Catching Up
with a
Changing World
A Primer on World Affairs

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Introduction

Do you sometimes feel frustrated when you read about world events in newspapers and magazines or when you view them on television? Do terms like "The North-South Axis" or "The Cultural Areas of the World" baffle you? Do you occasionally wonder why people all over the globe are flocking to the cities? Can you keep track of the various regional organizations in the world or even the specialized agencies of the United Nations?

If so, you are not alone. Millions of people feel as you do. Even the so-called "experts" have difficulty adjusting to the speed of change in today's world and bringing enough background to international events to understand them.

No book of this size can possibly guarantee that you will be a well-informed citizen once you have completed reading it. But such a small volume can help you to catch up with the changing global scene. And that is what this book is intended to do.

Because no one can cover the vast subject of the world in a few pages, the author has selected 10 major themes or aspects of our contemporary global society and has written briefly on them. Then, in the final chapter, he has suggested some ways in which you can inform yourself further and involve yourself more effectively in decisions about our international community.

This book is based on the premise that One World has already arrived but that we are not yet prepared to live in it or deal with it. It also assumes that an international or world community is being born, with many birth pangs accompanying it.

In this volume the author has tried to avoid being either a Pollyanna or a Cassandra. He has pointed out some signs of progress in creating a more peaceful, humane, and just world society, but he has also suggested some of the perplexing problems which all of us face now and will face in the future.

It is the author's hope that you will enjoy this short volume, profit from reading it, and will want to delve more deeply in the future into one or more of the topics mentioned briefly in the following pages.

Good luck, then, as you start or continue Catching Up With the World.

Chapter 1

Five Billion Neighbors: The People on Our Planet

As Planet Earth spins in space, it carries with it a precious cargo of people. Today there are over five billion passengers on board; in the future there will be billions more.

Only recently has our spaceship become so crowded. Back in the year 1 A.D. there were only a quarter of a billion people on our planet, sparsely scattered over the surface of the earth. It took 18 centuries before the population reached the one billion mark—around 1850. Then the population began to soar.

In 1930, only 80 years later, we became two billion inhabitants.
In 1960, 30 years later, we reached the three billion level.
In 1975, after only 15 years, we became four billion.

Today we have passed the five billion mark.

And what about the future? Most estimates for the year 2000 place the population around six billion. But specialists say that by 2050 we may have 11 billion people on our planet. And they think that the peak may be around 13 billion, reached sometime in the 21st century. At that point they think the population might become stabilized.

But any figures for the future are merely "guesstimates," so let's stick to our current five billion number and learn a little more about who they are and where they live.

Most of the World's People Live in Asia. If we were to assemble a representative sample of the world's people, here is what we would see:

6 of them would be from Eastern Europe and the U.S.S.R.
7 of them would be from North America
8 of them would be from Central and South America
10 of them would be from Africa
12 of them would be from Europe
57 of them would be from Asia.

Yes, most of them would be from Asia. And that makes us wonder how much people know about the large number of Asians in the world.

Examine a population density map of the world and you will find four large concentrations of people, as follows:

East Asia: China, Japan, Indonesia, Korea, the Philippines, etc.
South Asia: India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, etc.
Western Europe: England, France, the Germanys, Italy, etc.
Eastern North America: Largely the eastern part of the United States.

In addition, you would see several smaller areas with a high concentration of people, such as:

Hong Kong
The island of Java in Indonesia
Malaysia and Singapore
Taiwan or Formosa
Puerto Rico
West Africa

However, you would find some places on our globe where many more people could live, as they are sparsely settled areas. Among them are:

Afghanistan
Bolivia
The Hylean-Amazon region of Brazil and adjacent areas
Iraq
Paraguay

Most of the World's People Are Brown. A popular way of categorizing the people of the world is by color, based on an outmoded theory of race. Consequently people are often characterized as yellow, red, black, and white.

Actually there are no yellow people; they are light brown or tan. There are no red people; they are various shades of brown. There are some black people, but most of those referred to as black are actually various gradations of brown.

Hence a large percentage of the world's people are brown. That includes all Asians, most Middle Easterners, most Africans, many Latin Americans, and some North Americans.

Consequently many white people are going to have to learn to live as a minority in today and tomorrow's world, with all the adjustments that implies.

Most of Them Are Women. Throughout the world today there are more women and girls in the population than boys and men, despite the fact that more boys than girls are born in every country.

In the upper age brackets, however, there are many more women

than men in almost every country, as women outlive men these days, especially in the industrialized nations.

Nevertheless, for centuries it has been a man's world, at least in status. However, one of the chief characteristics of our time is the progress being made almost everywhere by women in attaining their rights. That movement is world-wide and encompasses the right to education, to work—with equal working conditions and pay, to justice in the courts, and to participation in politics. Much was made in 1984 in the United States of the candidacy of a woman for vice-president. But it might have been well at that time for Americans to have realized that women have recently headed the governments of India (the world's largest democracy), England, Israel, Sri Lanka (formerly Ceylon), Norway, and Iceland.

Despite some progress, girls and women generally lag far behind boys and men in several areas of life and in many parts of our globe. In education, for example, over 40 percent of the female population is illiterate, compared with only 28 percent of the male segment. And in some parts of Africa and the Middle East the percentage of illiteracy among girls and women is somewhere between 90 and 95 percent.

Most of the World's People are Farmers and Fishermen. Despite the rapid industrialization going on in our world, agriculture is still the largest occupation on our globe and most of the world's people are still farmers, plus several million who are engaged in the allied fields of fishing and forestry.

In a few places farmers and their families live on the land they till, as in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States. But most farmers live in villages and go out to their fields daily to work. That arrangement grew out of the need in the past for villages as a means of defense against hostile people, the extended family pattern of living (whereby several families which are related, live close to each other), and the need for sociability or companionship.

Millions of those so-called "farms," however, are merely small plots of ground, consisting of two, three, or four acres. Furthermore, those acres are often fragmented or located in several spots, not adjacent to each other. In addition, the land is frequently owned by large landowners and only tilled by a tenant or sharecropper who pays a high rental for his property and/or a large share of his crops to the man who owns the land.

Therefore it is impossible for a large percentage of farmers to do more than eke out a meager existence for themselves and their families. Hence many of them are moving to the cities, a phenomenon we will explore in Chapter Four.

Most of the World's People Are Poor. Our planet has been likened to an ocean liner of fairly recent times, with a thousand passengers on board, living in three sections or classes. About 150 of them are in first class, living in comfort or even luxury. About 300 are living in more crowded conditions but still above the level of subsistence. The other 550 are crowded together in "steerage," barely able to keep alive.

Those three compartments or classes are often referred to as the First, the Second, and the Third Worlds. In the First World are approximately 22 nations, largely the industrialized countries of Europe and North America, plus Japan, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand.

In the Second World are the communist countries.

Most of the people on our planet, however, live in the Third World, which is the world of the poor. Whereas the people of the First World have a per capita income of approximately $4000 and those of the Second World a little over $1000, those in the Third World have less than $800 per person per year.

If a fourth category is added, it would include the people of 40 countries, with a per capita income of less than $200.

Consequently a large part of the inhabitants of our globe are ill-fed, ill-housed, ill-clothed, illiterate, and ill.

Most of the World's People are Non-English-Speaking. Today's world is a Tower of Babel, with scores of major languages and thousands of minor tongues and dialects. For example, there are 130 languages which are each spoken by at least a million persons. Of the many languages, the ten spoken by the most people are as follows:

Mandarin (China)	740,000,000
English	403,000,000
Russian (Great Russian)	277,000,000
Spanish	266,000,000
Hindi or Hindustani	264,000,000
Arabic	160,000,000
Bengali (Bangladesh and India)	155,000,000
Portuguese	154,000,000
Japanese	120,000,000
German	118,000,000

Of those leading languages, the United Nations has selected six as its official tongues—Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish. Of them French is the only one of them not included in the list of the 10 most spoken tongues.

It is true that English is becoming the most popular second language of millions of people and that some nations are even using it as a national language where there are many tongues used within their bor-

ders. For example, there are an estimated 800 languages and dialects in India. Fifteen of them are recognized as official, governmental tongues in some states. And, although attempts have been made to promote Hindi as the official national language, English and Hindi are still being used predominately in governmental circles.

In Tanzania, in East Africa, Swahili (the lingua franca of that part of the African continent) is now the official language. But in neighboring Kenya both English and Swahili are used. And in Nigeria, in West Africa, the multiplicity of local languages is so great that English is used as the national language.

In some countries, however, a local language has been adopted officially as the national tongue and is being promoted vigorously. That is true of Tagalog in the Philippines and of Bahasa Indonesian (a variation of Malay) in Indonesia.

So the multiplicity of languages around the world continues to complicate life on our planet.

Most of the World's People Are Non-Christian. There are nine religions today which predominate numerically in the world. In rounded figures, their adherents are as follows:

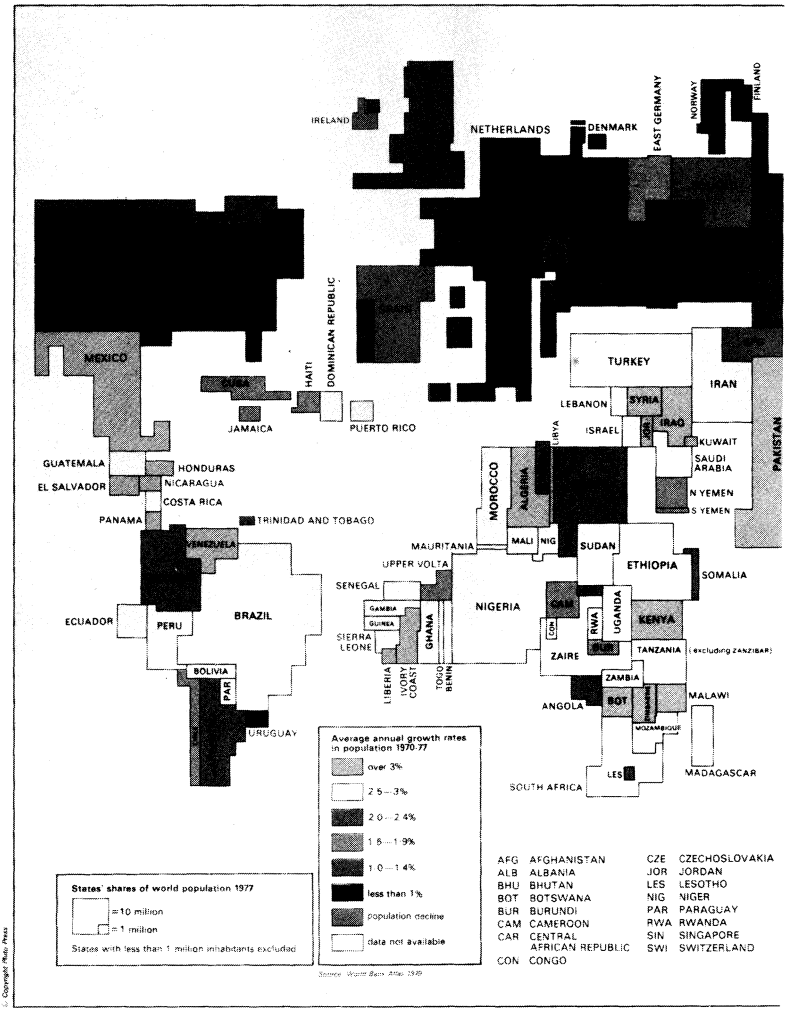
Christianity	1,000,000,000
Islam	550,000,000
Hinduism	460,000,000
Buddhism	250,000,000
Confucianism	170,000,000
Shintoism	40,000,000
Taoism	25,000,000
Judaism	17,000,000
Zoroastrianism	260,000

Millions Are Refugees, Migrants, or Guest Workers. So many people have fled their homes and countries in various parts of the world in recent years that some people have called this The Century of the Homeless.

Some estimate the number of refugees since World War II as 60 million. Others say that there have been even more. Accurate figures are almost impossible to compile.

The two largest migrations in world history have taken place in this century in South and Southeast Asia. The first was in 1947 when the subcontinent of India was divided into two nations—India and Pakistan. As a result of that event and the resulting violence among Moslems, Hindus, and Sikhs, an estimated 15 million persons fled their homes. In that exchange India received nine million and Pakistan six million.

Then, at the time of the civil war between East and West Pakistan, in



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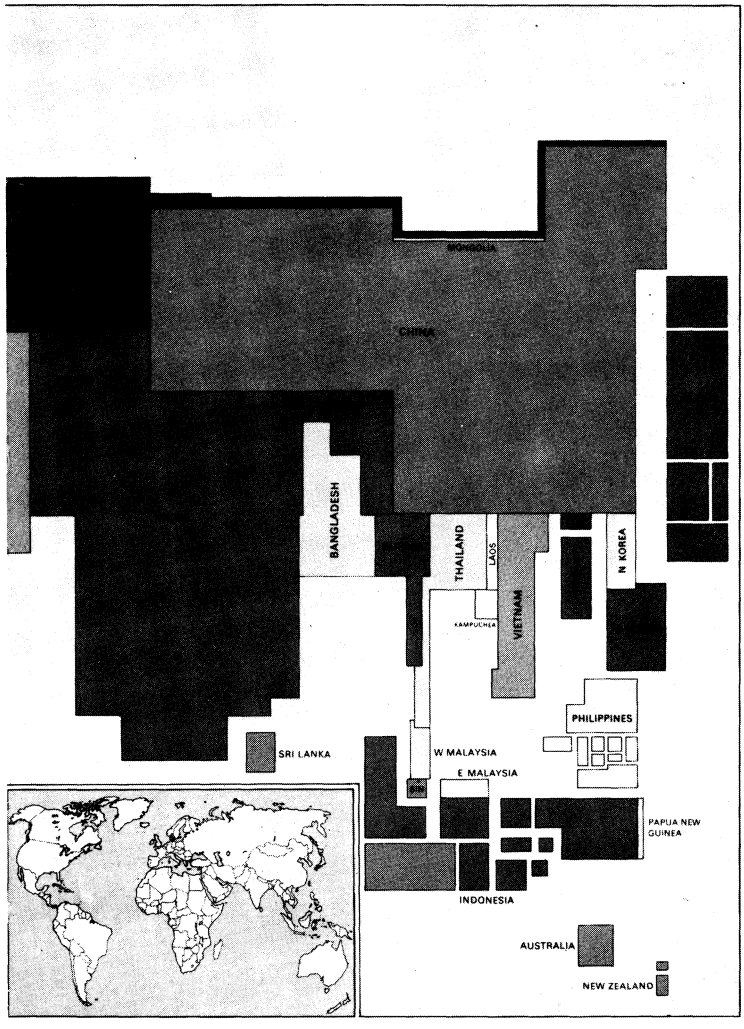


Map of the World by Population

1971, 10 million refugees fled from what was to become Bangladesh, into India. However, many of them returned to Bangladesh at the end of the hostilities.

Approximately 16 million persons have fled in the last three decades from communist rule in Eastern Europe, the largest number (over nine million) being ethnic Germans who were expelled by various communist regimes.

Another five million were added to this total of the world's refugees as a result of the war in Korea, most of them leaving the northern part of that nation for what is now South Korea.

In addition, there have been millions of other refugees in the last few years in several parts of the world. Some were the Cubans who fled the Castro regime on that island. Many were refugees from mainland China. Others left various parts of Indo-China as a result of the war in Vietnam and of other upheavals in that part of the globe. Still others have left various parts of Africa as a result of the civil wars in various nations, of famine, and of the racial oppression in Southern Africa. And, as a result of the conflicts in the Middle East and the establishment of Israel as a nation, millions of people in that part of the world have become refugees.

In addition there are somewhere between eight and ten million people in Europe who are sometimes called "guest workers." They have voluntarily left Italy, Greece, Turkey, and other parts of the Mediterranean world to work in Western Europe. Many of them plan to return eventually to their homelands, but many never will. Whether they should be designated as refugees is problematical.

The World's People Are Basically the Same or Similar. Despite all the differences already cited, the world's people are in many ways the same or similar. We all eat and sleep. We all work and play. We all laugh and cry. We all have ideas of what is right or wrong. We are all proud of our countries and/or our ethnic groups and cultures. We are all wrestling with the same or similar problems, even though we are coping with them in different ways.

Physically there are differences in the color of our skin, the texture of our hair, and our height and weight. But those are minor differences. Even the idea of "race" has been relegated by anthropologists to the status of a myth. Actually we are all human beings, members of the human race—the only race to which we all belong.

The World's People Are Different, Too. Important as it is to recognize the commonalities and similarities of human beings, it is likewise important to realize that differences do exist. Some of them are differences in the way we meet similar needs or carry out similar tasks.

We often eat the same foods but prepare them in different ways and eat them with fingers or forks and from a common bowl or from individual plates or bowls.

We all live in buildings of some kind, but they are made from different materials and constructed in different ways—from mud, thatch, stone, brick, glass, or steel, and from houseboats to trailers and from houses on stilts to condominiums in skyscrapers.

A boy in Thailand may wash the family water buffalo, a boy in Kuwait may groom the family camel, and a boy in the United States may polish the family car. Each is engaged in a similar activity.

Some girls may bleach their hair and skin to be more beautiful; others may darken their hair and skin to achieve a similar status.

These and hundreds of other examples of differences should be easy to understand. But often they are not. Instead, such differences lead to misunderstandings, hostilities, and even confrontations. That is because so many of us have one norm or expectation for human behavior—and that is the way **we** do things. If others do them in different ways, we assume they are ignorant, superstitious, sinful, or wrong.

Delve deeply and you will discover that most differences can be explained by geography, history, or religion. They are not the customs of crazy people doing crazy things.

If you lived in a desert area where a sandstorm often appears suddenly, you would want to be prepared with a kaffiyeh and agal which you could pull quickly over your face to protect you from the burning sands.

If you worked in a rice paddy all day under the glaring sun, reflected on the water, you would want to wear a hat with a broad brim for protection.

If you were a housewife who moved quickly between the indoors and the outdoors many times a day, you would be glad to wear a sari with a section which you could toss quickly over your head when you moved outdoors.

Many of our differences need to be preserved and viewed as enrichments to the world. What a drab place our planet would be if we were all alike! Yes, we need to make the world safe for diversity.

But there are differences which go deeper, due to our differing religions, philosophies, or cultures (the common ways of large groups of people). We do have different attitudes toward marriage, the family unit, or ways of governing. Those are the differences which are more likely to lead to confrontations and conflicts.

Understanding those different ways intellectually and even emotionally will not necessarily remove them, but it should lead to less

misunderstanding and to the search for compromises. As the late Lyman Bryson once said, "The final test of international understanding is the ability to associate strangeness with friendliness rather than with hostility."

The World's Population Problem. Every minute the world gains 150 new persons. Every hour—9100 people. Every day—218,000. Every year 80 million individuals. Every 35 years we double the population on our planet.

Translated into economic and social terms, those stark figures mean that the slight gains which would be possible in improved food supplies, better health, more education, and other improvements, are being offset by the increase in the world's population. Also, capital which could be used to invest in employment-creating activities must be used to care for the high percentage of children and young people who are not yet ready to add to the world's productivity.

So, instead of improving the quality of life for millions, we are using our limited resources merely to provide for the subsistence of our burgeoning population.

Such a situation did not exist for centuries because diseases, famines, and wars limited the growth in population. In recent times, however, we have successfully prolonged the lives of the earth's inhabitants but not drastically curbed births.

Consequently most authorities on the human condition place population growth at the top or near the top of any list of world problems. And they point out that it effects many others problems—such as food, energy, education, health, housing, and crime.

When population control came into prominence a few years ago, it was considered by many people as an extremely sensitive subject. Some people, and even some nations, interpreted it as a way in which people in the rich industrial nations could limit the population of the poorer, non-white countries, and/or a way of escaping their responsibilities for the poor of our earth.

In the last few years, however, there has been a marked increase in all nations in curbing the galloping rate of population growth. Some countries, such as China, East Germany, Japan, Singapore, and Tunisia, have drastically reduced the rate of increase in people. Others, like Belgium, Hungary, and West Germany have even reached zero population growth—the point at which the number of births does not exceed the number of deaths yearly.

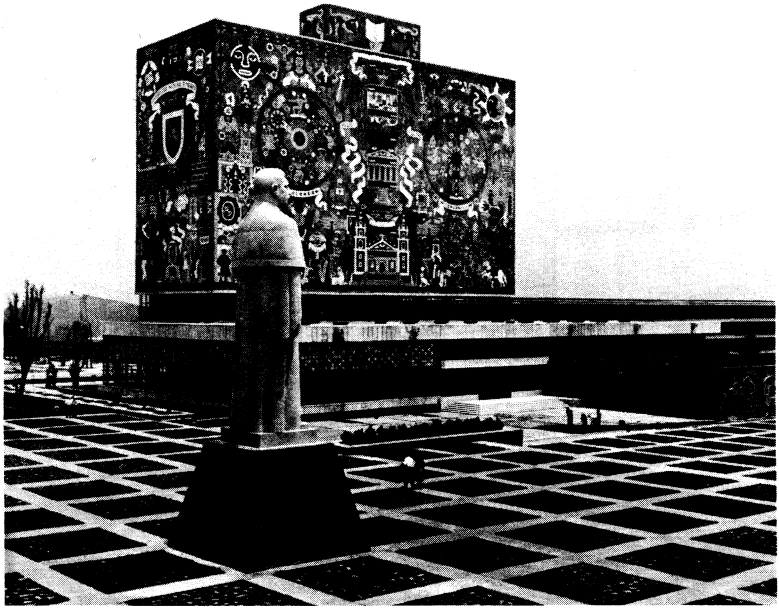
Others lag in their efforts at population control. Hence their populations are growing at three or more percent each year. That is true, for example, of Ecuador, Kenya, Mexico, and Pakistan.

Despite all that governments try to do, little can be accomplished until people are persuaded to have smaller families. That means an intensive and effective educational campaign for family planning inasmuch as many people have been brought up to consider large families as a way of providing more hands for work and more children to care for people in their old age. That was true in a largely agricultural world; it is not true today in an increasingly industrialized world.

Projected Population by Countries for the Year 2000

Country	Total Population in 2000	Percent Increase
China	1,329 million	42
India	1,021 million	65
U.S.S.R.	309 million	21
U.S.A.	248 million	18
Brazil	226 million	108
Indonesia	226 million	68
Bangladesh	149 million	100
Pakistan	135 million	111
Nigeria	135 million	114
Japan	133 million	19
Mexico	131 million	119
Thailand	75 million	77
Philippines	73 million	71
Egypt	65 million	77
South Korea	57 million	55

An Aspect of the Japanese Culture



An Aspect of the Mexican Culture

Chapter 2

The Centrality of the Concept of Cultures

When two men meet, how far do you think they should stand from each other as they talk?

How late can you be in meeting your boss without apologizing?

If you are a man and you are about to cross a crowded street, would you think it was proper to offer your arm to a female companion or to take her arm gently?

The answers to those questions will vary, depending upon the part of the world from which you come.

For example, two men in North America are likely to stand 18 to 20 inches apart. But two men in Latin America are more likely to stand 8 to 13 inches from each other. So the North Americans are likely to consider the Latin Americans over-familiar or pushy and the Latin Americans are likely to consider the North Americans cold or reserved.

In the Middle East and North Africa you might well be a half-hour later for an appointment—or even longer—without being embarrassed. In North America, however, you would probably be chagrined if you were more than five minutes late for an appointment with your boss.

In North America you would probably offer your arm to a lady when crossing a crowded street (unless she was a strong women's libber), or you would gently place your arm under hers. But in many parts of the world that would be considered improper or even rude.

Those are only three minor but typical examples of differences in customs in different parts of our planet. But they are not superficial customs. They are derived from different value systems regarding such ideas as interpersonal relations and authority. Scores, or even hundreds, of such examples can be clustered in what is generally know as the concept of cultures.

The Meaning of the Concept of Cultures. There are several ways in which we can divide the world today. One is by languages. Another is by religions. A third is by the forms of government and economic systems. A fourth is by nations. Sometimes people divide the world by

continents, although that tends to be a classroom convenience, used seldom except by geographers and textbook writers.

An especially useful and also fascinating way to divide the world is by cultures or cultural areas.

Let's hear from several authorities on what they mean by that inclusive term. Edward A. Kennard has written:

> The term culture is used by social scientists to refer to the totality of the behavior of any particular group of people. . . . It is equivalent to the ordinary meaning of civilization in its broadest sense, or what is meant by a way of life.

Seymour Fersh has defined culture briefly but cogently as:

> . . . the ways in which human beings have organized their lives to answer the perennial questions of survival and fulfillment.

Jan A. O.M. Broek has written:

> . . . a culture realm is a composite of peoples who share the legacy of the past and general attitudes.

And Clyde Kluckhohn, the Harvard University anthropologist, has written:

> Culture is a way of thinking, feeling, believing. It is the group's knowledge, stored up in the memories of men, in books and objects, for future use. . . . A culture constitutes a storehouse of the pooled learning of the group.

In other words, there are millions of people, usually living in a well-defined area or region, who have a common heritage, a common religion or value system, common customs or ways of living, and a feeling of facing the present and future together. Such groups are known as cultures.

This concept is so important that when Stuart Chase asked hundreds of social scientists several years ago to name the idea which was increasing most in importance in their combined fields, an overwhelming majority mentioned culture as the most significant.

The Eight Generally Accepted Cultural Regions of the World. Although it is difficult to divide the world into a few cultural areas or regions, many social scientists agree on the following:

1. **The Latin Culture.** Belgium, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and large parts of Latin America.
2. **The Anglo-Saxon Culture.** Great Britain, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa.

3. **The Germanic-Scandinavian Culture.** Austria, Germany, The Netherlands and the Scandinavian countries.
4. **The Slavic Culture.** Much of the U.S.S.R. and parts of Eastern Europe.
5. **The Muslim Culture.** Most of the countries of North Africa and the Middle East, plus parts of the U.S.S.R. and Indonesia.
6. **The African Culture.** The countries of Africa, south of the Sahara.
7. **The Indic Culture.** India, Sri Lanka, and to some extent other parts of South Asia.
8. **The Sinitic Culture.** China, Korea, Japan and to some extent other parts of East and Southeast Asia.

The geographer, Preston James, uses eleven culture regions, as follows, rather than the eight just mentioned:

1. The European
2. The Soviet
3. Anglo-American
4. Latin America
5. North Africa-Southwest Asia
6. South Asian
7. Southeast Asian
8. East Asian
9. Australian-New Zealand
10. The Pacific
11. African

Objections can be raised to any such divisions of the world. For example, many Africanists object to cutting off the African culture from its roots in the northern part of that continent. And what does one do with places like Israel and the Lapps of northern Scandinavia in such a design?

Nevertheless, this partitioning of the world into cultural regions is extremely helpful in understanding contemporary affairs as the people in these cultures often feel and react in similar ways because of their common culture. Of course one needs to be aware that there are many differences within a cultural region as well as among them.

Some Reasons for Learning About Cultures. There are a number of reasons why it is important today to learn about the major cultures of the world. Here are a few:

In order to understand world events, it is necessary to know about the major cultural groups. Often, for example, the bloc voting in the United Nations and its several agencies, is based at least in part on these groups. In attempting to understand the increasing importance of regional organizations it is likewise necessary to know about the major cultures of the world. And in order to understand the relations among

nations, it is often pertinent to know about the cultural groupings as nations act and/or react on the basis of culture as well as economics and politics.

Increasingly Americans have contact with persons from abroad, or Americans are traveling, studying, and working in other parts of the world these days. To deal effectively with the people of other parts of our globe, one needs to know as much as possible about the culture of which they are a part. This may range from local customs, such as the ones cited in the opening paragraphs of this chapter, to the much broader value systems from which such customs emerge. Life is likely to be much easier and much more enjoyable if there is a basis for mutual understanding among the divergent peoples of these various cultures.

In determining foreign policy, it is also extremely important to understand the cultures of the world in order to deal effectively with the representatives of different cultures.

Furthermore, we can all learn from the several cultures of the world. No culture excels in every aspect of living; each has areas in which it is or has been outstanding. After spending a lifetime learning about the various civilizations and cultures of the past, the great English historian, Arnold Toynbee, wrote the following perceptive comment:

> Our own descendants are not going to be just Western, like ourselves. They are going to be heirs of Confucius and Lao-Tse as well as Socrates, Plato, and Plotinus; heirs of Gautama Buddha as well as Deutero-Isaiah and Jesus Christ; heirs of Zarathustra and Muhammad as well as Elija and Elisha and Peter and Paul; heirs of Shankara and Ramanuja as well as Clement and Origen; heirs of the Cappadocian Fathers of the Orthodox Church as well as our African Augustine and our Umbrian Benedict; heirs of Ibn Khaldun as well as Bossuet; and heirs . . . of Lenin and Gandhi and Sun Yat-sen as well as Cromwell and George Washington and Mazzini.

On this theme we will have more to say in Chapter 10 on Fun and Beauty.

Likewise, in any efforts to bring about changes in the world, an understanding of cultural differences is terribly important. The writer recalls vividly meeting in Guatemala with representatives of the World Health Organization and UNICEF who were trying to introduce the use of milk in an Indian tribe whose diet had suffered greatly from lack of that health-giving ingredient. Fortunately they had included in their team an anthropologist whose chief task was to discover the best ways in which to change a centuries-old custom in this respect. Illustrations could be given in every part of the world of the importance of considering the local cultural background in efforts to bring about changes.

How to Approach the People of Other Cultures. Perhaps the ideal motivation for intercultural contacts was best expressed back in the 19th century by the Quaker humanitarian, John Woolman. Writing about his visit to an Indian tribe in Pennsylvania, he said:

> Love was the first motion and then a concern arose to spend some time with the Indians, that I might feel and understand their lives and the spirit in which they live, if haply I might receive some instruction from them, or they might in any degree be helped forward by my following the leadings of truth among them.

The same general spirit was exhibited by Eleanor Roosevelt when she landed for the first time at an airport in India and was questioned about her visit and her feeling toward Indians. Briefly but pertinently she replied that she had no statement to make, saying merely, "I came to learn." Anthropologists call the feeling she expressed "empathy," the most important attribute one can cultivate in contacts with the people of another culture.

Some Characteristics of Cultures. There are many characteristics of cultures. Five are singled out here as basics.

First, all cultures are integrated wholes. In that respect they are like Gestalt psychology—that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts. Each culture is a complicated cluster of parts, delicately interconnected. Change one and the others will change, too. In a sense a culture is like a kaleidoscope.

Moreover, each culture is selective. None of them is perfect. All have some aspects which they stress and in which they excel. But all have their imperfections, too—areas in life in which they do poorly. In this respect each resembles a piece of a jig-saw puzzle rather than a perfect circle.

Some cultures are generally flexible while others are inflexible. For example, the Sinitic or Chinese culture and the Indic or Indian culture are both examples of fairly flexible cultures. It was this flexibility or absorbent ability which enabled the Indic culture to assimilate much of Buddhist thought into its Hindu faith, rather than exchanging Hinduism for Buddhism. Two countries or sub-cultures which are less flexible are the American and the Russian. And when such cultures meet, they are very likely to clash.

Of course each major culture has many sub-cultures within it. The sub-culture of Japan is a prime example of this. Although rooted in the Sinitic or Chinese culture, it has borrowed and adapted much from other parts of the world, especially from the Anglo-Saxon group.

Likewise, cultures rise and fall. The great English historian, Arnold Toynbee, has been one of the chief chroniclers of this phenomenon, tracing such gyrations in the story of 21 cultural groups around the world and in various periods of history.

Some of the Aspects of a Culture to Observe or Study. One of the most comprehensive and thorough studies of various cultures which has ever been carried on, has been done over a period of years at Yale University. In that study their research personnel have developed a Cross-Cultural Index, which compares cultures in 75 categories.

Obviously all of those cannot even be mentioned in a short book like this. But here are a few which need to be observed or studied:

High on the list is the dominant religion or philosophy of a group. How, for instance, can one truly understand the Indic culture without a thorough knowledge of Hinduism, or to a lesser degree of Buddhism? Or how can one really appreciate many factors in the Latin culture without a good knowledge of Christianity, as interpreted by Roman Catholics?

Another factor to observe or study in any culture is the structure of families and attitudes toward family life. For example, one needs to be acquainted with the idea of "the extended family" in African culture, especially in traditional families. And in the Indic culture, one needs to be acutely aware of the way in which children are reared, early in life, traditionally in the part of the house inhabited by the women and girls, before they are turned over to the male members of the household.

The initiation rites of a group or culture are also extremely important. This has been true in the African culture, with its "bush schools" for boys of a special "age group," as a means of inducting them into the tribe, but also, to some extent, for girls. It is significant that the Anglo-Saxon culture has nothing comparable.

One also needs to observe or examine the cultural activities of any group or culture. One outstanding example would be the Indic culture where dance is central and tied closely to religion as well as education. A realization of that fact is difficult for persons in the Anglo-Saxon culture to understand because the Puritan tradition has either granted the dance slight recognition or condemned it.

Are All Cultures Relative? In their desire to understand various cultures and to respect differences, cultural anthropologists have tended in the past to consider all cultures relative. But in recent years some anthropologists have begun to think of some universal standards that might be applied to all cultures. Five are listed here. Perhaps you can think of others.

1. What care is taken of old people?
2. What support is given to persons with special creative talents, as in the arts?
3. What care is taken of the deviants in society?
4. What concern is there for the mental and physical health of all members of the group?
5. How does the amount spent by the national government on education compare with the amount spent on armaments?

How People Learn Their Culture. Culture is not something we inherit; it is something we imbibe. And the learning starts at birth and takes place, especially in the early years, in the context of the home and local community, even though children in some cultures today are learning some aspects of their culture very early through the mass media, especially television.

Scores of examples can be cited of the ways in which the older members of a group equip children with the cultural lenses through which they will look at life. Perhaps two examples, of different values, in two quite different sub-cultures, are enough to illustrate this point.

In Indonesia babies and toddlers are taken in the evenings to see the puppet shows and listen to the music of the gamelan orchestras, thus learning some of the ways of life in that island-nation by a process of "osmosis." And when they are very young, they are taught the traditional dances and learn to play some of the traditional musical instruments of that part of the world.

In a similar way children in the United States begin to learn to live in a highly technical world by playing with the mechanical toys their elders give them. And they learn to be competitive by having "their toys" rather than considering them as possessions which belong to a group.

If you pursue the study of cultures, you will come across many examples of the ways in which we learn our cultures as children and continue to learn them as adults.

Chapter 3

A World of Nations, New Nations, and New World Powers

Today people everywhere are using such words as "global" and "world" increasingly. Obviously that reflects a growing awareness on the part of many people of the interdependence on our planet.

Nevertheless, any realistic appraisal of our contemporary society needs to take into account the pivotal position of nations as the chief centers of power. In her book *Five Ideas That Change The World* Barbara Ward described them as "the strongest, most pervasive force of our day" and as "the greatest levelers of change."

So, even though this is an era in which we need to be thinking and planning more and more in global terms, we dare not overlook the importance of the word "inter-national," with all its implications.

Far from declining in importance, the nation-state is becoming increasingly important, with over 100 new nations formed in the period since 1945—and possibly a few more to be created in the next few years.

What Is A Nation? In international law the government of an area is recognized as a nation when it controls its own territory, determines its relations with other countries, and acknowledges the debts of previous rulers of that region.

Hans Kohn, a leading authority on nationalism, describes the feeling of belonging to a nation in these words:

> . . . the consciousness in an individual of being first and foremost a member—and an active member—of a nation or nationality; a feeling of responsibility for its destiny and willing to help shape its future.

Ask people almost anywhere to identify themselves and they will probably respond by giving the name of their family and/or their tribe, sometimes the city or region in which they live, and often the religious group to which they belong. In addition, almost everyone these days will give the name of the nation of which he or she is a citizen. That is the largest unit of society with which most people identify and the one which most closely affects their lives.

Some Factors Which Foster National Feeling. Without elaborating on the factors which often contribute to the fostering of a feeling of nationhood or nationalism, here are a few such points. Perhaps you would like to think about which ones have contributed most to your feeling of identification with your country:

1. A common enemy or enemies (an especially strong factor in a new nation).
2. A common history or the myth of a common history.
3. Some common ways of doing things.
4. A common language.
5. Some common goals or a feeling of facing the present and future together.
6. A common religion or ideology.
7. Some common physical characteristics as persons.
8. Contiguous territory.
9. Some common symbols (such as a flag, a national anthem, holidays, and heroes and heroines).
10. Transportation (such as the importance of roads and/or railroads in welding nations together, as in the U.S.A. and Canada).
11. Communications (especially the role of radio and television in new nations today).
12. Schools.

Nationalism As a Relatively New and Western World Invention. Curious though it may seem at first, the nation-state is a relatively new idea. For centuries there were dynasties, empires, and federations of tribes and cities. They foreshadowed the modern nation.

But the nation or nation-state as we know it today really began in Europe in the 18th century, replacing the medieval system of earlier times. E.H. Carr, the English historian, credits the French philosopher Rousseau, as the founder of modern nationism.

From Europe that idea spread into other parts of the world, culminating recently in the rise of so many new nations in the last four or five decades.

The Nation-State: A Blessing or a Curse? Many idealists inveigh against nations and nationalism. One of the most scathing of those denunciations was made many years ago by H.G. Wells who said, "The whole intellectual life of mankind revolts against this intolerable, suffocating, murderous nuisance, —the obsolescent national state."

Of course it is true that nations have caused a great deal of evil. They have exploited human beings, promoted arrogance and chauvanism, fostered injustice, caused trade wars, and brought about international

conflicts, with terrible losses in property and human lives, as well as untold suffering.

But nations have also helped people to identify with large numbers of their fellow human beings, protected the property and rights of individuals, provided education for millions of their citizens, and fostered all manner of cultural activities.

As Edwin Canham, the long-time editor of the *Christian Science Monitor* newspaper, once wrote:

> Nothing has done the cause of world understanding more harm than the failure of some intellectuals to see the difference between true and noble nationalism and false or dangerous chauvanism. . . . There is a place and always will be in our integrating world for a true sense of nationhood, just as there is a place for the proud Californian or the exuberant Texan or the canny New Englander in our own nation. Let us use it for the betterment of ourselves and our fellow men, —as a base, a model, a nucleus, a significant entity, a powerful safeguard—and the center . . . but not the circumference of the affections, the hopes, or the institutions of mankind.

Are nations a blessing or a curse? Probably the best and briefest answer is—they are both. They have been likened to a giant river. When its waters are harnessed, the river can irrigate fields and supply electricity. But when its waters are not properly controlled, it can wash out bridges, destroy homes and factories, and do untold damage to farm lands.

Over 100 New Nations. Since 1944 over 100 new nations have been formed. That is far more than the number of nations which existed prior to that year.

The largest number have been created in the African continent, —approximately 50 of them in the area south of the Sahara. In Europe there have been nine if one counts the two Germanies and Iceland in that category. In Latin America there have been eight; in the Middle East and North Africa 16, and in East Asia and the Pacific 17. (See the list on page 27).

Perhaps the beginning of this march toward independence came with the defeat of the Russians by the Japanese in the war between those two countries in 1904–1905. By their defeat of the Russians, the Japanese showed the world that the theory of the white man's invincibility was false.

Then came World War I and World War II and the exposure of colonial peoples to a wider world in which people in many parts of the globe were free rather than ruled by outsiders. The gaining of independence by India in 1947 and by Ghana in 1957 encouraged independence

movements in many places and accelerated the movement toward freedom.

People often think of these new nations as tiny clusters of people. Many of them are. But India is the second largest country in the world in population, Indonesia the fifth largest, and Bangladesh and Nigeria the eighth and ninth.

Some Problems of New Nations. All countries have their problems and many of them are similar in old and new nations. But some of the difficulties in the newer countries are unique; others are intensified. This stems in large part from the fact that almost all of the new nations around the world today were formerly colonies of such imperialist powers as Belgium, England, France, The Netherlands, and Portugal.

Consequently there has almost always been a lack of formal education, a paucity of trained managers and technicians, a lack of local industries, and frequently geographical borders which were determined by the whims of the colonial rulers rather than on a carefully thought-out plan, based on ethnic groups.

Without elaborating on the points contained in the list below, here are some of the major problems of new nations. No country has all these difficulties, but these are some of the major hurdles they need to overcome:

1. Internal security and/or civil war.
2. Lack of adequate resources or of developed resources locally.
3. Lack of capital for development.
4. Lack of local industries and managers and technicians.
5. Lack of adequate agriculture, including modern methods of cultivation.
6. The need for improved transportation.
7. The need for improved communications.
8. Limited feeling of national unity by citizens.
9. The need to establish a stable government.
10. Eventual replacement of the independence movement leaders with new political leaders.
11. Illiteracy and the search for an education suitable for the new nation.
12. Refugees and minorities to provide for.
13. Lack of adequate health measures, facilities, and personnel.
14. Social problems to combat—crime, slums and shantytowns, juvenile delinquency, etc.
15. The need to establish friendly relations with other countries.

It is well for those from long-established countries to realize that their nations were once new and burdened with problems.

For example, when the American colonies were fighting against the British, many persons in the colonies favored the mother-land and so

they were eventually driven to emigrate, primarily to Canada. When the United States was finally formed, it was a tiny nation of less than four million persons, surrounded by unfriendly powers—England, France, and Spain. So dismal were the prospects that most older countries predicted that the U.S.A. would not endure. The first government in our land failed and a stronger government was eventually formed. For its first President, the United States turned to a military leader—George Washington. Likewise there were strong jealousies within the new country, especially between Massachusetts and Virginia. The U.S.A. also had its rebellions, such as The Whiskey Rebellion, and its repressive measures, such as The Alien and Sedition Acts. And eventually the U.S. engaged in a disastrous civil war between the north and the south.

Such facts should make Americans a little more tolerant of the enormous problems which confront the new nations of the world today.

Some "Leading Nations" Today. Part of the fascination of history is the tracing of periods of hegemony. For instance, the Sumerian, Egyption, Babylonian, and Assyrian civilizations were predominant for hundreds of years in the Western World, followed by a relatively brief period of Greek and Roman rule. Then the hegemony returned to the Arab World during the 1000 years of the Dark Ages in Europe. That was followed by the Renaissance and Reformation and the Modern Age in Europe.

During that later period, England emerged as the chief ruler of the world, with Belgium, France, The Netherlands, Portugal, and Spain carving up large parts of the globe for themselves in the form of colonial empires.

In recent years the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. have emerged as the chief leaders of the world in military, political, and economic power. Some would say that the European Community is now "a leading power." Others maintain that Japan and the OPEC countries could be so classified.

Some Leading Nations Tomorrow. Anyone would be foolish to try to predict the leading nations or the world powers 50 years from now. There are just too many unpredictable factors to hazard such guesses.

But there are nations now which seem to be lands of promise. Most of them have large populations and therefore a large potential supply of workers, as well as a large national market, important factors in determining "leading nations." Furthermore they have large quantities of natural resources and/or technical know-how. Among them are Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, India, Indonesia, and Nigeria. Because of their vast stores of petroleum, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates might also be mentioned.

As you read the news of the world and think about international relations, you may want to bear these and possible other nations in mind as world leaders in the future.

At the same time it is wise to realize that several nations without basic natural resources have been able to provide a high standard of living for their citizens by capitalizing upon education or "brain power." Among them are Denmark, Israel, Japan, The Netherlands, and Switzerland.

The New Nations of Recent Times

Some readers may want to transfer some nations from one geographical or cultural area to another, such as Cyprus and Indonesia.

Europe
Albania
Azores
Cape Verde
Cyprus
German Democratic Republic
Germany, Federal Republic of
Iceland
Malta
Romania

Latin America
The Bahamas
Barbados
Dominica
Grenada
Guyana
Jamaica
Surinam
Trinidad and Tobago

Middle East and North Africa
Algeria
Bahrain
Democratic Yemen
Israel
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Morocco
Oman
Pakistan
Qatar
Syrian Arab Republic
Tangier
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates

Africa: South of the Sahara
Angola
Benin (Dahomey)
Botswana
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Empire
Chad
Comoro Islands
Congo
Djibouti
Equatorial Guinea
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea Bissau
Ivory Coast
Kenya
Lesotho
Madagascar
Malawi
Maldines
Mauritania
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Principe
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Sierre Leone
Somalia
Sudan
Swaziland
Togo
Transkei
Uganda
United Republic of Cameroon
United Republic of Tanzania
Upper Volta
Zaire
Zambia

South and Southeastern Asia
Bangladesh
Burma
Democratic Kampuchea (Cambodia)
India
Laos
Malaysia
Maldives
Seychelles
Singapore
Sri Lanka
Vietnam

East Asia and The Pacific
Bhutan
Fiji
Indonesia
Mariana Islands
Mongolia
Nauru
Nepal
North Korea
Papua-New Guinea
Philippines
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Taiwan
Tonga
Western Samoa

Vicious Circle

Chapter 4

The Worldwide Surge to the Cities: The Urban Revolution

Towns and cities have existed on our planet for nearly 6000 years, ever since a small surplus of food enabled some people to carry on activities other than farming, fishing, and hunting.

Such towns and cities were small by today's standards but they served several unique functions. Usually they were the centers of political administration over relatively large areas, the headquarters of the military, and the chief trading and banking posts.

But they were much more than that. They were also the centers of creativity in such fields as art, literature, and music. Persons who had accumulated wealth were able to subsidize creative individuals or pay for their products.

Thus life continued in the cities for centuries, until a new chapter was opened with the rise of science and technology and the introduction of the factory system in the Industrial Revolution.

Throughout many centuries almost all cities grew in a haphazard fashion and were characterized by poverty as well as plenty, by the socio-economic cleavages among classes, and by unbelievable pollution and widespread disease—often in disastrous epidemics. But there were also schools, collections of art, and other amenities. Cities have always and their advantages as well as their disadvantages—a fact we often forget. Urban problems are not new, although there are new problems, as well as old ones which are greatly magnified in these times.

The Rapid Move to a Global Urban Society. Now we have reached a new stage in the development of cities. The surge to these centers is underway in almost all parts of the globe. Swiftly our world is being transformed from a predominantly rural to a predominantly urban society.

Let's examine some statistics which illustrate this generalization. In 1920 only 19 out of every 100 persons on our planet lived in cities. By 1975 it was 39. By the year 2000 urban dwellers will probably constitute 60 out of every 100, or 80 out of every 100 if you define a city as any locality over 20,000.

Furthermore, most big cities are getting bigger and more and more localities of a million inhabitants are appearing. In 1900 there were only 11 cities in the world with over one million inhabitants, six of them in Europe. By 1950 there were 75 such cities, 51 of them in developing areas. By 1975 the number had leaped to 101. And in 1985 there were 273 such cities.

The predictions about the size of our largest cities are even more staggering. Some population experts calculate that by the year 2000, given the present rate of increase, Calcutta might well be a city of 40 to 50 million. Mexico City might be a metropolis of 31 million. And the Tokyo–Yokohama region of Japan, and São Paulo in Brazil, may have 26 million each.

Nor is this unprecedented upsurge in urbanization limited to one part of the world. Take a look at the following chart on The World's Largest Cities, and you will discover that five of them today are in Europe, three in North America, four in Latin America, three in the Near and Middle East, three in South Asia, and seven in East Asia.

The World's 25 Largest Cities

Using the U.N.'s Definition of "The City Proper"

1. Shanghai, China	10,820,000
2. Tokyo, Japan	8,840,942
3. New York, U.S.A.	7,895,563
4. Peking, China	7,570,000
5. London, England	7,379,014
6. Moscow, U.S.S.R	7,050,000
7. Bombay, India	5,968,546
8. Seoul, S. Korea	5,536,377
9. São Paulo, Brazil	5,186,752
10. Cairo, U.A.R.	4,961,000
11. Jakarta, Indonesia	4,576,009
12. Tientsin, China	4,280,000
13. Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	4,252,009
14. Leningrad, U.S.S.R.	3,563,000
15. Karachi, Pakistan	3,442,000
16. Chicago, U.S.A.	3,369,359
17. Delhi, India	3,279,955
18. Madrid, Spain	3,146,071
19. Calcutta, India	3,141,180
20. Mexico City, Mexico	3,025,600
21. Osaka, Japan	2,980,487
22. Buenos Aires, Argentina	2,972,453
23. Los Angeles, U.S.A.	2,809,596
24. Rome, Italy	2,755,135
25. Teheran, Iran	2,719,739

Even a few nations are becoming or have almost become completely urbanized. Two examples are Belgium and The Netherlands. Then there are such "city-states" as Hong Kong and Singapore. And the predictions of the World Bank for the year 2000 predict that 90 percent of the people in Argentina will live in cities by that time, 78 percent in Mexico and in Colombia, 71 percent in Algeria, and 70 percent in Korea.

A population of approximately 300 million is predicted for the United States by the year 2000, with 85 to 90 percent living in cities. A large percentage will be living in five megalopoli—Boshwash (the Atlantic coast city stretching from Boston to Washington), Milpitt (the metropolis extending from Milwaukee to Pittsburgh), San-San (the Pacific coast city covering the area from San Diego to San Francisco, the Florida Peninsula megalopolis, and a similar one on the Gulf of Mexico.

Africa south of the Sahara is the only part of the world where supercities have not yet appeared. But the cities in that vast territory are beginning to burst, too. For example, Lagos in Nigeria, is one of the fastest growing cities on our globe.

The Lure of the Cities. The two chief factors which account for the phenomenal rise in urban centers today are "rural push" and "urban pull."

On farms and in villages the population continues to mount. And, in addition, the introduction of farm machinery displaces people. Consequently many families are forced to the cities for survival.

Then there is the urban pull. People dream of jobs and high wages, not realizing that they have few skills to offer to employers. They think, too, of better health facilities and better educational opportunities, at least for their children. And for some there are the "bright lights" of cities, depicted enticingly in the movies and in some instances on television screens.

So the push and the pull mean that millions of people are migrating to urban areas. And the cities are unable to absorb many of these migrants. Of course some people get jobs, but many do not. Therefore these large concentrations of people become bigger and bigger, more and more crowded and polluted, sicker and sicker.

Then, too, there is the increase in the population of cities due to less infant mortality and the increase in the length of life for many adults. And there is often an increase of population in the cities due to the influx of refugees from other nations.

Some of the Problems of Cities. Every city has its unique problems, but most of their difficulties are fairly common. Space and the nature of this book preclude more than the mention of a few of them. Here are some:

. . . the lack of adequate long-term planning, with more immediate short-term goals specifically stated.
. . . unemployment and underemployment.
. . . grinding poverty, with millions of people living in slums or shanty-towns, scrounging for food in garbage pails and in city dumps for anything with which to build their tiny shacks, —living off of the waste of the wealthy.
. . . inadequate housing, including overcrowding and the lack of sanitary facilities.
. . . poor health facilities, including polluted water; the inadequate disposal of wastes; poor and inadequate food; and lack of medical care.
. . . inadequate transportation and/or costly transportation, with bicycles and automobiles choking the streets.
. . . pollution, including noise, smog, and the fumes from factories, trucks and automobiles.
. . . lack of space, including parks and playgrounds.
. . . crime.
. . . the psychological tensions and social frustrations due to such factors as racial and class discrimination, the inability of people to find jobs or obtain a decent level of living, and the general conditions of life in crowded cities.
. . . inefficient local governments and corruptions.

Probably you can add to this list of problems, even though it is a staggering one already.

Coping With the Crises of Our Cities. Despite the enormity of the tasks facing them, most countries and cities are beginning to confront the crises of metropolitan areas and to try to cope with them rather than pretending they do not exist.

Particularly encouraging are the plans which are being drafted in many parts of the world to deal with the manifold exigencies of these urban areas. For example, a master plan is being drafted, with help from the United Nations, for Metropolitan Lagos in Nigeria, including the transfer of the capital to a locality in the north. In the Middle East an Arab Urban Development Institute has been organized. In Bangladesh a nation-wide physical plan is being drafted, with emphasis upon urban areas. And in Guatemala a regional and urban plan was started in 1976, partly to take care of the havoc wrought by the earthquake that destroyed 250,000 dwellings there, and partly to plan for the future. Similar developments are underway in many nations.

The ways in which nations are attempting to alleviate conditions in their cities varies tremendously. In Tanzania, in East Africa, the federal government is trying strenuously to discourage migration to the capital city of Dar-es-Salaam and to build hundreds of villages, known as

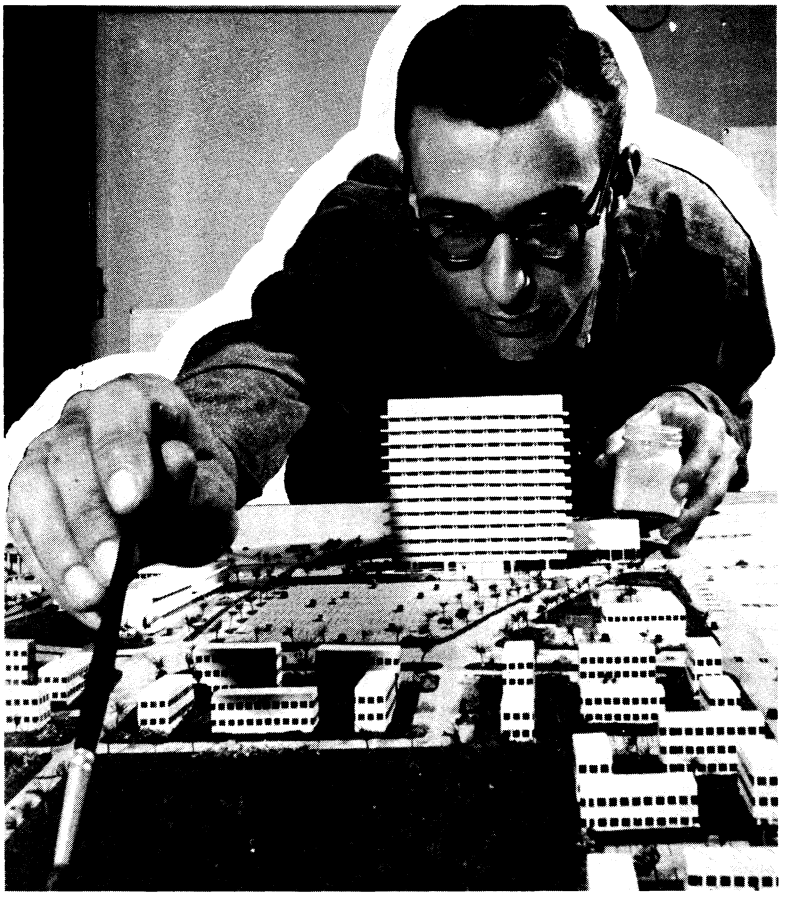
"ujanaa." It is also moving its capital inland to a more central location, thus cutting down on the migration to the present port-city of Dar.

In China and in Cambodia the governments have forced people to leave the cities and to relocate in smaller towns. In addition, they are restoring old buildings, creating new blocks of apartments for workers near their places of work, and planting millions of trees.

Singapore has made great strides in coping with its vastly expanded population, concentrating on birth control, the establishment of new industries and the training of people for such work, and the erection of large numbers of new housing projects.

Another way to deal with the problems of burgeoning cities is to establish new urban areas. Over the last 50 years the U.S.S.R. has pioneered in the creation of new towns, constructing 1400 such communities, several of them in the far north, near the rich mineral deposits of that region.

In several countries, such as England, France, and The Netherlands, "new towns" or "satellite cities" have been constructed in the last few years in an attempt to disperse industry and curb the growth of their leading centers of population.



A City Planner at Work

Probably the most spectacular attempt to stop pollution has occurred in London, which has resulted in 50% more winter sunshine in that city since 1952.

In several cities in various parts of the world a strenuous effort has been made and is still being made to develop communities or neighborhoods within large cities in order to curb the depersonalization so characteristic of large metropolitan areas and to substitute a feeling of participation on the part of citizens.

In these and other ways governments and non-governmental organizations are beginning to cope with some of the problems of our burgeoning cities, even though such efforts are often belated or half-hearted.

Chapter 5

The Increasing Interdependence of the Modern World

As individuals we are all affected daily in scores of ways by the interdependence of our contemporary world, often without being aware of that fact.

At breakfast we may drink coffee from Colombia or Kenya; tea from Sri Lanka or India; or cocoa from Ghana, Nigeria, or Brazil. Our breakfast cereal may be made from the corn or wheat of Australia, Canada, Argentina, or the United States. And the fruit we eat may be bananas from one of the Central American countries; pineapples from Hawaii or the Philippines; or oranges from California, Florida, Israel, or Italy. If our fruit juice comes in cans, they were probably made from the bauxite (tin) mined in Surinam, Jamaica, Indonesia, or Malaysia.

If we drive to work in an automobile, it may have been manufactured in Germany, Japan, Italy, Sweden—or the U.S.A. No matter where it was made, it undoubtedly used around 200 different materials from over 50 nations. If we go by bus or train, the steel in those vehicles might have been made in the United States, Germany, or Japan from iron ore mined in France, Sweden, Venezuela, or the U.S.A. and hardened by cobalt, manganese, or vanadium produced in Brazil, Indonesia, South Africa, or Zaire.

Our job may be one which deals primarily with products or people in our own nation. But it may be one with many connections abroad, either in the materials used from other countries or in sales to people or firms in other parts of the world.

Back home in the evening, we may browse through the newspaper, possibly printed on paper produced in Canada or Finland. Then we may listen to local, national, and world news over a radio made in Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Taiwan, or the U.S.A., or watch the news over a television set made in one of those same countries. And the news may well be from several parts of the globe or an international event in sports or a debate in the United Nations.

For dinner we may eat a variety of foods from our own country. But

Interdependence

we may enjoy delicious dishes prepared from recipes developed by such outstanding cooks and chefs as the Chinese or French, seasoned by sugar and spices from all over the world. In some cases we may prefer the hotter foods of India, the Middle East, or Latin America. And if we have an after-dinner drink, the wine or liquor may be from France, Italy, Scotland, or some other place abroad.

Later, we may listen to music. It may be from the classical composers of Austria, Germany, Italy, or the Soviet Union. But it might well be music produced by Brazilian, Mexican, Japanese, or Indian composers.

If we spend a part of the evening reading, it may be in the books by authors from almost anywhere in the world, including the recently discovered writers of Africa or some of the writings, in translations, of Asian or Latin American authors.

The Phenomenon of Interdependence. The examples just cited are only a few samples of the phenomenon of international interdependence as it affects us daily. But it also affects communities, nations, and cultures, linking the world inextricably together, making us really One World.

There has always been some international interaction as few groups in modern times have been isolated from other clusters of people. But nations in the past were often like castles, surrounded by moats. The drawbridges were let down from time to time to permit people and products to enter and leave those strongholds. But the rest of the time the people in the castles lived pretty much to themselves.

Certainly that is not true today. Now the drawbridges are always down. Nations have moved from being highly independent to being highly interdependent. That is due largely to two revolutions in recent times—the communications revolution and the transportation revolution. By them distance has been dwarfed and time telescoped.

Consequently we are all irreversibly interlinked. We do, indeed, live in a global community. And if this is true today, it will be increasingly so tomorrow. Hence our survival as a human species depends upon how well we adapt to this interdependence.

Our Increasing Interdependence in Communications. In 1837 Samuel Morse tapped out on the first telegraph machine the words, "Attention the Universe." And what prophetic words those were. In the 150 years following that memorable event, the world has witnessed a succession of inventions which add up to one of the chief changes in the history of humanity—the communications and electronics revolution.

First came the telegraph. Then, a few years later, the telephone. Next, underwater cables. Then radio and television.

In 1965 the first commercial communications satellite, Early Bird, was launched over the Atlantic Ocean. Although weighing only 85 pounds, that tiny instrument made it possible to send messages through space and to provide transoceanic television for the first time. Since then a world-wide system of satellites has been completed, making it possible for millions of people in every part of our planet to witness events simultaneously.

Scientific know-how and technology have also brought us the miniaturization of information in microfilm, electronic video recordings, and computers.

Meanwhile international news agencies have grown, collecting stories in every part of our globe and transmitting them to millions of people in many countries. Three of the largest of them are Reuters (an English agency), Tass (a Russian organization), and the United Press International (an American group).

As the contacts among the peoples of the world have become closer, the problem of languages has become more urgent and complicated. Several attempts have been made to "invent" a new world language. Three of the best known of those are Esperanto, Id, and Interlingua. But language is deeply rooted in the experiences of human beings and an artificial language has many disadvantages. Hence, none of the contrived tongues has caught on globally.

In recent decades simultaneous translations have become more and more common in international gatherings and the United Nations and its specialized agencies use six widely spoken tongues—Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish. But that is an expensive method of communication and limited to a very few groups.

In today's intricately woven world, English has forged ahead as the major international language. It is the official tongue of 28 nations and an official language in 16 more. Furthermore, it is the generally recognized means of communication in international business and science. In addition, millions of children are learning it as their second language, especially in Western Europe and even in the U.S.S.R.

No one knows what the distant future will bring in new means of communication. But it is likely in the foreseeable future that we will have a television post office set-up that will transmit the contents of mail to any place on earth by space relay; a worldwide telephone system with tiny instruments the size of wrist watches, equipped with instantaneous photographic equipment; typewriters into which we talk; television newspapers; and scores of other new devices.

Our Increasing Interdependence in Transportation. Equally important is the transportation revolution which has taken place in mod-

ern times. First came the railroads. Then, in 1863, the world's first subway was opened in London, followed eventually by many others in different parts of the world. Next came automobiles, and later, trucks and buses.

In 1903 the first airplane was flown in the U.S.A. by the Wright brothers and a new era in transportation began. In more recent years larger and faster airplanes have been built, culminating at the present time in the giant supersonic jets traveling at twice the speed of sound. Helicopters have also been constructed.

Superhighways have been built and international roads constructed, such as the extensive Pan American Highway—from Alaska to the southern tip of South America; and the Asian Highway which links Europe with the easternmost parts of Asia. To take care of the language problem, an international sign language has been created, consisting of stick figures which can be understood by people of every tongue.

Vast pipelines have also been built, making it possible for oil to flow from the northern parts of the U.S.S.R. into several parts of Europe, from North Africa and the Middle East into Europe, and from Alaska and Canada into the contiguous parts of the U.S.A.

In the Bay Area of California a fully automated rapid transit system has been created and in Japan the fastest railroad system in the world has been developed, a marvel of technology which is run from the Automatic Train Control Center in Tokyo.

Likewise, enormous tankers have been developed to move oil and other products around the world.

As a result of these and other developments tourism has become a big business, with the Japanese, the Germans, and the Americans replacing the British as the world's greatest travelers. A little-known fact but one of extreme importance is that many of the small nations of the world rely heavily for much of their income from the tourist trade.

Yet these relatively recent developments will probably be dwarfed in the foreseeable future by other changes. Here are a few of the almost limitless possibilities: automated expressways, wheel-less vehicles, cities with automated sidewalks, subways between cities (such as between New York and Philadelphia), ocean liners leaping across channels and oceans on cushions of air, and space liners carrying passengers to satellite space stations 200 or so miles from the earth.

Amazing? Incredible? Unbelievable? No, not if you read the accounts of reputable scientists and engineers about experiments already underway in several parts of our planet.

Such changes make international isolation archaic. They make our world an incredibly interdependent locale—a global village.

Let us see, then, how interdependence can lead to international conflicts or to international cooperation, citing three examples of that situation.

The Struggle Over Water. Water is one of the world's most precious possessions. And yet we have been polluting our streams, rivers, lakes, and oceans for decades, destroying our sources of clean water and our potentially large supplies of fish.

That is still going on in most parts of our planet at a time when the demand for water is soaring. There are now more people who need water and each of them demands more of that commodity. There are more factories guzzling water at an astounding rate (for instance, it takes 65,000 gallons of it to make one ton of steel).

Hence the world-wide struggle for water. Often this involves two or more nations in whose territory a river rises or through which it flows. Among such rivers are:

The Columbia—affecting Canada and the United States.
The Indus and its tributaries—affecting India and Pakistan.
The Mekong—affecting all the nations on the Indochina peninsula.
The Jordan—affecting Lebanon, Jordan, Israel, and Syria.
The Nile—affecting the Sudan and the United Arab Republic (Egypt).
The Rio Grande—affecting Mexico and the United States.

Fortunately some of those quarrels have been settled by the interested parties, or, in the case of the Indus, through pressures on India and Pakistan by the World Bank. Probably the most difficult of those disputes currently is the one over the division of the water from the Jordan river, because of the complicated political situation in the Middle Eastern region.

Even more important in the long run are the many disputes over the 73 percent of the earth's surface covered by oceans. Curious though that may be, that huge percentage of the world is owned by no one, and, in a sense, by everyone.

That vast expanse of water is an enormous treasure house. In it are huge quantities of fish and of fish that can be turned into inexpensive and nutritious Fish Protein Concentrate which could do much to ease the world's hunger crisis. And in the oceans is seaweed which is now used for food, medicines, cosmetics, and other products. In the future it could be used for more food, along with plankton.

In addition, there are vast quantities of salt in our global waters, about 25 percent of the world's known supply of oil, much natural gas, and an astonishing number of other minerals—including bauxite (for aluminum), cobalt, copper, diamonds, and manganese.

In the past most nations claimed the area of the seas adjoining their countries, up to a three mile limit. Now the nations of the world seem ready to agree to extend that distance to 12 miles. But many countries want to push that line farther—to at least 200 miles. That would enable them to gain further riches from the oceans, especially through drilling for oil deep down in "Davy Jones' locker," since science and technology have finally discovered some of the keys to that treasure trove.

In 1970 the United Nations General Assembly declared the oceans "the common heritage of mankind," and internationalists expressed the hope that the wealth in the oceans would some day be a source of revenue for international projects to improve the quality of living for people everywhere. If that happened, it would be an unprecedented event in the history of the world. It is possible that sometime in the future the seas will belong to the United Nations and the income derived from that enormous holding used for the benefit of all the people on our planet.

The Struggle Over the World's Resources and Products. Three days before Christmas in 1973 people all over the world were shocked to learn that the 13 nations in the Organization of Oil Producing Export Countries (OPEC) had doubled the price of their product.

Even though the United States produces much of its own oil, it relies heavily upon other nations for its petroleum, from which oil is made. So the shock was great, affecting many industries and millions of motorists, raising the price of gas measurably.

But the shock was even greater in Japan and several Western European nations which rely almost totally on other countries for oil. It was great, too, in many of the smaller nations with limited funds with which to purchase oil. For instance, that price increase was a terrific setback to The Green Revolution or the increase in farm products from the use of fertilizers, as oil is an important part of those fertilizers.

That dramatic and far-reaching event signalled some of the radical changes which had been taking place in the world in recent times. It underlined again the interdependence of nations and their reliance on each other for resources and for finished products. It indicated, also, the increasing importance of economic factors in international relations. And it demonstrated that some of the so-called developing nations (such as Mexico, Libya, Indonesia, and Nigeria) possess political levers because of their much-prized mineral resources, especially oil.

Since that time the demand for oil and the prices have dropped and at present there is even a "glut" in the oil market. But that event or series of events did serve as a warning to the world of the importance of natural resources and their unequal division among our many nations.

Leading Nations in the Production of Minerals and Precious Metals

	Coal	Petroleum	Iron Ore	Natural Gas	Bauxite	Copper	Manganese	Uranium	Diamonds	Gold
Australia			x		x		x	x	x	x
Brazil			x		x		x			
Canada	x	x	x	x		x		x		x
China	x	x	x	x						
Indonesia		x		x	x					
South Africa	x		x				x	x	x	x
U.S.A.	x	x	x	x	x	x		x		x
U.S.S.R.	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
Zaire	x				x	x	x		x	
		Kuwait Saudi-Arabia Mexico Venezuela	Liberia Sweden		Jamaica Surinam Guinea	Zambia Chile	Gabon	France Niger		

The Distribution of Some of the World's Riches. It is not only petroleum or oil, however, which is very unevenly distributed around the world. The same is true of many other mineral and other resources.

In a striking article in the *U.S. News and World Report* for 1983, its editors and writers highlighted six of the most sought-after riches on our planet and showed how unevenly they are distributed. Some of the highlights of that article are summarized here as follows:

In **oil** Asia (including the Middle East and Australia) have 61 percent and Latin America 12 percent, with the rest found in other parts of our globe.

In **uranium** North America has 42 percent of the supply and Africa 31 percent.

In **iron ore** 42 percent is in the Soviet Union and 23 percent in North America, plus some other deposits elsewhere.

In **coal** 29 percent is found in North America, 26 percent in Europe, and 19 percent in Asia-Australia.

In **forests** there is a more equal distribution, with Asia-Australia leading with 27 percent, followed by Africa with 23 percent, and the rest in several places.

In **grain** Australia-Asia leads with 32 percent, followed by North America with 24 percent.

One of the tragedies in today's world is the fact that many nations have very few riches. Take, for example, the countries of Central America which must depend largely upon corn as their chief crop and bananas and coffee as their chief exports. Hardly a very promising prospect for developing a high standard of living for their people.

But two things can happen in such a situation. One is to discover resources which were hitherto unknown—as Libya did, turning what was once called "The U.N. Sandbox" into a relatively rich nation because of its oil.

The other possibility is to use "brain power" as a basic resource, developing human skills and ingenuity. That has been done in several countries with few basic minerals or other wealth-producing products. Among the nations which have used education as a means of providing a high standard of living for their people are Denmark, Israel, Japan, The Netherlands, and Switzerland.

The Resources of the United States—and Its Needs. Robert Frost, the poet, once said, "What makes a nation in the beginning is a good piece of geography." That description certainly fits the United States as we have been blessed with the land we found and have developed.

It is vast in size, exceeded only by the U.S.S.R., Canada, and China—in that order. And within that vast area have been a variety of types of land.

And a combination of factors have made it basically a rich part of the world. Its location in the temperate zone but with a variety of climates has helped. So has its adequate rainfall and its fertile soil. Added to those advantages have been our rivers and lakes and the fertile land around them. Our mountains have also made it possible to carry on the mining of many rich resources. And the oceans, lakes, and rivers have made transportation relatively easy and inexpensive, an especially important factor in our early years as a nation. Another asset has been our extensive forest areas.

Even the greatest amounts of resources, however, are worthless unless people learn to use them wisely. Unfortunately we have squandered some of our riches but we have also used a great deal of ingenuity in developing agriculture, mining, and manufacturing, thus adding immeasurably to our wealth as a country.

Yet we are far from self-sufficient in many areas. In fact, we are more dependent on the rest of the world than is the U.S.S.R. and its satellite countries.

Our dependence on other nations is particularly strong in minerals for we consume one-quarter to one-half of the metals used in the world each year. Consequently we must purchase from the rest of the world:

100 percent of our diamonds
98 percent of our manganese
93 percent of our bauxite-alumina
90 percent of our chromium
90 percent of our cobalt

plus large amounts of 10 other minerals not mentioned here.

In food we are especially dependent on other parts of our globe for such products as coffee, tea, cocoa, spices, various nuts, bananas and pineapples and other fruits, plus some agricultural products.

We also purchase abroad much of the paper for our newspapers and magazines, fine linens, silk, woolens, china, and many other products. And in recent years we have been buying more and more shoes, clothing, radios, television sets, cameras, automobiles, and a host of other products which can be obtained cheaper abroad.

In return we sell to the world vast amounts of wheat, soybeans, corn, tobacco, many agricultural chemicals, oil-field machinery, construction equipment, computers, photographic equipment and supplies, and many other products.

Nevertheless many people are worried because we in the United States are now buying abroad more than we are selling to other countries, thus creating a trade deficit in the billions of dollars. That is a new problem for the U.S.A. and one that is causing a great deal of consideration by specialists and generalists.

Some Other Examples of International Interdependence. Lest anyone think solely of interdependence in economic terms, let us end this chapter with a few examples of areas or fields in which we are all indebted to the combined creativity of people from every part of our planet.

How much richer we all are because of the classics of the world in literature—and to those who have translated them into various languages. A few of them are the *Bhagavad—Gita* and the *Ramayana* of India, *The Tales of Genji* of Japan, *The Analects of Confucius* and the *Book of Mencius* of China, *Faust* by the German—Goethe, *Facunda* by the Argentinian—Sarmiento, the works of the Pakastani—Iqbal, *War and Peace* by the Russian—Tolstoy, and *Crime and Punishment* by the Russian—Dostoiewski, *Leaves of Grass* by the American—Walt Whitman, and the prodigious output of several English poets and novelists.

How much richer educators, and indirectly their pupils, are because

of the thinking of such well-known scholars of recent times as de Croly of Belgium, Dewey of the United States, Freiere of Brazil, Montessori of Italy, and Piaget of Switzerland.

And what would our world be like without the contributions of people all over the world to medicine and public health, such as those made by Banting of Canada, Cruz of Brazil, the Curies of Poland and France, Lister of England, Koch and Roentgen of Germany, Noguchi of Japan, Pasteur of France, and Salk of the United States.

Each of these lists could be lengthened considerably and similar lists could be made in many other fields of endeavor, showing the ways in which the genius and creativity of people in many countries has contributed to the enrichment of people everywhere.

As the Indian poet and dramatist, Rabindranath Tagore, once wrote, "The best and noblest gifts of humanity cannot be the monopoloy of a particular race or country."

Chapter 6

Competing and Conflicting Ideologies

Throughout history people have wrestled with various interpretations of "The Good Life" and "The Good Society," whether they were thinking in terms of families, tribes, cities, or larger units of human beings.

Occasionally a great thinker or leader has emerged whose thoughts on values and/or the organization of human societies has had a profound effect on millions of people. Sometimes such thinkers were religious leaders, like Buddha, Jesus, Mohammed, or Moses. Sometimes they were political philosophers, like Aristotle and Plato, Rousseau, Locke or Hobbes. Sometimes they were economic theorists, like Malthus, Marx, or Keynes. Occasionally their thinking extended over more than one of those fields.

Basically an ideology is a kind of secular religion. It is a way of looking at life and/or of organizing society.

Each ideology has its prophet and leaders, its creed or beliefs, its sacred or important writings, its rituals, and its symbols. Ordinarily it demands the unswerving conformity and deep commitment of its followers, even to the point of sacrificing their lives for it.

Two leading ideologies in today's world are democracy and communism. In recent times they have been so powerful that many people have divided the world into two parts—the free world and the totalitarian world, the east and the west, or the allies of the U.S.A. and those of the U.S.S.R.

But that is an oversimplification. Actually there are several ideologies in the world today. Some have only a few followers; others have many. Some are declining in influence; others are growing in power. Occasionally they overlap.

Let us look briefly at a few of those current ideologies.

Monarchies. For centuries monarchism held sway in large parts of the world as a way of organizing societies. In them sovereignty, or the final decision-making power, was vested for life in a king, queen, shah, sultan, or some person with a similar title. For hundreds of years such rulers had tremendous power, occasionally shared with their advisers

and/or with other members of the ruling family. But in recent times their numbers have been curtailed drastically and often their absolute power has been replaced with limited power.

Today only a few monarchs or powerful rulers remain in such places as Bahrain, Jordan, Morocco, Nepal, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates. The removal of the Shah of Iran a few years ago is an example of what has happened and what may increasingly happen in the foreseeable future.

In addition, there are a few constitutional monarchs whose positions in society are limited largely to ceremonial duties. Among them are the monarchs of Belgium, Denmark, England, Japan, The Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and Thailand.

Nevertheless, small but zealous movements exist in a few places whose adherents call for the restoration of monarchs. Among the countries where that is true are France, Greece, Italy, and Portugal.

Religious Ideologies. Religious ideologists do not claim the fanatical zeal and political power that they did when Muslims fought Christians in The Crusades or when Christians fought Christians in The Protestant Reformation.

Nevertheless religious ideologies are a potent factor in world affairs today in several places. Consider, for example, the feeling of unity and of sacrificial giving among Jews in connection with the support of Israel, or the unity among many Moslems in their opposition to Israel and/or their support of the right of Palestinians to a separate state.

Another example in world affairs is the powerful and pioneering stance on peace and global relations of Pope John as expressed in his Encyclical, Pacem in Terris. Or reflect on the forthright statements of the World Council of Churches (composed of many Protestant denominations and the Orthodox Christian Churches) on various aspects of world affairs.

Furthermore, the points of view of many religions play a part in the thinking of many leaders of today's world and in the organization of many nations.

Nationalism. As we pointed out in Chapter 3, nationalism is probably the strongest ideology in today's world. Despite the fact that it is outmoded in many ways, it has recently received a new lease on life with the establishment of over 100 new nations in the last few decades.

No one can truly understand the contemporary world scene without realizing how passionate the belief in nationalism is in the minds of millions of people around the globe. Much that is evil is done in its name, but also much that is good, especially in bringing the people of a

given geographical area together, giving them a sense of pride in their nation, and giving them hope for the improvement of their lot in life.

It is the height of hypocrisy for people in nations which have long existed, to deny to persons in new countries the right to pass through the same stages of development through which they have already passed.

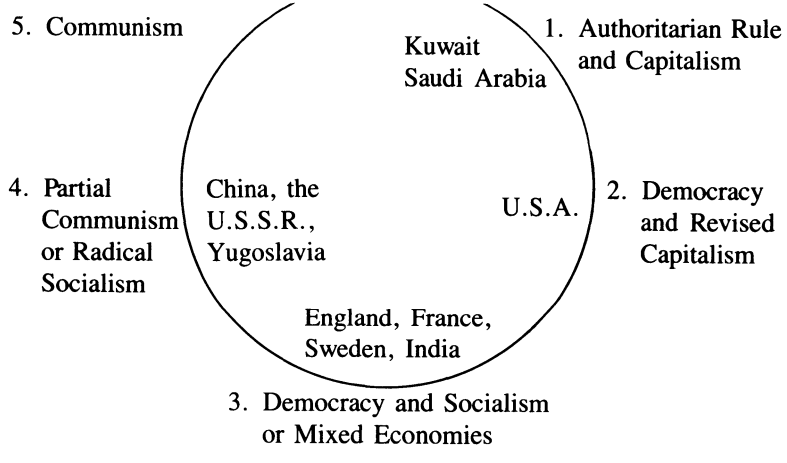
Internationalism. Despite the growth of nationalism, there is also a noticeable growth in the ideology of internationalism in today's world.

In its most acceptable and practical form, it recognizes the chasms between peoples and nations but maintains that bridges can be built to span differences. It promotes loyalty to nations but combines that with loyalty to the human race or humanity. It seeks a multipolar rather than a bipolar world. It maintains that people must learn to live together or perish together and that human beings and nations can live in peace with each other and work for the global good.

Internationalism is interpreted in many ways but there is enough in common among its adherents to include it as a major ideology in our contemporary world.

Five Competing Economic-Political Ideologies. Early in this chapter the author criticized the division of the world into communist and democratic nations as an oversimplification. Actually there are at least four, and possibly five, ideologies from which nations these days select the form of economic and political organization they desire for themselves.

Those primary forms of organization are depicted in the chart. The construct is drawn as an incomplete circle or as a horseshoe rather than as a continuum or straight line because items one and five are similar in some respects.



1. Authoritarian Rule and Capitalism. The idea still lingers in our world that the average citizen is incapable of taking an intelligent part in government. Therefore the rulers of a nation should come from an "elite," which is either an hereditary class or a group which has seized control of power.

In this type of society decisions are made by a small, self-selected group at the top and handed down to the people. If a legislative body exists, it has little power, acting as a rubberstamp for the rulers.

In such a society the military leaders are often very powerful. Oppressive measures are common. Such freedoms as speech, assembly, and the press are usually stifled and education of "the masses" minimized. Social benefits are likely to be limited to those who will help bolster the people in power.

In such societies wealth is largely in the hands of a few, including the ownership of land and of any factories which exist. Free enterprise is followed in economics, with very few restrictions. Wages tend to be low and working conditions wretched.

However, some concessions are being made increasingly to the working classes and considerable modernization is taking place.

Until recently, Iran, Spain, and Portugal were examples of countries operating, by and large, under this setup. Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates are three examples of nations still adhering to this form of society.

A very similar type of society is best known as fascism and is exemplified by Germany, Italy, and Japan in the period prior to and during World War II. Those nations, however, differed from many other countries following this general ideology in that they were highly industrialized, urbanized, and technically advanced, and with a high degree of education.

2. Democracy and Revised Capitalism. A number of societies are organized along these lines, such as West Germany and the United States. Most readers will be well acquainted with this organization of life, economically and politically, so a brief summary of it should suffice.

In such countries the government exists for the welfare of all its citizens, at least ideally. All citizens take some part in the decision-making process through representatives chosen by them in open elections, with the secret ballot. Such representatives are selected for short terms of office.

In such countries there are many freedoms, such as speech, assembly, the press, work, religion, movement, and the right to trials, and equal treatment before the law.

Perhaps the best statement has ever been made of such societies is the brief, powerful comment of Abraham Lincoln that these are governments "of the people, by the people, and for the people,". although much of the impact of that cogent statement has been lost by too frequent glib citation.

In economic organization such nations has passed from an uncontrolled form of capitalism or free enterprise to a form of revised capitalism, with some government ownership and considerable government

"I Don't Know What I'd Do Without You, Mister"

control. Some are even partly socialist in their economic setup, such as in West Germany.

Democracy and Socialism or Mixed Economies. The type of economic-political organization outlined in the last section has been dominant in nearly all of the democracies of the world for a lengthy period. But in recent times it has undergone considerable revision in most of the European countries, plus some others. And this newer form of democracy has been adopted by most of the new nations formed since World War II.

Politically these nations have retained or instituted the basic form of democracy, with its representative government. They have also continued or even strengthened the freedoms already mentioned.

It is in the economic and social domains that most of the revisions have taken place. There is more central planning by the national government in nearly all instances. There is more government ownership of the basic industries, such as coal mines and steel mills. And there is much more governmental control over the lives of citizens, adopted to provide more security and social benefits to all citizens. Among such measures are national health insurance, guarantees of employment, wage controls, and the redistribution of wealth through a variety of measures.

Sometimes these innovations have been referred to as guarantees from "womb to tomb," as in Sweden. Often such societies are referred to as "welfare states."

Particularly in the Scandinavian countries, the cooperative movement is strong. In it farmers, workers, and others band together voluntarily to own and manage such enterprises as producer and consumer coops, cooperative banks, and credit unions.

Sometimes such societies are referred to as The Third Way, an alternative to capitalism and communism.

In viewing the world scene, it is important to realize that most nations now operate under this combined form of semi-socialism and democracy. For example, Australia, Canada, Denmark, England, France, Norway, and Sweden are organized in this fashion. Likewise a large number of the new nations have adopted this type of society, although many of them operate under a one-party system of government.

4 and 5. Radical Socialism or Partial Communism and Pure Communism. Another ideology which has had a powerful impact on the world in recent times is commonly called communism, although it can also be designated as socialism, as is done in the name—the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Based on the writings of Karl Marx, this form of society has been

A Swiss Town Meeting

A Russian Parade in Red Square

interpreted by many leaders, among them Engels, Lenin, Stalin, and Mao.

Marx did not outline a specific plan of government and economics, but he did present certain broad principles for socialism. According to him and the other theorists of this movement, the fundamental force in world history is the class struggle. Because of their oppression and their rights as human beings, the workers of the world should unite to overthrow capitalism. Social classes should be abolished and social equality introduced in a classless society. Private property should be abolished and the means of production owned by everyone, with individuals producing according to their ability and receiving goods and services according to their needs. To them religion is "the opiate of the people" and should be wiped out. And to them world revolution is inevitable, starting first in the most industrialized nations.

Strangely, however, the first nation to install a regime based largely on socialistic or communistic principles was Russia, a predominantly agricultural country.

Even strong opponents of the Soviet system concede that there have been tremendous gains in the U.S.S.R. in the years of its existence, catapulting that nation to the position of one of the two major world powers of our day. Education has transformed an illiterate people into a literate one. Mining has been vastly increased and a widespread system of factories developed. Transportation and communication have been improved and the Russians were the first to put men (and a woman) into space. The lot of women has been raised, with 75% of Russia's doctors now women. So one could continue to enumerate the gains under this system over the even more repressive Czarist regime of former times.

The price paid for such progress, however, has been phenomenal. Millions of people were killed in the purges of Stalin, particularly land owners. Other millions have been jailed or sent to Siberian prisons. Religion has been suppressed and the press and other means of communication highly controlled.

Instead of a classless society, a new "elite" has been formed, consisting primarily of the nearly 10 million members of the Communist Party and the managers of the new economic system. The economy created has been highly centralized and capital has been accumulated by forced savings on the part of workers.

Socialism or partial communism has spread to almost all of Eastern Europe and more recently to China and parts of Southeast Asia. But it is worth noting that this has been done by civil war, violent revolutions, or the presence of Soviet armies, rather than by elections.

For many years people maintained that socialism or communism

was monolithic. But surely the actions of Tito in Yugoslavia and of Mao and his successors in China contradict that idea.

In fact one of the major tensions in the contemporary world is between the U.S.S.R. and China, over ideology, territory, and the leadership of the world-wide communist movement.

It was China that became the first nation in Asia to adopt communism or semi-communism in economics and in government. And it is worth noting that it was the peasants who played a predominant role in that revolutionary change, affecting upwards of a billion persons.

For most of the time since China became a communist state, it has been at odds with the Soviet Union. For a time China even condemned the Russians for their "revisionist" stance, adopting some aspects of the capitalistic way of life. But in recent months the Chinese seem to have become revisionists, too.

None of the nations which has embraced radical socialism or partial communism, however, claims that it has completed the revolution, instituting extreme socialism or communism. Hence the linking on the construct or model of points four and five.

Ideologies and the New Nations. Faced with crucial decisions as to the type of economy and form of government they would institute, almost all of the new nations have opted for some form of socialism or mixed economy.

Politically they have varied more. Several have resorted to one-man rule or the domination of an elite—often the military. But nearly all have some of the attributes of democracies, with the citizens taking part in some of the decision-making processes and with provision for many of the freedoms cherished by defenders of the democratic way of life.

Many of them, moreover, have inaugurated a one-party system of politics, but with divisions within that single party. C.B. McPherson, a Canadian writer, once explained that trend in the following way.

> The dominance of a single party or movement is, of course, apt to be the immediate aftermath of any revolution. When the revolution is made by a people largely united in a single overriding will to throw off foreign control, the dominance of a single party is even more likely. When the people so united were not sharply class-divided among themselves, the single-party pattern is still more likely. And when, finally, their goal is not only to attain independence, but thereafter to modernize the society, and to raise very substantially the level of material productivity, the one-party system is almost irresistible.

Whether this opting for a single-party system is a permanent state of affairs, remains to be seen. Certainly the resort to some form of highly

centralized control economically and politically is understandable in new nations, where speed in transforming the society is needed and experience in the slower democratic processes was not provided by the former colonial rulers.

Accommodations Among the Differing Ideologies. Whether accommodations can be made among these various ideologies is one of the central question of our times.

Three possibilities seem likely: (1) co-extermination, (2) co-existence, and (3) co-operation.

Writing on the first of these possibilities, Herman Kahn said in his book on *Thinking About the Unthinkable,* "In our times thermonuclear war may seem unthinkable, immoral, insane, hideous, or highly unlikely, but it is not impossible." More will be said later in this book about that threat to the survival of the human species.

There are some signs that we have moved into the period of co-existence, with the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. working together on space research, cooperating in the Antarctic, and considering various forms of detente. Starting with former President Nixon's dramatic trip to China, there have been several moves for at least co-existence between China and the U.S.A., although precious few between China and the U.S.S.R.

Many people assert, meanwhile, that the extremes of revised capitalism and radical socialism, as represented by the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R., are coming closer together. For example, Will and Ariel Durant commented in their book on *The Lessons of History,* summarizing a lifetime of research on the story of civilization:

> The fear of capitalism has compelled socialism to widen freedom, and the fear of socialism has compelled capitalism to increase equality. East is West and West is East, and soon the twain will meet.

Global cooperation? Yes, there are some signs of that, too, as we have already indicated and about which we will write more, later.

Chapter 7

A Planet in Peril: Some Threats to Our Survival

All of us want to live out the full span of our lives on Planet Earth. Furthermore, we all want our children and grandchildren to do the same. Hopefully that wish extends beyond our families, our friends, and our neighbors to encompass all the inhabitants of the world.

Yet there is no guarantee that that will happen. Our lives and the lives of others can be snuffed out tomorrow in several ways. Beyond the usual causes of death, there are some special threats to the survival of the human species on this earth.

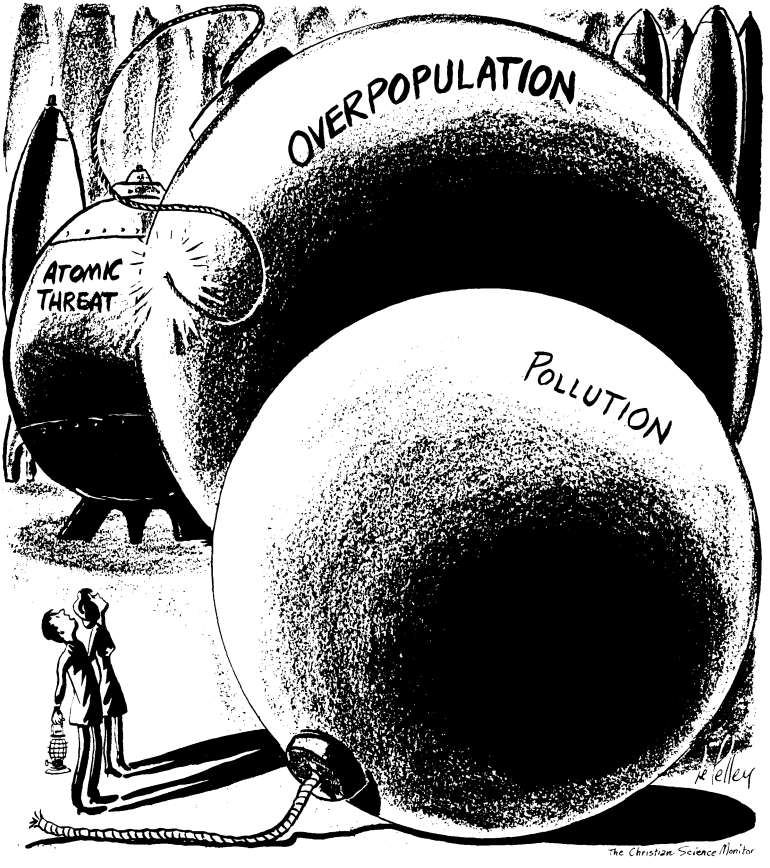
Three are singled out here for emphasis because of their global nature, and a fourth mentioned briefly. The three are (a) the threat of nuclear, biological, or chemical warfare, (b) the threat of a population explosion, and (c) the threats posed by the abuse of the environment. Each of them is a persistent and pernicious problem. Less important but very frightening is the rise of terrorism in recent years. Space limitations permit the mention of only a few aspects of those threats.

The Threat of Nuclear, Biological, Chemical Warfare. Undoubtedly war is our greatest enemy; the establishment of peace our greatest challenge.

The toll that any conflict takes, whether limited or worldwide, is tremendous. For example, in World War II 15 million persons in the armed forces were killed and more than twice that number were wounded. And more civilians than soldiers died—an estimated 30 million. In addition, more than a trillion dollars were spent on that conflict. Furthermore, the destruction of property and the damage to it cannot be reckoned. It is likewise impossible to estimate other costs, such as that of broken homes and distorted lives.

Yet the world goes on arming. In 1978 the nations altogether spent over 400 billion dollars on arms. In 1986 it was over 900 billion. And each year that figure rises. That means more than a million dollars a minute.

We continue, likewise, to probe for ever more lethal weapons with



'Good heavens, I think one is already lit'

which to kill other people and possibly to end the human experiment on earth. Four hundred thousand scientists, engineers, biologists, and chemists are searching at this moment for new ways to wage war. And they are frightenly successful. For instance, the nuclear bomb which blew Hiroshima, Japan, apart, contained the equivalent of 13,000 tons of TNT. Today a single nuclear warhead has the power of 22 million tons of that material. Jules Modu, the leading French authority on disarmament says that the stockpiles of nuclear weapons are now sufficient to annihilate the total population of the world 690 times over.

Furthermore, the nuclear bomb, originally produced by the United States, has now been made by China, England, France, India, and the U.S.S.R.—and possibly others. And several nations which have atomic power may soon join this "nuclear club."

Approximately 80 percent of the world's expenditures for arms are now made by the two superpowers—the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. But more than 100 nations are purchasing arms wherever they can, usually from the four largest worldwide suppliers—England, France, the U.S.A., and the U.S.S.R.

The results of all that activity are appalling. As General Dwight D. Eisenhower once pointed out:

> Every gun that is made, every warship launched, every rocket fired, signifies in a sense a theft from those who are hungry, and are not fed, those who are cold and are not clothed. This world in arms is not spending money alone. It is spending the sweat of its laborers, the genius of its scientists, and the hopes of its children.

The 900 billion dollars spent yearly on armaments is three times the sum expended on health. It is the equivalent of the annual income of the world's two billion poorest people. In less than two days the world spends on arms the amount of an entire year's budget for the United Nations, including all its specialized agencies and commissions. As Senator Ellender pointed out a short time ago, one nuclear-powered aircraft carrier is the equivalent of 100,000 elementary school teachers in the U.S.A. at $10,000 each per year.

Thus, money which could be spent for the development of our world is being diverted to destruction. Surely, as former President Kennedy once phrased it, "Mankind must put an end to war or war will put an end to mankind."

People in all parts of our planet say that they want peace. And probably they do, up to a point. Why, then, do we not have peace? This is not the place to discuss in detail the many and deep-seated causes of

conflicts and war. Instead, let us merely list some of the reasons we continue to arm:

1. The deeply-ingrained idea of national defense.
2. The fears, hatreds, and tensions accumulated over the centuries between nations, and instilled in oncoming generations.
3. The conflicts in the world over ideologies, as outlined in Chapter 6.
4. The fear of the loss of jobs by those in some parts of the industrial-military complex, and the lack of adequate plans for shifting from a war to a peace economy.
5. The loss of profits by persons who are deeply involved in various ways in the industrial-military complex.
6. The need at various times and in different nations to divert attention from internal difficulties by uniting their citizens in waging a foreign war.

Despite the gloomy picture painted in the foregoing paragraphs, some progress has been made in recent years in examining the war system and loosening its grip on humanity. In capsule form, there are a few indications of such progress:

1. The fear of the nuclear bomb and the lack of its use during the period since its creation.
2. The virtual end of the colonial system which was a perpetual threat to the peace of the world.
3. The organization of the United Nations and its specialized agencies as a world forum for the discussion of global problems and as a "safety valve," as well as an organization which is working in many ways for the improvement of the quality of life on our planet.
4. A growing realization on the part of many nations of the economic drain of armaments on their economies. For example, the high cost of defense in Egypt and the enormous rate of inflation in Israel (due in large part to its defense costs) have been factors in the detente between those two countries.
5. An increasing interest in analyzing the causes of conflicts, bringing about the establishment of several institutes, such as the Swedish International Peace Research Institute.
6. Some interest in the creation of nuclear-free zones in various parts of the world.
7. Some signs of a detente between the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. over a period of years, including the establishment of a "hot line," cooperation in outer space, some travel and cultural exchanges, and the SALT talks on disarmament.

The Threat of Population Explosion, the Lack of Food, and Malnutrition. Every day 218,000 people are being added to the population of our planet. Every year 80 million additional riders crowd Spaceship Earth. Every 35 years we are doubling the population of our globe.

There are those who maintain that if we developed a better world economy and utilized all we now know, we could provide well for this burgeoning population, although such experts do not encourage people to add to the world's numbers.

At the moment, however, the stark figures which we have just cited mean that the slight gains which could be possible in improved food supplies, better health, more education, and in other improvements are being offset by the increase of people on our planet. Also, capital which could be used to invest in employment-creating activities must be used now to care for the high percentage of children and young people who are not yet ready to add to the world's productivity.

So, instead of improving the quality of life for millions of people, we are using our limited resources merely to provide for the subsistence of our current population.

Consequently most authorities on the human condition place population control near the top of the list of world problems as a major threat to our survival. They point out that it affects many other problems, such as food, energy, education, health, and crime.

When population control came into prominence a few years ago, it was considered an extremely sensitive subject. Some persons, and even some nations, interpreted it as a way in which people in the rich, industrial nations were trying to prevent an increase in the world's non-white population and/or of avoiding their responsibility for the less-fortunate people on our planet.

In the last few years, however, there has been a marked increase of interest in almost all nations in curbing the galloping growth of population. Some countries, such as China, East Germany, Japan, Singapore, and Tunisia have drastically reduced the rate of increase in people. And most nations are now making concerted efforts to reduce such growth. Only six nations, however, now have stable or declining populations. They are Austria, Belgium, England, East Germany and West Germany, and Luxemburg—all in Europe.

Others have not launched the kind of national efforts needed to come to grips with this problem. For example, the increase in Mexico each year is around three percent and in Kenya four percent. In a similar way the Philippines adds more people annually than its much larger neighbor nation—Japan.

Despite all that governments do in this regard, little is likely to be accomplished until people are persuaded to have smaller families. That means an effective educational campaign, geared to the local culture, inasmuch as millions of people have been brought up to consider large families a way of providing more hands for farm work and more chil-

dren to care for their elders in old age. Such ideas were valid in a predominately agricultural society; they are not viable in today's increasingly industrial world.

The Lack of Food, and Malnutrition. In the past 25 years the output of the world's farms, forests, and fisheries has almost doubled and substantial gains have been made in several countries in providing people with an adequate food supply.

Some authorities even say that we could feed the entire world adequately if we applied all that we know about the production and distribution of food around the globe.

But we are a long way from doing that at present. Consequently one of our greatest problems and one of the major threats to the survival of millions of people today (and perhaps all of us eventually) is food.

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations maintains that over a half billion of the world's five billion inhabitants today are seriously undernourished. Vast numbers do not die of starvation but millions die of illnesses which come from malnutrition and undernutrition.

In several Latin American countries, for example, more than half of the deaths under the age of five are attributable to nutritional deficiencies. And in the Far East 100,000 children annually go blind, due to a Vitamine A deficiency.

In addition, millions die because of catastrophes, such as droughts, floods, and earthquakes, partly because there are no food supplies available and partly because those people cannot be reached quickly. That has happened, for instance, in Bangladesh in recent years because of floods. And it has happened in the Sahel region of northwest Africa and in the Ethiopian-Somali region of that continent, because of droughts.

Actually there was a time, early in the 1960s, when the world had on hand a reserve supply of grain which could feed people in deep trouble for a little over 100 days. Then that reserve dropped to a 27 day supply by 1974. Since that time it has grown a little, owing to good harvests in several parts of our planet. But it is still at a precarious level.

There are many reasons for the terrifying situation in regard to food. Undoubtedly the two factors contributing most to that condition are the vast increases in population and the mounting demands of people in many places for more food and especially for more protein food.

Many nations have focused recently on food as one of their pressing problems, being assisted often by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the U.N. In many instances they were helped tremendously for a while by the Green Revolution—the discovery of new strains of rice and wheat which increased the yields of those grains phenomenally and

often permitted two or three crops each year on the same land. But the cultivation of those crops depends on fertilizers, and when the price of oil skyrocketed, many farmers could no longer pay for it. Hence some of the promise of the Green Revolution has not materialized.

But there are many other ways in which the world's food supply can be increased and hunger and malnutrition alleviated. Briefly stated, here are some of those recommended measures:

1. Improvements Through the Use of Tools

Even adding metal tips to existing tools would help some.

Moving millions of farmers from sickles to scythes would bring about needed improvements.

The wider use of new machinery, such as small, mechanical planters for rice paddies, could add much food.

2. Changes on the Land

Halt the advancing deserts by planting trees and bushes and digging deep wells.

Restore marginal lands by plantings and water.

Intensify management of existing lands—the most promising of suggested developments.

Consolidate fragmented pieces of land into larger holdings, cooperatively farmed.

Introduce better seeds, fertilizers, and tools.

Educate farmers in more modern methods.

Irrigate the land by wells and canals.

Aid farmers through government grants and loans.

3. Increasing the Food Supply Through Animals and Fish

Prevent diseases, such as rinderpest and attacks by tsetse flies, through radiation.

Clean the polluted streams.

Improve the strains of animals through breeding feeding.

"Plant" fish and fowls in ponds, streams, and lakes.

"Farm" the oceans for fish and plants.

4. Changes in Consumption by People.

Encourage people to eat less.

Encourage people to consume less protein food because animals use so much grazing and farm land. Use protein substitutes.

Educate people on the need for a variety of foods.

Use new, low-cost foods, such as fish concentrates.

Each of the suggestions above deserves pages of explanation. But those notes may indicate to many readers the range of possible improvement in our global food supply, and present a few ideas which some

readers will want to explore in more depth than is possible in this short book.

There is also a political dimension to the world food problem. Internally, governments can be threatened or even overthrown because of the lack of food for the general populace and/or the resultant high prices. For example, riots occurred not long ago in Poland over the price increases imposed by the government, resulting eventually in the revocation of those increases. And one of the underlying causes of the overthrow of the regime in Ethiopia a few years ago was the lack of food.

Externally, food also has a tremendous impact on international relations. Witness the reliance of the U.S.S.R. and other Eastern European nations on the grain of the United States and Canada. Or think of the impact on the rice-importing countries of the ban on rice exports recently by Thailand. The same situation existed in several nations when Brazil withheld soybeans and beef from the world market.

Food can even be used as a weapon in world politics, with one nation bringing pressure to bear on another to take a certain position on a world topic, by threatening to withhold food from it.

The Threats Resulting from the Abuse of the Environment. In many ways our planet is a fantastic, fabulous, and fascinating place, worthy of awe and wonder. We should revel in the beauty of its forest floors and its ocean depths, its stretches of sand and its expanses of grass, its snow-capped mountain peaks, and its seemingly endless waters.

We should marvel at the uncanny force of gravity, the incredible balance of nature when undisturbed by human beings, and the inexplicable movements of the earth in space. And we should stand in awe at the way in which the sun acts as our heating plant, the atmosphere as our air-conditioner, and the rotation of the earth as our calendar.

We have, indeed, inherited and now inhabit an incredible home.

But we have been reckless tenants, unconcerned caretakers, and inept custodians. The bill of violations against us is long and inclusive. We have depleted our soil, exploited our forests, extended our deserts, and altered our climate.

As a recent publication of the World Without War Council pointed out:

> The continued deterioration of land, water, and air, and the depletion of nonrenewable resources may be as dangerous to our survival as nuclear war.

And as Barbara Ward said in her book *Only One Earth:*

> In short, the two worlds of man—the biosphere of his inheritance, the technosphere of his creation—are out of balance, indeed potentially in deep conflict. And man is in the middle. This is the hinge of history at which we stand, the door of the future opening to a crisis more sudden, more global, more inescapable, and more bewildering than any encountered by the human species, and one which will take decisive shape within the life span of children who are already born.

Some people think of environmental problems as local. They are. Some think of them as national in scope. They are. But environmental problems are also international or global, especially as they affect the waterways and the atmosphere of the world.

For example, Rumania suffers from the pollution by other countries in the upstream areas of the Danube. The Netherlands suffers from the pollution of the Rhine before it reaches their borders. And until recent efforts were made to clean up the Mediterranean, all countries around it suffered from the cesspool which that sea was becoming.

The climate of the world can be affected if Brazil develops a broad deforestation of the Amazon basin, and a similar fate awaits all of us if the Russians proceed with plans to use atomic energy to turn four of its rivers which flow north, into a southward course.

Pollutants poured into the atmosphere or into the waterways can be carried by the winds or the waters to many parts of our planet, affecting life in distant places, because the wind and water do not seem to recognize national boundaries.

It is true that there is more environmental trouble, especially from pollution, in the highly industrialized countries. But listen to a Brazilian, Josue de Castro, on the importance of that problem to so-called developing nations. Here is what he said:

> The underdeveloped countries which are struggling to survive need to take a direct interest in world-wide development and environmental problems so as to defend themselves against the aggressions their own environment has undergone for centuries on the part of the colonial powers.

The problem of the industrial and non-industrial nations are not always the same, but there are many common difficulties.

Authorities differ, too, on their views of the future as they relate to environmental issues.

In the last few years the prophets of gloom and doom have had a field day. Perhaps they are right; only time will tell. One of the most pessimistic forecasts for the future was contained in the Club of Rome's much discussed report on *The Limits of Growth*. Writing about pollu-

tion, they conjectured that by the year 2000 the world might have ten times the present degree of environmental disturbance. Many agree with that projection.

But there are others who are more hopeful. One is a Russian, Nikolai Timofeyev-Ressorsky, who has said:

> When man has found the key to the balance of nature, he will be able to obtain infinitely more from the biological cycle than he does now. He will be able to alter and improve the earth's biological communities at will—deliberately, scientifically, and to his advantage.

Gunnar Myrdal, the famous Swedish economist and commentator on world affairs, was moderately optimistic, too, about the future of our global environment, pointing to the "never-ending discoveries of new supplies of raw materials" and the "technological inventions" people always make in a time of crisis.

Perhaps even more heartening is the response all over the world to the recent warnings about our environmental problems. The warning signals have been sounded. The Save Our Spaceship signals have been broadcast far and wide. And people, private organizations, and governments have responded. For example, there is scarcely a country which has not set up an environment agency in the last few years and/or taken some similar important action in that regard.

Sensing the importance and the urgency of the many environmental problems on a global scale, the U.N. and its agencies have taken a keen interest in this topic in recent years. The General Assembly called for a worldwide conference on the Human Environment which was held in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1972. It was attended by 1200 delegates from 110 nations who drew up an Action Plan containing 106 recommendations. High on the list was the establishment of a new U.N. agency devoted exclusively to the environment, known as the United Nations Environment Program, based in Kenya and headed originally by a Canadian, Maurice Strong. It also established a global monitoring program called Earthwatch, to identify and measure environmental problems of global importance and to warn against impending crises. Eventually the U.N., through this new program, conducted another global conference, on Human Settlements, held in 1976 in Vancouver, Canada. Meanwhile, other parts of the U.N., especially UNESCO, have been active in seeking solutions to some of the menaces to our earth.

Thus the people of the world, many organizations, the governments of nations, and the United Nations and its agencies have at long last discovered that our planet is a precious but fragile possession, with finite resources, and have begun to make restitution for the damage

human beings have done to it for centuries. That discovery is late, but hopefully not too late to make Planet Earth safe for human habitation.

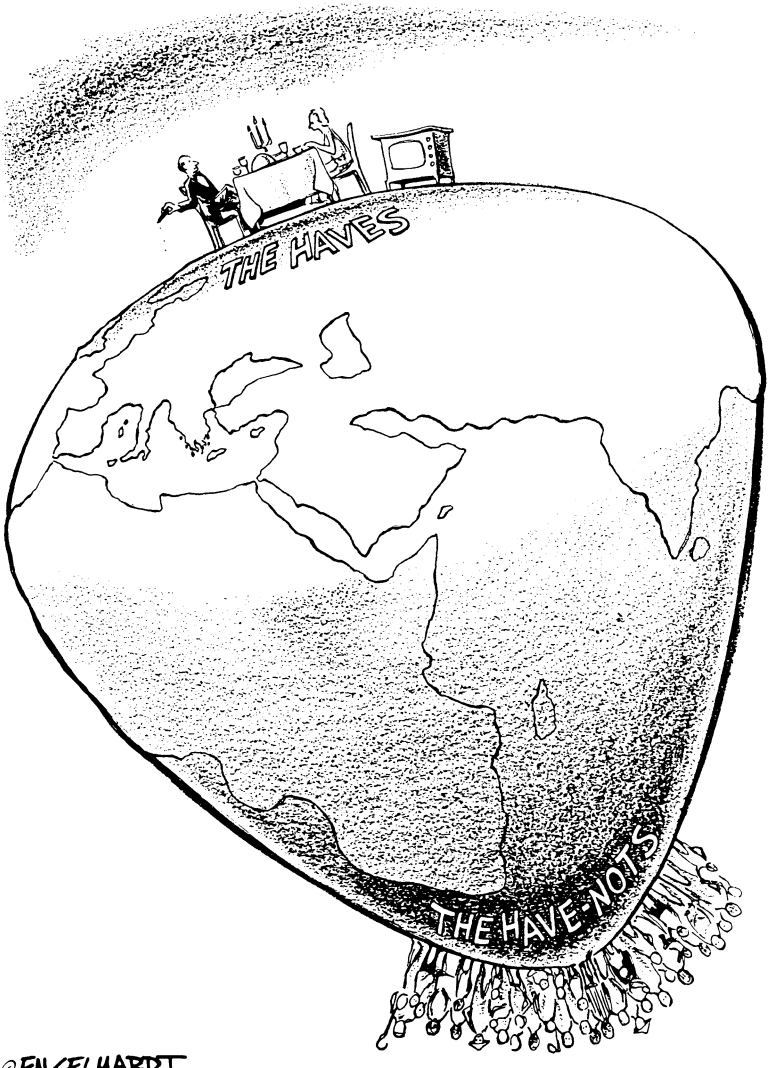
Terrorism. On a smaller scale another threat has emerged in recent years—popularly called terrorism. Of course various forms of terrorism have existed for centuries. But terrorism today is far more extensive, far more international in nature, and far more frightening.

Acts of terrorism have appeared in many parts of the world but primarily in Europe and the Middle East in the 1970s and 1980s. Many people have been killed, maimed, or injured psychologically—over 300 Americans died at the hands of terrorists in the early 1980s. Even greater has been the psychological fear of acts of terrorism; people realize that cities can be paralyzed by small bands of terrorists, for example. And in the mid 1980s American tourism in Europe was drastically curtailed because of the fear of retaliation by the Libyans whose territory was bombed by the Americans because of their acts of terrorism.

The motivations for such acts vary, including a desire for attention, devotion to conservative religious and/or political views, unemployment and lack of opportunities, and retaliation against Westerners (and especially Americans) for forcing their views on other parts of the world.

One of the most frustrating aspects of terrorism is the inability to find adequate measures to combat it. More stringent precautions in airports and other public places help and are being instituted. International cooperation in locating terrorist groups and dealing with them are needed and have been increasingly instituted. Perhaps the most important measures which need to be taken are the rethinking of foreign policy and the encouragement of cross-cultural understanding. Certainly military measures are unlikely to do much good; they may even exacerbate the situation.

We turn, then, to another threat to our survival on this planet—the wide gap between the rich and the poor—whether nations or individuals.



Cockeyed World

Chapter 8

The Rich-Poor Gap Widens and the Call for a New International Economic Order

As Spaceship Earth continues its appointed rounds, there are malfunctions in its engines and mutiny aboard the aircraft. Those conditions add further perils to those mentioned in the previous chapter.

In the early 1980s there were some hopeful signs economically around the globe. A worldwide recession was halted. Some nations began to wrestle realistically and successfully with their large foreign debts. Several countries made progress in raising their production and their gross national product (GNP), especially nations in Asia. And there was a slight increase in world trade.

Nevertheless there was much uneasiness by the mid 1980s on the part of many economists, students of international relations, and even some politicians about global economic conditions. The imbalance of world trade threatened retaliatory measures in the form of protectionist legislation, especially in the United States. Several nations were staggering under the weight of their foreign debts. Inflation was rife in many places and gyrations in the price of some crops and minerals played havoc with the economies of several countries.

Above all was the continuing disparity in wealth among the world's many nations. Poverty remains a fundamental problem plaguing us all. Its repercussions are felt in varying degrees and in different ways in every country because no nation can isolate or insulate itself economically from the rest of the world.

The Rich and the Poor Nations. Back in 1950 the gross national product of the world was one trillion dollars. By the early 1970s it had soared to three and a half trillion. It is estimated that by the year 2000 it could reach 12 trillion.

Yet the disparities between the rich and the poor are enormous—within nations and among nations. Despite gains in some of the poor countries, the gap between the rich and the poor is widening. In fact, it is no longer a gap; it is now a chasm.

Economically the world today is like an inverted pyramid or a triangle. At the top are approximately 700 million people, living in 22 countries and producing about 70 percent of the world's wealth. The per capita income of that affluent minority is over $4000 a year. Of course each person does not receive that amount; that is a statistical average, with some receiving more and many—less.

The United States is in that group, producing each year about 25 percent of the world's wealth. In fact, California alone produces the equivalent of all the production of China, Ohio about the same as India, and Illinois the same as the output of all the nations in Africa.

Together that group of 22 nations is often called The First World.

The Second World consists of a little over a billion persons in 15 nations under socialistic or communistic rule. Their annual per capita income is a little over $1500.

That leaves approximately two and a half billion people, or a majority of the earth's population, in The Third World. They live in 122 of the world's 159 countries and earn an annual, per capita income of less than $800.

Sometimes that Third World is divided and another category added —The Fourth World. In it are 40 nations and over a billion persons. Their annual income, per capita, is less than $200.

As Robert McNamara, the American who once headed the World Bank, once pointed out:

> At least a quarter of the human race faces the prospect of entering the twenty-first century in poverty more unacceptable than that of any previous decade.

Commenting on the global implications of such poverty, Lester Pearson, the former Prime Minister of Canada and a renowned authority on international affairs, once said:

> . . . a planet cannot, any more than a country, survive half slave and half free, half engulfed in misery and half careening along towards the supposed joys of almost unlimited consumption.

Why Are Some Nations So Productive and Rich? As a reader you may have asked why some nations are so productive and rich and others so unproductive and poor. Or you may have reflected already on some of the reasons for the advanced economies of a few countries.

In outline form, here are some of the factors which help explain the enormous productivity of a few nations:

1. A good piece of geography (soil and climate).
2. Rich mineral resources, developed nationally rather than by foreign interests.
3. The broad education of its people and technology (including managers and middle level technicians).
4. Scientific agriculture and no basic land ownership problem.
5. Industrial development and a high value on the work ethic.
6. Capital.
7. A large supply of trained "manpower."
8. An adequate food supply and good health standards.
9. A large national market and access to the markets of the world.
10. Freedom to make economic decisions without undue outside interference.

In the span of approximately 200 years as a nation, the United States represents all or nearly all of the factors listed above. In the beginning we obtained a might good piece of "real estate," including large areas of fertile land and tremendous deposits of many minerals. And, for the most part, we avoided the damage done in so many nations by their feudal land ownership system. By the middle of the 19th century we had begun to develop agriculture on a scientific basis, with research and land-grant colleges playing an important part in that progress.

In the 19th century industry was also developed and capital acquired, despite the ruthless way in which it was often obtained. A large amount of manpower was available and managers and middle level technicians trained. From the Puritan tradition came a high value placed on work. A Sanitation Revolution added more than most Americans realize to the success of The American Experiment.

In additon, its size as a country and its population provided a large internal market, and it was able to function effectively in the world market. Furthermore, economic development was controlled by Americans rather than by owners overseas.

Who Are the World's Poor and What Does Poverty Mean? Millions of the world's poor live in cities, in squalor, with no unemployment insurance or social security to help them, and with precious few skills to "sell" on the market. But there are even more of the world's poverty-level people in rural areas.

The typical poor person of the world today is an illiterate farmer tilling a very small piece of land whose soil has been exhausted over the centuries, and tilling it with primitive tools. His plot of land is likely to be 20 or so miles from a major road, so he cannot sell his products easily in the market. Often he is beholden to an absentee landlord from

whom he may borrow money from time to time at exorbitant rates. He is also likely to be miles from the nearest school and/or health center.

Such a description is an intellectual exercise rather than an emotional experience because those who have never been poor and hungry will never really know what poverty means.

The well-known economist, Robert L. Heilbroner, has come closest to describing what it means in his book *The Great Ascent*. There he starts with a typical Canadian-American family with an income of $6000 to $7000 (today it would be larger) in a small, suburban home. Then he refashions that house to resemble the home of one of the world's typical poor persons, as follows:

1. Take out the furniture, except for a few old blankets, a kitchen table, and one chair.
2. Take away all the clothing, except for the oldest dress or suit for each member of the family, and a shirt or blouse. Leave one pair of shoes for the head of the family.
3. Empty the pantry and refrigerator except for a small bag of flour, some sugar and salt, a few moldy potatoes for tonight's dinner, a handful of onions, and a dish of dried beans.
4. Dismantle the bathroom, shut off the water, remove the electric wiring.
5. Take away the house and move the family into a tool-shed.
6. Remove all the other houses in the neighborhood and set up in this place a shanty-town.
7. Cancel all subscriptions to newspapers, magazines, and book clubs. This is no great loss as our family is illiterate.
8. Leave one small radio for the entire shanty-town.
9. Move the nearest clinic or hospital 10 miles away and put a midwife in charge, instead of a doctor.
10. Throw out the bank books, stock certificates, pension plans, and insurance policies, and leave the family a cash hoard of $5.
11. Give the head of the family three tenant acres to cultivate. On this he can raise $300 in cash crops, of which one-third will go to the landlord and one-tenth to the money-lender.
12. Lop off 25 to 30 years in life expectancy.

Until recently this family, and millions more like it, did not know that life could be better. Now they do, thanks in large part to radios. And revolutions are made not by the downtrodden but by those who know that their lot in life can be improved.

The Non-Industrialized Nations. Mention has already been made of the fact that 122 of the 159 nations today are in the so-called Third World. Most of those nations lie south of the Tropic of Cancer. Hence

people often refer to the North-South axis in today's political and economic world.

That group is not monolithic. It ranges from the ultra-conservative Saudi Arabia to the radical Libya. And although nearly all the countries are poor, economically speaking, it does include a few oil-rich nations, such as Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates.

Even a name for that cluster of countries is difficult to find. For a while they were referred to as the backward nations—a most offensive term. Then the phrase undeveloped countries came into general usage, replaced by underdeveloped. But how can one call India, for example, an underdeveloped nation when it has had an outstanding culture for thousands of years?

Currently the term Less Developed Countries, or the LDC's in a kind of economic-political shorthand, is being used. But even that is not a satisfactory designation. Probably the best term to employ is the non-industrial countries.

These nations do not always agree in the United Nations on various facets of world affairs. But they have much in common. Perhaps the most important is the long history of their exploitation by the colonial powers of Western Europe. Their resources were mined or farmed at extremely low wages and the products or raw materials sent to the mother country, thus depriving people of jobs locally. And, of course, the wealth derived from these places went into the pockets of people in the countries of their rulers. The local people were also deprived of education, except for a few who could assist the overseas rulers.

These nations also share the pride in the winning of independence and now the problems which have come with their freedom, including education, health, transportation and communication, language, agriculture, industrialization, and others.

For the most part they are nations with less than $200 per person, annually, and with less than 10% of their capital invested in manufacturing. Also, they have serious balance of payments problems, multiplied in the last decade by the enormous rise in the price of oil and large debts abroad, to be repaid with high interest rates.

The Call for a New International Economic Order. In the last few years these nations of The Third World or The Third and Fourth Worlds have formed a loose coalition which can be most effective when all or even most of them are united. It has considerable clout in the U.N. and its specialized agencies. Together they have begun to press for a new international economic order.

Speaking a few years ago on this new development in international

FIRST WORLD

AUSTRALIA
AUSTRIA
BELGIUM
CANADA
DENMARK
FINLAND
FRANCE
ICELAND
IRELAND
ITALY
JAPAN
LUXEMBOURG
NETHERLANDS
NEW ZEALAND
NORWAY
PORTUGAL
SOUTH AFRICA
SWEDEN
SWITZERLAND
UNITED KINGDOM
UNITED STATES
WEST GERMANY

SECOND WORLD

ALBANIA
BULGARIA
CAMBODIA
CHINA
CUBA
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
EAST GERMANY
HUNGARY
MONGOLIA
NORTH KOREA
NORTH VIETNAM
POLAND
ROMANIA
SOUTH VIETNAM
U.S.S.R.

THIRD WORLD

ALGERIA
ARGENTINA
BAHRÁIN
BARBADOS
BOLIVIA
BOTSWANA
BRAZIL
CAMEROON
CHILE
COLOMBIA
CONGO
COSTA RICA
CYPRUS
DOMINICAN REP.
ECUADOR
EGYPT
EL SALVADOR
EQUATORIAL GUINEA
FIJI
GABON
GHANA
GREECE
GUATEMALA
GUINEA-BISSAU
GUYANA
HONDURAS
INDONESIA
IRAN
IRAQ
ISRAEL
IVORY COAST
JAMAICA
JORDAN
KUWAIT
LEBANON
LIBERIA
LIBYA
MALAYSIA
MALTA
MAURITIUS
MEXICO
MOROCCO
MOZAMBIQUE
NICARAGUA
NIGERIA
OMAN
PANAMA
PAPUA NEW GUINEA
PARAGUAY
PERU
PHILIPPINES
QATAR
RHODESIA
SAUDI ARABIA
SENEGAL
SINGAPORE
SOUTH KOREA
SPAIN
SWAZILAND
SYRIA
TAIWAN
THAILAND
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO
TUNISIA
TURKEY
UNITED ARAB EMIRATES
URUGUAY
VENEZUELA
YUGOSLAVIA
ZAMBIA

FOURTH WORLD

AFGHANISTAN
BANGLADESH
BHUTAN
BURMA
BURUNDI
CENTRAL AFRICAN REP.
CHAD
DAHOMEY
ETHIOPIA
GAMBIA
GUINEA
HAITI
INDIA
KENYA
LAOS
LESOTHO
MALAGASY REP.
MALAWI
MALI
MAURITANIA
NEPAL
NIGER
PAKISTAN
RWANDA
SIERRA LEONE
SOMALIA
SRI LANKA
SUDAN
TANZANIA
TOGO
UGANDA
UPPER VOLTA
WESTERN SAMOA
YEMEN ARAB REP.
YEMEN, PEOPLE'S REP. OF
ZAIRE

A few of the very small and very recent new nations are omitted from this list.

relations, Kurt Waldheim, the Austrian-born Secretary-General of the United Nations at that time, said:

> Many nations, having won political independence, find themselves still bound by economic dependency. For a long time it was thought that the solution to this problem was aid and assistance. It is increasingly clear, however, that a New International Economic Order is essential if the relations between the rich and poor nations are to be transformed into a mutually beneficial partnership. Otherwise the existing gap between these groups of nations will increasingly represent a potential threat to international peace and security.

Commenting further on the shift in relationships between the non-industrialized and the industrialized nations, Waldheim continued in this vein:

> Moreover, the dependence of the developing world upon the developed is changing—indeed, in certain cases has been reversed. Many developed nations are also finding themselves in serious economic difficulties. The international system of economics and trade relations which was devised 30 years ago is now manifestly inadequate for the needs of the world community as a whole. The charge against that order in the past was that it worked well for the affluent and against the poor. It cannot now even be said that it works well for the affluent.

Although recognizing that the present economic machinery has broken down, most leaders of the rich, industrialized nations maintain that the present model is basically sound and can be repaired. By and large the leaders of the LDC's claim that there is no use tinkering with an obsolete model.

In his volume *A Richer Harvest: New Horizons for Developing Countries*, Dr. Sudhir Sen, a distinguished Indian economist, agricultural expert, and planner, summarized succinctly the present task of the world in these words:

> The most challenging task in today's world can be simply defined; how to rescue two-thirds of mankind from the age-old grip of dehumanizing poverty, compounded by a population upsurge; and how, with that end in view, to harness modern science and technology in the underdeveloped countries to produce enough food, to curb the runaway population growth, and to produce other essential goods and services to meet the minimal needs of civilized living.

To correct the present imbalance and close the gap between the rich and poor nations, the non-industrialized majority propose the establishment of a new, stable, dynamic, international economic order which would help people everywhere to live decent lives rather than merely to

exist. Included in their generally agreed upon program are the following points, some national in scope and others international, but all closely connected:

1. Assistance in long-range planning.
2. Greater emphasis upon family planning and health.
3. More attention to agriculture.
4. National sovereignty over natural resources.
5. Help in industrialization, including technology.
6. Improvement in employment.
7. Easier access to capital, including aid and capital freed by disarmament.
8. Improvement in the energy situation.
9. Better access to world markets and a new international monetary system.
10. Development of an indigenous education and renewed attacks on illiteracy.
11. Wider participation in the international decision-making processes.

Other problems, such as war, population explosion and food, the environment, and urbanization are dealt with briefly in other parts of this volume.

Again, because of space limitations and the nature of this book as a primer on world affairs, we shall merely touch on each of these 11 broad-based, complex topics, leaving it to readers to pursue in depth any of the subjects in which they are especially interested.

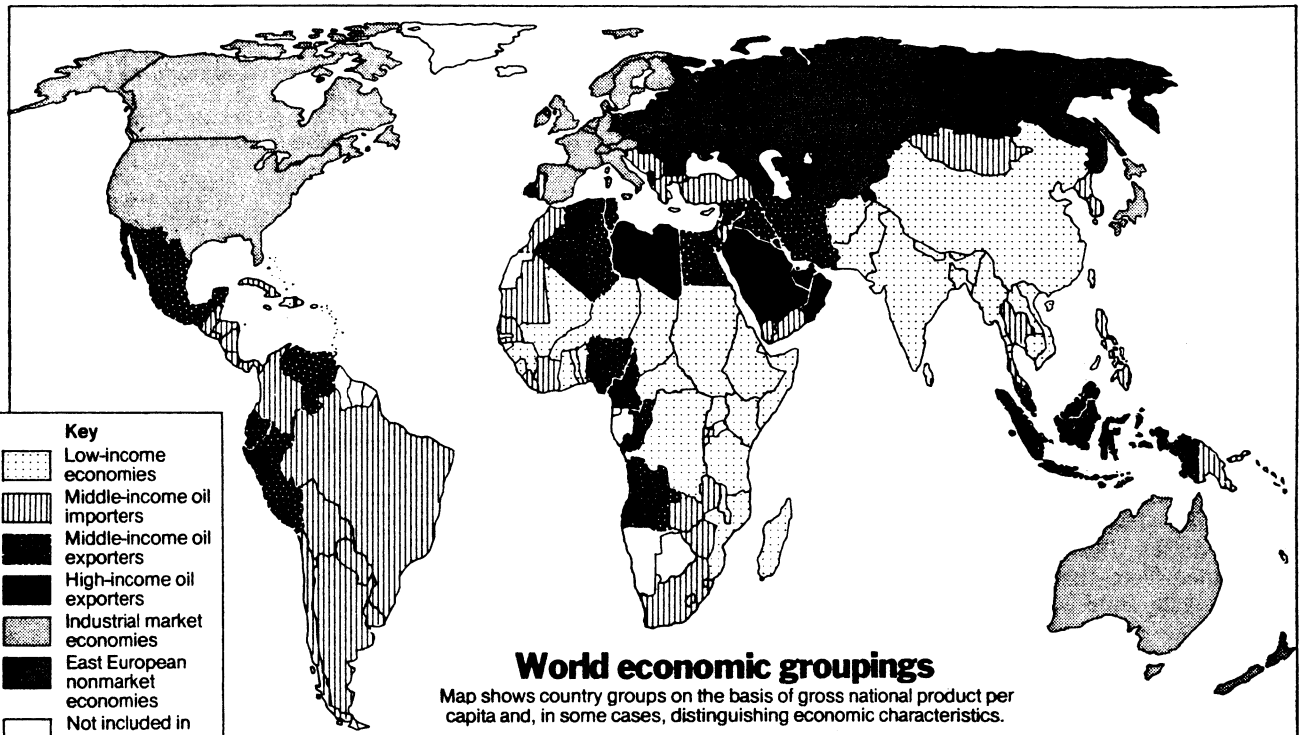
1. Assistance in Long-Range Planning. The problems of the new and/or economically underdeveloped nations are many and the resources limited. Hence priorities need to be worked out and fitted into comprehensive and long-range development programs. These newer nations are asking for help on such long-range planning, having already received some help from the World Bank and other organizations.

Probably the world is not yet ready for much world-wide planning, but a start has been made in such commodities as coffee and cocoa on the part of nations producing those products. In the foreseeable future there will certainly be a great deal of planning on a global scale.

2. Greater Emphasis Upon Family Planning and Health. As mentioned in the previous chapter, most nations now are deeply concerned about family planning and health and want help from the U.N. and other sources in expanding and upgrading such services to their people.

Great gains have been made in health all over the world in the last two or three decades. For example, the life expectancy of millions of people has been raised from 32 a few years ago to 50 today. But much

JOAN FORBES — STAFF



World economic groupings

Map shows country groups on the basis of gross national product per capita and, in some cases, distinguishing economic characteristics.

Source: World Bank: "World Development Report 1985"

remains to be done and some current reports are disturbing. Recently, for instance, the Executive Board of the World Health Organization presented this shattering report, stating that

> The Board is of the opinion that in many countries the health services are not keeping pace with the changing populations either in quantity or in quality. It is likely, even, that they are getting worse.

Thus health is high on the agenda of nations struggling to attain a better standard of living for all their people.

3. More Attention to Agriculture. In the early days of their existence, many new nations concentrated on industry. Fortunately, however, they have seen the error of their ways and are now placing increased emphasis upon the agricultural base of their economies. But they desperately need help in such areas as research on improved plants, aid in promoting land reform, assistance in devising new machinery to ease the back-breaking work of farmers and increase production, and help in keeping the price of oil to a minimum to enable them to provide more fertilizers for farmers.

4. National Sovereignty Over Natural Resources. In the past the natural resources of many parts of the world were owned outright by the colonial rulers or tightly controlled by them. With the advent of independence, the people of the new nations assumed they would control their natural resources. But by various means transnational corporations and other outside powers have been able to continue control or gain control over such natural resources.

In discussing the new international economic order, the non-industrial countries are insisting upon their right to impose conditions on foreign investors, at the same time as they agree to compensate them adequately when such resources are nationalized.

5. Help in Industrialization, Including Technology. As stated previously, most new nations embarked on ambitious programs of industrialization as soon as they gained independence. In some cases that was warranted; often it was not.

Today most of the LDCs expect to produce such consumer goods as soap, cooking oil, cheap furniture, building materials, and clothing. And they intend to produce products which can be made from local resources.

But they need capital, trained personnel, and technology and they are pressing for more help in these critical fields.

6. Improvement in Employment. Robert McNamara of the World Bank said a few years ago:

> The poorest quarter of the population in developing lands risks being left almost entirely behind in the vast transformation of the modern technological society . . .; the wretched stragglers for survival on the fringes of farms and cities may already number more than a half billion. By 1980 they will surpass a billion; by 1990, two billion.

The economically developing nations are deeply concerned with the plight of such people, plus millions of others who are unemployed or underemployed.

Population control will help some. Increases in the food supply will assist. New industries will provide some jobs. The use of unskilled laborers on extensive public works, such as China has done so much, may aid, too. But more help is needed in these newer nations in tackling the enormous job of providing employment for their people.

7. Easier Access to Capital. Everything mentioned so far in this chapter, plus several points still to be covered, demands money and this is in very short supply in nearly all of the new nations, especially the much-needed foreign currency to purchase materials on the world market.

Some capital is coming from national and transnational corporations investing in these countries. Considerable help is being obtained from various parts of the U.N. System, including loans payable over a long period and often at low interest. Additional capital is available in the form of aid from some governments in the industrial world. But capital is still in short supply.

Recently there has been a call for the wealthier nations to contribute 1% of their Gross National Product to foreign aid but to date Sweden is the only country which has met that self-imposed quota.

Even though such aid is considered a gift, it often goes back to the country giving it, as Gunnar Myrdal pointed out in his book on *The Challenge of World Poverty,* quoting his colleague Gaud as follows:

> The single biggest misconception about the foreign aid program is that we send money abroad. We don't. Foreign aid consists of American equipment, raw materials, export services, and food,—all for specific development projects. . . . Ninety-three percent of A.I.D. (the Agency for International Development) funds are spent in the United States to pay for these things.

The governments of the LDCs welcome most bilateral aid, but nearly all of them prefer multilateral assistance, usually through an agency of the U.N., as such aid is less likely to have political strings attached to it.

In two other ways these economically developing nations are asking for help. One is by the renegotiation of their burdensome debts; the other is through worldwide disarmament, with the hope that expenditures for defense will be cut and some of the money hitherto devoted to armaments by the world powers will be devoted to development on a world scale.

8. Improvement in the Energy Situation. The increase in the price of oil in 1973, and subsequent increases, startled the industrial nations like Japan, the United States, and The Netherlands, because of their great reliance on petroleum. But it also hit the small, economically developing nations, forcing them to use their small supply of hard-earned foreign currencies to pay for these huge price increases.

However, it did accomplish one good thing. It focused world attention on the worldwide energy crisis. Out of this crisis the newer, smaller nations hope some good will come for them.

9. Better Access to World Markets and a New International Monetary System. Trade around the world has been growing in recent years but the non-industrialized nations have not shared greatly in that expansion even though they desperately need the help such trade would give them.

Several suggestions have been made about what they can do to improve their positions in the markets of the world.

Of course a few of them have special natural resources which can be developed further and sold abroad. But most of them are primarily agricultural countries. Hence they can expand and improve their farm products and their tropical fruits. But there is not a vast market for these products and they are sometimes in competition with other countries on the world's markets.

They often have an abundance of labor, so some of them may be able to train people and specialize in certain kinds of manufactured goods, as Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan have done. But if they do that, they are likely to be confronted with quotas and tariffs in the industrialized nations which are attempting to protect their own products from what they consider the undue competition of cheap labor.

In a series of world economic conferences over a period of several years, these developing countries have won some concessions from the industrialized nations for preferential treatment and/or the reduction of tariffs on tropical fruits and grains and on some manufactured goods. However, the situation remains precarious. Hence thay maintain that nothing short of a new international economic order will really bring about a better ordering of their economies.

Closely linked with the changes wrought by such a new ordering of world economics would be the overhaul of the present international monetary system with a single international currency and a central bank, internationally administered.

These changes are probably inevitable in the long run, but not in the immediate future.

10. Development of an Indigenous Education and Renewed Attacks on Illiteracy. In the last few years there has been an amazing increase in education all over the world. People have discovered that schooling is the chief key to the future and they have insisted upon a mammoth expansion in educational opportunities, especially in the non-industrialized nations. Some governments are spending 15 to 20 percent of their national budgets today on education.

However, many countries are merely perpetuating the type of education that was carried on by their previous colonial rulers, an education ill-suited for today's needs in those countries. What is needed often is a rigorous and imaginative program for an indigenous form of education, including much emphasis upon agricultural and industrial training.

With limited funds to dispense, many nations are also spreading education very thinly, with emphasis upon quantity rather than upon quality. As a result, millions of children are getting an education that consists of three or four years, hardly enough to be of much value in today's world.

Writing out of years of experience as Director of the International Institute for Educational Planning, a UNESCO allied organization in Paris, Philip Coombs recently called attention to the need for a new strategy of education development which would include (1) the modernization of educational management, (2) the modernization of teachers, and (3) the more efficient use of educational resources, such as television.

Increased attention also needs to be placed on adult education and on more effective attacks on illiteracy. Gains have been made in many nations in recent years in combatting illiteracy. But even though the percentage of persons who are illiterate has dropped, the total number of illiterates in the world has risen in the last decade.

11. Wider Participation in the International Decision-Making Processes. In all the decisions that are being made about the world of tomorrow, the people of the newly emerging and economically developing nations want to play an active part because they will be profoundly affected by the choices that are made. They want to be full partners rather than junior partners in shaping the world of the 21st century.

Conclusion. On his monumental study of *The Challenge of World Poverty,* Gunnar Myrdal summarized the main thrust of this chapter in the following words:

> My conclusion is . . . that development requires increased, and in many respects more radical, efforts: speedier and more effective large-scale reforms in the underdeveloped countries, and greater concern and more substantial sacrifices in the developed countries.

From Latin America came this succinct statement by the late and noted Argentinian economist and one of the leading interpreters of economics in The Third World, Raul Prebisch:

> It seems that only a complete reorganization of the world trading system, an entirely new order capable of recognizing the special problems of the developing countries as well as the existing differences between economic and social systems, will be conducive to new forms of multi-lateralism or to new forms of nondiscrimination.

Chapter 9

The Increasing Role of Regional and International Organizations

Over the centuries human beings have banned together to form larger and larger units to tackle problems which they felt could not be solved by existing groups. First came tribes. Then city-states. Next—nations. Likewise, there have been temporary alliances of countries, usually for war, but sometimes for peaceful purposes.

Now there is a vast increase in two other types of organizations—regional and international. A great many of them are non-governmental or private, but many of them are governmental. That, too, is a trend of our times.

Regional Governmental Organizations

The oldest continuous regional organization of a governmental nature is the Organization of American States. The idea for such a group was first proposed by the great South American, Simon Bolivar, in 1826 when he convened the Congress of Panama. At that meeting plans were made for the collective security of the new nations that were appearing in Latin America and suggestions put forth for the arbitration and conciliation of grievances among them.

However, the organization envisioned at that time did not materialize. But in 1890 the International Union of American Republics was formed, becoming later the Pan American Union, and in more recent years the Organization of American States. Today it functions in many fields from its headquarters in Washington, D.C. and from the sites of its specialized agencies: The Inter-American Children's Institute, based in Montevideo, Uruguay; the Inter-American Commission for Women, located in Washington; the Pan American Institute for Geography and History and the Inter-American Indian Institute, both based in Mexico City; and the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, located in Washington.

In addition, there are now four regional economic groups in the Latin American area, separate from the Organization of American

States. The largest of them is the Latin American Free Trade Association, comprising most of the South American countries plus Mexico. Then, because of their fear of the domination of that group by the larger nations, several smaller countries formed the Andean Regional Group. In addition, there is a Caribbean Economic Community and a Central American Common Market.

Although starting later, Europe is now the location of the most powerful and prestigious regional organizations.

In military affairs, there is NATO (the North Atlantic Treaty Organization) and the Warsaw Treaty Organization. NATO was formed in 1949 by 11 countries in Western Europe, plus the United States, chiefly as a shield against Soviet expansion. Since that time, several other nations have joined it, although Sweden and Switzerland have not, because of their policies of neutrality. In Eastern Europe the equivalent of NATO is the Warsaw Treaty Organization, dominated by the U.S.S.R.

In economic and political affairs there are also two European groups. The European Communities is the general title for a cluster of organizations of the Western European countries, and COMECON (The Council for Mutual Economic Assistance) for the Eastern European nations.

Due primarily to the creative ideas of Jean Monnet, the European Community has grown into a powerful group of Western European countries, almost the equivalent of a nation, including 320 million individuals. That remarkable development started in 1951 with the establishment of the European Coal and Steel Community, expanding until it now includes the Common Market (known officially as the European Economic Community), Euratom (the European Atomic Energy Community), the European Parliament, and a European Court of Justice. The general headquarters of that umbrella group is in Brussels, Belgium, with a Secretariat of over 10,000 persons. The Parliament is located in Strasburg, France, and the Court in Luxembourg. Altogether there are now 12 nations in that promising regional group. The founders were Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, and West Germany. In 1973 Britain, Denmark, and Ireland were added. In 1981 Greece became a member. And in 1986 Portugal and Spain joined that group.

COMECON, its counterpart in Eastern Europe, was formed in large part to counteract the effects of the Marshall Plan aid to European countries after World War II. Its initial members were Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, and the U.S.S.R., followed soon by Albania and East Germany. Some degree of power in planning

has been granted to the various countries in that alliance, but the Soviet Union still maintains firm control of that group.

In other parts of the world there are also loose confederations, such as The Arab League, the Organization of African Unity, and the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN). So far they have not been as strong or as successful as the regional groups already mentioned, but their potential is great. In Africa, for example, the hopes of Pan-Africanism have faded somewhat in recent years, due to such factors as differences in language, in forms of government, and in allies outside the continent, as well as by the intense nationalism of many new nations, downgrading at the present time efforts for continental unity.

There are also other regional groups, such as the Economic Commissions of the United Nations for Africa, Asia and the Far East, Europe, and Latin America; and the Regional Banks for Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

Quite different is the Commonwealth, formerly known as the British Commonwealth. It is a loose federation of 40 nations which girdles the globe and is held together as someone recently said by "the English language, a common colonial past, a thirst for tea, a love of cricket, and an unqualified affection and respect for the British Queen." The ties of that group through trade have diminished since Britain's entry into the Common Market in 1973 and are now being tested by what many members of the Commonwealth consider Britain's defense of apartheid in South Africa. Nevertheless, this confederation will undoubtedly weather that storm and others in the future.

Together these various organizations make an imposing list, and all of them are not mentioned here. They illustrate the growing cooperation of nations in regional associations, a trend too often overlooked in discussions of world affairs. It is probable that this form of economic and political organization, somewhere between nations and global groups, will increase in numbers and in power in the foreseeable future.

Regional and International Non-Governmental Organizations

It is not only in the realm of economics and politics that the nations of the world are being brought together these days. The people on our planet are also being brought together in private organizations of many kinds.

Some of them are religious groups, such as the World Council of Churches. Others are groups of people in the creative arts, such as the International Music Council and the International Theater Institute. A few are teachers' groups, like the Federation of Teachers' Unions and the

World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession. Others are medical groups like the Council of International Organizations of Medical Sciences.

Over 700 such private international organizations have a special affiliation with the Economic and Social Council of the U.N. and/or one of the specialized agencies. Their representatives are not allowed to vote or to take part in the deliberations of those U.N. bodies, but they are sometimes consulted in the fields in which they have special expertise.

The United Nations System.

Certainly the foremost international organization in the world today is the United Nations and its cluster of specialized agencies, commissions, and programs, sometimes referred to collectively as The United Nations System.

Unfortunately the general public reads about and sometimes sees the stormy sessions which occasionally take place in the General Assembly of the U.N. But they do not read about or see the tremendous contributions the various parts of the broad-based U.N. System make to international security and peace and to better standards of living in larger freedom.

In the next few pages we will give a quick overview of this important international organization.

Its Predecessors. For centuries human beings have dreamed of achieving international peace, and some pioneers have devised plans to bring it about. As far back as 1307 Pierre DuBois developed *A Plan for the Peace of Europe*, to end the Crusades and provide a permanent Court of Arbitration to avert conflicts.

In 1517 the Dutch scholar, Erasmus, wrote *The Complaint of Peace,* in which he proposed a Council of Just Men. In 1623 Emeric Crucé of France went so far as to include China and India in his plan for a World League, and in 1693 the famous Englishman, William Penn, wrote *An Essay Towards the Present and Future Peace of Europe,* in which he proposed a European federation. The Swiss-born Jean-Jacques Rousseau and the German-born Immanuel Kant worked out similar plans in the 18th century.

In the 19th century the Congress of Vienna was held, with occasional meetings of the major powers intermittently up to World War I. In 1874 the Universal Postal Union was formed, the forerunner of today's specialized agency of the U.N. And, as a result of the Hague Conference of 1899, a Permanent Court of Arbitration was established, the predecessor of the present International Court of Justice.

It was not until after World War I, however, that the League of

Nations was established, with its headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland. The League was based primarily on the premise that the cause of wars was political. It did, however, establish an International Labor Organization, an International Health Organization, and a very small International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation—the forerunner of today's UNESCO. The League also set up a World Court, although it was seldom used.

At that point in history the world was probably not ready for such an international organization. The United States never joined it and the U.S.S.R. did not join until 1934 and was expelled in 1939. Little power was given to the League to take appropriate action against aggressors and it was ineffective in major conflicts in Manchuria and in Ethiopia. In smaller and less important confrontations between nations, however, it was more successful.

Purposes of the United Nations. After World War II the victorious powers and their allies and friends were determined that such a worldwide conflagration should never again menace mankind and that the peace they had won would be maintained.

So they gathered in San Francisco in 1945 and organized the United Nations, based on the U.N. Charter which was adopted there. Fifty nations attended and 51, including Poland, signed the Charter.

Although intended primarily as a means of maintaining peace, the Charter recognized the fact that wars arise from many causes and it called for attacks on all the underlying reasons for confrontations between nations. In simple and succinct terms it stated the aims or goals of the U.N. in the Preamble to the Charter. The four chief goals were:

to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war,
to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women, and of nations large and small,
to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other courses of international law can be maintained, and
to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom.

Evidence of the prevailing mood at that time is contained in the provisions for a Security Council to monitor the peace of the world. In it there were to be five permanent members, as well as six non-permanent countries. Of course the five permanent members were the chief allies in winning World War II—China, England, France, the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. In order to make them more powerful, each of those permanent members was given the veto power in the Security Council.

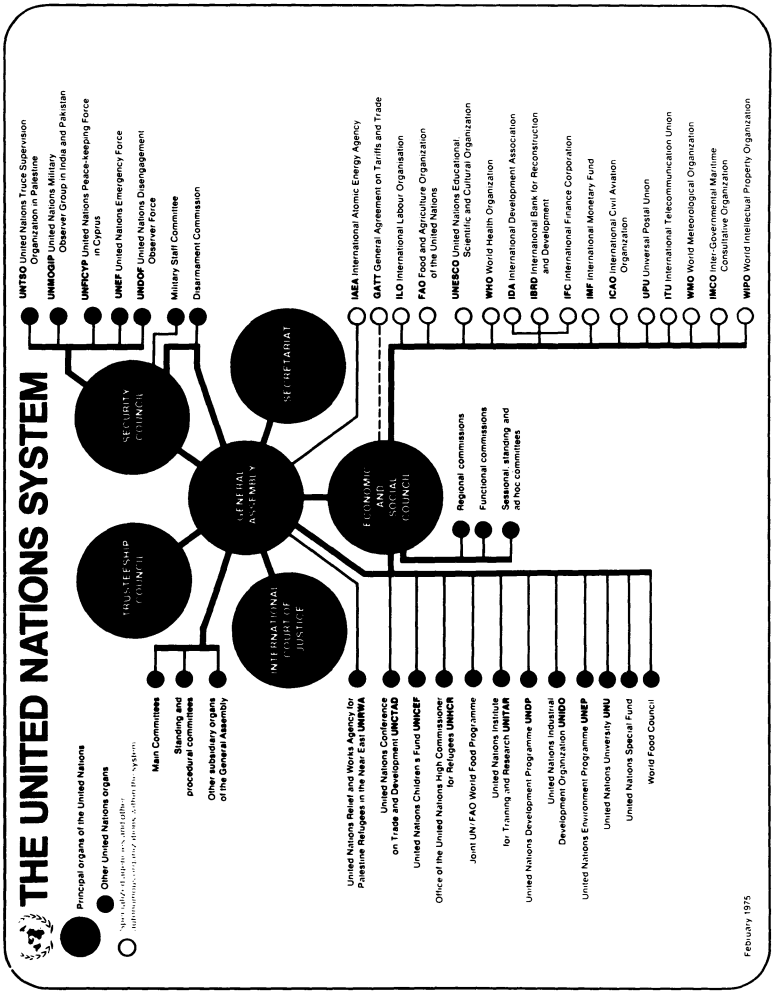


Chart of the U.N. System

Even the wisest of the statemen at the San Francisco conference or the most far-sighted of those who drafted the Charter probably did not realize how important some of the statements they made and the phrases they wrote would be in the rapidly changing world of the next three or more decades. For example, that phrase—"to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom" has been a touchstone for the emphasis of the U.N. in the last few years on economic and social measures, serving a little like the "general welfare" or "elastic clause" in the U.S. Constitution. Another important phrase in the Charter reads "to achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character. . . ." That, too, has been extremely useful in giving the U.N. freedom in attacking a wide range of global problems.

But the United Nations has served many other functions beyond keeping the peace and coping with international problems. It has become:

. . . a mirror of world opinion.
. . . a forum for worldwide discussions, a kind of Town Meeting for the globe.
. . . a laboratory in human relations.
. . . a collective brain, with a greater number of nerves than any brain on earth.
. . . a statistical and information-gathering center.
. . . a research laboratory.
. . . a consciousness-raising agent.
. . . a safety-valve for international pressures.
. . . a catalyst for changes.
. . . a training center for future experts or specialists.

In the constitutions of some of the agencies of the U.N. and in several of the special charters it has developed, its purposes and goals are more definitely defined and sometimes extended. For example, the Preamble to the Constitution of UNESCO makes the controversial assertion that "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed" and later in that document it maintains that "peace must . . . be founded upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind."

The Many Parts of the United Nations System. The U.N. is a many-faceted as well as a far-flung organization, as the chart on page 88 indicates. Basically it consists of six parts, as follows:

The General Assembly is composed of all Member States and is the chief deliberative body of the U.N. It meets every fall in New York City and from time to time in special sessions. In it each nation has one vote.

However, it does not have the power to force actions on governments, although it has considerable moral weight. Much of its work is done through six main committees.

The Security Council consists of 15 members, five of them permanent (China, France, the Soviet Union, the U.S.A. and the U.K.). The others are elected for two year terms by the General Assembly. The five permanent members have veto power on all matters. Its purpose is to investigate any disputes between nations which might lead to war, and to attempt to solve disputes which have broken into open warfare.

The Trusteeship Council was established to oversee the administration of the Trust Territories, dating back to World War I, and to supervise their movement toward independence. All but one of those Trust Territories is now independent. The one remaining area is Guam, administered by the United States.

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) is under the authority of the General Assembly and coordinates all the work of the U.N. in social and economic affairs. For example, it makes recommendations and initiates activities in regard to world trade, development, human rights, natural resources, and social welfare, as well as a wide range of other topics.

The Secretariat, headed by a Secretary-General elected by the General Assembly, is the staff of workers who carry out the recommendations of the other bodies, either in the headquarters in New York City or in the field. It consists of persons now from 130 nations.

The International Court of Justice, located in The Hague in The Netherlands, includes all members of the U.N., plus any other nations which wish to join. It gives advisory legal opinions to the various parts of the U.N. System and handles cases brought by members.

Although these are the six central bodies of the U.N. System, there are numerous other commissions, programs, and specialized agencies, too numerous to mention here, although listed in the chart on page 88.

Of special importance are the 16 related agencies of the U.N. Each has a specialty or specialties and each contributes in quiet ways to the betterment of the world. Each is loosely affiliated with the Economic and Social Council and the agencies often cooperate with each other on programs in which they are interested. Each, however, has its own membership, constitution, director, budget, and secretariat or staff. The full list of related or specialized agencies is as follows:

The International Atomic Energy Agency
General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
International Labor Organization
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

World Health Organization
International Monetary Fund
International Development Association
International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
International Finance Corporation
International Civil Aviation Organization
Universal Postal Union
International Telecommunications Union
World Meteorological Organization
Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization
World Intellectual Property Organization

Programs, Performance, and Progress. Hundreds of pages would be required to list the thousands of programs in every part of the world in which the U.N. System engages. That is manifestly impossible here, so we will confine ourselves to a few of the typical activities of some of the related parts of that broad-based organization, ranging from help to individuals to economic assistance to nations. For example:

. . . every day the safety of travelers in many part of the world is protected by the International Civil Aviation Organization and the World Meteorological Organization.

. . . due to worldwide campaigns, smallpox, malaria, tuberculosis, leprosy and yaws have almost been wiped out around the globe.

. . . constantly the U.N. Division on Narcotic Drugs is working closely with INTERPOL, the international police, to curb the sale of addictive drugs.

. . . the flu shots taken regularly by millions of people around the world are partly the result of the World Health Organization's epidemic warning system.

. . . daily the U.N.'s Weather Watch issues 100,000 reports, based on data from satellites, land and sea stations, and sounding stations around the globe.

. . . quietly and unbeknown to most people, the Universal Postal Union aids daily in the worldwide distribution of mail.

. . . whenever a major disaster occurs in any part of the world, the U.N. Disaster Relief Office mobilizes for action.

. . . millions of children in many parts of the globe are aided annually through the efforts of the United Nations Childrens Fund, a part of the U.N., incidentally, to which individuals can contribute.

. . . a cleaner environment in different parts of the world is the result of the actions of the U.N. Environment Program.

. . . in the years since World War II, the Trusteeship Council of the U.N. has virtually worked itself out of existence, with 10 of the 11 Trust Territories now free.

. . . every day thousands of refugees in different parts of our planet are assisted by the work of the U.N. High Commissioner of Refugees and the staff of that organization.

. . . continuously the U.N. is working to bring about accords between nations in such places as Africa, the Middle East, and the Mediterranean.

. . . a massive effort is underway in nearly every part of the globe to aid the developing nations to build roads and dams, factories and bridges, and develop communications systems, through loans and other forms of aid from the World Bank and its affiliated organizations, as well as other parts of the U.N. System.

. . . new developments in agriculture are being devised and information about them disseminated by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the U.N.

. . . effective ideas for the training of teachers, the construction of buildings and curricula, and the uses of radio and television in schools are being shared at educational conferences of many kinds, called by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

. . . through its mammouth Development Program the U.N. and its related agencies are carrying on over 8000 projects, with special emphasis upon projects in countries suffering from the lowest per capita income.

These and hundreds of similar programs do not cost very much compared to the vast sums being poured into preparations for war. In the United States, which pays approximately 25% of the total budget of the U.N. and its affiliated groups, the cost per person, per year, is now approximately $2.00. And the U.S.A. is 14th in the per capita contributions to this worldwide organization. In U.S. dollars the United Emirates give $73, Sweden $14, Denmark $12, and Qutar $10, Saudi Arabia, The Netherlands, Canada, Finland, Venezuela, Kuwait, New Zealand, and Belgium give more per person than citizens in the U.S.A.

Some Problems and Pitfalls of the U.N. System. Even though the U.N. is doing far more than most people realize, it has a great many problems. If you have difficulty getting everyone in your family to agree upon some action, or in a club or school or church group, imagine the troubles of the representatives of 159 nations trying to agree. Yes, the U.N. does have problems, plenty of them. Here are a few:

One of the growing problems is the number of world crises which come before the General Assembly and the number of nations which want to be heard on each of them.

Then there are the problems of priorities. There are limited funds and personnel and it is not easy to decide where or on what topics they should be used. For example, should they go primarily to development,

and if so, to the 25 or 30 countries which are in the most dire need, or to a larger group?

Sometimes there are problems about the financing of a project which some countries have opposed. For instance, the U.S.S.R. and its allies did not support the U.N.'s activities in the Belgian Congo (now Zaire), refusing to pay their allotment of the U.N.'s expenses.

Likewise, on more than one occasion, the U.S. has failed to pay its "dues" to Unesco as a result of its displeasure with certain measures undertaken by it, although it has paid up its assessment in time to be able to vote in the next General Conference. Then, in 1984 the United States withdrew from that organization.

There are problems on the one country-one vote, too. Some of the nations, especially the larger ones, resent the fact that each of the tiny countries, sometimes called ministates, has as much voting power as they have. Yet this principle stems at least in part from the United States where each state has two Senators and two votes, no matter what its population is.

There is criticism, too, of the superpowers in particular for by-passing the U.N. on major issues when it is to their advantage to do so.

Then there is the question of bloc voting. The blocs shift from issue to issue but certain groups of nations tend to vote fairly consistently together, such as the Western European and North American nations, the Soviet controlled countries, or those of the so-called Third World.

Several nations also feel that the veto power in the Security Council was inaugurated in a different era than today's world and is outmoded and undemocratic. Therefore they want this practice stopped.

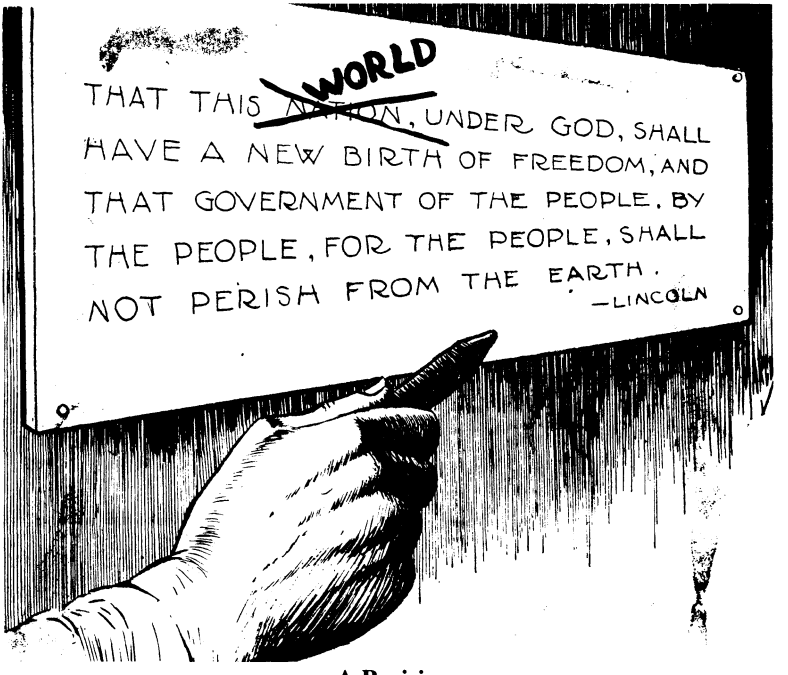
With these and other problems which are not mentioned here, it is a wonder that so much is accomplished by the United Nations System.

The Potentialities of the U.N. System. There are many possibilities for the future of the U.N., but they can be grouped most easily in three categories.

By far the most drastic would be to abolish it. No nation at the moment would probably favor that course of action, even though many or even all of them feel frustrated from time to time in this international organization and its agencies. In fact one of the first acts of all the new nations in recent years has been to apply for membership in the U.N. and its component parts.

Furthermore, most government officials and probably most people who know something of the inner workings of the U.N. agree that if it were abolished, something similar would be needed to take its place.

There are individuals, however, and some groups or organizations



A Revision

which favor such drastic action. In the U.S.A. one of their slogans is "Get the U.S. out of the U.N. and the U.N. out of the U.S.A." Many would go farther and get rid of the U.N. altogether.

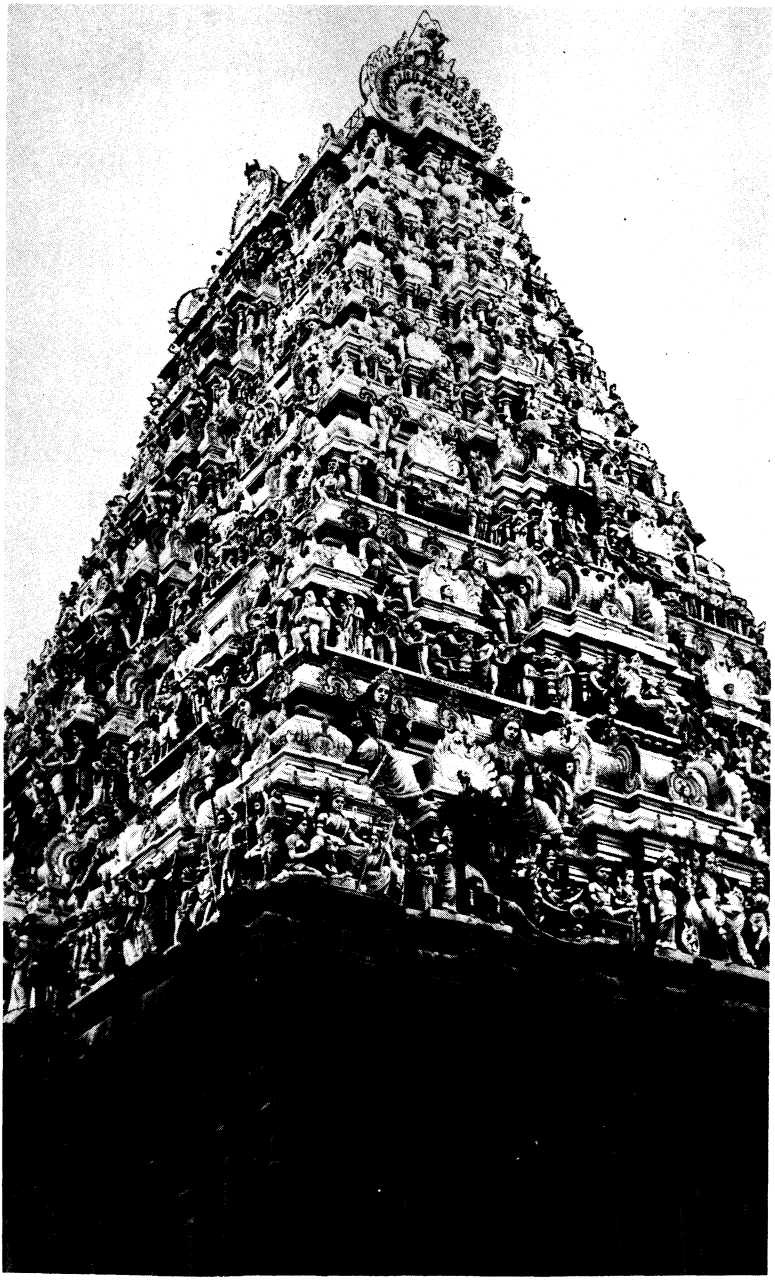
At the other end of the continuum of attitudes toward the future of the U.N. System are those who would like to give it far more power to act than it now possesses, and far more funds with which to work, turning it into a world government of at least limited power.

At the present time, however, no government is willing to yield even a small share of its sovereignty to the U.N., so the chances of that happening in the foreseeable future are slim.

That leaves the third alternative—minor changes in the broad United Nations System to improve it and increase its effectiveness. Many suggestions have been made along that line, but few are generally acceptable. Some would like it to have a larger budget but the nations which could make this possible, are not eager to increase their contributions. Some would like the U.N. to be more efficiently run, with more cooper-

ation, for example, among the agencies. That is possible. A few would like the U.N. to own the vast ocean areas of the world and to receive the income from the riches of such territory. That is a question which is being explored and on which no decision is expected for a long time, as the issue is so large and so important.

Meanwhile the United Nations System is likely to move along for some time in its present form, accomplishing much but leaving many urgent tasks undone.



Hindu Temple—Aradras, India

Chapter 10

Fun and Beauty: Creativity Around the World

We are so often troubled about dehumanizing conditions in every part of our planet and so concerned with problems all over our globe that we tend to forget the tremendous amount of fun, beauty, and creativity that exist everywhere. Probably we are overexposed to problems and underexposed to fun and beauty.

Perhaps we should stop from time to time and think about our planet as a giant playground, a vast art gallery, a mammoth museum, an enormous stage, and a worldwide scientific laboratory, as well as a rich treasure house and a busy workshop.

If we have been remiss up to this point in this book in portraying the positive aspects of our global home, we hasten now to make amends. In this chapter we will refer to some of the fun in which the world's people engage and record a few of the many forms of beauty which they create and enjoy.

Beauty in Every Part of Our Planet. Wherever there are human beings, there is beauty as well as ugliness, color as well as drabness, creativity as well as conformity, humor as well as sadness.

Fun, beauty, and creativity are an important part of the human experience even though the forms they take differ from individual to individual, from community to community, from country to country, and from culture to culture.

For example, what a wealth of beauty there is in the natural landscape in every part of our globe.

For the millions of people who live in regions of snow and ice, there is nothing which compares with those sights, despite the hardships the natural elements sometimes inflict on the inhabitants of such places. No wonder, then, that people have created scores of words to describe the shapes, colors, and sounds of snow.

The same is true of the millions of people who live in oases or on the fringes of deserts, or travel over such areas. To them the many formations of sand are incredibly beautiful and they have devised scores of

words to describe such sights, despite the hardships they often have to endure because of their surroundings.

In nearly all parts of our planet there is the beauty of trees, too. Perhaps it is the beauty in the gnarled banyan trees of India or some other part of South Asia, the umbrella trees in Kenya or some other part of Africa, the horse chestnut trees in France in the spring, or the May trees in England. It may be the cedars of Lebanon when they are wrapped in snow or the brilliant foliage and flowers of the flamboyant trees of the tropics. Perhaps for you there is nothing to compare with the giant, centuries-old sequoia of California. Different—yes, but variations on the same theme.

The same is true of flowers. It may be the beauty of the poinsettias of Mexico or other tropical lands, the orchids growing wild and in profusion in Central America, the acres and acres of cultivated tulips in The Netherlands, or the geraniums in window boxes in Germany or Switzerland.

Beauty can be seen also, in buildings made of different materials and sculpted in many different styles. Would you choose as your favorite design a hand-carved temple in India or the Taj Mahal? A building like the library at the University of Mexico with its ancient Mayan and Aztec designs and modern architecture, or the ultra modern Sydney Opera House in Australia? Would it be a wooden chalet in Switzerland or a wooden home in Japan, with its highly functional architecture?

Beauty varies, too, in the clothes people fashion. There are many, many types of colorful costumes, whether they are the beautiful saris of India or the traditional kimonos of Japan, the distinctive tartan skirts of the Scottish highlanders or the kente cloth robes of the Ghanaian men of West Africa.

Yes, beauty is in the eye of the beholder—and it takes many, many forms.

Fun in Every Part of Our Planet. The same is true of fun. Some forms of it are the same in many parts of the world. But others vary tremendously.

Children in areas of water learn to swim early in life and then to paddle canoes or steer boats. They enjoy those forms of fun then and throughout their lives.

And children in areas of snow learn to ski early in life—sometimes before they learn to walk. Then they learn to skate or steer toboggans or sleds. They enjoy those forms of fun then and throughout their lives.

Children everywhere enjoy a variety of games. Boys (and sometimes girls) play marbles everywhere. Children play a variety of games based on the ideas of Hide and Seek and London Bridge Is Falling

Down. Boys in particular have fun flying kites and girls in playing with dolls, no matter what material they are made from.

In most parts of the world soccer is a major sport and volley ball is fast becoming international.

But other forms of fun vary from place to place.

If you enjoy racing, it might be a camel race in the Middle East or North Africa, a dogsled race in Alaska or Canada, a boat race in Cambodia or Indonesia, or a motorcycle race in France or the U.S.A. Racing is international but the forms it takes vary from place to place.

Pets are another form of fun, and they, too, vary. If you live in the Middle East, your pet may be a lamb. If you live in Southeast Asia, it might well be a water buffalo. In Iceland it is likely to be a pony. In Australia and New Zealand it might be a calf or a lamb. In the Middle East and North Africa it could be a baby camel. And in many places it could be a cat or dog—if there is enough food to support such a pet.

Fun and Beauty Are Determined by a Large Number of Factors. The factors which determine these different perceptions of fun and beauty are many and varied. One is geographical. Another is religious. A third is cultural. Let's take a few examples of each of them.

People everywhere tend to specialize eventually in something they do well, based usually on the local geography. Then they begin to trade their products for the specialties of people at a distance.

Thus the Moroccans have become world famous for their hassocks, bags, and other leather goods, developed from the leather of Nigeria and other parts of West Africa. The Mexicans, the Peruvians, and the Thais have specialized in silver products because silver was available locally. And the Persians (Iranians) and Indians have long been famous for their intricate and beautiful brass work. Many examples could be added from different parts of the world, depending upon the resources available to them.

Religion is a determinant, too. In the Moslem World the prohibition against reproducing the human figure led to concentration on special forms of architecture and to their inimitable frescoes. In South and Southeast Asia the place of the local temple in the life of people led to the creation of beautifully crafted places of worship. And in medieval times in Europe, the centrality of the church led to the construction of Romanesque and Gothic cathedrals like those in Florence, Milan and Pisa; Rheims, Chartres, and Amiens.

The high value placed on the dance in many cultures also stems frequently from religion, whether in Africa, Asia, or other parts of our globe. Writing on the centrality of the dance in Africa, Geoffrey Gorer, the British anthropologist, once said:

> They dance for joy and they dance for grief; they dance for love and they dance for hate; they dance to bring prosperity and they dance to avert calamity; they dance for religion and they dance to pass the time away.

The values of a culture can also determine the fields in which different nations and/or cultures excel. Two examples should suffice to illustrate that point.

In Norway a high value has long been placed on literature. Ask a great many Norwegians who they are most proud of from their country's history and most of them will name at least five writers out of the ten outstanding Norwegians they list. Almost without exception they will name Bjornson, Bojer, Hamsun, Ibsen, and the Danish-born Norwegian—Sigrid Undset.

Why is this so? Perhaps because of the influence of geography upon the Norwegian culture, with those long, lonely winter nights and the telling and retelling of the sagas of the Vikings which seem to penetrate into the bones and brains of impressionable youngsters and eventually to produce more than the average number of outstanding writers.

Ask the Russians the same question and they are likely to name individuals from three fields which they have valued in the past and to some extent in the present—music, literature, and the ballet. In literature they are likely to name Dostoiewski, Tolstoy, Gogol, Gorky, Chekhov, and Pushkin. In music there are such persons as Moussorgsky, Tchaikovsky, Glinka, and Rimsky Korsakov. And in the ballet they would certainly name Pavlova.

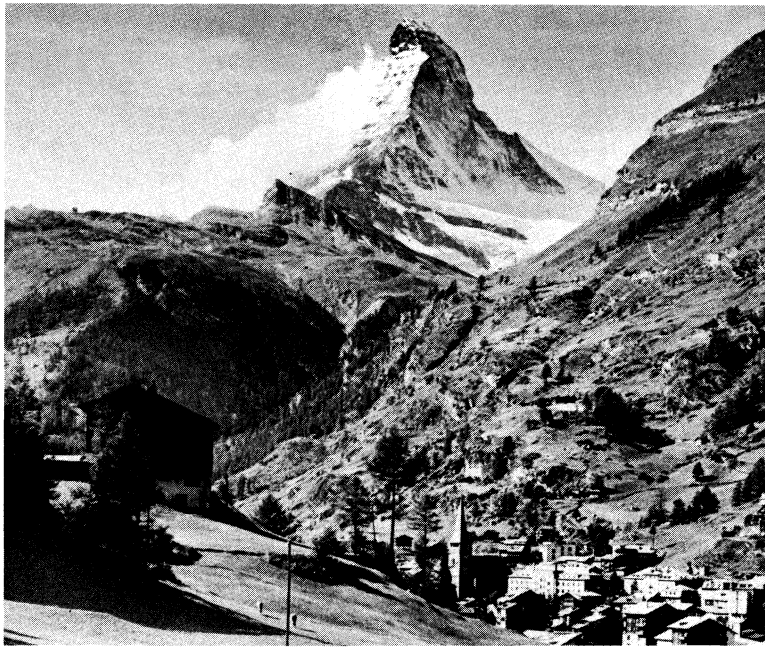
The same method can be used on most nations, although in some countries and cultures the great works of art are unsigned and have often been the creations of groups of individuals—an interesting cultural difference.

A similar approach can be used by compiling the names of men (and an occasional woman) who are honored by statues in public places in villages and cities.

Yes, we are all enriched by the creativity of leaders in many fields, whether compiled on a country to country basis or on a world scale.

Let us turn now to three other field of human activity in which we all profit today from the contributions of people from many parts of our planet. They are music, literature, and the related fields of science and medicine.

Creativity Through Music. References are constantly made to music as an "international language." Actually that is not true. The appreciation of music and the desire to take part in it or even to create it are human and therefore international. But the forms it takes are certainly cultural.



The Matterhorn in Switzerland

A Concert at Baalbek in Lebanon

If you don't believe that, try to sit through an all-night musical fest in a traditional African village, or wander for a few hours through a Middle East bazaar, listening to the local music. In both cases you are likely to become disturbed or even temporarily tone-deaf if you are accustomed to Western music.

In the same way you may not be able to enjoy or appreciate the music of India and its neighbors. That is because the music of that large area differs so radically from the music of the West. Basically the Indians use an octave of 22 steps and stress melody. They also improvise a great deal. In the West the octave consists of 12 steps and the emphasis is usually on harmony. In addition, we do not improvise often, although there is more and more of that in contemporary Western music.

In recent years there have been many attempts to bridge the differences among cultural regions in music. People like Ravi Shankar of India and Michael Olitunji of Nigeria are among the interpreters of what has been "foreign" to many of us. But the full appreciation of such music lies far ahead for most Westerners. Thus the ability of people to enjoy music that is culturally different is still limited.

However, we in the Western World can enjoy the variety of music that exists within our own culture. Hence we are in debt to the composers and players of many nations. Think, for example, of the Germans: Bach, Beethoven, Brahms, and Wagner; of the Russians—Moussorsky, Tchaikowsky, and Rimski-Korsakov; the Italians: Puccini, Rossini, Scarlotti, and Verdi; and the Scandinavians: Grieg and Sibelius. Of course these are merely examples of such contributors to world culture from some of the nations in the Western World.

Creativity Through Literature. For centuries people everywhere have expressed themselves in a great variety of oral and written forms—fables, proverbs, stories, and poetry—or in more recent times—novels, short stories, plays, and biographies and autobiographies.

For a long period in history such literary creations were stored in the minds of people who had developed remarkable memories. Such persons were, in modern terms, human computers. Thus it was possible to hand down the heritage of a group from generation to generation.

In more recent times, however, much of the creativity of human beings has been recorded in writing—and more recently on tapes, records, and films. Occasionally we have been able to enjoy and even profit from the writings of people from another country or culture through translations. But the masterpieces of only a few persons have been translated into many languages—such as the thoughts of Confucius, Lao-tse, Shakespeare, Goethe, and Dante.

In the last few years, however, a great many masterpieces of the West have been translated into Asian languages and a great many of the masterpieces of Asia have been transcribed into Western languages. Three examples of the latter are the translation into English of Lady Murasakis' *The Tale of Genjii,* from the Japanese; the *Letters of a Javanese Princess*—written in Dutch, although an account from Indonesia; and some of the poetry of the great Moslem writer, Iqbal—from what is now Pakistan.

Of such enrichments Sir Richard Livingston of England once wrote:

> Literature is a railway ticket, costing very little, that takes men to every country in the world, —a pass that admits to the greatest of waxwork exhibitions, where every waxwork is made of flesh and blood.

Today we might revise the pharase "railroad ticket" to say an airplane ticket. But the central idea of his statement remains true. We can enjoy the great works of people in many parts of our planet and through their creations better understand the people of other countries and cultures.

In our Western tradition, how much richer we all are because of the writings of Dostoevsky and Tolstoy of Russia, Cervantes of Spain and Sarmiento of Argentina, Goethe and Schiller of Germany, Dante of Italy, Keats and Shelley of England, and Emerson and Whitman of the United States, plus scores of others.

Creativity Through Science and Medicine. People from many parts of our globe have also helped to unlock the secrets of the universe and made discoveries which have brought about incredible developments in science and medicine.

At various times the Chinese, the Indians, and the Arabs have been the innovators and the inventors.

But in more recent times it has been largely in Europe and in the Americas that the great forward leaps have been made. Think of Marconi in radio and of Fermi in atomic energy—both Italians; of Koch and Roentgen in bacteriology and radiology—both Germans; of the Curies of Poland and France and their discovery of radium and polonium; of Mendeleev of Russia and the charting of the elements, plus the work of many Russians in space research; of Harvey of England and the circulation of blood theory, and the work of Lord Rutherford in physics; and of Edison, the Wright brothers, and Salk in the United States. Then add the work of Noguchi of Japan on yellow fever, trachoma, and syphilis; and the brilliant contributions of Cruz of Brazil on epidemics. Surely, as

someone wrote many years ago, "The history of science is a great fugue where the voices of the nations join in one by one."

In recent times individuals have sometimes been replaced by teams of research workers, pooling their talents to explore unknown areas.

Today scientists from all parts of the world are cooperating in the International Council of Scientific Unions, a non-governmental body; as well as working together in such agencies of the United Nations as UNESCO, the World Health Organization, and the World Meteorological Organization.

And what a wealth of talent is still hidden in the many scientifically underdeveloped nations—potential additions in the future to the short list of the world's great discoverers that we have just mentioned.

Conclusion. When you are discouraged, downhearted, and even despondent and disillusioned about the world and its inhabitants, think about some of the illustrations in this chapter on the fun, beauty, and creativity on our globe, or of similar illustrations which might have been included here. It may help you to live through such periods of despondency and turn gloom into hope for the future of the human species on Planet Earth.

Chapter 11

Some Ways to Become Better Informed and More Effectively Involved in World Affairs

One of the pressing needs of our time is for millions of citizens in all parts of our planet who are well informed about world affairs and committed to appropriate action to improve life for all the inhabitants of our earth.

If you have read all, or even a part, of this book, you are probably one of those persons—or you want to become one of them.

The readers of this volume will vary tremendously in their background and in the time and energy they can devote to becoming better informed and more effectively involved in international relations. The areas in which you can excel will also vary. Therefore a large number of suggestions will be made in this chapter. From them you may want to select one or two on which you will concentrate in the next few months or years. You might even like to turn those suggestions into a list with four columns, responding to them with these four possibilities:

A. Am doing well on this suggestion now.
B. I should do more on this idea.
C. I'd like to try this suggestion, soon.
D. I'm not interested now in this idea.

Here, then, are several ideas for your consideration:

1. Becoming Better Informed Through Reading. There are two major ways in which you may want to approach this idea. One is to read more on the general nature of the contemporary world scene. Among the many books you may want to consider are Lester R. Brown's *World Without Borders* (Random House and a Vintage paperback edition) and Isaac Isimov's *Earth: Our Crowded Planet* (a paperback edition of John Day—now Harper and Row). The latter was originally written for boys and girls but it can be read with profit by adults.

For those with considerable background and the ability to handle

short but difficult reading, Kenneth Boulding's two recent books on *The World As a Total System* (Sage Publications) and *Human Betterment* (Sage Publications) are recommended.

For those with considerable background who want to keeep up-to-date, the yearly volumes edited by Lester R. Brown on *The State of the World* (Worldwatch Institute) are extremely valuable. Also recommended is the yearly publication of the Foreign Policy Association on *Great Decisions,* as well as their highly readable *Headline Books* (actually a series of pamphlets on separate countries or special world problems).

Of course there are scores of other volumes available on world problems, cultural areas, and countries.

Perhaps you would like to subscribe to a newspaper which stresses international news, such as the *Christian Science Monitor,* the *New York Times,* or the *Washington Post.*

There are now several magazines which concentrate on world news, printing articles translated from newspapers and magazines abroad. Two of them are *Current* and the *World Press Review.*

Another way of catching up or keeping up with the world scene is to take a course in world affairs in a nearby college or in an adult education center—or going to an Elderhostel program which stresses international relations.

2. Making Friends with Persons from Abroad. Possibly you are interested in a more personal approach to world affairs. If so, you might arrange with a nearby college to entertain a student from abroad (a better name than a "foreign" student) in your home. But try to host them more than once or they may misunderstand your gesture as a perfunctory one.

You might go even further, entertaining a student from abroad, at the high school level, in your home for a school year. The American Field Service (3131 East 43rd Street, New York, N.Y. 10017) specializes in such programs. On a slightly less ambitious scale is the work of The Experiment in International Living (Kipling Road, Brattleboro, Vermont 05301). After a person is entertained in a home abroad for a summer, the parents of that visitor reciprocates by entertaining the young man or the young woman in whose home their adolescent has stayed.

3. Working with an Organization Specializing in World Affairs. Individuals, working alone, can have some impact on international affairs. But working with others is likely to increase one's effectiveness. If you are already a member of an organization which specializes in international relations, you may want to increase your participation in that

group by volunteering to serve on a committee, arranging a program, taking part in a membership or fund-raising drive, or in some other way.

If you are not a member of such an organization, you may want to consider joining some group, such as the local branch of the Foreign Policy Association, the League of Women Voters, the United Nations Association—U.S.A., the World Affairs Council, or the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. Of course those are merely a few of the better-known organizations you may want to consider.

4. Influencing Legislation. The idea of influencing national legislation may appeal to you as an interesting, important, and worthwhile project. You may concentrate on that or do it in conjunction with some other activity mentioned in this chapter.

If you select this as your field of concentration, your influence will be far greater if you are (or become) an expert in some aspect of international relations. Then the letters you write and the interviews in which you take part will reveal that you are a knowledgeable person to whom legislators should listen.

It might be well, also, to bear in mind that most people write their Congressmen and Congresswomen to protest; occasionally you may want to write to praise some legislator for a speech or for his or her vote on a specific issue. They appreciate praise, too!

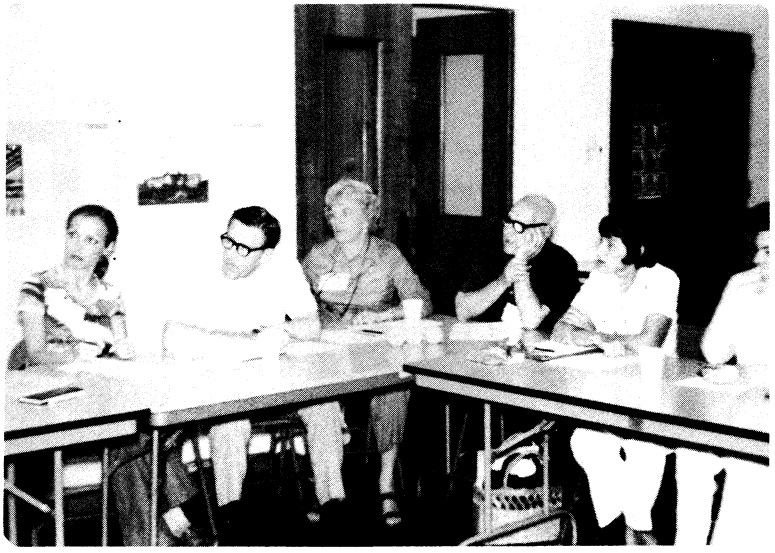
If you can meet from time to time with your Representatives and/or Senators, so much the better. But be well informed, brief, and as cogent as possible in your comments.

You may also want to consider the preparation and/or distribution of petitions and of participation in public demonstrations on some aspect of world affairs.

5. Fostering the International Dimension of Schools. Educators here and there are becoming concerned about the global dimensions of teaching at all age levels and in all subject fields, as well as through co-curricular activities—such as clubs, assemblies, and the library or media center.

But most schools have merely scratched the surface in this regard and many are still doing little to introduce their pupils to the worldwide community of our day.

On your own, or through some organization like the P.T.A., you might like to ask for a survey of what is being done in your local school and/or school system about the global dimensions of education, and what could or should be done. You might like to encourage the appropriate officials to bring in outside speakers and consultants to work with the teachers in expanding the international aspects of current courses and/or introducing new courses and activities.



An Adult Discussion Group on World Affairs

You could also help by providing books and magazines on world affairs for the school library—both for students and for teachers.

6. Contributing Money. Perhaps your days are already filled with family duties, work, church or synagogue activities, and club programs. If so, you can at least hold nominal membership in one or more organizations which emphasize international relations, and support their efforts financially. If this is impossible and you are confined to your home, you can serve as a volunteer to alert people to upcoming meetings or serve in other ways.

Instead of those tasks, or in addition to them, you may be interested in contributing to a group which specializes in some particular aspect of world affairs. Here are five such groups. Of course there are many, many more:

C.A.R.E., 660 First Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10016.

Meals for Millions, 9420 D, Activity Road, San Diego, California 92126.

People-to-People Program, 2401 Grand Avenue, Kansas City, Missouri 64108.

Project Hope, 2233 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007. The hospital ship which travels to various parts of the world with aid to local people.

World Neighbors, 5116 North Portland Avenue, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73112.

7. Travel Abroad. Travel to another country is still not inexpensive, but it is certainly cheaper than it was a few years ago. Even a short trip can prove worthwhile as well as interesting to you, especially if you read widely before you go and after you return home. And if you can study the language of the locality where you are going, that would help, even if you do not become an expert on it. People do appreciate the effort travelers make to learn their language.

You may want to go with a friend. But you may want to consider going with a church or college group or with an organization that arranges programs abroad tailored to special interests.

Perhaps you need to be reminded that Canada, Mexico, and the countries of the Caribbean are nearer and less expensive than a trip to Europe or some other part of our globe—and at the present time less hazardous because of terrorism.

As you travel, you can expand your knowledge and add to your pleasure if you listen for the characteristic sounds of the place you are visiting as well as looking for its outstanding sights. And you can gain greater insight into that country if you ask different people you meet who the heroes and heroines of that country are, thus developing further insight into that land and its history.

8. Helping to Inform and/or Involve Others. Perhaps you would like to use your limited time, energy, and money in efforts to help other adults and young people to catch up with our changing world. If so, there are numerous activities in which you can engage. For example, you can:

. . . write brief and pertinent letters to the local newspaper or newspapers on special aspects of world affairs.

. . . encourage the local radio and/or TV station(s) to increase and/or improve their programs on international events.

. . . take part in some of the work of the U.S. Committee for UNICEF (331 East 38th Street, New York, N.Y. 10016) through a local committee.

. . . work with a nearby library on its acquisition of books, magazines, slides, and tapes on the world.

. . . help launch a city or county-wide celebration of some international day such as:

April 7	World Health Day
June 5	World Environment Day
October 24	United Nations Day (or week)
October 31	UNICEF Day
December 10	Human Rights Day

. . . assist some local group to increase and/or improve its program on international topics, whether that group is a labor union, church, service club, women's organization, or some other group.

9. Probing One of Your Prejudices. Yes, we all have them. Sometimes we are scarcely aware that they exist; sometimes we know about them but ignore them. Pull one of them out of your unconscious and subconscious and examine it as to why you have it—and what you can do about it. It may be against a given country, an ethnic group, the U.N., or some other government, organization, or movement.

That may prove to be a painful process, but who said that catching up with the world would be entirely pleasurable?

10. Carrying on Activities in Your Home. All of the suggestions so far in this chapter have applied to the wider community. But that does not mean that you should ignore or minimize activities about the international dimension of life in your own home. Intercultural—or international misunderstanding—begin at birth or even before that, with the education of parents. Then the home becomes the nursery where the tiny plants are tended before they are transplanted into a larger field—the community, the nation, and the world. The care children are given in those formative years, will determine in large part how they grow in later life.

So you may want to:

. . . examine what your children are learning about authority and evaluate the attitudes they are acquiring about other individuals, including those of different "races," religions, and social-economic classes.

. . . read to them or with them while they are young, exciting books and stories about children and events in other parts of the world, discussing those accounts with them.

. . . monitor some of the programs on TV and discuss with boys and girls the programs they see and don't understand.

. . . discuss with older boys and girls current events at the family dinner table or at other appropriate times.

. . . invite individuals and/or groups from abroad to visit you and share in your family life.

. . . have books and magazines around the house which will whet the interest of your offspring in the people, places, events, and movements of other parts of the world, as well as of the U.S.A.

. . . take family trips from time to time to local museums and/or art galleries with exhibits relating to the world; to concerts featuring the music of other lands; and/or to restaurants serving so-called "foreign" foods.

. . . celebrate some special day of international significance with a special meal in your home, such as U.N. Day.

Conclusion. These suggestions and/or others you decide upon may not alter the world significantly, but they are likely to do you, your family, your fellow citizens, and the world some good. They should help to move you and others from an idealistic approach to realistic actions. And as Henry David Thoreau once wrote:

> If you have castles in the air, your work need not be lost. That is where they should be. Now put the foundations under them.

Elsewhere he suggested a good motto for each of us when he said:

> I, too, would fain be a track repairer somewhere in the orbit of the earth.

Or, as the French writer, Robert Buron, recently wrote:

> To change the world . . . we must create around us a small island of that other world to which we aspire.

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