 Classification of power by Etzioni coercive power:

1. Coercive Power: Involves forcing someone to comply with one's wishes. A prison would be an example of a coercive organization.

2. Utilitarian Power: Is power based on a *system of rewards or punishments*. *Businesses*, which use pay raises, promotions, or threats of dismissal, are essentially utilitarian organizations.

3. Normative Power: Is power which *rests on the beliefs of the members* that the organization has a right to govern their behavior. A *religious* order would be an example of a normative organization. When previously considering power, you have perhaps not considered that it can be broken down in such a way. The way power is used or exists in all types of relationships is central to the understanding of politics –not just in government, perhaps even more importantly in family and friendship groups too. The most traditional view of power is that it is a form of control over a person –a way of forcing one person to obey another. This could otherwise be termed domination. Hobbes had argued that in a state of nature we would all have power over each other, meaning the most violent would win, in order to escape from this brutality we would have to accept and submit to a monarch. The King would have power over us, would dominate have the ability to force their will upon us and get us to do things we would not otherwise, but this is the price of order. However this view of power as domination is very narrow, and runs into the problem that in our daily lives power is very commonly exercised through the acceptance and willing obedience of the public.

5.1.2 Typology of Power:

Condign Power: Wins submission by the ability to impose an alternative to the preferences of the individual or group that is sufficiently unpleasant or painful so, that these preferences are abandoned. There is an overtone of punishment. The expected rebuke is usually too harsh, so the individual will endure, submit, or give into the power from fear or threat. The individual is aware of the submission via compulsion.

Compensatory Power: Wins submission by the offer of affirmative reward by the giving of something of value to the individual so submitting. Payments, share, praise, money for services. The individual is aware of the submission for a reward.

Conditioned power: Wins submission by changing beliefs. Persuasion, education, habituation, social commitment to what seems natural, proper, right causes the individual to submit to the

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will of another or others. Submission reflects the preferred course; the fact of submission is not recognized. Conditioned power is central to the functioning of the modern economy and polity, and in capitalist and socialist countries alike.

5.1.3 The Sources of Power

There are three main sources of power such as: Personality, Property, and Organization.

- 1. Personality:** leadership in the common reference, a quality of mind, physique, speech, moral certainty or personal trait that gives access to instruments of power or the ability to persuade or create a belief.
- 2. Property:** wealthy, an aspect of authority, a certainty of purpose inviting conditioned submission. Property, income, wealth provides the wherewithal to purchase submission.
- 3. Organization:** the most important source of power in modern society, taken for granted and required or Persuasion and submission to the purposes of the organization.

5.1.4 Faces of Power

Political theorists have debated the meaning and role of power in politics for most of the last century. One of the oldest and most well-known discourses on political power comes from Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527) who was a philosopher, diplomat, writer, and an official in the Florentine Republic.

In his work *The Prince*, he asked whether it was better to be feared or loved as a ruler. He said it was better to be both, but given the choice, it was better to be feared. He believed that leaders should have the capacity to be ruthless, shrewd, and manipulative when necessary to maintain order and stability. He believes that fear was a more effective motivational tool than love. He said that women, nature, and fortune (which he groups together) all secretly wish to be dominated through violence by strong leaders. His ideas and arguments about politics operate to this day.

Theorists in the 20th century have made the distinction between "power over," which is about control and imposition of one's will, and "power to," which is framed as increasing capacity of people to take action for themselves, what we commonly call today, "empowerment." In discussing power, these theorists have identified four dimensions or ways in which power shapes our relationships and society. Most see these dimensions as negative. But there is an argument

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that using "power over" can expand justice, create a healthier society, and empower people to lead the lives they want.

A. **Four faces power:**

Face 1 - Controlling the outcome

Principle: A makes B do something B doesn't want to do, like drink Pepsi instead of Coke or join the army or pay taxes.

Negative aspect: Typically, thought about as coercion through violence or the threat of violence. Some might argue that A knows B's interests better than B does. Even when true this is Paternalistic.

Positive aspect: This type of power can operate when both A and B create a system to decide who will be in control, such as an election. Both A and B have to agree to the rules and believe result is true. Note that elections must happen regularly otherwise, if B loses, they'll never have the chance to gain control and power and will try to undermine the system.

Face 2 - Controlling the choices or agenda

Principle: A lets B decide but only provides B with certain choices, like Pepsi and 7-UP instead of Coke. Other examples include all manner of government regulations, party leaders deciding what comes up for a vote in Congress, and the press only reporting on certain issues.

Negative aspect: This describes the current state of affairs in Russia where there are elections but Vladimir Putin has banned or imprisoned his political opposition and controls the media. The temptation will always exist for those in power to set up rules so they can stay in power and marginalize their opposition. This system ultimately results in coercion.

Positive aspect: A and B can also set up a system to determine choices that explicitly protects against bias and allows equal opportunity for all voices to be heard. This is John Rawls' argument idea of designing a system behind a "veil of ignorance" so no one gains systematic advantage.

Face 3: Conscious manipulation of desires, norms, and expectations

Principle: A uses education and the media to convince B that instead of Coke they should have Pepsi. Examples here include almost all advertising, mass schooling, and manufactured political outrage.

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Negative aspect: The extreme cases of socialization include The Cultural Revolution in China and re-education camps in Cambodia during the Pol Pot regime. But Hitler was a master at using propaganda and blame to inflate the expectations of the German people and warp the norms of their society. Some would argue that school is simply a tool of the state to "domesticate" people away from resistance and questioning the norms that benefit those in power.

Positive aspect: Having established norms and desires within a society creates social cohesion. Knowing what to expect from one another empowers people to take on more complex and satisfying tasks and enjoy a richer life. A and B can set up a system that allows norms and desires to arise naturally through individual decisions, public debate, and the free flow of information rather than determined by a central authority.

Face 4: Controlling paradigm

Principle: A and B both accept the basic assumptions that soda is a private good that requires to money to procure and should come in aluminum cans. A paradigm is an unquestioned set of basic beliefs that shape the reality of everyone in society. Neither A nor B controls the paradigm; the paradigm controls them.

Negative aspect: If socialization keeps us from asking certain questions, paradigms keep us from even knowing what the questions could be. They limit what counts as knowledge and serve to define fundamental social constructions such as gender and the nature of reality and the individual. Those who don't fit within the paradigm are often subject to violence

Positive aspect: Paradigms change when society runs out of productive ways to address their most pressing problems or there is a technological innovation, such as the computer, that opens up new perspectives and understanding of the universe. A and B can set up a political system that encourages innovation, imagination, creativity, and spiritual insight.

B. Three face-powers:

First face-Decision making

This came from the Hobbes view "power is the ability of an agent to affect the behavior of a patient" power involves being pushed or pulled against one's will. However in this first face, power does not just have to be being exerted by one person or group of people. Robert Dahl came up with the pluralist view –that power is exerted by lots of different groups, there isn't one all powerful elite.

Second face-Agenda Setting

To define power as being only about making decisions began to be seen as too simplistic. If we only measure power when we see it exercised then we fail to see where power may exist but not be exercised. Groups may have the capacity to intervene in decisions but decide not to. Some groups may feel that the decisions are not going to affect them, so stay out it –for example an arms manufacturing company will not step into a debate about the education system. Power is the ability to set the political agenda, to decide what can be discussed, and perhaps even more importantly what cannot be discussed.

The second face of power –agenda setting, means that pressure groups that represent the well-informed, rich and most politically active stand a better chance of shaping the political agenda than groups such as the unemployed, homeless and vulnerable who have less “political capital”

Third face-Thought control

This is Lukes’s contribution, also known as the “radical view” of power. No human being possesses an entirely independent mind; the ideas, opinions and preferences of all are structured and shaped by social experience, through the influence of family, peer groups, school, workplace, mass media, political parties etc”.

This is the idea that we are all shaped by the world we live in, the norms of our culture. We all accept certain values without question (murder, incest, physical, mental and sexual abuse are all bad; pay taxes; don’t steal; cover your mouth when you cough), we label anyone who doesn’t as criminal, psychopathic or just insane. We can see that people benefit from these norms –this is the social contract. a society without opposition may be evidence of the success of an insidious process of indoctrination and psychological control.

5.1.5 Choice and Coercion

Activity:

1. What is coercion?
2. Explain the choice according to the power.

Coercion is the practice of forcing another party to behave in an involuntary manner (whether through action or inaction) by use of threats, rewards, or intimidation or some other form of pressure or force. Such actions are used as leverage, to force the victim to act in the desired way. Coercion may involve the actual infliction of physical pain/injury or psychological harm in order

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to enhance the credibility of a threat. It is a high degree of constraint and / or inducement; choice, a low degree. It is involved in an influence situation if the alternative courses of action are associated with severe deprivations or indulgences, and choice if they are mild.

In addition to the weight, scope, and domain of influence one can speak of its degree of coerciveness (or, alternatively, of the degree to which it limits choice). This characteristic depends on which values serve as the influence base (and function as positive or negative sanctions), and on the amounts of those values promised or threatened. The degree of coerciveness attaching to a specific amount of a particular value varies, of course, with the standards of the culture (or of the particular groups, such as classes, or to which the persons in the domain of influence belong). The culture traits not only determine whether a given object is a value, but how much of a value it is, that is, how it compares in value with other values. A choice situation in one society might thus constitute coercion in another-the indulgences and deprivations might represent greater values.

Negotiation and submission refers to practices with regard to power (encounters) in situations of choice and coercion respectively. When the power practices are not coercively determined, one could say they are the outcome of negotiation. Submission may result from the form of power we call violence, as exemplified by military conquest or assassination. The coercive element stem from the exercise of eco-political power-the financial supporters of a political leader may stipulate changes in his program. Or it may be the exercise of political, which results in submission-a presidential veto, for example. The table below introduces terms for coercive and non-coercive value practices.

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Table 5.1 practices in choice and coercion situations

Value	Choice	Coercion
Power	Negotiation	Submission
Respect	Consideration	Obeisance /homage
Rectitude	Moral Freedom	Moral Subjection
Affection	Love	Servility
Weil-Being	Play	Toil
Wealth	Bargaining	Rationing
Skill	Artistry	Servitude
Enlightenment	Education	Indoctrination

Respect practices (confrontations) are referred to as consideration when freely engaged in and obeisance when they result from coercion. The reign of terror is a typical instance of the coercive evocation of respect. Practices with regard to moral values (moral appraisals) may also be subject to the exercise of power; this refers to **moral freedom and moral subjection**. In the latter case, adherence to specified moral standards is coercively determined. It may result from imposition of discipline (power over rectitude based on well-being), or take the form of inculcation, where power itself is the base of extreme inducements and constraints to moral behavior. There is moral freedom in the degree to which choice may be exercised with regard to standards of morality. Freedom of religion is a familiar instance of moral freedom in this sense. The regulation of public morals by law (decency, sexual offences, and so on) exemplifies moral subjection.

Coercive may be operative in practices concerning affection in the wide sense (socially), **Affection** for the ruler evoked by the exercise of power is a familiar instance of servility as distinguished from non-coercive love. Where practices with regard to well-being (work) are controlled by the exercise of power is referred as **toil, and play**, regardless of serious intent, where the activity is free from coercion.

Bargaining and rationing are practices with regard to wealth (exchanges) in situations of choice and coercion, respectively. Whenever the exercise of power introduces into the market extremes of inducement or constraint it refers to rationing; bargaining is the practice in a freely

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competitive market. The exercise of skill (occupation) is referred to as **artistry** where it is free from coercion, and otherwise **servitude**. Force labor (the form of power based on well-being whose scope is skill) yields one type of servitude. Coercive control of the acquisition of enlightenment (disclosure) is referred in general as **indoctrination**, as contrasted with **education**.

5.2 Resource and power

Activity:

1. What means of resource?
2. Explain the relationship between resource and power.

Resource is defined as anything a nation has, can obtain, or can conjure up to support its strategy. Resources are as tangible as soil, as intangible as leadership, as measurable as population, as difficult to measure as patriotism.

It is impossible to consider the population of a state, its efficiency and effectiveness, without, at the same time, discussing the resources, which are available for its use. People must have land on which to live and to grow their food. Almost all food is derived directly from the soil, and its volume and quality depend directly on the extent and nature of the soil.

For successful agriculture good soils and for industries reserves of minerals are needed. The cultivable soil must, then, be regarded as a primary resource in the estimate of national power. The raw materials from which the metals are derived have a place of special importance in any discussion of national power, because modern industry cannot be carried on without them. A state which lacks the more important minerals or which has only small reserves may feel especially vulnerable.

Few natural resources can be used in the forms in which nature has given to mankind. They need to be smelted, refined, and fabricated. Potential resources which need years to develop may not greatly help. If the decision-making authority initiates a policy now, it needs the support of resource at once not at some hypothetical date in the future. On several occasions in the past century the responsible powers in a State have been forced to admit, "We shall be in a position to

risk war only if certain resources are available" and to delay political action until a safety margin in resources has been achieved.

The stage of industrial development of a state is of prime importance in its power potential. Not all industries, of course, add to a state's power or, contribute to its ability to enforce its policy or to resist demands that might be made on it. "Conspicuous consumption" is not in itself a mark of national power. It does, however, presupposes the existence of the factory equipment necessary to fabricate these unnecessary trimmings, and the factory which makes television can be re-tooled, at some cost in time and money, to make electronic equipment transmitters, receivers, radar-which add significantly to the power potential.

5.2.1 Classification of the degree of availability of resources

1. Power resources available immediately. These include active mines and factories, which are already producing objects with immediate power potential, such as steel sheet and chemical fertilizer.

2. Resources available only after activation. Among such resources would be stand-by equipment and any plant not currently in production. In a sense, these resources also include the "moth half fleet. The time required for activation varies from a few hours to several weeks, according to the need for "warming up".

3. Resources available only after conversion. Most factories producing consumer goods having power potential only after a considerable time lag.

4. Resources available only after development. Such fuel resources or ore deposits, known to exist, but awaiting the opening up of a mine or the construction of a processing plant. Such development may well take several years; it is not uncommon for example, for the opening of a new coal mine- particularly a deep one- to cover a period of four or five years. It is unlikely, therefore, that such undeveloped resources would be taken into consideration in making political decisions. The decision to resort to war, for example, is likely to be made in the light of only of resources that is already in some phase of development. On the other hand, if a war should last longer than protagonists at first expected it to, it is likely that resources, undeveloped at the start, would be exploited before the conclusion. E.g. Germany's development of domestic iron ores

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and her use of coal for making petroleum are good examples of wartime development.

5. Hypothetical resources. Coal, petroleum, ore bodies, and other resources whose existence is only presumed but not proved cannot be said to have any power value. No political authority is likely to count on them unless careful investigation has at least raised them to the level of category 4. Examples of this category are the future development of cheap nuclear power, solar energy, the harnessing of the tide and the use of other such potential resources.

A country, which cannot produce a needed commodity from its own soil or its factories, must necessarily import. This in turn imposes two conditions: a market in which it can be obtained and the means to pay for it. The former does not, except in the case of a very few rare commodities, present much difficulty, but the foreign exchange with which to pay for it is often very scarce. Such imports can be paid in three ways:(1)by means of exports,(2)by means of service performed by the importing country and,(3)by means of payments in gold, securities, and some other internationally acceptable medium

Most of the less developed countries cover the cost of imports by the export of agricultural and mineral raw materials. The more developed countries customarily export mainly manufactured goods or processed materials. A country's natural endowment is of immense importance in determining its range of exports. Agricultural exports, which are important to the less developed countries, are subject to considerable price fluctuations, and many are not essential, in so far as other vegetable or even synthetic products can replace them. Demand thus tends to be very elastic. On the other hand, possession of large reserves of essential minerals and mineral fuels is an asset of great importance, and possession of a “corner” on rare but essential mineral-petroleum or the ferroalloy metals-could be the pretext for a species political blackmail.

5.2.2 Types of resources

Activity:

1. What are the main types of resources?
2. List and explain the types of resources.

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Food resources

An adequate supply of foodstuffs is a condition of human welfare, and its assurance is necessarily a primary preoccupation of a government. If food supply is not assured in time of peace, it certainly would be precarious in wartime, when movement and transportation that are usually more restricted and the labor force available to produce it is reduced.

No great power is completely self-sufficient in respect to foodstuffs, because in no instance is the area large enough to embrace the variety of environment necessary to produce the range of food now thought desirable. E.g. USA and France perhaps come closest to being self-sufficient. But none is able to produce foodstuffs of equatorial origin without extreme difficulty and high cost. E.g. sugar cane. By contrast such countries as the UK, Belgium, Switzerland, F.R Germany, and Sweden are very much more dependent on imported foodstuffs. Under normal conditions the UK imports about half the total food consumption required of its population.

The fact that every developed country is dependent to some extent on imported foodstuffs must be counted as a negative factor in its power inventory. A successful blockade can cut off the supply of imported food.

Mineral resources

The cultivation of many, perhaps most crops is a matter of cost and price. The climate, of course, sets limitations, but even these can in extreme cases be overcome at a price. This is not so of minerals. No price can coal, petroleum or copper from rocks in which these minerals do not exist. The extraction of minerals is thus more narrowly localized than the production of crops.

Mineral resources are distributed much less regularly than cultivable soil. Not a single developed state is self-sufficient. Under normal conditions there is, then, a large trade in minerals- both mineral fuels and the minerals from which metals are obtained.

Fuel resources

Coal of all kinds, as well as petroleum and natural gas- are more widely distributed than most metallic minerals. But not all states of the world possess it. Such an imbalance necessarily produces grave problems for the states lacking sources of mineral fuels. It may lead to the development of alternative sources of fuel, usually at much higher cost, or to the import of fuel and thus to a high dependence on the other countries for an essential raw material.

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States with Reliable domestic supply of coal are – USA, Russia, UK, Germany and Poland. At the opposite extreme are the Scandinavian countries and Finland, the Republic of Ireland, the Middle East and much of Latin America and Africa where there are few significant coal reserves. Between the extremes are countries, such as France, which are short of specific types of coal. Over all dependence on solid fuel is diminishing and this in turn increases the degree of dependence on other sources of power, primarily fuel oil, which are even more narrowly localized. In many areas HEP is also vigorously developed as an alternative to solid fuel, E.g. Switzerland, Austria, Italy, France and Scandinavian countries.

The Middle East, Russia, Venezuela, USA are the major oil producers. It is mainly the Middle East, which has the largest proven oil resources. Because petroleum is necessary for industry and transportation, a steady and constant supply is a prerequisite of power. It is natural that any state would use its power to secure the continued supply of so necessary a determinant of power. Atomic power may be the industrial power of the future, but it is limited mainly to the technologically advanced countries. But its use is not so far as significant as that of petroleum.

Strategic metals

Second in importance only to strategic fuels are strategic metals. The significance of steel and of a number of non-ferrous metals especially copper, aluminum, lead, zinc, tin, manganese, nickel, and a number of other necessary metals need no emphasis. They are even more necessary in time of war for the manufacture of large quantities of military equipment. It has commonly been held that the loss of control over any such materials in war- time was a matter of very grave concern. A balance sheet of mineral resources is thought by some to be a key in power politics.

Metalliferous Resources

Strategic metal were defined as those materials required for essential uses in a war emergency, the procurement of which in adequate quantities, quality and time is sufficiently uncertain for any reason to require prior provision for the supply thereof. No country can possibly be self-sufficient in the range of minerals, though the Russia and the USA more nearly approach self-sufficiency than any others.

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Iron ore differs from non-ferrous metals in part of the much greater demand for it, in part also of its wider distribution and its greater range of grade and quality. Iron is a common element of the earth's crust. Every state contains iron, though in most the grade, that is, the percentage of metal in the ore is too low (30%) to have any commercial value. The effect of technological developments, but, is to increase the margin of exploitability. In order to avoid risk of losing imported minerals governments stock-pile mineral or extract low-grade ores with higher costs.

Manufacturing Industries

A highly developed manufacturing industry is the most conspicuous determinant of power. Every great power of modern times has been an industrial power. No policy, however blustering and aggressive, is likely to be effective unless supported by the ability to manufacture the machines of war. The total productivity of a state rises with its mechanization, so that gross population totals cease to be any measure of relative productive power.

Manufacturing industries give two power advantages to a state: -

1. **They are conducive to a higher standard of living.** The total productivity of a highly mechanized people is, after making all allowances for the creation and maintenance of the machines, greater than that of a people not so equipped. Much of this surplus may, of course, be abstracted by the government and used to maintain large army or to invest in other countries or even in its own. But, if neither these happens the surplus will be distributed among those who help to create it. This distribution may be in the form of a shorter working week, higher incomes, insurance, pensions, welfare, or all of these. However, the surplus is distributed; it creates a higher living standard. The extent to which this living standard rises above a hypothetical minimum is the slack, or fat, which can be drawn upon an emergency.
2. **The actual possession of the plant and equipment necessary to turn out the weapons and equipment of war.** The most varied and developed range of industry; the less will be the degree of dependence on other countries. It is not necessary that the industry should normally engaged in making military items, though it is probable that their manufacture on a small scale would continue, even under the most favorable international circumstances. What is important is that the industry as a whole could be converted to the manufacture of such equipment at a short notice.

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It can be assumed that industrial capacity is an important measure of political power; it should be possible to arrive at some method of ranking states on this base. Another measure of economic development of a state is the amount of power, which it consumes. There is a rough correlation between power consumption and GNP. Despite the extraordinary difficulties of arriving at a formula expressive of national power an attempt has been made to set a formula. Briefly it starts with the area of the state, correlated for population density and the closeness of the railroad net. It then adds a factor for population, correlated for technical efficiency, employment in industry, "moral", and the adequacy of the food supply. Allowance is made for the production of steel, solid and liquid fuels, and hydro-electric power; for the surplus and deficit in steel, petroleum, minerals, and engineering, for the size of armed forces and its possession of what is called euphemistically "the nuclear deterrent. But all these need qualifications.

Transportation

The means of transporting people and equipment are necessary element of national power. Without them, raw materials cannot be assembled for manufacture, nor, when processed, can they be distributed to a market or consumer. There are two aspects of transportation:

A. External: concerns access to foreign sources of materials; it involves the use of ships, ports, and canals, as well as the movement of goods across the land area of other states.

B. internal: Is concerned the means of transportation within a state.

A developed transport net, whether of road or rail is generally regarded as a prerequisite to national unity. Many states have a net of both roads and railroads radiating from the capital to all parts of the country, as in France, Great Britain and Russia. The role of railroads in giving a practical and functional unity to the state is supplemented by the role of roads and waterways. Roads are more flexible than railroads; they can negotiate steeper gradients, can be constructed more quickly and cheaply, and thus tend to be adapted where the volume of traffic would not justify, or the nature of the terrain would not permit, the building of railroads.

Water transport is slow, relatively cheap, and admirably adapted to movement of bulk cargoes. It is feasible only where there are navigable rivers and canals, and this distribution is controlled by the features of the terrain and by the water supply. For rapid movement of large volumes of

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goods and numbers of people nothing can match the railroads. But at the same time they are particularly vulnerable.

Population: The essential elements of the State are land and people. The State is, according to Ratzel, a bit of land and some people. Without population it can have neither police nor the power with which to carry policy into effect. The size and density of population are thus basic to a study of national power.

The numerical size of the population is important in other respects besides a military sense. On the extent of the domestic population and on its purchasing power depends the size of the domestic market. Small State finds it difficult and costly to establish certain types of industry. There are certain industries or groups of industries, which are ordinarily found in large countries and not found in smaller countries. Large countries usually possess an automobile industry, an aircraft industry, locomotive building, heavy machine building both mechanical and electrical.

In other words, the State with a small population is likely to have difficulty in supporting those industries, which are strategically desirable. Furthermore, only a country of considerable population could operate some of the large-scale industrial undertakings economically and effectively.

The structure of population- The age structure of the population, the balance between the sexes, the educational attainments, the level of technical efficiency, the birth rate, net reproduction rate, and the rate of growth are all factors in the power potential of the State.

Education and Technical Development- The overpopulated and less developed countries have, by whatever criteria it is measured, the lowest educational levels. The lack of trained personnel in public administration and industrial management and in science and technology must necessarily weaken the total power potential of the country.

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Summary

Power is defined as by Max Weber the German sociologist and political scientist (1864-1920): “the possibility of imposing one’s will upon the behavior of other persons”. The will to impose is reflected by: threat of physical punishment, promise of reward, exercise of persuasion, or a deeper moral/cultural force that causes a person or persons subject to the exercise of power to abandon their own preferences and accept those of others. The power of actor A over actor B is the amount of resistance on the part of B which can be potentially overcome by A

The Classification of power by Etzioni: coercive power: involves forcing someone to comply with one's wishes. A prison would be an example of a coercive organization. Utilitarian power: is power based on a system of rewards or punishments. Businesses, which use pay raises, promotions, or threats of dismissal, are essentially utilitarian organizations. Normative power: is power which rests on the beliefs of the members that the organization has a right to govern their behavior. A religious order would be an example of a normative organization.

The making of decisions is an interpersonal process: the policies, which other persons are to pursue, are what are decided upon. Power, as participation in the making of decisions is as interpersonal relations. Since power is comprised under influence, one may speak of the weight, scope, and domain of power in the senses defined for the exercise of influence. The weight of power is the degree of participation in the making of decisions; its scope consists of the values whose shaping and enjoyment are controlled; the domain of power consists of the persons over whom power is exercised.

National power is composed of various elements, but the major ones are resources and population. So in order to be considered in the power potential of the state, the resources must be developed and available. For example, if we take food resource, every developed country is dependent to some extent on imported foodstuffs must be counted as a negative factor in its power inventory. A successful blockade can cut off the supply of imported food. Mineral resources are also distributed much less regularly than cultivable soil. Not a single developed state is self-sufficient. So that it highly affect the ability of a nation to acquire national power.

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It is impossible to consider resource alone for a state power, its effectiveness is directly related with the educational and technology levels of the population. Today developed States rely on technical superiority to outweigh numerical superiority. But in struggle between the less developed countries, the sheer weight of numbers is still an important, perhaps the most important psychological factor. Even among developed countries it has significance.

Review questions

Part I. True/False

1. The stage of industrial development of a state is of prime importance in its power potential.
2. The exercise of power is simply the exercise of a high degree of coerciveness.
3. The exercise of skill/occupation is referred to as **artistry** where it is free from coercion.
4. Resources such as coal, petroleum, and natural gas are more widely distributed than metallic minerals.

Part II multiple choices

1. Of the following one is a type of typology power that is Wins submission by changing beliefs.
A. Condign Power B. Compensatory Power C. Conditioned power D. all of the above
2. Which one of the following type of power is based on a *system of rewards or punishments*?
A. Coercive power B. Utilitarian power C. Normative power D. No answer
3. Which of the following is invalid with the degree of availability of resources?
A. Power resources available immediately C. Resources available only after conversion
B. Resources available only after activation D. Resources available only after development
E. All of the above
4. Which One of the following is **not true** about resource?
A. Petroleum and natural gas- are less widely distributed than most metallic minerals.
B. Mineral resources are distributed much less regularly than cultivable soil.
C. No great power is completely self-sufficient in respect to foodstuffs
D. Every state contains iron
E. None of the above

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Part III. Short answer

1. What means of power?

2. **Discuss about the faces of power?**

3. Define Negotiation and submission

4. Define Bargaining and rationing

Chapter Six: Water Bodies and Islands

Introduction

Dear learner! In this chapter you understand about the water bodies and their importance for the international navigation. Water is a resource that everyone needs to survive. In many places water is scarce and rivers provide the water needed for drinking, agriculture and even a source of energy. One of the biggest problems of international rivers is the allocation of this resource and to whom it is allocated. If a river flows through one state into another, the first state cannot possibly have the right to use all the resources at the mouth of the river. The state where it begins must also remember the needs of the state where the river ends, they still 'own' part of that river, and should be able to use their share. How the resources of international rivers are divided is one of the important issues in international river law.

Just like international rivers, usage of sea resource is also need attention. Water covers about two-thirds of the earth's surface, and increasingly countries have been projecting their sovereignty seaward to claim adjacent maritime areas and resources. To solve these problems, the law of the sea, branch of international law concerned with public order at sea, was resulted by united nation in 1982.

The United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, also called the Law of the Sea Convention, is the international agreement that resulted from the third United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea, which took place from 1973 through 1982. The Law of the Sea Convention defines the rights and responsibilities of nations in their use of the world's oceans, establishing guidelines for businesses, the environment, and the management of marine natural resources. According to the 1982 convention, each country's sovereign territorial waters extend to a maximum of 12 nautical miles (22 km) beyond its coast, but foreign vessels are granted the right of innocent passage through this zone. Passage is innocent as long as a ship refrains from engaging in certain prohibited activities, including weapons testing, spying, smuggling, serious pollution, fishing, or scientific research.

Objectives of the unit

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- ❖ Define International River
- ❖ Describe the law of navigation of International Rivers
- ❖ Explain the international law of the Sea

6.1 Rivers

Activity:

1. What means of rivers?
2. How to use the international rivers for navigation purpose?

Rivers are the most important freshwater resource for man. Social, economic and political development has, in the past, been largely related to the availability and distribution of fresh waters contained in riverside systems. A simple evaluation of surface waters available for regional, national or trans-boundary use can be based on the total river water discharge. The Colorado River, USA is an example where extraction of water has virtually depleted the final discharge to the ocean. The flow has been used almost completely by negotiated extraction and distribution to nearby states. Any increase in extraction and use would require diversion of a similar water quantity to guarantee the minimum flow required to meet all the water demands of the region. Upstream use of water must only be undertaken in such a way that it does not affect water quantity, or water quality, for downstream users. Use of river water is, therefore, the subject of major political negotiations at all levels. Consequently, river water managers require high quality scientific information on the quantity and quality of the waters under their control the purpose of water quality protection.

Rivers have always influenced deeply the imagination of man. Always changing yet permanent, they seemed, with mountains, to be the most enduring features of the earth's surface. Rivers furnished the earliest and today still furnish one of the more important means of long-distant travel. Rivers have been used for navigation and for the transport of bulky commodities. Rivers were vital channels in the penetration of North America, South America and Russia. The earliest civilizations grew up on the banks of rivers and, if we may believe one of the more illustrious

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interpreters of human history, owed their rise to the stimulus provided by the alternating flood-time and low water.

International law is a body of rules that governs the relationship between states. International rivers are those that are shared by two or more countries. This has become an important subject of international law, as has also the right to take water for irrigation and other purposes from such rivers. The course of rivers is the common and inalienable property of all the countries through which they flow.

In-fact, access to the sea can be, and is, obtained in one of three ways: -

1. the right to use international river;
2. the possession of a corridor to the coast, and
3. Transit rights across another country, with or without the right of a free zone in a port of the latter.

Among the innumerable ways in which man makes use of the rivers that flow through his lands, four are of particular importance in the discussion of their political-geographical importance.

- i. This is usually where it enters the sea. Floods begin, most often; high up the tributaries, but they normally do the most damage in the plains that lie along the lower course of a Rivers serves as boundaries, for which purpose they are not always as permanent an as unchanging as one could wish boundaries to be.
- ii. Rivers have been used in certain parts of the world as a source of water for irrigation and human consumption from time immemorial. To this has been added in recent years the use of river water in industrial processes, especially for cooling of electrical generators.
- iii. Navigation is the third way in which man makes use of a river. In many instances the river, in its primitive condition, is already suitable for navigation. But often the increasing size of river craft, the need to continue navigation at all seasons of the year, and the necessity of maintaining a sufficient depth of water led to regulation of the stream and to building of locks and lateral canals.
- iv. The river basin constitutes a functional unit because water flows from all points in the basin toward its low point, river. Silt is washed from the hills and mountains, but the river deposits this material in its plain tract, where it may chock the channel and intensify the danger of floods. The control of rivers should begin in the upper reaches.

6.1.1 Navigation of International Rivers

International rivers are rivers shared by two or more countries. The international boundary may follow the river or cut across it. If the river serves as a boundary, the actual boundary may be on the left bank (looking downstream), the right bank, or somewhere in between. If it flows across two or more States, there are upstream and downstream riparian that may have different interests in the river. Sometimes part of a river serves as a boundary and another part traverses one or more States.

The Congress of Vienna: The Peace Conference at Paris (1919-1920) also appointed a commission to examine the whole question of the freedom of navigation on international rivers, first attempted to define in general way the freedom of navigation on international rivers.

The first Act of Vienna declared:

Art. 108. The powers whose territories are separated or traversed by the same navigable river engage to regulate, by common consent, everything regarding its navigation. For this purpose, they will name commissioners who shall assemble at the latest six months after the termination of the Congress, and who shall adopt, as the basis of their proceedings, the following principles.

Art. 109. The navigation of the rivers referred to in the preceding article, along their course from the point where each of them becomes navigable, to its mouth shall be entirely free, and shall not, as far as commerce is concerned, to be prohibited to anyone. Due regard being had, however, to the regulations for the policy of navigation; which regulations shall be alike for all and as favorable as possible to the commerce of all nations.

At different times and places different treaties were signed. Some of these were

- i. *Navigation of the Danube: The Treaty of Paris of 1856* provided for the freedom of navigation on the Danube in accordance with the principles of previously decided upon at the *Congress of Vienna*.
- ii. *The Congo Treaty:* In 1855 the nominal basin of the Congo River was thrown open to the trade of all states; its navigable rivers were opened to their shipping. The area covered by the treaty not only included the basin of the river Congo and its tributaries but also the

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Niger River. In subsequent agreements these interior stretches of river, as well as the lakes of Central Africa were opened, without restriction to international commerce.

- iii. *The St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes* between the US and Canada.
- iv. *In 1847 both Iran (Persia) and the Turkish Empire*, which then included the territory of Iraq, agreed on the common use of *the Shat-al- Arab*.
- v. *In 1948 the USA and Mexico* agreed to permit the mutual use of the *Rio Grande* and *Colorado Rivers*, and in *1851 Brazil* agreed to allow *Peruvian* vessels to navigate the *Amazon River* as a means of reaching *Peru* from *the Atlantic*. At this the *USA* protested, claiming the right for the ships of all states at *peace with Brazil* to *navigate the Amazon*.

This raised an important question: was the right to use an international river for navigation limited to the ships of the riparian states, or was it open to any vessels trading with the riparian states?

During the nineteenth century, so many of the important international rivers of the world were opened to the navigation of ships of all states that it became the rule that any river which is shared by two or more states is by right open to the peaceful shipping of all.

The Peace Conference at Paris (1919-1920) also appointed a commission to examine the whole question of the freedom of navigation on international rivers. The Commission met at Barcelona in 1921 and drew up the Convention, which contains the basic principles of navigation on international rivers. The Convention was limited to the international rivers naturally navigable and to the lateral canals (such as the St. Lawrence Sea Way) constructed to remedy the shortcomings of the natural waterway. Tolls payable for the use of such waterways must be for the services performed, such as pilot age, setting buoys, and improving the navigable channel. The convention was binding on only the states that ratify it.

6.1.2 Navigation of International Straits

Activity:

1. What means of straits?
2. How to the uses of straits for the international navigation?

The Strait of Gibraltar is one of the main straits used for international navigation, just like the Strait of Hormuz (between the Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman), the Strait of Bab-el-

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Mandeb (between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden), and the Bering Strait (between the Bering Sea and the Beaufort Sea). It is also one of the international straits with the highest levels of maritime traffic worldwide, since it stands as a required passageway between the ports of the Atlantic and Northern. Its coastal states are signatories of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea and accept the transit passage regime. The agreements between the international community and the States bordering the Strait regarding the definition of maritime navigation lanes, with particular stress on the rights and obligations of the said States, as well as the international commitments.

European ports and those in the Mediterranean Sea, the Strait's relevance to international navigation was expressly acknowledged in the studies made prior to the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, which included Gibraltar among the 33 straits "constituting routes used for international navigation". This classification has been confirmed in practice by official data stating that over 95,000 ships pass through the Strait every year, including a high number of oil tankers, taking into account that it has become one of the world's most active oil routes ever since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1975. Because of its characteristics, this strait fulfills the necessary physical, functional and legal requirements to be considered as a strait used for international navigation.

In order to better understand the layout of sea lanes in the Strait, we should analyze the sovereignty and jurisdictional boundaries of both its coastal States. Although the demarcation of borderlines is not essential to study navigation in the Strait, we must bear in mind that their definition always has two sides: a negative one involving the recognition of spatial boundaries for exercising authority (sovereignty and/or jurisdiction); and a positive one that favors the necessary and, in this case, essential cross-border cooperation between neighboring States.

Bridges pose practical problems in international straits. The problem a bridge poses is obvious--it can impede, if not stop, navigation. If it is a non-fixed span, such as a drawbridge, and the width of the non-fixed span is of sufficient width, the problem is greatly reduced, assuming, of course, that the main channel is under the non-fixed span and it is of sufficient depth to allow deep draught vessels to pass. In important straits of restricted width and congested traffic, a single

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movable span would also cause problems if its width were not sufficient to allow sufficiently broad traffic separation schemes for traffic to pass in both directions. Even if these criteria are satisfied, problems with the strait ' s hydrographic characteristics, such as severe tides and currents, and perhaps even habitually occurring strong winds, may effectively negate an otherwise acceptable design

6.2 Maritime Boundaries

Activity:

1. Explain maritime boundaries.
2. Can you explain about the international law of sea?

Boundaries define political jurisdictions and areas of resource control. But claims of national authority are not restricted to land areas alone. Water covers about two-thirds of the earth's surface, and increasingly countries have been projecting their sovereignty seaward to claim adjacent maritime areas and resources. A basic question involves the right of states to control water and the resources that it contains. The inland waters of a country, such as rivers and lakes, have, of course, traditionally been considered within the sovereignty of that country.

For most of human history, the oceans remained effectively outside individual national control or international jurisdiction. The seas were a common highway for those daring enough to venture on them, an inexhaustible larder for fishermen, and a vast refuse pit for the muck of civilization. By the end of the 19th century, however, most coastal countries claimed sovereignty over a continuous belt 3 or 4 nautical miles wide (a nautical mile, or nm, equals 1.15 statute miles, or 1.85 km). At the time, the 3-mile limit represented the farthest range of artillery and thus the effective limit of control by the coastal state. Though recognizing the rights of others to innocent passage, such sovereignty permitted the enforcement of quarantine and customs regulations, allowed national protection of coastal fisheries, and made claims of neutrality effective during other people's wars. The primary concern was with security and unrestricted commerce. No separately codified laws of the sea existed, however, and none seemed to be needed until after War I.

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The League of Nations Conference for the Codification of International Law, convened in 1930, inconclusively discussed maritime legal matters and served to identify areas of concern that were to become increasingly pressing after World War II. Important among these was an emerging shift from interest in commerce and national security to a preoccupation with the resources of the seas, an interest fanned by the Truman Proclamation of 1945. Motivated by a desire to exploit offshore oil deposits, the federal government under this doctrine laid claim to all resources on the continental shelf contiguous to its coasts. Other states, many claiming even broader areas of control, hurried to annex their own adjacent marine resources. Within a few years, a quarter of the earth's surface was appropriated by individual coastal states, largely without protest.

Unrestricted extensions of jurisdiction and territorial disputes over proliferating claims to maritime space and resources led to a series of United Nations conferences on the Law of the Sea. Meeting over a period of years, delegates from over 150 countries attempted to achieve consensus on a treaty that would establish an internationally agreed upon "convention dealing with all matters relating to the Law of the Sea." The meetings culminated in a draft treaty in 1982, the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea.

6.2.1 An International Law of the Sea

The convention delimits territorial boundaries and rights by defining four zones of diminishing control.

1. The treaty allows for the **establishment of a territorial sea of up to 12 nm (22 km) in breadth**, providing various measures for distinguishing between internal and territorial waters. Coastal states have sovereignty over the territorial sea, including the exclusive right to fish in it. Vessels of all types have the right of innocent passage through the territorial sea, although in certain instances coastal states can challenge non-commercial vessels (primarily military and research).
2. **A contiguous zone is permitted out to 24 nm (44 km)**. Although a coastal state does not have complete sovereignty in this zone, it can enforce its customs, immigration, and sanitation laws and has the right of hot pursuit out of its territorial waters.
3. The convention allows the creation of an **exclusive economic zone (EEZ)** of up to 200 nm (370 km). In this zone, the state has certain rights for the purpose of economic advantage,

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notably sovereign rights to explore, exploit, conserve, and manage the natural resources, both living and nonliving, of the seabed and waters. Countries have exclusive rights to the resources lying within the continental shelf when this extends farther, up to 350 nm (648 km), beyond their coasts. The traditional freedoms of the high seas are to be maintained in this zone.

4. All parts of the sea that lie beyond the EEZ constitute the fourth zone, that of the **high seas**. Outside any national jurisdiction, they are open to all states, whether coastal or landlocked. Freedom of the high seas includes the right to sail ships, fish, fly over, lay submarine cables and pipelines, construct artificial platforms and other installations, and pursue scientific research. Mineral resources in the international deep seabed area beyond national jurisdiction are declared the common heritage of humankind, to be managed for the benefit of all the peoples of the earth.

The 1982 convention will not formally take effect until one year after 50 states have ratified it. Although the requisite number have not yet done so, by the end of the 1980s most coastal countries including the United States, had used its provisions to proclaim and reciprocally recognize jurisdiction over 12-nm territorial seas and 200-nm economic zones. Except for reservations held by the United States and a few other industrial countries about the deep seabed mining provisions, the convention is now so widely accepted as to be, for all practical purposes, international law.

EEZ lines are drawn around a country's possessions as well as around the country itself. Every island, no matter how small, has its own 200-nm EEZ. This means that while the United States shares continental borders only with Canada and Mexico, it has maritime boundaries with countries in Asia, South America, and Europe. Thus the United States and the USSR share a maritime boundary, yet to be precisely determined, in the waters of the Bering and Chukchi seas. General acceptance of the Law of the Sea Convention has in effect changed the maritime map of the world. Three important consequences flow from the 200-nm EEZ concept: (1) islands have gained a new significance, (2) countries have a host of new neighbors, and (3) the EEZ lines result in overlapping claims.

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Summary

International law is a body of rules that governs the relationship between states. International rivers are those that are shared by two or more countries. This has become an important subject of international law, as has also the right to take water for irrigation and other purposes from such rivers. The course of rivers is the common and inalienable property of all the countries through which they flow.

The conference which met at Vienna in 1814 for the purpose of restoring peace to Europe after the Napoleonic Wars, first attempted to define in general way the freedom of navigation on international rivers. The Peace Conference at Paris (1919-1920) also appointed a commission to examine the whole question of the freedom of navigation on international rivers. The Commission met at Barcelona in 1921 and drew up the Convention, which contains the basic principles of navigation on international rivers. The Convention was limited to the international rivers naturally navigable and to the lateral canals (such as the St. Lawrence Sea Way) constructed to remedy the shortcomings of the natural waterway. Tolls payable for the use of such waterways must be for the services performed, such as pilot age, setting buoys, and improving the navigable channel. The convention was binding on only the states that ratify it.

Claims of national authority are not restricted to land areas alone. Water covers about two-thirds of the earth's surface, and increasingly countries have been projecting their sovereignty seaward to claim adjacent maritime areas and resources. A basic question involves the right of states to control water and the resources that it contains. Unrestricted extensions of jurisdiction and territorial disputes over proliferating claims to maritime space and resources led to a series of United Nations conferences on the Law of the Sea.

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Review questions

Part I. True/false

1. International law is a body of rules that governs the relationship between states.
2. Hydrographic characteristics are the main problems for the international navigation of straits.
3. The Peace Conference at Paris (1919-1920) appointed on the freedom of navigation on international rivers.
4. League of Nations Conference for the Codification of International Law, convened in 1930.

Part II. Multiple choices

1. Which one of true the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea delimits territorial boundaries and diminishing control?
 - A. The treaty allows for the establishment of a territorial sea of up to 12 nm (22 km) in breadth, providing various measures for distinguishing between internal and territorial waters.
 - B. A contiguous zone is permitted out to 24 nm (44 km).
 - C. The convention allows the creation of an exclusive economic zone of up to 200 nm (370 km).
 - D. All parts of the sea that lie beyond the EEZ constitute the fourth zone, that of the high seas.
 - E. All of the above are the correct answer
2. of the following is not included the treaties were signed.
 - A. Navigation of the Danube
 - B. The Congo Treaty In 1855
 - C. The St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes between the US and Canada
 - D. In 1847 both Iran (Persia) and the Turkish Empire
 - E. All are the correct treaties
 - F. no answer
3. Which one of the following statement is correct?
 - A. Rivers serves as boundaries
 - B. Rivers have been used in certain parts of the world as a source of water for irrigation

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C. Navigation is the third way in which man makes use of a river.

D. The river basin constitutes a functional unit because water flows from all points in the basin toward its low point,

Part III. Short answer

1. What are the practical problems in international straits?

2. What means of maritime boundaries?

3. Define Bays

Chapter Seven: Global Strategic Views

Introduction

Dear learner! In this chapter you understand the global strategic views: geopolitics, geopolitical perspectives of ancients and geo-strategy.

According to some natural law, in every century there seems to emerge a country with the power, the will, and the intellectual and moral impetus to shape the entire international system in accordance with its own values. World War I... generated communism, fascism, and the reversal of a century-old trend towards democracy. World War II produced a Cold War that was truly global.

Geopolitics is therefore the applied study of the relationship of geographical space to politics, and political ideas, institutions, and transactions. The territorial frameworks of such interrelationships vary in scale, function, range, and hierarchical level—from the national, international, and continental to the provincial and local. The interaction of spatial and political processes at all of these levels creates and molds the international geopolitical system. By its balance among other disciplines, geopolitics has come to contribute to diplomatic action and the formation of national policies by providing a means of evaluating national strength. It offers the reality of a geographic basis to political action.

The term geopolitics has long been used to refer to the study of the geographical representations and practices that underpin world politics. The word 'geopolitics' has in fact undergone something of a revival in recent years. The term is now used freely to refer to such phenomena as international boundary disputes, the structure of global finance, and geographical patterns of election results. One expropriation of the term ascribes to it a more specific meaning: examination of the geographical assumptions, designations, and understandings that enter into the making of world politics.

Geopolitical theories to explain the political partitioning of the earth or to rationalize a change in the existing pattern are as old as the Old Testament. When Abraham and Lot selected the well-watered Jordan Valley, whose physical qualities were reminiscent of the favored Nile Valley, Abraham retained the grassy hills of Canaan (Gen. 13). This was quite representative of the times.

Objectives of the chapter

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- ❖ Define geopolitics
- ❖ Describe the geopolitical perspectives of the ancients
- ❖ Explain the concept of the East/West divide and the new world order

7.1 Geopolitics and the World Order

The term geopolitics came to prominence during the late nineteenth century, referred to the way in which ideas relating to politics and space could be used within national policy. Geopolitics is concerned with political relations between states, the external strategies of states and the global balance of power. It is about understanding the basis of state power and the nature of states' interactions with one another. Thinking globally was then formally connected by geopolitical reason to acting globally; the actual practices of geopolitics began much earlier, when Europeans first encountered the rest of the world. Geopolitics is the study of the impact of geographical distributions and divisions on the conduct of world politics.

In its original usage it referred to the impact on inter-state relations of the spatial disposition of continents and oceans and the distribution of natural and human resources. Today, the term also covers examination of all of the geographical assumptions, designations and understandings that enter into the making of world politics. The territorial frameworks of such interrelationships vary in scale function range and hierarchical level from the national, international and continental to the provincial and local. The interaction of spatial and political processes at all of these levels creates and moulds the international geopolitical system.

Geopolitics evolved toward the end of the nineteenth century as new development in science and technology. led people to take a broader view of the world than they had previously. The consolidation of modern state system with the unification of Germany and Italy, the apogee of European imperialist expansion, the appearance of Japan and the United States as new imperialist powers on the fringes of Europe sphere of interest contributed to its development. The communication barrier has conquered many of the restrictions formerly imposed by distance and the power

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blocks of the world is much more complex because of the spatial overlap of great power interests and hierarchical nature of power relations.

Geopolitical analysis still is valid, place, accessibility to resources and equalization use of these resources through historically derived cultural advantages contain

In today's scene, the notion of strategic location has not diminished in importance. Any exercise of influence still depends upon accessibility. Thus the relative location with respect to power centers and transportation routes still vitally contributes to the identification of a strategic location. In other words, the study of geopolitics is based upon a foundation of multifarious items, which must be assembled to account for a state's progress, if not survival, in our current world society.

Geopolitics figures as the intermediate science reaching into geography, History, political science, and international relations to find its expression in national strategies, Geopolitics evolved toward the end of the nineteenth century as new developments in science and technology led people to take a broader view of the world than they had previously. The consolidation of modern State system with the unification of Germany and Italy, the apogee of European imperialist expansion, the appearance of Japan and the United States as new imperialist powers on the fringes of Europe's sphere of interest contributed to its development.

That the rapid population growth and pressures on resources, and the differential development all took not only place in this period and contributed to the new perspectives of scholars and policy makers. Out of this ferment of new thinking (at least new in modern times) came two streams of thought that were geopolitical in nature. One of them emerged from the Social Darwinism fashionable in the period; this was the organic State theory. The other was base more on geographic facts and the policies that should be influenced by them; this is often called geostrategic. It relates directly to the science, which concerns itself with studying the effect of location upon popular attitudes, and especially upon the diplomatic action of states.

Geopolitics, then, figures as the intermediate science reaching into geography, history, political science, and international relations to find its expression in national strategies. Similar to grand strategy in many respects, geopolitical science follows international courses action and their

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potentialities more through diplomatic channels than over planning tables of the Pentagon, Whitehall, and the Politburo (now Presidium).

Geographical analysis may serve purposes of contemplative research or policymaking and propaganda. Geopolitical analysis has two major aspects: -

- i. Description of geographical setting as they relate to political power, and
- ii. Laying out of spatial frameworks that embrace interacting political power units.

It is more difficult to attempt such analysis today than in the past. Because of the hierarchical spatial overlap that exists among great power blocks and the process of constant political realignment, sharply defined global political divisions cannot be easily rationalized. Moreover, the exercise of political power may be the measure of a man's daring or people's desperation, rather than a result of cultural and physical setting.

Formerly geopolitical analysis could be more safely attempted. Until the late nineteenth century, major power blocks were associations of European based empires. The core of world power resided in a tightly compressed area- the European and Mediterranean maritime- influenced landscape. For over 3000 years the nodes this power were such localized points or areas as Mesopotamia, the Nile, Western Persia, Greece, Cartage, Rome, Spain, Portugal, France, England, Germany and Holland. It was "the world that mattered"- a world who's highly endowed geographical setting enabled its inhabitants first to develop their local environments in maximum fashion and then to reach out to less favored parts of the earth, exploiting their specialized resources for the benefit of the home land. The "world that mattered" consisted of the coastlands that bordered the Mediterranean and the eastern North Atlantic. In the late half of the nineteenth century some analysts felt that "the world that mattered" had now come to embrace the entire Northern Hemisphere landmass, from 30° to 60° North Latitude. Others felt that the world power was shifting to the continental sector of this belt only I.e. to North America.

Today, we are less confident that any one part of the earth specially the "north temperate" zone possesses the material and human advantages to monopolize world power. Such factors as population and national will are beginning to claim equal weight with location, climate and resource patterns in the world power- ranking process. Thus, China, India and Brazil have emerged as states that aspire to world power. The second aspect of geopolitical analysis-

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dividing the world into power blocks- is much more complex because of the spatial overlap of great power interests and hierarchical nature of power relations.

Anyway geopolitical analysis still is valid. Place, accessibility to resources and qualitative use of these resources through historically derived cultural advantages continue to give power dominance to certain parts of the earth. If relatively weak and depressed states have begun to exercise considerable influence on the world political scene, it is not because they possess power, but because the stalemate between the North Atlantic and the Soviet Blocks or between the US and Mainland China. The stalemate has presented weak states with opportunity to play one force off against another. Abuse of this opportunity may well backfire, as the major powers come to realize that the issues between them will be solved only through their own actions.

The world now may be divided into the world of direct capability and the world of indirect power capability. Major power areas are capable of international action of their own initiatives; weaker states can only act when the major powers offered them opportunities.

7.2 Geopolitical Perspectives of the Ancients

River valleys like the Nile valley and Mesopotamia were natural units, unified control of which was the major geopolitical objectives. Adjoining landforms like deserts or hills treated as separate areas, which at best served as barriers against invasion, and at worst as breeding grounds for warlike incursions.

When man began to seek broader geopolitical horizons, in this period, he did not consider as his major goal the combination of major valleys, desert, and mountain into one complementary unit. He sought rather to unit various river valleys and their divides into one geopolitical region. He was oriented to one major landform.

The Greeks began to employ broad physical patterns as their basis for dividing the known world geographically. Hecataeus, in the sixth century BC, drew a map dividing the world into two parts:- Europe (including Siberia) and Asia- Africa. Climate was the basis for this political partition, Europe representing the cold areas of the north and Asia-Africa the warm areas of the south. The Asia-Africa environment, more favorable for settlement, was considered the major power locale. A century later Parmenides proposed the theory of five temperate zones or belts, which were one

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torrid, two frigid, and two intermediates. Building upon Parmenides temperate zones, Aristotle claimed power pre-eminence for the intermediate zone inhabited by the Greeks.

The Roman geographer Strabo's view of the earth was continentally oriented, and European centered. The habitable land area consisted of three divisions, Europe, Libya and Asia. Strabo's viewed the European continent as being "the quarter most favorable to the mental and social ennoblement of man."

7.2.1 Early Geopolitical Perspectives

Alfred Thayer Mahan (27 September 1840 - 1 December 1914) was a United States Navy officer, naval strategist, and educator, widely considered the foremost theorist of sea power

Captain Alfred Thayer Mahan, USN, was the first person to use the term sea power. He used it in his principal work, *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660-1783*, published in 1890.

Mahan proposed that there were six conditions required for a nation to have sea power:

1. An advantageous geographical position
2. Serviceable coastlines, abundant natural resources, and a favorable climate
3. Extent of territory
4. A population large enough to defend its territory
5. A society with an aptitude for the sea and commercial enterprise and
6. A government with the influence to dominate the sea.

Sea power as a concept means more than military power at sea. Sea power describes a nation's ability to protect its political, economic, and military interests through control of the sea. The principal parts of sea power are naval power, ocean science, ocean industry, and ocean commerce. Sea power encompasses commercial rivalries in peacetime, diplomatic maneuvering and the clash of fleets in wartime. The concept of sea power has been valid whether the fleets were wooden men-of-war or mighty battleships. It remains sound today, although technology has caused ship-to-ship battles to become part of history instead of part of contemporary tactics.

During World War II the emerging effects of aircraft, aircraft carriers, and radar meant we fought fewer battles with ships within sight of each other. In modern naval tactics, we employ gunfire for protection against aircraft and missiles or for bombarding shore targets. If aimed at ships, the targets will most likely be small, fast, patrol craft. These crafts deliver missile or

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torpedo attacks in coastal waters. Sea power today includes many aspects of the naval strength of a nation that did not exist in the last century. Sea power now encompasses maritime industry and marine sciences. These industries and sciences add to our national economy by exploring new resources for food, freshwater, minerals, and even living space

Modern geopolitics was rooted in the concern of an eminent English geographer, **Halford Mackinder**, with the balance of power in the world at the beginning of the 20th century. Believing that the major powers would be those that controlled the land, not the seas, he developed what came to be known as the **heartland theory**. The greatest land power, he argued, would be sited in Eurasia, the "World-Island" containing the world's largest landmass in both area and population. Its interior or heartland, he warned, would provide a base for world conquest, and Eastern Europe was the core of that heartland. Mackinder warned, "Who rules East Europe commands the Heartland, who rules the Heartland commands the World-Island, who rules the World-Island commands the World."

Developed in a century that saw first Germany and then the Soviet Union dominate East Europe, and the decline of Britain as a superpower, Mackinder's theory impressed many. Near the end of World War II, the theory was modified by **Nicholas Spykman**, who agreed with Mackinder that Eurasia was the likely base for potential world domination, but argued that the coastal fringes of the landmass, not its heartland, were the key. The coastal margins, or Rim land, contained dense populations, abundant resources, and had controlling access both to the seas and to the continental interior. **Spykman's Rimland theory**, published in 1944, stated, "Who controls the Rim land rules Eurasia, who rules Eurasia controls the destinies of the world." The Rim land has tended throughout history to be politically fragmented, and Spykman believed that it would be to the advantage of both the United States and USSR if it remained that way.

By the end of World War II, the Heartland was equated in American eyes with the USSR. To prevent Soviet domination of the World-Island, U.S. foreign policy during the Cold War was based on the notion of containment, or confining the USSR within its borders by means of a string of regional alliances in the Rim land: the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in Western Europe, the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) in West Asia, and the Southeast

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Treaty Organization (SEATO). Military intervention was deemed necessary where communist expansion, whether Soviet or Chinese, was a threat in Berlin, the Middle East, and Korea, for example.

A simple spatial model, the **domino theory**, was used as an adjunct to the policy of containment. According to this analogy, adjacent countries are lined up like dominoes; if one topples, the rest will fall. In the early 1960s, the domino theory was invoked to explain and justify U.S. intervention in Vietnam, and in the 1980s the theory was applied to involvement in Central America. The fear that war among the Serbs, Croats, and Bosnians in Bosnia-Herzegovina would lead to the downfall of that state and spread into other parts of the former Yugoslavia led in 1995 to NATO airstrikes against the Serbs, a peace agreement forged with American help in Dayton, Ohio, and stationing of United Nations peacekeeping forces in Bosnia

The East/West Divide and the Domino Theory

In addition to a North/South divide based on imperialism and colonialism, the world order of states could also be seen to divide along an East/West split. The East/West divide refers to the gulf between communist and non-communist countries, respectively. Two countries, the USA and the USSR, headed the two blocs and their interaction structured the post-war international political scene. Though the cold war appears to have ended, the East/West divide played a significant role in global politics since at least the end of the Second World War in 1945 and, perhaps more accurately, since the Russian Revolution in 1917. By the second decade of the twentieth century, the major world powers were backing away from colonization. Still, many were reluctant to accelerate decolonization for fear that independent countries in Africa and elsewhere would choose communist political and economic systems instead of some form of Western-style capitalism.

The end of the Second World War marked the rise of the United States to a dominant position among countries of the core. Following the war, the tension that arose between East and West translated into an American foreign policy that pitched it against the former Soviet Union. The domino theory underlay that foreign policy, which included economic, political, and military objectives directed at preventing Soviet world domination. The **domino theory** held that if one

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country in a region chose or was forced to accept a communist political and economic system, neighboring countries would fall to communism as well, just as one falling domino in a line of dominos causes all the others to fall. The means of preventing the domino-like spread of communism was often military aggression.

The domino theory first took hold in 1947, when the postwar United States feared communism would spread from Greece to Turkey to Western Europe. It culminated in U.S. wars in Korea, Vietnam, Nicaragua, and El Salvador. Yet preventing the domino effect was based not just on military aggression. Cooperation was also emphasized, as in the establishment of international organizations like NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) in 1949, which had the stated purpose of safeguarding the West against Soviet aggression. After the Second World War, the core countries set up a variety of foreign aid, trade, and banking organizations. All were intended to open foreign markets and bring peripheral countries into the global capitalist economic system. The strategy not only improved productivity in the core countries but also was seen as a way of strengthening the position of the West in its confrontation with the East.

7.2.2 The New World Order

During the cold war period, from the end of the Second World War period until the early 1990s, the world was ideologically divided between states belonging to the US dominated North Atlantic Treaty Organization (democratic and capitalist) and states belonging to the USSR – dominated Warsaw pact (communist). The bipolar division no longer exists: a geopolitical transition has taken place.

The first sign of this transition was Poland's installation of a non-communist government approved by the USSR in 1989. This was followed with remarkable rapidity by collapse of communist governments elsewhere in Eastern Europe, the symbolic breaching of the Berlin wall on 9 November 1989, the reunification of Germany in 1990, and the collapse of communism in the USSR in 1991. We are now living within a new and uncertain geopolitical world order.

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Summary

Geopolitics is the study of the roles played by space and distance in international relations. Early geopolitical arguments by Ratzel include the idea that territorial expansion was a legitimate state goal. Other important geopolitical theories include Mackinder's heartland theory and Spykman's rim land theory. Mackinder's argued the greatest land power would be sited in Eurasia, the "World-Island" containing the world's largest landmass in both area and population. Its interior or heartland, he warned, would provide a base for world conquest, and Eastern Europe was the core of that heartland. Mackinder warned, "Who rules East Europe commands the Heartland, who rules the Heartland commands the World-Island, who rules the World-Island commands the World."

The essence of geopolitical analysis is the relation of international political power to the geographic setting. Geopolitical views vary with the changing geographical setting and with man's interpretation so the nature of this change. Each century has its own geographical perspective. To this day, one view of geographic realities is colored for practical purposes by our preconceptions from the past. In this century the geographical realities, is the combination of landform distribution and patterns of movement. In the nineteenth century, the prevailing view of the geographical setting was the distribution of continents.

In the other way Spykman believed that Eurasia was the likely base for potential world domination, but argued that the coastal fringes of the landmass, not its heartland, were the key. The coastal margins, or Rim land, contained dense populations, abundant resources, and had controlling access both to the seas and to the continental interior "Who controls the Rimland rules Eurasia, who rules Eurasia controls the destinies of the world."

In addition to a North/South divide based on imperialism and colonialism, the world order of states could also be seen to divide along an East/West split. The East/West divide refers to the gulf between communist and non-communist countries, respectively. Two countries, the USA and the USSR, headed the two blocs and their interaction structured the post-war international political scene. Though the cold war appears to have ended, the East/West divide played a significant role in global politics since at least the end of the Second World War in 1945 and, perhaps more accurate-y, since the Russian Revolution in 1917.

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Review questions

Part I. True/false

1. The rules of Mackinder was the Heartland commands the World-Island
2. The end of the Second World War marked the rise of the United States to a dominant position among countries of the core.
3. River valleys like the Nile valley and Mesopotamia were control of major geopolitical objectives

Part II. Multiple choices

Chose the base answer from the given alternatives

1. **Which one of the following is true about the** confining the USSR within its borders by means of a string of regional alliances in the Rim land?
 - A. the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in Western Europe,
 - B. the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) in West Asia,
 - C. the Southeast Treaty Organization (SEATO)
 - D. All of the above
 - E. None of the above
2. Of the following one is Mahan proposed on required for a nation to have sea power:
 - A. An advantageous geographical position
 - B. Serviceable coastlines, abundant natural resources, and a favorable climate
 - C. Extent of territory
 - D. A population large enough to defend its territory
 - D. All of the above
3. **Which one of the following is true about geopolitics?**
 - A. It came to prominence during the late nineteenth century
 - B. The ideas relating to politics and space could be used within national policy
 - C. It is concerned with political relations between states, the external strategies of states and the global balance of power. ,
 - D. It understands about the basis of state power and the nature of states' interactions with one another
 - E. All of the above
 - F. none of the above

Chapter Eight: International Relations

Introduction

Dear students! This unit describe about the international relations like as International law, method of conflict resolution between the countries and the evolution of international trade

As International Relations are a multi-disciplinary discipline, it's not so surprising of its getting involved with the study of political geography. Political geography bears such range of knowledge which are very helpful to conduct research and formulate viable policies about international phenomenon. Morphologic approach provides a framework to analyze vital issues of political geography. It's indeed very important not only to understand sophisticated cases but also helpful to find causes of crisis and possible recommendations to preserve interest. The present situation of Bangladesh could be very intellectually justified with this approach.

Different approaches to international relations exist. The system approach is one, in which international society is considered as a system with subsystems and fixed rules binding them together and making them behave in particular ways. One major problem with this approach is that international relations are neither systematic nor predictable. Another view is that international relations are based solely on power: each state acts in accordance with its own perceptions of self-interest, mainly the acquisition and retention of power, and the real decision makers are the most powerful states. But due to the difficulty of defining, measuring and the continuous changes of the components of power; it is preferable to consider international relations among members of a community.

Objectives of the chapter

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- ❖ Define International law
- ❖ Understanding the concept of conflict and method of conflict resolution
- ❖ Explain the evolution of international trade

8.1. International Law

Activity:

1. What means of international law?
2. Discuss the United Nations and International Law.

A set of general principles and specific rules is needed for every society or community if it is to function at all. The international community is no exception. A complex network of principles, treaties, judicial decisions, customs practices that are binding on States in their mutual relations governs it. This, which has been evolving for centuries, is what is called international law.

Unlike domestic law, international law is not created by a particular legislature and enforced by an international executive with police powers; nevertheless it is binding. Because of the fact that international communities recognize their interdependence, they do understand the need for world order, and most of the times do operate according to international law. As in every society there may be intentional deviates; but no state remains a chronic law breaker. Even if formal sanctions are not applied against it, a state that refuses to accept and abide by the rules simply isolates itself from the rest of the community and suffers from the lack of normal intercourse every State needs. Law is the only alternative to anarchy; law is demanded by the community of interests among States.

International law although does contain other components of other traditions, it is basically derived from Roman law, the Anglo-Saxon common law, and Christian theology. Nowadays international conflicts which are inevitable and international law is needed to resolve it is in the United Nations, in fact, where international law is currently being vigorously developed.

8.2 The United Nations and International Law

The UN Charter, Article 13, charges the General Assembly with the responsibility for, among other things, encouraging the progressive development of international law and its codification. The Sixth Committee of the General Assembly is assigned the overall responsibility for legal matters, but the actual work is being done chiefly by the International Law Commission (ILC),

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established by the General Assembly in 1947. The 34 members of the ILC are distinguished authorities drawn from all major legal traditions who do not represent governments but function in their personal capacities.

Among the many topics dealt with in great detail by the ILC are international rivers and Law of the Sea. The International Court of Justice, successor of the League of Nations the Permanent Court of International Justice, is another organ of the UN to develop international law. The ICJ or World Court is composed of 15 judges elected by the General Assembly and the Security Council. Like the members of the ILC, they act in their individual capacities not representing any government. The General Assembly and other specialized agencies of the UN some marginally participate in international law making. Of others the legal matters relevant to political geography which is dealt with by these are the conferences on the Law of the Sea and on Transit Trade of landlocked countries. These conferences are designed to produce conventions (multilateral treaties) which, if duly ratified, are binding on at least the signatories and become part of international law. As more states join the international community, as all States ever more tightly bound together by mutual dependence, and the need for universal law becomes both more accepted and more urgent, and the greater will be the UN activity.

8.3 Conflicts and Conflict Resolution

Activity:

1. What are conflicts?
2. What means of conflict resolution?
3. Explain the characteristics of defining conflict.
4. Discuss about the Methods of conflicts resolutions.

Conflict is the central concept to the operational environments for the fields of Peace Studies and Conflict Resolution and the Army. The changes brought about by the end of the Cold War have

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caused these professions to take a hard look at this concept and how it is defined. These definitions are critical

Conflict as defined by the Army suggests several key characteristics. First, that it involves physical violence, as implied that it is an armed struggle or clash. Second, that it is at a minimum a social phenomenon, versus individual, because it ranges from groups to the international level. Third, its scope is limited and confined to either political or military objectives. Fourth, it is often protracted, implying a deep-rooted and multi-generational source that increases the complexity of finding a resolution. The Army states that the desired end state for conflict is to defeat the enemy, attain the nation's goals for the conflict, and set conditions for a sustainable post-conflict stability.

Conflict resolution, as with conflict, is manifest from the individual to the international level. Conflict resolution researchers state that the similarities at the individual level to the national far outweigh the differences. This is not an attempt of reductionism, but the observation that the causes of conflict and the methods of conflict resolution at the individual level have applicability at the higher levels because individuals still make the decisions at the national level.

Conflict is and always has been a main focus of the Army. Today's doctrine, principles, and mission statements all focus on the Army's responsibility as the premier land power to win the nation's wars. War, by most definitions, is armed conflict. However, conflict can exist as a status or a manifestation of a condition between two people or groups or, on the other extreme, it can be armed conflict between nations. The reality of today's current operational environment is that the Army is being called on to deal with conflicts between lower level groups (not national). The purpose of their involvement is often to ensure peace not to win war. To further complicate the matter, peace itself has varied definitions. As this shift occurs the Army needs to fully comprehend what conflict means at all levels--the less violent level.

8.3.1. The defining characteristics of conflict

1. The first characteristic is that of intensity which describes when a conflict crosses from being non-violent to violent. This transition is significant to the Army because a conflict that has made this transition is seen by world governments as having a greater need for military involvement. This characteristic is comprised of two opposite distinctions: non-violent and

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violent. Each of these distinctions consists of two parts: non-violent consists of positive peace and negative peace; and violent conflict consists of open hostilities and warfare

2. A second defining characteristic of conflict is the value systems of the two individuals or groups. If the goals or values of the parties are identical or nearly identical then the issue is merely a matter of how to accomplish that goal (competition or rivalry) or uphold those values if one or both parties violate or are perceived as violating them (dispute). It can be solved through negotiation or a court system where an authority makes a ruling and the parties abide by it or appeal based on the rule of law or established norms and procedures.

This is not a true conflict. Conflict is a values disagreement. The two groups are not operating in an arena where they both agree on right, correct or proper.

3. A third characteristic is cognition. It is divided into two categories: awareness and perception. Parties involved in rivalries, competitions, disputes may not be aware of the values or system which they are operating under. However, this awareness is not essential since they are using the same set of values. In the case of latent conflicts, both participants are not aware or do not manifest an awareness that their values are in opposition to the values of the other party.

4. The final characteristic is scope. The characteristic of scope captures the size of the conflict from two people to global conflict. This is a good measure of how to approach a conflict. It lends itself to suggesting possible solutions, and is a technique for organizing the information concerning conflict and conflict resolution theory.

Conflict: Conflict was originally used to mean “strike at another, to fight with an enemy or to do battle with an opposing force”. Today it equally means to be antagonistic towards others or to be in sharp disagreement with others. The ability to successfully manage conflict within oneself and between persons reduces antagonism, disagreement and hatred.

Conflict resolution refers to: an outcome in which the issues in an existing conflict are satisfactorily dealt with through a solution that is mutually acceptable to the parties, self-sustaining in the long run and productive of a new, positive relationship between parties that were previously hostile adversaries; and process or procedure by which such an outcome is achieved.

In all this, one understands conflict resolution to imply that conflict is bad hence it is something that should not be encouraged. It also assumes that conflict is a short term phenomenon that can be “resolved” permanently through mediation or other intervention processes.

8.3.2. Methods of conflicts resolutions

There always been conflicts and disputes among States; with different origins and shapes. Regardless of the dimensions of the conflicts, however, they can be resolved without resort to war if the parties involved are willing.

1. Avoidance: This style of resolution is seen when one or two of the parties are advised to avoid one another, avoid talking about the issue at conflict. This avoidance style can be a very useful, constructive resolution tool, when words between individuals may become so heated that a period of avoiding one another could lead to reducing the intensity of the conflict; and by avoidance, the individuals could think more clearly and possibly come together in a more friendly way after their feelings have settled down.

2. Direct Command Resolution Style (Government):- This type of resolution style occurs when a legitimate official or group of persons settle a conflict situation by the power and dominance stemming from State or ecclesial authority. It may be verbal or written. When using this method, care should be exercised as it may be counterproductive especially when the person or group of persons exerting the authority does so in a manner that may increase the conflict.

3. Non-Governmental/Third Party Intervention: - Third party intervention takes place when a person or a group (especially NGOs or. Professional) not favoring either side in the conflict is asked to make a decision that is acceptable to both parties. This style of conflict management is most effective when the third party is acceptable to the persons in the conflict; and when the third party has the wherewithal to rule on the issues, or is seen as knowledgeable, professional and competent in the area of the conflict. Third party intervention is usually not successful when the person is seen as favoring one of the parties involved in the conflict.

4. Compromise or Negotiation Track: - This is a track which is most familiar to persons in conflict situation. It is usually based on the principle of giving and getting. It is hoped that both parties will profit from the outcome of the conflict situation or at least the persons have a sense

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of a fair settlement. This style of conflict management is based on the assumed goodwill of the persons in conflict.

5. Synergistic Style: - This is the joining action of people or organizations to increase each other's effectiveness, and is perhaps the most successful type of conflict management. This style emphasizes on, and uses integration of values, needs and communicative collaboration. It encourages a mutual search for a creative alternative which resolves the conflict and is mutually rewarding to both individuals/parties involved in the conflict. It does not necessarily include the process of giving and getting as involved in compromise.

6. Religion or Peacemaking through Faith in Action: - This track or method involves and deals with beliefs and peace oriented pronouncements, statutes and actions of spiritual and religious communities and societies.

There are five standard types of third party participation: **good offices, conciliation, mediation, arbitration, and judicial proceedings.** The choice to be made any of one or more of these depends on the disputing parties.

Good offices are the simplest form of third-party participation. Is the one in which the third party is least directly involved in the dispute. The third party expedites bilateral negotiations by performing such services for the disputants as providing a neutral site for the negotiations; supplying interpreters, office space, secretarial services, and the like; transmitting messages between the parties; doing basic research and providing factual information to the parties; even providing entertainment and sight-seeing so as to create and maintain a relaxed and friendly atmosphere for the negotiations. Many countries, especially Switzerland, provide good offices, but for more frequent and useful provider of the service is the United Nations.

Conciliation in the negotiations a third party can intervene moderately. A conciliator will consider the positions of both sides and offer a compromise solution to the problem. He or she does not participate in the negotiations, undertake detailed studies, or pass judgment. The conciliator's function is to facilitate the resolution of a dispute by offering a face-saving solution to the parties.

Mediation is very close to conciliation, but is more formal and active. A mediator studies the case in more detail, participates actively in the negotiations, and offers a formal proposal for

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solution of the problem. This is seen and described as the voluntary, informal, nonbinding process undertaken by an external party that fosters the settlement of differences or demands between directly interested parties.

Arbitration is a more formal, time-consuming, and expensive undertaking and, consequently, is less frequently utilized than any method discussed so far. The disputants may resort to arbitration only if a dispute is more legal than political in nature, and it is frequently difficult to disentangle the two, and if it has been protracted and particularly trying for both parties.

Whether the results of the arbitration are to be advisory only or actually binding arbitration, the parties to the dispute agree in advance. Usually they agree on binding arbitration. Then they choose an umpire or arbitrator who may be a sovereign, a distinguished judge, or a tribunal or panel.

Judicial proceedings are formal adversary proceedings before a permanent court following established rules. They are typically the last resort, used after all other methods of pacific settlement of a dispute have been rejected or have failed. The proceeding may take place before a national court, a regional court such as the International Court of Justice. Naturally, being sovereign States, one or both parties may ignore or reject either arbitral or judicial decisions, but generally they are respected.

8.4. The Evolution of International Trade

Activity:

1. What means of international trade?
2. Explain the evolution of international trade.

Internal trade or domestic trade refers to the exchange of goods and services between the buyers and sellers within the political boundaries of the same country. It may be carried on either as a wholesale trade or a retail trade. External trade or international trade, on the other hand, is the trade between different countries i.e. it extends beyond the political boundaries of the countries engaged in it. In other words, it is the trade between two countries. Hence, it is also known as foreign trade.

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International trade on large scale has become a phenomenon of the 20th century especially after the Second World War. There is practically no country today, which is functioning as a closed system. Even socialist countries like Russia and China are now taking concrete steps to capture foreign markets for the products produced in their country. International trade, thus, has become as essential ingredient of the normal economic life of any country. In terms of economic development, international trade is a potentially effective engine of growth.

Modern international trade began with the Industrial Revolution and the decline of mercantilism. The dominant economic theory during the late middle Ages and into the eighteenth century in Europe was mercantilism. The theory was based on the notion that wealth consisted only of gold and silver. The wealth of a country was measured in terms of the amount of gold and silver treasure. Three ways were recognized by which countries accumulated these precious metals:(I) by stealing or conquering countries that have stores of it,(ii) By finding and exploiting new sources of the precious metals; and(iii) By exchanging goods and services for gold and silver.

Mercantilism was an essentially restrictive economic policy that made a few individuals and governments rich but did nothing to improve the lot of the many millions of ordinary people in the world. It is not hoarding of these precious metals that improve people's lives but rather the production of goods and services. The exchange of surplus production increases the value of the initial investment and augments people's real income. The theory of comparative advantage, specialization, is a basic thinking of free trade. The indisputable advantage of specialization and trade led to the free trade movement of the nineteenth century and the increasing world trade that developed forms it.

Few countries ever adapted a completely **laissez-faire** attitude toward international trade; in most, the liberalization of trade was limited by protectionist policies. Still, comparative advantage, economies of scale, and different demand for goods in countries with different cultures were powerful forces generating the expansion of trade. The colonial economy gradually was surpassed in importance by trade among the countries of the north.

As a result of their control over manufacturing, commodities, and trade, the industrialized countries became richer. These states began demanding and producing ever-more sophisticated and expensive products. The only feasible sources of the goods they wanted were other

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industrialized countries, through no coincidence at all, were only the only countries rich enough to buy the new manufactured goods they were producing. The bulk of world trade then began to flow among the rich countries themselves. This pattern is reinforced by the restrictions placed by the countries of the north on manufacturing and trade from their ex-colonies or Third World countries. These industrialized States carry out this by imposing protective tariffs, by subsidization of local agriculture, by development of substitutes for some commodities, and by other practices and developments. This pattern is still dominant, even though many poor countries really are developing and becoming more important traders in their own right rather than serving simply as appendages of the developed countries.

Gains from International Trade: - the various gains of international trade can be listed as follows:

- 1. International Specialization:** International trade enables to specialize in the production of those goods in which each country has special advantages. Each country or region is endowed with certain special facilities in the form of natural resources, capital and equipment and efficiency of human powder.
- 2. Increased Production and Higher Standard of Living:** It is well known that specialization leads to the following:
 - A. Best utilization of the available resources.
 - B. Concentration on the production of those goods in which there are advantages.
 - C. Saving of time and energy in production and perfecting of skills in production.
 - D. Inventing and using new techniques of production.
- 3. Availability of Scarce Materials:** International trade is the only method by which a country can supplement its storage of resources or certain essential materials. There is no country in the world including the U.S.A and the U.K, which has all the resources it requires.
- 4. Equalization of Prices between Countries:** An important gain of international trade or the effect of it is the tendency of internationally traded goods to have the same price everywhere. All these indicate one basis advantage viz., increased production. Increased production will also mean higher standard of living for people in both the countries. Thus, due to international trade there is a gain for both the countries.

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5. **Evolution of Modern Industrial Society:** The modern industrial society is based on extensive specialization and large-scale production. Both are based on the size of the market. The larger and more extensive the market for the products, the greater is the degree of specialization and large-scale production.

Summary

Unlike domestic law, international law is not created by a particular legislature and enforced by an international executive with police powers; nevertheless it is binding. Because of the fact that international communities recognize their interdependence, they do understand the need for world order, and most of the times do operate according to international law. International law although does contain other components of other traditions, it is basically derived from Roman law, the Anglo-Saxon common law, and Christian theology. Nowadays international conflicts which are inevitable and international law is needed to resolve it is in the United Nations, in fact, where international law is currently being vigorously developed.

Conflict is the central concept to the operational environments for the fields of Peace Studies and Conflict Resolution and the Army. **Conflict resolution**, as with conflict, is manifest from the individual to the international level. Conflict resolution researchers state that the similarities at the individual level to the national far outweigh the differences. The defining of conflict has different characteristics including: The first characteristic is that of intensity which describes when a conflict crosses from being non-violent to violent. A second defining characteristic of conflict is the value systems of the two individuals or groups. A third characteristic is cognition. It is divided into two categories: awareness and perception, and, the final characteristic is scope. The characteristic of scope captures the size of the conflict from two people to global conflict.

Modern international trade began with the Industrial Revolution and the decline of mercantilism. The dominant economic theory during the late middle Ages and into the eighteenth century in Europe was mercantilism. The theory was based on the notion that wealth consisted only of gold and silver. The wealth of a country was measured in terms of the amount of gold and silver treasure. Three ways were recognized by which countries accumulated these precious metals:(I)

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by stealing or conquering countries that have stores of it,(ii) By finding and exploiting new sources of the precious metals; and(iii) By exchanging goods and services for gold and silver.

Review questions

Part I. True/False

Write **true**, if the statement is correct and **false**, if the statement is incorrect.

1. International law is created by a particular legislature and enforced by an international executive with police powers.
2. Modern international trade began with the Industrial Revolution and the decline of mercantilism.
3. Good offices are the simplest form of third-party participation

Part II. Multiple choices

Choose the best answer from the given alternatives

1. Which one of the following is the organ of UN to develop international law?
A. International court of justice C. International Rivers and law of the sea
B. Successor of the league of nation D. All of the above
2. _____ is very close to conciliation, but is more formal and active.
A. Conciliation B. Mediation C. Arbitration D. Judicial proceeding
3. Of the following is included in defining characteristics of conflict.
A. value system B. scope C. Violent D. Cognition E. all of the above F. none of the above
4. One of the following is most familiar to persons in conflict situation and, usually based on the principle of giving and getting
A. NGO B. Negotiation C. Synergistic D. Religion E. All

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Part III. Short answer

1. Define conflict?

2. What means of conflict resolution?

3. Explain the Evolution of International Trade

Chapter Nine: Imperialism, Colonization, and Decolonization

Introduction

Dear! Students welcome in this chapter, this chapter explain about imperialism, colonialism and decolonialization. The study of imperialism or colonialism is in part the study of power and geopolitics. Expansionism has been a characteristic of many States, and it has always made possible by superior power and organization. States exhibited such expansionist tendencies long before the most recent wave of imperialism. The Inca Empire grew by colonial acquisitions and the subjugation of outlying areas and peoples; so did the Roman Empire. The main interest here is with colonialism as phenomenon related to the emergence of modern nation-state, so that the main interest is in the European drive for colonial possessions.

Geopolitics may involve extension of power by one group over another. Two ways in which it may occur are imperialism and colonialism. Imperialism is the extension of state authority over the political and economic life of other territories. Geo-political studies indicate that over the last 500 years, imperialism has resulted in the political or economic domination of strong states over the weaker states. Imperialism does not necessarily imply formal governmental control over the dominated area. It can also involve a process by which some countries pressure the independent governments of other countries to behave in certain ways. This pressure may take many forms such as military threat, economic sanctions, or cultural domination. Colonialism differs from imperialism in that it involves formal establishment and maintenance of rule by a sovereign power over a foreign population through the establishment of settlements.

Objectives of the chapter

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- ❖ Differentiate the concept of imperialism and colonialism
- ❖ Describe the motive and nature of European expansion
- ❖ Explain the concept and effect of decolonization

9.1 Imperialism, Colonialism and Decolonization

Activity:

1. What is colonialism?
2. Explain about the decolonialization?
3. What is the difference between colonialism and imperialism?
4. Can you discuss about imperialism?

Colonialism: Relationship in which one country is subject to the authority of another. Colonialism is a practice of domination, which involves the subjugation of one people to another. Usually involves the settlement of citizens from colonial power in the colony.

Imperialism: Act of acquiring or holding colonies or dependencies. One country exercises power over another, whether through settlement, sovereignty, or indirect mechanisms of control. Does not necessarily involve movement of people, but rather control of resources.

Colonialism differs from imperialism in that it involves formal establishment and maintenance of rule by a sovereign power over a foreign population through the establishment of settlements.

Colonialism is different from imperialism. According to Saul B. Cohen (1963) "Colonialism, as a process, involves the settlement from a mother country, generally into empty lands and bringing into these lands the previous culture and organization of the parent society. Imperialism, as distinct from colonialism, refers to rule over indigenous people, transforming their ideas, institutions, and goods. Colonialism refers to the establishment of permanent or extended settlement (colonies) in those territories.

9.1.1 Imperialism

Imperialism is the extension of state authority over the political and economic life of other territories. Imperialism may be military and political (direct, or informal,) in which the government of the territory concerned is taken over by the imperial power. Or it may be economic (indirect, or informal,) in which the territory is formally independent but tied to the imperial power by (unequal) trading relations. In addition, it is now becoming increasingly common to identify cultural imperialism, in which existing or traditional ways of life and ways of thinking are subordinate to the culture of the imperialist.

The process of **imperialism** begins with exploration often prompted by the state's perception that there is a scarcity or lack of a critical natural resource. It culminates in development via colonization, the exploitation of indigenous people and resources, or both. In the first phases of imperialism, the core exploits the periphery for raw materials. As the periphery becomes developed, colonization may occur and cash economies may be introduced where none previously existed. The periphery may also become a market for the manufactured goods of the core. Eventually, though not always, the periphery-because of the availability of cheap labor, land, and other inputs to production-can become a new arena for large-scale capital investment. Some peripheral countries improve their status to become semi peripheral or' even core countries. From the fifteenth to the early twentieth century, colonialism constituted an important component of core expansion. Between 1500 and 1900 the primary colonizing states were Britain, Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands, and France.

1. The Imperial States

Colonizing states were few in numbers. There have been only twelve imperialist states and only five of them were major colonizers. All colonial establishments before 1600 were by Spain and Portugal. In the second phase appeared the Netherlands, France, England and the Baltic States of Denmark, Sweden and Prussia. This is complemented by a sharp reduction in colony creation by both Spain and Portugal: the location of the core of world-economy had moved northwards and this is directly reflected in the new colonial activity.

Four periods of colonial activity by imperial states are:

- i)* The first non-competitive era occurs between 1500-1550 when only Spain and Portugal were imperial states
- ii)* The first competitive era occurs between 1600-1750 when eight states were involved in imperialist expansion
- iii)* The second non-competitive era of the mid-nineteenth century coincides with the rise and consolidation of British hegemony. In this period there are only two states involved in imperial expansion, Britain and France.

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- iv) The second competitive era is the 'age of imperialism' (1650-1925) and coincides with the decline of British hegemony. In this period seven states were involved in imperial expansion.

2. The Political Arenas

Fifteen separate arenas can be identified in which colonial activity occurred in the periphery. The first arena is the Iberian America; it includes Spanish and Portuguese possessions obtained in the first non-competitive era. The other fourteen arenas cover the other three periods of colonial activity. The arenas have been allocated to different periods on the basis of when they attracted the attention of imperial states.

The dominant area of the first competitive era was the Caribbean to be followed by North America, African ports, Indian ports and East Indies. This was initially for location reasons in plundering the Spanish Empire but subsequently the major role of the Greater Caribbean (Maryland to the north-east Brazil) was plantation agriculture supplying sugar and tobacco to the core. Of secondary importance were the North American colonies, which did not develop a staple crop and effectively prevented themselves, becoming peripheralized. This was to be the location of the first major peripheral revolt. The other important arena for this period was the African ports, which formed the final apex of "the famous Atlantic triangular trade. It is this trade and surplus value to be derived from it that underlay the colonial competition of this era.

In the second non-competitive era, colonial activity was much reduced, but four arenas (Indian Ocean Islands, Australasia, Interior India, and Indo-China) did emerge as active in the mid-nineteenth century. There was no competition among core states within these arenas, which were consequently divided between France and Britain. Although without the authority of the Papal Bull legitimizing the earlier Spanish-Portugal share-out, Britain and France managed to continue some colonial activity while avoiding each other's ambitions. The Indian Ocean Islands (including Madagascar) and Indo-China were conceded by Britain as French arenas and the latter left India and Australasia to the British.

This peaceful arrangement was shattered in the next competitive period during a series of scrambles, the most famous being for Africa, although similar pre-emptive staking out of claims

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occurred in the Mediterranean area, Pacific Islands and the Chinese ports. With the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, there was a final share-out of Arabia after the First World War.

Although colonial penetration often results in political dominance by the colonizer, such is not always the case. For example, Britain may have succeeded in setting up British colonial communities in China, but it never succeeded in imposing British administrative or legal structures in any widespread way. And at the end of the colonial era a few former colonies, such as the United States, Canada, and Australia, became core states themselves. Others, such as Rwanda, Bolivia, and Cambodia, remain firmly within the periphery. Some former colonies, such as Mexico and Brazil, have come close to the core but have not fully attained core status and therefore are categorized as being within the semi periphery.

The crucial point is that a relation of dependence was set up between countries in the South, or periphery, and those in the North, or the core, that began with colonialism and persists even today. Very few peripheral countries have become prosperous and economically competitive since achieving political autonomy. Political independence; is markedly different from economic independence, and; the South remains very much oriented to the economic demands *pi* the North. An example of this one-way orientation from South to North is the transformation of agricultural practices in Mexico as increasing amounts of production have become directed toward consumption in U.S. markets rather than toward subsistence for the local peasant populations. Mexico has been described as the "salad bowl" of North America.

The Expansion of Europe: A range of explanations have been advanced to explain the reasons for European expansion, including relative levels of technological development in the continent and other places, political conflicts between European States, the emergence of capitalism, Western Europe's maritime traditions and expertise, and so on.

Whenever the Europeans went they found other people, who were, more often than not, living in complex societies with high levels of technological sophistication, political organization and cultural development. The fact that these other peoples did not set out to rule and dominate the rest of the world was not a product of their so-called 'primitive' condition or 'degenerate' social

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structures, but rather reflected very different combinations of historical circumstances and political, cultural and economic priorities and values.

In the modern world, and particularly the relations between the rich industrialized countries of the North and the poorer countries of the South cannot be understood without the context of Western imperialism. But European control was not ubiquitous, complete, or homogeneous. Parts of the globe escaped formal European control altogether, but even palaces which were part of formal European empires were not wholly subordinated, or subdued.

First, there was the logistical problem of governing tracts of territory and populations, which were larger than the compact countries of Europe and often a long way away. The practical difficulties of colonial administration meant that in many cases the imperial powers had to incorporate and buy off local political leaders, and, to some extent, adjust to local political and social structures. This is not to say that imperialist practice was without horror. Imperial rule was constituted through active engagements between the strategies and institutions of rulers and ruled, albeit ones which were highly unequal and unjust.

Second, imperialism was always resisted. Resistance did not always take the form of organized political struggle (although it often did), but included from sabotage and military actions, through civilian disobedience and strikes to minor non-cooperation, foot-dragging, and grumbling.

The Motives for Expansion

The underlying reasons for the relative success of European domination and the motives, which prompted European expansions, were complex. Certainly, no account of imperialism can ignore trade. Mercantile capitalism, which was the mode of economic organization of Europe's cities in the later middle Ages, was based on simple principle: buy cheap and sell dear.

With the growth of medieval cities and the consequent development of a market for luxury products there was an increasing demand for raw materials and foods which could not be produced at home, or which were in short supply. These included silk and cotton, spices, and precious metals and stones. Europeans knew good sources of many luxuries in Asia and by

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1400, there were already long-established overland trade routes to the East. However, the land routes were insecure and subject to delay loss of cargo and the whims of rulers along the routes.

The development of an all-water route to Asia became a priority. Because he first encountered the land of America, Christopher Columbus is probably the best known of the merchants, adventurers and sea-farers of the 'age of discovery'. However, his voyages westwards in 1492, 1493, 1498 and 1502 were less immediately significant commercially than that of Vasco da Gama, who in 1497 travelled south past the huge continent of Africa and then east reaching the south-western coast of India on 22 May 1498. For the first time it was possible for Western Europe to trade with Asia without risking the difficult overland routes through the Near East.

The other great motive for overseas expansion was religious. Early explorations by Spain and Portugal were impelled in part by the perceived threats to Catholic Christendom from Islam in the east and the Protestant Reformation to the north. Whenever Iberian explorers went they claimed land for their monarchs, but also souls for the Church. Later, in the seventeenth century it was Protestantism, which sought salvation overseas, with the settlement of the eastern seaboard of North America by the Puritans.

9.1.2. Colonialism

Colonialism is both a practice and a worldview. As a practice, it involves the domination of a society by settlers from a different society. As a worldview, colonialism is a truly global geopolitical, economic, and cultural doctrine that is rooted in the worldwide expansion of West European capitalism that survived until well after the collapse of most colonial empires.

Historically, colonies in the strict sense of “settlements” had existed long before the advent of global capitalism; the English word colony is derived from the ancient Latin term colonial, denoting an outpost or settlement. However, colonialism as a principle of imperial statecraft and an effective strategy of capitalist expansion that involved sustained appropriation of the resources of other societies, indeed regions, of the world for the benefit of the colonizing society, backed by an elaborate ideological justificatory apparatus, is a modern, West European invention par excellence, emerging from the 15th century onward.

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Colonialism involved a combination of several processes, recurring with remarkable consistency across various instances. Some of these were as follows:

Encounter and repeated/sustained contact between the Western “discoverers” and the rest of the world, typically involving invasion, conquest, strategic genocide, the relegation of local rulers to subservient roles, and, eventually, some form of settlement by West Europeans.

The surveying and scientific analysis of geography, resources, people, and customs of the colonies with the explicit intent of facilitating resource extraction and/or unequal exchange was through forced trading.

The imposition of extractive enterprises, such as plantations, mining, and other forms of raw-material- yielding activities and the deployment of none free “native” labor in such enterprises. The systematic destruction of indigenous industries to transform the colonies into captive markets for European goods

Triangular trade was (the hawking of European commodities to Africa, enslaved people to the Americas/the Caribbean and plantation products to Europe).

The establishment of modernizationist projects, such as the construction of elaborate transportation and information infrastructures, the introduction of private property in land, specific forms of taxation, and colonial law with the purpose of enabling the extractive and disciplinary apparatus of the colonial administration.

The forced transfer and circulation of enslaved or indentured labor between colonies, or between regions within the same colony, disrupting culturally articulated modes of interaction between nature and people, and creating buffer populations between the colonizers and the locals.

Continuous and systematic framing of colonized populations as the backward, inferior, dehumanized “other” of the enlightened European/White “self,” and the use.

9.1.3 Decolonization

Prior to the First World War anti-colonial feeling manifested itself in xenophobic outbursts against foreigners, but with some notable exceptions there were few stable mass movements and the small parties promoting national liberation were, by and large, formed around tiny groups of intellectuals. Generally, the reacquisition by colonized peoples of control over their own territory is known as **decolonization**. In many cases sovereign statehood has been achievable only

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through armed conflict. From the Revolutionary War in the United States to the twentieth-century decolonization of Africa, the world map created by the colonizing powers has repeatedly been redrawn. Today this map comprises an almost universal mosaic of sovereign states.

Many former colonies achieved independence after the First World War. Deeply desirous of averting wars like the one that had just ended, the victors (excluding the United States, which entered a period of isolationism following the war) established the League of Nations. One of the first international organizations ever formed, the League of Nations had a goal of international peace and security. Within the League a system was designed to assess the possibilities for independence of colonies and to ensure that the process occurred in an orderly fashion. Known as the colonial mandate system, it had some success in overseeing the dismantling of numerous colonial administrations. Although the League of Nations proved effective in settling minor international disputes, it was unable to prevent aggression by major powers and dissolved itself in 1946. It did, however, serve as the model for the more enduring United Nations.

Inter-war period

In the inter-war period there was a weakening of the imperial drive in the core countries. The immediate post-war era saw the growth of international policing and the Woodrow Wilson belief in the need for a new form of colonial relationship. Such beliefs were crystallized in the League of Nations mandate system for former German and Ottoman territories. Under this system the former colonies of the defeated powers were divided into a threefold categorization:

1. Mandate A territories were ruled by either, Britain or France, on behalf of the council of the League with the intention that such territories would soon receive independence.
2. Mandate B territories were thought unlikely to achieve independence except in the long term.
3. Mandate C territories were thought incapable of being independent.

The post-war period

The turning-point in the retreat from empire came with the Second World War. In the immediate Post-war period the balance of forces was clearly swinging towards decolonization. The United Nations provided the forum for anti-colonial sentiments, and the Soviet Union and newly independent countries supplied the voices. The position of the USA, the world power, was more ambivalent. On the one hand the USA had an explicit anti-colonial stance and was eager to make

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friends and trading partners with the nations emerging from the struggle of the nationalist movements. But, on the other hand, US foreign policy after 1947 was dominated by the cold war and the aim of containing communism.

The decolonization in Asia strengthened anti-colonial forces in Africa where the second phase of the process began when Sudan achieved independence in 1956. Thereafter, independence for British colonies followed apace, each new state increasing the weight of precedence. Ghana obtained independence in 1957, Kenya in 1963, and Tanzania in 1964. Most of the French colonies achieved independence in 1960. The last colonial power left Africa in 1975 when the revolution in Portugal, partly caused by the cost of her colonial wars, meant overnight independence (after years of struggle) for Mozambique, Angola and Guinea-Bissau. It was another four years before Zimbabwe achieved independence and Namibia was controlled by the South African government until 1990.

Decolonization does not necessarily mean an end to domination within the world system, however. Even though a former colony may exhibit all the manifestations of independence, including its own national flag, governmental structure, currency, educational system, and so on, its economy and social structures may continue to be dramatically shaped in a variety of ways by core states. Participation in foreign aid, trade, and investment arrangements originating from core countries subjects the periphery to relations that are little different from those they experienced as colonial subjects. Commercial relations also enable core countries to exert important influence over peripheral, formerly colonized, countries.

Summary

Colonialism is different from imperialism. Imperialism is the extension of state authority over the political and economic life of other territories. Imperialism may be military and political (direct, or informal,) in which the government of the territory concerned is taken over by the imperial power. Or it may be economic (indirect, or informal,) in which the territory is formally independent but tied to the imperial power by (unequal) trading relations. Colonialism differs from imperialism in that it involves formal establishment and maintenance of rule by a sovereign power over a foreign population through the establishment of settlements. Between 1500 and 1900 the primary colonizing states were Britain, Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands, and France.

The underlying reasons for the relative success of European domination and the motives, which prompted European expansions, were complex. Certainly, no account of imperialism can ignore trade. Mercantile capitalism, which was the mode of economic organization of Europe's cities in the later middle Ages, was based on simple principle: buy cheap and sell dear. The other great motive for overseas expansion was religious.

The colonization of Africa, South America, parts of the Pacific, Asia, and smaller territories scattered throughout the Southern Hemisphere resulted in a political geographic division of the world into North and South, known as the North/South divide. In the North were the imperialist states of Europe, the United States, Russia, and Japan. In the South were the colonized. Though the equator has been used as a dividing line, some so-called southern territories, such as Australia and New Zealand, actually are part of the North in an economic sense.

Many former colonies achieved independence after the First World War. Decolonization does not necessarily mean an end to domination within the world system, however. Even though a former colony may exhibit all the manifestations of independence, including its own national flag, governmental structure, currency, educational system, and so on, its economy and social structures may continue to be dramatically shaped in a variety of ways by core states. Participation in foreign aid, trade, and investment arrangements originating from core countries subjects the periphery to relations that are little different from those they experienced as colonial subjects.

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Prior to the First World War anti-colonial feeling manifested itself in xenophobic outbursts against foreigners, but with some notable exceptions there were few stable mass movements and the small parties promoting national liberation were, by and large, formed around tiny groups of intellectuals. Generally, the reacquisition by colonized peoples of control over their own territory is known as **decolonization**. In many cases sovereign statehood has been achievable only through armed conflict. From the Revolutionary War in the United States to the twentieth-century decolonization of Africa, the world map created by the colonizing powers has repeatedly been redrawn. Today this map comprises an almost universal mosaic of sovereign states.

Review questions

Part I. true/false

1. Colonialism is both a practice and a worldview. As a practice, it involves the domination of a society by settlers from a different society.
2. The reacquisition by colonized peoples of control over their own territory is known as decolonization.
3. Decolonization does not necessarily mean an end to domination within the world system.

Part II .Essay

Answer the following questions accordingly in the space left below each question.

1. What was the main reason for the emergence of imperialism?

2. What were the primary colonizing states during 1500 -1900?

3. Explain the Four periods of colonial activity by imperial states.

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4. The dominant area of the first competitive era was the Caribbean to be followed by North America, African ports, Indian ports and East Indies. What were the main reasons?

5. Does colonial penetration always results in political dominance by the colonizer? Explain your response supporting with example.

6. Explain the inter-war period and post –war periods

7. Why the Motives for Expansion of Europe?

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Ratzel's theory of organic state

Friedrich **Ratzel**, a nineteenth-century German geographer, developed the **organic theory**. He believed that the state was **organic** because he believed that political bodies, such as countries, behave in a way similar to that of living organisms.