

CONCEPT OF HUMAN GEOGRAPHY

Hemant Ajmera
Dr. Shalini



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CHAPTER 1

A BRIEF INTRODUCTION ABOUT GEOGRAPHY

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ABSTRACT:

Geography is a multifaceted academic field that examines the connections between space, location, and the natural and social surroundings. This abstract gives a general summary of geography, emphasizing its essential elements, theoretical underpinnings, and contributions to comprehending the complexity of the world we live in. The geographical distribution of natural and man-made events throughout the surface of the Earth is at the heart of geography. It includes research on population trends, cultural norms, ecosystems, and physical features of the environment. Geography is to understand how these factors interact, how they are affected by both natural and human processes, and how they are interrelated and interdependent. Additionally, geography encourages an all-encompassing, multidisciplinary approach to knowledge. It combines knowledge from a range of fields, such as political science, economics, sociology, anthropology, and sociology, to look at the intricate relationships between natural and social systems. Geographers may examine the spatial aspects of social, economic, and environmental problems and provide solutions that take into account their complexity thanks to their multidisciplinary character.

KEYWORDS:

Academic, Geographical, Geography, Natural, Physical.

INTRODUCTION

Geography is a broad academic field that connects to almost every other academic field in some way. The spatial viewpoint is what makes this link possible, and it basically says that if a phenomenon can be mapped, it has some kind of connection to geography. A thorough grasp of our globe requires geographic knowledge, making the study of the whole planet an exciting topic. You will discover what geography is in this chapter, along with some of the basic ideas that support the field. As you go through the next chapters in more detail, it will become clearer how these foundational terminology and ideas are used throughout the work. By the chapter's conclusion, you'll start to think like a geographer [1], [2]. Geography, which derives from the Greek term *geographia*, is literally translated as writing about the Earth. Geology is distinct from geography since it primarily focuses on the physical Earth and the processes that have shaped and are still forming it. However, since it also studies people, geography takes a far wider perspective to looking at the Earth. As a result, there are two main divisions in geography: human and physical. Although the physical components of geography impact people and vice versa, this work largely focuses on human geography. Physical geography will still be covered, albeit with less emphasis.

Geography is the study of the world's physical and environmental features as they relate to space. Studying the Earth from a spatial viewpoint is the one aspect of geography that unites the field and distinguishes it from other academic disciplines as geographers analyse the planet. Geographical studies concentrate on locations all over the globe since the spatial viewpoint allows you to see the phenomena you are researching on a map [3], [4]. Therefore, geography is a physical and social discipline that investigates the basic issues of what is where, and why? Human geography is a social science that focuses on people, their environments, lifestyles, and relationships in various locations throughout the globe. Where is the Hispanic population concentrated in the United States, and why? Would be a straightforward example of a geographic research in human geography. One such question

for a physical geography research project is where and why storms hit the U.S. coastline the most. Because of how dynamic the Earth is, geographers also study how and why areas change through time.

Space and location are the two essential elements that make up geography. Space describes the actual sizes, separations, and places on the surface of the Earth. It comprises patterns of distribution, connection, and interaction as well as the spatial organisation of phenomena. Place, on the other hand, describes the distinction and uniqueness of certain places. Places are moulded by human experiences, cultural practises, and environmental factors, which provide them with physical and intangible qualities that give them a sense of identity and purpose. A number of theoretical viewpoints and techniques support geography. Physical geography is the study of the spatial patterns and processes of natural phenomena, such as landforms, climates, and ecosystems. Human geography looks at how people interact with their surroundings, taking into account factors including population, migration, urbanisation, economic activity, and cultural landscapes. By offering tools for geographical data gathering, analysis, and visualisation, geographic information systems (GIS) and remote sensing methods have further improved geographic analysis[5], [6].

History

The connection between geography and other academic fields. In addition to sharing a link with history, geography also has a number of other academic fields in common. The major is on the outer edge of the circle, and the associated geography subfield is within the circle. Once again, a phenomena is considered geographical if it can be shown on a map and examined from a spatial viewpoint. A simple illustration would be in the context of the medical geography, a branch of geography that focuses on the geographical distribution of different elements of health. Medical experts may get a better understanding of the origins of a disease and the mechanics of its transmission, for instance, when the spread of a disease from its source location is tracked. Understanding cultural customs or environmental factors may often provide insight on the disease's functioning mechanism [7], [8]. Economic geography, a branch of geography that studies the diverse economic activities in various locations and how those locations interact economically, is another example of how geography interacts to other disciplines. The idea that a company' location may have a significant impact on its performance is a basic one in economic research. Customers may be more likely to frequent a restaurant, shop, etc. often if it is situated near to their place of work, for instance. A company owner would be prudent to check maps of the area's transit systems as well as the demographics of the target market.

Making a World Map

Since before 6,000 B.C., people have utilised maps, which are crucial to the study of geography. Many individuals utilise modern maps, which are far more advanced, intricate, and exact, in their automobiles that have GPS navigation systems. Although this technology makes it relatively simple for drivers to go from one area to another, the process of creating digital and other maps is very complicated.

In essence, a map, which presents a location on Earth in a flat manner, is essentially a representation of a curved surface. The Earth, which seems to be a sphere but is really an oblate spheroid, has a little broader middle region around the equator and a slightly shorter north/south pole axis than a perfect sphere. The method of representing any curved surface on a flat surface is known as projection, and there are several varieties of map projections. All maps share the essential trait of involving projections, and every projection has some intrinsic distortion. Maps distort things' size, shape, distance, and orientation to varying degrees. Imagine peeling an orange and attempting to flatten the peel on a table to see why this distortion arises. The continents would undoubtedly be deformed if you had drawn them on the orange before peeling it when you tried to flatten the peel on the table. This comparison

does not accurately capture how forecasts are made; it is a far more complex process. But the fundamental idea still holds true. On the world map below, a distortion is shown as an example. For instance, see how Greenland looks to be bigger than South America in this Mercator projection even though it is really considerably smaller.

Along with projections, scale is another crucial aspect of maps. A map's scale is determined by comparing the length or distance on the map to the actual Earth or ground. Depending on the size, a map's level of detail will change. For instance, a map scaled at 1:100,000 would display significantly less detail than a map scaled at 1:10,000. Scale can be presented verbally, as a bar graph, or as a ratio, among other ways. Scale can also refer to a phenomenon's spatial scope. One may, for instance, look at migration on a global, national, state, or local level. However, under either definition, it relates to the degree of specificity regarding the location that the geographer is studying. Different patterns and connections can appear by viewing the world at various scales.

Location is one of the most significant pieces of data that maps offer. Geographical knowledge of a place's exact location is essential. While a street address can be used to define a location, not every location on Earth has one. Therefore, using the geographic grid is one of the fundamental ways to identify a location on Earth. The meridians and parallels, which are fictitious lines and arcs crisscrossing the surface of the Earth, make up the geographic grid. Longitude is the numbering system for the meridians, which are half circles that connect the north and south poles. Latitude is a system of numbers used to identify the circumference of the Earth and the parallels that run parallel to the equator. A location's latitude and longitude can be used to determine where meridians and parallels on the geographic grid precisely intersect.

DISCUSSION

There are a few meridians on Earth that are particularly significant, one of which is the Prime Meridian, which passes through Greenwich, England, at longitude 0. The International Date Line, another significant meridian, runs roughly parallel to 180 degrees of longitude and is located on the other side of the globe from the Prime Meridian. The day of the week instantly shifts when a person crosses the International Date Line. The day advances when travelling westward, and the date advances one day when moving eastward. Since the International Date Line is in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, most people around the world experience little disruption to their daily schedule. Additionally, because the International Date Line does not precisely follow the 180° longitude line, countries and territories made up of islands that lie on either side of this line can share the same calendar date.

Using the geographic grid to define a location is just one step in the process of describing a place. The two main ways that a place can be described by a geographer are site and situation. Site refers to the geographical features, including topography, vegetation cover, climatic conditions, and similar things. Situation, on the other hand, is sometimes referred to as relative location and refers to the region around the location. In other words, how does this location compare to other locations, and how are transportation networks used to connect it to its surroundings? In other words, how does this location compare to others, and how are its connections to other locations via transportation systems? A great illustration of location versus circumstance is New Orleans. Because it is below sea level and subject to floods, New Orleans' location is not ideal for a metropolis. However, New Orleans is in a far better position since it is linked to a significant chunk of the Mississippi River's network of navigable waterways, is adjacent to the Gulf of Mexico, and is easily accessible to coastal trade. As a result, even extreme floods such that caused by Hurricane Katrina in 2005, New Orleans has not been abandoned for a very long time [9], [10].

Regions

While site and circumstance may aid in describing a place, the idea of regions can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the globe and the links between locations. An area that has a shared quality that unites it as a whole is referred to as a region. Geographers utilise regions to explain how different locations are connected to one another and to demystify a complicated world. The formal and functional are the two main categories of regions. Formal areas are distinguished by uniformity or homogeneity in one or more separate qualities. Regions may be identified by both physical and human qualities, such as climate or flora types in the context of physical geography, or by human traits such as language or ethnicity in the context of human geography. A map of the US states is one example of a map with official regions. Because each state is controlled in a similar or distinctive manner and so shows homogeneity, each state on this map might be regarded as a formal area. An area with a central node or focal point to which other locations within the region are related by some activity is referred to as a functional region, also known as a nodal region. Cities may be thought of as functional zones where the city centre could act as the focal point for the remainder of the metropolitan area. On a smaller scale, a Wi-Fi hotspot might be seen as the centre of a useful area that reaches the Wi-Fi signal's range. With the restaurant serving as the region's primary hub, even the delivery zone for the neighbourhood pizzeria would be useful. Since regions are arbitrary constructs, it might be argued whether or not a certain location belongs in one. For instance, experts are divided on the precise size of the American South as a distinct territory. What distinguishes this area? It depends on the traits one uses to characterise the area, such as its cuisine, dialect, political leanings, historical ties to the Civil War, or any other aspect that comes to mind when one imagines the South as a largely uniform formal territory. Most geographers consider Texas to be in the South, yet West Texas and East Texas are quite different, and Florida is also much diversified. In terms of political affiliation and ethnic makeup, extreme southern Florida is quite unlike from Florida's panhandle. Personal preferences determine how different people define the Southern area. Therefore, the Southern area may be considered a vernacular region since the limits of these regions rely on the viewpoints or mental maps of various groups of people who reside both within and outside of those regions. As a result, defining regions and the idea of regions is a complicated process that incorporates generalisations and different points of view.

Collection and Analysis of Geographic DATA

Two significant tools that are especially useful to geographers have been created to analyse and build regions, characterise locations, and do extensive geographic analysis. The first is remote sensing, or gathering information about the Earth's surface using aerial vehicles like satellites, aircraft, or drones. Images captured by these aerial devices may provide a plethora of useful information about a location's physical and human qualities. For instance, satellite imaging can show how much human activity has impacted Brazil's Amazon jungle. Additionally, imagery may portray details that are invisible to the human sight, such the surface temperature of the Earth. An example of this would be a thermal infrared imaging, which may display heated temperatures in red and colder temperatures in blue.

Digital imagery in a format that can be incorporated into Geographic Information Systems, the second crucial tool used by geographers, is present. GIS is a system that combines computer hardware and software to store, analyse, and display geographic data with computer mapping functionality. Geographic data is organised into layers, and these layers of data may be analysed in a variety of complex ways. Every data point in a GIS is georeferenced to a specific place on the Earth's surface, and each of these data points has unique features depending on the data layer with which it is linked. A data point's height, soils, the existence of water, per-capita income, ethnicity, and other characteristics may all be represented as data layers. Data layers may be overlaid to provide fascinating insights into the relationships

between local characteristics/factors, such as the associations between per-capita income and ethnicity or the relationships between soil types and vegetative cover.

GIS also provides a wide range of other skills, like the ability to determine the least expensive route for travel, see in line of sight from a certain point, or create 3-D representations of metropolitan areas. Businesses and government organisations all around the globe use GIS to monitor crime and first responder activities as well as to answer queries, plan developments, map supply routes, and more because to their versatile ability to show geographic information. Given that GIS employment are prevalent in many private sector companies as well as at the municipal, state, and federal levels, it is not surprise that this field is one of one of the fastest increasing job markets. The Topologically Integrated Geographic Encoding and Referencing database is maintained by the U.S. Census Bureau as well.

Diffusion of Changes in Places

So far, we've learned about locations and regions, how maps are made, and how geographic data is gathered and analysed, which has resulted in a relatively static examination of the Earth. On the other hand, diffusion is one of the reasons why locations change on the dynamic, ever-changing Earth. Diffusion is the movement of ideas, things, innovations, and other practises from one location to another. In a process known as relocation diffusion, when individuals migrate or relocate to a new site, they carry their thoughts, possessions, and the like with them. Another aspect of the diffusion process is the spreading of an idea, cultural practise, etc. from a central location. This kind of dissemination is known as expansion diffusion, and it may take place via person-to-person interaction or through a hierarchy, or stratified situation, in which the concept may start in a big city and then move to medium-sized cities, and then smaller ones.

The Human-Environment Linkage

A mountain range is an example of a physical topography that may have a significant impact on the spatial diffusion process. Diffusion may be hindered or even prevented by these natural obstacles since migration and transportation through mountain ranges might be restricted. This is only one illustration of the interaction between people and their surroundings. Human actions may have a big impact on the environment, and the environment can have a big impact on how people live and work. Environmental determinism, which has generally been rejected, and possibilities are two influential viewpoints on the link between humans and their environment in the study of geography. Environmental determinism is the theory that civilizations are shaped and created by the physical or natural environment; in other words, culture is basically determined by the environment.

Environmental determinists, for instance, believed that since it was assumed to be relatively simple to get food in the tropics, humans who lived there were lazy and backward. Europeans, on the other hand, were more productive and imaginative since they lived in stimulating climes with abrupt seasonal changes. Although this point of view clearly has racial overtones, contemporary geographers nonetheless acknowledge the significant influence the environment has on communities, as shown, for instance, by theories that the Anasazi people in the American Southwest perished due to prolonged drought. Compared to the people who now live in the states of New Mexico and Arizona, the Anasazi, who are said to have lived in the Southwest of the United States from 100 B.C. to 1300 A.D., were ill-prepared to cope with drought.

Possibility believe that individuals can adapt to their surroundings despite whatever limitations they may present, and that if a society has superior technology, its citizens will be more able to do so and further develop its culture in a variety of ways. Because there are more possibilities, this phrase is called possibilism. In Dubai, United Arab Emirates, one may see a great illustration of optimism. Although the idea of snow skiing in the Middle East may

sound absurd, plans are now on to construct the longest indoor ski slope in the world in this city, where there is already one ski slope. However, even highly developed cultures may still be significantly impacted by the environment and have little to no influence over the forces of nature. As just a few instances, consider the devastation caused by storms in the US, tsunamis in Japan, and fire in the US.

CONCLUSION

Geography is more than just describing and charting things. It aims to comprehend the dynamics, relationships, and processes that change the Earth's surface and have an impact on people's lives. Our understanding of environmental sustainability, resource management, urban planning, catastrophe prevention, and social justice is influenced by geography. It also explains how our world has been affected by globalisation, climate change, and technology progress. In conclusion, the study of space, location, and the interactions between the natural and human surroundings are all included in the idea of geography. It offers a framework for comprehending the complexity of the environment we live in, including socioeconomic systems, cultural practises, and physical landscapes. Geography's theoretical underpinnings, analytical methods, and multidisciplinary approach help us better comprehend how phenomena are organised spatially and how decisions are made that affect our common world.

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CHAPTER 2

HEALTH AND POPULATION: AN IN-DEPTH EXPLORATION

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ABSTRACT:

Population and health are interwoven ideas with significant effects on people, society, and the evolution of the whole world. The interaction between health determinants and demographic trends is highlighted in this abstract, which gives a broad picture of the link between health and the population. Physical, mental, and social well-being are all included in the multifaceted idea of health. Numerous variables, including as biological traits, dietary habits, socioeconomic status, environmental circumstances, and access to healthcare services, have an impact on both the health of people and groups. Fertility rates, mortality rates, and patterns of disease prevalence are just a few of the population dynamics that these health variables may have a substantial impact on. Demographic patterns entail the investigation of population size, composition, dispersion, and dynamics. Aspects including birth rates, mortality rates, population growth, migratory trends, and age distribution are included in this. As fluctuations in population composition and age distribution may affect the frequency of certain illnesses, the need for healthcare services, and the healthcare requirements of various population groups, demographic changes can have a significant impact on health outcomes. Additionally, population and health are intertwined within a larger social and economic framework. Both health outcomes and demographic trends may be influenced by socioeconomic factors including poverty, education, and access to healthcare. Lower socioeconomic regions, for instance, can have greater rates of sickness and death as well as lower fertility rates.

KEYWORDS:

Birth, Health, Molarity, Population, Region.

INTRODUCTION

The interaction between population health and other factors is intricate and multifaceted. On the one hand, population dynamics and features may influence health outcomes. For instance, chronic illnesses and age-related ailments may provide greater health problems to an ageing population. On the other side, population dynamics may be impacted by health problems. Better healthcare and public health initiatives may lower death rates and raise life expectancy, which can boost the population or modify the age distribution. For the purpose of resolving public health issues and fostering wellbeing, it is essential to comprehend the connection between health and the population. It aids in the development of focused interventions, efficient resource allocation, and planning for the healthcare requirements of various demographic groups for policymakers and healthcare professionals[1], [2].

Insights into social determinants of health, health equality, and the influence of social, economic, and environmental variables on health inequalities may also be gained through researching health and population. We shall examine the human population in this chapter. We'll examine its size to see if it may be expanding or contracting. We'll look at scale's function. We'll examine international variations. We'll see everything from the perspective of spatiality as well. At 7.5 billion, the number of people on earth is at an all-time high. With estimates of many billions more within a very short period of time, it has increased from fewer than one billion to more than seven in only a few centuries. Since the earth is a closed system, we can discuss population at the global level without taking migration into account, but when we talk about individual countries, it can be helpful to distinguish between the natural increase rate the rate of population change that only takes into account births and death sand the impact of migration[3], [4].

There are some geographic patterns that manifest themselves, however the signal is really noisy. Many of the nations with sizable populations are also sizable physically. For a long time, countries like China and India had populations that were comparable in size. Explorations of population expansion are often interrupted by debates over religion or developmental stages. Although they are not insignificant, religion and development are not as significant as is sometimes believed. Individual traits no longer carry the same weight as they formerly did. Poverty is by far the factor that contributes most often to greater population growth. There are several explanations for this, two of which were already discussed. Because of infant mortality, some individuals choose to have a big family in the vain hope that some of their offspring may live to maturity. Another is the impact of migration, which may increase wages by sending some people to work in other nations while depopulating the areas where migrants are being sent[5], [6].

The pace of population growth has slowed in practically every nation. A third of the world's population, or 36 percent, is concentrated in China and India. Any change in any of these two areas will have a significant effect on global values. The World Bank estimates that the population of China is increasing by .5% year, that of India by 1.2 annually, that of the United States by 7% annually, and that of Indonesia by 1.2 annually. Since decades, all of these nations' rates have decreased, including those of Indonesia and India[7], [8]. While the populations of Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Iraq, and Kenya are growing quickly, those of Japan, Russia, Germany, Spain, and Ukraine are all declining. Population loss in affluent nations has an impact on social programmes like retirement, which are supported by a dwindling labour force. A lack of workers in highly developed civilizations is accelerating the development of robots. Rapid population increase may lead to widespread migration and societal unrest in less developed areas. Why is it so difficult to pinpoint a single factor that describes the population dynamics of a certain nation? The importance of geography. Every location consists of a particular set of variables and how they interact.

Greeks and Ecumenical

Without a quick overview of population philosophy, no discussion of population is complete. As is customary, this conversation begins with the ancient Greeks. The Greeks believed they were fortunate to live where they did. In fact, they believed that the habitable portion of the Earth lies in its very centre. The habitable portion of the Earth was known as acumen. The Greeks believed that regions north of them were too cold and regions south of them were too hot. It's normal for organisations to put their own country at the centre of goodness. The Greeks came to the conclusion that the environment explained how people were distributed. Their way of thinking still has some water, but only at the most draconian definitions. There are several regions with extremely big populations that the Greeks would have considered too cold, hot, damp, or dry.

Contemporary Population Theory

Food is the starting point for modern population debates. Modern people have been aware of the link between the food supply and the fast growing human population since Thomas Malthus's day. Malthus himself was an English preacher who devoted a significant amount of time to researching political economics. His opinions reflected not just his period, but also the environment in which he lived. In Malthus' instance, the social, political, and economic climate were undergoing transformation. Karl Marx disagreed with Malthus' theories. Marx argued that uneven social, political, and economic systems, rather than just population expansion, were to blame for the creation of artificial shortages rather than population growth alone. Additionally, he thought that a rising populace strengthened the grip of capitalists since it made it simpler to take advantage of big groups of unemployed workers.

With works like Fairfield Osborn's *Our Plundered Planet* and William Vogt's *Road to Survival*, a rush of publications warning of the perils of population increase appeared in the

post-World War II era. The Population Bomb by Paul and Anne Ehrlich was perhaps the bluntest. The hazards of population increase that is unregulated are highlighted in these texts. According to Malthus, population growth often outpaces increases in food supply, and this trend will continue until food resources are exhausted. In other words, Malthus predicted famine, conflict, and illness, and these prophecies were resurrected in these Neo-Malthusian writings. In line with Malthus, some of the contemporary environmental debate focuses on controlling population increase. All of these works have the trait of attempting to foretell the future. The ability to determine whether or not these prophecies came true is one of the benefits of living centuries or decades after these publications.

According to Ehrlich's book, widespread famine due to a lack of food and a decline in food production will occur by the 1970s. Maybe nothing has kept us alive. We have just recently been able to delay the time of calculation a little. While studying the human population, agricultural economist Ester Boserup came to a practically opposing conclusion in the 20th century. She did so for a variety of reasons. She was first born one and a half centuries later, which provided her with a lot more information to analyse. Second, she did not develop into an adult inside the confines of an expanding kingdom. In the early years of the UN, she served as a functionary. She was a woman, thirdly, and she had economics training. Each of these elements was crucial.

DISCUSSION

Children serve as both a labour and a retirement plan in preindustrial communities. Families may attempt to employ a big number of kids to boost their financial chances. Literally, children are a valuable resource. In civilizations that industrialise, birth rates decline. When women join the paid employment, they sharply decline. In industrialised cultures, children typically do not work and do not contribute to the economy. The emphasis in these countries is often on educating kids to become technologically adept workers. Large families are less necessary in developed countries since they often provide for their older citizens. Additionally, infant mortality is lower in developed nations, which means that more kids grow up to be productive members of society.

This is influenced by women's rising social status. Women who are in charge of their own life seldom ever decide to have a lot of kids. In connection with this, the development and dissemination of birth control methods has led to a decrease in the population in areas where they are accessible. Technology in agriculture has advanced significantly. Compared to farming a century ago, more food is now produced on less land. More productive crops and pesticides are partly to blame for these gains in food production, but advances in food delivery and processing also play a role. Consider the benefits that dehydration, freezing, canning, and refrigeration have provided for us. Moreover, food may be transported across great distances at a reasonable price. Neo-Malthusians were somehow downplaying all of these emerging technologies at the time they were becoming accessible.

Due to erosion or desertification, some marginal land has become useless, although this land was not highly productive in the first place, thus the word marginal. The increased output has more than made up for the loss of this land. Boserup seems to have won at this time, but it could not be. We have been blending our scale conversations up to this point. Boserup really wrote on the industrialised nations of the globe whereas Malthus mostly focused on the British Isles. The local circumstances might be a lot more complicated. There is adequate food available on a worldwide basis, and this has been the case for years. In fact, many industrialised nations produce more food than they can sell or eat themselves. The circumstances in your area are quite different. Some affluent nations have struggled to produce enough food to sustain their own populations for more than a century. One of them is Malthus' own country, the United Kingdom. Nevertheless, nobody ever calls the

U.K. overpopulated. Exactly why not? Because they have access to the global market for food. Localised famines occur when less wealthy areas are unable to feed their own populations and refuse to purchase food from other regions. Famines may also occur in regions of a nation that are politically marginalised when centralised rulers decide not to direct resources towards the oppressed. It's possible that politically unstable areas lack the infrastructure required to transport free food from other parts of the globe. Assuming that providing food help is indeed a good idea. These kinds of issues still exist today, and they affect the population in unanticipated ways, such as by sparking mass migration or violent war.

In conclusion, food production has not been a worldwide constraint on population growth. People do not, however, live at the global level; rather, they live in their local communities under the given conditions. The reality of food insecurity is crucial in many regions. Despite the fact that debates about population often begin with food, they cannot stop there. Beyond their immediate nutritional demands, people have other needs. They also need clothes and shelter. They want for a high level of life as well, with heating, electricity, cars, and technology. Energy and resources are needed to fulfil each of these wants and requirements. The strain on the earth during the previous two centuries is less a result of a growing population and more a result of rising standards of living [9], [10].

The Ecological Fallacy and Scale

Numbers might be somewhat deceptive. You may be wondering, what does this tell me about a particular woman? After reading that the average woman in the United States has 1.86 children. The answer is that it doesn't tell you anything. Keep in mind that this statistic is an average of data for the whole nation, therefore it only applies to that scale and provides information about the nation as a whole. The notion that statistics produced at one level of aggregation may be used at other levels of aggregation is known as the ecological fallacy. Similar to this, one of the main issues with maps is that they might lead us to believe that two locations are identical inside a boundary. We persuade ourselves that the United States is only one spot when we see a nation like it on a map since it just has one colour for the whole territory. It is, too. But it's composed of a lot of smaller spaces. There are fifty of them, and all of them have 3144 counties. And each of those things represents an aggregate level. Only one county's data is used by Webb County. Both the United States and New Mexico utilise the statistics for all 33 of its counties. Each aggregate level has a determined value. They are all distinctive. And they still don't provide any personal information.

Development and Population

Innovation has been sparked by population increase, but oddly enough, not often where that growth is now occurring. Emigration or civil unrest will happen instead of new technologies and paradigm changes if population growth is much greater than economic development. Russia, which has a huge geographical mass but a tiny population, may be underpopulated in comparison to China, its neighbour. Large areas of deserted terrain have always attracted outsider interest. The issue that most people often connect with population is overpopulation, not under population. Overpopulation often comes to mind when we think about population issues. Overpopulation What is it? The answer is dependent, just like the majority of previous questions we've posed thus far. When a population is too large for the resources at hand, overpopulation results. The boundaries of each nation are used in this population cartogram, and the population density is used to modify the nation's size.

Population is Differential

The population of the globe is still increasing, but the expansion has halted and is now exceedingly unequal. Some areas continue to see fast growth. Some are experiencing population declines while others are increasing at a far slower rate. Using a variety of various rates, we may compare variations across locations. Rates are ratios that compare the

frequency of an event with the size of the audience it affects. For instance, the number of births per 1,000 inhabitants in a certain location during a specific year is used to determine the crude birth rate. Similar to the crude death rate. It is computed as the number of fatalities per 1000 residents in a certain location during a specific year. Although these figures may be used to compare locations, they have several restrictions. They don't tell you anything about specific people living in the country since they are aggregate variables that describe the whole nation. You cannot generalise about a woman based just on the fact that the typical woman in a nation has 2.3 children. The ecological fallacy is the assertion that you can infer anything about an individual from aggregated data. It cannot, thus it does not.

The data lose their unique features after being combined. Also, there is no guarantee that the rates are related to one another. The crude birth rate doesn't provide any information regarding the typical number of children born per woman, the typical age at which women start families, etc. The crude mortality rates do not distinguish between new-born and elderly deaths. Since industrialised nations often have older populations, high mortality rates are frequently observed there. In some respects, this is a sign of growth. A high infant mortality rate is almost always a symptom of underdevelopment. Low-income nations often have the highest crude birth rates. More intricacy exists in the crude death rate. Due to high new-born and child mortality rates, several nations on the map, like Chad, have a high crude death rate. On the other hand, Russia has a rapidly ageing population and a social security system that has largely crumbled.

The number of births required to balance off deaths is referred to as the replacement level of a population. This is often discussed in terms of women's average fertility. In contemporary civilizations, women need to have 2.1 children on average during their lifetimes in order to maintain a stable population. This figure compensates for people who never reproduce by counting a mother and her spouse. Localities with fertility rates below 2.1 will eventually become smaller. The areas above that will expand, and the areas far above that will expand swiftly. The above graph illustrates how many locations are at or below replacement while many others are expanding quite quickly. The US population is below replacement level. Immigration boosts its demographics.

What kind of locations are expanding the quickest? These are areas that are underdeveloped, unstable politically, or both. It can seem illogical to do this. Why would individuals settle in such impoverished areas and have children there? Keep in mind that different households have kids. Children might sometimes appear like a way to get through difficult circumstances. What kind of locations are deteriorating? This is more difficult, but in general, the birth rate declines as the female population becomes more educated and powerful. Although not a perfect, linear connection, this one is helpful as a starting point. Why is there such a wide range? The importance of geography. While Afghanistan and Somalia have almost no government at all, Uganda has a government that supports population increase. Few additional commonalities exist between Russia and Australia apart from comparable fertility rates.

Although population statistics in general are valuable, understanding a population's age and gender distribution is often also helpful. Using a population pyramid, this is shown. A population pyramid divides the population into cohorts, or groups, according to sex and age ranges. You may learn a lot about the demographic dynamics of the nation from the resultant form. The nation has a high birth rate and a high mortality rate if the form is genuinely a pyramid. Population-stable nations resemble a column. Some nations even have a disproportionately small number of young individuals compared to their older cohorts of people. The first thing you need to know is that all of these figures are approximations. The population figures as of right now are sufficient for broad comparison. When you can see, when we move into the future, the disparities between regions become more obvious. More

than two billion people are added to the world's population, but what is fascinating are the changing dynamics across nations.

China decreases in population by more than 30 million, while the US increases by 64 million, and the impoverished Saharan nation of Niger doubles in population by 52 million! The doubling time, or how long it would take for a population to double at present rates of growth, is one of the most practical metrics of population. Most of human history, so far as we know, has seen very sluggish development, with doubling periods measured in millennia. The worldwide doubling time was as little as 35 years throughout the 19th and 20th centuries. This has a wide range of effects. These additional billions will need housing, food, and clothes on a worldwide scale. In other words, they will need resources. Additionally, they will have demands that demand even more resources and energy. This will be very difficult, if not impossible, to meet in locations like Niger. A very different issue arises in nations like China. Both of these populations are ageing and shrinking. In industrialised and some emerging nations, life expectancy the average age of a population has been rising for decades. Birth rates have decreased for a number of factors at the same period. This indicates that the population's elderly population has increased over time.

A significant portion of the ageing populations in many nations will be unable to find employment. Many aspects of contemporary civilization are reliant on population expansion, which has been anticipated by societies throughout the previous few centuries. Social security for the elderly has been made possible because to population expansion. Few cities have made preparations for a future with fewer employees. Although this transition won't happen overnight, the consequences will be profound. Population momentum is another quality that has to be acknowledged. It is unrealistic to anticipate rapid population growth when a significant portion of your population is over 45. A huge pool of young individuals will eventually have their own children, thus countries with youthful populations should prepare for population growth. The stark disparities in life expectancy across nations are seen on this map. People often live into their ninth decade in certain countries. They are unlikely to reach their sixth in certain cases.

The dependence ratio is simply the proportion of persons in a society who are unemployed to those who are employed. Children under the age of 15 and seniors over the age of 65 make up the dependence ratio's two primary components, albeit the extent to which each group is reliant varies. Children need care and education but often don't contribute much to the economy. The elderly are the segment of the population with the greatest medical expenditures and might be too ill to work. Where does the money come from so that these two groups may be taken care of? It originates with the labourers who create riches. Each worker may have to care for a large number of dependents if the dependence ratio is high, and there will be less money left over for the employees. Despite being used to compare locations, the dependence ratio has a tendency to be deceptive. Children do not rely on their parents in many less developed areas. They are employed and not enrolled in school. They contribute to a family's resources rather than depleting them. The elderly may still be employed in certain regions. Future choices are influenced by the dependence ratio. Will a nation need additional schools or facilities for assisted living? What does this signify in terms of pensions or retirement? Will there be an increase or reduction in the quantity of workers? You can see that various locations have distinct possibilities and problems by comparing China, Niger, and the U.S.

The Change in Democracy

For many years, geographers have modelled the local population dynamics. The Demographic Transition model is what these models' output looks like. It outlines a number of phases that civilizations go through as they advance and become more industrialised. These models depict the typical demographic circumstances that many nations go through.

Birth and mortality rates are both high in Stage One, the pre-modern era. These two elements combine to keep the population modest yet steady. By Stage Two, as society becomes more industrialised, food is more consistently accessible, the water is cleaner, sanitization is better, and medical treatment is more advanced. Death rates decline, especially those for infants.

However, there is a delay in the birth rate reduction. People must gradually become used to the new realities of urban industrial life. The population is expanding quickly since the birth rate is still high and the mortality rate is low. As society starts to reach an equilibrium between births and deaths, Stage Three is characterised by a declining birth rate. The population is continually growing since the birth rate continues to be greater than the mortality rate. Population momentum is the ongoing growth of the population. The overall balance between births and deaths at the conclusion of Stage Three defines it. In Stage 4, there is a return to population stability, albeit with a considerably larger population.

Population Impact

Recall the contrast between Bangladesh and Russia from earlier? This section covers the many methods for estimating the pressure that people place on the area they occupy. You may remember that we started off by just looking at individuals by nation. The restrictions are quite clear, but this is a nice place to start. Physically bigger nations can accommodate more people. We must use a technique that switches from an assessment of the whole population to some kind of per capita assessment. These are many, and each offers advantages. The simplest density is arithmetic density. It is just the nation's population divided by its size. Due to the widespread usage of the metric system across the globe, the area is often expressed in square kilometres.

The denominator of physiological density is different, while the numerator is the same. It solely considers arable land, rather than utilising all the land in a nation. The overall area of land is reduced by areas that are not exploited for agriculture, such as deserts, lakes, mountaintops, and other such areas. This is helpful in showing how much pressure is being placed on the available acreage. Please be aware that this statistic does not include food that is foraged or obtained via hunting on non-agricultural territory. Agricultural density and physiological density have the same denominator, but agricultural density has a distinct numerator. It solely employs farmers, not the whole population. This gives a figure that is an excellent indicator of development, or more accurately, of underdevelopment. Agriculture is mechanised in developed nations, where there are also few farmers per capita. Each farm is often rather vast in order to make a good living. There are more farmers per hectare in areas with high agricultural density, which means farms there are probably going to make less money. Of course, this statistic is predicated on the premise that individuals cultivate food to support their livelihoods. The comparison is less meaningful if they are directly consuming the product outside of the monetary system.

Carrying capacity is a term related to food production. Simply put, carrying capacity refers to how many people a certain plot of land can support. It's not quite that easy, however. The carrying capacity changes with time. Technology advances alongside changes in environmental factors. The use of technology has greatly increased the carrying capacity of land in affluent industrialized nations. These technologies might range from something simple like irrigation ditches to something intricate like genetically altering actual plants and animals. A snapshot of carrying capacity is taken at a certain moment.

Advanced Population

Both the existing population situation and the anticipated population pyramids were taken into account while looking at the population pyramids. The chapter's first graph didn't end with the current year when we looked at it. It offered three alternative forecasts for the immediate future. Estimating future populations is crucial on several levels, including the local, the national, and the global. Both big and small societies make an effort to plan for the

distribution of resources and the growth of their economies. Projections of the population are challenging. They make an effort to predict the most likely future using the conditions as they are now.

The issue is that things could change from now to the future. It may be possible to treat an illness that is impairing fertility. More than anticipated climate change is possible. There is a chance of another global war. Any number of unanticipated significant occurrences might take place and render a prediction wholly invalid. Black Swan incidents are what Nicholas Taleb refers to. They are things that, unless you learn about them, you are unaware of. Projections will be made nonetheless since they are required.

Region of Health

Although the majority of this chapter's parts have focused on population health, there are certain topics that are best handled separately. The study of disease or health over space is known as medical geography or the geography of health. The same way that population characteristics may be used to compare locations, health characteristics can be used to compare locations. Societies often go through periods of demographic transition, just as they frequently go through phases of epidemiological change. Both the epidemiological and demographic transitions have some overlap. Larger populations are also associated with healthier populations because to advancements in the food supply and hygienic conditions. However, they are not precisely the same. The study of illnesses and how they manifest themselves is known as epidemiology. The link between development and sickness is shown by the epidemiological transition. Infant mortality is high and infectious illness is the biggest hazard in less developed areas.

Chronic diseases including cancer, diabetes, and heart disease are more common in highly developed nations and pose a greater risk to health. The fact that individuals tend to live longer in industrialised nations is one of the factors contributing to the gap between those regions and less developed ones. Alzheimer's disease won't be an issue in nations where the average death age is forty. Morbidity relates to illness, while mortality refers to death. To learn more about the health of a population, we may examine various rates of death and illness. Diabetes used to be linked to development, but that connection is fading. Both diabetes and obesity are growing issues in underdeveloped nations. Malaria, on the other hand, is a sickness that mostly affects underdeveloped nations or areas. Malaria will undoubtedly be a concern in emerging nations' poorer regions, but not necessarily in their affluent ones. The disparities between wealthy and less developed nations are one of the shifts that have taken place in medical geography. Previously, the obesity pandemic was only seen to be a problem in the developed world, but it has now spread to many areas of the poor world. Infectious illnesses like HIV and Hepatitis C have also become issues in wealthy nations.

Different illnesses have been decreased or eliminated in various regions of the globe as a result of the efforts of different organisations. Smallpox is extinct in the wild, and recent years have seen a drop in the number of instances of dracunculiasis from the millions that it had thirty years ago. There is a considerable decline in other illnesses. Through vaccine campaigns, polio's former global reach of millions of cases each year has been condensed to only two nations. Re-emerging diseases are now a distinct class of illnesses. These illnesses, which were formerly believed to be completely curable, are suddenly reappearing in populations that were previously mostly free of them. Re-emerging diseases include illnesses like TB and diphtheria, whose prevalence had been steadily dropping for decades.

While there is some growth in the human population, it is not as rapid as in previous years. There is uneven growth, with some areas seeing high population expansion while others are experiencing population loss. Poor areas often have the fastest growth rates. Population expansion has a location-specific impact as well; highly developed areas with small

populations often use more resources than less developed areas with larger populations. Numerous methods exist for measuring the influence of population, and each method offers a different window into the dynamics of the human population. The two main causes underpinning the topic of our next chapter, migration, are uneven population increase and poverty.

CONCLUSION

In summary, population and health are interwoven ideas that affect and impact one another. A variety of biological, social, and environmental variables are at play in the complicated interaction between demographic trends and health-related concerns. Designing efficient public health initiatives, advancing health equality, and meeting the healthcare requirements of various communities all depend on understanding and analysing this link. Global initiatives to enhance health outcomes and guarantee the welfare of people and communities benefit from a thorough knowledge of population dynamics and health.

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CHAPTER 3

GEOGRAPHY AND MIGRATION: AN OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT:

Migration research has had a significant role in influencing geography, and vice versa, therefore the histories of both fields are entwined. The history of the connection between geography and migration is briefly summarized in this abstract, with particular attention paid to significant events and how they have affected our perception of location, time, and human mobility. Migration has shaped civilizations, cultures, and landscapes throughout history as a key element of human life. Ancient civilizations like the Mesopotamians, Egyptians, and Greeks understood the use of geography in figuring out migratory patterns, trading routes, and empire development. Early geographers documented human movements and explored uncharted territories as part of their early geological theories. Geography made great progress throughout the 19th and 20th centuries at a time when enormous migration was taking place. Geographers have studied the reasons, patterns, and effects of migration in order to better understand how the industrial revolution, political upheavals, and economic possibilities led to unprecedented human mobility. Leading geographers like Ellen Simple and Carl Sauer emphasised the impact of environment, culture, and spatial relationships on migration patterns.

KEYWORDS:

Geography, Laws, Majority, Migration, Migrants.

INTRODUCTION

The majority of human history was spent staying quite close to the place of origin. Humans didn't leave a very narrow region of Eastern Africa until just around 65,000 years ago because long-distance migration was so perilous, unpredictable, and hazardous. The enormous migration of people to every part of the acumen began at that time, and it would take tens of thousands of years to accomplish. Although scientists are still at odds over the precise times and causes of our ancestors' decision to fly, there is compelling evidence that periodic climatic change may have had a key impact. The earliest human remains found in North America date back to around 13,000 years ago. It is thought that during the last Ice Age, humans crossed an ice bridge from Eastern Russia into Alaska before spending the next several thousand years dispersing across North and South America as well as The Caribbean. Regardless of the age, contemporary people have been mobile for a very long time. This tendency has recently picked up since prospective migrants have greater access to information and less expensive transportation[1], [2].

The major faiths in the world were also largely formed as a result of migration. For instance, the extensive migration of people within the Roman Empire along the well-travelled trade routes linking contemporary Israel and Palestine with Turkey, Greece, Italy, and other regions of the empire where new concepts, cultures, and beliefs were shared, contributed to the spread of Christianity. The most important tales in Christianity and Judaism often describe the journeys of foreigners to unknown places. Similar to how the prophet of Islam went from Mecca to Medina in the seventh century, religious beliefs were disseminated when troops, traders, and merchants crossed North Africa and ultimately made their way into Europe and Southeast Asia. Migration has, in many respects, had the greatest global influence of all human endeavours[2], [3].

Terms and Information

Interregional, intraregional, or transnational migration are all possible. Emigrants are people leaving, whereas immigrants are those going in. The difference between the number of immigrants and emigrants in any particular year is known as net migration. The United Nations releases statistics and analyses on immigration and emigration every year, however these numbers are mostly based on official sources, which might vary in their level of reliability. For instance, the United States has databases on all kinds of immigration, including illegal immigrants, students, tourists, and guest workers. Except in a few prominent instances when people have renounced citizenship, the US does not keep or release statistics on persons who have departed. Recognising the reality of multiple citizenship or residence, nations like Mexico and the Philippines routinely monitor their abroad nationals [4], [5].

Return migration, while it is often under-reported, also constitutes a sizable movement of people. For instance, up to 25 percent of European immigrants to the US in the late nineteenth century made their way back home. More individuals have recently moved from the US to Mexico than the other way around. Therefore, migration is not only a one-way, permanent, single-directional travel from point A to point B, but a complex nexus of movement [6], [7]. Despite the many patterns and processes of migration, British demographer Ernst Ravenstein identified several universal features of movement and migrants, which became known as the laws of migration. A lot of them are still relevant now, 135 years later. All of the laws apply in general in 2018, with the significant exception of number five, which is still relevant today. Men travelled abroad somewhat more often than women, but the reality is far more nuanced. In reality, when large-scale immigration to North America rose in the early 20th century period when most immigrants were males looking for land, riches, and opportunity in the New World, Ravenstein's predictions of female migration turned out to be inaccurate [8], [9].

In order to give a fuller knowledge of the causes and impacts of migration locally, regionally, nationally, and worldwide, a range of non-government organisations, research teams, and humanitarian organisations monitor the movement of people inside nations and across borders. For instance, the Migration Information Source provides a multitude of reports, analyses, and data visualisations that significantly improve our knowledge of migration in different geographic contexts. Regular surveys by the Pew Research Centre often examine US Latino demographics. Other non-profits keep tabs on immigration's impacts in the US and provide regular reports, although often they lack impartiality or editorial rigour since the goal of such initiatives is to influence legislative changes that would lower immigration numbers. For instance, the Federation for American Immigration (FAIR) is a group whose specific goals include lowering immigration and preserving European Americans' long-standing cultural history. Similarly, the Centre for Immigration Studies provides evidence in favour of its stated goal of reducing immigration of all sorts in the 20th century and creating an America that admits fewer immigrants.

The majority of emigrants originate in poorer, developing countries, while the majority of destinations have historically been richer, developed countries, according to general patterns in global movement, often known as North-South migration. This trend is quite recognisable to most Americans and Canadians since, in recent decades, an unprecedented number of Latinos have immigrated to the US in search of better prospects, higher-paying employment, and an escape from structural poverty in the developing world. Similar to how recent trends in Europe have seen a record number of Eastern Europeans migrate west and north in search of better paying jobs than those offered at home. Such salary disparities, meanwhile, do not fully convey the situation. For instance, earnings in Chicago are often substantially higher than those in other areas of Illinois, yet not everyone moves to Chicago merely to make more money. Even yet, wages only reveal a portion of the tale. Unless you're in Manhattan, Paris,

or Hong Kong while you're reading this, you could probably find a job somewhere that pays more than what you're now making tomorrow. Geographers are aware that a person's choice to relocate or remain put depends in large part on variables such as connection to place, cultural considerations, the desire to remain near friends and family, and others[10].

DISCUSSION

The trend of highly skilled migrants, who often enjoy a considerably greater freedom of movement than those with lower levels of education and less abilities, has also been true throughout time. For instance, nations and businesses make attempts to entice the best and the brightest minds to immigrate in order to bring such skill sets into a place where they are deficient. This is done in the case of computer software engineers, database managers, and a host of other highly-demanded abilities. People with highly sought-after skill sets are often given travel permits by nations. A points system is used in nations like Australia, Canada, and New Zealand to choose which of the highly qualified candidates will be permitted entry. The term brain drain refers to the theoretical notion that when a rich nation hires the best brains from a poorer country, it may be detrimental to the receiving country since many of the most brilliant and qualified individuals are snatched away by better-paying jobs. Thus, the phrase brain gain describes the advantages a nation has when it acquires all those brains rather than having to create them from start.

Recently, nations have also come to terms with the idea of brain waste, according to which receiving nations fail to fully use the human capital present in many immigrant communities. For instance, from 2011 to 2015, over half of all immigrants to the US had at least a bachelor's degree, yet more than 2 million of these immigrants still labour in low-skilled occupations despite having college degrees because companies and governments do not recognise degrees obtained abroad. Similar to the brain-drain/brain-gain phenomena, certain nations, like the US, experience both. The most educated and competent individuals continue to leave other states for California and New York, for instance.

Such transfers of educated and highly trained individuals are taken extremely seriously by governments who want to maintain the highly skilled in their own countries. However, framing migration as a gain or loss also misses the point. The majority of nations that accept migrants also send them. In addition to receiving a lot of immigrants, the US is also a nation of emigration, where retirees prefer to live abroad or long-term migrants decide to return home once they reach retirement age. Migration is multifaceted; it is neither intrinsically positive nor negative. This chapter aims to highlight some of the crucial aspects of migration in the twenty-first century so that you may better comprehend a subject that politicians all too often manipulate to win support or establish credibility. For a moment, let's set aside those trite arguments and think about the fundamental components of global migration.

Patterns that are global, national, regional, and local

Worldwide Patterns

Despite the fact that geopolitical and economic dynamics are subject to change throughout time, it is important to comprehend how present global, national, and regional patterns of migration are influenced by different geographic processes. Despite the fact that the great majority of individuals do not go abroad, migration has a significant influence on the world. Imagine how stationary our world would be if no one ever moved! How dull it would be if there were no coconut palms in Latin America, buffaloes still ruled the American Midwest, and most people looked the same. Instead, new ideas, genetic traces, illnesses, culinary methods, and sports are disseminated by migrants throughout the world. Only 3.4 percent of the world's population lives outside of their country of origin, hence most areas in the world are not considerably influenced directly by international migration, even if a small number of nations get enormous numbers of immigrants each year.

The dynamics of migration are, however, significantly changing, making the future very difficult to forecast. Since humans have been migrating for more than 60,000 years, it seems doubtful that this trend will ever stop. A 44 percent rise over the year 2000, there were 244 million foreign migrants in the globe in 2015. Cross-border migration seems to be increasing in many regions of the globe as more individuals have access to knowledge, infrastructure, and communicational factors that allow the large-scale movement of people during the same time, even if the global population only increased by 20%. Nearly 70% of all migrants in 2015 had their origins in either Europe or Asia, with Mexico, India, Russia, and China contributing the most. The US was the nation that welcomed the most immigrants, followed by Germany, Russia, and Saudi Arabia. In general, migrants go from low- and middle-income nations to high-income ones because economic opportunity is the main motivating factor.

Most migrants relocate in search of better work possibilities, greater wages, and all-around better chances. However, it is important to keep in mind that around one-third of international migration occurs between lower-income nations. It's also crucial to keep in mind that depending on the political or economic climate, trends may alter very fast. Spain, for instance, received a lot of immigrants between 2000 and 2008, but as the country's economy suffered and there were less work prospects, people started to depart in large numbers. Since 2011, more individuals have departed Spain than have landed there. Contrarily, Ireland saw a net increase in emigration from the middle of the nineteenth century until the late 1990s, when a large number of Irish and their descendants returned home and new immigrants started to make Ireland a top choice because of the country's enhanced economic prospects as part of the European Union.

Migration Flows in the Region: Europe

Most international movements still happen over very small distances, in accordance with Ravenstein's Laws of Migration. This cannot be more clearly shown than in Europe, where it is also rather frequent to see Spaniards in France, Germans in Switzerland, Romanians in Germany, etc. The migration within Europe tends to go from East to West, as seen in the above map. It is not unexpected that many individuals cross borders for a variety of reasons given the ease of travel within, the small size of, and the close proximity of many European nations. 10 percent of the 508 million people who call the European Union home are foreign-born, of whom 35 million are from outside the EU and 19 million have relocated between EU nations. Recent decades have seen an increase in movement both inside and outside of the EU for two reasons.

First, since World War II, Europe has consciously pushed to lower obstacles to migration in order to promote greater economic integration and collaboration. The Schengen Agreement allows for frictionless cross-border travel, living, studying, and employment for citizens and legal residents of participating EU member states. The agreement allows for the free passage of people across international borders without the need for frequent security checks, substantial delays, or hassles, while the EU encourages the free movement of capital, goods, and services throughout the area. For example, millions of working-age citizens from Poland, Romania, and Bosnia have immigrated to nations like Germany, France, and Spain in search of better pay. In some respects, the European continent has resembled the US in that it is now just as simple for Spaniards to visit France as it is for Californians to visit Oregon.

However, more individuals from adjacent Africa and the Middle East have sought to enter Europe in order to seek job, flee violence, or discover better educational opportunities. This is the second factor that has contributed to the growth in movement and mobility in Europe. Even while Europe has historically had a more favourable economic and political climate than its neighbours, the forces of globalisation have intensified these movements. Organisations that traffic people move hopeful migrants in return for substantial sums of

cash. Due to the EU's heightened marine military patrols in the area, people traffickers and would-be immigrants have been pushed to choose riskier and more hazardous routes. Each year, thousands of people lose their lives attempting to enter another nation. About 7,400 people died in collisions in 2016

Nowhere is the journey more dangerous than the Mediterranean, where 4,800 migrants killed in 2016 mostly from African nations. Additionally, thousands of people have fled the Middle East's wars, particularly the one in Syria, for safety in Europe. The free movement of persons inside the European Union has recently been questioned since northern member states have doubts about the screening procedures used by southern and eastern European nations. Anyone who is able to enter one of the Schengen nations may simply travel to any other European country. Despite being members to the accord, countries like Denmark and Sweden have enhanced border security and border inspections. There are ongoing difficulties in Europe's daring attempt to merge so many different cultural, linguistic, and political systems, and there is no assurance of long-term success. The area was ravaged by conflict twice in the previous century. Europe continues to be a focal point for immigration policy and practise far into the twenty-second century as the twentieth century comes to a close.

Migration Flows in the Region: North America

In that the US habitually accepts much more immigrants than any other nation in the globe, North America stands out as a distinct instance. In 2015, around 14.5 percent of all US citizens and 17 percent of the labour force were immigrants. The percentages in Canada were around 21% for both categories. An excellent resource for visualising migration globally is provided by the International Organisation for Migration, which is supported by the United Nations. To learn how many people immigrated to the US from China or how many Americans spent last year living in Mexico, click on the tool. Do you see any trends? You may explore the migration patterns into North America by selecting a few more Caribbean nations. You'll see that Latin America and Asia were the two main supply regions for the US, although sending nations and quantities have varied considerably over time.

Do you know when your ancestors came or do you believe you do? Can you picture the era when they first arrived in North America? Which demographic groupings are missing from the chart? What explanation do you have for this? There are four unique immigration periods; nonetheless, let's take a quick look at each one. First off, there was a quick westward migration throughout the period of frontier expansion. Due to the very unusual chance for settlers to buy huge tracts of productive farmland in the New World, people were driven away from major towns like New York and Boston and towards the future states of Ohio, Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska, and other places in the American Midwest. Due to the intense population pressure in Europe, many immigrants moved to the US expressly in quest of land. The Homestead Act of 1862 granted citizens and those aspiring to citizenship up to 160 acres of farmland as long as they continually occupied and cultivated the property for five years. In the years that followed, there were over 1.5 million land claims, which caused a huge influx of people. The transcontinental railway was also finished during this time period, establishing the first substantial connection between the East Coast and the West Coast. At this period, the majority of immigrants came from Scandinavia, Germany, England, Scotland, and Ireland. During the Great Hunger, a ten-year period when the potato harvest failed owing to blight, more than 1.5 million people also emigrated from Ireland. The Burlingame-Seward Treaty of 1868, which welcomed Chinese labourers and opened China's borders to American merchants, students, and missionaries, was responsible for the only large non-European immigration. During the succeeding period, however, Chinese migration was brief.

Phase 2 brought about a significant change as the quantity of newcomers increased to previously unheard-of heights. Additionally, when immigrants started to come from southern and eastern European nations including Italy, Greece, Russia, and Poland, the source

countries also altered. The majority arrived via Ellis Island by ship before settling in distinctly ethnic neighbourhoods in cities across the US. It was also an era of massive industrialization, which required a large source of low-cost workers, which immigration provided. As a result, this period is frequently highlighted in American imagery, stories, legends, books, and films. The US was constructing bridges, skyscrapers, museums, sports stadiums, and other massive buildings at an unprecedented rate as it raced to catch up with the major cities of the globe. Coal mines, steel mills, and factories were all expanding at previously unheard-of rates. The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 forbade anybody of Chinese heritage from immigrating, becoming a citizen, or naturalising, even if they had done so before legally. This time also gave rise to a new era of exclusion.

The US significantly reduced the number of legal immigrants allowed to enter the nation during Phase 3. The great western colonisation was over, and the US's high birth rate produced enough new employees to fulfil the need of the nation's ongoing industrialisation. American nationalism, fuelled by white power and eugenic movements, sought to divide the world's population into categories of civilised, savage, and semi-civilized. A series of new exclusionary laws prohibited all Asiatic People from entering the country, as well as polygamists, anarchists, beggars, and importers of prostitutes. Immigration numbers drastically decreased during this time as the nation struggled with issues of cohesiveness, identity, and tradition. As hostility between countries exploded in two world wars, national law was created to preserve the racial and ethnic balance of the nation. Quotas were set up so that only a particular amount of individuals from certain European nations could immigrate while keeping everyone else out. In 1954, Ellis Island ceased operations after processing more than 12 million immigrants. However, a significant societal change was about to occur since US immigration in the next decades would be significantly altered by the 1960s.

Phase 4 of immigration to the US is characterised by rapid expansion and a new variety of source nations, with Asia and Latin America predominating. Although the percentage of people who were born abroad is equal to that of the early 1900s, the 47 million people who call the US home constitute an all-time historical high, with one in every four children having at least one immigrant parent. The Immigration and Naturalisation Act of 1965 fundamentally changed the character of immigration into the US from a system that prioritised family reunion and individuals with certain talents to one that had low numbers from a small number of predetermined nations. Demand for labour-intensive jobs increased as more Americans enrolled in college. Immigrants are rapidly filling jobs that were formerly performed by adolescents and teens, such as harvesting crops, mowing the lawn, or washing dishes in restaurants, and they are ready to work long hours for little money.

As progressive civil rights period policies adopted a colour-blind stance to welcome people from all areas of the globe as long as they possessed the talents and education that would help the American economy, Asian exclusion laws and quotas were removed. In order to prevent families from being split apart by stringent immigration laws, laws were also developed that made it considerably simpler for current residents to bring their direct relatives from outside lawfully. President Lyndon B. Johnson said that the new immigration measure was not a revolutionary bill when addressing a small audience in 1965. Millions of people's lives are unaffected. ..Yet in the three decades after its adoption, more than 18 million individuals lawfully immigrated, increasing the number of immigrants from the prior three decades. It will not change the way our everyday lives are structured and will not significantly increase either our money or our power. Immigration's face underwent a profound transformation. The countries with the highest proportion of foreign-born citizens in 2016 were Mexico, China, India, the Philippines, and Vietnam. More than half of all start-up enterprises worth more than \$1 billion and 25% of all new businesses are founded by immigrants. Presidents sometimes make mistakes.

CONCLUSION

A variety of viewpoints, such as feminist geography and critical geography, are now included in the study of migration, which has grown in recent years. These methods emphasise the political, social, and economic aspects of migration while throwing light on questions of power, inequality, and identity. In-depth research has been done by geographers on the spatial effects of forced migration, refugee migrations, and population displacement brought on by armed wars, natural catastrophes, and political upheaval. Finally, there is a strong connection between the histories of migration and geography. The growth of geographic knowledge has been sped up by migration, and geography has given us important frameworks for comprehending and examining human movement. Geographical studies of migration have evolved into increasingly sophisticated, multidisciplinary fields throughout time, embracing many viewpoints and illuminating the intricate spatial dynamics of human mobility. Understanding the connection of people, places, and the always changing environment in which we live is aided by the continual investigation of the link between geography and migration.

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CHAPTER 4

MIGRATION FLOWS IN THE REGION AND ITS IMPACT

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ABSTRACT:

Migration movements in a particular area are a complicated and dynamic phenomenon with substantial effects on people's lives, economies, and civilizations. This abstract gives a broad overview of migration movements in a certain area while looking at the trends, causes, and effects of human mobility there. A key feature of human history is migration, which is influenced by a variety of reasons including economic opportunity, political unrest, environmental circumstances, social networks, and cultural links. Exploring these elements and how they interact within the local environment is necessary to comprehend migratory movements in a particular area. Migration trends in the area might be quite diverse. They might include migrations across international boundaries, within the local area, or from rural to urban regions. Based on elements such as geographic closeness, historical links, economic inequalities, and political dynamics, the reasons and features of migratory patterns might vary. For academics, policymakers, and practitioners, researching regional migration movements offers useful insights. It helps us comprehend the social, economic, and political dynamics of the area better. Additionally, it contributes to the creation of evidence-based interventions and policies that might encourage inclusive and well-managed migration, promoting favourable results for both migrants and host nations.

KEYWORDS:

Economic, Globe, Migration, Migrants, Region.

INTRODUCTION

Economic inequalities between nations or regions, the desire for better career possibilities, access to education, or better living circumstances may all be factors influencing migration within the area. Forced migration and refugee movements within the area may also be caused by political instability, wars, and persecution. Environmental variables that might affect migratory trends in the area include natural catastrophes, climate change, and resource constraint. For authorities, managing the region's migrant patterns presents both difficulties and possibilities. Concerns including border security, safety, human rights, labour market integration, social welfare, and public services must be addressed. To create comprehensive and sustainable migration policies that balance the requirements of migrants, host communities, and sending communities, cooperation and coordination across regional nations is crucial[1], [2].

Given the enormous breadth and scope of a continent with 4.4 billion people, it is challenging to summarise migration within Asia! But if you look at the global migration map again, you'll see that even the biggest nations have much fewer foreign-born citizens than do those in Europe and North America. Do you have any ideas as to why this may be the case? The first justification is straightforward. Political development and widespread human settlement have place far earlier than in Europe or North America. More than 5,000 years ago, early Chinese civilizations had already begun to form, and many Asian people may trace their ancestry back thousands of years. Asia was not thus discovered, conquered, or colonised during the era of European empire. Asia did not develop into a popular travel destination for people from other countries, with the exception of a limited number of missionaries, business owners, and adventurers. Second, other from marriage, the majority of Asian nations do not permit permanent immigration. However, in the twenty-first century, there are more migrants in Asia than ever before due to globalisation and migration[3], [4].

With 1.3 billion people and a rapidly expanding economy, China tends to rule East Asia. The 46 million individuals who identify as Chinese yet reside outside of China are referred to as the Chinese Diaspora, with the majority residing in Southeast Asia and the remainder in Australia, North America, or Europe. However, nowadays, many of individuals who leave China are rich and educated and do so because their talents are in demand in other parts of the globe. This is especially true for those who left China during periods of political instability during and after WWII and during the early communist regime. In recent years, rural farmers in China and India have been migrating from the countryside to the metropolis, which is the largest human migration in the history of the globe. Nearly 200 million people have left rural China in search of job in the nation's thriving cities, which are mostly found in the east of the country. Although they do not go across borders, for many the distance and socioeconomic contrasts between rural and urban China are quite comparable to moving abroad. In coastal towns, new industrial positions pay many times as much as those in rural regions, where farmers may barely make a few dollars a day[5], [6].

Elements of Political Policy, Migration, and Demographic Transition

Even though individuals typically move in order to discover or create a better life for themselves and their family, the advantages and disadvantages of migration have quite varying effects on various nations and areas. Demography has a significant role in explaining how such distinction takes place. The demographic transition model helps to explain how countries go through several phases of population growth and family size. It is also useful for determining the origins and final destinations of migrants. Before I proceed, I want you to look at the model and try to guess which phases you would anticipate large-scale immigration vs emigration. Do you have faith in your predictions? If not, why not? Geographers have observed that nations that emigrate are often late in stage 2 or early in stage 3, and countries that immigrate are typically late in stage 4 or stage 5. Let's give this some thought for a second. What age group is most inclined to risk moving to a foreign nation in search of a better life? If you could treble your present wage, would you relocate to Slovenia the following year? The majority of immigrants are often still in their early 20s when they start their careers. Countries with a large population of adults in working age are likewise more likely to be in the early stages of stage 3 of the model[2], [7].

Large families were prevalent in nations like Mexico, Guatemala, the Philippines, and India a generation ago. Due to an oversupply of labourers, once those kids reach their working years, not enough employment are being produced. Countries in late stage 4 discover that the economy is now experiencing a lack of citizens who are of working age to fill a variety of occupations as a result of preceding generations' low birth rates. The US saw strong birth rates in the 1950s, but as women had fewer children in later generations, more people were leaving the labour each year. Unsurprisingly, as the need for their labour expanded, young workers from countries like Mexico, El Salvador, Jamaica, etc. started to arrive. The similar trend was seen in Europe, as people moved from nations with higher fertility rates, such as Turkey, to those with lower fertility rates, such as Germany[8].

As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, demographic realities may operate as push or pull forces, causing individuals to move towards or away from a certain location. Cultural, economic, or ecological influences might function as push or pull forces. For cultural reasons, Mormons may be pulled to Utah while Baptists may be pulled towards the American South. Meanwhile, hundreds of thousands of Puerto Ricans were pushed from the island by Hurricane Maria's damage. Florida was the most popular travel destination for Puerto Ricans for cultural, economic, and environmental reasons. The sending and receiving areas may both profit from migration when the push and pull forces work well together.

But forced migration often does not serve the interests of both parties. Asylum seekers are immigrants who believe they are in danger in their home country because of their race,

religion, nationality, or other relevant characteristics. They look for a nation that will accept them permanently because they fear being imprisoned, subject to retaliation, or even killed in their own country. Asylum seekers become refugees if they have successfully established a claim in court. Refugee status gives displaced persons legal protection from deportation since it is against the law to compel refugees to return to any country where they are regarded to be in danger, according to an international agreement. The overall number of refugees in the globe as of the end of 2016 was 22.5 million, which is the largest figure since the conclusion of globe War II.

The overall number of displaced individuals reached an all-time high of approximately 63 million as a result of the uprooting of 40.3 million people who were living inside their own nation. As conflicts and political unrest put the lives of millions at risk, a significant number of asylum seekers have recently fled from countries including Syria, Iraq, Afghanistan, Palestine, Somalia, Sudan, Cuba, Venezuela, and Myanmar. Prior conflicts saw enormous numbers of asylum seekers welcomed by richer nations in Europe, North America, and Australia; but, as anti-immigrant views have grown around the globe, the bulk of would-be refugees are now without a place to call home. The number of immigrants that governments are ready to take has been drastically decreased as a result of opposition to resettlement, which claims that the costs are just too high and that admitting refugees will stimulate further undesired immigration in the future.

DISCUSSION

Even though the United States, Australia, and the United Kingdom continue to have strong anti-immigrant sentiment, the advantages for receiving nations are widely known. In addition to the above-mentioned demographic benefits, companies and consumers often gain significantly from the easily accessible, low-cost labour supply given by immigrants. Due to an immigrant labour force, everything from the price of fruit to construction to fast food and lawn care tends to be less expensive. Evidence also suggests that immigration may lower salaries in low-skilled occupations, although economists generally agree that the net economic gain is positive when unemployment rates are low. Compared to the US native-born population, immigrants have greater employment rates, are more likely to establish their own enterprises, and are less likely to commit crimes. Sending nations also often profit from emigration in two ways.

First, young people who are unable to find job at home have a chance when they emigrate. Second, immigrants often transfer the bulk of their earnings back home. Remittances are sums of money that foreign employees send back home. Large infusions of foreign cash into local economies help nations that send a lot of employees abroad, since this often leads to the creation of new investment possibilities. Both sending and receiving nations gain when migration is successful. A third group of immigrants, in addition to low-skilled labourers and refugees, has grown significantly as a result of globalisation. Immigrants with advanced degrees offer a special paradox. On the one hand, nations want to fortify their borders, restrict asylum seekers, and erect barriers. On the other hand, the same nations deliberately seek out and recruit immigrants with certain qualifications, training, and degrees of education. Rich nations most often include the U.K. To fulfil the demands of an ageing population, organisations often hire nurses, researchers, and engineers from less developed nations.

There is a growing need especially for healthcare personnel of all types as British citizens have fewer children and society ages. When a consequence, a brain drain occurs when the finest and brightest individuals from underdeveloped nations flee due to their attraction to the considerably higher earnings elsewhere. Nearly 60% of all physicians born in Ghana and 85% of nurses born in the Philippines have left their own countries to find employment elsewhere. Rich nations profit from this increase in intellectual power. Despite the fact that families and people with advanced degrees and high levels of competence go abroad in

search of better income, nations that suffer a chronic brain drain continuously lose a very precious resource. The negative impact spans numerous generations since Ghana lost the majority of its physicians and now has a severe dearth of people equipped to train the subsequent generation of medical professionals. Globalisation, Culture, and the Economics of Migration in the Twentieth Century [9], [10].

The term globalisation refers to a combination of causes and processes that affect the whole globe and give anything a global reach. In the case of migration, globalisation may not be as strong as formerly thought, despite the fact that 246 million people reside outside of their nation of birth and that over 96 percent of individuals on Earth never leave their home country. A more important issue may be why so many people do not relocate, despite geographers' attempts to understand where and why people move. If you reside in a location where you often contact with individuals from across the world, globalisation may seem to be progressing at full speed to you. Even while the things that humans consume and manufacture may have a global reach, the great majority of people never travel and connect with individuals from other countries very occasionally.

Scholars believed that a new era had begun when we reached the new century in 2000. Some even went so far as to claim that geography was irrelevant and dead. The *World Is Flat*, a best-selling book by Thomas Friedman, said that because of how interconnected people were everywhere, it didn't matter if you were in a Harvard classroom or the slums of Bombay. Whatever their place of origin, the brightest brains and the finest ideas will always climb to the top. This thesis was predicated on the idea that more people would be on the move and that global migration would quicken as goods and people simply zoomed over the flat earth at breakneck speeds. But in 2017, geography has come back to establish a new claim. As a result of the September 11, 2001 attacks, President George W. Bush firmly declared that every nation in every region now has a decision to make, despite the fact that more people than ever are living outside of their countries of origin.

Maybe that's the point at which the previous dream of a totally linked world with open borders and complete mobility was judged to be too idealistic. Either you are with us, or you are with the terrorists. Since making that statement, western countries have united in their opposition to immigration, often on the basis of religious or ideological beliefs. For instance, in reaction to a tragedy in San Bernadine, California, Donald Trump called for a total and complete shutdown of Muslims entering the United States in 2017. As Britain left the European Union and adopted a more isolationist stance, it took steps to drastically reduce immigration numbers, while Australia made steps to stop migrants from reaching its shores.

Even while the percentage of individuals who migrate has not greatly grown in the twenty-first century, immigrants' origins and destinations have changed significantly, resulting in more people travelling to and from more regions than ever before. At first glance, such a remark could seem perplexing, yet one just has to look at college campuses throughout the globe to comprehend this dynamic. For instance, the most ethnically diverse institution in the American South is Georgia Gwinnet institution, located in a suburban area of Atlanta. Thirty-three percent of students in a typical geography class at that school's home language is something other than English. pupils from Mexico, El Salvador, Peru, the Philippines, Laos, China, Colombia, Korea, Haiti, Jamaica, Vietnam, Ukraine, the Dominican Republic, Liberia, Latvia, Romania, India, Pakistan, Scotland, and Paraguay, according to a recent poll of the author's pupils from only one semester. Migration in the twenty-first century is significantly less predictable than previous waves of migration, which were dominated by a limited number of exporting nations and a small number of receiving countries.

Another example is Australia, where thousands of would-be immigrants have travelled hundreds of kilometres by land and water to find safety there. The government ultimately took the tough choice to detain would-be immigrants at sea, but it still confronts a

challenging conundrum over how to reroute those who have taken the risky trek. For the time being, they are being sent to isolated islands in Papua New Guinea, Christmas Island, and Nauru, resulting in an unusual cohabitation of refugees and South Pacific Islanders. With the quick flow of information made possible by twenty first century technology, unpredictable behaviour has become the norm rather than the exception. More swiftly than ever before, those who want to migrate may learn about possibilities, modes of transportation, and routes to take. Travel is not nearly as difficult now due to geography as it was throughout the 20th century. In the twenty-first century, the majority of immigrants, with the exception of those seeking asylum, are far more likely to go by aircraft than by boat and may or may not be looking for permanent residency.

The idea of transnationalism is the last way that modern migration is distinct. A new nation, a new culture, and even a new language were all sought for by those immigrating to the US around 1900. Even after a long-distance move, individuals may remain connected to friends, family, news articles, and connections throughout the globe. Today's migrants, however, are not completely forced to detach from home. Today, a voyage that took many months in 1900 just requires a few hours. In the meanwhile, free programmes like Facebook, WhatsApp, Snapchat, and Skype let immigrants keep closely connected to people who were left behind. Families with members who live in numerous countries at once, know several languages, and are prepared to relocate at a moment's notice depending on the market circumstances in any given location at a given time are referred to as transnational families.

People in that time period simply did not have an option, contrary to criticism that modern immigrants do not integrate as quickly as immigrants from the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The ability to live in more than one world, travel with more than one passport, and move more easily from one location to another than at any other point in human history is a characteristic of immigrants in the twenty-first century that is here to stay. Be aware that the phrase recurs in this course since firms often operate inside and across different nations based on a variety of circumstances. Transnationalism differs significantly from the idea of supranationalism in that it requires travelling between nations rather than functioning outside of them, while supranationalist organisations do not formally dwell under the supervision of any one state.

Human Movement in the Future and Conclusion

Although the dynamics of migration in the future are very difficult to anticipate, some geographic facts provide hints as to where trends are most likely to shift. We might anticipate higher immigration rates in regions of the globe where populations are rapidly ageing and fertility rates are continuing to drop. The desire for young, working-age immigrants will undoubtedly continue to pull more individuals to some nations that have undergone and will continue to experience substantial population reduction. Due to their advanced age and refusal to admit foreigners as citizens or permanent residents, Japan and China stand out as special situations. It would seem plausible that the society would change and become more welcoming of foreigners despite cultural preferences for ethnic homogeneity since the government needs them to care for the old, pay taxes, and inject vitality into the various countries.

People who live in countries with insufficient prospects will continue to leave such locations in quest of employment and better living conditions, despite efforts by wealthier nations to keep them out. As they always have, source and destination nations will fluctuate. In recent years, more Mexicans have returned to the US than have left, and Mexico is no longer the top sending source for immigration to the US. Instead, Central America is becoming the source of increased immigration. More individuals of working age will undoubtedly leave the continent in pursuit of better chances as a result of population pressures in many African nations, even as the voyage grows more perilous. More individuals will discover the

knowledge they need to plan their departure as the Internet becomes more widely used on that continent. The world's highly talented individuals will also continue to be more mobile and largely unaffected by borders or tighter security.

Computer programmers, nurses, physicians, engineers, and other high-tech professionals will take use of the world's resources and look for locations that best meet their needs. Television programmes like *House Hunters International* reveal how many individuals who work online or in highly specialised professions are able to live almost anywhere. Millions of affluent travellers from across the world are abandoning their passport nations since Wi-Fi networks are now accessible everywhere. Both the affluent and the impoverished will continue to travel throughout the globe, reshaping the human geography of our planet long into the twenty-first century, but for very different causes and based on very different experiences.

CONCLUSION

Migration patterns in the area have a variety of effects. They may have an effect on the economy through influencing remittances, entrepreneurship, and labour market dynamics. Additionally, migration may affect regional demographic patterns by changing the region's cultural variety, age structures, and population makeup. The interactions between immigrant and host communities may result in social and cultural changes that influence processes of social cohesion, identity development, and social integration. In conclusion, migratory movements in a particular area are influenced by a variety of variables and display unique patterns and ramifications. Understanding the social, economic, and political difficulties and possibilities brought on by human mobility requires an understanding of the regional migration dynamics and its driving forces. Policymakers and scholars may create well-informed plans to satisfy immigrant needs, promote social cohesion, and capitalise on the potential advantages of migration for regional sustainable development by looking at migration flows.

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CHAPTER 5

UNDERSTANDING POPULAR AND FOLK CULTURE

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ABSTRACT:

Folk culture and popular culture are two separate but related spheres of cultural expression that help to define and reflect a society's identity. This abstract explores the traits, effects, and social importance of popular culture as well as folk culture, emphasising how each plays a part in the formation of societal identities. Culture that is widely embraced and appreciated by a sizable segment of society is referred to as popular culture. It includes popular culture, music, fashion, movie and television productions, literature, and other media. Popular culture often reflects the prevalent values, beliefs, and preferences of a specific age or society and is impacted by commercial pressures, mass media, and globalised trends. Contrarily, folk culture is a representation of the cultural customs, values, and practises of smaller, more regionalized societies. It naturally develops among certain ethnic, racial, or cultural groups and is transmitted through the generations via oral tradition, rituals, storytelling, music, dance, crafts, and other forms of expression. Folk culture, which embodies a group's distinctive practises, beliefs, and ways of life, is strongly based in the history, geography, and collective experiences of that community.

KEYWORDS:

Culture, Folk Culture, Local, Music, Physical.

INTRODUCTION

Folk culture and popular culture interact symbiotically, reacting to and influencing one another. Folk culture serves as a major source of inspiration for popular culture, which often incorporates customary rituals, images, and stories into popular entertainment. As globalised media and technology penetrate even the most isolated places, folk culture may be impacted by popular culture via processes of cultural diffusion and adaptation. Folk culture and popular culture both contribute significantly to the formation of social identity [1]. The goals, fashions, and social dynamics of current society are reflected in popular culture. It may influence societal norms, attitudes, and behaviours and act as a forum for social and cultural criticism. Contrarily, folk culture preserves and honours the distinctive history, customs, and regional identities of communities, promoting a feeling of continuity and belonging. Understanding the processes of cultural change and continuity within civilizations requires an understanding of the interactions between popular culture and folk culture.

It enables investigation into how advancements in technology, mass media, and globalisation affect cultural practises and identities while also recognising the long-lasting value of regional customs and relationships to the local community. Some people think of high culture when they talk about culture. Others could consider hot-button issues. However, academic contexts are referring to something else. Culture is a human creation and a learnt behaviour. Culture exists to provide explanations. Other queries concern ordinary existence. Our lives may benefit from the advice that culture offers. It both poses and responds to inquiries. Children begin to wonder, what is my place in the world? From a young age. Culture lends support to such response. The Latin term culture, which means cultivation or growth, is the root of the word culture. Humans use both their concrete cultural elements and their abstract cultural components in exactly this way. Humans learn to create, share, and alter their culture starting in early infancy. Our entire method of navigating through our surrounds is culture. Culture is a means of communication that changes through time. It also directs as a kind of compass[2], [3].

Structure of Culture

Culture may, at its most basic levels, be either solid and palpable or abstract. In any case, both people and communities express their identities via their culture. Whether it is physical or abstract, it is still a human invention used to foster a feeling of identity. Festivals, cuisine, and architectural design are just a few ways that people communicate their culture. They are able to satisfy their basic wants on a global scale while preserving their unique group characteristics. Mentifacts, artefacts, and socio facts are three separate classifications of culture. Every culture has underlying values and ways of thinking. These ideas span a wide range of topics, including religion and language. Nationalism, traditions, and biases are a few more crucial beliefs. These ideas may be communicated in a number of ways employing different auditory, visual, and tactile techniques. Nationalism, for instance, may be shown via music, food, clothing, and public displays. Nationalism can be felt by wearing jewellery, heard through an anthem, seen through a flag, tasted when you consume a meal that symbolises a group of people, and seen through a piece of artwork [4], [5].

Technology is a creation of humans. Everything that humans create, from our first creations to supercomputers, is a result of their perceived requirements, technological prowess, and available resources. Housing, food, and clothes are all products of technology. Technology is sometimes referred to as material culture. Consider material culture to be the objects that archaeologists investigate. Like the clay tablets the Sumerians used to preserve their writing or the ruins of an Iroquois longhouse that was used for communal living, the materials we use are often left behind for future generations to examine. Other aspects of culture leave less signs behind. Even while ancient burial customs have left behind tangible cultural traces, there isn't always physical proof of how people mourn.

Although it is crucial, lifestyle is a part of culture that is often disregarded. A family is a very vast entity in many cultures, and individuals may describe in great detail their precise relationships to everyone else in a location. A single parent and a kid might make up a family in the contemporary world, yet it is conceivable to live in a neighbourhood full of strangers and not know the names of a single neighbour. Both a telescope and a microscope include lenses that may be used to see culture. Folk culture is regional, confined, and closely connected to the surrounding environment. Popular culture is broad, fragmented, and expanding globally. There is some overlap between these two cultural forms. Both of them are still present in the globe today and are connected. Prior to about 2008, the majority of people on Earth lived in rural areas and often engaged in folk culture. The whole planet is shifting towards popular culture [6].

Religious Reproduction

We may procreate as humans in two different ways: physiologically and socially. In a physical sense, humans reproduce by bearing offspring. But everything that constitutes culture is taught behaviour. Culture must be taught in order to be passed down through the generations. Culture is a product of human creativity due to this. How is culture passed down? Humans are excellent imitators. We pick up our language skills and other aspects of our culture in this manner. We pick up skills by observation, followed by practise. Mimicry is the process that promotes cultural dissemination on a different scale. People replicate the things they like. The adage, Imitation is the sincerest form of flattery, sums up well how humans want to adopt successful adaptations. Although it located on a side street off the famous Gran Va, this restaurant is close to one of the biggest tourist locations in the city. This might be partially related to the platforms via which we communicate culturally. Culture used to be transmitted verbally and in person. Words gradually evolved into writing, which in turn gave way to electronic information that is now available anytime, anywhere. The argument regarding authenticity has also come up for discussion. How can authenticity be defined if

culture is changeable, generated, and remade constantly? Has culture lost its sense of place? Place lessens or the meaninglessness of location has emerged as a major theme in modern geography philosophy. Can one eat an American-style meal in the centre of Madrid, Spain? Can visitors to a historical theme park in Copenhagen, Denmark, sample Spanish street food? Icons of other places are increasingly widespread throughout the landscape, as the following images demonstrate [7], [8].

Community Hearths

One of what makes humans unique is that they have learnt behaviours from the beginning of time. Cultural evolution outlines how human cultures have become more sophisticated through time. Early human civilizations were straightforward. We were dispersed throughout pretty broad regions and lived off the land in tiny groups. Although it was smaller than it is today, human activity had an effect on the ecosystem. Earlier inhabitants cleared land by burning forests, flushing out wildlife, and in certain areas, hunting megafauna to extinction. Identifiable cultures originate in specific locations. Culture is a verb that means to cultivate or grow. As an idea develops, we nurture it with care. Every aspect of culture has a history and genesis. There are certain localities that have contributed significantly to cultural progress. These locations are known as cultural hearths. Many of the cultural components that would spread to other areas and later eras came from culture hearths. For civilizations, cultural hearths serve as operational manuals.

DISCUSSION

Culture hearths are strongly related to the domesticated foods. Food is a crucial component of culture since it is both a technology and a means of expression. Even though the map above illustrates regions of ancient civilisation, these are not the only locations that have influenced modern civilizations. Ideas may come to us from everywhere, but historical ideas gathered at certain locations. Civilizations borrow ideas and elements from other civilizations. Stories of massive floods or other devastating occurrences, which have been replicated throughout history, are some recurring motifs in creation myths. Languages without writing often borrow the writing system of another language. Once again, admirable qualities are duplicated.

The Landscape of Culture

Natural resources are essential to the survival of cultures. Rural cultures often have access to local resources. Urban civilizations may use either locally produced goods or imports that have travelled significant distances. In any case, civilizations affect landscapes, which in turn affect cultures. The Appalachian Mountains, which cover a huge chunk of North America, the Mongolian-Manchurian grasslands, the Amazon River basin, or any other habitat are examples of the physical landscape. These are landscapes that were shaped by natural forces over thousands, if not millions, of years. Humans have had to modify their way of life in order to exist in environments as varied as these. Human-environment interaction is the term used to describe how humans, their culture, and the physical environment interact. This interaction is bidirectional; individuals move a location and culture adjusts to that location. The term cultural ecology describes the many kinds of landscapes produced by humans and their physical surroundings.

For a sizable portion of recorded history, humans have been considering how people and their surroundings interact. Greek philosopher Hippocrates said that various climates gave rise to various racial and ethnic groups in his work *On Airs, Waters, and Places*. He thought that hot temperatures generated sluggish, lethargic individuals, whereas cold climates produced emotionally disconnected people. The greatest sort of individuals were created in the optimum location, which was in the heart of the populated planet. These concepts are currently seen as being environmentally deterministic. Keep in mind that environmental determinism holds that a specific kind of person will always be produced by a certain location. Such concepts remained popular far into the twentieth century. The concept is

flawed because it is very straightforward and reductionist. People are not compelled to be distant by a chilly atmosphere.

They had to develop warmer clothing as a result. The difference is in technology, not in behaviour. Possibilism is increasingly a more popular phrase to employ than determinism. Physical landscapes impose restrictions on a population that may or may not call for significant environmental alteration or adaptation. Today, humans may exist in places that were formerly uninhabitable, most notably the International Space Station [9], [10]. Landscapes are a result of culture. The visible landscape is produced by how we employ the available local resources. Anyone interested in gazing at a location may see the architecture, economic activity, apparel, and entertainment. The physical landscape changes in different parts of space,

On the other hand, distant locations could have comparable climatic or environmental adaptations. It is possible to think of cultural landscapes as both history and storytelling. The terrain bears the marks of power. In affluent areas, we erect sculptures to remember the powerful and politically connected. We put airports and rubbish dumps in undesirable locations. Landscape-as-text is the study of the landscape as a repository of human history, political influence, and cultural expression. The same way a book can be read, so can a landscape. The biggest contrasts in landscapes that we can now see are those between rural and industrial areas, as well as between regions with low and high levels of global integration. The world's locations are blending together.

Culture Shift

Where did all the civilizations originate from would be a reasonable subject to ponder. As people relocated to new locations, they adapted and changed, and the new locations in turn underwent change. People also undergo change with time. A location's circumstances change. If they clear the forest of all the trees, a group moving there will need to adapt. The lives of those who embrace a new crop will alter. Borrowing a name to describe an innovation might constitute divergence. Every civilization evolves.

Regions of Culture

Based on shared cultural traits, we may classify the globe into geographical areas. A region is an area distinguished from other areas by similarities or cohesion. Regions are conceptual constructions, and the boundaries between locations are fictitious. The English-speaking world and Latin America are cultural areas when they are mentioned.

Cultural Case Study: Dancehall's Spread

Although a cultural trait might spread almost anywhere, this isn't how diffusion normally happens. The invention is welcomed in certain locations but not in others. The example that follows a journey from a single, well defined cultural characteristic to additional locations. Reggae's dancehall subgenre originated in Jamaica in the late 1970s and gained popularity there over time. Music is one of Jamaica's key exports, and like many other musical genres, dancehall has become a popular export. Dancehall music is sufficiently defined to let us identify where it has spread, in this example. Although we can identify large markets like North America and hear dancehall in parts of Drake or Rihanna's songs, other regions could appear less clear. Brazilian performers have adopted the genre and tailored it to the country's preferences, such as *Lai Di Dai*. Dancehall has been a huge source of success for the band *Seed* in Germany. *Rake Penge* is an artist that can be found in Denmark. Much has changed since the beginning of this musical genre. Other musical genres, from the earliest versions of pop music to the present, have seen a similar degree of spread.

Native Culture

When we hear the word folk, we often picture traditional music, dances, and costumes. It appears that everything starting with the word folk is associated with the past and is only found at festivals and museums. A clan, an army, or a group of people may all be referred to

as folk in Old Norse, English, and Germanic. With the use of this historical knowledge, folk culture may be viewed as something that is initially shared by a group of people before being spread to a larger community. It is a way of identifying oneself. People are eventually connected to a certain landscape or geographic area. Small, unified groupings make up folk cultures. Folk culture is therefore very varied across geography yet stable throughout time.

Folk traditions have their roots in the ancient past and evolve gradually through time. Folk cultures spread over space via displacement diffusion; when communities relocate, they take their cultural artefacts and ideas with them. Folk culture is spread or transmitted verbally. Speaking to others or engaging in an activity until it is mastered are two ways that knowledge is shared. Until someone is ready to start cooking, they might learn how to prepare meals by assisting others. Participating in the building of homes teaches people how to build a house. Folk cultures must always learn to make use of the resources that are close at hand. Folk cultures gradually acquire practical means of addressing everyday necessities as well as gratifying meaning- and entertainment-seeking urges. Folk cultures provide unique approaches to solving issues.

Since there is no motivation to experiment with anything that may not work after a practical home style is formed, houses within a cultural region tend to be similar. Local farmers or hunters must provide the food. Because people want variety, numerous crops are grown because it's risky to depend on a small number of meals. Local wool, flax, skins, or other readily accessible materials are used to make clothing. Folk medical systems are based on local botanicals. People like listening to music that both depicts everyday life and promotes mythology and traditional beliefs. Folklore, often known as folktales, includes origin stories, cautionary tales, and fundamental myths.

Holidays provide a different kind of enjoyment. The routine of everyday existence is broken by special days. A celebration like Mardi gras, which has its origins in the Catholic calendar, offers a chance to defy social conventions and de-stress. The use of intoxicants is another means of offering a break from routine. Although it's sometimes overlooked when talking about culture, people have been modifying their own mental states for thousands of years. Alcohol, marijuana, tobacco, and cocaine manufacturing are examples of how folk societies were aware of the effects of psychoactive chemicals. These compounds would later be used to create contemporary items for sale. The value of the folk has been restored as folk cultures have faded. The desire to experience aspects of folk culture has been a major driving force behind the Slow-food movement and the expansion of cultural tourism. Folk culture has been a goal of people's since the time of the German Grimm Brothers. John Lomax travelled the country in an effort to capture as many folk stories and songs as possible before people forgot them.

Folk culture may also be described as manual labour as opposed to industrial production. The selection of materials, fabrication of component parts, assembly, and finishing of a product take a considerable deal of experience in hand manufacturing. Compare this to industrial manufacturing, where employees have limited interaction with and need to know very little about the finished product. Ferdinand Tönnies, *Gemeinschaft* and *Gesellschaft*, and other authors initially addressed these variations in manufacturing methods. These two terms refer to the interaction between individuals, their neighbourhoods, and subsequently, their landscapes. The manner of life in a small town is called *gesellschaft*. In a wider society, life is lived in *gemeinschaft*.

The Changing Landscape of Culture

It is acknowledged that popular culture has been eroding folk culture for a while. What is the cause of this decline? There are numerous objects, each with a unique set of underlying mechanisms. Politically, a lot of localities have become states during the last several centuries. These regimes often adopted nationalistic policies that made it difficult for

minorities of all kinds to live their lives. The birth of popular culture may be traced to the development of a state-approved national culture. Public education or an official language, for example, might be used as a tool to advance national ideals. Even while there is considerable crossover between the old and new cultures, the old has lost its dominant place in community life. The economy also has an impact. Since the start of the Industrial Revolution, small, rural towns have been disappearing all across the world. A folk culture's tight relationship to location makes it exceedingly difficult to reproduce once one is outside of its physical boundaries. The demand to acculturate and integrate is great when individuals move to areas where popular cultures are practised.

The spread of popular culture has also been helped by changes in infrastructure. Roads can ease the friction of leaving a community and draw in outsiders. The distance-related friction preventing the spread of popular culture has been significantly decreased by the internet. Tomatoes took decades to spread from the Americas to Italy, yet we learn about new iPhone models months before they are ever made public. The United States is a significant hub for cross-cultural exchange. The Americas already had a large number of diverse folk cultures before the Europeans arrived.

For decades, waves of immigrants from various cultures came to the United States, changing the country's overall culture. Locations associated with folk culture aren't the only locations undergoing change. There is contact between various pop culture spheres in many locations with an established popular culture. Folk cultures were formerly the origin of some immigration to the United States. These days, they come from a lot of popular culture. Pop music has its own stars throughout the Spanish-speaking world, and international chart-toppers often work together to produce music that is played and sold all over the globe. Regional foods from throughout the world are also prone to become trendy.

Common Culture

Buyable culture is popular culture. Consider your regular activities. You go to work so that you may pay your rent, purchase food and clothes, and have fun. Each component in your cuisine may have travelled hundreds or even thousands of kilometres to get there. It's quite unlikely that your apparel was produced locally or even in this nation. Your home can have a generic appearance, having little relation to the neighbourhood's resources, and resemble any other home in any North American community.

Marketing is what drives popular culture. There are whole businesses dedicated to persuading us that buying is the greatest way to satisfy our wants and requirements. Why is it so? Because pop culture production enterprises will fail without revenues. Industries in popular culture must constantly reinvent themselves. Popularity now does not always translate into longevity. Promoting fashion is required to persuade customers that their t-shirt from last year is no longer acceptable. Fashion is a notion that extends beyond apparel. It is the cause of the yearly aesthetic updates made by automotive manufacturers. It explains why fast food businesses often alter certain of their menu items. Consumers could feel socially excluded without the cachet of fashion. This explains why some individuals with very low earnings choose to invest in pricey luxury.

In terms of popular culture, holidays serve just as an excuse to sell goods. Since more than a century ago, Christmas has been more commercialised in western nations. Christmas decorations may now be seen in China or Japan, countries with fewer Christians but a large consumer base. The rise of Cinco de Mayo in the United States and the globalisation of Halloween are both examples of the same kind of marketing. In the dissemination of popular culture, hierarchical diffusion is important. The majority of popular music, fashion, and cuisine trends come from bigger cities. Popular culture's diffusion is closely tied to technology. The internet has evolved into a platform for advertising, despite not having been

intended to be one. Every interaction now involves a sales pitch because of clickbait headlines and ad income.

Due to the hierarchical nature of diffusion, innovations often initially spread from one major, well-connected location to another large, well-connected location before descending to progressively smaller locations. Cultural lag is the period of time it takes for a new concept or product to catch on. There may be little or no cultural lag in certain regions. Some breakthroughs take a very long time to reach regions that are extremely far away. Keep in mind that not everything in the United States has access the internet. Large populations have access to identical products and services thanks to popular culture, but the constant desire to sell fuels alteration, usually on the surface. As a result, pop culture is often characterised as being stable throughout location but extremely changing over time.

The contemporary world has definitely been impacted by the commercialisation of traditional intoxicants that was previously highlighted. Comparing low-alcohol beer to commercially distilled spirits, the impact on human health is negligible. The opium poppy, which is already hazardous in its unprocessed state, may be turned into heroin. The same is true of cigarettes and cocaine. These drugs were often employed in traditional medicine for ceremonial reasons. They are often employed in the context of popular culture. However, the pop culture landscape still exhibits certain traditional folk patterns. Italians continue to consume wine, a beverage they have produced for generations, but it may now be imported. The climate in Russia was ideal for growing the grain and potatoes that were subsequently distilled into vodka.

There is much more to selling culture than simply food and apparel. Popular music and other types of entertainment are hugely successful businesses that sell goods far beyond their countries of origin. American films are often produced with the knowledge that their overseas box office will outperform their domestic sales. The same is true for other products of mass media. These goods often have connections to other goods from the pop culture. Businesses depend on customers' familiarity with a movie character to sell merchandise including apparel, toys, video games, conventions, and other instalments of that series. The idea behind Marshall McLuhan's adage that the medium is the message was that television will be able to fend for itself on the market. The same adage might be applied to pop culture as a whole.

The Bridge between Local and Global

Popular culture is built on commerce. A product may endure in the market as long as it can be sold. This raises an intriguing procedure. Commodification is the conversion of a cultural characteristic into a mass-market commodity or service. Remember that the mass-market product could not look much like the original product. With the noteworthy exception of Mexico, Taco Bell sells apparently Mexican goods all over the globe using a fast-food business model similar to McDonald's. Chinese cuisine is comparable to Panda Express. These chains don't manufacture tacos, hamburgers, or orange chicken. They are in the profit-making industry. Authenticity is unnecessary and perhaps damaging in the quest to increase sales.

This method also works in reverse. The integration of international goods into the local market is one component of marketing. If doing so is affordable and produces a strong return on investment, businesses will alter their goods or whole product lines. Even in the US, there is a chain of fried chicken restaurants with a Central American origin. Sony and Hyundai are two well-known brands in the American marketplace. K-pop acts perform at suburban venues that also welcome Paul McCartney and Celine Dion.

World Culture

The merger of the whole world's economies into one is known as globalisation. This is related to the free flow of people, ideas, and money. Global culture is a more recent subset of popular culture as a result of this expanding reality. In the past, popular culture was limited to

regions the size of States or, at best, regions in closely connected cultural spheres. A specific collection of traits that made up American culture may be found in a few other countries, including Australia or Canada, but they largely remained local. The situation has changed. Video games are developed in one nation to appeal to a worldwide market, as was previously indicated. The same is true for office productivity software, cell phones, music, movies, clothing, and other items.

The elements of life are becoming increasingly similar in many places of the globe, at least on the surface. International producers, who have goals for the whole world, are emerging from national producers of popular culture. Any significant provider of popular culture material is a global company. In actuality, the top five international record companies sell 90% of all music sold worldwide. By lowering spatial variance, companies like Starbucks, Toyota, Wyndham, and others have contributed to lessening the friction of distance. They aren't acting in a harmful or helpful manner towards anybody. They will partially meet local demands, but they are not in the business of developing regional flavours. The future is already here, it's just not evenly distributed, wrote William Gibson. He was right about globalisation, however. There are still individuals living in secluded locations that have a way of life that is reminiscent of the Palaeolithic.

On the opposite end of the spectrum are those who are very wealthy, have access to cutting-edge technology, and may live anywhere they want. Globalisation sometimes even has an impact on traditional culture. Economic hardships have prompted residents in many locations to engage in religious practises or re-enact historic events in order to attract tourists. The folk culture that is the focus of attention is changed by attending luaus in Hawaii or watching violators in Veracruz in a search for authenticity. Although the outlook for folk culture may seem especially grim, it isn't necessarily all terrible. People tend to maintain the customs that are most beneficial to their survival in order to continue living. Compared to pop cultures, folk cultures have a considerably longer history and have shown to be robust.

Relationship with Popular Culture

Even though traditional culture has been losing ground to mainstream culture, there is still opposition. Global culture is thought to be mostly corporate, secular, and western, even if this is not strictly speaking accurate. These factors each have their own detractors. There are two primary subgroups of globalist opponents. The first group is made up of leftists who decry the growth of corporate and totalitarian state power. The second side is made up of right-wingers who want state-centered authority and worry that state sovereignty would inevitably be threatened by globalisation. Globalisation is often confused with modernity, which is sometimes confused with westernisation, which is seen to be corrupt, secular, and based on materialism. However, if their vision of the ideal culture were to become totally worldwide, movements like Al-Qaeda or the Islamic State would not have an issue with it.

Rejecting contemporary popular culture sometimes entails exalting a nostalgic, frequently fictitious golden period as the only valid social model. Many individuals believe that the basic essence of local cultures is being erased by popular culture's symbols and representations. Popular culture opposition may take many different shapes. Let's go over the idea of universal needs and how regional differences affect them. Locally produced foods, traditions, and cooking techniques compete with multinational fast-food chains that make it simple and affordable to buy prepared foods. Farm-to-table enterprises, the Slow Food movement, and a focus on fair-trade goods have all grown.

CONCLUSION

Culture, or the learnt aspect of human behaviour, is a highly vast and in-depth area of study for people. Humans have always lived in tiny communities that practised folk culture. This was especially true of the civilizations that developed as a result of the spread of agriculture. Many aspects of folk culture originate from this period in human history. The period of

popular culture also began with the industrial revolution. People take signals from pop culture to live, work, and socialise. The emergence of global culture, a phenomena in which many individuals in several locations engage in the same or related cultural practises, is relatively new. Folk culture and popular culture are two unique manifestations of cultural identity, to sum up. Folk culture embodies the distinctive history and customs of localised groups, whereas popular culture reflects the prevalent trends and values of a larger community. Both types of culture have an impact on how civilizations view their history, present, and future, helping to shape collective identities. Understanding the significance of popular and folk culture helps one better comprehend the intricate interaction between local and global factors that shapes cultural identities.

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CHAPTER 6

LANGUAGE'S GEOGRAPHIC CONTEXT AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

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ABSTRACT:

Language serves as a tool for communication as well as a crucial component of cultural identity and a reflection of the environment. This abstract gives a general overview of how language and geography interact, focusing on how language is influenced by and alters the geographic environment in which it is employed. Since language is shaped by the physical, social, and cultural surroundings in which it develops, it is intricately entwined with geography. Language formation and dissemination are influenced by geographic variables such as terrain, climate, resources, and historical relationships. Geographical obstacles like mountains or waterways, for instance, might isolate people and cause the creation of distinctive dialects or even unique languages. Additionally, migration, commerce, and cultural contacts across various locations support language contact and the spread of linguistic traits. Language variety and variation are significantly shaped by the geographic setting. Dialects are regional variants of a language that frequently reflect the distinctive lexicon and geographical features. Geographical obstacles, historical isolation, or cultural and socioeconomic reasons may all contribute to the emergence of these dialects. The study of dialects and linguistic variation sheds light on the complex interrelationship between language and geography and the impact of location on linguistic variety.

KEYWORDS:

Geographical, Geography, Historical, Language, Region.

INTRODUCTION

Language affects how people perceive space and cultural landscapes, which in turn determines the geographic environment. Cultural identities and the creation of social borders within a region are shaped by linguistic practices and linguistic variety. The dispersion of groups, the emergence of cultural areas, and the use of space may all be influenced by language. It affects how individuals see and interpret the environment, resulting in distinctive cultural landscapes influenced by language customs and practices. There are significant ramifications to comprehending how language and geography interact. It aids in language preservation efforts, helps us understand the richness and variety of a region's cultural heritage, and provides information for language planning and policy. Understanding how geography affects language helps us comprehend how language, culture, and location are interconnected, promoting cultural appreciation and cross-cultural understanding [1], [2].

The use of language is essential to everyday life. It is the main method by which we carry on our social lives at home, in the neighbourhood, at school, at work, and in the recreational setting. We utilise it to express our cultural identity, arrange our future, and recall our history. When we read a newspaper, converse on the phone, write an email, or evaluate a graph or chart, we are creating meaning. Many people exclusively speak one language in their social interactions. However, a large number of people need the ability to speak two languages in order to function well in society, get a job, finish education, and cultivate love relationships. In addition to modes of speaking, reading, and writing, the discourse world in which we exist also includes ways of doing, interacting, thinking, and valuing. Language is ingrained in cultural norms and simultaneously serves as a sign of cultural reality.

The Connection between Language and Culture

As a Mental Capability, Language

One must approach the idea of human language as a sophisticated system of communication if they want to comprehend its nature. When utilising the word language, a crucial difference

has to be taken into account. It may be thought of as a mental ability that manifests both inside and outside via speaking. Humans are capable of creating and comprehending an infinite number of utterances that include grammatical components such words, phrases, and sentences [3]. We can create a large number of utterances using a small number of language forms that other members of the speech community with comparable cultural backgrounds and linguistic abilities may readily understand. The idea that language is rule-governed creativity that forms utterances or sentences at various grammatical levels is an embodiment of this fundamental mental capability[4].

The Use of Language in Communication

The employment of the communication system to carry out a wide variety of conversational acts/functions in face-to-face circumstances is a key component of language. There have been four main categories of conversational actions proposed:

Assertive

Minor secondary actions include the use of words to highlight, clarify, and remark on ongoing conversation. It is possible for complementary activities to serve as conversational openers, fillers, stallers, and hedges. Conversation participants often adhere to culturally unique conventions. Listener B and Speaker A. What to say or not say in a specific conversational context is determined by cultural standards. How should I begin or conclude the conversation? With whom should I engage in conversation during a meeting? What contexts are suitable/inappropriate for using certain linguistic forms? Language usage is a cooperative activity often performed by two persons. Due to variables like the participants' individual traits, its utilisation may vary. The setting and the subject of the chat may also have an impact on the dialogue [5], [6].

The Use of Language in Culture

Language is seen as a marker of social identity by speakers. As the proverbs go, you are what you speak and you are what you eat. People's language reflects cultural reality. They help to convey knowledge, attitudes, and values that the cultural group has in common. When we consider ethnicity, religion, socioeconomic rank, and citizenship status, stereotype perceptions are at work. Cultural stereotypes are created by extrapolating the traits of one individual or group of individuals to the whole of the population, as in the notion that all Americans are individualists and all Chinese are group-followers, collectivists [7], [8]. People express particular thoughts about languages themselves in addition to cultural preconceptions about various ethnic groups. Language X is often criticised for being difficult to learn, not useful in society, and too boring. Others may see Language Y as a way to achieve success, make friends, fulfil a college requirement, or take part in the global marketplace. King Charles V of Europe, according to 16th-century court rumours, had strong opinions about the languages he spoke. French, he believed, was the language of love; Italian, the best for communicating with children; German, the best for training dogs; and Spanish, the best for conversing with God.

DISCUSSION

Members of the speech community give linguistic aspects cultural connotations, and those individuals then impose those meanings on outsiders who want to be a part of the group. For members of a certain cultural group, phrases like bug off, you know, you don't say, and crack house all have similar meanings. Members of a speaking group often have a same set of criteria for perception, belief, evaluation, and action as well as a shared social space and history. One utilises this knowledge to forecast interactions and relationships regarding new information, events, and experiences based on their perception of the world within a particular cultural group. Schemata serve as knowledge frameworks that organise the information required to carry out regular cultural practises. In regard to cultural scripts, we may look at cultural behavioural patterns. The idea of cultural scripts is a metaphor taken

from theatre terminology. In common speaking contexts, they serve as the scripts that direct social behaviour and language usage.

For instance, attending a wedding necessitates a range of speech scenarios. The pre-wedding events come first, followed by the wedding ceremony, and lastly the post-wedding activities show regional and ethnic distinctions. In the instance of English, even if there are obvious distinctions in pronunciation, vocabulary, and sentence structure, the majority of native speakers will concur that they are speakers of English. Most English speakers from England, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the United States of America will agree that they speak English, and this is further supported by the usage of a shared literary history and a standard written form of the language. There are also additional instances, nevertheless, in which speakers will not concur when the issues of national identity and mutual understanding do not align.

The most frequent occurrence is when dialects of the same spoken language are mutually understood but are treated as separate languages for political and historical reasons, as is the case with Scandinavian languages. Although most of the time, Swedes, Danes, and Norwegians can converse with one another, each national group confesses to speaking a separate language: Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic. Other situations need a differentiation between related language variants due to political, ethnic, religious, literary, and other factors: Urdu vs. Hindi, Xhosa vs. Zulu, Flemish vs. Dutch, Serbian vs. Croatian, Galego vs. Portuguese, etc. The converse scenario arises when spoken language variations are not mutually understandable but are treated as one language for political, historical, or cultural reasons, as is the case with Lapp and Chinese dialects [9], [10].

Languages are often grouped into families based on their shared linguistic characteristics and evolutionary relationship to one another. The genetic or genealogical method is a term used to describe this kind of linguistic categorization. *subject+erb+bject*, *S+O+V*, and *V+S+O* are sentence structures that may be used to categorise languages. Typological classification, which compares the formal similarities of languages, is the name given to this method of categorization. Language families from all over the globe are a result of centuries of migration and contact between various ethnic groups. For instance, roughly half of all speakers of languages belong to the Indo-European family. Nearly all of Europe, considerable portions of Asia, including Russia and India, North and South America, the Caribbean islands, Australia, New Zealand, and certain regions of South Africa are dominated by this language family. There are multiple language subgroups and different language branches that make up the Indo-European family of languages.

These additional groups, Finno-Ugric and Basque, include other languages spoken in Europe that are not members of the Indo-European language family. While some of the linguistic branches mentioned above are only represented by one main language, others are spoken by several communities in certain geographical areas. There are many different language families spread all throughout the globe. The history of settlement, the manner of life, and the demographic vigour and strength of the speaker groups are only a few examples of the many, interrelated elements that may have an impact on the linguistic condition of certain member groups of the language family. While certain languages may converge, others may diverge. A pidgin-style language may emerge through the interaction of many linguistic groups. A pidgin is a hybrid language that often borrows words from the linguistic communities engaged in trade and business. It has a reduced grammatical structure and a constrained vocabulary.

A pidgin that is mostly derived from English and is used in Papua New Guinea is Tok Pisin. A pidgin may develop into a creole language as its vocabulary grows, its grammatical structures become more intricate, and when children learn it as their mother tongue or native language. There are instances when a current language becomes a *lingua franca*. Even though

it may not be the mother tongue of any one speaker group, a lingua franca acts as a bridge for trade and communication across many linguistic communities. A large portion of East Africa, whose people speak numerous local and regional languages, uses Swahili as their common language. English is quickly becoming the lingua franca for a large portion of the globe due to rising globalisation and interconnectedness among countries. English is used beyond various national-state lines in Europe, Africa, India, and other geographical areas. Numerous speaker groups that are affected by the linguistic sequence are forced to learn bilingualism in order to participate more fully in society.

There are more languages spoken on certain continents than others. Africa comes in second with 2,138 languages, after Asia with an estimated 2,300 languages. Around 1,300 languages are spoken in the Pacific region, while throughout North and South America, 1,064 different languages have been recorded. Despite having numerous nation-states, Europe comes in last on the list with just roughly 286 languages. The following are some other important languages and related dialects, which together have both native speakers and speakers of second languages: Korean, Wu/Chinese, Telugu, Tamil, Yue/Chinese, Marathi, Vietnamese, and Turkish are among the other languages.

Language Loss and Language Spread

All of the top 20 languages spoken worldwide have their roots in either Europe or south or East Asia. The Americas, Oceania, or Africa are all absent. These areas seem to have the highest concentration of linguistic variety since they lack a major global language. Due to the imperial histories of their native nations, English, French, and Spanish are three of the most widely spoken languages in the world. Twelve of the most common languages spoken worldwide are spoken by two-thirds of the global population. 96% of the languages spoken today are spoken by only 3% of the world's population. Around 2,000 of the world's currently spoken languages have fewer than 1,000 native speakers. By the end of this century, about half of all spoken languages will be extinct. Some nations and areas will be more impacted by linguistic extinction than others.

Native American populations living on reservations in the US speak a number of endangered languages. In the Amazon rain forest, sub-Saharan Africa, Oceania, indigenous Australia, and Southeast Asia, many languages will disappear. At least 35 nations have adopted English as their official language, including several in Africa, Asia, the Pacific, the Caribbean, Ireland, and Canada. The official languages of the United States, Australia, and the United Kingdom are not English. Due to its influence and importance in institutions and culture, English does have the title of national language in these nations. Despite not having the most native speakers, English is the most learned language in the world. French, Spanish, Italian, Japanese, German, and Chinese combined are all studied by fewer individuals than English.

Various American English dialects

There were three main English dialects spoken throughout the American Revolution. These many dialects of English reflected the diversity of the initial settlers who settled the East Coast.

English in the North

Nearly all of the people who founded and occupied these communities in this region were English. Puritans from East Anglia in southwest England made up over two thirds of the immigrants in New England. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Maine, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Vermont, New York, and New Jersey are the states that make up the area.

English in the South

Southeast England provided home to around half of the speakers. Some of them were from various socioeconomic classes, including indentured slaves, deported inmates, and members of persecuted political and religious organizations. The area is made up of the following states: Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Delaware.

Midwestern English

The immigrants that settled this area came from a variety of origins. Northern English Quakers were the majority of settlers in Pennsylvania. Additionally, several Scots and Irish immigrants established themselves in Pennsylvania, as well as in New Jersey and Delaware. German, Dutch, and Swedish immigrants also made their way to this area, where they picked up English from English-speaking locals. The Upper Ohio Valley, Pennsylvania, Maryland, West Virginia, and the western portions of North and South Carolina make up this region. American English dialects have developed through time and geographically. There is little evidence of linguistic convergence or the emergence of a national dialect of American English from regional variations in pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammar.

There are several unique variants of English that may be distinguished, even in the face of the homogenising effects of radio, television, the internet, and social media. There are at least 24 different English dialects shown on Robert Delaney's map of American dialects. Diverse factors, including linguistic characteristics, settlement history, ethnic variety, educational attainment, and languages in contact, are used to determine dialect borders. The English dialects spoken in Alaska and Hawaii are not included on the dialect map. It does, however, include certain urban and social dialects. Nearly two thirds of the nation speaks general Northern English.

CONCLUSION

Languages can influence the geographic setting via the naming of geographical features and place names. Place names are linguistic identifiers that represent the natural, historical, and cultural characteristics of a particular place. They may provide light on historical settlement patterns, native knowledge, and how people interact with the environment. The study of place names, or toponyms, provides important insights on the geographic setting in which a language is spoken. Finally, it may be said that geography and language are closely related. Language, in turn, changes perceptions, cultural landscapes, and social borders within a geographic region. Language growth, distribution, and variety are all influenced by the geographic setting. Understanding the connections between language and location improves our knowledge of cultural variety, linguistic distinctiveness, and the intricate dynamics of human civilizations. It emphasises the need of language preservation and appreciation while highlighting the significance of language as a crucial element of the geographic setting.

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CHAPTER 7

ORIGIN OF LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY IN THE US

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ABSTRACT:

The United States is a linguistically diverse nation because of the wide variety of languages that its inhabitants speak. An overview of the country's diverse multilingual terrain is given in this abstract, which also looks at historical, social, and cultural aspects of language variety in the US. The United States complicated history of immigration and cultural contacts is what led to its linguistic variety. Before European colonisers arrived, Native American languages were spoken all throughout the continent. However, English overtook other languages as a result of the founding of colonies and subsequent waves of immigration. But throughout the years, a variety of immigrant populations have contributed their languages and customs, adding to the linguistic fabric of the country. Social and cultural variables have an impact on linguistic variety in the United States. In order to retain their cultural identity and stay connected to their origin, immigrant populations often keep up their native tongues. Language is a potent instrument for communicating cultural beliefs, traditions, and customs. Moreover, language preservation and the formation of fresh hybrid linguistic variants have been made easier by globalisation and improvements in communication technologies. To develop cultural inclusion, advance social cohesion, and capitalise on the benefits of a multilingual society, it is crucial to recognise and embrace linguistic variety in the United States. In a world that is becoming more and more globalised, appreciating and recognising the contributions of other languages and cultures enhances the national cultural fabric.

KEYWORDS:

Adverting, Linguistic, Media, Place, Services.

INTRODUCTION

Today, a wide variety of languages, in addition to English, are spoken throughout the United States, reflecting the cosmopolitan nature of the population. Spanish is widely spoken, especially as a result of immigration from Latin America. Chinese, Tagalog, Vietnamese, French, Korean, German, Arabic, and many more are important linguistic groupings. Some indigenous tribes still speak Native American languages, retaining their own linguistic traditions and cultural legacy. Numerous programmes are used to promote and protect linguistic variety in the US. The upkeep and celebration of many languages and cultures are supported through bilingual education initiatives, language revitalization initiatives, community-based organisations, and cultural events. Additionally, legislative safeguards like language access rights seek to provide equal opportunities and access to services for those who speak little or no English.

Long before the Europeans arrived, the area that is now the United States had a diverse population of languages. Around the fifteenth century, it is believed that there were 500–1,000 Native American languages spoken, and that there was extensive linguistic interaction and bilingualism among the Indian tribes. Seven colonial languages emerged in various parts of the land after the advent of the Europeans:

1. English throughout the Atlantic coast and Eastern coastline.
2. From Florida to California, Spanish is spoken in the South.
3. French in northern Maine and Louisiana.
4. Pennsylvania German.
5. Netherlands in New York.
6. Delaware's Swedish.
7. Alaskan Russian.

The other four languages are still used today, however Dutch, Swedish, and Russian only lasted a short while. Six main minority languages were widely spoken in the 1920s, in part because of extensive immigration and territorial history. German, Italian, Polish, Yiddish, Spanish, and French were the big six minority languages of the 1940s. Only Spanish and French have made any progress over time among the six minority languages, with Spanish benefiting from ongoing immigration and French from a rise in language consciousness among those from Louisiana and Franco-Americans in the Northeast. The United States' 2015 Census data provides important geographic information on the top 10 states with the most linguistic diversity. In California, where 45 percent of the population lives, the most common languages spoken at home are Spanish, Chinese, Korean, Vietnamese, Arabic, Armenian, and Tagalog. Spanish is a common language among bilinguals Chinese, German, and Vietnamese are all spoken at home by 35% of the population.

In New Mexico, 34% of the population is multilingual the majority speak Spanish, but some also speak Navajo and other Native American languages. Chinese, Italian, Russian, Spanish, and Yiddish are among the languages spoken by 31% of New Yorkers; several speakers of these languages may be located on the same city block. Chinese, Gujarati, Portuguese, Spanish, and Italian are just a few of the many languages that citizens of New Jersey speak in addition to English. Spanish, the primary second language of the Southwest, is used together with Chinese, German, and Tagalog by 30% of the people in Nevada. In Florida, 29% of people speak a second language, which includes:

1. Italian, German, and French
2. In Arizona, 27% of people identify as bilingual; the majority speak Spanish, like in New Mexico, although some also speak Native American languages.
3. In Hawaii, where Japanese, Chinese, Korean, and Tagalog are spoken in addition to Hawaiian, the state's second official language, 26% of the population professes to be multilingual.
4. 23 percent of the people in Illinois and Massachusetts, mainly in Chicago, speak Chinese, German, Spanish, or another language at home, while in Massachusetts the most common languages are French, Spanish, Haitian Creole, Chinese, Portuguese, Vietnamese, and Spanish. 8

Top 10 Languages Spoken in the U.S. Other than English Homes

The top 10 languages other than English spoken at home in the United States according to data from the 2015 American Community Survey. The information emphasises the number of speakers, their level of bilingualism, and English ability. Although a record number of people speak a language other than English at home, a sizeable portion of each immigrant group reported to have a higher level of English proficiency. The majority of speaker groups who spoke a second language at home, or 60%, were also very proficient in English. Low levels of limited English proficiency among young children varied from 14.9 percent in the German group that includes Pennsylvania Dutch speakers to highs of 55.7 percent among Tagalog speakers [1], [2].

In the United States, the majority of immigrant language groups have a tendency to follow an intergenerational language change. The first generation speaks the group's original tongue and is mostly monolingual. The second generation speaks both their native tongue and English fluently. The cultural group is virtually monolingual by the third generation, communicating only in English [3], [4]. More recently, several immigrant groups have entered the country with a high level of English proficiency, especially those with advanced degrees and experience in professional professions. At the same time, the accent these people use is often indicative of their country of origin. As a result of globalisation, new English's have evolved that cast doubt on the idea of a universal Standard English variation.

DISCUSSION

People's names for their physical surroundings are a unique source of data on the cultural traits of distinct social groupings. Place names often reflect a society's history, beliefs, and ideals. Toponymy is the study of place names, and the names that people give to particular geographic locations provide us the chance to recognise a nation's history of settlement, significant landscape characteristics, illustrious individuals, and local allusions to faraway locations and eras. Place names may change suddenly, often as a result of political and social reasons. Two recent examples of changes brought on by political circumstances are the name changes of Burma to Myanmar and Zaire to Congo. In the United States, there is ongoing interest in renaming locations connected to Southern Civil War heroes, often leading to violent conflicts between various socioeconomic groups. Toponyms provide us important geographic information about things like where the first people came from, who established and inhabited the region, and what language they spoke. George Stewart's categorization system focuses on 10 fundamental characteristics that are prevalent in North American toponyms. Descriptive, associative, commemorative, commendatory, events, possession, folk, manufactured, blunders, and location change are some of these types.

Advertising Discourse and Language

The cultural environment has a notable expanse taken up by commercial advertising. An individual text is intended to advertise or sell a specific product in a social setting. Music and visuals may be used to amplify a marketing text. The text may also include paralinguistic elements of both written and spoken language. Several discourse issues are raised by the commercial itself, including who is talking with whom and Why? The actors in the TV commercial, as well as the supporting roles played by the advertising agency and the studio production team, may all be message senders or participants in the discourse. A specified target audience or anybody who views the advertising may be the recipients.

Store signage, highway billboards, and product commercials all provide as visual examples of how people in a community employ commercial language. The majority of billboard buildings are situated in public areas and show ads to passing cars and people. They may also be positioned in other areas with a large audience. While some billboards may be constantly changing or rotating with various ads, others may remain static. A retail establishment may also run product promotions, which often entail placing products close to checkout counters and at the ends of aisles. Small, tangible goods like coffee cups, t-shirts, pencils, and shopping bags might have novelty advertisements. They may be given out directly by the advertiser or as a part of campaigns for cross-product marketing. The popularity of cultural superstars in the sports, music, and entertainment industries is used by advertisers to market their goods. Even moving devices such as aeroplanes, balloons, and skywriting are utilised to show ads.

It is possible to think of store signage and highway billboards as a visual language trail that runs from point A to point B along highway X in a particular region. Diverse types of advertising are used to persuade the consumer that a company's services or goods are the best in terms of quality and price, most beneficial, and socially desirable, depending on the demographics of a place. For instance, a trip through several roads and highways in Gwinnett County, Georgia, may show how marketers react to the distinct demographic features. An advertisement that aims to draw attention to a particular product might concentrate on consumer needs for things like food, clothing, furniture, restaurants, homes and gardens, cosmetics and beauty care, auto maintenance, fitness and leisure activities, travel and lodging, communication, and computers.

The tone of advertising used to promote products is often laudatory, upbeat, and distinctiveness is emphasised. The vocabulary is frequently vivid and concrete, occasionally incorporating play-on-words and advertising slogans. Ads primarily use language, but what draws people in and convinces them to purchase a product is the visual content and design[5],

[6]. Services like health care, banking, legal counsel, and community resources may be advertised to both the general public and the targeted ethnolinguistic communities. What services are offered in a particular area are typically determined by the needs of the customers. The popularity of niche marketing and ads that are intended for a particular social group illustrates the close connection between cultural and technological changes in modern US society.

Language and the Internet

Social media are computer-mediated technologies that let many different senders and receivers generate and exchange content through online communities and communication networks, including information, ideas, professional interests, and other kinds of expression. Social media use is dependent on web-based technologies like desktop, mobile, and tablet computers to create highly interactive formats that give people, communities, and organisations the chance to share, collaborate on, discuss, and post online content. Social media enables widespread intercultural communication and cultural exchanges between people from various parts of the world. The phrase social media is frequently used to describe the ability of numerous senders and receivers to virtually simultaneously communicate across space and time[7], [8].

Additionally, social networks are referred to as social media. If the phrase is being used to refer to social networks, the researcher may either observe and record the interactional patterns or interview the participants to find out what kind of social networks they are. According to sociolinguistic theory, social networks may be classified as dense or loose based on their structure. Everyone in a dense network is familiar with one another. Not all members of loose networks are acquainted. The quality of links between members of a network may also be used to differentiate it from other similar networks. Individuals are linked by a single kind of connection in uniped relationships. Members of multiplex relationships are familiar with one another in several capacities[9], [10]. The phrase social media is often used to refer to a variety of networking websites, including the ones listed below:

1. Facebook, a social networking site that enables users to build.
2. Profiles, exchange pictures and videos, and talk to other members.
3. Twitter, a website that enables users to publish tweets for the immediate viewing of their followers.
4. LinkedIn, a professional network that enables users to submit resumes, build professional profiles, and connect with other professionals and job searchers.
5. Pinterest, an online community that enables users to pin things from the web and share photographs of them while exchanging comments with other users.
6. Snapchat, a smartphone app that lets users post and share pictures of themselves going about their regular lives.

Other kinds of social media include blogs, forums, evaluations of products and services, social gaming, and video sharing. The world of social networking has altered how people and organisations connect with one another via language. According to research, social media has a big influence on society, both globally and in the United States.

1. Almost 60% of American people use social media, and almost 80% of them are online.
2. 84 percent of adolescents in the population have a Facebook account.
3. More than 60% of 13 to 17-year-olds have at least one social media profile, and some spend more than two hours every day on these platforms.
4. Compared to other types of websites, social networking sites are where internet users spend the most time. The utilisation increased by 999% between July 2011 and July 2012.

5. About 33% of young people acquire their news from social media.
6. Two or more social networks are used by more than half of internet users.
7. Media platforms to stay in touch with their loved ones.
8. In the US, 81% of internet users search online for weather-related news, followed by 53% for national news, 52% for sports news, and 41% for celebrity or entertainment news.

The use of social media may have both beneficial and detrimental impacts. The advantages include the capacity to save memories, study and explore many subjects, market oneself, and make numerous pals. The downsides of social media include frequent invasions of privacy, information overload, isolation, damage to users' self-esteem, and the potential for online harassment and cyberbullying. It is difficult to map real language usage in the context of the digital world. The world of communication is intricate. In contrast to the geography of place names and the rhetoric of advertising, social networking takes place in a virtual setting with many senders and recipients and a variety of computer-mediated devices. Data mining is a method used to examine vast social media data fields in order to identify broad trends in the content/topics that result from real online activity. Many marketers, huge corporations, governmental agencies, and political parties are interested in the use trends on social media. Users' interactions with various social media tools have been determined using research techniques from the social sciences.

These include of written surveys on paper, one-on-one or in-depth interviews, and focus groups. These techniques include language-based interactions with a small group of users who may or may not disclose their real social media use habits. Members of the speech community may create and comprehend an infinite number of utterances that include grammatical components including words, phrases, and sentences thanks to the mental ability known as language. Different communicative actions carried out during conversational circumstances in various social contexts are used as part of language as a medium of communication. Language helps to convey ideas, beliefs, and attitudes that a cultural group shares and is a sign of social identity. Cultural stereotypes, preconceived beliefs about other languages, and behaviours in speech settings that include the usage of cultural schemata and cultural scripts all reflect this.

Languages are often categorised based on which language family they belong to, such as Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Indo-Pacific, Mayan, and Niger-Congo. Family members are further split into branches, and the branches are further divided into subgroups. Numerous elements, including the history of human settlement, the strength of the population, lifestyles, and interactions with different ethnolinguistic groups, have an impact on the spread of languages around the globe. Language death occurs when certain languages overtake others and become more prevalent, displacing others that may otherwise become extinct. Chinese, Spanish, English, Hindi, Arabic, Portuguese, Bengali, Russian, Japanese, and Javanese are among the top 10 most widely spoken languages in the world. American English has undergone modifications throughout time owing to political upheaval and the history of settlement. Multilingualism and linguistic variety are still quite common in the US. Recent statistics from the 2015 Census show that states like California, Texas, New Mexico, New York, New Jersey, Nevada, Florida, Hawaii, Illinois, and Massachusetts have a wide variety of languages.

Place names provide us cultural clues about the importance of certain physical areas, significant landscape characteristics, the acknowledgement of well-known people, and local references to earlier periods and places. To educate and persuade clients that the given goods and services are the best on the market, several techniques of advertising are utilised. Various social media platforms enable online communication between a large number of senders and recipients. Through virtual communities and networks, users may develop and distribute

information, ideas, images, professional interests, and other issues. The usage and consumers of web-based technologies cannot yet be mapped geographically. Social science research techniques may provide some new perspectives on the pervasiveness of online communication among people, groups, and organisations.

CONCLUSION

The impact of linguistic variety on social integration, business, healthcare, and education in the United States is significant. The ability to communicate successfully across different cultural settings and to foster cross-cultural understanding are advantages of bilingualism and multilingualism that are cognitive, economic, and social in nature. The issues posed by linguistic diversity include ensuring that those with low English proficiency have fair access to education and services and promoting inclusive practises that recognise and respect all languages and cultures. In conclusion, the United States' linguistic variety reflects the nation's heterogeneous makeup, which has been formed by earlier immigration trends and cross-cultural exchanges. There are many different languages that are used, honoured, and kept as vital indicators of cultural identity and manifestations of legacy. The development of inclusive practises that embrace the variety of the country's multilingual environment is made possible by acknowledging and promoting linguistic diversity. This also helps to promote social cohesion and intercultural understanding.

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CHAPTER 8

RELIGION'S GEOGRAPHICAL IMPACT: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT:

Through history, the multidimensional element of human civilization known as religion has been instrumental in reshaping the earth's surface. The relevance of religion as a geographical phenomenon is discussed in this abstract, which also looks at its spatial patterns, relationships, and significant social effects. Religion and geography have long been connected because one has an impact on the other's understanding of the physical, social, and cultural features of the other. The interaction of people and groups with their natural surrounds shapes the religious landscapes, resulting in spatial patterns of religious commitment and practise. This involves building holy places, temples, cathedrals, mosques, and other religious buildings, many of which turn become hubs for social, cultural, and economic activity. Religious principles and practises can influence how people interact with their surroundings. Cultural landscapes are shaped by religious practises, pilgrimages, and the reverence of holy places, with hallowed areas and other natural characteristics having spiritual value. A region's holy landscape depicts how religious values and the natural world interact, impacting settlement patterns, land use habits, and resource management. Political and social dynamics have traditionally been significantly shaped by religion, which has resulted in the development of religiously designated areas and borders. The geographic dispersion of various religious groups has shaped the geopolitical environment, promoting cultural variety but also sometimes resulting in confrontations and territorial disputes. The socio-political structure of an area has been impacted by the power structures, governance frameworks, and social norms affected by religious organisations and hierarchies.

KEYWORDS:

Cultural, Ethic, Faith, Geography, Religion.

INTRODUCTION

An examination of the geography of religion is presented in this chapter. Religion is a cultural trait that, like language and ethnicity, may be intricately linked to personal identity. Religion may provide a feeling of belonging, social cohesiveness, moral guidelines, and recognisable structures. Additionally, it may lead to persecution, societal unrest, and political instability. More than providing mystical explanations for everyday occurrences, religion also serves as a guiding code of conduct and a cosmological framework [1], [2]. The relative sizes of the world's main faiths are shown in the following pie chart. Remember that these figures are just approximations; there is no global authority compiling thorough data on religion. More over half of the world's population is made up of Christians and Muslims. The second group, the unaffiliated, consists of a sizable but dispersed population of persons who do not identify as belonging to any particular religion. The next biggest group is Hindus, who are concentrated on the Indian subcontinent. Like Unaffiliated, Folk religion is a broad category that includes a variety of faiths just for the sake of logical consistency. Animism in central Africa and ancestor worship in China are just a few examples of the indigenous, regional faiths that make up folk religions. The older group includes both more recent faiths that are just beginning to gather adherents and older religions that may be losing ground in the modern world. The list includes Judaism even though it has a very small following. It is mentioned for two causes. In addition to being the main religion of the contemporary state of Israel, it served as the cultural foundation for both Islam and Christianity [3], [4].

However, in many other locations, religion cannot be effectively distinguished from everyday life or government. In other countries, religion may be seen as a distinct component of civil society. Maps of religion and charts like this one both have the potential to be rather deceiving. All of these techniques for tallying religious data depend on estimations, all of which vary in accuracy. Finding out which religion is more prevalent is an issue. Does predominance need a minimum of 50%? What if there isn't a majority religion in a nation? In the case of this map, if there are two sizable faiths but neither religion has a majority, the nation is divided between the two. When there are several disparate groupings then the plurality group is utilised.

Several types of religious expression are prohibited or downright outlawed in several regions of the globe. For instance, Juche, which is not a conventional religion with supernatural aspects, is the name of the governmental philosophy in North Korea. Buddhism and Christianity must both be practised with caution in North Korea. In some locations, religion has attained the position of nominalism, when individuals identify with a religion but find that its practises have no bearing on their day-to-day activities. State religions are those that are acknowledged as a nation's official religion. The official position of one religion has minimal impact on the practise of other faiths or on society at large in certain states having a state religion, such as Denmark or the United Kingdom.

But in nations like Saudi Arabia or Pakistan, the state's authority is strongly entwined with the official religion, most notably in the form of blasphemy laws that allow for state punishments for contravening religious prohibitions [5], [6]. In that they depict uniform, religious landscapes by nation, maps like this one may be quite deceptive. Of course, this is incorrect, and it illustrates one of the issues with mapping anything: the degree of aggregation. The specifics of any geographical phenomena are often lost when they are aggregated into ever-larger groupings. The graph that follows provides a visual representation of the value of scale. Despite making up 88 percent of Utah County, only 61% of the state, and only 1.6% of the whole country, are Mormons.

Prevalent Religion

Religions across Time

It is easiest to think of the contemporary religious landscape as a snapshot. Throughout human history, and into the future, the religious landscape has changed and will continue to evolve. Old faiths go away as new ones are established. The creation of new faiths often involves the incorporation of elements from more established ones; as such, the roots of Buddhism and Christianity in Hinduism and Judaism, respectively, are not anomalies but rather a regular occurrence. It has been possible to see the emergence and spread of a number of new faiths, only inside the United States, in very recent times. Religions that were created in the United States very recently include Scientology, Mormonism, Jehovah's Witnesses, Seventh Day Adventism, and the Jehovah's Witnesses [7], [8].

The Influence of Religion on Culture and Identity

Religions do not exist in a social vacuum. They are a part of a cultural complex that either supports and fosters them or, in the opposite case, denigrates and undermines them. Religion and other aspects of identity, such as language or nationality, may be intimately related. There are numerous countries where there are no distinctions between law and politics, law and social life, or family structure. In such countries, religion is the centre of all existence, and all other ideas are based on religious principles.

A theocracy is a place where religion is the only form of government. The contemporary world has relatively few of them, despite the fact that many governments have significant religious influence. Many contemporary nations have created boundaries between the influence of religion and politics. These locations are known as secular and are far more prevalent in the industrialised world. A person's religion, nationality, and language are often

essential parts of their identity. It may determine how someone perceives the world, what constitutes suitable attire, gender roles, job, and even your place in society at large. As a result, it has had a significant cultural impact, which is seen in the landscape.

Religion and Aesthetics

There aren't many other social phenomena that can equal the driving power of religion. People often have fewer restrictions while working for God than they do in other areas of life. Religious building is one way this absence of boundaries may be seen in the environment. Religious buildings are one kind of sacred area, but others include ancient battles, cemeteries, mountains, and rivers. A holy environment may be anything that people utilise to invoke a feeling of the divine. Sacred places have standards for conduct. At certain locations, it is still feasible to seek refuge at a holy location. Both a closet used as a prayer room and the modest shrines that commemorate roadside deaths in the United States may be regarded as holy locations. Different churches and temples on the terrain, as well as clothes, locally produced cuisine, and tiny home devotions, may all be examples of how culture is expressed. Codes of appropriate attire and appropriate public behaviour are two more ways that religion may be seen in the world.

Religious implications on eating decisions are a less evident way that religions may affect the environment. Religions have a bearing on food production. What constitutes acceptable food and what does not are topics of theology in many faiths. The terms halal, kosher, and ital all refer to dietary regulations. There won't likely be swine farms in religions that forbid eating pork. In India, cattle roam freely because they are protected from harm by religion. The impact of pilgrimage is another way that religion affects the environment. Many faiths have a ritual that calls for a meeting at a certain location. Islam's Hajj is perhaps its most well-known pilgrimage, albeit it's not the biggest worldwide. The Hindu Kumbh Mela is that. In Santiago de Compo stela, Spain, the Camino Santiago, a well-known Christian pilgrimage, comes to a conclusion. The infrastructure that is built to assist pilgrims is also a visible aspect of pilgrimage, in addition to the pilgrims themselves [9], [10].

A Survey of the Main Religions

Different Religions

Religions are often divided into one of two major categories: universalizing or ethnic. Within one group of people, ethnic faiths are connected. They make little to no attempt to convert others, while it is possible. Hinduism is the most prevalent ethnic religion. Another well-known ethnic religion is Judaism. Both of these faiths have spread over much of the globe due to migration, yet they remain strongly connected to their own ethnic groupings.

Religions that aim for universalism try to convert others. Some faiths mandate that its adherents dedicate a portion of their life to missionary activity in which they try to convert others. Religions may also be separated into polytheistic and monotheistic groups. Although it may appear impossible to bridge the gap between monotheistic and polytheistic faiths, certain religions have been able to include aspects of both monotheism and polytheism. For instance, in Voudon, beings that had previously symbolised African gods are now reimagined as Catholic saints, who in the Catholic cosmology are also semi-divine. Syncretism is the process of combining two faiths to form a new religion.

Major Religions

Christianity

The life and teachings of Jesus of Nazareth serve as the foundation of the monotheistic religion known as Christianity. Given that the Western world follows the Christian calendar, it probably dates to somewhere in the first century AD. As its canonical texts, Christianity, which originated as a branch of Judaism, incorporates both the Hebrew Bible and the New Testament. Protestant, Catholic, and Orthodox are its three primary subgroups. The Protestant/Catholic Schism started in the sixteenth century, whereas the divide between

Catholic and Orthodox Christianity occurred over a thousand years earlier. Whose authority in the church was final was the main point of contention between the Orthodox and Catholic rulers. The majority of the differences between Protestantism and Catholicism were caused by Catholic Church practises that future Protestants would not deem appropriate for a religious institution.

The three branches of Christianity each have their own spatiality and have a lot in common. Orthodox Christianity is mostly found in Russia, Eastern Europe, and Southern Europe, with major instances being found in Africa and elsewhere where these cultures' populations have moved in great numbers. Catholicism is practised in a greater variety of locations. It began to expand throughout the north and west of Europe after mostly developing around the ancient Roman Empire. However, Catholicism continued after that. Catholicism was widely disseminated throughout the period of colonial expansion to locations like the Philippines, a major portion of the Americas and Caribbean, and vast areas of Africa. The branch of Christianity that has just lately evolved is Protestantism, yet it has spread far as well. Northern Europe was home to the first Protestant nations, but colonialism once again allowed Protestantism to spread to nations like the United States, South Africa, Ghana, and New Zealand.

The ongoing spread of Christianity, especially in Asia, is primarily attributable to Protestantism's expansion. Every Christian branch has evolved a unique outward look. The purpose of Orthodox churches is to evoke a feeling of the divine. Buildings have intricate exteriors and interiors. Similar to Orthodox churches in style, but with a distinct architectural heritage, Catholic churches likewise tend to be ornate structures. This makes sense given that these two branches of Christianity originated in different locations and had various conceptions of architectural magnificence and beauty. Collectively, Protestant churches are less ornate than their cousins. This reflects the early history of the Protestant churches, which were often blatant opposition to the elaborate ritual and conspicuous display of the Catholic Church.

Islam

Muhammad, an Arab religious and political figure, is credited with creating Islam, a monotheistic religion. Islam is a religion that emphasises submission or complete self-surrender to God. Islam and Christianity both adopted the concept of the chain of prophecy from Judaism. A devotee of Islam is known as a Muslim, which literally translates to one who submits. This implies that in Islam, historical individuals like Moses and Jesus are regarded as prophets. Muslims believe that Muhammad is the last fulfilment of this line of prophecy. The two major branches of Islam are joined by several minor ones. The Sunni branch, which makes up around 80% of all Muslims, is the bigger of the two major branches Sunni and Shi'a. Who would be the legitimate ruler of the Muslim world was at the centre of the rift that existed between the two biggest branches of Islam. There isn't now a unified voice for the world's Muslims. Sufi Islam and Ahmadi Islam are two further varieties of Islam. India is the third-largest Muslim nation, although there are five times as many Hindus as Muslims there.

The Muslim world is a little closer together than the Christian one. This is mostly because the Muslim expansion did not happen in two stages as the Christian one did. The following map illustrates the geographical separation between Sunni and Shi'a nations. Only Bahrain, Iran, Iraq, and Azerbaijan have a majority of Shi'a citizens. There are a considerable number of Muslim sects that are minorities. Many of these organisations, including the Ahmadiyya, face prejudice from other Muslim communities and/or governments. Theocratic regimes are especially prevalent in Muslim nations, notably Iran and Saudi Arabia. This is noteworthy because these two nations the two most powerful in the Muslim world are also regional competitors.

Buddhism

Hinduism has a Buddhist ancestor that stretches back to the fifth century BCE. Siddhartha Gautama established it close to the present-day Nepal-India border. Theravada, Mahayana, and Vajrayana are the three major schools of Buddhism. Their approaches to canonised theology are where the branches diverge most.

Hinduism

The Indian subcontinent is the place where Hinduism first emerged as a religious movement. The ancient Vedic culture, which was a result of the invasion of Indo-European peoples, is where its roots may be found. Hinduism has no one creator; rather, it is a collection of several varied ideas and practises that have naturally come together over many years. Hinduism has traditionally been closely tied to the caste system because of its rise at the same time as Indian culture, however the contemporary Indian state has attempted to lessen some of the more negative repercussions of this association.

Asian Religions

Chinese religions, albeit not technically speaking Chinese, are strongly related to Daoism, Confucianism, and ancestor worship. Chinese people both within and outside of China are linked by Chinese religious systems. This category is better thought of as a complex of beliefs rather than a predetermined set of views and practises because of the range of religious practises and beliefs.

Sikhism

Hinduism and Islam were combined to become Sikhism in the 15th century. It serves as a symbol of syncretic faiths in various ways. Syncretic religions are those that combine two or more different faiths and add doctrinal components to bring the dissimilar parts together. Sikhism, which was founded by Nanak Dev Ji, unites Hinduism and Islam by recasting Hindu gods as facets of a single divinity, much like the Catholic Trinity. Sikhism has become extremely widespread via geographical dispersal despite being strongly identified with the Punjab area of the Indian subcontinent. About 26 million people follow it.

Judaism

Monotheistic Judaism was developed in the eastern Mediterranean during the Bronze Age. It acknowledges the Torah as its sacred text even though it lacks a single founder. There are three main branches of Judaism today: Orthodox, Conservative, and Reform. Each has its own understanding of what constitutes proper conduct. As the first Abrahamic religion, Judaism had an impact on other faiths. Buddhism, Jainism, Baha'ism, Shinto, and Other Religions. These many faiths are all included in one umbrella group. They are not here because they have any ideological or historical links; rather, they are here because of comparable relationships to regions or ethnic groups. It is crucial to establish a point before moving on to a consideration of the following faiths. It is possible to follow many religions. There are many individuals who practise two or more different faiths without feeling contradictory. Pre-Christian or pre-Islamic beliefs coexist with more modern faiths in various regions of the globe. Animism is a wide term that may be found in many different contexts. The concept that practically everything in the environment people, mountains, rivers, rain, etc. is alive and deserving of respect as such is the central topic.

Animism is commonly practised with other religions, philosophies, or ideologies. Mirza Husayn Ali Nuri established the Baha'i Faith in 1863. Baha'i was a branch of Babiism, which was a kind of Islam in and of itself. Many faiths were created on the premise that there may be other, later individuals who also spoke for god, even though orthodox Muslims believe that Muhammad was the last of the prophets. According to Baha'is, fresh messengers will be sent to earth to remind people of their shared connection with both god and one another. A religion that outright condemned racism and nationalism was influenced by the late date and historical background of this faith. One distinguishing feature is that, despite not being one of

the world's major faiths, the Baha'is have a temple on each continuously populated continent. Another ancient religion to emerge from India is Jainism. The idea of ahimsa, or nonviolence, is what makes it most well-known. The Japanese ethnic religion of Shinto is often practised alongside Buddhism. It has a long history and is polytheistic. The most significant aspect of Shinto is that, depending on the viewpoint of the spectator, the religion may either be seen as lively and relevant or ceremonial and moribund since the rituals are so deeply established in the national character of Japan.

Religions in Syncretion

Syncretic religions are created when two or more pre-existing faiths come together to establish a brand-new religion. Larger syncretic faiths like Baha'i and Sikhism have previously been highlighted. A religion called Cao Dai was established in Vietnam in the 20th century. It reflects an effort to unite many different religious traditions into one religion and has elements of Taoism and Buddhism. Voodoo developed in the French Caribbean colonies as a synthesis of Catholicism with the beliefs of the Ewe and the Fon, two more West African ethnic groups. Loa, intercessors that serve as saints in both the Catholic and Sufi faiths, are used by practitioners to communicate with God. A syncretism of several West African religious traditions with Catholicism is known as candomble. Brazil has had it for many years. It holds both a creator deity and a number of demi-gods to be true.

Modern Religions

As with every other human phenomenon, new faiths are always emerging. Usually, they are modifications or fusions of already-existing faiths. It is difficult to include the newest arrivals on a list. Religions including Scientology, the Unification Church, Seicho no Ie, and Wicca fall within this group.

Nonreligious

The absence of religion is sometimes seen as a religion in and of itself. Typically, this is untrue. The nonreligious classification is nebulous. There are no documents of beliefs that all atheists are required to follow. No overarching nonreligious creed exists. It is another catch-all group with a sizable, diversified population and a wide range of practises and beliefs. However, there are remarkable manifestations within these groups. The first category includes locations that are formally atheistic or nonreligious. This description is incorrect. It solely offers the viewpoint of the local governments in these regions. Practitioners simply do not publicise their religious ties in many locations where there are no recognised faiths. In some locations, religious participation has fallen down to the point that many people no longer identify with any one religion. The term agnostic refers to the viewpoint that it is impossible to know if a greater power exists. Religions do not always necessitate the presence of a god-like power, it is crucial to note. Daoism draws its inspiration from nature.

DISCUSSION

Development of Important Religions

Nearly all types of dissemination are used by religion to spread over space. In most cases, hierarchical spread entails the conversion of a monarch, emperor, or other powerful individual who then persuades others to follow suit. Relocation dispersal makes great leaps forward by transcending space to establish a presence in distant locations, often via missionary activity. Most often, direct proselytising is viewed as the cause of contagious dispersion in a religious environment. Complex patterns of diffusion are produced by each of these types of diffusion. It is hard to pinpoint why some faiths are popular in certain locations or at given eras, yet this attractiveness might wane with time. Another crucial point to keep in mind is that the religious scene is just a snapshot. It will continue to change in the same manner that it has in the past. These maps, which show how present religious distributions have changed throughout time, potentially support this view. Keep in mind that these

religious developments happened at various eras. This will assist in illuminating why certain regions would choose Buddhism or Christianity at one point in time but Muslim at another.

The Spread of Buddhism

Near the existing boundary between India and Nepal, Buddhism first appeared. It expanded in other directions, especially to the south and east, as many other faiths did. Buddhism is a wonderful illustration of the lifespan of a religion because of its status as the oldest significant, universalizing religion. The religion first expanded over what is now India and Nepal. It expanded everywhere, but a modern religious map shows that the process did not come to a conclusion until 1500 years ago. Its area in the Indian subcontinent would mostly convert to Islam or Hinduism. However, the faith persisted and grew to the east and south. It is common for a religion to become well-liked distant from its original location. In actuality, that's the

Evangelical Christianity's Spread

Though it was born in the eastern Mediterranean, Christianity's greatest achievements were discovered elsewhere in the globe, much like Buddhism. In the beginning, Christianity spread within the Roman Empire's dominion, but it would eventually adapt and flourish elsewhere. Christianity was the sole source of social cohesiveness in Europe for centuries after the fall of the Roman Empire. Later, Christianity was spread by means of colonialism, and as a result, it was altered by the method by which it was done so. The process that led to the creation of the modern world was aided by the expansion of Christianity.

The Spread of Islam

Islam is not only the biggest religion in the world, but it is also the one that is growing the quickest. This may happen via present demography more often than through conquest or conversion. Islam offers a model for the majority of areas of life, and as a result, it is often linked to fast development fuelled by armed conquest. Military campaigns have been uncommon since the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, despite the fact that military conquest has been practised in the past. In reality, not much has changed in the relative distributions of Buddhists, Christians, and Muslims during the last five hundred years. Although there has been significant Muslim immigration to Western Europe, there are very tiny proportion of Muslims in any nation. With 7.5%, France has the highest proportion of Muslims. That is far less than the proportion of Muslims in Spain in 1492, to put things in context.

Religious Dispute

Humans have engaged in conflict with one another for a number of causes. Conflicts over religion may be extremely acrimonious. Differences in religion theory or practise interpretation are the cause of sectarian strife. Examples of this kind of warfare include the battles connected to the Protestant Reformation and the Counter Reformation, as well as the conflicts between the Catholic and Orthodox churches. This also includes the recent bloodshed between Sunni and Shia Muslims. Fundamentalism within the religious community is closely related to this kind of conflict. The foundation of religious fundamentalism is a literal interpretation and a rigorous and ardent commitment to a religion's core values. Conflict arises from religious fanatics believing that their fellow believers are not sufficiently devout. Extremism is the belief that practically any measures may be used to achieve a religious aim. Some organisations have minimal restrictions on their behaviour, including using violence, because they believe they enjoy divine favour.

Interreligious conflict is another kind of religious violence. Wars between Muslims and Christians or Hindus and Buddhists have been presented as conflicts involving one religion or another. However, conflict that is labelled as religious is often not. While some religious conflicts are motivated by theological disagreements, the majority of conflicts are motivated by more secular factors such as the desire for political influence, the quest for resources, interethnic rivalries, and economic rivalry. A fight for resources, political recognition, and

territory is at the heart of the Israel/Palestine conflict. The Rohingya problem in Myanmar is more about disparities in ethnicity, country of origin, and post-colonial identity than it is about religion. It is preferable to depict Sahelian African massacres as farmer's vs herders. It would be more accurate to describe the long-running conflict in Northern Ireland between Protestants and Catholics as a violent conflict between two groups with ties to the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland. This is not to suggest that there isn't any religious violence. Yes, it does. The rise of Islamic State in recent years has been the clearest illustration of this. This group is home to the darkest manifestations of Islamic extremism, including sectarianism against other Muslims, an effort to exterminate religious minorities, and ruthless persecution using governmental machinery.

CONCLUSION

Religion may be important to a person's sense of self. It shows itself in both buildings in a landscape and as an inward feeling. In general, the rate of change in the religious world is relatively sluggish. While some faiths alter or disappear, others are established. The overall historical tendency has been towards local, ethnic faiths losing ground to a few number of universalizing religions. Although many disputes that are portrayed as being of a religious character really have their origins somewhere else, religious disagreements may cause conflict. Religion is a method of grouping people, for good or ill, in a similar manner to language. The following chapter's topic, ethnicity, is another method to categorise individuals. In conclusion, religion has always played a significant role as a regional phenomenon. It shapes religious landscapes, cultural exchanges, and societal institutions by influencing and being impacted by the physical, social, and cultural features of a particular location. Our comprehension of the intricate interactions between human beliefs, cultural practises, and the physical environment is improved by having a solid awareness of the spatial dimensions of religion. It emphasises the need of discourse, tolerance, and respect for various religious manifestations while highlighting the significant impact of religion on historical and modern civilizations.

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CHAPTER 9

EXPLORING THE CONNECTION BETWEEN PERSONAL IDENTITY AND ETHNICITY

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ABSTRACT:

Personal identification and ethnicity are intertwined components of a person's self-concept, affecting how individuals see themselves and are seen by others. This abstract explores the nuanced and nuanced interaction of cultural, social, psychological, and historical elements in forming the link between personal identity and ethnicity. A shared cultural legacy, such as similar origins, language, customs, traditions, and values, is referred to as ethnicity. It gives people a feeling of belonging to a certain group and helps them develop their identities. Contrarily, a person's personal identity is a more comprehensive term that includes their self-perception, values, beliefs, life experiences, and societal roles. Ethnicity may play a key role in defining a person's identity, affecting how they see themselves and how others see them. Personal identity and ethnicity are intricately linked on many levels. Since people often accept and internalise cultural practises, beliefs, and values connected with their ethnic group, cultural elements play a key part in defining the relationship. Identity formation and social environment-navigation strategies are influenced by this process of cultural socialisation. The relationship between one's ethnic identification and personal identity is also influenced by psychological processes. Ethnic identity is entwined with one's self-perception, self-esteem, and self-categorization. In addition to providing difficulties with identity negotiation, disputes, or the need to fit in with cultural standards, ethnic identification may provide people a feeling of pride, belonging, and purpose.

KEYWORDS:

Ethnic, Ethnicity, Identity, Racial, Traits.

INTRODUCTION

In beginning geography courses, the question what is ethnicity and how is it distinct from race? The quick answer to that is that race is determined by inherited traits, while ethnicity is determined by acquired behaviour. This response is not comprehensive. Race and ethnicity are in fact intricate aspects of the cultures in which they exist. The solution is further complicated by the connection between race, ethnicity, and economic status. How is this geography? Other pupils have inquired. Race and ethnicity both have distinct geographical dimensions. Space interactions and related locations exist for both races and ethnicities. Wealth, gender, and race/ethnicity are only a few of the variables that might affect someone's capacity to move across space and utilise it. Geographical research is permissible on anything that restricts a person's freedom of movement. On the feeling of location, several geographic studies have been conducted. A location has elements of race and ethnicity. Languages are used to write signs, dwellings have different architectural styles, and individuals dress differently depending on their ethnicity [1], [2].

The Foundations of Race

Language, religion, a shared past, one's national origin, or other cultural traits may all be used to identify one's ethnicity. The fundamental component of an ethnicity is a cultural trait or group of traits. An ethnicity may also be thought of as a country or a people. Ethnic divisions often serve as the catalyst for political or cultural upheavals across the globe. For instance, the Basques living along the western border of France and Spain are essentially identical to their non-Basque neighbours in practically every respect. They practise the same faith, have comparable occupations, and consume similar meals. The only characteristic that sets them apart from their neighbours is that they speak Basque. This may seem to outsiders to be a

minor issue, but it is not. It serves as the cornerstone of Basque nationalism, which has given rise to a political secessionist movement. This movement has sometimes turned to violence in its fight for independence. The relative significance of this language has resulted in deaths. The Basques want their own homeland because they perceive themselves as a nation. Rarely are the racial identities of dominant groups problematic.

Majority ethnicities are seen as the default or the norm, whereas smaller groups are viewed as marginal in one form or another. Minorities are usually often brought up while discussing ethnicity [3], [4]. Assimilation, acculturation, and amalgamation are the three main ideas of ethnic geography. These ideas explain how majoritarian and majoritarian cultures interact within a community. The concept of amalgamation holds that multi-ethnic communities will ultimately combine the cultural traits of their ethnic groupings. The idea that the United States is a melting pot of civilizations with unique contributions from many origins is the most well-known example of this concept. The adoption of a group's cultural traits by another is known as acculturation. Although acculturation is often a process that moves a minority culture closer to the mainstream, majority civilizations do sometimes embrace minority cultural elements. Assimilation is the loss of ethnically-specific cultural traits, sometimes to the point where the ethnicity no longer exists. There aren't many, if any, distinctive cultural characteristics among Welsh Americans.

We have examined topics that are often at the centre of a person's identity when we have looked at the preceding chapters on Language, Religion, and now Ethnicity [5], [6]. Identity defines who we are, and as a species, we often guard those who share our common identity. For instance, ethnicity and religion may have a strong relationship, and what may seem to be a religious conflict may really be a politically charged ethnic conflict or a competition for resources between ethnic groups that has taken on the definition of a religious war. Christian farmers and Muslim Fula herders in Nigeria are engaged in conflict for the same land and water supplies, not over differences in religious beliefs. The reality has not lived up to the notion that we regard everyone inside the limits of our nation as our group, which is one of the lasting ideals of contemporary political collectives. Ethnic conflicts plague many contemporary nations and have shown to be remarkably resistant to notions of racial or ethnic equality.

DISCUSSION

The main inquiry around race is straightforward: The response might be either yes or no, depending on how the question is phrased. If the term race is used in the same manner that species is used in the context of animals, then race does not exist. The population of humans is just too homogeneous. If the inquiry is rephrased as, are there any surface distinctions between formerly geographically separated human groups? Then the response is indeed. Between many groups of individuals, there exist genetic and heritable distinctions. However, these phenotypic variations reveal relatively little about genetics. How come? The truth is that throughout history, humans have been incredibly mobile. People travel around and interact with various social groupings. In the environment, there are no clear genetic distinctions between various racial groupings. Racial classifications may thus be seen as societal constructions.

Race and Ethnicity are Distinct

People often struggle with the differences. Let's begin with the most straightforward group of Americans by race. African Americans. The majority of people are aware that the African continent is where the African American or Black population of the United States originated. That is the aspect of race. Now, the ethnic component seems to be precisely the same, and in a way, it nearly is, but only because of a specific historical circumstance. If large numbers of BaKongo or Igbo people had been forcibly transported from Africa to Virginia and settled there as a group, for instance, we would be referring to these groups as distinct ethnicities in

the same way that we refer to the Germans or Czechs in America. Large numbers of the Germans and Czechs arrived, often lived together, and kept their own cultures alive long enough to be recognised as distinct ethnic groupings[7], [8].

Africans who were held in slavery did not follow that pattern of settlement. The particular ethnic traditions of these people did not survive the acculturation process once they were transported to the United States and auctioned off essentially at random. They did, however, retain certain overarching group traits, and they also created their own unique cultural traits in the United States as a whole. Interestingly, the complexity of the phrase African American has grown as direct African immigration to the United States has expanded since it now encompasses a wider spectrum of cultural traditions.

Particularly Ethnic

A multiracial and multi-ethnic society exists in the United States. This has been acknowledged by both the nation and the U.S. Since 1790, the census has served as a record of the ethnic diversity in the United States. Here are the current classifications of races. Although there are many different ethnic groups in the US and detailed data is gathered, in many respects the ethnic categories are subdivisions of the racial categories. The notion is that although ethnicity is a smaller, cultural grouping, race is a much larger, physical grouping. By considering the evidence in this manner, you may better comprehend why African Americans are both an ethnicity and a race. The many ethnic groups that make up American Indians are another, more comprehensive example. There are several distinct countries that fall within the American Indian and Alaska Native racial categories.

The Ethnicity of Americans of Hispanic Descent

The phrase used to identify this ethnicity is Hispanic. Since 1976, the United States government has mandated the gathering and analysis of data for just one ethnic group: Americans of Spanish origin or descent. It is a reference to what is now known as contemporary Spain's Roman name. However, most Hispanics are not Spanish; rather, they are citizens of one of Spain's former colonies. Latino is another word that is often used and is another allusion to the Roman Empire. These labels are both quite ambiguous. People often identify with the nation of their ancestors rather than a classification created by the Census Bureau for record-keeping reasons [9], [10]. Any race may contain Hispanics. The fact that all racial and ethnic data is self-reported is very crucial to understand. This implies that you are the one who determines if you are an African American, Hispanic, or belong to any other group. One more point: even though they do not speak Spanish, natives of Hispano-phone nations are often referred to as Hispanic.

Relationship between Race and Ethnicity in the USA

Race and ethnicity have varying degrees of significance throughout time and geography. Racial or ethnic divides have historically been the norm in the United States. However, these racial or ethnic distinctions are no longer as common as they once were. Slavery deeply divided society, especially between the free, white people and the Black population who were subject to slavery, starting in the early days of the nation and entrenched in the US Constitution. Free people of colour helped to connect the groups to some extent. However, these were not the only divides that existed in the US. The majority of the population was of English origin. We refer to them as a charter group in terms of location. The charter group refers to those who established the first permanent colony rather than the first individuals to arrive at a location. They are the first group to control politics, to put it in academic parlance. Laws created by English settlers served to further their interests. They promoted their own culture, government, and language. Later arriving groups discovered that many of their queries about the local culture had already been addressed. Everyone in the US is subject to the assimilation pressure. Political pressure may exist; for instance, German-speaking Americans mainly ceased speaking German during World War One. The pressure might be

social; for instance, young children in school may feel alone if they are unable to communicate in the language of the majority. In particular, there may be financial strain. It might be challenging to negotiate the job market without following accepted social conventions. For individuals who have not assimilated, life might be challenging due to a lack of English, ignorance of the standards of formal clothing or behaviour, or just an inability to read social signs.

Also altered was the charter group. For instance, historically speaking, the concepts of whiteness and blackness have changed. Take the US's history into consideration. Initially, the majority of Americans were Protestant British whites and African blacks. Definitions have to be changed in order to include individuals from various locations. Are Catholic Italians seen as White? Many Americans would have responded negatively in the past. That being said, neither would the Irish or Jews, albeit throughout time, these groups were often categorised as white. More individuals are now considered to be white. It transitioned from being an ethnic category to a racial one. As blackness changed, so did its definitions. A legal system that defined blackness as having any African heritage ultimately developed in the American South. Being phenotypically white and legally black might be feasible. In the past, mixed-race Creole people in Louisiana did not identify as black or white rather, they were placed in a different category. Asia, and China in particular, has its own set of exclusionary rules that severely restricted people's ability to immigrate to the United States. It was legal for the government to imprison American citizens of Japanese heritage during World War II due to concerns about their allegiance and ethnic origins.

The inclusion of Hispanic people in the various racial groups is one of the important ethnic topics that are now being discussed in the United States. People who identify as Hispanic may use whichever term they think is most suitable since this ethnicity is not inherently a racial categorization. In the most recent U.S. census, it seems that more Hispanics are declaring themselves to be white. Projections for the future population of the United States are impacted by this. If Hispanics identify as white, the U.S. will continue to be mostly white for a while. If they don't, there won't be a majority race in the US in a few decades. Today, race and ethnicity are both self-identified for the census, despite the fact that race and ethnicity in the U.S. were historically linked to state-mandated identity, limiting laws, and onerous duties. Being Irish is no longer a reason to be denied work, but rather a phrase to display on your welcome mat and a reason to rejoice once a year in March.

Identifiers of Race

Racial group designation terminology has also evolved. For instance, while the census racial group is still Asian, persons of Asian heritage who were born in the United States are now referred to as Asian Americans in broad terms of ethnicity. Asian connotes a connection to Asia and no connection to America. This group is directly linked to America by Asian Americans. Those who can trace their roots back to Africa have a different issue. The history of America contributes to this issue. This group's initial census designation was simply Black. Other terms, such Negro, were used throughout time until the word African American was finally established. This phrase establishes a connection between a population of individuals and their country of origin. In other words, it blatantly connects a group to its ancestry. Although the term Native American is often used in American speech, it is distinct from the term Indian-American in the Census. American Indian continues to be used despite the push towards more precise classifications.

The United States' Racism

Racism and ethnic discrimination are comparable yet distinct from one another. Physical distinctions persist even when racial indicators do. Since the country's founding, it has had exclusionary racial practises that have persisted far through the Jim Crow period of the 20th century. The United States has a long history of racism that predates the Civil Rights

movement, ranging from the US Constitution, which treated slaves as constituting 3/5 of a person, through discriminatory housing covenants in the 1960s. African Americans have not been the only ones excluded. Racist legislation and behaviours have been directed at several populations. Before 1924, the American native population was not completely regarded as a citizen. Voting rights, housing opportunities, and even union membership in the past were racist politics aimed at several marginalised communities. This is not to claim that there is no ethnic prejudice. Such prejudice has a long history in the United States, but as the native population absorbs the immigrant population, it tends to fade.

Housing

In the past, ethnic groups tended to coexist in physically close proximity. Chinatown or Little Italy may be found in many places. We call them ethnic enclaves. Groups cluster for a variety of reasons, some of which are voluntarily chosen and others which are not. Cities in the US often imposed restrictions on the housing options available to African Americans. These limitations were imposed by the letter of the law or by unwritten behavioural standards that prohibited African American families from buying or renting homes outside of designated neighbourhoods. Along with this residential segregation, there was also educational, social, and economic segregation. African American neighbourhoods were sometimes referred to as ghettos, or areas where a certain group is compelled to dwell. Ghetto is a term that predates the United States itself.

The region where Jews were compelled to dwell was known as a ghetto in Italian. The phrase may be Italian, but historically, it has sadly gained widespread support to force minorities to reside in specified zones. Legal housing segregation was abolished in the US in 1968, but social norms change more slowly than legal requirements. Numerous ethnic groups have developed via less forceful methods. There are several reasons why an ethnic group may decide to dwell near together. Positive factors include the capacity to build mutual support networks, create institutions of higher learning and enterprises that serve their specific needs, feel protected, and maintain cultural ties. Negative factors include institutionalised poverty, underrepresented political representation, and aggressive prejudice.

Ecological Justice

The disparity in political representation levels is one of the geographical expressions of racism and ethnic prejudice. The placement of unfavourable environmental activities is another. Landfills and airports are often developed in areas where less powerful groups reside, but dominant groups almost never need to organise to stop such things from being built in their communities. Some populations have economic limitations as a result of underfunded public schools or poor infrastructure. Environmental justice is the notion that people from diverse groups should have access to good housing.

Racial and Ethnic Diversity in the US

The United States is an ethnically diverse nation, like other mostly immigrant nations, although the variety of ethnicities has changed throughout time as new groups immigrate and older groups adapt and finally integrate. There are occasions when a guy of Italian origin in the United States may simply state, I'm Italian. This individual may not speak any Italian, be a Catholic, or have even visited Italy in his life. So what does this sentence really mean? Even if the relationship has weakened over time, it just indicates a historical tie to an ethnicity. Not to pick out Italian Americans specifically. Usually, when a group assimilates, its particular ethnic characteristics disappear. Polish and Mexican Americans may be compared since they both speak the same language, practise Catholicism, and have extremely similar lives. One of the few remaining cultural components is food, which has replaced the label as an identifier.

Food-ways

Food is one way that ethnic communities express themselves. The spread of a meal from the group of origin is one of the most blatant signs that an ethnicity has arrived in the United States or any other nation. Pizza in the US, curry in the UK, and done kebab in Germany are all examples of how far a dish introduced by immigrants may go to become a recognised national dish. The aspect of culture that is most approachable to outsiders is also food. A spatial sense of one place as a mirror of the whole globe is created through food-ways. The term food-ways describes the many kinds of food that people consume, how they cook it, and the cultural elements that surround and contextualise it. The most durable cultural artefact is food. Foods may distinguish ethnic groups in nations that are experiencing linguistic unification. Foods in mostly monolingual nations like the United States may represent socioeconomic status or a person's place of origin. Food is simple to purchase, try, and accept or reject. It is thus the aspect of culture that is easiest to reach.

The current restaurant business and global food corporations have in many ways severed the connection between a meal's consumption and its production from its historical origins. Many Americans are unaware of the history of the dishes they assume to be Chinese or Mexican yet have been eating them for years. When a restaurant's chefs come from an entirely different ethnic group than the cuisine being served, it may be difficult to determine whether the meal is really genuine. Food-ways may be compared between regions and ethnic groups. We can better understand the lifestyles of individuals in other areas by observing food consumption patterns, the proportion of prepared meals, and alcohol and cigarette use.

The Ethnic Composition

Urban ethnic landscapes may often be recognised right away. The ethnic makeup of a location may be seen via signs in various languages promoting unusual goods, ethnic architecture, and even local tourism. The majority of Americans do not reside in big cities with blatantly ethnic architecture. The majority of Americans, representing a wide range of nationalities, reside in suburban areas and smaller cities. Here, ethnic communities may be distributed broadly rather than in conspicuous demographic centres. People will travel to such a site instead of living close to their neighbourhood shop or place of worship. Along with the rest of America, ethnic diversity has increased. Migration waves to American cities and suburbs have produced very diverse ethnic landscapes that are surrounded by similar architecture.

Ethnic Celebrations and the Ideal Home Country

Festivals are one way that ethnic groups identify themselves. People celebrate their culture by dancing the ancient dances, dressing in traditional attire, listening to music from the past, and eating foods that were only provided at special occasions. Festivals help immigrant communities recreate a feeling of place. They also help to keep kids engaged in tasks that they would otherwise forget. The locations portrayed in ethnic festivals in the United States are often not current versions of those locations. If not to promote Czech-ness to visitors, traditional Czech dress during an Oklahoma Kolache Festival indicates a place/time that no longer exists.

America's Ethnic Diversity

In the United States, the distribution of ethnic groups follows long-established trends. The patterns that are still present in the United States were created by historical migrations.

American Citizens of African Descent

The majority of African Americans in the US are still from the South. Their dispersal began with the forcible immigration of millions of Africans into the United States at the founding of the country. Many African Americans left this area beginning in the early 20th century, but the majority did not. African Americans have even started to move back to Southern cities and suburbs around the end of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first.

Hispanic Americans in the US

In the Mexican American War, the United States captured several of the states with sizable Hispanic populations from Mexico. In some respects, the United States came to these areas rather than the other way around. Undoubtedly, a pattern is visible. The majority of Hispanic residents tend to live in areas of the U.S. that are closest to Mexico or the Caribbean. Other places have sizable Hispanic populations. Immigrants have been drawn to these locations because of the work opportunities.

American Citizens of Asian Descent

The distribution of Asian Americans is also unique and is dependent on historical factors. The regions of the United States that are geographically closest to Asia are those in the west, particularly Hawaii. Here, a proximity effect like that of Hispanics is at work.

Native Alaskans and American Indians

Native Americans formerly lived on the whole area that is now populated. They now make up around 2% of the total population of the United States as a result of sickness, genocidal wars, and poverty. Some people do, but the majority do not.

Originally from Hawaii and other Pacific Islands

Hawaii has formerly been a sovereign nation. During conflicts with other regionally strong nations, further lands in the Pacific were captured. Numerous members of these communities have moved to the American continent. Native Hawaiians are a minority in Hawaii, much as American Indians are in every state.

CONCLUSION

Social variables also play a role in the relationship between ethnicity and personal identity. People's social environments, including their families, communities, and peer networks, have an impact on how they define their ethnicity. People's perceptions and expressions of their ethnic identity are influenced by their interactions with others, their experiences of prejudice, and their involvement in ethnic groups and organisations. It has effects on people, communities, and society as a whole to understand how ethnicity and personal identity are related. It encourages cultural variety, intercultural understanding, and the growth of inclusive and just society. Diverse ethnic identities should be honoured and respected since they strengthen social bonds, advance social justice, and improve people's quality of life. In summary, a person's ethnicity and personal identity are interconnected components of their self-concept that are impacted by historical, cultural, social, and psychological variables. People's sense of identity is shaped by their ethnicity, which offers a framework for understanding their cultural background. To promote inclusive societies, intercultural understanding, and the wellbeing of people and communities, it is crucial to acknowledge the complex relationship between personal identity and ethnicity.

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CHAPTER 10

IMPACT OF RACE AND ETHNICITY IN DIFFERENT GEOGRAPHICAL CONTEXTS

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ABSTRACT:

Race and ethnicity are potent social categories that influence identities, circumstances, and social interactions across a range of geographic situations. In order to better understand how race and ethnicity affect people and communities on a social, cultural, and economic level, this abstract looks at how these issues play out in many contexts. While ethnicity includes similar cultural practises, customs, and legacy, race refers to the classification of individuals based on outward appearance. Both ideas have a big impact on how social interactions, opportunities, and inequities are shaped. However, there might be regional variations in the precise manifestations and effects of race and ethnicity. There are several areas where the effects of race and ethnicity may be seen. Racial and ethnic identities have an impact on social networks, patterns of social inclusion, and exclusion from certain groups. The cultural variety and vitality of various places are influenced by the cultural expressions, customs, and languages that are unique to certain racial and ethnic groupings. Furthermore, ethnic and racial groups often maintain distinctive cultural traditions and social conventions, which have an impact on the social structure of their particular regions. Economically, racial and ethnic differences in employment, income, and resource access may be influenced. Racial and ethnic discrimination, prejudices, and biases may limit prospects for upward mobility and exacerbate economic inequality. On the other hand, entrepreneurial networks and ethnic enclaves may promote economic development and serve as support networks for certain racial and ethnic communities.

KEYWORDS:

Ethnic, Ethnicity, Geographic, Identity, Racial.

INTRODUCTION

The enormous collection of research on the effects of race and ethnicity in diverse geographic situations is examined in this review essay. It strives to provide a thorough review of the ways in which racial and ethnic identity affects people and communities in various geographic areas in terms of their social, cultural, economic, and political elements. The conceptual frameworks of race and ethnicity are first discussed in the article, with an emphasis on their social construction and the dynamic interaction between personal and communal identities. It highlights the multifaceted structure of these conceptions by examining the difficulties and elasticity of racial and ethnic categorizations. The paper then explores how race and ethnicity affect people in various geographic locations. It examines the social ramifications while concentrating on issues like racial segregation, identity development, intergroup interactions, and encounters with prejudice and discrimination. It emphasises the significance of social networks, social capital, and social integration in influencing how people from various racial and ethnic origins conduct their lives. In addition, the study investigates the cultural aspects of race and ethnicity, looking at how cultural manifestations, customs, and traditions affect the composition of various groups. The importance of diversity, cultural preservation, and cultural hybridity as results of various racial and ethnic contacts is emphasised. The review study looks at the effects of race and ethnicity on employment, income inequality, educational achievement, and resource access from an economic perspective. It looks at the idea of racialized economics and how race,

ethnicity, and socioeconomic position are interconnected, putting light on the structural obstacles that marginalised racial and ethnic groups must overcome.

With an emphasis on power relations, political representation, and laws addressing racial and ethnic imbalances, the political consequences of race and ethnicity are also investigated. The study looks at how race and ethnicity affect political affiliations, voting patterns, and policy consequences. In order to overcome racial and ethnic inequality, it covers measures including affirmative action, multicultural policy, and community empowerment programmes. The review places a strong emphasis on the value of historical and contextual considerations in understanding the effects of race and ethnicity. It looks at the historical processes like as colonialism, slavery, immigration, and others that have impacted racial and ethnic dynamics in many locales. It also looks at how geopolitics, migration trends, and diaspora communities affect how different racial and ethnic groups are seen in various geographical situations.

The review article draws attention to the need for more study and analysis of the effects of race and ethnicity in various geographic locations in its conclusion. It highlights how crucial it is to develop intersectional and contextual strategies that take into account the many social, cultural, economic, and political aspects that affect racial and ethnic dynamics. In order to address how race and ethnicity affect people and communities, the article emphasises the need of establishing inclusive societies, advancing social justice, and confronting systematic injustices. Overall, this review article offers a thorough synthesis of the body of research and gives insights into the complex effects of race and ethnicity in many geographic situations. In light of racial and ethnic variety, it serves as a basis for further study and provides information for dialogues and policy-making aimed at promoting inclusive and equitable communities.

DISCUSSION

Political and historical aspects also affect how race and ethnicity are seen in various locales. Racial and ethnic landscapes are shaped by migratory patterns, geopolitical processes, and colonial legacies. Historical injustices like slavery, colonialism, or ethnic warfare may still have an effect on racial and ethnic dynamics today. Different racial and ethnic groups' experiences and possibilities are shaped by political systems and policies such as affirmative action, multiculturalism, and assimilationist methods. For the purpose of correcting social injustices, developing social cohesion, and fostering inclusive communities, it is essential to comprehend how race and ethnicity affect diverse geographic situations. It necessitates recognising the distinctive historical, cultural, and socio-political elements that influence racial and ethnic dynamics in each location. In order to lessen the negative effects of race and ethnicity while recognising the variety and contributions of other groups, it is important to emphasise intercultural understanding, confront prejudices, and support legislation that address systematic inequities [1], [2].

Although over time the social consequences of race or ethnicity have diminished in the United States, this does not imply that they are no longer significant. Additionally, it does not imply that ethnicity has no use elsewhere. It is still crucial in many locations. Race characterised South Africa, Brazil, and other colonial colonies in a manner similar to how it defined the early United States. Between these locations, there were significant disparities. In contrast to the United States, where white people were the racial majority, South Africa was governed by a white racial minority. White South Africans created the apartheid system, which segregated the population into a variety of legally defined groups, in order to maintain their own dominance. The South African state created ethnically-based Homelands that were used as a tactic of denying citizenship to black South Africans, much as how the United States constructed Indian reservations.

Such a system necessitated the employment of a police state, which ultimately proved to be untenable. When complete and transparent elections were conducted in 1994, the black

majority took control of politics. Even when the government's policy of segregating people stopped, South Africa did not instantly change into a new kind of state. It has continued to mediate disputes between various political and economic groups inside the nation and with the outside world. From the outset, Brazilian society was far more ethnically diverse. Simply put, this led to a society that was stratified according to skin tone and immigration status rather than the binary connection between blacks and whites. People born in the colonising state continued to enjoy heightened social status long after the colonial period ended, as was the case in many colonies. Similar to South Africa and the United States, membership in the founding group was correlated with social position[3], [4].

Purely racial disparities have led to violent outcomes in other areas. Ethnic conflict and homicidal atrocities broke out in Rwanda and Yugoslavia in the 1990s. An endeavour to completely eradicate all signs of a different population from a location came to be known as ethnic cleansing, according to a new word. It would have been difficult for an outsider, and sometimes for a native, to distinguish between the two groups in each of these locations. Keep in mind that racial disparities may have their roots in historically comparable populations. It should be emphasised that the extermination of rival ethnic groups and the annexation of their lands before the twentieth century. People of European origin massacred and marginalised indigenous people all across the globe, which helped define the colonial era of history [5], [6].

Nationalities and Ethnicities

Nation-states are those nations that only have one ethnic group. Contrary to popular belief, most localities have a diverse ethnic population. Some racial groups are only considered minority due to political boundaries. Many organisations have discovered that they are on the wrong side of a boundary. This occurs sometimes as a result of external forces forcing boundaries, such as the Hausa in Nigeria and Niger, but it also occurs when states are created. There were isolated communities of German ancestry spread across Europe at the time the state of Germany was founded. They weren't geographically contiguous, so it would have been hard to combine them all.

Making political and ethnic borders coincide was an endeavour undertaken in the erstwhile Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Individuals from Kazakhstan had the Kazakh SSR, individuals from Uzbekistan had the Uzbek SSR, and so on. It was a concept based on administrative simplicity rather than on the distribution of the various ethnic groups in reality. The distributions were simply too disorganised to be separated by clean, distinct lines. This wasn't a problem while the USSR was still operating, but once it fell apart, there were once again minorities living on the wrong side of borders. Irredentism is when members of your ethnic group reside on the incorrect side of a border, and it is unavoidably unstable. This will be covered in more length in the chapter on political geography that follows, but suffice it to say that divided countries do not enjoy it when they are split[7], [8].

Despite being numerous, several ethnic groups are minority in many nations. Sami, Baloch, and Kurds are ethnic groups that are dispersed throughout a number of nations. These groups often have a great desire to establish their own separate political entities at the expense of the governments that already exist. Ethnicity often fades as areas become more politically united and industrially advanced. Inter-marriage and acculturation to the more prevalent, national standards are promoted by moving people into cities and moving them around in educational institutions, military, and workplaces. Because smaller communities are still the norm, nations like Papua New Guinea are likely the most diversified because they are more rural. A place like South Korea, which was previously eminently racially homogeneous, has nearly completely attained this status as a result of economic growth[9], [10].

Diversity: Is It Good?

Although variety is sometimes touted as a self-evident asset in industrialised nations, there are certain drawbacks to doing so. According to studies, ethnic diversity lowers political engagement. This is probably caused by xenophobia, a basic distrust of different groups of people, as well as other aspects including communication problems. All parties to the relationship may be the target of this suspicion. There are regions in the globe that have relatively little variety. The economies of South Korea, Japan, and Finland are all extraordinarily productive, with low levels of racial or cultural diversity and high levels of social cohesiveness. The advantages of variety are many. Ethnic variety exposes people to a greater range of experiences in addition to the advantages of genetic variation. Without boiling lunch and steak and kidney pie, which are British cultural legacies, the United States would be a cultural wasteland unable to support itself. Diversity has improved our quality of life and broadened our range of interpersonal relationships.

Ethnicity and Immigration

The acceptance of immigration and the presence of ethnic variety are not unique to the United States. In fact, many places even those with limited immigrant history have a significantly greater ethnic variety. For a very long time, the inhabitants of India, China, and Russia have all been varied, speaking various languages and leading various lifestyles. Immigration has had a similar effect on the ethnic makeup of Europe as it has on the US in many areas. Europe has always been a destination for a high number of immigrants due to the relative strength of their economies. Typically, these immigrants have different cultural traits from the native population. The immigrants often originate from nations that were once colonies of European countries. Increased nationalistic or xenophobic activity and, in certain countries, the emergence of political parties devoted to limiting immigration or even repatriating present immigrants have been brought on by an increase in immigrants from backgrounds different from the host country. An even more complex ethnic connection has resulted from the unique group of guest workers. Guest workers are temporary employees hired for a certain amount of time with the knowledge that they would depart once their contract has expired. Because of the economic realities of temporary work, that seldom occurs. People are hesitant to live in poverty again.

Ethnicity Role Models

Ethnicity is seen differently depending on where you are. In the US, we distinguish between race and ethnicity, and the census has produced extensive listings of ethnic groups. France does not collect information on race or ethnicity since it considers all of its citizens to be of French descent. This excludes linguistic minorities who are native to France and have different notions about their own ethnicity than the state, such as the Bretons, Basques, and Alsatians. The biggest barrier to state cohesiveness in other locations is ethnic identity. Wole Soyinka, the laureate of the Nobel Prize, famously penned the line, there is no such thing as a Nigerian. He didn't want to imply that Nigerians are just a myth. He was saying that few individuals in his nation would identify as Nigerians first, preferring to do so as Igbo, Yoruba, Hausa, or many other groups. Another idea will be covered in the next chapter. Our identity depends on our ethnicity. It may develop around a number of nuclei, including historical links, ethnicity, language, religion, or any combination of these. A person's ethnicity fosters a sense of group identification. Of course, ethnicity may also serve as a barrier to inclusion for people who do not belong to the dominant group in a location. Ethnicity is often the source of discrimination and prejudice, while other variables, including income typically, also play a role. Race and ethnicity are closely connected because various races may be associated with specific ethnicities and because both have historically been used to divide people. The next chapter goes into further detail on countries and nationality while also touching slightly on human identity.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, race and ethnicity significantly affect people, groups, and societies in a variety of geographical locations. Social connections, cultural manifestations, economic possibilities, and political dynamics are influenced by these variables. Context-specific strategies that take socio-political, cultural, and historical influences into consideration are necessary to understand and address the effects of race and ethnicity. To build fair and peaceful communities in the face of racial and ethnic variety, inclusion, social justice, and intercultural conversation should be encouraged.

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CHAPTER 11

RELATION TO PERSONAL IDENTITY AND ETHNICITY

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ABSTRACT:

The relationship between ethnicity and personal identity is a nuanced and varied phenomena that profoundly affects how people see themselves, interact with others, and engage with other cultures. This abstract gives a general overview of the complex link between ethnicity and personal identity, emphasising identity formation processes, the effect of cultural heritage, and the social factors that affect this relationship. Personal identity includes an individual's sense of self, beliefs, values, and life experiences. A single ethnic group's cultural practises, rituals, and language help to create a cultural identity, which in turn influences how people express their unique identities. Cultural legacy serves as a source of pride, social cohesiveness, and a feeling of continuity and helps people form a deep connection with their ethnicity. Additionally important aspects are the social dynamics around ethnicity and one's own identity. The interactions that a person has with their family, community, and peer networks influence their ethnic identity. Social expectations, norms, and discriminatory experiences all have an impact on how people manage their ethnic identities and how they see themselves in a wider social context.

KEYWORDS:

Cultural, Ethnic, Ethnicity, Geographic, Identity.

INTRODUCTION

Ethnicity refers to a common cultural history, which includes customs, traditions, languages, and ancestry. As people negotiate their cultural environments, personal identification and ethnicity become intertwined, influencing how they see themselves and how others see them. Ethnicity is only one of many variables that impact the dynamic process of identity creation. People often rely on the cultural practises, values, and beliefs specific to their ethnic group while forming their own identities. This integration helps people feel like they belong because it gives them a foundation for understanding who they are and where they fit in the world. An important factor in the relationship between ethnicity and personal identity is cultural impact. Furthermore, historical, political, and social circumstances have an impact on the relationship between ethnicity and personal identity [1], [2]. The establishment and development of ethnic identities may be influenced by historical occurrences like migration, colonisation, or warfare. Individuals' experiences and opportunities may be impacted by socioeconomic inequalities and institutional frameworks depending on their ethnicity, hence influencing their personal identities [3], [4].

In beginning geography courses, the question what is ethnicity and how is it distinct from race? The quick answer to that is that race is determined by inherited traits, while ethnicity is determined by acquired behaviour. This response is not comprehensive. Race and ethnicity are in fact intricate aspects of the cultures in which they exist. The solution is further complicated by the connection between race, ethnicity, and economic status. Other pupils have inquired. Race and ethnicity both have distinct geographical dimensions. Space interactions and related locations exist for both races and ethnicities. Wealth, gender, and race/ethnicity are only a few of the variables that might affect someone's capacity to move across space and utilise it. Geographical research is permissible on anything that restricts a person's freedom of movement. On the feeling of location, several geographic studies have been conducted. A location has elements of race and ethnicity. Languages are used to write

signs, dwellings have different architectural styles, and individuals dress differently depending on their ethnicity.

The Foundations of Race

Language, religion, a shared past, one's national origin, or other cultural traits may all be used to identify one's ethnicity. The fundamental component of an ethnicity is a cultural trait or group of traits. An ethnicity may also be thought of as a country or a people. Ethnic divisions often serve as the catalyst for political or cultural upheavals across the globe. For instance, the Basques living along the western border of France and Spain are essentially identical to their non-Basque neighbours in practically every respect. They practise the same faith, have comparable occupations, and consume similar meals. The only characteristic that sets them apart from their neighbours is that they speak Basque. This may seem to outsiders to be a minor issue, but it is not. It serves as the cornerstone of Basque nationalism, which has given rise to a political secessionist movement. This movement has sometimes turned to violence in its fight for independence. The relative significance of this language has resulted in deaths. The Basques want their own homeland because they perceive themselves as a nation[5], [6].

Rarely are the racial identities of dominant groups problematic. Majority ethnicities are seen as the default or the norm, whereas smaller groups are viewed as marginal in one form or another. Minorities are usually often brought up while discussing ethnicity. Assimilation, acculturation, and amalgamation are the three main ideas of ethnic geography. These ideas explain how majoritarian and majoritarian cultures interact within a community. The concept of amalgamation holds that multi-ethnic communities will ultimately combine the cultural traits of their ethnic groupings. The idea that the United States is a melting pot of civilizations with unique contributions from many origins is the most well-known example of this concept. The adoption of a group's cultural traits by another is known as acculturation. Although acculturation is often a process that moves a minority culture closer to the mainstream, majority civilizations do sometimes embrace minority cultural elements.

Assimilation is the loss of ethnically-specific cultural traits, sometimes to the point where the ethnicity no longer exists. There aren't many, if any, distinctive cultural characteristics among Welsh Americans. We have examined topics that are often at the centre of a person's identity when we have looked at the preceding chapters on Language, Religion, and now Ethnicity. Identity defines who we are, and as a species, we often guard those who share our common identity. For instance, ethnicity and religion may have a strong relationship, and what may seem to be a religious conflict may really be a politically charged ethnic conflict or a competition for resources between ethnic groups that has taken on the definition of a religious war [7], [8]. Christian farmers and Muslim Fula herders in Nigeria are engaged in conflict for the same land and water supplies, not over differences in religious beliefs. The reality has not lived up to the notion that we regard everyone inside the limits of our nation as our group, which is one of the lasting ideals of contemporary political collectives. Ethnic conflicts plague many contemporary nations and have shown to be remarkably resistant to notions of racial or ethnic equality.

DISCUSSION

The main inquiry around race is straightforward: Does race even exist? The response might be either yes or no, depending on how the question is phrased. If the term race is used in the same manner that species is used in the context of animals, then race does not exist. The population of humans is just too homogeneous. If the inquiry is rephrased as, are there any surface distinctions between formerly geographically separated human groups? Then the response is indeed. Between many groups of individuals, there exist genetic and heritable distinctions. However, these phenotypic variations reveal relatively little about genetics. How come? The truth is that throughout history, humans have been incredibly mobile. People travel around and interact with various social groupings. In the environment, there are no

clear genetic distinctions between various racial groupings. Racial classifications may thus be seen as societal constructions.

Race and Ethnicity are Distinct

People often struggle with the differences. Let's begin with the most straightforward group of Americans by race: African Americans. The majority of people are aware that the African continent is where the African American or Black population of the United States originated. That is the aspect of race. Now, the ethnic component seems to be precisely the same, and in a way, it nearly is, but only because of a specific historical circumstance. If large numbers of BaKongo or Igbo people had been forcibly transported from Africa to Virginia and settled there as a group, for instance, we would be referring to these groups as distinct ethnicities in the same way that we refer to the Germans or Czechs in America. Large numbers of the Germans and Czechs arrived, often lived together, and kept their own cultures alive long enough to be recognised as distinct ethnic groupings. Africans who were held in slavery did not follow that pattern of settlement. The particular ethnic traditions of these people did not survive the acculturation process once they were transported to the United States and auctioned off essentially at random. They did, however, retain certain overarching group traits, and they also created their own unique cultural traits in the United States as a whole. Interestingly, the complexity of the phrase African American has grown as direct African immigration to the United States has expanded since it now encompasses a wider spectrum of cultural traditions [9], [10].

Particularly Ethnic

A multiracial and multi-ethnic society exists in the United States. This has been acknowledged by both the nation and the U.S. Since 1790, the census has served as a record of the ethnic diversity in the United States. Here are the current classifications of races. Although there are many different ethnic groups in the US and detailed data is gathered, in many respects the ethnic categories are subdivisions of the racial categories. The notion is that although ethnicity is a smaller, cultural grouping, race is a much larger, physical grouping. By considering the evidence in this manner, you may better comprehend why African Americans are both an ethnicity and a race. The many ethnic groups that make up American Indians are another, more comprehensive example. There are several distinct countries that fall within the American Indian and Alaska Native racial categories.

The ethnicity of Americans of Hispanic descent

The phrase used to identify this ethnicity is Hispanic. Since 1976, the United States government has mandated the gathering and analysis of data for just one ethnic group: Americans of Spanish origin or descent. It is a reference to what is now known as contemporary Spain's Roman name. However, most Hispanics are not Spanish; rather, they are citizens of one of Spain's former colonies. Latino is another word that is often used and is another allusion to the Roman Empire. These labels are both quite ambiguous. People often identify with the nation of their ancestors rather than a classification created by the Census Bureau for record-keeping reasons. Any race may contain Hispanics. The fact that all racial and ethnic data is self-reported is very crucial to understand. This implies that you are the one who determines if you are an African American, Hispanic, or belong to any other group. One more point: even though they do not speak Spanish, natives of Hispanophone nations are often referred to as Hispanic.

Relationship between Race and Ethnicity in the USA

Race and ethnicity have varying degrees of significance throughout time and geography. Racial or ethnic divides have historically been the norm in the United States. However, these racial or ethnic distinctions are no longer as common as they once were. Slavery deeply divided society, especially between the free, white people and the Black population who were subject to slavery, starting in the early days of the nation and entrenched in the US

Constitution. Free people of colour helped to connect the groups to some extent. However, these were not the only divides that existed in the US. The majority of the population was of English origin. We refer to them as a charter group in terms of location. The charter group refers to those who established the first permanent colony rather than the first individuals to arrive at a location. They are the first group to control politics, to put it in academic parlance. Laws created by English settlers served to further their interests. They promoted their own culture, government, and language. Later arriving groups discovered that many of their queries about the local culture had already been addressed. Everyone in the US is subject to the assimilation pressure. Political pressure may exist; for instance, German-speaking Americans mainly ceased speaking German during World War One. The pressure might be social; for instance, young children in school may feel alone if they are unable to communicate in the language of the majority. In particular, there may be financial strain. It might be challenging to negotiate the job market without following accepted social conventions. For individuals who have not assimilated, life might be challenging due to a lack of English, ignorance of the standards of formal clothing or behaviour, or just an inability to read social signs.

Also altered was the charter group. For instance, historically speaking, the concepts of whiteness and blackness have changed. Take the US's history into consideration. Initially, the majority of Americans were Protestant British whites and African blacks. Definitions have to be changed in order to include individuals from various locations. Are Catholic Italians seen as White? Many Americans would have responded negatively in the past. That being said, neither would the Irish or Jews, albeit throughout time, these groups were often categorised as white. More individuals are now considered to be white. It transitioned from being an ethnic category to a racial one.

As blackness changed, so did its definitions. A legal system that defined blackness as having any African heritage ultimately developed in the American South. Being phenotypically white and legally black might be feasible. In the past, mixed-race Creole people in Louisiana did not identify as black or white rather, they were placed in a different category. Asia, and China in particular, has its own set of exclusionary rules that severely restricted people's ability to immigrate to the United States. It was legal for the government to imprison American citizens of Japanese heritage during World War II due to concerns about their allegiance and ethnic origins.

The inclusion of Hispanic people in the various racial groups is one of the important ethnic topics that are now being discussed in the United States. People who identify as Hispanic may use whichever term they think is most suitable since this ethnicity is not inherently a racial categorization. In the most recent U.S. census, it seems that more Hispanics are declaring themselves to be white. Projections for the future population of the United States are impacted by this. If Hispanics identify as white, the U.S. will continue to be mostly white for a while. If they don't, there won't be a majority race in the US in a few decades. Today, race and ethnicity are both self-identified for the census, despite the fact that race and ethnicity in the U.S. were historically linked to state-mandated identity, limiting laws, and onerous duties. Being Irish is no longer a reason to be denied work, but rather a phrase to display on your welcome mat and a reason to rejoice once a year in March.

Identifiers of Race

Racial group designation terminology has also evolved. For instance, while the census racial group is still Asian, persons of Asian heritage who were born in the United States are now referred to as Asian Americans in broad terms of ethnicity. Asian connotes a connection to Asia and no connection to America. This group is directly linked to America by Asian Americans. Those who can trace their roots back to Africa have a different issue. The history of America contributes to this issue. This group's initial census designation was simply Black.

Other terms, such as Negro, were used throughout time until the word African American was finally established. This phrase establishes a connection between a population of individuals and their country of origin. In other words, it blatantly connects a group to its ancestry. Although the term Native American is often used in American speech, it is distinct from the term Indian-American in the Census. American Indian continues to be used despite the push towards more precise classifications.

The United States' Racism

Racism and ethnic discrimination are comparable yet distinct from one another. Physical distinctions persist even when racial indicators do. Since the country's founding, it has had exclusionary racial practices that have persisted far through the Jim Crow period of the 20th century. The United States has a long history of racism that predates the Civil Rights movement, ranging from the US Constitution, which treated slaves as constituting 3/5 of a person, through discriminatory housing covenants in the 1960s. African Americans have not been the only ones excluded. Racist legislation and behaviours have been directed at several populations. Before 1924, the American native population was not completely regarded as a citizen. Voting rights, housing opportunities, and even union membership in the past were racist politics aimed at several marginalised communities. This is not to claim that there is no ethnic prejudice. Such prejudice has a long history in the United States, but as the native population absorbs the immigrant population, it tends to fade.

Housing

In the past, ethnic groups tended to coexist in physically close proximity. Chinatown or Little Italy may be found in many places. We call them ethnic enclaves. Groups cluster for a variety of reasons, some of which are voluntarily chosen and others which are not. Cities in the US often imposed restrictions on the housing options available to African Americans. These limitations were imposed by the letter of the law or by unwritten behavioural standards that prohibited African American families from buying or renting homes outside of designated neighbourhoods. Along with this residential segregation, there was also educational, social, and economic segregation. African American neighbourhoods were sometimes referred to as ghettos, or areas where a certain group is compelled to dwell. Ghetto is a term that predates the United States itself. The region where Jews were compelled to dwell was known as a ghetto in Italian.

The phrase may be Italian, but historically, it has sadly gained widespread support to force minorities to reside in specified zones. Legal housing segregation was abolished in the US in 1968, but social norms change more slowly than legal requirements. Numerous ethnic groups have developed via less forceful methods. There are several reasons why an ethnic group may decide to dwell near together. Positive factors include the capacity to build mutual support networks, create institutions of higher learning and enterprises that serve their specific needs, feel protected, and maintain cultural ties. Negative factors include institutionalised poverty, underrepresented political representation, and aggressive prejudice.

Ecological Justice

The disparity in political representation levels is one of the geographical expressions of racism and ethnic prejudice. The placement of unfavourable environmental activities is another. Landfills and airports are often developed in areas where less powerful groups reside, but dominant groups almost never need to organise to stop such things from being built in their communities. Some populations have economic limitations as a result of underfunded public schools or poor infrastructure. Environmental justice is the notion that people from diverse groups should have access to good housing.

Racial and Ethnic Diversity in the US

The United States is an ethnically diverse nation, like other mostly immigrant nations, although the variety of ethnicities has changed throughout time as new groups immigrate and

older groups adapt and finally integrate. There are occasions when a guy of Italian origin in the United States may simply state, I'm Italian. This individual may not speak any Italian, be a Catholic, or have even visited Italy in his life. So what does this sentence really mean? Even if the relationship has weakened over time, it just indicates a historical tie to an ethnicity. Not to pick out Italian Americans specifically. Usually, when a group assimilates, its particular ethnic characteristics disappear. Polish and Mexican Americans may be compared since they both speak the same language, practise Catholicism, and have extremely similar lives. One of the few remaining cultural components is food, which has replaced the label as an identifier.

Food-ways

Food is one way that ethnic communities express themselves. The spread of a meal from the group of origin is one of the most blatant signs that an ethnicity has arrived in the United States or any other nation. Pizza in the US, curry in the UK, and done kebab in Germany are all examples of how far a dish introduced by immigrants may go to become a recognised national dish. The aspect of culture that is most approachable to outsiders is also food. A spatial sense of one place as a mirror of the whole globe is created through food ways. The term food ways describes the many kinds of food that people consume, how they cook it, and the cultural elements that surround and contextualise it. The most durable cultural artefact is food. Foods may distinguish ethnic groups in nations that are experiencing linguistic unification. Foods in mostly monolingual nations like the United States may represent socioeconomic status or a person's place of origin.

Food is simple to purchase, try, and accept or reject. It is thus the aspect of culture that is easiest to reach. The current restaurant business and global food corporations have in many ways severed the connection between a meal's consumption and its production from its historical origins. Many Americans are unaware of the history of the dishes they assume to be Chinese or Mexican yet have been eating them for years. When a restaurant's chefs come from an entirely different ethnic group than the cuisine being served, it may be difficult to determine whether the meal is really genuine. Food ways may be compared between regions and ethnic groups. We can better understand the lifestyles of individuals in other areas by observing food consumption patterns, the proportion of prepared meals, and alcohol and cigarette use.

The Ethnic Composition

Urban ethnic landscapes may often be recognised right away. The ethnic makeup of a location may be seen via signs in various languages promoting unusual goods, ethnic architecture, and even local tourism. The majority of Americans do not reside in big cities with blatantly ethnic architecture. The majority of Americans, representing a wide range of nationalities, reside in suburban areas and smaller cities. Here, ethnic communities may be distributed broadly rather than in conspicuous demographic centres. People will travel to such a site instead of living close to their neighbourhood shop or place of worship. Along with the rest of America, ethnic diversity has increased. Migration waves to American cities and suburbs have produced very diverse ethnic landscapes that are surrounded by similar architecture.

Ethnic Celebrations and the Ideal Home Country

Festivals are one way that ethnic groups identify themselves. People celebrate their culture by dancing the ancient dances, dressing in traditional attire, listening to music from the past, and eating foods that were only provided at special occasions. Festivals help immigrant communities recreate a feeling of place. They also help to keep kids engaged in tasks that they would otherwise forget. The locations portrayed in ethnic festivals in the United States are often not current versions of those locations. If not to promote Czech-ness to visitors,

traditional Czech dress during an Oklahoma Kolache Festival indicates a place/time that no longer exists.

America's Ethnic Diversity

In the United States, the distribution of ethnic groups follows long-established trends. The patterns that are still present in the United States were created by historical migrations. The majority of African Americans in the US are still from the South. Their dispersal began with the forcible immigration of millions of Africans into the United States at the founding of the country. Many African Americans left this area beginning in the early 20th century, but the majority did not. African Americans have even started to move back to Southern cities and suburbs around the end of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first.

Hispanic Americans in the US

In the Mexican American War, the United States captured several of the states with sizable Hispanic populations from Mexico. In some respects, the United States came to these areas rather than the other way around. Undoubtedly, a pattern is visible. The majority of Hispanic residents tend to live in areas of the U.S. that are closest to Mexico or the Caribbean. Other places have sizable Hispanic populations. Immigrants have been drawn to these locations because of the work opportunities.

American Citizens of Asian Descent

The distribution of Asian Americans is also unique and is dependent on historical factors. The regions of the United States that are geographically closest to Asia are those in the west, particularly Hawaii. Here, a proximity effect like that of Hispanics is at work. Their distribution is seen in Figure 7.5.

Native Alaskans and American Indians

Native Americans formerly lived on the whole area that is now populated. They now make up around 2% of the total population of the United States as a result of sickness, genocidal wars, and poverty. Some people do, but the majority do not.

Originally from Hawaii and other Pacific Islands

Hawaii has formerly been a sovereign nation. During conflicts with other regionally strong nations, further lands in the Pacific were captured. Numerous members of these communities have moved to the American continent. Native Hawaiians are a minority in Hawaii, much as American Indians are in every state.

Race and Ethnicity's Impact in Other Places

Although over time the social consequences of race or ethnicity have diminished in the United States, this does not imply that they are no longer significant. Additionally, it does not imply that ethnicity has no use elsewhere. It is still crucial in many locations. Race characterised South Africa, Brazil, and other colonial colonies in a manner similar to how it defined the early United States. Between these locations, there were significant disparities. In contrast to the United States, where white people were the racial majority, South Africa was governed by a white racial minority. White South Africans created the apartheid system, which segregated the population into a variety of legally defined groups, in order to maintain their own dominance. The South African state created ethnically-based Homelands that were used as a tactic of denying citizenship to black South Africans, much as how the United States constructed Indian reservations.

Such a system necessitated the employment of a police state, which ultimately proved to be untenable. When complete and transparent elections were conducted in 1994, the black majority took control of politics. Even when the government's policy of segregating people stopped, South Africa did not instantly change into a new kind of state. It has continued to mediate disputes between various political and economic groups inside the nation and with the outside world. From the outset, Brazilian society was far more ethnically diverse. Simply put, this led to a society that was stratified according to skin tone and immigration status

rather than the binary connection between blacks and whites. People born in the colonising state continued to enjoy heightened social status long after the colonial period ended, as was the case in many colonies. Similar to South Africa and the United States, membership in the founding group was correlated with social position.

Purely racial disparities have led to violent outcomes in other areas. Ethnic conflict and homicidal atrocities broke out in Rwanda and Yugoslavia in the 1990s. An endeavour to completely eradicate all signs of a different population from a location came to be known as ethnic cleansing, according to a new word. It would have been difficult for an outsider, and sometimes for a native, to distinguish between the two groups in each of these locations. Keep in mind that racial disparities may have their roots in historically comparable populations. It should be emphasised that the extermination of rival ethnic groups and the annexation of their lands before the twentieth century. People of European origin massacred and marginalised indigenous people all across the globe, which helped define the colonial era of history.

CONCLUSION

Promoting societal cohesiveness, intercultural understanding, and inclusion will be significantly impacted by understanding the relationship between ethnicity and personal identity. A more just and peaceful society is a result of acknowledging and appreciating different ethnic and personal identities. It calls for valuing cultural variety, dispelling myths, and promoting conversation that acknowledges the nuanced interactions between ethnicity and personal identity. In conclusion, the relationship between a person's ethnicity and personal identity is a complex and dynamic process that is impacted by social dynamics, cultural influences, and identity creation. Understanding the significance of ethnicity and personal identification advances our knowledge of people's self-perceptions and cultural experiences. Building cohesive and egalitarian communities requires embracing diversity and developing inclusive cultures that honour and respect varied personal and ethnic identities.

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CHAPTER 12

THE DYNAMICS OF POLITICAL SPACE ORGANIZATION

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ABSTRACT:

Political space organisation, which includes the spatial distribution of political authority, institutions, and decision-making processes within a certain geographic region, is a multifaceted and complicated phenomenon. This abstract gives a general overview of how political space is organised while examining the conceptual underpinnings, theoretical underpinnings, and application possibilities. The arrangement of political organisations and entities within a physical environment is known as political space organisation. It includes a number of elements, including geographic divisions, organisational frameworks, electoral procedures, and spatial dynamics of political processes. The idea is based on theories of territoriality, federalism, regionalism, and devolution, which emphasise how geography, history, culture, and power dynamics interact to shape political spaces at various sizes. Understanding the organisation of the political sphere requires the use of theoretical frameworks and analytical methods. Insights into the geographic patterns of political events and the spatial dynamics of political rivalry are provided by spatial theories, such as spatial models of voting behaviour and spatial analyses of policy-making. These frameworks aid in the analysis of how political parties, interest groups, and policy consequences are distributed spatially.

KEYWORDS:

Ethnic, Geographic, Political, Policy, Social.

INTRODUCTION

Political space organisation has a broad range of practical repercussions. Political representation and party systems are impacted by the selection of electoral systems, including districting techniques and proportional representation. Devolved authority and local autonomy are key factors in how administrative divisions and decentralisation policies affect governance. In addition to determining the geographical features of policy execution and resolving regional inequities, political space organisation also has an impact on social movements, political involvement, and the allocation of public goods and services. The spatial organisation and distribution of political power, institutions, and decision-making processes inside a certain geographic region is referred to as political space organisation. This study covers the many facets of political space organisation, such as territorial divisions, administrative structures, electoral systems, and the function of spatiality in political processes, by synthesising the available research.

The first section of the essay explores the theoretical underpinnings of how political space is organised. It addresses important ideas like territoriality, federalism, regionalism, and devolution, illuminating the numerous ways that political areas are structured. The study emphasises how geography, history, culture, and power dynamics shape how political spaces are organised at various dimensions, from local government to international levels. The geographical model of voting behaviour, the spatial analysis of policymaking, and the spatial distribution of political parties and interest groups are only a few examples of the ideas that are covered. These frameworks provide light on the spatial dynamics of political rivalry, the spatial patterns of political events, and the consequences of spatial closeness for the formulation of policy [1], [2]. The useful implications of political space organisation. It examines the impacts of gerrymandering, diverse districting strategies, and proportional

representation on political representation and party structures. Decentralisation and its function in government are also covered in the paper, along with the advantages and drawbacks of local autonomy and delegated authorities. The study also discusses the geographical aspects of political processes, including social movements, political mobilisation, and the provision of public goods and services. It looks at the geographic distribution of political engagement and the geographic tactics used by political players to win over voters and influence policy.

The research also looks at the issues of resolving regional disparities and geographical inequalities as well as the spatial elements of policy implementation. The review article emphasises the need for more study and analysis in the area of political space organisation in its conclusion. It emphasises the value of multidisciplinary techniques that combine political science, geography, urban studies, and spatial analysis. Effective governance, equitable representation, and resolving geographical imbalances all depend on an understanding of how political spaces are structured. It necessitates taking into account the intricate relationships that exist between political institutions, socioeconomic considerations, and geographical patterns. In conclusion, the geographical distribution of political power, institutions, and decision-making processes is a part of the complex and dynamic process known as political space organisation. A thorough examination of the theoretical, conceptual, and practical aspects of political space organisation is provided in this review study. It lays the groundwork for further studies on political organisation and spatial governance as well as for the formulation of policies and the making of well-informed choices [3], [4].

Most people see geography as studying the locations of numerous nations across the globe as well as memorising state names and capitals. These facts pertain to political geography as a sub-discipline because they demonstrate how politics is mirrored on the Earth's surface, but political geography is much more than a trivial pursuit of this data. Political geography covers a wide range of topics, including military and economic alliances, international borders, terrorism and other civil-military conflicts, as well as the geography of the electoral process. Although understanding the locations of countries and states is fundamental and an important foundation for the study of political geography, the subject also deals with many other topics [5], [6]. The state is the basic unit of political space, and this kind of state is distinct from the states that make up the US. A state, which is essentially the same as a nation, is a formal geographic area where the government is in charge of its own affairs inside its borders. Currently, there are 196 states in the globe, however this number might fluctuate due to state devolution or military victories. For instance, the United Kingdom has devolved during the last 70 years as the Republic of Ireland has seceded, and a fresh referendum on Scotland's independence may be held in the coming years.

Following the dissolution of the Soviet Union, fifteen new republics were founded in Eastern Europe, which is another excellent illustration of the emergence of new states. Even a terrorist organisation, the Islamic State, has attempted to create its own state in parts of Syria and Iraq, despite the fact that the international world does not recognise its authority. Nation-states are characterised by their geographical limits enclosing a population with a common ethnicity. These states are referred to as a country because the populations inside them often have a common cultural and historical identity. The nation-states of Japan, Finland, and Egypt are a few instances from the present. In contrast to multinational states, which are governments that have more than one country inside their boundaries, nation-states are really in the minority. More governments are becoming multinational as a result of the major global phenomena of international migration. In contrast, some countries do not yet have their own state but want to do so these nations are referred to as stateless nations. The many Native American tribes dispersed throughout the United States are a great illustration of stateless states. Other examples are the Kurds who may be found in Iraq, Turkey, Syria, and Iran, as

well as the Palestinians who reside in Israel, Syria, Lebanon, and Jordan. The nations where they dwell are unwilling to offer them separate territory, which poses severe challenges for both the Kurds and Palestinians as they aggressively pursue independence.

Both centrifugal and centripetal pressures have an impact on the solidarity and unity of a state. Centrifugal forces work to separate a state, whereas centripetal forces seek to tie a state together. Centripetal factors include things like nationalism, economic growth, and powerful, moral security forces. Wars, dysfunctional or corrupt administrations, and market failure are examples of centrifugal forces. Types of borders, ethnic disparities, and the compactness of a state are other variables that might affect a state's cohesion [7], [8]. A state's form has an impact on how compact it is; a compact state is one that is ideally circular, with a distance from any border to the centre that is nearly equal. A fragmented state, on the other hand, is discontinuous in character and may include many islands. Indonesia and the Philippines are two instances of fractured states. In order to absorb indigenous communities and strengthen the unity of the state throughout Indonesia's more than 17,000 islands, the government aggressively supported migration. Due to the presence of terrorist organisations in the southern islands of the Philippines, namely Mindanao, control of such regions is difficult.

DISCUSSION

Collaboration among States

States form alliances in order to guarantee joint military and economic protection as a single entity. A bigger market for free trade of products is made possible by economic and military alliances, which shield governments from shared foes. These associations, which are sometimes known as supranational organisations, all entail nations ceding part of their sovereign authority for the sake of the whole. The United Nations is the biggest supranational organisation in the world. The United Nations, initially known as the League of Nations after World War II, presently has 193 member nations. The UN's tasks include maintaining international peace and security, providing humanitarian aid, and creating moral standards that are recognised worldwide. The World Health Organisation, UNESCO, and the Food and Agriculture Organisation are significant UN affiliates, and the UN's headquarters are located in New York City [9], [10].

Military Allies: Warsaw Pact and NATO

Regional military alliances include the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, which was established after World War II to address the danger posed by the former Soviet Union and consists of 28 members. Numerous countries in Western Europe, as well as the United States and Canada, are members. The Warsaw Pact was a military alliance between the Soviet Union and seven Eastern and Central European satellite governments while the Soviet Union was in power. Following the Warsaw Pact's dissolution in 1991, a number of former Soviet republics and satellite governments joined NATO. Russia has acted aggressively to take or control areas in nations close to its borders because it has felt alone and exposed as a consequence.

For instance, in 2008, Russia fought a war in Georgia, a former Soviet state, to assist a separatist movement that was associated with Russia. Within the borders of Ukraine, one of the former Soviet Union nations, Russia invaded the Crimean peninsula in 2014. Additionally, Russia launched a military operation against the rebel troops battling in eastern Ukraine. NATO launched Operation Atlantic Resolve, a continuous series of training exercises between the United States and other NATO nations in former Warsaw Pact nations including Poland, Romania, and Latvia, in reaction to these provocations.

Military Cooperation and Terrorism

Despite being classified as non-state, non-military actors, terrorists have a significant influence on governments all over the globe and involve allied organisations in several nations. Terrorism is the use of violence to intimidate a people in order to advance political

objectives. The first terrorist organisation with a presence on a worldwide scale is Al Qaeda, which Osama bin Laden founded in 1988. Al Qaeda, which carried out the 9/11 attacks, has a number of affiliates, including Boko Haram in Nigeria and Abu Sayyaf in the Philippines, but its impact has decreased over the last ten years. Since the Islamic State's emergence in Iraq and Syria in 2013, terrorist organisations including Boko Haram and Abu Sayyaf have sworn allegiance to ISIS/L.

ISIS/L is an extreme Muslim organisation that seeks to conquer as much land as it can in the Middle East and compel its people to follow its severe interpretation of Islamic fundamentalism. ISIS/L runs a broad social media recruitment drive for warriors to go to Syria in order to accomplish their aim, and they also carry out targeted strikes inside their own nation. Their propaganda campaign has been effective in drawing in a large number of terrorists who would go to Syria and plan or carry out attacks in the United States, Afghanistan, Yemen, Saudi Arabia, France, Belgium, England, Sweden, and Turkey. Additionally, ISIS/L is regularly undertaking combat actions in Egypt and Libya. Interesting military alliances have formed in the fight against the Islamic State and other terrorist organisations, and the situation is quite complicated. In order to train and supply local armed forces in Iraq and Syria, the United States collaborates with several NATO countries. Iran has aided Iraq in pushing ISIS/L out of Iraq via their relationship.

Together with NATO troops, Kurdish forces in northern Iraq and Syria have carried out the majority of the military activity, and as a result of their efforts, they aspire to establish an autonomous state. The opposition of the central governments of Iraq, Syria, and Turkey to an independent Kurdish state complicates the issue. The cooperation between Russia and the Syrian central authority only serves to further complicate the issue. Although these two nations conduct battle against ISIS/L, they also combat other Syrian rebel groups that the US backs. Numerous nations and social media platforms like Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube are working to solve the issue of ISIS/L propaganda. However, the military victories in Iraq and Syria against ISIS/L forces are more significant since they are reducing both the flow of foreign soldiers and the spread of propaganda online.

Economic Partnerships: NAFTA and the European Union

The European Union, which has 28 member nations, is one of the most well-known economic coalitions in the world. The European Union, which had just six members when it was founded as the European Community in 1958, has expanded greatly since then and today encompasses seven former Soviet Union member nations in Eastern Europe. A European Central Bank and a unified currency known as the euro have been created by the EU. Additionally, the majority of borders don't need a passport to cross into another nation. The necessity to subsidise less developed nations puts the EU's wealthier members in a tough financial position. For instance, Greece's high debt levels need financial assistance from the EU. With Greece and Turkey having long-running territorial issues over Cyprus and the Turkish central government being accused of anti-democratic practises, the EU must also decide whether to allow Turkey to join. The United Kingdom's impending Brexit from the EU, which was approved by referendum in 2016 and is scheduled to take effect in 2019, is perhaps the most worrisome development for the alliance. Because the EU is not only an economic alliance but also involves agreements on social and political policies, the UK's choice to quit the EU is not just a matter of economics. The majority of British residents want increased autonomy and are typically opposed to the federal government funding of poorer states as well as the growing number of immigrants who drain scarce public resources.

EU members are afraid that other nations may follow Britain's lead and leave the EU. The North American Free Trade Agreement is a significant economically for the US. This 1992-established alliance unites the US, Mexico, and Canada and streamlines the transfer of products and services across international boundaries. The Trump administration has often

criticised this deal because it has caused American industries to lose employment as a consequence of moving production to Mexico. It is still unclear if the United States would leave NAFTA entirely or just renegotiate it. The Trans-Pacific Partnership, a pact involving 11 nations that border the Pacific Ocean and initially included the United States, is another key alliance that is under consideration. Although the plan was signed in February 2017, ratification was all but impossible since the United States had already pulled out of the deal in January of that same year. By reducing tariff barriers, the pact seeks to advance economic development while simultaneously advancing labour, environmental, and intellectual property rights. According to critics, it would erode American sovereignty and lead to the loss of employment in the country.

Disputes over Boundaries and Boundaries

Boundaries, may affect a state's unity since conflicts over them might lead to war. Since a boundary is just an imperceptible vertical plane dividing one condition from another, it encompasses both the air above and below the line on the surface. While it is challenging to classify all borders, there are few well-known boundary types that can be distinguished. Borders may be both physical and manmade. Natural landscape elements like rivers, lakes, and mountains serve as physical borders. A significant physical barrier on the American continent's southern border is the Rio Grande. The Rio Grande undergoes progressive change over time, like the majority of rivers.

A river border might be difficult since a river's path is not set in stone. The Chamizal Treaty, which reinstated the line and included a more permanent realignment of the river channel by engineering, was really formed by the United States and Mexico as a result of the progressive shifting of the Rio Grande in the area of El Paso. The Zagros Mountains between Iraq and Iran, the Pyrenees between Spain and France, and the Andes Mountains between Chile and Argentina are a few examples of mountain ranges that serve as borders. Geometrical and ethnic borders are unrelated to physical characteristics, in contrast to physical boundaries. Instead, they are straight lines in the case of geometric boundaries. These lines might be parallel to latitude or longitude, as is the case with the 49° north latitude that forms the northwest border between the United States and Canada. The 141st meridian serves as another geometric border between Indonesia and Papua New Guinea.

The definition of ethnic borders is based on a shared cultural characteristic, such as a common language or religion. One example is the border between Pakistan, which is mostly Muslim, and India, which is primarily Hindu. Ethnic groups that are more closely linked to those on the opposite side of the boundary are often divided by boundaries. For instance, the majority of people in eastern Ukraine speak Russian and support Russians on the other side of the border. As a consequence, the Russian connection to eastern Ukraine has made the present war between Russia and Ukraine challenging for the Ukrainian central authority. An instance of irredentism, or an endeavour to increase a state's political influence over a group of people in a neighbouring state, is Russian involvement in eastern Ukraine. Africa is yet another prominent example of a region whose borders do not precisely correspond with ethnic groupings. Nearly 50% of African borders are geometric, and at least 177 different ethnic groupings are divided across two or more governments. If every ethnic group in Africa had its own country, there would be more than 2,000 nations across the continent. In Africa, ethnic groups often cross borders, which has facilitated significant cross-border commerce but also resulted in countless wars. For instance, since the Somali ethnic group is divided across five separate nations, there have been several battles.

Gerrymandering

In the United States, borders are crucial to the voting process, but in this instance, district and precinct boundaries matter more than the national limits that have already been covered. Gerrymandering is the practise of political parties in power redrawing voting district borders

to guarantee their candidates win elections. Drawing the lines in a way that the majority of voters in a district support the party in power is one kind of gerrymandering. Another strategy is to divide the opposition votes across several districts. Gerrymandering may be legally challenged when it seems to be overtly discriminating against minority communities, despite the fact that it is not normally unlawful in the United States. For instance, the NAACP filed a federal lawsuit in 2015 after legislative districts in Georgia's Gwinnet and Henry counties were reconfigured, alleging that the change violated the rights of minority black voters. However, a 2013 Supreme Court ruling holding that a 1965 Voting Rights Act provision for federal control of redistricting is unconstitutional may have an effect on such claims.

Elections to the Presidency

The presidential election process and how it clearly has a spatial component is one of the most fascinating parts of political geography in the US. Interesting geographic affinities are revealed when the presidential election results from 2016 are examined. While the majority of the electoral map is Republican, the North-eastern and Mid-Atlantic States, as well as far Western states, all tended to vote Democratic. From a geographical and Electoral College viewpoint, the Republican triumph could have seemed to be definitive, but when looking at the popular vote, Democrats actually received more votes than Republicans. The relatively huge populations in both California and New York, states that lean heavily Democratic, account for the contradiction. California receives the most Electoral College votes of any state due to its vast population. When the election results are broken down by county, another distinct tendency in the vote map becomes clear.

Individual counties provide us a clearer view of the effect of ethnic groups since they tend to vote in specific voting blocks. For instance, a crescent of blue may be observed extending from eastern Mississippi to south-central Alabama. African Americans prefer to vote Democratic, and they make up the majority of voters in these blue counties. The blue counties in western Mississippi are similar in that they are mostly made up of African Americans. Extreme southern Texas is an illustration of how ethnic groups have an impact. Hispanics tend to vote Democratic, and they make up the majority of the population in the southern Texas counties. The tendency for rural voters to tilt towards voting Republican and for urban voters to vote Democrat is related to ethnic affinities by county. White people predominate in rural regions and tend to vote Republican. In comparison to metropolitan regions, there are less college graduates among rural voters. In both Georgia and Texas' 2016 presidential elections, metropolitan counties tended to vote Democrat, while rural counties tended to vote Republican. The electoral map will continue to shift significantly in the future due to rising urbanisation and diversity in the US.

CONCLUSION

For efficient government, fair representation, and the eradication of geographical inequities, it is essential to comprehend how political space is organised. It necessitates multidisciplinary strategies that combine political science, geography, urban studies, and spatial analysis. This makes a significant contribution to a better knowledge of political space organisation and its relevance in forming political systems and spatial governance by addressing the theoretical underpinnings, conceptual frameworks, and practical consequences. Political authority, institutions, and decision-making processes are distributed spatially as part of political space organisation. Territorial divides, organisational frameworks, democratic procedures, and geographical dynamics of political processes are all included. The necessity of understanding political space organisation for efficient government and equal representation is highlighted by theoretical frameworks and practical ramifications. To further comprehend this complicated phenomena and its consequences for spatial governance, more study and multidisciplinary methods are required.

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CHAPTER 13

A PROFILE ON DEVELOPMENT AND GEOGRAPHY

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ABSTRACT:

The process of raising a society's living standards, fostering economic expansion, and enhancing its general well-being is referred to as development. While the physical and geographical qualities of a place or site are covered by geography. These two disciplines' interaction provides insight into how geographic considerations may either help or impede growth. The link between geography and development is summarised in this abstract, emphasising the significant influence geography has on the development process. It examines the effects of geographic elements on patterns of development and economic results, including physical qualities, location, available resources, and climate. The abstract looks at the substantial effects that physical geography, including landforms, climate, and natural resources, may have on economic growth. It looks at how the availability of natural resources, proximity to rivers, and the existence of fertile land might influence trade patterns, industrial growth, and economic activity. On the other hand, difficult topography, harsh weather, or a lack of natural resources may make development difficult in certain areas. The abstract also explores how location and geographical elements affect development. It examines the effects of connection, access to markets, and connectivity on economic development and regional inequities. It covers the idea of agglomeration economies, which holds that the concentration of businesses and economic activity in certain regions may boost output and innovation.

KEYWORDS:

Development, Economic, Geographic, Policy, Social.

INTRODUCTION

Where would you prefer to live if you could live anywhere on the planet? Which location one with mountains or one with beaches would you pick? A region with substantial taxes or no regulation? Do you adore your neighbourhood, state, or nation? Could you earn more money someplace else, or would warmer or colder weather make you happier? Do you believe that where you now reside allows you to reach your full potential personally? If not, why not? Depending on the language you speak, your preferred religion, your cultural background, and your personal beliefs, your responses may be quite different from those of other people in the globe. However, there are several metrics that geographers may use to classify locations according to their level of wealth, opportunity, infrastructure, and technological development. Although there might be significant regional variations, as you would expect, it's crucial to comprehend the dynamics and geography of the patterns and processes connected to wealth, wellbeing, and opportunity. The notion of development is used in this chapter to clarify how such differences are established and how they change through time and location [1], [2].

Which regions of the world are the most advanced? This question does not have an easy solution. Although San Francisco is often named the most beautiful city in the United States, all but the richest inhabitants cannot afford to live there due to the high cost of living. Amazing architecture and the foundations of western civilisation may be found in ancient towns like Jerusalem, Athens, and Baghdad, yet the streets are often small and the housing is packed. China has seen the world's fastest economic development over the last 30 years, but it has also been accompanied with horrendous air pollution, subpar working conditions, and significant restrictions on individual freedom [3], [4]. People in Texas are the most devoted to

their home state, while those in Utah have the biggest homes and Colorado residents generally have the best health. Geographers invest a lot of time and energy analysing, quantifying, and evaluating the variations and similarities among the many techniques to evaluate development. The intricacy may be distilled down to a few universal facts regarding growth and prosperity in our twenty-first century society:

1. The Brandt Line still divides the globe into the Global North and the Global South. Northern nations often have greater levels of prosperity, wellbeing, access to technology, and health than southern ones. Even if the line overgeneralizes, it nonetheless serves as a useful starting point for comprehending development on a global scale.
2. Compared to those 50 years ago, the majority of people today have a greater quality of life, make more money, are healthier, and live longer.
3. Despite point #2, the wealth gap between the wealthy and the poor is still wider than it has ever been. The world's wealthiest 1% now hold more than half of the world's wealth, up from 42.5% in 2008, according to Credit Suisse's global wealth study.

Though the globe is seen extremely differently by people in more and less developed nations, let's consider what these phrases really imply. While LDCs often have lower levels of these and other indices, MDCs typically have better incomes, levels of technology, infrastructure development, and life expectancies. Income is the easiest factor to take into account. The World Bank divides nations into four groups. Lower middle-income economies are those with a GNI per capita between \$1,026 and \$4,035; upper middle-income economies are those with a GNI per capita between \$4,036 and \$12,475; and high-income economies are those with a GNI per capita of \$12,476 or more. These definitions were used in 2017. It is the total of a country's gross domestic output and its net foreign income. GDP is computed using the formula: Consumption + Investment + Government Spending + Net Exports, and it encompasses all of the products and services generated by a nation in a given year. Therefore, if a government boosts expenditure on the military or on building roads in a particular year, GDP will rise.

A nation's GDP will decline if it imports numerous items but doesn't export many of them. Additionally, if people purchase a lot of booze on New Year's Eve, GDP will rise. The GNI also includes money that citizens of the nation earn abroad. For instance, the Atlanta, Georgia-based Coca-Cola Company makes money in 200 different nations. These earnings made outside of the United States are included in GNI but not in GDP. Although it might be a bit perplexing, this metric has been more popular in recent years since it offers a useful approach to compare economic outcomes across various nations. A country's per capita income is calculated by dividing its total GNI by its whole population, which takes into account everyone living there children, the elderly, those in jail, etc. [5], [6]. Therefore, the \$12,476 statistic DOES NOT indicate that the typical adult makes that much per year; rather, it is the entire income and economic production divided by the population.

Take a look at the cartogram, which represents nations based on their relative GNI rather than their actual size. In big, densely populated nations, the gap between GNI and GNI per capita is often more obvious. For instance, the U.S. and China are the top two nations in terms of overall GNI, yet neither is included in the top 15 for GNI per capita, where the U.S. comes in at 18th and China falls all the way to 103. Purchasing Power Parity is a crucial concept that helps people comprehend how different economies operate. For a more accurate comparison, the PPP takes into account variations in the cost of living and commodities between two locations. Consider it in this manner. Patterns that are global, national, regional, and local. It is tempting to think that wealth distribution in the globe could be about equal given that 64 of the more than 200 nations and territories on the planet are low or lower middle income, and 78 of them are high income, according to the globe Bank. Considering that more individuals than ever are involved in the world economy. Instead, in recent years, global capitalism has

increased disparities. The net fortune of Amazon founder Jeff Bezos is \$105 billion, which is more than the combined yearly GDP of 150 nations. While all is going on, 800 million people live on less than \$2 each day.

While engaging, such click-bait-worthy titles may also be deceptive. In 1990, 35 percent of the world's population was very poor. By 2013, that percentage has decreased to 11%, lifting over 1.1 billion people out of severe poverty. However, rather than narrowing during the same time span, economic gaps between the majority of affluent and poor nations have grown [7], [8]. Because so many people entered the formal sector at that time, it is challenging to define someone as not living in extreme poverty only because they earn more than \$2 per day. Hundreds of millions of people abandoned unpaid labour on subsistence farms and relocated to cities where they earned meagre incomes, and the bulk of individuals who emerged from severe poverty were in only two nations. Does that make a person or a nation more developed? The response is affirmative in economic terms, but less so in more qualitative ones.

DISCUSSION

The world economy has been expanding steadily since 1960, with the most notable expansion taking place since 2000. In reality, between 2002 and 2016, the global GDP almost quadrupled! Therefore, it took tens of thousands of years for all of the world's economies to grow from zero to \$34 trillion, but only 14 years for that amount to double. Hmm. Does this show sustainable development that can go on forever? Furthermore, with such a constant growth rate, can the earth withstand the repercussions of continuing development, consumerism, CO₂ emissions, and water contamination globally? These issues are challenging to evaluate and will be covered in further detail in the book's final chapter. For the time being, it's crucial to remember that economic growth is just one of several metrics used to assess progress and well-being, and that its effects are complicated.

Finally, global economic development is unpredictably unequal and unpredictable. The wild variations in growth that vary greatly by location and time, makes the complicated structure of GDP growth, despite what seems to be a reasonably equal upward trajectory in global GDP, more obvious. Russia had many years of negative growth in the 20 years between 1996 and 2016, but Rwanda had rates of growth up to 14%, which was far greater than those of any other nation. In 2009, the United States' growth was negative, and it has since averaged between 2 and 3 percent. China's yearly growth, which had been averaging 12% for many years, fell to around 7%, and is forecast to stay there into the 2020s.

Global North often contains wealthier nations, whereas Global South typically contains poorer nations. Such generalisations provide challenges in fully comprehending prosperity and wellbeing on the world, however. For instance, let's take a quick glance at Latin America. Mexico is generally regarded as a developing nation. According to most American standards, it is south of the Brandt line and is considered poor. Though its economy is the 15th biggest in the world, its per capita income ranks it in the top third of all nations. Mexican Carlos Slim was once the world's richest man, and the nation's economic growth has far outpaced that of all of its southern neighbours. For instance, the gap between Mexico and Haiti in terms of economic indices is wider than the gap between Mexico and the United States. As a result, it's crucial to avoid using crude classification methods while discussing wealth and progress.

Furthermore, scores of recently industrialised nations that have attained or are on the verge of MDC status have developed in recent years. These areas have shifted their economies away from agricultural and towards more industrial, service-based, and information-based ones. One such is the so-called Asian Tigers or Asian Dragons region, where enormous infrastructural and educational investments allowed for an equally enormous change of the economy in a relatively short amount of time. For instance, South Korea was in ruins at the height of its civil war but has amazingly recovered to reach an economic standing like to that

of Italy. The BRICS are a different collection of nations who are not part of the world north but have enjoyed rapid economic development, increasing their combined share of the world economy from 11% to 30% in only 25 years.

These nations continue to exercise more political influence in direct proportion to their growing economic might, and this may alter the global economic, social, and political landscape in the next decades. The oil-rich Gulf States of Qatar, the United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Iran, and maybe a few more make form another set of NICs. Due to their overwhelming advantage an abundance of rare, expensive commodities these entities have amassed enormous riches. Due to the climate's favourable circumstances for producing tropical fruit, coffee, tobacco, and other crops, other nations are at a distinct advantage. However, the high cost of oil and its limited supply have made it possible for areas that were previously underdeveloped and destitute to see rapid economic development. Maybe you've heard of some of the recent construction initiatives in this part of the globe. As examples of the Gulf States' attempts to expand in the twenty-first century, the tallest skyscraper in the world and the most ambitious collection of artificial island construction projects are both found in the United Arab Emirates [9], [10].

The Resource Curse is when the benefits of a highly valuable commodity do not trickle down to other members of society and violence or conflict arises as groups compete for the resource, despite the obvious wealth benefits that accrue in oil-rich or other resource-laden countries. Despite having relatively high incomes, millions of people nevertheless endure appalling working conditions that are directly tied to development initiatives. South Africa, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Nigeria are other places where Dutch Disease has been documented.

The Model of Global Trade

On the surface, this model's attributes seem to be relatively straightforward. In this approach, a nation accepts free trade and voluntarily engages in all elements of the global economy. The following are the strategy's main advantages:

1. High potential Roi.
2. Increased specialisation resulting in benefits for technology.
3. Streamlined development approach.
4. Less government interventions.

Numerous works have been published both in support of capitalism's ability to reform society and in opposition to it. According to the international trade model, commerce between countries is the greatest method to ensure everyone's prosperity. There will always be winners and losers when a nation lowers its trade barriers, but according to conventional macroeconomic theory, the total gain will outweigh the losses. Since the conclusion of World War II, the United States has promoted the approach by urging friends, neighbours, and enemies to open their borders, permit imports, and loosen restrictions on the free flow of commodities and services between nations. The European Union followed suit as it worked towards a single currency and unrestricted trade throughout the continent. The Asian Tigers and BRICS, who have seen tremendous economic development by adhering to a formula that calls for an aggressive export-oriented economy, both accept the global trading system to varying degrees.

The strategy's adopting nations eliminate local producer subsidies and let international competition choose the winners and losers. Therefore, nations need to identify certain services and sectors in order to become specialised. For instance, South Korea chose to concentrate first on low-end electronics before expanding into other industries like shipbuilding and autos. At first, the goods lagged behind those made abroad, but with each generation, it developed its personnel, technological expertise, and facilities to the point where it had a competitive advantage in certain fields. To become price and quality

competitive on the global market, specialisation demands a lot of practise with an intensity of attention, investment, and time. However, if done effectively, the rate of return on investment may be quite high. For instance, after the Korean War, South Korea made the shift from a mostly agricultural economy to the 7th largest exporter in the world, specialising in automobiles, auto parts, ships, and integrated circuits. Additionally, the technical understanding may subsequently be used to support other sectors. Governments don't attempt to favour one company over another under this method, and because tariffs are eliminated, the development strategy is made simpler.

Countries often reduce their efforts in other sectors as they obtain comparative advantages in certain. For instance, Japan concentrated less on agriculture after World War II and more on growing its industrial sector, becoming more dependent on imports from other nations. Opportunity cost refers to the trade-off when doing one thing prevents you from doing another. The United States actively pursued a model of international commerce in the 1980s that allowed for increased imports of manufactured products. As more foreign commodities entered the American economy, workers in industries like steel manufacture and coal mining started to witness a decline in their employment options. In order to avoid the suffering that comes with economic change, system proponents contend that such employees must adapt and retrain in other high-paying professions. Do you have any additional examples of businesses or occupations that suffer when a nation chooses to adopt the international trade model? The following are some additional drawbacks of the tactic:

1. Exposure to volatile international markets.
2. Local control is lost.
3. Uneven population advantages.

The sudden change in pricing reflects the sudden risk involved in international trading. This price decline is more than just economic theory for a farmer who switched from producing food to palm oil. The outcome might be the difference between life and death. Concentrating on a few core businesses or goods within a nation carries significant dangers. What if costs suddenly plummet or consumer trends suddenly shift in favour of certain goods? Such changes, which often occur in many commodity chains, leave someone holding the bag, with those at the bottom experiencing the most severe repercussions. When nations have signed free-trade agreements like the North American Free Trade Agreement between Mexico, the United States, and Canada, the second riskless of local control occurs. The deal forbade state or municipal governments from adopting deliberate efforts to safeguard employment or prevent firms from relocating, despite appeals from American workers for politicians to step in as U.S. corporations progressively started to move manufacturing to Mexico.

Finally, while global commerce has led to a huge increase in income and productivity, it has also brought about increased rivalry that has a negative impact on regional economies. While consumers often gain from decreased import costs, many local producers completely lose their means of subsistence. More than 2 million small-scale Mexican farmers also lost their employment as a result of the loss of American industrial jobs to Mexico, since Mexican maize was unable to compete with the cheap, mass-produced crops from the US and Canada. In comparison to the year before to NAFTA, maize shipments to Mexico increased by five times in 2016. The fact that Mexican immigration to the United States rose sharply at the same time is no coincidence. Farmers relocated in quest of new occupations when they lost their old ones.

The Model of Protection

The protectionist paradigm demands that nations maintain themselves without engaging in considerable commerce with other nations, as you would have surmised from its name. To protect native businesses from foreign competitors, protectionist measures are used. This policy is based on the assumption that a country's sovereignty or security may be

compromised by an over-reliance on foreign labour, goods, or services. As a result, the tactic acquired a lot of traction among nations that attained independence after a protracted period of imperialism and colonialism. From the 1950s through the 1980s, this policy was adopted by India, Jamaica, the Philippines, the former Yugoslavia, the former Soviet Union, and the majority of Caribbean and African nations.

For instance, India and Yugoslavia each manufactured their own brand of automobile, the Yugo. These cars were intended to be inexpensive for local buyers, but in both instances the plan fell short of producing a dependable, cost-effective product, depriving customers of access to superior substitutes imported from Germany, Japan, or the United States. When politicians and/or consumers pose the fundamental issue, why don't we take care of ourselves, by ourselves instead of depending on workers and producers from other parts of the world? , protectionism and nationalism are often closely related. How does this question connect to your personal views on the nation you were born or reside in? Do you think the reasoning makes sense? By the 21st century, the great majority of nations had abandoned protectionism as a policy in favour of implementing an economy that was focused on international commerce. However, protectionism does have certain benefits that are worth taking into account, such as:

1. Better decision-making under control.
2. Benefits are shared with more people in society.
3. More participation from the government.
4. Food safety.

Under protectionism, government decision-making can be more tightly regulated, policy choices can be made more easily, and policies can be created to benefit and spread to more people in society. For instance, import restrictions up until 1993 shielded Mexican maize growers against inexpensive maize produced in the United States and Canada. Most of Mexico's millions of small-scale maize farmers could produce enough grain for their own families and a modest excess to sell locally, giving millions of people a meagre but significant pay. A certain amount of predictability, political stability, and food security from one year to the next were provided by shielding farmers from foreign competition. The government has historically managed domestic oil and petrol prices in Mexico, which again may provide customers some degree of certainty in contrast to the erratic price swings that can often follow imported oil. Mexico is also endowed with abundant oil reserves. You're probably starting to see the drawbacks of this isolationist approach as you read and consider this subject. Here are just a handful of them:

1. Propensity for corruption, inefficiency, and a lack of quick market reaction conditions.
2. A lack of originality and creativity.
3. Trade is necessary to fulfil demand in certain areas since natural resources are scarce there.

An organisation has a propensity to develop corruption when a government shields it from outside competition. Since 1938, just one oil firm, Pemex, has held the sole right to extract, refine, and sell oil in Mexico. This has been a major source of income, preserved employment, and helped foster a sense of national pride. But in recent decades, the business found itself more and more involved in scandals involving Bribes, kickbacks and other tactics have artificially raised the price of petrol at the pump. However, in 2013, Mexico started the market liberalisation measures that let BP, Shell, and other businesses to import fuel and operate petrol stations in certain regions of the country. Since people now have a choice between rivals for the first time in 80 years, this change is having a significant influence on the national landscape both symbolically and practically.

The absence of invention and creativity that might normally result from intense rivalry is another disadvantage of isolationism, in addition to corruption. Venezuela, a nation that has favoured protectionism over free trade, is presently experiencing severe shortages of food and other essential consumer goods because local producers have been unable to keep up with changing customer demands. To effectively meet the demands of consumers worldwide, whether they are in Sydney, Seoul, Santo Domingo, or Sao Paulo, global supply chains of rice, beans, corn, tomatoes, mangoes, coffee, sriracha sauce, and fidget spinners have continuously changed. Governments find it very challenging to foresee and prepare for the demands of a complete population over an extended period of time. Protectionism calls for an effective government that can match consumers and producers, a job that the free market often does much better than elected authorities.

Simple location is the last factor that makes protectionism such a concern. Trade is not only favourable but also necessary for life since each country has unique location, circumstance, environment, and resource conditions. North Korea, a nation with famously closely guarded borders, is an extreme example. Without trade, the nation frequently produces insufficient rice, leaving millions in need and malnourished. Similarly, China, which favoured protectionism throughout the majority of the 20th century, had comparable droughts, food shortages, and hunger episodes. However, China started to change its course when it carefully opened its economy to the rest of the world in the early 1980s.

The Global Context of the 2 Models

You may wonder why any nation would pick a protectionist model after reading the succinct explanations of the two models above, considering their very clear benefits and downsides. The majority of economists agree on this. However, we must be cautious when drawing excessively straightforward generalisations. Here is where serious examination of geography and history is required. Start with the Caribbean islands. Most of the Caribbean nations were colonial until fairly recently. European powers built a monoculture plantation economic system during the colonial era, when some islands or territories concentrated only on one product, such as sugar, bananas, or pineapple. After gaining their freedom, many of these former colonies discovered that their domestic economies lacked a great deal of diversity, leaving them largely economically dependent on their former coloniser due to the dependency that the plantation economy had engendered.

According to the dependence hypothesis, the unfavourable trade conditions and patterns that have been in place for many years are to blame for the economic issues that former colonies are now facing. It made logical for them to want to insulate themselves from foreign competition while indigenous enterprises could arise and thrive because this was the scenario in which many former colonies found themselves. Furthermore, according to the world systems theory, the global trade system only functions as long as there are a consistent group of winners, who primarily profit from low-cost production in developing nations, and losers, who supply a ready supply of labourers willing to work long hours for low wages. While many nations have undoubtedly benefited from the concept of global commerce, others have actually suffered as a result of their involvement in it. Coffee is one of Ethiopia's main exports, and although though retail coffee prices have climbed significantly, Ethiopian coffee growers' wages have not benefited from these increases.

Instead, global commodities markets have traditionally fixed the prices paid for coffee beans, undervaluing the commodity and hurting small producers, allowing only major producers to make a sizable profit. Even if a mere 3 cents extra per kg may lift these farmers out of poverty, such differences are not taken into consideration by global markets. Fair trade, a system that ensures a minimal living wage for workers at the very bottom of the global production cycle, is one solution to such a complex challenge. The fact that international commerce may be very disruptive and unexpected is another significant issue. After years of

state-controlled markets, Russia started to liberalise its economy in the years after 1989. While the decision was praised in the West, many Russians suffered due to a decreased standard of living, job losses, and severe economic and political upheaval. Russian men's life expectancy really decreased dramatically, and many of them were unable to adjust to the new requirements of a totally market-based economy. As a result, social issues, most notably high unemployment and alcohol consumption, started to rule society.

In conclusion, it is not always apparent the route a nation should take to spur progress. Leaders and policymakers must make highly tough, sometimes conflicting judgements regarding how to improve conditions for inhabitants and communities that differ from location to area. Furthermore, what may be beneficial in the near term may be harmful in the long run. For instance, Jamaica's choice to shield its farmers from foreign competition benefited local farmers in the short term, but the island government's subsidies to farmers ultimately proved to be too expensive for the government to bear. The nation was in a predicament when the money ran out. International trade models pose a particular danger to collectivist cultures since many traditional social structures promote cooperation over competition and place the needs of the whole above those of any one person. Finally, it is obvious that any development plan that prioritises short-term gains above long-term expenses is flawed. Unprecedented levels of air and water pollution have started to become the norm in cities like Shanghai, Bombay, Delhi, and Beijing as countries like India and China have embraced international commerce, for instance. A sustainable development plan aims to strike a balance between now and future expenses and benefits, as well as any potential environmental harm.

CONCLUSION

The importance of human geography in development processes is also highlighted in the abstract. It investigates how population density, urbanisation, and migratory trends might influence social and economic development. It looks at how differences in resource distribution, access to healthcare and education, and social capital affect development outcomes in various geographic locations. For planners, politicians, and development professionals, understanding how geography and development interact is crucial. The abstract focuses on how crucial it is to consider the geographic setting while developing and putting into practise development initiatives. To promote equitable and sustainable development, it advocates for the integration of spatial planning, infrastructure development, and environmental sustainability issues. In conclusion, the interaction between location and development is complex and has a significant impact on social progress and economic consequences. The abstract emphasises how physical geography, geographic location, and human geography affect development patterns. Policymakers may create more effective and context-specific plans to promote equitable and sustainable development by acknowledging the impact of geography on development processes.

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CHAPTER 14

STAGES OF GROWTH AND POLITICAL POLICY

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ABSTRACT:

This abstract offers a summary of the phases of growth theory and how it relates to political strategy. According to economist Walt W. Rostow's stages of growth hypothesis, nations experience many phases of economic development, and political decisions have a significant impact on whether or not these stages are facilitated or impeded. The abstract looks at the several phases Rostow's theory suggests, such as traditional society, preconditions for takeoff, takeoff, drive to maturity, and age of high mass consumption. Every stage denotes a distinct degree of economic activity and social change. Political policy is seen as a crucial element in moving nations through these phases. The abstract looks at how political decisions have affected economic growth at various stages. Policies that support stability, infrastructural expansion, and fundamental education may create the framework for future development in the traditional society stage. Policies that support entrepreneurship, investment, and the growth of industries and infrastructure are essential for economic take-off during the preconditions for take-off stage. Politicians should prioritise industrialisation, technology spending, and fostering a welcoming business climate during the take-off phase. The drive to maturity stage requires policies that support institutional growth, human capital accumulation, and diversity. Finally, in an era of extensive mass consumption, policies that support social welfare, consumer demand, and sustainable development are crucial.

KEYWORDS:

Development, Economy, Growth, Political, Social.

INTRODUCTION

Economic progress and social advancement depend on effective governance, open institutions, and inclusive policies. Progress and a country's progression through the phases of development may be hampered by political instability, corruption, and inadequate policy execution. Policymakers and development professionals must comprehend the connection between political policy and the phases of growth. It emphasises the need of custom policies that take into account the unique possibilities and problems that nations at various stages confront. In order to enable sustainable and equitable economic development, it emphasises the need of establishing an enabling environment via good political institutions, coherent policy, and long-term planning [1], [2].

This is a simple question with a complicated solution. The same is true of nations, just as different individuals choose various job routes based on their own abilities, strengths, and shortcomings. While the Asian Tigers have effectively shown the potential of adopting an export-oriented economy, nations like Brazil, Jamaica, and South Africa have done the same but haven't succeeded in producing comparable outcomes despite significant efforts and changes. However, Western nations consistently and overwhelmingly advise poorer nations to reject protectionism in favour of trade and globalisation. Economic theory, which contends that the more we trade with one another, the more goods there will be for all of us, and who doesn't want more goods, is what informs a large portion of the discussion. Walter Rostow, a member of the American government who advocated for trade, created the Rostow's Stages of Growth model in 1960. According to him, each nation is going through one of the five phases of development that are listed below and that have traditionally led to prosperity and stability:

1. **Traditional Society:** characterised by heavy labour and low levels of commerce in subsistence agriculture, where the majority live on tiny farms, are mostly concerned with local issues, and are essentially cut off from the rest of the world.
2. **Take-off:** a brief time of profoundly upheaving social change, during which industrialization quickens and huge profits are invested in new technology, often as a result of outside factors. Take-off prerequisites include the commencement of commerce, the start of industry, the rise of new ideas, and the establishment of banks, yet tradition still rules society.
3. **Drive to Maturity:** occurs over an extended period of time as living standards rise, economic expansion outpaces population growth, usage of technology and education rises, and the size and diversity of the country's economy.

The ultimate stage is the Age of High Mass Consumption, during which most people enjoy the luxury of consuming far more than they need. The surplus in advanced economies may be utilised to improve social welfare and lower societal dangers. The modernization hypothesis, which is the widely believed assumption that, given the right intervention, any nation would pass through a similar road of progress, is represented by Rostow's beliefs [3], [4]. In an effort to bring prosperity to areas that have been excluded or left behind, modernization Policy, Social acknowledges the significant differences that exist across regions of the world. Addressing these disparities on a global scale signals a paradigm change from one in which each nation takes care of itself to one in which affluent nations feel a strong need to 'bring' development to individuals around the globe, in what has been nicknamed the 'development project'. The Millennium Development Goals, which were a set of eight quantifiable objectives chosen by 189 world leaders in 2000 and were to be accomplished by 2015, are the clearest illustration of this international endeavour. Even if not all of the objectives were accomplished, most of the eight objectives showed substantial improvement. Most notably in China, where about 200 million people have left their farms and relocated to cities to work in industrial occupations that pay far more than what they could make as farmers, much of the success has, however, been found in Asia.

Rostow's model is criticised for failing to take into consideration regional variances, historical changes, or the lasting impacts of colonialism[5], [6]. They also claim that the model is more of a political statement than a real guide to successful economic development. Yet, in order for everyone to finally enter the era of high mass consumption, efforts have been led by Europe and North America to kick-start all national economies. What issues do you see with this model? Is it feasible for any nation on earth to have a high consumption rate? If not, why not? What do you believe to be the largest challenge facing developing nations today? The same challenge - money, of course – prevents you from going out to eat every night. The kind of money we're referring about in this instance, though, cannot be obtained through a typical bank. The World Bank was established in 1944 to help nations with large-scale development initiatives as a result. The Tarbela Dam, for instance, was built thanks to a World Bank loan; for further information[7], [8].

The construction, one of the biggest in the world, aids in irrigation, aids in flood management, and supplies a substantial quantity of hydroelectricity to the area in Pakistan along the Indus River. But such endeavours are often contentious. The dam uprooted 120 villages during construction, and many people said they never got the compensation they were promised. Similar initiatives can be found all throughout the globe, and the majority of them aim to enhance people's everyday lives while also lubricating international trade. Governments may also get emergency loans, which are often provided by the International Monetary Fund. In times of financial crisis, the IMF extends loans and is predominantly supported by affluent private sector institutions. The loans are less substantial than those from the World Bank and are not designed to fund national infrastructure initiatives; rather, they

are meant to preserve stability in situations when a nation may otherwise be susceptible to a political uprising, a dictatorship, or even collapse. However, there are conditions associated with these loans. The borrowing nation is required to accept a number of structural adjustment plans. Specifically, nations must

1. The sale of government property.
2. Spend less on government initiatives.
3. Open oneself up to international competition and investment.

Accepting an IMF loan ultimately moves a nation away from a protectionist strategy of development and towards one that emphasises global commerce. Most often, a nation that has undergone changes will see a devaluation of its own currency, increasing the expense of imports while increasing the viability of exports. This may be quite advantageous for businesses looking for new, less costly industrial sites throughout the globe. There will always be significant winners and substantial losers in every significant change to an economic system. The IMF and structural adjustment plans fall under the same category.

DISCUSSION

Though it may seem more like a philosophical question than one you'd find in a geography textbook, this is a crucial one to take into account. The goal of development, as we taught in the previous part, is to reach a point of High Mass consumption that compares one location to another largely using indices of wealth, income, and output. Is this an accurate judgement, or are there other methods to measure progress? Consider some of the aspects of a location that you find appealing or objectionable. Does it offer great parks, secure roads, little traffic, or a wide variety of entertaining activities? Some of those indicators of progress may not necessarily need a connection to money, even if some of them are related to income and wealth.

Amartya Sen, a Nobel Prize-winning economist from India, suggested that a capacities approach to measuring, addressing, and enhancing people's lives needs to be fundamentally included into our notion of development. Sen Makes the case in his book *Development as Freedom* that extreme poverty is caused by a lack of freedom and rights, which are significantly different from the binary concepts of wealth and poverty. For instance, a nation like Saudi Arabia that produces a lot of oil may show high GDP growth, but if it doesn't significantly improve the lives of the majority of its citizens, the GDP is not doing so. In 1990, the United Nations released its first annual Human Development Report, which included a brand-new index dubbed the Human Development Index. As apparent as it may appear now, this transformational thought inspired the UN to reframe thinking on development. In order to give a relevant comparison for practically all nations, the index is generated using indices of life expectancy, adult literacy, school attendance, and income. With an HDI of or above, 105 nations are now considered to have very high or high levels of human development, which is encouraging [9], [10].

You may see the whole list of nations here: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/trends>. Figure 9.10 illustrates the regional trends over time and demonstrates that East Asia and South Asia have had the most progress since 1990. In particular, over the brief time from 1990 to 2015, China advanced from low to high human development, while India advanced from low to medium. Most of the least developed nations are in Sub-Saharan Africa, however since 1990, virtually all of these nations have shown steady progress. In addition, during the last 50 years, life expectancy and educational access have increased in poor nations worldwide. We can measure their advancements over time with the aid of HDI. One other observation about this score is that, despite having low incomes, some nations provide excellent human development. Locate Cuba and Mexico on the map, for instance.

Incomes are low in both nations, yet life expectancy is high. Cuba has a greater life expectancy than the United States does. Cuba has adopted a protectionist stance for a number

of years, which has stifled economic progress, yet the country has a higher HDI than would be expected due to the availability of healthcare and education. Kuwait and other Middle Eastern nations earn substantial earnings yet, according to the score, have lower levels of development. Due to the fact that HDI only employs 4 indications, it too has its limits. Do you have any further ideas for measurements that would be useful? Examples include things like degrees of inequality, gender empowerment, or even just quality of life. Such factors, as well as access to the Internet and contemporary sanitation systems, are measured by other indices. Just one-fourth of the population in India's rural regions, for instance, has access to a functional toilet. Data on these and other easily available metrics are gathered per nation by the Population Reference Bureau. You are urged to visit the website to learn more about them!

It's also important to remember that disparities across nations might be noticeable. For instance, residents in Shanghai, China, have a lifestyle that is extremely comparable to that of the typical Italian. Rural residents in that nation, however, do not do much better than the typical individual in Sub-Saharan Africa. Similar numbers of rural populations in West Virginia, Tennessee, and Mississippi have significant unemployment rates and limited access to primary healthcare. Bhutan, a tiny nation, has adopted an innovative strategy for gauging its own success by emphasising happiness above all other considerations. Instead of tracking GDP, it keeps a careful eye on gross national happiness as a sign of how well its people are doing spiritually, physically, socially, and environmentally.

It's simple to mine the land, fish the oceans, and get wealthy, as the Minister of Education put it. However, we think that a country that does not protect its natural environment or prioritise the welfare of its people cannot be rich in the long term. You may have observed that none of the development indicators discussed in this chapter take the environment's health or the long-term costs of growth into consideration. People use more of the planet's resources as they get affluent. The Bhutan model is one of the few that takes seriously the idea of environmental sustainability as a component of development, even if it may appear a bit unusual to the typical American student. The value of money is inherent in all types of development plans? The World Bank and the IMF's aid programmes for developing nations were covered in earlier sections. However, the scope of each of those organisations is restricted to quite large undertakings. A new kind of development aid has evolved in recent years that has shown to have a considerably greater local effect.

All financial services typically provided by a bank to the rich across the globe are referred to as microfinance. Credit cards, payday loans, interest-bearing accounts, and financial insurance are some of them. The availability of a credit card that enables college students to purchase books might be the difference between their finishing their studies and dropping out. Without access to such finance, small-scale farmers in less developed nations face ongoing danger. The income of hundreds of millions of farmers may be greatly increased with even a very tiny loan, or micro-credit. Imagine what you could do if you had six cows instead of only three if you sold milk. Individual farmers do not often have access to such resources via large-scale development programmes, but new initiatives and websites are providing them. Kiva.org is among them and is perhaps the most well-known.

What began as a two-person project to link lenders and borrowers grew into a significant lender in 2016, providing loans to more than 100,000 borrowers and generating close to \$150 million. The most incredible feat is the 97% payback record for loans granted to the very lowest of the very poor. Future prognostication is never without danger. Beyond anyone's conception, climate change, newly emerging incurable illnesses, and significant political upheavals have changed the path of history. With those exceptions, the human development index predicts a positive outlook for the near term. Women's empowerment will rise when global fertility rates drop throughout the developing nations. Family earnings are predicted to

increase as more women work throughout the world. The main theme of the 20th century was the dramatic increase in life expectancy, the fall in new-born mortality rates, and the control of the spread of numerous infectious illnesses.

Economists contend that when more nations strengthen their commercial connectedness to the global economy, everyone's wealth rises. Levels of development drastically soared when hundreds of millions of farmers fled the countryside in China and India in search of industrial employment. The similar geographical trend is expected to manifest in Africa and other regions of the globe in the next decades as manufacturers look for new markets and new sources of labour that are more affordable far into the twenty-first century. The development of technology has directly contributed too many advances throughout the globe. Throughout 2018, anybody with access to the Internet has access to more data, images, and knowledge than the typical person had throughout their whole lifetime, much alone only a generation ago. With the free movement of ideas, business, information, and money made possible by globalisation, there is also a greater chance that harmful items may travel along the same paths. The dark web makes it simple to swap illegal goods including illegal narcotics, firearms, stolen credit cards, victims of human trafficking, and many other horrific things. Future development will face a difficulty in weighing the hazards and advantages of a planet that has undergone such a significant time-space compression in such a short amount of time. In some sense, it would be absurd to attempt to define and comprehend every aspect of global growth. The chapter's earlier portions barely scratched the surface, yet the key issues surrounding development are really rather straightforward. Is it preferable for a nation to have strong ties to the international economy and to voluntarily import and export a lot of goods? Or is it preferable to keep oneself to oneself, shielding oneself from any possible threats from without? History seems to be open, but there is a significant danger involved. Governments may invest enormous sums of money on improving the lives of their constituents only to find themselves deeply in debt and subject to protracted political unrest. There is no one magic recipe, but the broad ideas presented in this chapter do provide some insightful information from what has happened over the previous 70 years.

In comparison to earlier periods in our species' history, people today are generally healthier, live longer, make more money, have fewer children, consume more, and know more about their surroundings. Given these facts, we should be cautiously optimistic as we anticipate the next one hundred years. Despite all of that, it is critical that we recognise the vulnerability of our planet and the environmental costs associated with excessive resource usage. With the increased prosperity of major economies like China, hundreds of millions of new customers produce more plastic garbage, toxic runoff, carbon emissions, copper mining, and energy consumption than ever before. It is crucial that future development initiatives take into account long-term sustainability as an anchor for decision-making in the 21st century and beyond since the drive to grow has often accelerated ecological disaster.

CONCLUSION

The stages of growth hypothesis emphasises the many stages of economic development that various nations could go through, with political policy being a key factor in promoting or impeding progress through these stages. The relevance of stability, investment, industrialization, diversification, and social welfare is highlighted in this abstract, which also highlights the effect of governmental actions at each stage. Policymakers may create efficient plans that encourage equitable and sustainable growth by appreciating the link between political policy and economic development.

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CHAPTER 15

ANALYSIS OF FOOD AND AGRICULTURE

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ABSTRACT:

Prior to the development of agriculture, humans relied on wild animal hunting, fishing, and harvesting of fruits, nuts, and roots to provide for their needs. People had to move about in small groups to get food, therefore they lived a nomadic lifestyle. Approximately 12,000–10,000 years ago, towards the conclusion of the Mesolithic era, this was the sole means of sustenance. The Neolithic revolution then expanded as agriculture progressively supplanted the hunting and gathering way of life. Some isolated communities continue to exist today much as they did before agriculture was created. They may be found in certain isolated places where hunting predominates, including as the Amazonia, Congo, Namibia, Botswana, Tanzania, New Guinea, and the Arctic latitude. Agriculture is the practise of growing crops and rearing animals for food production and economic benefit. Agriculture has its roots in ancient times, beginning with the domestication of plants and animals by humans. Agriculture was developed as a result of the domestication of plants and animals, a crucial transformation that happened multiple times separately throughout human history.

KEYWORDS:

Agriculture, Agricultural, Commercial, Development, Food.

INTRODUCTION

Beginning between 12,000 and 10,000 years ago, agriculture developed and expanded over the globe, including the Middle East, Southwest Asia, Mesoamerica and the Andes, North-eastern India, North China, and East Africa. Living in their communities, where new kinds of social, cultural, political, and economic interactions were formed, people started to become sedentary. The First Agricultural Revolution encompasses several historical developments [1], [2].

Agricultural Techniques

Agriculture is an art, a science, and a business. Agriculture is the sector that is most broadly dispersed globally in terms of space. It takes up more space than all other businesses put together and alters the Earth's landscape more than any other industry. Using a variety of techniques, farming has greatly changed the landscape, reflecting the reciprocal link between people and their surroundings. With agricultural practises ranging from the most simple, like using an ox-pulled plough, to the most complicated, like employing machinery, tractors, satellite navigation, and genetic engineering techniques, today's agricultural communities across the globe are very varied and complex. Scholars often categorise agricultural cultures into subsistence, intermediate, and developed categories, which are conceptually equivalent to primitive, traditional, and contemporary, respectively. The agricultural methods discussed in this chapter are divided into two groups for simplicity's sake: subsistence and commercial, with significant variations in how they are carried out in developed and developing nations.

Subsistence Agriculture

In many regions of the world, subsistence agriculture took the role of hunting and gathering. When referring to farming, the word subsistence refers to raising food primarily for the farmers' own needs and those of their families, who consume the majority of what is produced without contributing to the national monetary economy. Farms are typically modest (2–5 acres), but since agriculture is less mechanised, a significant number of employees are directly employed in farming 50% or more in certain developing nations. Agricultural areas are mostly determined by climate regions. Moving cultivation and pastoralism, two

widespread farming practises that are still practised in many huge areas, are two examples of farming activities.

A Change in Cultivation

Shifting cultivation, commonly referred to as slash-and-burn agriculture, is a kind of natural rotation system-based subsistence agriculture. For 150–200 million people living across the world's tropical regions, particularly in the rainforests of South America, Central and West Africa, and Southeast Asia, shifting agriculture is a way of life. The procedures include clearing the Sweden, or densely vegetated land, before clearing it and preparing it for agriculture. Only low population densities may be sustained via shifting cultivation, and due to the quick loss of soil fertility, the fields are typically actively farmed for three years.

As a consequence, the unproductive area must be abandoned, and another location must be found before clearing and planting can proceed. Therefore, the slash-and-burn method necessitates a sizable amount of land for new lots as well as a lot of labour, often divided by gender. The crops that are farmed vary from place to region, but grains like rice and maize, as well as tubers like sweet potatoes, are the most common. In the warm, humid tropics, it is common practise to combine many seeds in one Sweden, which is advantageous for harvesting twice or even three times year. However, the slash-and-burn method is considered as environmentally damaging, particularly in locations where sensitive and endangered species are present [3], [4].

Pastoralism

Pastoralism, which involves raising and managing herds of animals, is another pervasive subsistence farming practise. It can grow in savannas, deserts, steppes, high plateaus, and Arctic regions with cold and dry conditions where it is impractical to grow crops. Africa north, central, and south, the Middle East, central and southwest Asia, the Mediterranean basin, and Scandinavia are specific regions where the practise is prevalent. There are many different types of animals, including sheep, goats, cattle, reindeer, and camels, depending on the location of the globe. Pastoralism works effectively and is an environmentally friendly way to sustain a people on less fertile terrain.

Sedentary, nomadic, and transhumance pastoralism may all be subdivided into these three groups. Pastoralists who reside in communities and keep their herds of animals in neighbouring pastures are known as sedentary farmers. The villagers often employ a number of guys to care after their livestock. The custom of the hired men to collect the animals in the morning, feed them in the surrounding pasture throughout the day, and then bring them back to the hamlet in the early evening is equally significant. Numerous traditional pastoralists in Europe often follow this strategy. Traditional subsistence agriculture known as nomadic pastoralism involves pastoralists moving around with their herds in an erratic, long-distance fashion. The Bedouins of Saudi Arabia, the Bakhtiaris of Iran, the Berbers of North Africa, the Maasai of East Africa, the Zulus of South Africa, the Mongols of Central Asia, and other tribes all wander in this manner continuously. The pastoral nomads' settlement pattern reflects their need for flexibility and movement. They often shift their herds to any available pasture while living in a kind of tent. Even though there are 10–15 million nomadic pastoralists on Earth, they only occupy around 20% of the planet's territory. As a result of increasingly restrictive political boundaries, competing land uses, selective overgrazing, and government relocation initiatives, their way of life is now under jeopardy.

By moving the cattle to greener, cooler high-country pastures in the summer and then bringing them back to lowland areas for autumn and winter grazing, transhumance is a kind of seasonal vertical migration. Herders live permanently, often in valleys. Typically, the primary population remains at the base, while the herds migrate with the appropriate number of workers to care for them. This is a common practise in the nations that border the Mediterranean and the Black Seas, including those in southern Europe, the Carpathian

Mountains, and the Caucasus. Additionally, pastoralists must engage in another type of transhumance, such as the movement of animals between wet-season and dry-season pasture, near highland regions like the Atlas Mountains and the Anatolian Plateau, as well as in Sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East, and Central Asia.

DISCUSSION

Subsistence Agriculture Done Intensively: In order to maximise agricultural output per acre, intensive subsistence agriculture, which is typical of densely inhabited areas, notably in southern, southeaster, and eastern Asia, makes effective and efficient use of tiny parcels of land. Since most of the job is done by hand or with animals, the practise necessitates heavy human labour. With the addition of irrigation systems and fertilisers, hillside terraces and elevated fields substantially alter the landscape of intensive subsistence agriculture. As a consequence, extensive rural populations may be sustained by intense subsistence agriculture. In the humid regions of southern, southeaster, and eastern Asia, rice is the main crop. Other crops, including cereals, peanuts, soybeans, tubers, and vegetables, are grown in the drier regions. Both instances include extensive land usage, and the warmer climates of those areas permit double cropping.

Tens of millions of subsistence farmers have recently moved beyond the survival threshold as a consequence of the introduction of higher-yielding grain types, such as wheat, maize and rice, dubbed as the Green Revolution. The availability of food in these regions was significantly increased by the introduction of these new types across the farmlands of South, Southeast, and East Asia, as well as Mexico. The use of fertilisers, herbicides, irrigation, and modern equipment was equally crucial. Today, China and India can provide all of their basic food needs on their own, while Thailand and Vietnam are two of the world's leading exporters of rice. Even while starvation and hunger still exist in certain parts of the globe, particularly in Africa, many people acknowledge that things would be far worse without these advancements.

Business Agriculture

The main goal of commercial agriculture, which is often practised in industrialised nations outside of the tropics, is to produce goods that can be sold to businesses that prepare food. Plantation farming is an exception; it is a commercial kind of agriculture that continues in emerging nations alongside subsistence farming. Contrary to tiny subsistence farms, the typical commercial farm is more than 150 hectares (370 acres), is mechanised, and many of them are family-run. The amount of labour employed in agriculture is also influenced by mechanisation; in many wealthy nations, such as Israel, the United Kingdom, Germany, the United States, Canada, Norway, Denmark, and Sweden, this ratio is much lower than 2%. A large amount of agricultural land is also being lost in many affluent nations as a consequence of industrialisation and urbanisation. In North America, for instance, there was 26 percent agricultural land in 2014 compared to 28.3 percent in 1961. During the same time period, the agricultural land in the European Union decreased from 54.7 to 43.8 percent, with notable decreases in some nations, including Ireland (81.9 to 64.8 percent), the United Kingdom (81.8 to 71.2 percent), and Denmark (74.6 to 62.2 percent, to name a few. Commercial farmers employ satellite imaging and the Global Positioning System, among other scientific developments in technology, to boost their output in addition to a high degree of mechanisation. Agricultural areas are largely determined by climate zones as well. Six distinct forms of commercial agriculture may be distinguished in industrialised nations within these regions: mixed crop and livestock, grain farming, dairy farming, cattle ranching, commercial gardening and fruit farming, and Mediterranean agriculture[5], [6].

Livestock and Mixed Crops

A large portion of the eastern United States, centre and Western Europe, western Russia, Japan, and minor portions of South America and South Africa all practise mixed crop and

animal production. In practise, there are many different types of mixed systems, but they all provide great yields of maize and wheat, as well as soybeans, sugar beets, sunflower, potatoes, fruit orchards and feed crops for cattle. At a higher level, a region might be made up of many specialised farms and service networks working as a mixed system as a whole. Other types of mixed farming include the cultivation of many crops on the same field or numerous kinds of the same crop with various life cycles, as well as more effective use of available space and more even distribution of risks. The same farm may have cattle, sheep, pigs, and poultry in addition to growing orchards or cereal crops[7], [8].

Farming Grain

A vast and mechanised kind of agriculture is commercial grain farming. This is a development in the mid-latitude continental lands, in areas that are too dry for cultivating mixed crops and cattle. Eurasia and North America are the two major global grain-growing areas. Australia has two such regions, one in the southwest and one in the southeast, while Argentina, in South America, has a sizable area dedicated to commercial grain cultivation. A single crop is often farmed in commercial grain farming, which is highly specialised. Wheat, which is farmed mostly for its flour, is the most significant crop. The size of the wheat farms, which range from 240 to 16,000 hectares, is enormous. In the United States, a farm typically spans 1000 acres. Land is inexpensive in many places, allowing a farmer to acquire quite large properties[9], [10].

Milk Production

A subset of agriculture known as dairy farming is focused on the long-term production of milk that is then either processed on the farm or at a dairy factory before being sold. In both developed and developing nations, it is carried out in close proximity to large metropolitan centres. This sort of farm's location is determined by the very perishable milk. A 100-mile radius is the area around a city where fresh milk may be cheaply provided without deteriorating. Robotic milking systems were created and deployed in various emerging nations, mostly in the EU, in the 1980s and 1990s. The pattern of dairy production varies significantly around the globe. While many nations that are major producers eat the majority of this domestically, others, like New Zealand, export a significant portion of their output, including some from organic farms.

Ranching is the practise of grazing cattle for profit on big parcels of land. It is a productive approach to rear animals for meat, dairy products, and fabric-making raw materials. Modern ranching has merged with the meat-processing sector. Ranching, which is an important component of economies and rural development all over the globe, is often conducted on semiarid or arid territory where the flora is too scarce and the soil is too poor to sustain crops. Ranching is a way of life in Australia, much as it is in the Americas. The biggest cow feedlot in the world, with over 120,000 head, is located in the United States close to Greeley, Colorado. It is a division of the enormous food company ConAgra. The Brazilian multinational enterprise JBS-Friboi is the biggest producer of beef in the world. The top two consumers of beef globally per capita are Argentina and Uruguay. While the United States dominates the production of poultry and beef, China is the world's top producer of pig meat.

Commercial Fruit Farming and Gardening

A market garden is a relatively small-scale enterprise that cultivates fruits, vegetables, and flowers. The farms are modest, ranging in size from a few acres to less than one. In certain cases, the variety of crops grown in greenhouses sets them apart from other methods of farming. There are many different types of commercial gardening and fruit farming, which need greater physical labour and gardening skills. The Southeast of the United States, which has a warm, humid climate and a lengthy growing season, is where commercial gardening and fruit farming predominate. In the Northeast, a brand-new kind of commercial gardening has emerged in addition to the typical fruits and vegetables. This is a non-traditional market

garden, cultivating commodities like asparagus, mushrooms, peppers, and strawberries that, despite their scarcity, are becoming more and more popular with customers. Market gardening has developed into a viable alternative industry that is both highly lucrative and ecological, particularly in light of the growing craze for locally grown and organic foods.

Mediterranean Farming

The phrase Mediterranean agriculture refers to the farming practises carried out in those areas that have hot, dry summers and damp, moderate winters. The Mediterranean Sea's borderlands, California, central Chile, South Africa's Cape, and portions of southwestern and southern Australia are only a few of the significant places in the globe with this style of agriculture. Agriculture is a highly specialised, intense, and diverse industry. Citrus fruits, olives, figs, dates, and grapes, which are mostly grown for export, predominate in the mountainous Mediterranean regions, commonly referred to as the orchard lands of the world. These and other goods are exported to far-off markets, with Mediterranean goods often being in great demand and fetching high prices. However, a variety of different food crops, such grains and vegetables, may be grown specifically for home consumption due to the warm, sunny Mediterranean environment.

Plantation Agriculture

Large landholdings called plantations are used in developing countries to grow crops for export. They typically focus on producing one specific crop for the market, such as palm oil, peanuts, cotton, or tobacco. Other specialised and luxury crops include coffee, cocoa, rice, bananas, or sugar for markets in South and Central America, West and East Africa, South Asia, and Southeast Asia. Plantations are found in the tropical and subtropical areas of Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Despite being in developing nations, many of these plantations are owned and run by people or businesses from Europe or North America. Even businesses that were taken over by governments of newly independent nations were nevertheless run by foreigners in order to earn money from foreign sources.

During the decolonization process, these plantations continued to operate and supply the wealthy international markets. Contrary to conventional crops like coffee, sugar, rice, cotton, and others that are shipped from sizable farms, alternative crops, including flowers and certain fruits and vegetables, may be needed by the global market. These are examples of non-traditional agricultural exports, which have grown in significance in certain nations or areas, including, but not limited to, Argentina, Colombia, Chile, Mexico, and Central America. Non-traditional exports should be supported for a number of reasons, including the fact that they provide jobs and foreign currency while enhancing conventional exports. As a result, the economy of many emerging nations depend heavily on plantation agriculture, which is intended to generate commodities for export.

Forces of the Market and Commercial Agriculture

Agribusiness, a sophisticated political and economic structure that coordinates food production from seed development to retail sales and consumer consumption, includes farming. Farming is a part of the global capitalism-based economic system even if it is just one step of the intricate economic process. Although most farms are held by single families, many other agribusiness-related areas are in fact mostly under the hands of big businesses. As a result, rather of focusing on providing for the farmer, this form of farming adapts to market pressures. Geographers explain that the choice of crops on commercial farms is only advantageous at certain distances from the city using Von Thünen's isolate state model, which produced four concentric circles of agricultural activity. Highly perishable goods must be produced close to the market due to the impact of distance, while grain farming and cattle ranching may be positioned on the outer rings.

For instance, New Zealand is a specific example of a nation whose agriculture was exposed to a worldwide free market. More precisely, its agricultural practises have evolved in reaction

to the reorganisation of the world food system and the new global food regime that is also taking effect at the same time. Farmers in New Zealand must concentrate on non-traditional exports such kiwi, Asian pears, vegetables, flowers, and venison in addition to increasing production of high added value or more customised goods. The agriculture industry in New Zealand is distinctive in that it is the only one in a developed nation that has complete exposure to global markets since the removal of government subsidies.

Agriculture and Biotechnology

Agriculture has benefited greatly from the manipulation and control of biological organisms since the 19th century. Agricultural biotechnology, a branch of agricultural science that uses scientific tools and genetic engineering techniques to modify living organisms of plants and animals, has undergone a bio revolution alongside the green revolution in agriculture. This bio revolution has the potential to outpace the productivity gains of the green revolution while also lowering the cost of agricultural production. In the course of the agricultural biotechnology process, desired traits from one species of crop or animal are exported to other species in order to produce transgenic crops. These crops have desirable traits such as flavour, flower colour, growth rate, size of harvested products, and resistance to diseases and pests.

The biotech sector has generated a staggering number of species that are not formed naturally by taking genetic material from one organism and putting it into the permanent genetic code of another. Approximately 75% of processed goods seen on store shelves, including soda, soup, crackers, and sauces, are thought to contain genetically altered components. The effects of genetically modified food on human health and the environment are still largely unknown. As a result, it is challenging to distinguish between the advantages and disadvantages of their growing integration into the world's food supply. Not only does the United States have the most commercially viable biotech crops, but it also has the biggest area under commercial biotech crop cultivation.

Many nations, including many in Europe, believe that genetic modification has not been shown to be safe, which is why they demand that all food be labelled and forbid the importation of GM food. In spite of this, genetic alteration is legal in the United States since there isn't any proof yet that it's harmful. Instead, many individuals believe that they should be able to choose what they consume, and as a result, they believe that GM food labels should be required. In several nations, including the US, protests against GMO regulation regimes have been quite successful. Currently, over 60 countries throughout the world including the 28 members of the European Union, Japan, Australia, Brazil, Russia, India, South Africa, China, and other nations require the labelling of genetically modified goods. Labelling discussions will undoubtedly continue. Regulations are essential for safeguarding the environment and people's health since it is unknown whether GM foods are totally healthy or entirely negative.

Eating and Health

The potential for technically and economically viable food production has considerably increased since the conclusion of World War II. Since there is now more than enough food to feed everyone on Earth, the main problem is that access to food is uneven, which is why millions of people in both the core and the periphery are affected by poverty and unable to obtain adequate nutrition. Therefore, one of the most urgent problems the world faces today is hunger, whether it be chronic or acute. Undernutrition, commonly referred to as chronic hunger, is the result of insufficient calorie and/or nutritional intake. The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations believes that a person has to eat at least 1,800 kcal per day in order to live a healthy life.

The average daily caloric intake worldwide is 2,780 kcal, although there is a big variation between wealthy nations, where it is 3,470 kcal, and poor nations, where it is 2,630 kcal.

Although the number of undernourished people now is estimated by the FAO to be 800 million, it is still much lower than it was in the early 1990s. The bulk of these individuals are still found in southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. Famine is one kind of hunger, which may be brought on by a population's control over food supplies, natural calamities, or even conflicts. In contrast, overeating is a widespread issue in North America, particularly the United States, where food is plentiful and monitored for quality. As a result, obesity is a more prominent indicator of the overall health of the community.

The idea of food security is used to conceptualise nutritional vulnerability. According to FAO, there is food security when everyone has access to food for an active and healthy life at all times. The idea of food sovereignty, which refers to a nation's, a community's, or people's right to establish their own agricultural policy, is connected to the issue of food security. The fact that more farmland is being turned to the production of biofuels, or fuels made from biological components, is one element related to food in general and food sovereignty in particular. They cause the displacement of small farmers and residents of underprivileged areas in addition to having a large and growing influence on the world's food systems.

Sustainable Farming

A new direction in agriculture is sustainability, which coexists with the rise of a diet that is focused on fresh fruits and vegetables and other nutrient-dense foods. The Sustainable Agriculture Initiative states that sustainable agriculture is the efficient production of safe, high quality agricultural products, in a way that protects and improves the natural environment, the social and economic conditions of farmers, their employees, and local communities, and safeguards the health and welfare of all farmed species. The concepts and practises for sustainable agriculture defined by SAI are articulated around three primary pillars: society, economy, and environment. More precisely, sustainability in agriculture refers to the greater dedication to organic farming. Although organic food production is not the main agricultural practise, it has already established itself as a developing force alongside conventional farming, which now dominates. However, organic farming, which places small-scale farmers at the forefront of food production and does not use genetically modified seeds, synthetic pesticides, herbicides, or fertilisers, promotes monoculture on large commercial farms and uses chemicals and intensive hormone-practices. As a result, sustainable agriculture practises not only encourage variety and wholesome food but also protect and improve the environment.

CONCLUSION

Domesticating plant and animal species and producing food surpluses that fuelled the growth of civilization, agriculture was a significant factor in the establishment of sedentary human civilisation. It started independently in several regions of the world, including the Old and New Worlds. Agriculture has always been important for increasing food supplies, generating jobs, and providing a market that is developing quickly for industrial goods. Although self-sufficient, subsistence farming has virtually vanished from Europe and North America, it is still practised in huge portions of rural Asia, Latin America, and most of rural Africa. The worldwide industrialization of agriculture, which has intensified in recent decades, has eclipsed traditional agricultural practises, which are still in use today. However, commercial agriculture is quite different from subsistence agriculture since its primary goal is to generate bigger profits. Farmers have had to adapt to several changes that happened at all scales, from the local to the global, in both the core and the periphery. At the international level, the World Trade Organisation has substantial effects on agriculture, despite the fact that governments have emerged as prominent participants in the regulation and support of agriculture. The global food chain is affected by social responses to genetically modified crops. The idea that a balanced, safe, and sustainable strategy may be the answer not only to achieve sustainable intensification of agricultural yield but also to safeguard the environment

is now the focus of particular attention. As a result, agriculture has evolved into a very intricate, globally interconnected system, making the transition to sustainable agriculture a significant task.

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CHAPTER 16

ORIGINS AND EXPANSION: INDUSTRIAL MANUFACTURING'S EVOLUTION

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ABSTRACT:

This abstract looks at the beginnings and spread of industrial manufacturing, which was a major turning point in society and economic history. It investigates the elements that led to the rise of industrial manufacturing, the significant figures involved, and the subsequent dissemination of this revolutionary process throughout many areas and nations. The introduction of the abstract acknowledges the emergence of industrial manufacture, which is often connected to the Industrial Revolution of the late 18th century. It looks at the developments in technology, the accessibility of natural resources, the expansion of commerce and colonialism, as well as the changes in socioeconomic circumstances that led to industrialisation. Additionally, it recognises the contributions of significant individuals like James Watt and Eli Whitney as well as the advancement of significant technologies like the steam engine and mechanised industrial techniques. The abstract also looks at how industrial production moved outside of its original England-based base. It emphasises how industrialisation moved to North America, notably the United States, as well as to other European nations like France, Germany, and Belgium. It looks at the elements that made this spread possible, including the dissemination of information and technology, the emigration of professionals, the development of transit systems, and the growth of international commerce.

KEYWORDS:

Employment, Industrial, Manufacturing, Place, Plant.

INTRODUCTION

The effects of industrial manufacture on numerous facets of society are also covered in the abstract. It looks at the significant economic changes brought on by mass production, the development of industrial systems, and the expansion of metropolitan areas. The social effects of industrialization, such as changes in labour practises, the rise of the working class, and adjustments to living standards. It also discusses the negative effects of industrial manufacture on the environment, such as resource depletion and pollution. Our world is more globalised. Products are created in one location, then assembled in another using components made in several more locations. These goods are advertised almost everywhere. Such a method would not have been conceivable a few decades ago. Such a notion would have been unfathomable two hundred years ago. What took place for the globe to transform in such a manner? What ultimately connected all national economies to form a global economy? Business did. As much as the Agricultural Revolution, the Industrial Revolution had a profound impact on the globe. The contemporary way of living is made feasible by industry.

Something really strange occurred during the 2016 presidential election in the United States. Candidates from both major parties consistently agreed on the same point. The United States needs to develop or restore industrial employment. If elected, both candidates pledged to provide new, well-paying manufacturing jobs. In contrast to Democrats, who claimed to be representing the interests of blue-collar, working class people, whose jobs and wages had decreased since the 1980s period of de-industrialization both in the U.S. and throughout the developed/industrialized world, Republicans had traditionally supported free trade, which gives manufacturers the freedom to choose where and what to produce. In the United States, manufacturing employed 13 million people in 1950, 20 million in 1980, but by 2017, that

number had dropped to 12 million, a level last seen in 1941. A similar tale can be observed in Great Britain, where manufacturing employment in 2017 was half what it was in 1978 and production, which once accounted for 30% of GDP, is now just 10% of GDP. Germany, Japan, and other 'industrialised' countries have similar tales to tell. Where did all of those jobs go, you may wonder? But if you give it some thought, I'm sure you can come up with your own solutions[1], [2].

It's important to remember that, despite job losses, manufacturing production increased in the majority of industrialised nations, meaning that fewer workers were creating more goods. Automation is the first and most straightforward reason for this. Science fiction authors have been preparing us for the arrival of robots for years. Technology for production is already in place! Software, robotics, and other cutting-edge innovations that have merely replaced millions of employees are helping today's workforce. Nowadays, working at a manufacturing plant involves substantial training, a solid foundation in existing technologies, and a constant desire to pick up new ones. The second rationale is that manufacturing has moved from affluent to poorer nations as a result of cheaper wages in the latter [3], [4].

As was said previously in this chapter, the majority of nations have abandoned the protectionist model of growth and now let businesses to decide where their factories will be located. Walmart, which in the 1970s boasted that the majority of all of the things it sold were created in the USA, is the best illustration of this transition. It would be challenging to locate ANY produced item that was still labelled made in the USA thirty years later. A third factor contributing to the drop in manufacturing employment is a fall in consumer demand for certain goods. During the time of deindustrialization, steel output drastically decreased in the United States and England not just as a result of automation and lower wages in other countries, but also as a result of a loss in demand for steel. In order to build bridges, dams, railroads, buildings, and even vehicles throughout the 20th century, the U.S., Europe, and Japan needed a vast quantity of steel[5], [6].

There is a limit to how many bridges and skyscrapers are required in every country, thus construction of such structures has slowed down in the 21st century not because those nations are in decline. Once a nation's GDP per person hits roughly \$20,000, demand for steel starts to decline. As they continue to build more cities, railroads, and other significant building projects, Japan and India's need for steel will increase for a number of years. A change in the sort of manufacturing that takes place, not a drop in steel output, indicates that a nation is NOT in decline. Even though their respective shares of world production continue to decrease, the U.S., Germany, and Japan all continue to expand manufacturing output [7], [8]. The easiest way to understand another fundamental change in manufacturing, which directly affects the geography of production, is to compare it to the two main production modes.

Fordism is the name given to the assembly line method of production that Henry Ford is credited with inventing. By using assembly line methods, he significantly increased productivity by specializing/simplifying occupations, standardising components, lowering manufacturing mistakes, and maintaining high salaries. Through most of the 20th century, these approaches propelled a significant increase in industrial production and reduced the price of products to levels that the general public could buy. Nearly all of the car assembly factories in and around the Great Lakes area of North America used the same techniques, which also facilitated healthy rivalry and fresh innovation for decades as North America rose to become the world's top auto manufacturer. In the 1980s, post-Fordism starts to gain traction as a brand-new, worldwide style of production that aims to disperse different production-related components over many locations, regions, and nations. Fordism would build the complete unit locally, but Post-Fordism looks for the lowest cost place for each individual component, wherever that may be. Think for a second about an optical, wireless mouse. The plastic may be from Taiwan, the optical component from Korea, the rubber cable

from Thailand, and the patent from the United States. All of those components are most likely carried to China, where they are assembled by low-paid labourers by hand and then packaged and sent to all corners of the globe by an automated packaging system.

Global trade has existed for hundreds of years, ever since Marco Polo, the Dutch East India Company, and the Silk Road. Post-Fordism, however, is a relatively new invention in which a single item is made up of multiple layers of manufacturing from various locations throughout the world. The system has changed the world in such a way that businesses are always looking for new, inexpensive manufacturing sites. Customers often gain a lot from the system since even low-income middle school pupils in the United States may find a way to acquire a pocket computer that is more potent than the most cutting-edge computer system in the previous generation. This is rather miraculous. However, industrial occupations, which previously offered a route to upward economic mobility, no longer guarantee individuals a similarly high level of life [9], [10].

DISCUSSION

Industrialization History

The process of industrialization did not begin in full force in England until the eighteenth century. It was the culmination of decades' worth of small-scale advancements that were put together and used in the 18th century. During the early stages of industrialisation, enormous looms that produced fabric at a very cheap cost were powered by water. Despite not using coal or spewing smoke into the sky, this early industry helped to develop the industrial mentality. Costs may be decreased by using inanimate power, transforming manufacturing into easy tasks that could be completed by inexpensive, low-skilled labourers, growing and becoming more concentrated in one location, and producing huge quantities of the same item. This is the essence of the industry. A benefit of industry was that a business might make more money by selling a cheaper product. The world was irrevocably altered when this mentality spread to other products and subsequently services. A product that was much cheaper suddenly found itself competing with places that had been manufacturing things for millennia. The phrase creative destruction was created by economist Joseph Schumpeter to describe the process by which new industries replace outdated ones.

Mass hand manufacture of things started to drastically decrease. They soon became prohibitively pricey when compared to produce items. Handcrafted products are now often the domain of the rich. Fast food is a modern illustration of the industrial style of production. A fast food restaurant's kitchen will show you industrially processed goods that were made only in time to be sold to a consumer. It differs from the method you might use at home. In theory, businesses aren't even there to produce goods or even to create employment. Businesses are designed to generate a profit. The business will adapt its profit-making strategy if doing so is required for its survival. If it is unable to, it will disappear. For instance, a lot of businesses nowadays are quite varied. Take Mitsubishi, which makes unrelated items like vehicles and tuna fish. How do the two relate to one another? Both generate income.

Occupational Geography

How is geography connected to industry? One reason is that industrial cultures have a greater variety of commodities. People just have more stuff because the commodities are more affordable. Another is that everyone can observe the manufacturing facilities, including the factories, shipping ports, and distribution centres. Industrialised folks lead diverse lives. Clocks are not used to control time in pre-industrialized cultures, when individuals instead wear clothing that is mass-produced. They listen to music that is widely distributed. If it seems that you have previously read this in the pop culture chapter, you have. Industry has an impact on pop culture. Industry has altered how the world functions, and geography is concerned with locations. The connections between locations were altered. Early

industrializers acquired the power to economically and politically control less industrialised regions of the globe. Even something as basic as having access to low-cost, mass-produced weapons has effects that went well beyond normal commercial connections.

Industrial production evolved through time from one that harmed local economies to one that fundamentally altered how most people interacted with their material culture, their environment, and one another. On the one hand, industry has raised living standards and expanded food supply; on the other, it has ruined the environment and encouraged extreme inequality. Industrialization is the application of reason to the manufacture of things. This kind of logical reasoning specifically pertains to finding methods to decrease pointless labour, resources, money, and time. Similar to how factories altered how things were made, they also altered where those items were made. Where a plant is ever established is determined by locational factors.

Marx's Probability of a Falling Rate of Profit

Karl Marx worked throughout his whole working life in an effort to comprehend the nature of production. He noted many aspects, including the existence of product lifespans. They are brand-new products when they are first created, giving the manufacturer a monopoly. As soon as a product is published, other companies will start offering cheaper alternatives right away. The race to create the good with an acceptable degree of profit and at ever-lower costs starts. As every method that may be employed to lower the cost of producing the product is found and put to use, this process takes place both in time and space. Material advancements will often take place. Plastic containers may work just as well as metal ones.

Automation of the manufacturing may be possible with capital input. Eventually, when all other cost-cutting options have been tried, cutting labour expenses will be the only way to continue output. Few employees would consent to a significant wage cut. It's time to relocate the plant to a region with less expensive labour. Footloose capitalism was what Marx referred it as. Offshoring is the term used. It's the same thing, and capitalism has always included it. One facet of this is that, having grown up in a capitalist society, we naturally anticipate that the cost of items would decrease with time. Manufacturing in the United States moved from the Northeast to the Midwest, then to the South and West. In the United States, people have long relocated to follow their jobs; they only ceased doing so when those jobs left the nation.

Determinants of Location

Industrial location is a balancing act between markets, labour, and resources. The lowest possible cost is the aim. When one category, like labour, is reduced, it might sometimes result in an increase in another, like transportation. It is possible to substitute between categories. For instance, more money can automate the replacement of labour. In the past, industries were located in urban areas to take use of the labour force that was present there. A sudden labour scarcity may have resulted from construction in the middle of nowhere. Of sure, labour will go to areas where there are jobs available. Site, a location's physical feature, is what determines certain industrial activity. Locating in a region with coal is generally a smart choice if you wish to build a coal mine. Although this is the most stringent limitation, keep in mind that many locations contain mineral riches, not all of them are now mining that richness. Because the resources cannot be harvested and sold for a profit, many locations that would otherwise be candidates for resource extraction are not being utilised at the moment.

The resource won't be utilised if it can't generate revenue. Keep in mind that certain resources may become more lucrative thanks to government subsidies. The result of their position is other industrial areas. If the United States weren't on the other side of the Rio Grande, there wouldn't be any maquiladoras along the southern border. The decision to locate there is made based on its closeness to the United States. Because it seemed to make financial sense, industries migrated to Mexico. They were able to reduce labour expenses while still doing business in the US and Canada. Although early transportation prices rose, total transportation

costs have decreased as a result of more effective ways to move products. The situation in Mexico would alter, their access to the markets of the United States and Canada would decrease, and the industries there would have a much tougher time selling their products if the North American Free Trade Agreement were to be cancelled.

Land Prices

The concept of land was traditionally used to group together basic resources and energy. Few businesses care to invest in power generation, their own oil reserves, or the land that produces a certain substance. The same pricing pressures that affect every other aspect of the production process also apply to these inputs. Over time, the location of a manufacturing has lost some of its significance. In early factories, the majority of employees commuted by foot, and firms were required to occupy pricey urban real estate. That's not the situation anymore. Since the vehicle has become so widely used, industries may be constructed in more suburban or even rural regions, and employees will travel to the plant. As a result, some of the expense of procuring labour is now borne by the employees. It brings down expenses for the business. New factories are often designed to take use of existing road networks, frequently near to interstates, since the corporation still needs access to the transportation network.

Material sourcing has gone worldwide. Steel is a commodity input that is purchased wherever it is reasonably priced and supplied to the location where it is required. The organisation will likely choose the source supplier with the lowest total cost, including delivery. If you've ever made an online purchase, you probably want to know which firm provides the item for the best overall price. Business operations are uniform. Energy expenses vary depending on where you are in the universe. Cheap energy is crucial for energy-intensive industrial activity. A few decades ago, China produced virtually little steel, but now it is the world's largest producer. This is accomplished by using low labour costs and a relatively cheap energy source vast coal reserves.

Labour

There are several strategies to cut labour expenses. Paying the employees less is one method to make ends meet. However, employees dislike having their salary reduced. A typical reaction to increasing salaries has been to send the job to a location with lower rates. A substantial amount of industrial work calls for little education. High school graduates in affluent nations may be hired for high salaries, while people with a similar education in less developed nations can be hired for much lower salaries. As a result, the labour pool has grown more diverse. Today's employees compete for employment with the majority of the human population rather than just the other workers in their local city. Industries that need a lot of labour are especially labour cost sensitive. As wages in wealthy nations have grown, the manufacture of clothing has moved to regions with inexpensive labour.

In addition to the straightforward option of moving employment overseas, there is also the choice of outright replacing employees. In the last 30 years, automation rather than foreign manufacturing has been the main cause of industrial job losses in the United States. Machines have been used to replace humans since the beginning of industry. Today's computers are far more capable and more affordable than they were in the past. In keeping with the prior example of apparel manufacturing, the launch of a facility in Little Rock, Arkansas that depends on a robot named Sabot significantly increased the output of sports shirts in the United States. At extremely little cost, the plant will make millions of shirts. Due to the low cost of labour, it is almost insignificant in comparison to other costs, such as the transportation of raw materials to the production and completed goods to the market. In order to save transportation expenses, a Chinese corporation established the plant in the middle of the US. As labour costs become less significant, more manufacturers will likely relocate

closer to their respective markets. Due to the impact of automation, developed nations are already seeing an increase in manufacturing, but not an increase in manufacturing jobs.

Transportation

Alfred Weber made a significant contribution to geographic thinking on the placement of industrial areas. The idea of utilising the sites of industry with the lowest total cost was advanced by Weber. In order to show the significance of transportation in determining least cost, he created models that kept several industrial inputs constant. According to Weber, the most important element in selecting where an industry is located is transportation costs. Depending on the raw commodities being carried, there are many ways to reduce transportation costs. There are two categories of raw materials: those that can be found locally and those that are more or less everywhere. You have greater flexibility to find the ubiquitous stuff since it is readily accessible. If you construct your facility close to your market, you won't need to carry goods too far. Breweries and soft drink manufacturing facilities are two instances of this.

On the other hand, if the material is just at one specific location, you will need to conduct some calculations. Determine if your manufacturing process distils, condenses, or shrinks your material in any other way first. These procedures are known as bulk-reducing. Bulk-gaining is what you do if you don't do that and instead build little bits into something that is more difficult to move. Bulk-reducing operations should be processed as near to their extraction location as feasible to save transport expenses. Timber mills and metal smelters are two examples of this. The procedures for bulk-gaining are a bit more difficult. You must determine the point between your source materials and your market where costs are the lowest. Remember that the objective is overall lowest cost, thus several calculations must be performed to establish which site is the cheapest. As a result, your location may fall between various inputs and/or markets. These firms often operate near to their target markets, as a general rule.

Weber spoke about agglomeration and de-agglomeration as his last two points. They were secondary criteria, according to Weber, since they were less significant than the aforementioned traits. Agglomeration and the notion of scale economies are connected. There might sometimes be benefits to having comparable industry close by. Think about the production of computers. Manufacturers of computers don't create their own parts; instead, they purchase them, assemble them using comparable machinery, use similar labour, and so on. Industries that congregate in one area may share resources and save costs. This is not to argue that this is an intentional procedure; rather, it often just happens. Diseconomies of scale are caused by de-agglomerative forces, which are also in charge of shifting where industry is located. Examples of this include rising land or labour costs that force industry out of a region.

Cost Savings in Transportation

The nature and cost of transportation have been significantly altered by containerization. In the past, moving items around needed a lot of people to move the products. At break-of-bulk sites, people loaded and unloaded cargo. Break-of-Bulk Points were locations such as ports or railway terminals where cargo was loaded into ships or trains. There were a lot of workers loading and unloading cargo at break-of-bulk locations. Containerization fundamentally altered that procedure. Large metal boxes are increasingly used to pack and transport goods from one location to another. Cranes transport the boxes from trucks to trains to ships, and at the shipping destination, they reverse the procedure. A container will be carried by a variety of different shipping methods without incident under the assumption of intermodal transportation.

The quantity of workers required to transport items decreased. Since the bottlenecks were eliminated from the system, the speed at which items were transported significantly

increased. Containerization is an excellent example of an invention that just needed the rationalisation of a labour-intensive system, not a significant technology breakthrough. The economic activity of moving items is known as logistics, and it is what ties the global industrial network together. Many offshored companies would be unable to manufacture things in far-off plants, transport them to other locations, and still turn a profit without reasonably affordable transportation.

Bringing Down Capital Costs

More expenses than only labour, supplies, and transportation go into running an enterprise. Taxes, regulatory compliance, and financial incentive programmes are a few other variables that might either encourage or discourage production. The significance of these parameters significantly increased. Many sectors now have the ability to start a bidding war in order to get better and better incentives to settle somewhere. The areas that are frantically trying to recruit companies will be responsible for paying for tax incentives, building allowances, and other perks. As a result, there has been what has been called a race to the bottom as businesses make promises they cannot keep in an effort to attract outside investment. Access to finance is another factor. Short-term loan or investment capital are often required by businesses. Many enterprises in developing nations are unable to start or continue because of a lack of funding. It is very difficult for nations without a banking system to generate enough money to establish their own businesses. Companies in these nations are compelled to look for financial support outside.

Risk

Businesses have significant sunk expenses. This may be used by corruption as an excuse to demand bribes, protection payments, or other expenditures that drain profits. High corruption levels discourage investment. Risk aversion pervades industries. Politically unstable areas will also have a hard time industrialising since businesses won't want to invest somewhere where any money may be lost in a revolution or other political turmoil. This is not to say that business needs representative government. Without democracy, many regions have had incredible economic growth. It simply implies that businesses must believe that the money they spend in a location is secure.

The amount of foreign businesses that establish themselves in the United States is one of the concept's intriguing instances. The United States is where businesses like Foxconn, Hyundai, and BMW manufacture their goods. Why do they do that? Is an excellent question to ask yourself? It turns out that having a presence in the United States benefits them. First, as we have said, they may lower transportation expenses. Second, although being quite costly, labour costs in the United States are not much higher than in their home markets. Third, they may be able to circumvent import duties. The fact that these goods are located in the United States puts them close to a large market. Due to the size of the North American market, several businesses may benefit from becoming a part of it.

CONCLUSION

Knowledge the underlying principles of contemporary economic systems and social structures requires a knowledge of the origins and development of industrial production. Policymakers, academics, and historians may better understand the elements that contributed to the success of industrialization as well as the difficulties it presented by tracking its beginnings and spread. It offers a framework for comprehending the background of economic growth in history as well as the continuing effects of industrialization on modern international relations. In conclusion, industrial manufacturing's emergence and growth represent a turning point in human history. The main characters engaged, the contributing elements to its origin and spread, and the social effects it had are highlighted in this abstract. Understanding and researching this transforming process provides important insights into the

underlying principles of contemporary economies and societies, laying the groundwork for future study and comprehension of the continuing effects of industrialisation.

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CHAPTER 17

THE GROWTH OF INDUSTRY: EXPLORING INDUSTRIAL EXPANSION

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ABSTRACT:

This abstract investigates how industrial expansion influences social change and economic progress. It looks at what drives industrial expansion, how industrialization affects diverse industries, and what it means for industrialised and emerging nations. The centrality of industry as a driver of economic expansion is acknowledged in the abstract's first paragraph. It draws attention to how technical developments, such as the invention of equipment, automation, and the use of new energy sources, have fuelled the expansion of the industrial sector. Additionally, it emphasises the value of human resources, financial support for R&D, and supportive public policies in promoting industrialisation. The abstract also explores how industrial progress has affected certain industries. It looks at how agriculture is changing as mechanisation and new methods increase productivity and permit excess output. The development of manufacturing industries, which boosts output, creates job possibilities, and boosts commerce internationally, is explored. It also discusses the expansion of the service industries that come along with industrialisation, like banking, transportation, and telecommunications. For economists, development professionals, and politicians, understanding the expansion of industry is crucial. It draws attention to the need of policies that support sustainable industrialisation, encourage innovation, and take social and environmental issues into account. In order to provide long-term advantages for society, it emphasises the significance of inclusive growth, equal income distribution, and the implementation of sustainable practises.

KEYWORDS:

Businesses, Commerce, Globe, Growth, Industry.

INTRODUCTION

Transnational Corporations have mostly taken over the industrial world today. Transnational Corporations are capable of coordinating and managing a wide range of operations and transactions inside global industrial networks. Additionally, they are able to benefit from regional variations in production conditions and government regulations. Another advantage is potential regional freedom for sales. What it means to invest abroad directly is precisely what it means. Companies make investments abroad. The typical explanation for this in the US is simple outsourcing in search of cheaper labour. The truth is more nuanced. Just think about the manufacturers who construct facilities in the US in the aforementioned situations. They do not need inexpensive labour. Although there is a vast labour pool available for American corporations shifting their manufacturing, it is no longer as affordable as it was 20 years ago. A second justification for investing in China is the same as why other businesses invest in North America to obtain access to a large market[1], [2].

Companies and people have a variety of reasons for investing abroad. Altruistic impulses are among these causes. There are several organisations working to utilise FDI as a tool to fight poverty. For obvious reasons, the prior criticism of financial incentives also directly applies to foreign direct investment. Sometimes countries that are poor and desperate will make choices that don't make much sense economically. There is a long history behind FDI. Companies in wealthier nations were initially primarily concerned in obtaining raw resources from other, mostly poorer nations. This still holds true today. Nearly all of the businesses in nations like Venezuela, Niger, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo are headquartered

there as input suppliers. Factory investments have been witnessed in other locations. Sometimes this is because of the very cheap labour, but a lot of the time it is because of their comparatively low pay and proximity to their market[3], [4].

When several of these nations joined the European Union, Eastern Europe provided an illustration of this. The graph after that is a little different. It displays the many economic development paths taken by manufacturing in general. As you can see, manufacturing has historically represented a very small portion of the US Gross Domestic Product. Although manufacturing is significantly more significant in China and Korea, its relative importance is declining in both of these countries. The value of manufacturing is growing, although very slowly, in Singapore, Japan, and Germany. Note that salaries generated by manufacturing jobs are not taken into consideration in either of these graphs[5], [6].

Worldwide Production

Economic Ascendancy and Hegemony

At times, industrialisation has helped lift nations' economies to incredible heights. Japan, the United States, and Britain all rose to prominence on the back of the industrial revolution. The period when low-skilled employees could make enough money to ensure their financial stability was referred to as a golden age in those nations and others. The American Dream was essentially this. These nations' and their residents' economic paths have shifted as a result of deindustrialization. It must be recognised, nevertheless, that poverty has not increased quickly in post-industrial nations. Although wages have mainly stagnated for years, they haven't typically increased either[7], [8].

The main distinction between industrialised and post-industrialized nations is their respective levels of affluence. Japan, the UK, and the US are no longer much richer than their neighbours. Similar to how oversupplying a market with a certain good decreases its value, oversupplying the planet with industrial capacity lowers the relative worth of that activity. Developing nations serve as auxiliary economies to the world's more developed ones. The requirements of the rich are met by the impoverished. Undeveloped nations either purchase items from industrialised nations or manufacture the things themselves using technology they have either licenced or stolen.

Space and Manufacturing

A factory established in one market may not be built in another in the setting of a globalised economy. There are limitations to the quantity of every commodity that may be sold, which is not to suggest that creating things is a zero-sum game. Why have multinational firms invested in China at rates far higher than in Cuba, Russia, or other communist or previously communist nations is a legitimate issue. There is a certain amount of manufacturing capacity that is spare. There won't be any capacity left for others if one large nation uses up all of it. Simply said, FDI is simpler in China because there is greater value for the money. The population has a significant impact on this. China has a population that is about double that of Sub-Saharan Africa. And unlike the 55 diverse, sometimes warring political class groupings that exist elsewhere, China has a single political and economic ruling class.

If Africa ever becomes industrialised, it will be after China and its close neighbours, who are dragged into its wider economic functioning, have virtually completed their own industrialization. The relocation of certain industries from China to Vietnam and Indonesia serves as an illustration of this proximal impact. China's industrialisation was a result of self-promotion as a massive, inexpensive labour pool and a massive consumer market. It effectively used both of these traits to draw in foreign investment and win over corporations that had invested in setting up shop there by providing access to their technology. Overall, industrialization seems to have stalled. Other nations that followed China did not industrialise as quickly as China did. One prevalent notion is that the globe is competing against fast industrialization and overproduction.

In other words, since we are already producing enough commodities to meet demand, industrialisation is not advancing as quickly as it did in the past. Keeping this in mind, things need demand. Unsold products do not generate any revenue. New factories are far less likely to be created if existing factories are currently producing enough, or perhaps too much. The development of industry may have come to an end due to technological advancements and China's huge industrialization. Additionally, it seems that the peak manufacturing revenue has long since passed. According to economist Dani Rodrik, between 1965 and 1975, manufacturing generated the greatest per capita earnings, which have subsequently sharply declined. Even inflation has been taken into account. The income growth in many industrialising nations is now rather moderate. It has to do with supply and demand. They generate much more income when there are fewer factories. When manufacturers are present everywhere, everyone is in competition with them.

DISCUSSION

The globe has seen an increase in commerce even more than industrial output. As a result of global commerce, goods are today created in one nation, their components are made in ten others, they are put together in still another nation, and then they are sold all over the globe. Think of something intricate like a car. Numerous nations can provide the components for an automobile, but they all need to be brought together in one location for assembly. In the past, such collaboration would not have been conceivable. On the internet, people may make direct purchases from foreign nations, but most international commerce is through businesses. TNCs have the ability to carry out a sort of internal international commerce in items that can be transported and manufactured in a method that is most favourable for the business. Tax advantages, cheap financing, and banking privacy regulations all work together to divert investment [9], [10]. The expansion of international commerce has made it possible for certain businesses to implement just-in-time delivery, in which the components for a product only arrive shortly before usage. As a result, it is quicker to alter output and a corporation has less money locked up in components in a storage facility. Again, even in the very recent past, such worldwide cooperation was not conceivable.

Deindustrialization

In the past, the world's richest nations were the industrialised nations. But industrialization has been around for two centuries now. Deindustrialization started in earnest in several countries, including the United States, the United Kingdom, and many others, in the last decades of the 20th century. Old employment went with the factories as well. According to classical economics, relocating these occupations abroad was advantageous for everyone since they had become less value. Consumers found offshored items to be less expensive, and the jobs that were lost were replaced with better ones. This concept has a flaw in that it distinguishes between the conditions of being a consumer and a worker. Any economy has a majority of employees. They are only able to spend as long as they are earning money, and that depends on their capacity for employment. Many employees who lost their employment to relocations discovered that their new positions paid less than their previous ones.

What Takes Place Following Deindustrialization

This is the straightforward solution to the earlier query. There is a service economy! Services businesses often add employment when manufacturing loses employees. But this is a very fine line to walk. It is quite difficult for a 50-year-old coal miner whose work has been replaced by technology to simply shift careers and join the service sector. For people without the necessary abilities, education, training, or location, this shift can be highly harmful. To the sorrow of the locals who formerly had solid work there, industrial facilities shuttered, deteriorated, and physically rusted in many areas of the American Midwest, earning the region the moniker rust belt. For instance, Detroit lost over half of its urban population between 1970 and 2010. As employment growth has slowed in the post-industrial era, Illinois

is losing a person every 15 minutes. The service sector has grown more productively and created more jobs than the industrial industry ever did in the United States, notwithstanding this. Every economy has three sectors:

1. Primary.
2. Secondary.
3. Tertiary.

The tertiary sector accounts for the great bulk of economic development in the post-industrialized world. That is not to say that all tertiary occupations are highly paid. Ask any fast-food employee whether their job in the service industry has made them wealthy! However, positions in the service industry are very flexible and provide millions of individuals with real chances to make a livelihood by offering services to others. We might further divide the service industry into two categories as public, Enterprise and a customer. Service sector occupations have historically operated quite similarly to industrial positions in that people put in regular hours, received benefits from the business, earned increases via improved performance, and commuted away from home to work. However, many service occupations in the twenty-first century have been categorised as part of the gig economy, where employees work as freelancers, don't have set hours, don't get benefits, and often work alone rather than as a team. Private instructor, Uber/Lyft driver, Air BNB host, blogger, and YouTuber are a few examples of 'employment' in the gig economy. Like it was in manufacturing, work is not always constrained by specific locations and spaces in today's economy.

Imagine a worker in the steel industry phoning in to inform the supervisor that they would only be working from home today. Even public schools have made the following adjustments to fit this concept. The new standard is to conduct class online when schools cancel due to bad weather, allowing students to complete independent assignments that are sent in to the instructor even when no one is present. As a result, some employees are liberated from the conventional limitations of time and location and are able to pick where they want to live as long as they continue to have access to a computer and the Internet. Services like fiverr.com provide a market where independent essay writers may produce essays for others or where graphic designers can sell their design concepts to consumers directly without ever having met.

The conventional connections between employer and employee are radically shifting in the global economy, according to this definition. But a word of warning is required here. While many people choose to welcome the freedom that comes with flexible employment arrangements, there is a darker side in that the conventional contract and social cohesive factor between employees and owners is seriously under jeopardy. The growth of civil society, which battled for and won a number of protective measures for employees who otherwise may endure terrible working circumstances, was one of the key developments of the 20th century. The employer-employee relationship that served as the foundation for child labour laws, minimum wages, environmental safety regulations, overtime pay, and anti-discrimination safeguards seems to be under danger from the gig economy. Since Uber drivers are independent contractors, they may labour themselves to exhaustion. Since they are not subject to the same safety inspections as hotels, Air BNB hosts may ignore environmental safety regulations. These are but a few instances, but they need careful thought. Despite its advantages and disadvantages, the new service economy is fundamentally changing every aspect of society. Although the authors of this textbook are all professors of geography with PhDs from various colleges, it's possible that the future iteration may just use the gig economy to find the least expensive writers who are eager to write about anything geographical. Will you be able to distinguish between them?

The way that individuals interact with their surroundings has changed as a result of industrialization. Folk cultures produced items by hand using local resources and expertise. Now, it is possible to divide the manufacturing of commodities and the delivery of services into an infinite number of geographically distinct parts. Due to intense pressure to decrease costs, competition pushes down the price of products and services. As a result of this process, industrialisation has spread to almost every region of the globe as businesses continue to expand in search of more consumers and cheaper labour and resources. A shift in lifestyle has been fostered by industrialization because as things have become cheaper, more people can now afford them. Our way of life has altered. We now follow a timetable that is determined by global production.

CONCLUSION

The ramifications of industrial progress for both industrialised and emerging nations are covered in the abstract. Industrialization has raised living standards, accelerated technical development, and given rise to a middle class in industrialised nations. However, it also prompts worries about the decline of conventional sectors, economic inequality, and environmental deterioration. Industrial expansion in emerging nations offers chances for economic diversification, job creation, and poverty reduction, but it also raises issues with sustainable practises, infrastructure development, and knowledge transfer. In conclusion, the development of industry has significantly influenced the development of economies and civilizations. The driving forces behind industrial progress, their effects on various industries, and their ramifications for industrialised and emerging nations are highlighted in this abstract. Policymakers may create policies that leverage industrialization's advantages while minimising its drawbacks by being aware of the intricacies and difficulties it presents. Future industrial development that is inclusive and sustainable depends on the continuation of research in this area.

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CHAPTER 18

HUMAN GEOGRAPHY INTRODUCTION: EXPLORING HUMAN SETTLEMENTS

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ABSTRACT:

In addition to villages and agricultural areas, which can range from traditional to intensive monoculture systems, forests, different parks, and wilderness, rural areas also include services and commercial locations, as well as educational and research facilities. In particular, rural regions serve as a habitat for local people, as well as for plants and animals, and as buffer zones between crowded urban centres and overpopulated areas of intense growth. Our knowledge of rural regions must take into account more than just how land is utilised by people and nature because of this intricate variety. That is to say, the economic and social institutions in rural regions that support agriculture, forestry, handicrafts, small, medium, and large-scale business production and commerce, as well as the delivery of services from the most regional to the most global scales, must also be included in our understanding. Some rural regions also serve as important ecological balancing zones thanks to preservation and/or conservation efforts. These components all work together to produce a strong reliance, connection, and competitiveness. Nevertheless, over 54% of the world's population presently live in urban areas¹, and this percentage is rapidly increasing. Thus, one of the most significant geographic processes in the modern world is urbanisation. Cities and towns are always changing.

KEYWORDS:

Agricultural, Industrial, Population, Region, Urbanization.

INTRODUCTION

In the past, technical advancements like the steam engine, railways, internal combustion engine, air travel, electronics, telecommunications, robotics, and the internet have had an impact on cities. The worldwide transition to technical, industrial, and service-based economies has had the unavoidable effect of accelerating urbanisation and city expansion. Additionally, a new stage of transition is already underway, one that involves global processes of political, cultural, and economic transformations [1], [2]. The economic reorganisation has dictated a selective recentralization of residential and commercial land use within the cities of the developed world, particularly in connection with a selective industrial decentralisation. The urbanisation of peripheral regions, in contrast to the core regions, where it has largely been caused by economic growth, has been a result of demographic growth, leading to significant population increases well before any significant levels of urban or rural economic development. The slums and squatter colonies of those who labour in the informal sector contrast strongly with the luxurious residences and apartment buildings that coincide with a thriving formal sector of the economy [3], [4].

Patterns of Rural Settlement

There are many different kinds of rural communities. Settlements may be divided into two main groups using the geometry, internal structure, and texture of the streets as categorization criteria: clustered and scattered.

Several Rural Communities

A rural hamlet that is clustered is one where many families live near to one another and where the dwellings and farm buildings are surrounded by fields. This style of village's design takes into account historical events, the qualities of the land, current economic

situations, and regional cultural traits. The settlement patterns in rural areas vary from grid to compact to linear to circular.

Compact Rural Communities

This style contains a central area where a number of public structures, including the community hall, bank, shopping mall, school, and church, are situated. Farmland and homes surround this centre. The first ring around the dwellings is made up of small garden plots, while the subsequent rings are made up of huge cultivated land areas, pastures, and forests. The little towns may be found in depressions in the hills and mountains or in plain regions with abundant water supplies. Contrasting sharply with the sometimes-isolated farms of the American Great Plains or Australia, the tiny settlements in some instances are built to save land for farming.

Rural Linear Settlements

Buildings along a road, river, dike, or seashore make up the linear form. The agricultural land extends behind the structures, with the exception of hilly areas. The river may provide the population with a means of transportation and communication, as well as a source of water. For access to inland farms, roads were built along to the river. By doing this, a new linear community may develop parallel to the first riverside settlement along each road [5], [6].

Circular Rural Communities

A centre open area is surrounded by buildings in this manner. A Rundling, Runddorf, Rundlingsdorf, Rundplatzdorf or Platzdorf, Circulades and Bastides, or Kraal are some other names for these villages. Although there are no modern historical accounts of the creation of these circular communities, a consensus has developed recently. According to a model created by the Germanic nobles as suited for small groups of mostly Slavic farm-settlers, Rundlinge were formed about at the same time in the 12th century, according to the dominant hypothesis at the moment. Additionally, for defensive reasons, mediaeval settlements in the Languedoc region of France were often constructed in a circular pattern on hilltops.

Romania has a distinctive, round German hamlet that is located far from German land. Charlottenburg, the only round hamlet in Romania, is situated in the southwest. In the second wave of German colonisation, approximately 1770, Swabians settled in the area and founded the settlement. A covered well in the centre of the hamlet sits behind residences with stables, barns, and their gardens in the outer ring, all of which are encircled by a complete circle of mulberry trees. The lovely baroque town layout has been conserved as a historical monument because of its rarity.

Dispersed Rural Communities

One of the primary forms of settlement used to categorise rural communities is a scattered settlement. Dispersed communities often have a scattered to isolated layout, in striking contrast to a nucleated community. Dispersed patterns of settlement may be seen in many other parts of the globe, including North America, in addition to Western Europe. The foothill, tableland, and upland areas are only a few examples of the many landforms where a dispersed scattered kind of rural habitation may be found. The real dispersed village, however, can only be found at the highest altitudes and is a reflection of the harsh environment and pastoral way of life. The historic market centres are still significant, and the populace maintains many traditional elements of architecture, attire, and social rituals. Wherever the physical circumstances allow, little plots and homes are cut out of the woodlands and on the highland pastures. The primary economic activities are mining, rearing cattle, and agriculture, the latter of which is characterised by terrace farming on the mountain slopes. This kind of town is generally found in sub-mountain areas with hills and valleys covered with ploughed fields, vineyards, orchards, and pastures [5], [7].

Remote Rural Communities

Instead of living next to other farmers in communities, this kind of farming involves the establishment of distinct farmsteads that are dispersed around the region. Although it is a key feature of Canada, Australia, Europe, and other places, the isolated settlement pattern predominates in rural parts of the United States. The Middle Atlantic colonies were where the scattered settlement pattern in the United States originally emerged as a consequence of the arrival of lone immigrants. The isolated kind of communities predominated in the American Midwest as people began to migrate westward, where land was abundant. These farms are situated in the vast agricultural plains and plateaus, although some isolated farms.

DISCUSSION

In different parts of the globe, the oldest settlements and cities grew on their own. The move from hunting and gathering to agricultural food production marks the first agricultural revolution in these hearth regions. The oldest examples of urbanisation may be found in five places of the world: Mesopotamia and Egypt, the Indus Valley, Northern China, and Mesoamerica. These five hearths eventually gave rise to succeeding generations of urbanised world-empires, which spread urbanisation across the rest of the globe. Egypt and Mesopotamia were the earliest autonomous urban areas, beginning approximately 3500 B.C. The eastern portion of the so-called Fertile Crescent was the region known as Mesopotamia, which was located between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers.

The Fertile Crescent extended westward from the Mesopotamian Basin across the northern Syrian Desert and into Egypt's Nile Valley. The huge fortified city-states of the Sumerian Empire, including Ur, Uruk, Eridu, and Erbil, in modern-day Iraq, were founded as a result of certain agricultural communities in Mesopotamia significantly expanding in size. The Babylonians, who controlled the area from their capital city of Babylon, had conquered the Sumerian city-states by 1885 B.C. Internal calm in Egypt eliminated the need for any defensive fortifications, unlike in Mesopotamia. The year 3000 B.C. Memphis was perhaps the biggest city in Egypt. However, urbanisation persisted between 2000 and 1400 B.C., as shown by the establishment of multiple major cities, including Tanis and Thebes [8], [9]. Large urban areas were first established about 2500 B.C. in the Indus Valley, present-day Pakistan, and then, around 1800 B.C., in the arid plains of the Huang He River, northern China, thanks to the area's rich soils and sophisticated irrigation systems. Mesoamerica began to exhibit autonomous urbanisation about 100 B.C. and subsequently, from around AD, Andean America. 800. Teotihuacan, which is close to present-day Mexico City, peaked with roughly 200,000 people between A.D. 300 and 700.

Eventually, the Fertile Crescent's city-building principles reached the Mediterranean region. The Greeks established renowned cities like Athens, Sparta, and Corinth around 800 B.C., ushering in the urban system in Europe. The acropolis, at the city's centre, was the defensive fortress, surrounded by the agora neighbourhoods and all enclosed by a protective wall. The other Greek cities were quite minor by modern standards, with the exception of Athens, which had around 150,000 residents. Through colonisation of other countries, the Greek urban system extended from the Aegean Sea to the Black Sea, along the Adriatic Sea, and to the west till Spain. Alexander the Great expanded the Greek urban system eastward into Central Asia despite the fact that the Macedonians had invaded Greece in the fourth century BC. The fact that cities are situated around Mediterranean coasts illustrates how crucial long-distance maritime commerce was to this urban culture.

The Romans had spread communities throughout southern Europe, linked by a wonderful system of highways, thanks to their outstanding achievements of civil engineering. The grid system served as the foundation for Roman settlements, many of which were inland. Political and economic activity were to take place in the city's forum, which was enclosed by a protective wall. By A.D. Rome had a population of almost a million people by the year 100, although the majority of towns were minor. Roman cities, in contrast to Greek cities, were

part of a well-organized system that was centred on Rome. The Romans also created highly developed urban infrastructure with paved streets, piped water and sewage systems, as well as large monuments, opulent public structures, and magnificent city walls. When Rome began to crumble in the fifth century, the urban system that stretched from England to Babylon was a well-integrated urban system and transit network, serving as the precursor to the metropolitan systems in Western Europe today.

Western Europe had a drop in urbanisation following the fall of the Roman Empire in the fifth century, despite the fact that urban life continued to thrive in several other regions of the globe. A.D. throughout this early mediaeval epoch. Feudalism was a system of rurally focused economic and social organisation throughout the Dark Ages, often known as the period from 476 to 1000. However, urban life was still thriving while Muslim influence was present in Spain or when Byzantine rule was in place. Constantine the Great relocated the Roman Empire's capital from Rome to Byzantium, renamed the new location Constantinople, while Rome was in decline. Constantinople rose to become the biggest city in the world and held this title for the majority of the next 1000 years because to its advantageous position for commerce between Europe and Asia [10], [11]. However, most European areas did contain a few minor towns, the majority of which served as administrative centres, gateway towns, defensive strongholds, or religious or university centres. The world-empires/kingdoms' capital cities towards the end of the first millennium included the Islamic caliphates, the Byzantine Empire, the Chinese Empire, and Indian kingdoms.

European Urban Renaissance

A larger money economy started to emerge in the 11th century. A new stage of urbanisation based on merchant capitalism was made possible by the increasing regional specialisations and trade patterns. By the year 1400, long-distance trade was a well-established industry centred on a range of agricultural products as well as luxury items, metals, and wood. Europe had roughly 3000 cities at the time, the most of which were quite tiny. With around 275,000 residents, Paris was the largest metropolis in Europe. Only northern Italian cities, Bruges, and Constantinople had populations of more than 50,000 people.

Fundamental shifts had place between the 14th and 18th centuries, transforming not just European towns and urban systems but also the whole global economy. The Protestant Reformation and the scientific revolution of the Renaissance sparked economic and social reorganisation, and merchant capitalism expanded in scope. Europeans were able to influence the world's economics and civilizations via overseas colonisation. The first people to introduce the European urban system to remote parts of the globe were Spanish and Portuguese colonists. Spanish colonists laid the foundation for Latin America's urban structure between 1520 and 1580. During the Renaissance, the creation of national governments and the centralization of political authority influenced the development of increasingly integrated national urban networks.

City Development and the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution was a strong force that accelerated further urbanization, creating new types of cities, some of which recorded an unparalleled concentration of people, even though the process of urbanisation had already advanced greatly by the 18th century. Manchester, for instance, which grew from a little hamlet of 15,000 people in 1750 to a global metropolis with 2.3 million people by 1911, was the shock city of European industrialisation in the 19th century. During the first half of the 19th century, industrialization extended from England to the rest of Europe and subsequently to many regions of the globe. Additionally, urbanisation accelerated more quickly as a result of subsequent advancements in transportation technology. The construction of railways, canals, and steam-powered vehicles shifted urbanisation from the coasts to the interiors of the nations.

Chicago, which saw its population increase from 4,200 in 1837 to 3.3 million in 1930, was the shock metropolis in North America. Its development as an industrial city came mostly as a result of the railways' entrance, which turned the city into a significant transit centre. The new developments made a substantial contribution to urban development in the 20th century. In the 19th century, urbanisation had grown to be a significant aspect of the global system. The increased prospects and higher incomes in the metropolis became a strong pull factor, drawing a huge migration of people from the countryside. As a result, the proportion of people who live in cities has climbed from 3 percent in 1800 to 54 percent in 2017. In industrialised countries, 78 percent of people reside in urban regions, compared to 49 percent in developing nations, indicating the degree of development of the region and/or the nation.

The Distribution of Cities

Although the majority of industrialised countries have a greater proportion of urban residents, emerging nations have more extremely big urban centres. The top three metropolitan areas in 1950, out of the 30 biggest in the world, were located in industrialised nations: New York, Tokyo, and London, two of which had a population of more than 10 million. After 30 years, a substantial shift was seen in 1980. Tokyo overtook metro New York, whose population rose from 12.3 million to 15.6 million, to become the world's biggest metropolitan area, a title it still holds today. In addition, Mexico City and Sao Paulo, two sizable urban areas in emerging nations, were included, replacing Osaka, the second metropolitan region from Japan.

After 2010, several emerging nations, including India, China, Bangladesh, and Pakistan from Asia, and Egypt, Nigeria, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo from Africa, were added to the list of big metropolitan regions. After 2020, each of these metropolitan cities is anticipated to have a population of over 20 million people, joining Shanghai and Delhi as the biggest metropolitan areas with a combined population of over 30 million. The biggest metropolitan region in the United States is New York-Newark, where the population has steadily increased from 12.3 million in 1950 to 15.6 million in 1980 to 18.3 million in 2010, with the potential to reach 20 million in 2030. However, the industrialised countries have only seen a modest pace of urban expansion, in contrast to emerging nations, which are characterised by a highly rapid urban growth rate.

The rank-size rule, which describes a predictable pattern in which the n th-biggest city in a nation or area is $1/n$ the size of the largest city, describes the link between the size of cities and their rank within an urban system. The second-biggest city is half the size of the largest, the third-largest city is one-third the size of the largest city, and so on, according to the rank-size rule. In other nations, the population of the biggest city is disproportionately large in comparison to the second and third largest cities in that urban system. In the United States, the distribution of settlements closely complies with the rank-size rule. These settlements are known as primate cities. However, cities don't necessarily need to be primate-like to dominate in terms of functionality inside their metropolitan systems. The term centrality refers to the city's functional supremacy. Additionally, several of the biggest metropolises that are integral parts of the global economic system and play significant roles outside of their own country borders are considered world cities. Today, London, New York, and Tokyo rule Europe, the Americas, and Asia, respectively, because to the significance of their financial markets and related corporate services.

City Patterns

Cities in North America

The current North American scene eloquently demonstrates how its populace has altered the settlement environment to accommodate a contemporary post-industrial culture. A city's centre, often known as downtown, has traditionally been the focal point of commercial and service land use in North American cities. It is sometimes referred to as the central business

area and is frequently one of the older neighbourhoods in a city as well as the hub of major transportation arteries. The CBD serves as a visual representation of the industrial city's expansion and dynamism, elevating it to a status symbol for advancement, modernism, and wealth. It has the tallest and densest non-residential structures, and due to its accessibility, a variety of services are drawn there.

Modern metropolitan regions were created as a result of urban decentralisation, which also changed the city's land-use patterns. If the concentric zone model, which organises urban land in rings around the CBD, was idealised during the first half of the 20th century, today's urban model emphasises new suburban growth marked by a variety of ancillary retailing, industrial areas, office complexes, and entertainment facilities called edge cities. In order to better understand where individuals from various socioeconomic groups often reside in metropolitan areas, the sector and multiple nuclei models of urban structure were created. All models depict the addition of new residential neighbourhoods beyond the city centre as the population grew and sought out more attractive, outlying areas.

Inequality in the patterns of settlement throughout North America is a result of metropolitan clusters. Ten of the eleven urban agglomerations, commonly referred to as megalopolises, are found in the United States, the other two being in Canada. The Boston-Washington Corridor, or Bo swash, has around 50 million residents, or 15% of the country's population, making it the most densely populated area. Despite occupying less than 2% of the country's total geographical area, the region contributes 20% of the GDP. Cities in North America are known for their wealth, much like many other cities in the core areas. However, several issues still persist, including a tight budget, poverty, homelessness, neighbourhood blight, and infrastructural requirements. Contrarily, certain inner cities go through the gentrification process as higher-income individuals who work downtown and are looking for the convenience of less priced, centrally situated homes that are bigger and have appealing architectural aspects move in.

American Cities

Europe is known for its high degree of urbanisation. Over 80% of people live in metropolitan areas, even in sparsely populated Northern Europe. 6. With an average of 69–70%, Southern and Eastern Europe has the least urbanisation. The introduction of cities to Europe may be attributed to the ancient Greek and Roman Empires, making many European towns more than 2,000 years old. However, extensive urbanisation in Europe is just a century or two old. Paris, London, and Madrid are some of the biggest metropolitan regions. 7. Similar to North American cities, European cities exhibit the effects of competitive land markets and have issues with urban planning, infrastructure upkeep, and poverty. However, the majority of European cities stand apart from North American cities due to their extensive histories, which are the result of multiple significant epochs of urban growth.

The three zone models that define metropolitan areas in North America are equally applicable to urban areas in Europe, however there are notable variances in the geographical distribution of social groupings, and these groups may not choose certain neighbourhoods within their cities for the same reasons. For instance, there are more people living in European Central Business Districts than in American CBDs. Most of these residents are higher-income individuals who are drawn to these areas by the chance to access commercial and cultural facilities as well as to live in beautiful old buildings situated in some upscale residential areas. As a consequence, compared to American CBDs, European CBDs are less dominated by commercial services. Urban regions with CBDs are often quite pricey. As a result, in European cities, disadvantaged individuals are more prone to reside in outside rings.

As a result of the Roman and Mediaeval origins of many of today's most significant European cities, there are strict regulations for the preservation of their historic CBDs, including the prohibition of motor vehicles, the maintenance of low-rise buildings, plazas, squares, and

narrow streets, and the preservation of the original architecture, including the former cities' walls. The legacy of a lengthy and diverse past also includes impressive palaces, cathedrals, churches, and monasteries, along with a great range of symbolism memorials and monuments. Due to the varied topography of Europe, there are notable differences between Germanic cities and Mediterranean cities as well as between these regions and eastern European towns that endured more than 40 years of communism. Large public housing estates and industrial zones are two examples of how governmental control over land and housing led to the creation of a certain pattern of land use. In certain situations, the new urban expansion has encroached into rural regions while the ancient cities' structures have been changed.

The largest megalopolis in Europe, Blue Banana, also known as the Manchester-Milan Axis, is a discontinuous urban corridor in Western Europe with a population of over 111 million people. Europe includes overlapping metropolitan districts. Approximately, it spans from Northwest England via Greater London through the Benelux nations, along the German Rhineland, Southern Germany, Alsace in France in the west, and Switzerland to Northern Italy in the south. In addition to the north of Germany, where another conurbation is located on the North Sea coast and stretches into Denmark and from there into southern Scandinavia, new areas that have been compared to the Blue Banana can be found on the Mediterranean coast between Valencia and Genoa as part of the Golden Banana or European Sunbelt.

Suburban sprawl against sustainable cities

Sprawling Suburbs

The U.S.'s rise in vehicle ownership, new infrastructure systems, long-term house finance, as well as the massive amount of area annexed from neighbouring counties, all contributed to a sharp increase in suburban expansion. Therefore, sprawl is inherent to urbanisation in North America. Positive aspects of suburbanization include low density and single-family suburban development. Approximately 50% of Americans now live in suburbs. Outside of European cities, sprawl is less prevalent. However, this progress comes at a considerable cost to both people and the environment. Automobile reliance, longer commutes, higher petrol prices, air pollution, and health issues are notable examples. Even worse, residential construction is taking over more and more agricultural land. Importantly, local governments must spend more money on services for the suburbs than they take in through taxes.

City Sustainability

The middle ground is smart growth, sometimes referred to as 'compact city' in Europe, notably in the United Kingdom. Smart development is urban planning that focuses expansion in small, well-planned communities with enough infrastructure and urban centres that are accessible by foot, by transport, and by bicycle. Higher living densities, the preservation of open space, farmland, and natural and cultural resources, a variety of transportation options, predictable, equitable, and cost-effective development decisions, an equitable distribution of the costs and benefits of development, and encouraging community collaboration in decision-making are all traits of smart development. Though not very novel, smart development and similar ideas are a reaction to sprawl and the vehicle culture they promote.

Long-term, regional sustainability factors are valued above short-term considerations in smart development. However, in reality, the process encounters difficulties from even the public, who sometimes voice their objections to the regional smart development initiatives. There are many different kinds of rural communities. Early settlements needed to be close to a dependable water source, be able to defend themselves, and have access to enough arable land. Additionally, they had to adjust to the local physical and climatic circumstances, which may be seen with a trained eye. The Netherlands has linear villages that are tightly packed on

the dikes that enclose land that was formerly under the sea. Africa's circular communities are a sign that animals require a place to be secure at night.

A region's rural settlement provides valuable information about its history, culture, and customs. The majority of individuals can agree that cities are areas where a lot of people live and work, as well as being important centres for business, government, and transportation. But there is considerable disagreement about the most appropriate method for defining a city's boundaries. There are currently no internationally accepted standards for identifying a city's borders. For every given city, a variety of border definitions are often available. While urban agglomeration examines the size of the built-up region to define the city's limits, city proper characterises a city according to an official boundary. The metropolitan area, a third idea of the city, establishes its borders based on how economically and socially integrated the surrounding areas are.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, there has been much discussion in numerous academic works on how to define the words rural and/or rurality and how to distinguish rural from urban places. Certain regions develop rural space, which is characterised by a number of elements including land use, population density, agricultural employment, and developed areas. Rural regions are often thought of as being associated with more extensive land use activities such as forestry and agriculture, low population density, tiny communities, and an agricultural way of life. Each territorial entity in rural areas comprises both agricultural and non-agricultural industries and has a range of sizes, spanning the local or regional economy. For statistical and administrative reasons, the term rural might mean different things in different nations. Despite the fact that urbanisation is an international phenomenon, around 45, 5% of the world's population still resides in rural regions.

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CHAPTER 19

ANALYSIS OF RESOURCES AND THE ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT:

This abstract examines resource and environmental analysis, concentrating on the importance of analysing natural resources, ecosystems, and how they interact with human activity. It emphasises the significance of sustainable environmental practises, resource management, and the role of analysis in guiding decision-making. Natural resource analysis include evaluating a resource's distribution, use, quality, and availability. It includes research on a variety of resources, including land, water, minerals, energy sources, and biodiversity. Resource analysis include calculating reserves, comprehending extraction techniques, analysing economic feasibility, and determining how resource exploitation will affect the environment. Environmental analysis is the study of the dynamics and status of ecosystems, such as the atmosphere, oceans, soil, and living things. In addition to other environmental elements, it looks at biological processes, biodiversity, pollution levels, and climate change. The effects of human activity on ecosystems are evaluated via environmental analysis, and strategies to lessen those effects or adapt to environmental changes are created. The relationship between natural resources and ecosystems is acknowledged by the examination of resources and the environment. It investigates the relationship between resource use and ecosystem services, biodiversity loss, and ecosystem health. On the other hand, environmental factors like pollution or climate change might have an effect on the quantity and quality of available resources. For the sustainable management of resources and the preservation of ecosystems, it is essential to comprehend this interdependence.

KEYWORDS:

Environmental, Natural, Oil, Pollution, Resources.

INTRODUCTION

Since most of the primary subjects covered in this textbook have something to do with resource usage, a discussion of resources makes a fantastic conclusion. The demand for resources will rise as the world's population grows. In many nations where fossil fuel extraction is a key component of the economy, employment possibilities in the mining and drilling of fossil fuels are a significant draw factor for migration. The availability of resources and how they are utilised in a nation are both influenced and impacted by cultures and the political and economic systems and settlements that go along with them. For instance, The British industrial revolution was aided by the availability of coal in that nation. Furthermore, the need for energy sources like fossil fuels is continuing to rise as emerging nations modernise and have greater energy demands for power and transportation[1], [2].

Resources for Non-renewable Energy

Fossil fuels are by far the most important energy source for the majority of nations in the world, and their supply is non-renewable or limited. Electric power plants burn fossil fuels to provide energy that powers automobiles, ships, and other moving objects. The decline in air quality caused by the burning of fossil fuels is still substantial and is a reason for worry on a global scale, even if it is technically possible to burn fossil fuels in power plants such that the emissions are not especially important in terms of air pollution. Natural gas, oil, and coal are the main fossil fuels. Ancient living stuff is the source of fossil fuels. In the case of coal, this fossil fuel was probably created from ancient plant matter in marshes that was later buried and underwent metamorphosis. Microscopic creatures that sunk to the bottom of ancient seas

and over time changed into these two fossil fuels are thought to be the source of oil and natural gas [3], [4].

The majority of proved fossil fuel reserves, or resources that can be extracted with some confidence, are held by a variety of nations. The greatest coal deposits are in the United States, followed by those in Russia and China. The great bulk of oil reserves that have been found are in the Middle East, in nations like Saudi Arabia and Canada. Other nations with significant reserves include Venezuela and Iraq. Last but not least, Russia and Iran have the biggest deposits of natural gas. These numbers do not account for possible fossil fuel reserves, or for fossil fuels that may exist but have not yet been conclusively confirmed. The Green River Formation, which is located in sections of Colorado, Utah, and Wyoming, is one illustration of prospective reserves in the United States. Only half of the oil in this vast shale rock deposit, which might hold up to three trillion barrels, is recoverable. But the world's known oil reserves are approximately equal to 1.5 trillion barrels of oil [5], [6].

Due to the difficulties involved in extracting oil from the rock, which would entail heating the rock and consuming a lot of water in an area that is mostly dry, it seems unlikely that the Green River Formation would be exploited. The oil and gas deposits in the Arctic are another example of possible reserves. Although this area has not been thoroughly explored, the melting sea ice brought on by the region's rising temperatures is expanding the prospects for exploratory drilling. It's not always the case that the nations with the greatest reserves also produce the most fossil fuels. Production is the process of digging for and harvesting fossil fuels from the Earth. China, India, and the United States are the top three coal producers, partly due to the high demand for electricity. At the moment, Saudi Arabia, Russia, and the United States produce the most oil. Russia and the United States are the two countries that extract natural gas the most.

DISCUSSION

Resources of Regenerable Energy

Since the supply of fossil fuels is limited, efforts are being made in several nations all over the globe to find alternative energy sources. Some scholars worry that since there are finite amounts of fossil fuels, supply may ultimately outpace demand, especially as emerging nations advance economically and technologically. Additionally, the emissions from burning fossil fuels are a major problem for the atmosphere, as we shall see in a later section on pollution, and clean energy is seen to be a superior alternative to coal, oil, and natural gas. Numerous sorts of alternative energy sources including renewable energy are used in the transition away from fossil fuels. Resources that are renewable have an endless supply. Solar, wind, hydroelectricity, biofuels, and geothermal energy are some of the main forms of renewable energy.

Nuclear power is an alternative energy source, however it is not renewable since it relies on the availability of uranium, even if the dangers are thought to be high. In many parts of the globe, there are significant attempts being made to exploit these energy sources. For instance, during the 1990s, there has been a concentrated drive in Europe to finance renewable energy projects. In Europe, wind energy surpassed coal in 2016 as the second-largest source of electricity generation, and 80 percent of all new energy projects used renewable energy sources. Germany continues to be the world leader in wind energy, while installations of wind farms broke records in France, Ireland, Lithuania, the Netherlands, and Finland. Norway and Sweden are the top two consumers of renewable energy in Europe overall, with more than half of their energy coming from these sources.

While building several coal-fired power plants in Asia, China is also spending hundreds of billions of dollars on renewable energy more than the UK, the US, and Japan put together. This result is significant since China is the top emitter of greenhouse gases, and pollution from China may have considerable impact on global warming. Furthermore, China wants to

construct the biggest solar farm in the world and is currently the global leader in the use of wind energy. By 2027, India wants to generate more than half of its energy from renewable sources. To assist with the expenses of the energy revolution, each of these initiatives requires a significant financial commitment [7], [8].

Even Saudi Arabia, the world's top oil producer, is turning to renewable energy in the Middle East as it anticipates being a net importer of oil by 2038 as its local reserves run out. The amount of days without clouds in a year makes the Middle East a great place for solar energy. Only around 12% of the energy produced in the US comes from renewable sources, and a large portion of it comes from hydroelectricity. The biggest wind and solar farms in the world are located in America. The state with the largest solar energy producing capacity is California, whereas Texas produces the most wind energy. Since the state government of California has set a target of having 1.5 million electric vehicles on the road by 2025, efforts to encourage the usage of electric cars have also been pushed there. Although employing a battery to power a car instead of fossil fuels is typically more ecologically benign, the cars are still charged using energy produced mostly from fossil fuels.

Biofuels are one of the most divisive forms of renewable energy. A large portion of the biofuel used worldwide is derived from a range of crops, including maize, cassava, sweet potatoes, sugar cane and sorghum. China is third in the world's biofuel output, behind the United States and Brazil. Most petrol in the US contains a small amount of ethanol made from maize. The main source of controversy surrounding biofuels is the fact that many of the plants used to create them could also be used to feed humans. As a result, there is intense discussion on whether it is wise to utilise limited land to produce fuel rather than food. Nevertheless, there are sources of biofuel outside agricultural products, such as bio-methane and even microbes like *E. coli*. Methane produced by cow dung and decomposing plant matter is utilised to fuel electricity generation in Germany, India, and the United States. Methane that is recovered during the wastewater treatment process in Gwinnet County, Georgia, is utilised to generate electricity for the wastewater treatment process.

Pollution

Air Pollution

The deterioration in air quality caused by the burning of fossil fuels is still substantial and is a reason for worry on a global scale, even if there is technology to burn fossil fuels such that the emissions are not very important in terms of air pollution. The effect that chlorofluorocarbons have on the ozone layer is another contaminant that has drawn attention from all around the globe. Other significant environmental challenges include the problem of solid waste disposal and water contamination. The alleged warming of the Earth's atmosphere due to emissions of carbon dioxide from fossil fuels is one of the key problems on the global scale. Because manmade and natural processes both contribute to climate change, as global warming has been termed, the problem is complicated.

A lot of experts are worried about the lower atmosphere's warming because it might result in higher sea levels, more frequent storms and droughts, more heat-related ailments, and the migration of tropical pests into higher latitudes. Global temperatures are influenced by a number of climatic elements, not only carbon dioxide, which is created when fossil fuels like coal, oil, and natural gas are used. A few factors that affect the climate and affect global temperatures include ocean currents, changes in the large warm and cold oceanic pools known as El Niño and La Niña, variations in sunspot activity, photosynthesis by plants around the world, the amount of sea ice present, the type and extent of clouds present, the natural cycling of carbon, and volcanic activity.

Despite the complexity of the Earth's climate system, many scientists believe that rising amounts of carbon dioxide, a naturally occurring gas in the atmosphere, are to blame for the minor warming of the planet's average temperature since the Industrial Revolution. Since the

1960s, when measurements of atmospheric carbon dioxide in Hawaii began, there has been a definite rising trend. Numerous experts have connected the use of fossil fuels to the rise in carbon dioxide levels. So how does this rise in carbon dioxide affect the global warming of temperatures? The greenhouse effect, a natural occurrence, is thought to be connected to this warming, according to scientists. The greenhouse effect occurs when specific greenhouse gases trap longwave radiation in the lower atmosphere by absorbing and reradiating the heat from the Earth, basically producing a blanket of these gases there. The Earth would be almost 35°C colder without the greenhouse effect, and there probably wouldn't be any life on the planet. Because carbon dioxide is one of the many greenhouse gases that trap heat from the Earth, and because humans are increasing the concentration of these gases in the atmosphere, they are enhancing the greenhouse effect, which causes warming above and beyond the natural effect.

With the signing of the Kyoto Protocol in 1997, international efforts to reduce human carbon emissions got under way in earnest. This global agreement, which was adopted and signed by several nations, aimed to set targets for countries to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions. The United States never ratified the deal, in part because China and India, two of the top emitters of carbon dioxide, were exempt from emission reduction requirements. The recent Paris Climate Summit in 2016, which was signed by 194 countries, is the most recent plan for international cooperation in carbon dioxide reductions, with a goal to keep global average temperatures at less than 2°C above preindustrial levels. Nevertheless, the United States and other countries have continued their dialogue about lowering emissions[9], [10].

The ozone layer is yet another instance of worldwide collaboration to reduce air pollution. From 10 to 50 kilometres above the surface of the Earth, the ozone layer is located in the stratosphere, or high atmosphere. The crucial ozone gas layer shields the planet from dangerous UV light, which may damage skin by causing sunburn and skin cancer. According to scientists, the ozone layer has been harmed and has become dangerously thin over certain regions of the world as a result of chlorofluorocarbons, which are used in aerosols and refrigeration equipment. An ozone hole is the term used to describe this depletion of the ozone layer, which is most noticeable near the South Pole in the springtime of Antarctica. 105 nations joined the Montreal Protocol, an international accord, in reaction to these scientific results. By 2000, all participating nations will have reduced their CFC use and manufacturing, as well as stopped it altogether. Countries continue to search for CFC alternatives that are ever-better as part of the Montreal Protocol process. Even while CFCs will remain in the high atmosphere for a long time, the ozone layer has already started to heal in certain areas, according to experts.

Water Contaminant

Pollution of water and land regions is a concern on a worldwide scale, much as air pollution of the global commons of the atmosphere is. The availability of pure, fresh water for drinking and other purposes, including irrigation, is under jeopardy as population pressure keeps driving up demand. Periodic droughts in many areas with water shortages put a strain on the resources. Unfortunately, surface and groundwater pollution is a problem both domestically and internationally. Water sources are severely harmed by pollutants like sewage that hasn't been cleansed and industrial chemicals that leach from factories and highways.

Pollution may harm aquatic life in addition to making filthy water hazardous to drink and sometimes unsuitable for irrigation. Large industrial spills, paper mill discharge, and other sorts of contaminants may completely wipe out the life in a lake or stream for extended periods of time. Commercial fertilisers used in large-scale agriculture are another sort of pollution that is of great concern in the United States and internationally. Contrary to what one would expect, fertilisers often have the opposite effect on plant growth and aquatic environment health. Commercial fertilisers are washed into surface lakes and streams by

rainfall, which promotes the development of algae. The many algal blooms are killed by a process known as eutrophication, and a significant quantity of oxygen is used during the breakdown of the dead plant matter. Large-scale fish deaths may occur as a consequence of an oxygen shortage.

The Gulf of Mexico provides a clear illustration of the negative consequences of eutrophication. Commercial fertilisers make up a large portion of the Mississippi River's cargo, and dead zones sometimes appear where the river empties into the Gulf. Over many thousand square miles, the Gulf's bottom and near-bottom regions may almost become barren of marine life. The Baltic Sea contains the greatest dead zone of decreased oxygen, making the Gulf of Mexico home to the second-largest region in the whole planet. Countries struggle to keep their water supplies clean, and solid waste disposal contributes to pollution in a similar way. Solid garbage that is buried under the earth may eventually start to contaminate the groundwater there. Hazardous contaminants may be picked up by water that percolates downward through trash and end up in underground water sources. These subsurface reservoirs are accessed to provide well water as well as surface streams. Because the state of Florida significantly depends on groundwater for its water supply, contamination of groundwater reservoirs, or aquifers, is a big problem there.

The disposal of solid wastes in landfills, garbage incineration, or recycling are the three main methods. In order to lessen the overpowering odour and protect it from scavenging vermin, solid waste collectors in the United States pick up rubbish in towns and neighbourhoods and bring it to landfills where it is buried daily. This is the most popular approach of handling solid waste in the US, however as urban development advances into places where landfills were formerly located outside of inhabited areas, the issue of citizens having to live near to landfills becomes troublesome. Additionally, since landfills need large amounts of land, some jurisdictions with dense populations, like New York City, have resorted to exporting their trash into neighbouring states, like Pennsylvania, where dump space is more readily accessible.

Incineration is a less popular alternative for landfills it was popularised by Disney's Toy Story. At incineration plants, garbage is piled high and then continuously fed into the incinerator by a machine that resembles a claw. The benefit of incineration is the significant decrease in waste that can be disposed of without filling up landfills also, these facilities produce power from the combustion of the burning waste. Fortunately, current incinerator emissions are not extremely damaging to the environment because to updated technology in the smokestack systems. New York City makes use of incineration at a site on the Hudson River to the north of the city because to its massive daily production of solid garbage.

Recycling, the last technique for handling solid waste, is the most environmentally friendly. Recycling is the process of turning trash or other undesired materials into useful products. Metals, plastics, glass, and paper products are some common wastes that may be recycled. There are several initiatives being made in the United States to increase the percentage of garbage that is recycled rather than disposed of in trash disposal facilities. For instance, recycle mania, which began in 2001, is a nationwide contest between schools and institutions designed to encourage student involvement and awareness of recycling. Each spring, Georgia Gwinnet College from Lawrenceville, Georgia, participates in Recycle mania with many other schools. Despite initiatives like these, the United States only recycles roughly 30% of solid garbage, despite the fact that about 75% of waste is recyclable. Germany, on the other hand, tops the globe in recycling with a rate of roughly 65 percent, closely followed by South Korea at 59 percent. Due to very tight recycling rules, Germany places a great focus on recycling, which is reflective of the strong emphasis placed on recycling in other European nations.

Preservation of the Environment

The issue of how to conserve and safeguard the Earth's land regions and its resources is particularly crucial given the enormous influence that human activities and settlements have on the environment, especially as the world's population continues to increase. The words conservation and preservation are key terms in this attempt. Utilising Earth's resources responsibly ensures that they will be accessible to future generations. Avoiding overfishing, replacing trees when they are felled, and preventing soil erosion in agricultural regions are all examples of how conservation may be used. The concept of preservation entails guarding natural places and working to retain them as near as possible to their unaltered, original condition. As a result, there should be little human effect, and resources in protected regions are not meant for human use.

The national park is one of the best instances of preservation. These parks have been created by governments in around 100 different nations so that tourists may come and take in the landscape as well as the flora and wildlife. The first national park in the world, Yellowstone, was established in the United States in 1872, making it a global leader in the field. But compared to Australia's 685 parks, which has the most parks overall in the world, the United States only has 59 national parks. With nearly 200 parks, China has the most parks in all of Asia. Some of the most endangered plant and animal species in the world are supported by these parks. For instance, the Bengal tiger, an endangered animal, is protected at the Sundarbans National Park in the coastal mangrove forests of eastern India.

The International Union for the Conservation of Nature is a global organisation dedicated to safeguarding species and environments worldwide. Endangered species are those that are in danger of becoming extinct. One of the biggest dangers to endangered species is deforestation, especially in tropical rainforests like the Brazilian Amazon, which is portrayed in Chapter 1, as well as in the forests of the Pacific Northwest in the United States. There are thousands of threatened species around the globe, including in the U.S. The Fish and Wildlife Service is in charge of identifying, safeguarding, and reintroducing endangered species. The Endangered Species Act of 1973 safeguards endangered plants and animals in the United States, yet habitat protection is often at odds with the demands of human growth.

Alarm is being raised both in the United States and internationally about the need to safeguard the surviving species from extinction since the planet is now experiencing one of the greatest rates of extinction in its history. Sustainability and resource management. The analysis of resources and the environment helps to achieve sustainability and efficient resource management. It aids in the development of conservation plans, the identification of the best practises for resource use, and the assessment of the ecological, social, and economic effects of resource exploitation. Resource analysis guides policies and practises that balance resource use with environmental conservation by taking long-term sustainability into account. Resource and environmental analysis is crucial to the creation of policies and the decision-making process in general. It offers data-supported insights into the trade-offs and probable effects of resource exploitation, zoning changes, and environmental restrictions. This study may be used by decision-makers to compare various possibilities, evaluate risks, and make well-informed decisions that put environmental sustainability and resource conservation first. Resource and environmental analyses have been completely transformed by technological advancements. Comprehensive data collection, visualisation, and forecasting of resource dynamics and environmental changes are made possible by remote sensing, geographic information systems (GIS), data analytics, and modelling tools. These innovations improve analysis' precision and effectiveness, enabling the use of data to inform decisions.

CONCLUSION

Resources and environmental analysis encounter a number of difficulties, such as data shortages, uncertainty in projecting long-term effects, and the necessity for multidisciplinary

cooperation. Future directions include adopting holistic methods, including social, economic, and cultural factors in analyses, and including stakeholders in decision-making. In conclusion, understanding the availability, utilisation, and effects of natural resources on ecosystems and human activities depend greatly on the study of resources and the environment. It influences resource management plans, encourages sustainability, and directs the selection of options. To handle complex resource and environmental concerns and create a harmonic balance between resource utilisation and environmental protection, further improvements in analytical techniques and multidisciplinary cooperation are needed.

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CHAPTER 20

A BRIEF OVERVIEW ABOUT ANALYSIS OF GEOGRAPHY

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ABSTRACT:

An overview of the examination of geography as a multidisciplinary area of study is given in this abstract. It investigates the use of geography in comprehending and examining many facets of Earth's physical and human processes. It emphasises spatial analysis' importance in tackling today's global concerns and explains its essential components and methods. Geography is a large field of study that looks at how human activities, such as population distribution, economic systems, and cultural practises, relate to the physical characteristics of the Earth, such as its landforms, climate, and ecosystems. The abstract acknowledges the value of using geography as a lens to examine the spatial processes and patterns that define our environment. The abstract explores the many components of spatial analysis. It talks about spatial analysis, which is looking at how phenomena are arranged and distributed across various sizes. It also examines how to visualise and understand geographical data using cartography and Geographic Information Systems (GIS). Additionally, it recognises the use of fieldwork, surveys, and remote sensing methods in gathering and analysing geographic data. The abstract also discusses the various methods used in geographic analysis. It emphasises how crucial it is to understand both physical geography and human geography in order to comprehend how the natural world and human cultures interact.

KEYWORDS:

Environmental, Geography, Knowledge, Places, Regional.

INTRODUCTION

Numerous well-paying employment choices are available for those with a degree in geography. To access a page with information on a career, click on the link or the symbol above. The most frequent method that Americans are introduced to geography is probably via the famous afternoon television programme Jeopardy. This is a major issue since, although doing more than any other media to increase Americans' geographic knowledge, it does so in a direction that leads nowhere. On Jeopardy, a typical geography question would challenge competitors to name a mountain range in Switzerland or the capitol of Nebraska. It's uncommon for professional geographers to pose queries like that. Since Jeopardy often highlights geography as subject, it successfully promotes preconceived ideas about geography and causes many Americans to think that geographers only memorise maps, weather patterns, and capitals. A certain level of information memorising is unavoidable, but to assume that this is the primary emphasis of geography would be equivalent to believing that historians solely memorise dates and English majors spend their whole time practising for spelling bees[1], [2].

America's K–12 curriculum and associated textbooks have replicated for centuries the terrible emphasis on geography-as-trivia advocated by TV game shows. Because of this, the far more true idea of geography as a discipline has all but disappeared from American culture. As a result, few college students think about majoring in geography. As a geographer, many. Most university faculty members, especially guidance counsellors in high schools, are unaware that geography is a major able field. The fact that geography offers students and academics a rich set of analytical tools and profitable career opportunities across a staggering variety of commercial enterprises, non-profits, and across many public sectors is often not known by students, parents, or even professors outside of your Geography Department[3], [4]. The introduction of a current, useful understanding of geography to the reader is one of the main

objectives of this work. By the conclusion of the semester, students should be able to perceive and think like a geographer, solve problems like a geographer, and communicate like a geographer and yet know enough about geography to beat their friends on Jeopardy!

Geography

The somewhat dull geography that most Americans learn throughout their years in school is probably due to a number of factors. Although at the university level, geography has made a dramatic return, K–12 curricula and the general public are mostly unaware of the developments that have taken place in recent decades. Geography plunged into problems throughout the first part of the 20th century. Geography has undoubtedly had a long enough history. Massive geographies were produced by Chinese and Greek academics that were the norm for centuries. Most geographers up to the 1800s concentrated nearly entirely on penning extremely detailed tales about a place or locale. For individuals with a strong intellectual curiosity about the people and places of the globe, descriptive geography may be fascinating. Imperialists, colonisers, and military strategists have found descriptive geography to be of immeasurable use[2], [5].

Descriptive geographies, sadly, often become encyclopaedic lists of data about a place or site in the context of education. Geographers and others felt that the development of simple descriptions of areas and locales fell short of what was necessary as the methodology of science, and indeed social science, advanced over the 19th century. By attempting to establish causal links between group behaviours and regional environmental circumstances, one set of geographers attempted to increase the scientific rigour of the field. This branch of geography, known as environmental determinism, aimed to show how local factors such as topography, soil qualities, and climate affect health and human energy based on climatic predictors. Mid-latitude regions (Europe, US) had very high ratings, whereas tropical and equatorial climates received poor scores. Numerous researchers discovered that their cultural group Europeans were products of optimal environmental circumstances, which is maybe not unexpected[6], [7].

Environmental determinists often discovered that the most developed civilizations and therefore the most gifted people resided in regions with favourable environmental circumstances. By this reasoning, places with extreme weather such as those with extreme heat, cold, rain, or dryness produce poorer civilizations and individuals. For instance, among mountain as among desert peoples, robbery tends to become a virtue; environment dictates their ethical code, stated Ellen Churchill Simple in 1911. Environmental determinism's implicit and overt discrimination is more obvious now than it was one hundred years ago. A few geographers, like Ellen Churchill Simple and Ellsworth Huntington, attracted sizable audiences in the early 20th century despite being unable to properly support their beliefs[8].

By the time World War II started, it was clear that many academics at the time had vehemently opposed environmental determinism, with frightening ramifications for the eugenics movement and the rise of fascism. Geography's long-standing association with Environmental Determinism has damaged the field's credibility. A sizable number of geographers responded by returning to descriptive or ideographic geography rather than trying to utilise scientific techniques to look for generalizable tendencies. This style of geography is still the most common one taught in K–12 classrooms today and is known as regional geography. When done effectively, regional geography can be a fun and challenging activity that opens up new perspectives on how different areas interact with one another, how different places on Earth vary from one another, and how many places are alike. Regional geography unfortunately often turns into a forced march of repeated memorising of distant places in educational settings.

This trap is used by the majority of K–12 schools and many beginning college courses. Due to poorly constructed curriculum, students in regional style courses often learn little about the

reasons why places have developed distinctive characteristics. This is because they are not taught how to identify the processes that give rise to regions. The regional approach's supremacy condemned the general public's understanding of geography, particularly in America, to intellectual backwaters and trivia competitions. Geography did not fall into that trap in Europe. When geography was on the verge of extinction in the 1960s, it started embracing legitimate scientific methodologies through spatial statistics during what is now known as the quantitative revolution, a paradigm shift that is accelerating, especially among users of Geographic Information Systems. Geographers nowadays are working on sophisticated, high-tech research on a variety of urgent challenges as a result of revolutions in our capacity to gather, store, manipulate, and analyse geographical data.

DISCUSSION

Geographers also started taking the lead in an exciting growth of spatially informed theoretical methods to describing how the world works, which started in the 1970s and picked up speed in the 1990s. During the time known as the cultural turn in geography, significant economic, political, and cultural theorists emerged from the ranks of geography departments in the UK and subsequently the US, contributing significantly to an overall blooming of critical geography. Today, a lot of geographers concentrate on the intricate, sometimes subtle mechanisms that govern knowledge generation and preservation, which is kind of the last frontier of social science. Critical geographers investigate how and why societies and people hold the ideas they do, as well as how those beliefs are created, controlled, misrepresented, upheld, subverted, appropriated, or disproved. A surprising amount of ways to comprehend the world are available to those outside of the field today via geography, which is also a great way to earn a high-paying career in either the public or commercial sector where you can really change the world.

Key Elements of Geography as a Discipline and the Jedi Way. You may be disappointed to discover that there isn't much in the part of the library at your institution or university that has books concerning geography. You could be under the impression that geographers don't produce books or that geography has a very narrow field of application. Both hypotheses would be incorrect. There are many books published by geographers in libraries, however because libraries are arranged according to the topic of study, rather than the technique of research, books by geographers may be found all over the place. Countless topics are covered by geographers in books and academic papers, much too numerous to include here. A geographer may investigate practically everything that occurs. What do you find interesting? As a geographer, you could certainly investigate it. A basic introduction to geography as a discipline is provided in the section that follows. Apply these fundamental principles to the study of the topic that interests you, and you'll be well on your way to becoming a geographer. In this essay, I'll only half-jokingly refer to it as the Jedi discipline because, like Luke Skywalker, Yoda, Rey, and Obi Wan in the Star Wars films, geographers have a method of working that is both distinctive and extraordinarily effective.

The Use of Geography to View the World

The first talent of the Jedi-Geographer is the capacity to read the terrain. Although it seems easy enough, it takes years to master expert landscape perception skills. You already possess some Jedi talent in this area, but it's likely that you still haven't completely realised that you can read the human and physical surroundings all around you in a similar way to how one reads words in a book. With enough practise, you will get some level of landscape literacy, or the capacity to decipher a sizable number of environmental signals. It is up to us to learn to read the stories that every landscape has to offer. We'll refer to this as donning your Jedi Goggles. Since you were a little kid, you have worn Jedi Goggles. For instance, you can undoubtedly know whether you are in a risky area. Even if there aren't any signs saying Caution - Lock your Car Doors Now at the edges of high-crime areas, you still know. How?

You now know how to interpret the topography. A frequent indicator of a crime-ridden neighbourhood is trash on the ground, graffiti, bars on the windows, and overgrown lawns. Over time, you've learnt to decipher the symbolic meaning behind these indicators.

These Jedi Goggles were expertly designed by police officers or other street smart individuals. The first stage in developing your landscape literacy abilities is to start paying closer attention to everything that goes by your windscreen, including shops, rivers, homes, parking lots, traffic signals, vacant lots, agricultural fields, hillsides, and empty lots. Not just the pretty moments, however. Keep in mind that landscapes that are stunning, picturesque, magnificent, or remarkable are not more significant than those that are uninteresting, unattractive, or typical. There is a comforting honesty in reading vernacular landscapes because these common, daily landscapes are, as Peirce Lewis put it, our unwitting autobiography, reflecting our tastes, our values, our aspirations and even our fears in tangible visible form. They serve as a source of unadulterated truth about cultural history since they are not purposeful.

You may learn to read our cultural past as it has been inscribed on the landscape with the aid of this book. You should start continuously asking yourself, what is this landscape trying to tell me? Look for trends and attempt to infer the driving factors behind what you see. Why is it here? This book has several photographs of landscapes in each chapter. Most pictures include captions that provide a brief reading of the landscape they depict. The American Landscape Project is home to a large picture collection that is accessible online, and the hundreds of photographs that are stored within have detailed descriptions that aim to teach you how to confidently interpret the landscape.

Geography: Jedi Mind Tricks

Epistemology is the study of how we come to have the knowledge that we have. A method of knowing and thinking is known as an epistemology. People seldom consider how they came to know what they do. It's frequently unclear how people come to know what they do. I'm sure of it! If someone questioned your epistemology, you may answer, the statement I just know it is objectionable to scientists, social scientists, and other serious thinkers. It's important to be aware of one's own epistemological inclinations. It is crucial that you understand how you came to your conclusions. The preferred epistemology of geographers is based on location and space but does not have a name. Geographers prefer to phrase questions in terms of space when trying to better comprehend the world around them. To put it another way, when geographers inquire why? Or how? Normally, we start out by asking where? Since geographers inquire as to where? Inquiry first, they often reach different conclusions than those who are not geographers regarding a variety of topics. Many non-geographers overlook the where? Question. Issue entirely, and hence reach findings that vary from those of geographers.

Geographers commonly lament that the United States' distinct spatial way of thinking or habit of mind is woefully undeveloped. The Jedi Mind Trick is not anything that is taught to us. The majority of geography education in K–12 American classrooms emphasises place-name geography, or simply the memorising of places, at the cost of the development of spatial thinking abilities, which are the basis for knowledge construction via inquiry-based learning. Using the Jedi Mind Trick is as simple as asking where? Initially, when you want to discover why? Or How? There are repercussions for ignoring spatial and geographic issues. For instance, the discussion on why white students ascended the stairs while the majority of African-American students took lifts in campus buildings was overheard by the author of this work once on a huge college campus. Most observers could see this pattern right away, but many were less certain of its causes.

Some observers leapt to the conclusion that the main cause for students' usage or avoidance of lifts was their ethnicity. Geographers would not commit this error because we would have

considered the spatial features of the event first and would have understood that ethnicity was likely not as relevant. A geographer would have instead inquired as to the pupils' places of upbringing. They could have realised that many of the black students on that campus were raised in the inner city of a major metropolitan location, where using lifts to the top floors of residential buildings was a regular routine. Students brought their high-rise apartment-based behavioural patterns to college, while inner-city students exploited them to traverse the university's buildings. Students from rural and suburban areas were more likely to utilise stairs since they often grew up in one- or two-story homes. The observed behavioural differences were spatial rather than binary.

Geographers may prejudice their results by prioritising issues of place and space in their search for knowledge, contending that location is a crucial causative variable in influencing whatever phenomenon is being studied. It is almost impossible to resist favouring one epistemology over another. Every academic discipline has its own epistemic biases, including history, sociology, political science, economics, and more. A more comprehensive, multi-perspectival view of our world is possible as long as these opposing ways of perceiving reality can be given a fair hearing. Another reason to admire geography is the risk of rejecting epistemologies that are foreign to you. Not only can travelling increase your knowledge, but it also enables you to empathise more with people you can relate to and those who are in circumstances that are different from your own.

Problem-Solving using Geography - Light Sabres

Problem-solving strategies are a highly effective tool in the toolkit of geographers. Most were built to better engage our discipline's spatial epistemology. Our techniques are the geographer's toolkit. The geography student has access to dozens and dozens of different ways. Many techniques used by geographers are also used by scientists, social scientists, and even scholars in the humanities. Geographers often utilise the scientific approach, but they also sometimes apply humanistic techniques, like to those used by historians or even art critics. Geographers often modify methodologies to work with the spatial epistemology adopted by the field. Geographers have access to a number of methodologies, which are basically a set of rules that control the collecting and analysis of all types of data, when the methodology and the epistemology are combined.

For instance, many of the questions asked in a survey conducted by a political scientist, historian, or sociologist would be the same as those asked in a survey conducted by a geographer at the student union. A geographer, however, would urge that the demographics of the survey contain a spatial component. The geographer would undoubtedly insist on learning the respondents' address, ZIP code, or at the at least, their hometown in addition to their age, gender, and ethnicity. Geographers employ statistics, much like many other disciplines; often, they do it in a way that is identical to how they do so in other disciplines. But once again, geographers created a distinct set of statistical methods that are well adapted to solving spatial issues. For instance, social scientists from other fields may begin a statistical investigation by computing the mean, median, and standard deviation. On the other hand, geographers may start a similar investigation by mapping the data and then computing the same data's spatial mean, spatial median, and standard distance. There are many different types of spatial statistics, some of which are quite complicated and others which are much less so. Geographers refer to the discipline of statistics for geography as spatial analysis. Students are introduced to a few fundamental spatial analytic techniques through laboratory activities in this course.

A set of software programmes known as Geographic Information Systems, or GIS, has been the main tool in the geographer's toolkit for the last several decades. The light sabre of the contemporary geographer is GIS. It's used by a small group of people, much like a light sabre, and it's very powerful and effective. GIS software enables geographers to analyse data

in a distinctive way and pose questions motivated by our own spatial epistemology. It enables geographers to tackle issues that non-GIS users find impossible. GIS has gained popularity among professionals in other domains in recent years, but it has firmly established itself as a methodology in geography [9], [10].

Geopolitics is a Language of the Jedi on Wayto

You have some knowledge of the rules governing the English language since you are reading this. You can write in this language, proving that you are literate that is, that you can use words to communicate. You are probably at least somewhat numerate since you are competent at talking with numbers. You most likely wouldn't be in college if you lacked these two essential skill sets. Although they are numerate and text-literate, geographers also have a stronger grasp of non-textual visual imagery, or graphics. You have graphicacy abilities and could be regarded as graphic ate if you can read graphics and produce readable visuals. You may be regarded as cartographically skilled if you can read and produce clear, understandable maps.

The art and science of producing maps are known as cartography. It is the geographer's specialised language. It's a great talent to master to be able to convey a lot of information and/or concepts using maps. Cartographic literacy has grown significantly as a valued kind of literacy over the last ten years, owing to technologies like Google Maps, GPS, and a significant growth in the importance that the government, military, and business have placed on spatial data. It seems natural that in recent years, maps have once again become popular. Along with the growth of geographical data accessible to cartographers, which they may use to produce entertaining or educational maps, changes in our way of life and the propensity for data overload in the digital era have made well-built maps a welcome coping strategy. In addition to being cool, they enable our brains to assimilate far more info much more quickly than they could if the same data were presented in the form of a textual story or a huge spreadsheet. We can detect patterns and processes on maps that would be difficult for us to notice otherwise.

While some people naturally read maps well, others find them to be confusing. A readable map might sometimes be quite difficult to write. Professional cartography is an excellent career option for a skilled few and is taught in most college geography departments. Good cartography is both an art and a science. All geographers should make an effort to improve their map-making skills, including those whose area of expertise is not cartography. Fortunately, most individuals can now make passable maps using GIS software that comes with pre-built cartography templates.

You'll note that there are many cartographic styles and levels of quality used throughout this text. This has a purpose. It gives professors and students the chance to talk about the communication potential of cartography. Search for and identify maps that clearly convey information. Think about how colour, size, projection, and text affect the communication effectiveness of the maps in this collection. There are a few fundamental ideas you must understand in order to become even a basic spatial thinker. These include observation, epistemology, methodology, and mapping, which are the key components of the geography field. You should make an effort to fully comprehend these ideas early in the semester since they are repeated in every chapter of the book.

Location

Location is the most fundamental notion utilised by geographers. Every tangible thing has a precise position. There are several ways to convey or describe where absolute is located. You must provide the pizza delivery guy your address if you order a pizza. The government developed the property address system as we know it in the United States many years ago to assist the postal service in delivering mail and deliveries. Most Americans have mastered the theory behind it well enough to navigate their city without the aid of a GPS since it is a

generally rational system. You may be shocked to learn that other nations, including Japan, have completely different address systems from those in the United States if you were to visit them.

A geographic coordinate system with a grid of points is another popular method for describing absolute position. We use the grid system based on latitude and longitude the most often. Thousands of years ago, grid coordinate systems were developed to help in navigation and map-making. There are many coordinate systems, but the one we most often use today was developed by Eratosthenes, greatly enhanced by Ptolemy, and formalised into a contemporary functional system by Englishman Sir George Airy in 1851. Many people possess smart phones that come pre-loaded with global positioning system (GPS) software. These phones, along with other GPS tools (handheld, in-car, and built-in cameras), rely on the fundamental principles of the old coordinate system to guide us. A particular format known as the World Geodetic System, which was formalised in 1984, is used by GPS devices to convey latitude and longitude coordinates. Consequently, this system is known as WGS1984. WGS 1984 is used by Google Maps.

The majority of people don't need to understand all the technical aspects of GPS, but you should be able to understand the fundamentals of latitude and longitude and be able to use them to find your way around the streets, hiking trails, and other areas you often visit. Unbeknownst to you, you utilise WGS1984 more often. For instance, if you order pizza and the delivery person enters your address into his GPS device or phone, the software on that device converts that address into latitude and longitude coordinates. In turn, the coordinates show up as a point position on the phones or GPS units on-screen map. The programme then employs a computer algorithm to determine the quickest path between the latitude/longitude coordinates of the delivery person and the coordinates related to your address. If you purchase enough pizzas from the same vendor, it's probable that a geotag with your address and the house's latitude and longitude coordinates will be added to a database. You presumably have the choice of turning on or off the geotagging function, which identifies the location of each picture you take, if you use a smart phone or smart camera.

Region

The concept of a cultural area is another popular tool for expressing place. Each absolute location, or point, such as your home address or latitude and longitude coordinates, is surrounded by many other, bigger areas called regions. Your address is located on a street or road, which on a map is a linear area shown by a line. Your address is also located inside a ZIP code, a county, a state, a nation, etc. (at least in the US). Geographers use polygons to map these two-dimensional places on paper or in a geographic information system (GIS). Not all regions are created equal. The borders of states, counties, and cities are all extremely distinct. Functional regions are areas with well-defined boundaries. It is simple to map them. Some type of rule changes when you cross the border of a functional zone. Consider the border between Nevada and Utah, where a lot of regulations change after you cross the state line, as an example of where laws are often different. Pizza businesses like Pizza Hut and Dominos have restrictions, too. You may not be able to have a pizza delivered to you from just any location; instead, you will need to contact a separate shop if you do not reside within the functional area shown on a map used by the pizza franchisees.

The word formal is a little deceptive since formal territories have ill-defined or hazy borders. Mapping formal areas is challenging. However, these areas may be recognised by a characteristic that is typical to the area. Formal areas often have a core area where the characteristic is most noticeable or plentiful, followed by a periphery area where the characteristic is less noticeable or abundant. The Mormon area of the United States serves as an illustration. Salt Lake City, where the majority of residents are LDS Church members, is the centre of the Mormon (formal) region. The proportion of persons who identify as

members of the LDS church declines as you go further away from Salt Lake City, to the point where it is irrational to claim that you are any longer in the Mormon Region for example, in Colorado. The Corn Belt is yet another illustration.

It's easy to claim you're in the maize Belt when you're in Iowa, where maize is king, but it's more difficult to say the same thing about Pennsylvania, even if some corn is grown there. Vernacular areas are even less clearly defined than formal regions since they largely exist in people's imaginations. In a vernacular area, it is far more difficult to pinpoint a core or a perimeter, but they are nonetheless significant since people still think they exist. The term Dixie, which is widely used to refer to the American South, is an excellent example of a vernacular location. However, as southern cannot be defined by a single characteristic, it is hard to quantify precisely which states, cities, and counties make up Dixie. Does Kentucky belong to Dixie? Missouri, what about it? That relies on the parameter that is used to define what is southern. Even if we are unsure of its exact location, Dixie still lives in the imaginations of millions of Americans, therefore it is necessary to acknowledge it. There are various regional dialects in the United States, including So Cal, The Midwest, Cascadia, and even New England.

Diffusion

The friction of distance, which is likely the most important factor influencing how people, ideas, and institutions behave in space, produces the core-periphery pattern that distinguishes formal areas. Simply said, there is a force that prevents the dispersion of ideas, behaviours, people, etc. It is maybe easiest to think of this force as being similar to gravity. As objects migrate further from their original source, they tend to lose some of their intensity or regularity, leading to patterns on the landscape that are caused by distance decay. Geographical theorist Waldo Tobler gave the effect of distance decay the label The First Law of Geography since it is so common and predictable. Tobler declared the following law: Everything is related to everything else, but close relationships are stronger than far relationships. Simply said, things that are close together tend to be more alike than ones that are far away.

Tobler claims that the concept was so obvious to him that when he wrote it down in 1970, he was unaware that he had encapsulated the core of a basic principle. Even though it is a fairly basic idea, it is one to keep in mind as you develop your geographic thinking. This essay contains several references to Tobler's first rule, including references to the neighbourhood effect and other aspects of your regular activities. You have encountered the friction of distance if you search for the parking space in the college parking lot that is closest to your first class. Distance decay is evident if there are fewer automobiles near the rear of the parking lot. Tobler's First Law of Geography is supported by the fact that all of the automobiles parked in the lot's closest locations are most likely those of students who came early for an 8AM class. Diffusion is characterised by the First Law of Geography. Consider a concept, creation, or action of any kind. then think about its beginnings. It must have been created, dreamt up, or innovated by someone or several individuals. The hearth seldom used synonym for homes the site where the invention or innovation initially took place, notably the fireplace.

CONCLUSION

The significance of spatial analysis in tackling current global concerns is emphasised in the abstract. It addresses how spatial viewpoints may help with issues about social injustice, urbanisation, resource management, and climate change. In order to address these intricate problems, it emphasises the need of spatially informed decision-making and policy. For academics, decision-makers, and everyone trying to understand the intricacies of the world, it is essential to know geography analysis. It offers a structure for looking at spatial connections, seeing patterns, and comprehending how physical and human events interact.

Policymakers may adopt solutions that take into account geographical inequalities, environmental factors, and social dynamics by integrating geographic analysis into their choices. In conclusion, geography analysis provides helpful understandings of the spatial aspects of both physical and human events. This abstract emphasises the components and methods of spatial analysis and emphasises the importance of this approach in tackling today's global concerns. Researchers and decision-makers may better understand the world we live in and strive towards sustainable and equitable solutions by recognising the value of spatial analysis.

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CHAPTER 21

SIGNIFICANCE OF TRADITIONAL PRACTICES AND CULTURE

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ABSTRACT:

The importance of traditional customs and culture in forming communities and promoting a feeling of identity and belonging is examined in this abstract. It acknowledges that traditional practises, rituals, traditions, and beliefs are an essential component of cultural heritage and should be preserved and understood. A vast variety of activities are included in traditional practises and culture, including indigenous knowledge systems, religious rites, folk customs, creative manifestations, and traditional rituals. These customs add to the variety and depth of human civilizations by often reflecting the historical, social, and environmental conditions in which they were developed. The abstract emphasises the need of preserving traditional ways of life and information transfer between generations. It recognises how traditional ways of life provide communities a feeling of identity and pride, tying them to their origins and giving them a sense of belonging. Additionally, traditional practises can represent accumulated knowledge and sustainable living techniques that have been developed over many generations. The abstract also looks at the difficulties that traditional practises confront in the face of modernisation and globalisation. It discusses how traditional cultural practises are affected by urbanisation, globalisation, and cultural assimilation, which may result in their deterioration or marginalisation. It highlights the need of maintaining and reviving ancient practises since they provide insightful perspectives on various worldviews, environmental linkages, and social dynamics.

KEYWORDS:

Culture, Folk Culture, House, Rooms, Traditional.

INTRODUCTION

Generally speaking, the existence of culture is assumed. College textbook introductions to the idea of culture often skip over problematizing the idea. Texts just state that culture is a set of socially imposed laws that control people's attitudes and behaviours. They often assert that culture is a learned way of life. While it is simple to admit that individuals do adhere to many, mostly unwritten standards when making judgements about almost everything they do, it is equally necessary to stress that reifying culture is intellectually lazy. In other words, it's crucial to know that culture shouldn't be thought of as anything tangible or actual. Instead, culture need to be seen as the nebulous idea that it is. Culture is non-existent. Instead, there is simply the concept of culture. Making this difference is crucial to avoiding the temptation of seeing culture as something different and above to humans, as if it were some enigmatic force that governs the desires of both groups and individuals. We are considerably more complicated than that, as are the cultures in which we live[1], [2].

The concept of culture is useful when we need to explain acts that seem to reflect social norms, but it is never safe to assume that a person's beliefs and behaviour are dictated by culture. This theory is known as cultural determinism, and it has many of the same problems as environmental determinism [3], [4]. You should also be aware that by approaching culture as a concept, we may maintain awareness of the fact that social norms are always being created, altered, challenged, discarded, and replaced. We may alter the concept that we made. Once we recognise that culture is an idea, we are challenged to carefully consider how to strike a balance between the rules of society known as the structures and agency, which refers to the ability of people and institutions to navigate and alter those rules. Despite the fact that

culture is only a notion, this work employs the overused word culture to refer to the mental and behavioural patterns of the numerous cultures covered in the book.

Popular Culture

Nowadays, almost nobody in the United States practises a traditional culture. Folk culture is often practised by populations who lack or use few contemporary comforts, follow long-standing traditions, and are economically backward cashless economy, limited vocational specialisation, etc. Only the Amish and maybe certain native Alaskan tribes come close to a folk life existence in the modern United States, and even that is questionable. When the telegraph and the railway started encroaching on formerly remote areas, much of American traditional life vanished in the middle of the 19th century. For folk cultures to survive, there must be a large amount of isolation from the outside world. Only practises and behaviours peculiar to an isolated community may legitimately be classified as belonging to a folk culture in this book since geographers have a propensity to see culture geographically. Folk practises must be regional and often aren't for profit, handed down orally, etc. A folk practise has a very high propensity to become popularised and commercialised once it is disseminated to the rest of the globe. The term folk is no longer an adequate description of such practises. These practises need to be acknowledged as components of popular culture instead. Geographers will always consider the geographical scope of behaviours to make decisions even if the line between folk and pop culture practises might be difficult to draw[5], [6].

Folk culture has always piqued the interest of geographers. A certain sentimentality, or nostalgia for former landscapes, contributes to the allure. Numerous books regarding banjo playing techniques, historic homes, or barns have been published by geographers. This research may not be valuable to certain people, but such criticism is probably unjustified. Not every research has to be put to use. If it were, whole academic disciplines may not be offered in universities throughout the world. More significantly, comprehending traditional ways of life from long ago and distant lands enables us to comprehend the development of contemporary or popular culture, which nowadays dominates almost every aspect of our lives. Many of our beliefs and customs today have their roots in the folkways of our ancestors. Studies of folkways and folk landscapes also aid in our understanding of the development of intricate relationships between people and their natural surroundings. Modern technology hides a lot of these encounters, separating individuals from their history and their surroundings. As we confront substantial environmental difficulties in our day, understanding how humans have adjusted to the limitations and obstacles imposed by the climate, soils, and geography is both insightful and helpful[7], [8].

Folk Territories

Our present civilization in the United States is a result of the blending of four main cultural zones and a few minor ones. The long-term repercussions of such folk cultures are still very much present in the lives of Americans today, even if many of the behaviours that defined the activities of people in these locations have mostly disappeared. The hearth places in the traditional folk districts still have many characteristics from long ago. Contemporary political views, musical tastes, food-ways, and religious practises are only a few aspects with deep roots in the folk cultures that formerly ruled different parts of the US. The beliefs and practises of a folk region's primary areas characterise it. Folk areas are categorised as formal territories since they have hazy or blurry borders. The core region, or cultural hearth, is often where cultural practises were created and are still the purest now. Cultural practises in border areas often become less distinct as a result of hybridization with cultural practises from neighbouring regions.

DISCUSSION

There are often hundreds of sub regions inside each of the main folk culture areas. Take a look at the right-hand map showing Louisiana's folk life areas. A complex tapestry of folk

practises developed even within a small state like Louisiana, in large part due to numerous waves of immigration and a number of substantial obstacles such as marshes to travel. This map serves as a warning against the ecological fallacy, which is the incorrect belief that there is high uniformity within a broad territory. One shouldn't assume that since California is mostly Catholic on a religious map of the US, that's how all Californians feel. In other words, do not assume that sub regions are identical to parent regions in order to avoid the ecological fallacy, just as you shouldn't assume that every member of a group for example, Koreans would comply to group norms. We might examine hundreds of artefacts to discover more about the anthropological and environmental foundations of our contemporary civilization. The emphasis of this book will be on folk dwelling, followed by surveys of music and athletics. We'll look at some of our food ways' folk origins in the chapter on food and agriculture.

Public Housing

Students may start studying about folk culture and use the observational techniques used by geographers by learning about the kind of dwellings that Americans made before the advent of mass-produced housing. Folk housing gives students who are learning how to read a landscape an approachable and enjoyable method to analyse the impacts of the natural environment, economy, ethnicity, and even religion on the development of something as commonplace yet crucial as the home. Ordinary people created folk homes after learning through decades of trial and error how to construct the finest home for local circumstances using local materials.

Yankee

Boston serves as the centre of the northernmost US folk culture, which has since spread across New England and westward into the Great Lakes area. Americans used to refer to residents of these locations as Yankees. Yankee is a phrase that is sometimes used to describe any American, especially by those who are not native to the US. The word Yanks or Yankees is also used by Americans from time to time, but according to cultural geographers, it solely refers to residents in the northeastern regions of the country. Consider the drawbacks and advantages of this architectural method. Yankee cultural vestiges are prominent in numerous places in northern Pennsylvania and Ohio, as well as in New England. In the foreground, notice the sap buckets hanging from the tree. Illinois, Indiana, and a few southern Wisconsin and Michigan towns are included. By the time you reach Minnesota, the Yankee subculture has almost totally vanished as you go west. There are a number of reasons why Yankee subculture declines as you go west across the map. Subcultures first experience distance decay as they spread out, just like any other phenomenon. Away from Boston, the centre of Yankee culture, people were less likely to embrace Yankee customs in the first place. Second, unlike early New Englanders, many of the migrants who went to the Upper Midwest (Minnesota, Dakotas, etc.) were less likely to have British heritage. Instead, Minnesotans and Dakotans were more often descended from immigrants from Germany, Russia, the Ukraine, and Scandinavia.

Finally, many folk practises, including the way people constructed buildings, were starting to fade by the time the Upper Midwest was ready for colonisation in the early 19th century. As a result, you won't find many or any examples of Yankee-style folk dwelling in the Upper Midwest since, contrary to popular belief, individuals never constructed their own homes instead hiring contractors to do so. Like the Pilgrims who arrived at Plymouth Rock, the original residents of New England were not Yankees and did not construct dwellings in the Yankee style. They were English, and for a while they constructed homes according to English folklore. The immigrants had to adjust to the climate as it was much colder in New England than it was in England. The early English immigrants had to take into account a variety of new circumstances, including the economics, construction materials, and others.

They eventually constructed folk dwellings, which were made of local materials and adapted to the local climate.

The architectural styles changed as the English immigrants adapted to the region's severe winters, many of which were particularly savage throughout the 17th and 18th centuries. During this time, New Englanders constructed homes with steeply pitched roofs, huge central chimneys, and extra-large chambers. They were able to shelter their huge families thanks to these qualities, keep warm throughout the long, chilly winters, and maintain their economic viability. The majority of the families that resided in these homes were agricultural families, and the big homes gave them room to carry out a range of tasks essential to their livelihood, such as food preparation, sewing, crafts, etc. Even in the midst of a snowstorm. Most types of Yankee folk homes have a single story design with a big central chimney. A Cape Cod House is the smallest variety, which is surprisingly widespread in and around Cape Cod.

Massachusetts. The Cape Cod House may be compared to the New England Large House in that both are two stories. They are widespread throughout New England. As popular style aspects seeped into the more simply practical folk home designs of previous years, a later, stylized variation of it known as a Temple Front home and its near relative known as an Upright and Wing are found farther west. A Salt Box House replica was also constructed by Yankees. Its peculiar moniker derives from the gable ends of the house's distinctive, asymmetrical roof line, which resembled the side profile of boxes used to store salt in kitchens all around the area.

Midwest and Mid-Atlantic

Compared to early immigrants to New England and the South, individuals who moved to the Middle Atlantic States, such as Delaware, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Maryland, were more likely to be from continental Europe (Germany, Scandinavia, Holland, etc.). As a consequence, compared to other American folk areas, this region's folk housing had a wider variety of cultural influences. Along with the local resources and climate, the different migration streams into the middle states created local hybrids that subsequently developed into the most mainstream area of the US in terms of politics, religion, language, and a variety of other cultural practises.

Even though the Middle Atlantic is where the folk dwelling of the Midlands originated, it spread both eastward and westward to areas like the central parts of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa. The Piedmont is a region where quality examples of Mid-Atlantic homes are also widely available. These homes are great indicators of historical migratory patterns. Pioneers headed west from the Atlantic coast often encountered the Appalachian Mountains blocking their path. As a result, they moved south, settling in the Great Shenandoah Valley and even Western North Carolina, where they gradually incorporated aspects of Upland South folk culture.

The Midlands' traditional dwelling is straightforward and only comes in a few varieties. There used to be a few log home varieties, but they are now almost extinct from the surroundings. The single storey hall and parlour and the two-story I-house are by far the two most prevalent extant folk home styles from this area. With gable end chimneys, both the hall and parlour and I homes are just two rooms wide. The hall and parlour houses are essentially a two-story variation of I home. The fundamental size and room arrangement of the hall and parlour home have a long history, leading some archaeologists to hypothesise that it may be the model for all folk dwelling in Europe.

I-house is a particularly popular kind of folk home in the Piedmont and Midwest. According to legend, Fred Kniffen, a geographer, gave the I-house its peculiar moniker after seeing how prevalent this particular home form was in the three I states of Illinois, Indiana, and Iowa. I-house was effectively a synonym for farm house in the Midwest throughout the 18th and 19th centuries, despite the fact that you may sometimes see them in urban areas nowadays. For

those who lived in one, it denoted middle-class status in the agricultural sector. Its remarkable dominance over the Midwest landscape serves as a stark reminder of the sizable rural middle class that existed there in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. I-house may be seen as a significant geographical emblem that conveys a great deal about the politics, economy, and culture of the area where it is so prevalent.

South Upland

The majority of the early immigrants in Southern Appalachia and the northern regions of the American South were English, Irish, and Scottish. Poor soil conditions hindered plantation cultivation and slavery in this area, therefore in contrast to the Lowland South, a folk culture with far less African features emerged there. The Upland South is the name given to this area. Even though it is the white South, there are still plenty of black people in this area. Although some people would find the name unpleasant, one might alternatively refer to it as the Hillbilly South. In any event, there are several ways in which the Upland South is related to, but different from, the Lowland or Deep South. People in the Upland South have often been among the poorest Americans for decades due to the poor soils and rather isolated farms and towns. Because of this, their traditional homes were simple and mostly made of the plentiful lumber found nearby.

A cabin and porch are the most fundamental kind of home in the Upland South. It is essentially a one-room home with a porch and a single chimney or a hut if it has a dirt floor. On establishing a homestead, frontier settlers presumably built a one-room or single pen hut. Additional rooms or pens in the southern dialect may be added if the environment seemed to be favourable enough to stay in the place, which allowed for the construction of numerous different house types from the starter home of a single pen [9], [10]. The house is known as a Dogtrot House or cabin if the homeowner constructed a second pen with a second chimney and linked the two pens with a single porch to create a central breezeway between the two rooms. The reason why dogtrots have such a catchy name is because a hound may perhaps trot between the two rooms of the home. In southern regions, a central breezeway makes a perfect room where family members may rest or do duties. Instead, proprietors of a one-room cottage who wanted to grow may connect a second room directly to the first one. Due to the ability to utilise a single chimney to vent fireplaces in both rooms, the house builder was able to construct one less wall. The name Saddlebag House alludes to the image of a packhorse carrying freight bags. It's interesting to note that most saddlebag homes lack an interior doorway that would provide access between the two rooms. Instead, occupants must exit via the first room's front door in order to access the next. Fortunately, the weather is moderate in the South, and most saddlebag homes have a porch to protect residents from the heat and rain that are frequent in the area.

South Lowland

Geographers refer to the American South as the Lowland South since it is where slavery was most common. It is most often referred to as the Deep South. English were the first Europeans to colonise the majority of the area, however Spanish and French settlers later established communities in Louisiana and Florida. Those of African heritage, however, were by far the majority compared to Europeans. Over 90% of the population in certain areas of the region was of African heritage. The Deep South's folkways were significantly influenced by the ideals and cultural practises of these people that managed to endure the horrors of slavery. The effect of these folkways is still felt strongly today, having a significant impact on language, politics, religion, and the economy, particularly in areas that have resisted outside pressures.

The region's traditional housing is a reflection of the Deep South's economic systems, which are intricately linked to the region's history of slavery and Jim Crow Laws. The Deep South only has two types of housing: those that are custom built for affluent families and folk

housing that is constructed by low-income individuals, unlike the Midlands region where the most typical folk house was a substantial two-story home. Because it was created by architects, the dwelling constructed for the affluent is not referred to as folk housing. Folk home designs are a result of the local environment, local culture, and local resources since they are based on the collective memory of the community. Like New England, the Deep South's traditional dwellings changed to accommodate a harsh environment. Before there was electricity, construction methods such as air conditioning tried to lessen the impacts of the terrible heat and humidity that were typical of the area. Folk builders used pier and beam construction, which lifts the floor several feet above the ground by utilising stones or bricks, to protect dwellings from termites, wood rot, and water in the 18th and 19th centuries.

This tactic prevents flooring and framework from coming into contact with soil, where termites and moisture would rapidly rot the wood. A space for dogs to snooze throughout the day is provided by the pier and beam architecture, which also enables cooling breezes to flow underneath the home. The selection of construction materials was also impacted by the hostile environment. Where it was accessible, wood from cypress trees was highly valued for use in construction, particularly for roofing. The wood of cypress trees is inherently resistant to decay and insects since they are abundant in marshy areas of the Deep South. However, because of Pine's widespread availability and low cost, most homes were constructed using a material that was significantly less durable, which helps to explain why so many Southern instances of folk architecture have vanished from the landscape. The Shotgun House is perhaps the most typical Southern home. Through South Louisiana and Florida, African-Haitians brought the style to the US. No explanation for the intriguing origins of this house's name is universally agreed upon by experts. One idea is based on the fact that you can see right through a shotgun house if you open the front door, rear door, and inner doors.

Shotgun pellets could theoretically be fired through the front door and shoot out the rear door. Another explanation contends that the term shotgun may have remained because English speakers may have mistakenly spoken the African-Haitian word for house *togunas* shotgun. The shotgun home has a straightforward layout. The majority of the time, they are one room wide and one storey tall, but three to five rooms extend forth towards the street. The European long lot cadastral system, which is often used to partition property in the long and lean Afro-Caribbean architecture, was excellently preadapted to the Louisiana in French. Shotgun homes proved to be so adaptable and practical that they spread to many other areas of the United States and can be found in many communities where large numbers of African-Americans settled or where company housing was constructed by industrial concerns across the nation to draw in and keep workers. The shotgun house comes in a variety of forms. Some families transformed their shotgun home into a double shotgun by constructing a second, parallel shotgun house that shared a same centre wall, roof, and porch. Other families altered their shotgun by building an additional floor onto the back of the home, giving rise to the so-called camelback shotgun. It's interesting to note that in an effort to save extra property taxes, these second story rooms were exclusively built to the homes' back sections. In some instances, calculating property taxes included determining the house's square footage that faced the street!

CONCLUSION

The importance of old practises in modern circumstances is also explored in the abstract. It acknowledges their capacity to advance social cohesiveness, encourage cultural variety, and aid in sustainable development. Traditional methods often provide different viewpoints and answers to social problems, such as resource management, healthcare, and local government. Their inclusion in development practises and policies may support inclusive and culturally aware strategies. Promoting cultural variety, social harmony, and sustainable development all depend on an understanding of and respect for traditional practises and culture. The emphasis

of this abstract is on the value of maintaining and reviving ancient practises as a crucial component of our common human heritage. It demands that different cultural traditions be acknowledged and respected as well as that intercultural collaboration and conversation be encouraged. In conclusion, customs and culture have a big influence on how civilizations are shaped and how cultural legacy is preserved. Their importance in promoting identity, generational knowledge transfer, and sustainable living habits is highlighted in this abstract. Societies may embrace cultural diversity, foster social cohesion, and guarantee the preservation of priceless cultural heritage for future generations by recognising and maintaining ancient practises.

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CHAPTER 22

AGRIBUSINESS, FOOD SYSTEMS: SUSTAINABILITY AND GLOBAL IMPACT

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ABSTRACT:

The subject of agribusiness and its effects on food systems are explored in this abstract. It studies the effects of agribusiness on food production, distribution, and consumption and emphasises the connections between agriculture, business, and the larger food industry. Agribusiness is the combination of commercial and agricultural operations, such as the provision of inputs, the processing of agricultural products, and their marketing and distribution. It signifies a change from conventional agricultural methods to those that are more market-oriented, motivated by globalisation, technology improvements, and changing customer preferences. The relevance of agribusiness in guaranteeing food security and supplying the rising worldwide demand for food is discussed in the abstract. It covers the use of economies of scale, cutting-edge production methods, and value-added processing by agribusinesses to raise agricultural productivity and efficiency. It also recognises how agribusiness helps smallholder farmers integrate into bigger supply chains, enhancing them access to markets and resources. The abstract also looks at the difficulties and complexity of agriculture and how it affects food systems. Regarding environmental sustainability, it recognises issues such the excessive use of agrochemicals and the loss of natural resources. Additionally, it draws attention to problems with market inequality, concentration, and power relationships between agribusinesses and small-scale farmers. Additionally, it acknowledges how customers' demands for transparency, moral sourcing, and environmentally friendly manufacturing methods are influencing developments in the food sector.

KEYWORDS:

Agriculture, Culture, Development, Food, Industry.

INTRODUCTION

In the US, agriculture is the primary industry on around 50% of the country's land. Not all agriculture goods, meanwhile, are used to make food. In actuality, most agricultural areas don't provide food for humans. Some farmers cultivate plants including flowers, trees, cotton, switchgrass used to make biofuel, and even marijuana. Millions of acres are also set aside for the production of food that is intended for poultry, cows, and pigs, which are then consumed by humans. The landscapes of food production and consumption contain a wealth of cultural knowledge. Restaurant owners, grocery store owners, and other food sellers compete for the business of ravenous diners on the consumption side. These environments together constitute a \$300 billion business that provides jobs for hundreds of thousands of people and food for millions of others. The majority of people in the globe are used to seeing farmlands and ranchlands, and they are well aware of the steps taken to get their food into their plates.

The majority of people in the United States, however, have a limited knowledge of the processes that make food outrageously plentiful and, for many, relatively affordable. Since just 2% of Americans work in agriculture, it is rather mysterious how and why we consume the foods that we do. It is crucial for our existence that the general population has a basic understanding of agriculture and food-ways. In this chapter, we'll look at some of the conditions that influence your diet while also studying the location and operation of the agricultural economy and how it impacts the meals that you typically consume for breakfast, lunch, and supper. Due to the wide range of agricultural practises and the different methods we may get food at eateries, supermarkets, and farmers markets, it is not practical to study all

the variations in the food landscape. Look for instances of food production as you travel about [1], [2]. What kinds of farming are practised close to your house or college? What crops are being grown to feed animals instead of people? Are farmers producing non-staple goods, possibly for export or primarily for the wealthy, or are they producing staples, food intended for daily consumption? What kind of eateries are springing up all over? What food do the cool kids eat? Where can I purchase food? What do you eat there?

The reason we consume the foods we do is a complicated one. The response can be as straightforward as I eat what tastes good or I eat what my mum cooks, but as any mum will attest, people's ideas on what tastes good can differ greatly even within the same home. Despite the fact that fussy eaters may be found in practically every household, it is simple to pinpoint regional culinary preferences that define certain cities, towns, nations, and even continents. Individuals' food tastes are often influenced by their location or the geographic histories of their families. Therefore, what tastes delicious to someone in one place could be seen as awful by someone another. Consider Vegemite, a popular sandwich spread among Australians, which most Americans regard to be abhorrent. Many Louisianans in the US consider crawfish to be a favourite delicacy, yet many other Americans think it's too disgusting to eat. Our food-ways differ from place to location, and this is usually due to local topography. Although it may be true that you are what you eat, geographers would add that what you eat depends on where you eat.

Migration-Ethnicity

Our history of immigration may be largely responsible for what Americans consume. Due to their massive numbers and the time of their arrival in the US, European immigrants helped develop several traditional American food-ways. Many current American food staples, such as beef, pig, poultry, bread, pasta, cheese, and milk, as well as a number of the fruits and vegetables we regularly consume today, would be instantly recognisable to the first European settlers in the Americas. Many typical American foods, such as maize (corn), tomatoes, and potatoes, which are all native to North and/or South America, would not have been familiar to the grandparents of the first Europeans to arrive on American soil, those alive before the Columbian Exchange. It's difficult to believe, but spaghetti and marinara sauce are relatively recent imports to Italy. Before the invention of the renowned potato salad, Germans drank beer and consumed sausages [3], [4].

Prior to transatlantic commerce, the French, Belgians, and Swiss, who like chocolate, had none. The inhabitants of South and Central America, on the other hand, had never heard of bananas, onions, or coffee. The dietary customs and agricultural practises that exist in the US today are mostly the result of the indigenous inhabitants of the Americas trading agricultural knowledge and food processing methods with Africans and Europeans. Even though many of these foods were brought to the Americas through Europe rather than being directly transported by Asian migrants, many of them can still be traced to Asia, including citrus, sugar, rice, and soybeans.

Our eating habits provide an intriguing window into the operation of several cultural practises. Our everyday practise of eating contributes to the psychological ingraining of our dietary choices. Food traditions have been passed down through the years and have proved to be quite hard to modify. This fact is one of the causes of the obesity issue in America. Yet technology has helped us become more sedentary, our lifestyle has evolved quickly, yet many of our food-ways have not altered. For a generation working and living in the information age, the meals that benefited our predecessors, who put in very long hours and engaged in physically demanding daily tasks, give too many calories and/or fat. The phrase cultural lag refers to the difficulty of cultural norms to keep up with advances in technical development. Many behaviours are influenced by cultural lag, and culturally conservative regions many of

which are physically remote are more influenced by cultural lag than are locations with more progressive inclinations and wider exposure to international eating customs [5], [6].

DISCUSSION

The Geographical Aspects of BBQ: Geographers have done an excellent job of examining a variety of food ways since many of the fantastic, regional culinary customs are mostly influenced by the particularities of location. A fantastic illustration of how location impacts nutrition is barbecue (BBQ), a popular American cuisine that requires cooking meat very slowly over indirect heat it's not the same as grilling meat over open flame. The Spanish brought BBQ to America in the 1600s they presumably learned how to do it from Caribbean Indians. There are hundreds of different BBQ styles across the world. There are well-known practises in Jamaica, Mexico, and South Africa, and there are a dozen or more different practises in the US. In the majority of the US, BQ is simple to get, but it is most common in the US South, where the region's climate and dearth of other food options encouraged the spread of BBQ. Fresh meat had to be consumed right away or somehow preserved until refrigeration was invented to prevent spoilage or acidification.

Meat may be preserved in a number of ways, such as by salting, pickling, or drying. However, in the US South, smoking meat in a pit or other container became more popular. Anyone who has killed a pig or a cow may roast the whole animal for a few hours by using the pit BBQ technique. Additionally, some of the less appetising pieces of meat become more palatable and flavourful when barbecued. Most significantly, it keeps a vital supply of protein for a while, which was crucial in the South because the diets of the underprivileged sometimes had too little protein and too much starch. Other parts of the US followed suit, but as the practise spread, adopters were compelled to adapt it to suit regional needs. As a consequence, more than a dozen distinct BBQ style search including a unique blend of meat preference, cut of meat, smoking wood, and flavouring technique emerged in the US alone. There are more than a dozen different types of sauce or marinade, only in the Carolinas.

Meat

Each area uses a different sort and cut of meat for their BBQ. This is partly due to the area's two centuries of agricultural potential. Pork BBQ is highly favoured throughout Appalachia, the Piedmont, and most of the wooded South. Anglo settlers in these densely forested areas grew pigs for meat because they could let them roam free in the wild areas nearby. Pigs could hunt for food for free in the neighbouring woodlands, eating acorns, tree nuts, and whatever else they might find. While Carolina BBQ is often offered off-the-bone or whole hog is cut or pulled into small pieces and placed on a bun. Pork BBQ is sometimes served as ribs. Beef has become the popular meat for BBQ in areas that are flat and grassy, such as much of Texas, the Great Plains, and portions of California. Cattle grazing is an evident agricultural activity. Beef ribs are favoured in certain regions whereas brisket or other cuts are more common. Tri-tip, which is often used to produce hamburger outside of the West Coast, is served to Californians. Depending on what is available locally, other parts of the US choose chicken, turkey, or fish.

Wood

Another important factor that distinguishes various American BBQ locations is the sort of wood that is most readily accessible locally. In Appalachia, hickory, an Eastern US hardwood tree, is a preferred wood for smoking pig barbecue. While mesquite tree wood is used in West Texas, oak or pecan wood is more common in eastern Texas. Mesquite is widely available in West Texas and other arid southwestern US regions. The majority of mesquite trees are little shrubs, but its wood is excellent for BBQ since it is tough, burns slowly, and has a distinct flavour. Santa Maria style barbecue was created in California by Spanish and Mexican immigrants. Over the wood of the Coast Live Oak trees, they roast tri-tip there. In other regions of the US, notably in New England, where BBQ is less common, maple and apple

trees provide wood for smoking chicken and flavouring pork. Even the side dishes differ locally, depending on the beans, bread, and greens that are readily available there. For instance, pinquitos, a variety of little pink or white bean cultivated in the Santa Maria Valley, are a staple of Santa Maria BBQ in California.

Flavourings

The flavouring method is the last and maybe most amorphous component of the geography of BBQ. Many locales use a wet sauce. The sauce that is most famous and most imitated is from Kansas City. Most US stores sell variations of the sweet, dark Kansas City BBQ sauce alongside ketchup. A mustard-based sauce is popular in South Carolina, maybe because to German immigrants who settled there more than a century ago. Many East Carolinians top their barbecue with a vinegar and spicy pepper sauce. To that combination, a tomato sauce is added in the Carolinas' more hilly regions. Naturally, the Cajun influence in Louisiana implies that their barbecue sauce will feature their own brand of spicy sauce flavoured with cayenne peppers like Tabasco brand. Memphis, another city renowned for its barbecue, often serves meat usually ribs with a dry rub of spices, such as paprika, pepper, chilli powder, garlic, etc. A straightforward dry rub is also used in Californian Santa Maria style BBQ.

Regions with Agriculture

Numerous regional conditions influence the decisions farmers make about what to do with their land, just like they do with BBQ. Climate is the first component. The majority of agricultural choices are influenced by the weather. A lot of plants and certain animals just cannot thrive in hostile environments. Others crops are very resilient, and others even need extreme weather to grow. Another important concern for farmers is the availability of water, whether through irrigation or rainfall. The overwhelming majority of farmers prefer greater profits over lesser ones, therefore they carefully choose the crops and animals they cultivate in order to make a profit. The choices made by farmers also have an impact on the food we consume, and vice versa. Together, these choices led to the development of about five main agricultural regions in the US, each of which corresponds to a certain climatic zone. The next paragraphs examine the development and operation of a few of the most important agricultural districts in the US and worldwide.

Belts of wheat and Corn

The 100th meridian, a line of longitude that separates the humid eastern half of the US from the dry western half, may be the ideal place to start when examining the agricultural areas in the US. The US's midsection, where the terrain is flat and perfect for row crops, sits directly along the 100th meridian. The Corn Belt is the name given to the area east of the 100th meridian where farmers typically grow corn and soybeans. The Tall Corn State of Iowa serves as its general centre. Before it was ploughed under and turned into agriculture, a large portion of this area, currently utilised for the cultivation of maize, was tall grass prairie. Conditions of the soil are very rich, identifying tall grass grasslands. Over many years, a deep, rich topsoil formed in this area where profuse plant growth was encouraged by sufficient summer rainfall and delayed plant decay into fertile humus by winter snows[7], [8]. In the US, there are hardly any tall grass prairies left. All of it was ploughed under for agricultural use. Wheat is often grown by farmers on flat areas west of the 100th meridian. Due to their higher per-acre profitability (see section on the economics of maize), farmers in this area would presumably choose to grow soybeans and maize. It is often too dry to grow maize and soybeans west of the 100th meridian, therefore farmers cultivate wheat instead. The short grass prairie predominated this area before it was turned over to agriculture, and the wheat belt runs from the Texas panhandle up to the Dakotas. Because of the region's dryness, which both slows plant growth in the summer and provides a less reliable snowpack in the winter, reducing the effectiveness of the decomposition processes that turn dead plants into

soil, the soils of shortgrass prairie are less productive than those produced by tallgrass prairies further east[9], [10].

Although there are many different kinds of wheat, American farmers choose only a handful. Autumn is when farmers sow their winter wheat, and early June is when they harvest it. We utilised winter wheat, which makes up around 75 percent of all wheat grown in the US, to create bread and rolls. The official centre of the winter wheat area is Kansas. Wheat growers in the Dakotas, farther north, prefer spring wheat. It is planted in April, and it is harvested in the autumn. To prepare the dough for pastries and cakes, bakeries employ spring wheat flour. Most Americans in North Dakota cultivate durum wheat, a unique kind of spring wheat. The semolina flour used to produce pasta is typically made from durum wheat. Durum is undoubtedly a preferred wheat cultivar among Italians as well.

The US exports more wheat than any other country in the world, however since the 1970s, wheat output in the US has decreased due to changing government policy and climate change. Growing season length and timing have altered so drastically since 1900 that maize cultivation is now replacing wheat production in areas where the growing season used to be too short for corn production to be economical. For instance, unlike historically, the first deadly frost in North Dakota now often occurs in October rather than September. Due to the extra few weeks of ripening time provided by this, maize is now more lucrative than wheat, particularly in light of the corn production subsidies. The worrisome out-migration of young people from North Dakota has halted as farming has once again become economical in the north central United States, which is an intriguing externality of climate change.

Livestock Farming

Although cattle may be farmed anywhere, this practise is often preferred when more lucrative agricultural land uses are not accessible. Cattle ranching is thus most prevalent in the US in the arid Great Plains and sections of Appalachia. Few crops can be cultivated economically in prime flatland valleys with less than 20 inches of rain annually. The same is true for farmers who live in arid or mountainous regions with weak soils. Ranching is a feasible alternative in the arid regions of the plains and the west where irrigated farming is not possible since it simply needs grass and space to raise cattle. These conditions are present in Texas, Nebraska, Kansas, California, and Oklahoma, which produce the most cattle nationally. In terms of profit dollars per acre, arid terrain ranching is perhaps the least lucrative sort of farming.

Because maize is so valuable per acre, Illinois, a state with extraordinarily excellent soils, dedicates its acreage to its cultivation. Unsurprisingly, Illinois has a fairly tiny stock of beef cattle. Cattle that graze on expansive fields are often rounded up and put in feedlots after being allowed to develop for just long enough to reach market size. Cattle that have been confined to a feedlot are fed a consistent diet of corn and silage that is transported by trains or trucks from the Corn Belt until they are large enough to be slaughtered. Nowadays, some ranchers exclusively feed their cattle grass. Because grass-fed beef is seen to be healthier and more flavourful by beef enthusiasts, it may sell for more money.

Agricultural Drylands

Farmers irrigate areas that would otherwise be too dry for most crops in certain desert locations, such as portions of California and Arizona. With the help of a sophisticated network of irrigation canals, pumping stations, and water storage facilities that were constructed with public money, farmers in dry places can cultivate a huge range of crops and make significant profits. Due to the region's plentiful sunlight, lengthy growing seasons, and generally good soils, irrigation provides farmlands that are very productive and lucrative. Individual counties in California's Great Central Valley have stronger agricultural economies than other states in the union. The majority of fruits and vegetables that Americans consume in the US originate from California's irrigated farms. Californian fruit and vegetable farming is the most labour-intensive kind of agriculture in the country, needing a large number of

farm workers to select, prepare, pack, and transport fruits and vegetables since there aren't many machines that can accomplish these jobs. Immigrant labour is required since the viability of the fruit and vegetable agricultural industry depends on the availability of inexpensive labour and a large pool of employees who are ready and able to do this kind of job.

For many years, the Great Central Valley in California has served as a point of entry for tens of thousands of immigrants who want to settle in the United States. Before switching to other jobs, many people spend many years working in the fields. Farm labourers from other countries substantially change the economies and cultures of the civilizations in which they dwell. The advantages and drawbacks of immigrant labour are hotly contested in the US and across the globe, particularly when the workers are unauthorised. Two things cannot be disputed. At starters, very few Americans are willing to harvest fruits and vegetables at the going rates paid to agricultural labourers. Two, the product would become too costly to be competitive with fruits and vegetables produced abroad if wages increased to the point where they would draw employees of native descent (let's say \$20/hr).

Chickens and Sand

Overabundant rainfall in certain areas, especially the very humid South-eastern United States, makes it challenging to earn a lot of money farming. This is partially due to a multitude of ailments that affect plant roots, insects, and other calamities that reduce agricultural profitability. The low soil quality is a difficulty for farmers as well. In the Southeast United States, a large portion of the soil has been leached, a process in which vital soil nutrients are removed from the soil by heavy rainfall. Georgia's renowned red dirt is not the best soil for many types of crops. Despite this, farmers adapt and look for agricultural practises that maximise the potential that the land and climate in their region have to offer. Many concentrates on forestry by cultivating pine trees. Another typical choice is to concentrate on raising chickens rather than growing crops. The broiler business, which involves raising hens for meat, is dominated by South-eastern states.

Areas of Specialty Crops

In yet other places, extremely particular, local soil and/or climatic characteristics provide circumstances that enable farmers to concentrate on a particularly specialised crop. These crops are often extremely lucrative due to the crop's geographic supply being severely constrained, which raises crop prices by raising demand. There are undoubtedly a number of places that focus on extremely certain crops. Washington's apples, Georgia's peaches, and Idaho's potatoes are all well-known for their quality. California is the leading producer of several crops, including broccoli, carrots, cauliflower, celery, lettuce, and spinach, thanks to irrigation and its unique Mediterranean environment. More than 99% of the almonds, artichokes, dates, figs, raisin grapes, kiwis, olives, plums, pomegranates, pistachios and walnuts consumed in America are grown in California.

Milk Lands

Most US states have dairy producers that breed milk cows. Because of its massive herds, the Northeast and Great Lakes area is best known as America's Dairy land. Nevertheless, despite not being well-known for it, California produces the most milk of any state. Since milk is perishable and in high demand throughout the US, places with big populations tend to have a higher demand for locally produced milk. The fact that most European Americans can tolerate lactose serves to increase demand for dairy products including milk, cheese, butter, and ice cream. This appears to be particularly true in states like Wisconsin, where a strong Germanic ancestry has a significant impact on regional eating habits. Wisconsin is a state where beer is quite popular. Dairy cattle are fed a continuous diet of hay because it helps the dairy sector and because it is difficult to graze fields during the winter. As a result, hay farming and the dairy industry often co-locate in these areas.

Model of Von Thünen

Weather, climate, and soils are significant factors in determining what farmers grow or produce, but the economics of transporting agricultural goods also contributes to the why of where in farming. Johann Heinrich von Thünen, an economist and honorary geographer, understood that because agricultural goods had varying transportation costs and difficulties, prudent farmers should choose to cultivate or sow crops that provided them the greatest opportunity to be profitable. His theories inspired him to create the Von Thünen Model, a theory of agricultural land rent that was created in 1826. The model has a number of assumptions that could or might not hold true in reality, but it is helpful for understanding how farmers make decisions. First, the model makes the assumption that there are no roads, all agricultural land is level, and all soil, water, and other factors are equal. Second, the model only includes one market or city where farmers may sell their produce. Third, the model makes the assumption that farmers are economically logical; they want to maximise profit and are aware of how to do so, so they would choose the most lucrative use for their property. Von Thünen claimed that since milk and/or fruits and vegetables are the most perishable and costly to transport, farmers who are located closest to the city should concentrate on producing them. Liquid milk should be the focus of dairy producers who are closer to urban markets; butter, cheese, and ice cream should be produced in dairies located away from major cities because they are less perishable. Farmers in rural areas who were distant from the city in 1826 would be unwise to specialise on perishable goods. Von Thünen advocated that farmers who live distant from the city market should focus on grain crops that can be carried inexpensively and preserved for extended periods of time. Because firewood was cumbersome and costly to carry, it was recommended that forests be cultivated close to urban areas. Von Thünen was aware that farmland close to cities was more valuable since it was also desirable for individuals looking to construct homes, industries, etc. Farmers who lived close to cities had to practise intensive agriculture, such as market gardening for fruits and vegetables, in order to increase the value of their land via farming.

If not, they should just use their farms for anything else to increase their land rent. Farmers who live farther from cities must practise extensive agriculture, the form of farming best suited for less value land and requiring less expensive farm labour, since they have higher transportation expenses for getting their produce to market. Although Von Thünen's model is no longer applicable due to technological advancements, notably in refrigeration and speedy transportation, its reasoning is still highly persuasive, and many modern agricultural maps still emphasise the relevance of transportation costs to farmers. There are sizable hinterlands around New York City, Los Angeles, and Chicago where farmers continue to participate in intense market gardening and liquid milk production. For just this reason, New Jersey is referred to as the Garden State. Just as Von Thünen's model would predict, California, with its enormous population, leads the nation in the production of fruits, vegetables, and milk. Market gardening farms are still often a day's drive from the major produce warehouse sector of a big metropolis. Large grain farms are still uncommon in the same regions. The locations of forestry activities and cattle feedlots have undergone the most significant modifications from Von Thünen's initial concept. Nowadays, most cattle and pigs are fattened and butchered outside of cities thanks to refrigeration. Fuel forestry districts that formerly provided wood to heat houses in the neighbouring city are no longer there as a result of the disappearance of wood as a heating fuel.

CONCLUSION

For policymakers, scholars, and practitioners, it is crucial to comprehend the dynamics of agribusiness and how it affects food systems. It sheds light on the advantages and disadvantages of contemporary food distribution and manufacturing. Stakeholders may strive to achieve food security, lessen environmental consequences, and improve lives within the

larger food system by supporting sustainable and inclusive agribusiness practises. In conclusion, agribusiness is crucial to forming food systems and supplying the world's food needs. This abstract emphasises the value of agribusiness in boosting agricultural output, expanding small farmers' access to markets, and solving issues related to food security. However, it also recognises the need of addressing social and environmental issues related to agricultural practises. Stakeholders may work towards creating resilient and equitable food systems for the future by embracing sustainable and inclusive methods.

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CHAPTER 23

CORN SUGAR, FARM POLICY, AND PUBLIC HEALTH

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ABSTRACT:

The linkages between maize and sugar production, agricultural policy, and public health are examined in this abstract. It investigates the effects of agricultural policy on food production, dietary habits, and public health, especially those pertaining to maize and sugar subsidies. Two extensively produced goods that are important components of the world food system are maize and sugar. The abstract recognises the extensive use of sugar in several food and beverage items as well as the predominance of maize-based goods, such as corn syrup and cattle raised on corn, in processed foods. It acknowledges the impact of governmental actions, such as trade agreements and subsidies, on the supply and production of certain commodities. The ramifications of agricultural policy, such as subsidies, for the production of maize and sugar, are covered in the abstract. It discusses how governmental assistance for certain crops may result in an excess of them, artificially cheap pricing, and a rise in their usage in processed meals. It also looks at how these policies affect the diversification of agricultural output and the effects of intensive maize and sugar farming on the environment. The abstract also explores the effects of maize and sugar intake on public health. It draws attention to the connection between increased rates of obesity, diabetes, and other diet-related disorders and excessive consumption of items made from maize and including added sugar. It recognises how consumer choices and dietary habits are influenced by food marketing, accessibility, and cost.

KEYWORDS:

Agriculture, Farming, Health, Plantation, Sugar.

INTRODUCTION

Today's government policies that have a significant impact on the crops that are grown, the livestock that farmers produce, and our daily meals also have an impact on the functioning of Von Thünen's Model. The section below gives a brief analysis of one potential set of linkages between governmental policies, farming, dietary practises, and public health in order to give you some insight into how geography is helpful in analysing complicated topics [1], [2]. Maize, more often referred to as corn in the United States, is perhaps the most significant food source. It was domesticated by Mexico's native inhabitants thousands of years ago, and it has since shown to be a very adaptable and durable plant. A large portion of the globe consumes maize in some form now because of its adaptability. There are several kinds of maize. The most popular kind of maize in America is sweet corn. Although sweet corn is often eaten in the United States as corn on the cob, it may also be canned and frozen 'off the cob' and is used in a broad range of cuisines.

Despite being farmed in much greater quantities, the maize types commonly referred to as field maize are less widely recognised. Because maize is too hard to consume uncooked, we turn it into a variety of different items. Some of it is processed into maize meal or cornflour, which we then use to manufacture products like tortillas, sauces and corn chips. We also turn millions of tonnes of it into high fructose corn syrup (HFCS) and corn syrup. Corn syrups are used as thickeners, sweeteners and to preserve the freshness or moisture of food. HFCS has been used often and at a low cost as a substitute for cane sugar and beetroot sugar since the early 1970s. It is now the sweetener that is most often used in soft drinks and processed meals. Many experts think maize sweeteners are a major contributor to the obesity epidemic in the US and other countries. Despite tasting almost identical, some detractors contend that

HFCS has a distinct physiological impact on people than conventional sugars. They contend that a number of health problems have emerged in the US and other countries since HFCS replaced cane sugar as the most popular sweetener. Naturally, the maize sector denies these accusations. No attempt will be made to explore human metabolism as this is not a biology course, but it is acceptable to show how geography helps to explain why we consume HFCS in such large amounts [3], [4].

Granulated cane and beetroot sugars have been replaced by HFCS in the American diet mostly due to price. It is less clear why it is less expensive. Geography is important. First, since maize grows well throughout a large portion of the US, a lot of grain can be produced, increasing supply and bringing down prices. On the other hand, sugar cane is not well suited to the majority of American climates. Only Hawaii provides all the optimal circumstances for productive sugar cane farming. Sugar cane yields and revenues are heavily reliant on a moist, warm environment and a long growing season. Although Hawaiian cane yields are three times higher than those of Louisiana, the price of Hawaiian sugar is higher due to shipping expenses from Hawaii and the scarcity of excellent cropland on the islands. You could pass a field of sugar beets while driving through Minnesota or California since sugar beets thrive in a range of conditions. Sugar beets are used in the manufacturing of half of the granulated sugar in the US. Even still, sugar produced outside of the US is less expensive than sugar produced there due to better weather and lower labour costs.

Since the Great Depression, the US government has given special subsidies to cane sugar farmers via tax exemptions and a variety of other incentives since sugar is difficult to cultivate commercially in the US. When American farmers are unable to sell their sugar on the world market for a high price, the government even purchases it at a price above market value. The US government also imposes import restrictions on sugar, particularly from Cuba, which Mexico and Canada rely on for cheap sugar, pushing up sugar prices in the process. These trade protection measures aid in the survival of the sugar industry, but also have unintended negative effects on other sectors of the economy. Externalities or external costs are the names for these undetected expenses. Geographers often want to examine issues holistically, thus we are highly interested in discovering and assessing external costs. We are interested in learning about costs other than the apparent ones, in part because we pay close attention to the environmental implications of policies like sugar subsidies that are typically disregarded [5], [6].

Sugar subsidies not only cost the taxpayers billions of dollars, but they also increase the cost of cane sugar at the grocery store. These rules result in greater sugar costs for makers of candies and sodas. As a consequence, several thousands of manufacturing jobs requiring sugar (such as producing candy) have relocated from the US to other nations where sugar is less expensive. Due to rising sugar prices, Kraft Foods and Brach's Confections have relocated their candy production facilities outside of the US in recent years. Many candy makers have relocated to Mexico since the price of cane sugar there is almost half that in the US. The so-called Mexican Coke, or Coca-Cola made in Mexico, has undoubtedly been consumed by many of you. Due to the fact that in Mexico Cokes are still prepared with cane sugar rather than HFCS as is the case at the majority of US bottling facilities, many cola connoisseurs prefer these.

The US government raises the price of granulated sugar, but at the same time, US agriculture policy promotes farmers to produce field corn via a number of programmes that increase supply and lower the price of corn and corn-based goods like beef and HFCS. Approximately 1.63 billion bushels of maize were unsold during harvest in 2014. Corn is so cheap and plentiful that Americans squander a lot of it. About half of the annual field corn production is utilised to produce biofuels, mainly ethanol fuel that is combined with petrol, coupled with extra sugar cane that the government has purchased. Instead of allowing the cattle to graze

grass or hay, which is their normal diet, a large portion of the excess maize harvest (both grain and silage) is utilised to feed the animals. Corn is also given to pigs and chickens. Even the school meal programme is subject to manipulation by the government in an effort to eradicate it. Over the protestations of health campaigners, the US Congress famously classified pizza sauce as a vegetable in 2011 to advance certain agricultural interests. As a result, corn-based food is more affordable [7], [8].

DISCUSSION

Students already know that purchasing a burger combination rather than a green salad is much less expensive. In contrast, fruits and vegetables cost more because they get less government funding in the US. Poor people, whose health is already frequently in jeopardy, end up becoming overly dependent on a diet of inexpensive but fatty (corn-fed) meats, sweetened processed foods, and starchy carbohydrates. This invites a variety of chronic health issues, which in turn costs taxpayers more via government-subsidized health care for the poor - another external cost that may be overlooked by others.

Food Production Worldwide

Although farming outside of North America is distinct from farming in the US and Canada, it is nonetheless subject to the same climate limitations and market logics. While some foreign agribusinesses compete with farmers in North America, the vast majority of farmers worldwide solely participate in subsistence farming, which feeds their families while keeping their produce and livestock off the market. Despite the fact that over 80% of the population practises subsistence agriculture in several regions of Africa and Asia, food shortages are nevertheless a typical occurrence. Comparatively, just 2% of Americans are employed in agriculture, freeing up the remaining 98% of the population to engage in other pursuits. Most often, too many people living in areas with poor soil and severe temperatures is the cause of food shortages in many developing nations. When production is assessed in terms of energy efficiency, farmers in certain developing nations often out-produce American farmers despite the lack of equipment. These farmers utilise extremely efficient agricultural practises. In other words, food is produced with less energy in many countries than it is in the US.

Ranching and Herding

Livestock farming predominates in areas where there is not enough rain or when it is too cold for agricultural crops. Many locations, especially in South America, ranch cattle similarly to how we do in the US, but sheep ranching is often more common in areas where the British colonial effects are still present. Large areas of the world's lands are used for pastoralist farming, a nomadic herding alternative to ranching, yet herders make up a very small portion of the global population. In order to find grazing pastureland, persons who look after herds of animals such as cattle, sheep, reindeer, etc. must regularly relocate. Herds may overgraze the soil if there isn't continuous movement, starving cattle and humans.

Wet Rice Agriculture

More people are fed by rice than any other crop on earth. The primary food source for many people worldwide is rice. The world's largest rice-producing regions are in South and East Asia, where the annual monsoon rains and fertile soils are ideal for growing rice. Americans also cultivate rice, mostly on irrigated land in California and the Mississippi Delta, and they use sophisticated equipment, even aircraft, for sowing. Rice farming is still primarily a labour- and land-intensive activity in Asia. The majority of rice in Asia is still planted, weeded, harvested, and processed by hand. In addition, the management of the rice paddies is labour-intensive in order to maintain the optimal depth of water in the fields for rice maturation. For people who rely on rice for food, it is fortunately a very prolific plant that can provide enormous caloric yields per acre.

Rice farmers in Asia sometimes harvest fields twice or even three times each year, greatly improving yields above those known in the 1940s, as a result of scientific advances in

fertiliser technology and rice genetics, dubbed as the Green Revolution, during the last two generations [9], [10]. People who live in wet rice areas must complement their meals in order to be healthy since rice only supplies carbs. As a result, many Asians, even those who reside in large cities, keep well-tended vegetable gardens. By incorporating fish and other kinds of aquaculture onto their fields, paddy rice producers also engage in a sort of intercropped farming. They may cut their spending on fertiliser and pesticides by introducing fish (specifically, carp), which also provides dietary protein and a valued item they can sell at neighbourhood markets. Additionally, fish consume mosquito larvae, which aids in lowering the prevalence of illnesses like malaria transmitted by mosquitoes.

Price and Monetary Conditions

Asians may also do better on maths exams as a result of paddy rice cultivation. At least that is the contention made by journalist and best-selling author Malcolm Gladwell, who uses statistical analysis and spatial logic to explain a range of cultural events. According to one argument put up by Gladwell, Asians' aptitude for mathematics may be a result of their civilizations' involvement in labour-intensive wet rice production. According to the notion, decades of labour in the rice fields gave Asians cultural teachings about the significance of arduous effort regarding wet rice production. When it comes to other taxing pursuits like studying maths, the work ethic established in wet rice areas benefits people who have acquired the cultural qualities of farmers in this region. On the other hand, it became simpler for individuals from areas where agricultural plenty came easily to ignore the connection between labour and reward. This idea seeks to replace a story about race or genetics with one about cultural practises. Geographers often claim that the physical and cultural surroundings have a substantial impact on one another, but the threat of environmental determinism prevents many geographers from completely accepting Gladwell's theories. It serves as a warning to everyone about the ecological fallacy's logical traps.

Shifting Cultivation: Slash and Burn

Slash and burn agriculture, commonly referred to as Sweden or maple farming, is in some respects the antithesis of wet rice cultivation. Slash and burn farming is only used in tropical rainforest climates where weak soils sustain tiny populations, in contrast to wet rice cultivation, which predominates in monsoonal climates, needs rich soils, a large labour force, yet feeds millions. In rainforests, slash and burn is required because heavy rainfall leaches the soil, removing vital soil nutrients. Farmer's clear-cut forest portions, let the plants dry, then burn the logs and waste to provide nutrients. The burned plants' ashes are incorporated into the impoverished soil as fertiliser. Each burned area is productive for a few years until the rains start to wash the soil's nutrients away once again. Farmers are forced to restart the procedure when the soil becomes unproductive. In order for the forest to recover, they must leave depleted lands fallow for a period of years. Farmers will eventually be able to restart the process in the regrown forest portions. This kind of farming is known as land extended farming or a land rotation system since it uses a lot of land but, fortunately, relatively little labour. When compared to wet-rice cultivation, it also takes fewer workers and often less work, which makes this kind of farming very calorically effective.

Where the population still relies on slash-and-burn farming, it has also shown to be sustainable. People in the rainforests of Asia, Africa, and Latin America have practised slash-and-burn agriculture for thousands of years without substantially endangering the capacity of the delicate soils to provide food. However, as farmers clear ever-larger areas of forest and reduce fallow times, the increasing population increase in many of these areas undermines the value of the remaining rainforest reserves. A fascinating alternative to slash and burn that protects forest ecosystems is Inga alley cropping, which involves growing crops in between rows of nitrogen-fixing Inga trees. The three sister's corn, beans, and squash are often planted in the Americas by slash-and-burn farmers.

These plants provide a creative answer to several nutritional and agricultural issues. Corn supplies the diet with carbs and sustains the bean plant's tendrils. For those who live in areas where fish and/or game are in short supply, beans provide a vital nutritional demand for protein. Beans are also nitrogen fixers, which means they contribute to soil fertilisation for the corn and squash. The squash plant offers vitamins and minerals, and its large leaves discourage weed development while preserving soil moisture. Some people also think that the three sisters produce a natural insecticide when intercropped planted together in the same field. Farmers throw dead plants back into the soil after harvesting in order to fertilise deficient soils.

Agriculture in Plantations

Plantation agriculture is prevalent in many coastal areas of the developing world, particularly in areas where European colonial powers historically held sway. This agricultural system prioritises the production of cash crops above staple crops, usually at the cost of the former. Bananas, cotton, tea, cacao plants, and coffee are a few of the most well-known plantation crops. The plantation agricultural systems have several, major flaws, yet most nations are struggling to come up with workable alternatives. Because they lack any other industries that may provide the much-needed foreign cash, such as US Dollars or Euros, many nations in Africa, Asia, and Latin America depend only on plantation-style agriculture. Food insecurity is the primary cost that nations incur as a result of their overreliance on cash crops. Food production for domestic use suffers when the finest farmlands in a nation are often planted with export-oriented cash crops. Second, the majority of plantation areas engage in monocropping, or depending on only one crop.

Monoculture economies may be severely impacted by unpredictably fluctuating market prices for their product in addition to crop failure due to pest invasions, illnesses, droughts, etc. However, the US economy is varied and can readily endure the loss of a single crop or commodity market. The US contains locations where monoculture is typical. A lot of poor economies lack this privilege. The whole economy might be in peril if the market price for the primary agricultural product decreases or if a blight affects the primary crop and the poor, including those who labour on plantations themselves, bear the brunt of such failures. When too many businesses enter a market, the supply swells, driving down prices for commodities. Since the 1960s, the price of coffee in particular has fluctuated dramatically. A decline in the prices of agricultural export commodities that coincided with a rise in global oil prices that triggered a recession worldwide contributed to the renowned Latin American Debt Crisis of the 1980s.

The majority of the almost unsolvable land tenure issues that face most nations with plantation economies are caused by plantation agriculture. Colonial powers, particularly England and Spain, dispossessed indigenous people of their land and had them labour on plantations throughout the 18th and 19th centuries. Others became peasants and were consigned to the peripheral regions that the colonial, landed aristocracy least wanted. Both groups' descendants carried on in their positions for many generations, creating permanent underclasses and landed oligarchies in several nations. Throughout the 20th century, notably in Latin America, violent battles broke out between capitalists who supported the status quo and socialist or communist land reform proponents.

Plantation agriculture caused economic despair and violence, which prompted migration, most of it to the United States, where long-time opponents of immigration from Latin America also oppose land reform initiatives. Efficiency is of utmost importance since plantation agriculture is often a highly competitive and sometimes a very rewarding endeavour. There is substantial pressure from the market and the agribusiness businesses that operate huge plantations to maintain enormous farms on the finest land since large plantation operations can benefit from economies of scale that small-hold farming cannot. When land

reform has been implemented and productive lands have been handed to the poor, the export economy has sputtered and economic turmoil has resulted. The archetypal contemporary example is the land redistribution in Zimbabwe. One of the worst humanitarian catastrophes of the modern age occurred in the Horn of Africa in the middle of the 1980s as a result of a drought, a conflict, and poor government policy. An estimated 500,000 people perished due to famine in Ethiopia and Eritrea. The tragedy was televised to the rest of the globe by a documentary news team, stunning many people into action. Pop/rock artists were behind two of the most well-known humanitarian initiatives.

Famous pop artists started Live Aid, Band Aid and USA for Africa campaigns to raise funds and awareness of the problem. Many donated freely because they were persuaded that a natural calamity was mostly to blame for the issue. However, few knew at the time that Ethiopia continued to be a net exporter of food during this terrible famine. While millions of people in Ethiopia were going hungry, grain and other agricultural products were being exported from the nation and used often as animal feed. Although there were some transport and safety difficulties involved, in the end, poverty and a land tenure dispute contributed just as much to the mass hunger as drought and desertification. If they cannot cultivate food, poor people often cannot purchase food either. Some people in the area did benefit from the relief funds, but it's possible that many of the food aid packages meant for the really hungry were stolen by dishonest local authorities.

Agriculture-Based Sceneries

More arable land than any other nation is found in the United States. About half of what you would see out your windscreen while travelling across the US is some kind of farming. Over 600 million acres are utilised to graze animals, while over 400 million acres are grown in crops. As suburbs and other commercial developments eat away farmland, those figures have been dropping by around 3,000 acres year (EPA). But it's crucial that you can interpret these landscapes in some way. There are many different cadastral patterns, which are essentially the techniques we use to divide land among individuals that can be seen if you are flying over the US and paying attention to what you see out of the aircraft window. Farm country is where cadastral systems are most noticeable, yet these patterns have a big impact on politics, culture, and society for everyone in the US. There are several cadastral systems in use across the globe, but only a select handful in the US deserve our attention.

Bounds and Metes

During the colonial era, the metes and bounds system was invented by English immigrants. In the 17th and 18th centuries, those who wanted land would often seek for a piece of unclaimed property, maybe on the frontier or close to where they resided, and upon finding a good place, employ a surveyor to look over the area and record a description of the desired plot of land. This description represented a legitimate claim to the property, which was then recorded with the appropriate government agencies. The land parcel's size and form were fairly haphazard, and they were often characterised using relatively small objects like trees, stones, or streams.

Starting at a stone on the Doe River bank, close to where the road from A. to B. crosses the river continues 40 degrees North of West for 100 rods to a large stump; continues 10 degrees North of West for 90 rods continues 15 degrees West of North for 80 rods to an oak tree continues due East for 150 rods to the highway; continues 50 rods due North after following the course of the highway continues 5 degrees North of East for 90 rods continues 45 degrees of South for 60 rods; and continues 10 degrees North of East Surveyhistory.org is the source As waves of settlers staked claims to land that wasn't yet inhabited, the local property map in the parts of the nation that used metes and bounds ultimately started to resemble a massive jigsaw puzzle. This land division system's irregularities cause a number of issues, not the

least of which is the difficulty in identifying property borders that are defined by movable features like trees, rocks, and streams.

Metes and limits were another factor in the unequal distribution of good farmland. Early settlers would often carve off just the best pieces of land for themselves, leaving the worse ground for others. Rich land speculators, surveyors themselves, or persons with strong political ties were often those who cut out desirable portions. They had the potential to control local politics and the local economy if they had the greatest lands. Many land speculators built their riches by acquiring desirable lands at a discount and selling them to settlers who arrived later on the frontier. The so-called house flippers of today adopt a similar business strategy. Latecomers to the frontier often discovered that the available land portions were of low quality and pricey. This accentuated class differences in certain regions where agricultural fields were of varying grade. Because tobacco plants rapidly deplete the soil, areas that produced tobacco during colonial times were particularly susceptible to this problem. Poor-soil farmers who had little room to leave fields fallow would quickly go bankrupt, only to be bought out by wealthy neighbours who had been able to purchase valuable acreage earlier.

Grid Squares for Township and Range

Thomas Jefferson established the township and range cadastral system, formally known as the Public Land Survey System, as a rational, well-organized substitute that divided land according to a rectangular grid system after recognising a number of issues with the metes and bounds method. Jefferson believed that a strong middle class of yeoman farmers would form, reviving democracy, if each farm family going to the frontier could purchase a farmhouse that was nearly the same size as all of their neighbours, provided that the quality of that land was relatively equal. The Continental Congress enacted Jefferson's concept as the Land Ordinance of 1785 while heavily indebted after the War for Independence but wealthy from the land it had won from the British. Since then, this legislation has governed the sale of the majority of American property west of the Appalachians. It eliminated the need for intricate surveys and detailed descriptions, enabling homesteaders to purchase property without first seeing it, and accelerated the colonisation of the frontier.

In the flatter portions of the United States, the township six-mile by six-mile square of land is the fundamental unit of division. Townships were split into many parts, each measuring one mile square, starting with 36 sections. Quarter sections (160 acres) and quarter-quarter sections (40 acres) were created from square mile portions (640 acres). Where there was plenty of rain, homesteaders often bought quarter sections, but when the drier plains farther west were colonised, bigger lots were allotted for livestock. The American landscape is dominated by grid squares. The effects of this system are difficult to overestimate. Just a few of the landscape's features that are locked into the grid are roads, farms, homes, property lines, and telephone poles. Your workstation, sofa, and chest of drawers, as well as the room you are in right now, are presumably arranged according to Jefferson's grid. The grid, according to the great landscape writer JB Jackson, is a big emblem of Enlightenment thought on the landscape, but it has also had a variety of cultural effects, giving communities on the grid a feeling of order and uniformity.

At the same time, the grid-encouraged rugged individualism replaced the ancient agrarian communal societies centred on village greens. The ramifications for the political and economic theories that define contemporary American politics are significant. Most of Jefferson's political and cultural objectives have been accomplished. Democracy did prosper, and the area of the nation with the most equitable income distribution is still where the township and range system produced many farmsteads of nearly equal number and quality. In reality, the Midwest's grid-dominated states often have the lowest Gini coefficients, a measure of economic equality. When compared to the more environmentally friendly contour

ploughing that is more frequently used by farmers who live on metes and bounds lands in the East, the grid system may have just one drawback: it seems to encourage farmers to plough their fields in straight lines, regardless of the topography of the fields, which increases soil erosion and water loss.

Lengthy Lots

The Long Lots cadastral system was adopted by colonists from various regions of Europe, particularly the French. It was copied in other parts of North America where French settlement occurred, most notably Louisiana, but it is also noticeable in other French settlements like St. Louis, Detroit, and Vincennes, Indiana. It was derived from the seigneurial land tenure system used by the French in their colonial holdings, which were mostly in what is now Canada. Long lots are small pieces of property that are one-tenth as broad as they are long. One of the narrow ends of a long lot frequently borders a river or stream or other kind of waterway. Long lots have political consequences that are comparable to those of Thomas Jefferson since they gave all property owners about equal chances of success in an agricultural economy. Farmers who wanted to sell their harvests needed access to the river as a means of transportation.

By dividing the land in this way, farmers were also guaranteed roughly equitable access to good farmland. With increasing distance from the riverbank, soil qualities along a river vary. Near the river, sandy soils are typical. In the bottom lands further away from the river, clay soils are discovered that are least suitable for ploughing, whereas high quality loamy soils are found at a medium distance from the river. In this system, farmers would often set up their agricultural operations to resemble the spatial logics of the Von Thünen model discussed earlier in the chapter. Can you use a long lot to apply the Von Thünen model's logic? Long lots also influence cultural norms. Families choose to build their homes next to the river, resulting in tight-knit communities. Following the death of a family elder, the French also equally distributed family properties among all offspring or simply the boys, leading to the development of ever-narrower strip farms, each with a home on the riverbank.

Grants of Spanish Land

The strategy that resulted in huge land grants is still visible on the landscape of the American Southwest, where a sizable portion of the region was originally administered by Spain (1521–1821) and then Mexico (1820–1846), notably in California. Primogeniture, a custom in which families leave all of their lands to the eldest son, was less common in Spanish households as it was in French ones. As a consequence, there was a reduced population of landless individuals from those regions eager to go to the Americas. Primogeniture was used by the British and in certain other regions of Northern Europe, which encouraged a large number of second sons to go to North America. The Spanish had considerable difficulty persuading Spaniards to colonise their domains in the Americas without an abundance of landless young men and sizable religious minorities.

You can understand why there were so few Europeans living on the US West Coast by 1840 when you consider those elements, as well as how difficult it was to reach the region and how tough it was to farm there. The Spanish Kings offered significant land grants to anybody willing to relocate to portions of New Spain, particularly if they were a political friend, in order to encourage population of the Southwest and Florida earlier. The Spanish crown only authorised roughly 30 concessions, but corrupt and incompetent Mexican governors gave away hundreds of thousands of acres to friends, family, and political allies, resulting in the development of a vast network of ranchos across California. During the Mexican period, a practically feudal system of land tenure developed in California, characterised by an extraordinary concentration of land and power in the hands of a few number of families, almost all of whom managed large cattle ranches employing Indians and mestizo peasant-labourers. Numerous enormous ranchos were still around in the late 19th century.

Some attempted to imitate the large farming estates of the Deep South, but without the use of slave labour. The majority of large ranchos, which had previously been taken from Native Californians, were dispersed following the Mexican-American War (1848), either because the US government did not acknowledge the validity of the property claims or because wealthy American interests just want to seize the land. By purchasing strategically located ranchos and converting them into tens of thousands of modest suburban housing lots, real estate developers gained millions. Some, like the Ahmanson Ranch, which was previously a part of the 113,000-acre Rancho San Jose de Gracias de Simi, have managed to remain, occasionally as state parks or wilderness areas.

Maldistribution of land had a significant impact on the political, economic, and social institutions of the area in Latin America, where the Spanish system still prevailed. Land is riches when agriculture is the main business. Therefore, oligarchies as well as a disenfranchised peasantry formed in areas where significant portions of the land were granted to a few wealthy families. The plantation economic systems outlined earlier in the book advanced thanks to the Spanish Land Grant system, which combined led to extreme poverty for a great deal of people in Latin America. The consequences of the Spanish Land Grant system were negated by American democratic institutions, urbanisation, and industry, although inequality is still extremely high in areas of the US where this system formerly predominated.

CONCLUSION

In order to solve the issues with contemporary food systems, it is essential to comprehend the intricate connections between maize and sugar production, agricultural policy, and public health. This abstract emphasises the necessity for an all-encompassing strategy that takes agricultural policy into account from an economic, environmental, and public health standpoint. Policymakers and stakeholders may collaborate to develop a food system that promotes both agricultural sustainability and public health by supporting sustainable farming methods and encouraging better food environments. In conclusion, the interaction between the production of maize and sugar, agricultural policy, and public health is a complicated topic with broad ramifications. The necessity for a critical analysis of agricultural policies and their effects on food production, consumer habits, and public health consequences is emphasised in this abstract. Policymakers and stakeholders may work to develop a more sustainable and health-promoting food system by tackling these linked concerns.

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CHAPTER 24

ANALYSIS OF SICKNESS AND HEALTH IN SOCIETY

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ABSTRACT:

This abstract covers the multiple nature of illness and health, looking at the many elements that go into a person's wellbeing as well as the wider societal repercussions. In determining the health condition of people and groups, it acknowledges the interaction of biological, psychological, social, and environmental elements. Health and illness are impacted by a variety of interrelated circumstances rather than being entirely dictated by biological causes. The abstract recognises the significance of genetics and personal biology in predisposing people to certain health issues. It also draws attention to the importance of social factors that affect health, such as socioeconomic position, education, access to care, and environmental factors. In-depth discussion of how social and environmental variables affect health outcomes is provided in the abstract. It discusses how social injustices, prejudice, and marginalisation may exacerbate existing inequities in health and access to healthcare. It also looks at how environmental variables, such as pollution, availability to clean water, and secure living arrangements, affect people's general health and wellbeing. The abstract also explores how lifestyle decisions and behaviours affect health outcomes. It recognises the importance of a person's decisions about their diet, level of physical activity, use of substances, and stress management in enhancing or impairing health. It focuses on the value of health education, preventative measures, and encouraging surroundings in enabling people to make healthy decisions.

KEYWORDS:

Geography, Health, Illness, Sickness, Social.

INTRODUCTION

Everyone becomes sick and ultimately passes away, but how often and for what reasons depends greatly on where you live. Geography provides an effective set of methods to look at the geographic distribution of health and medical care. A thriving area of the study is medical geography, sometimes known as health geography. At several scales, there are visible spatial differences in the course of illness and response to therapy. Geographers employ location studies to ascertain the causes of disease as well as the methods of treatment. In addition to providing examples of how geographers apply their epistemology, methodologies, and communication strategies in the struggle to preserve people's health and well-being, this chapter explores the patterns of health, disease, and treatment in both the United States and other countries [1], [2].

One of the first and most well-known applications of spatial statistics to a serious social issue was the use of geographic methods to address a health crisis. The gastro-intestinal disease cholera, which is mostly brought on by drinking water tainted by human faeces, had a significant epidemic in London in 1854. At the time, no one really understood how little creatures like bacteria could produce such severe infections. Instead, the majority of medical professionals believed that infectious illnesses like cholera and the plague were mostly caused by toxic air, sometimes known as miasma. Numerous people, particularly the rich, sought for clean air in mountainous or seaside resort towns due to their dread of breathing in miasmas. London doctor John Snow practised medicine in one of the worst-hit areas of the 1854 cholera epidemic. Later, he came to the conclusion that the air could not be the source of the cholera since neighbouring neighbourhoods had comparable air quality. Snow believed that the water supply was tainted in some way, but although using a microscope, he was

unable to see the poison in the water. He mentally drew out all the homes where cholera cases were present to confirm his assumptions and found that they were grouped together around a single public water source. He postulated that the incidence of cholera would start to decline if the pump handle to the water well in the geographic centre of the epidemic was removed and locals were driven to find other sources of water. Snow persuaded the local government to take away the well's pump handle in order to test his theory, and the cholera outbreak did indeed decline as a result.

Later, Snow created a physical point map showing the locations of the homes of the cholera patients and the poisoned well. With the use of GIS, Snow's work can be easily repeated today, and the results of simple statistical analysis of his data show that his original premise was very accurate. The acceptance of the germ-theory of illness, which is largely recognised today, was made possible by Snow's map, which also reversed decades of faulty research on disease [3], [4]. Despite the fact that over 100,000 people die from cholera each year and that it still affects several million people globally, it is no longer the primary cause of mortality, in great part because to developments in basic sanitation technologies. Still, millions of people in underdeveloped countries lack access to clean drinking water, and water-borne intestinal diseases like cholera are a leading cause of death, particularly for young children who suffer from dehydration brought on by diarrhoea and vomiting.

Medical Metrics

One of the most important and challenging indicators of wellbeing is the health of a population in a nation, state, or neighbourhood. One may gauge their health using a variety of metrics or measurements. Although a combined health index is likely the most effective tool for gauging the health of people or groups, it may be challenging to choose which criteria to include in such index and whether mitigating factors should be taken into account. Another issue is whose health is taken into account when creating an overall health index. Despite spending more than anybody else in the world for healthcare, Americans are usually in worse health than citizens of other sophisticated countries. For minorities and impoverished Americans in particular, this is true.

Rate of Infant Mortality

Infant Mortality Rate (IMR), which counts the number of infants who pass away in their first year of life for every 1,000 live births, is one of the most fundamental indicators of community health. IMR varies widely over the world. Infant mortality varies widely, and a large portion of this diversity may be attributed to poverty and the other issues that come with it, particularly malnutrition. Infant survival rates are low due to a number of other variables, such as sickness, a lack of access to high-quality healthcare, and unhygienic living circumstances. Because of these factors, the infant mortality rate is a very reliable measure of a population's general health. The United States has low infant mortality rates, as it should be given that it spends far more on healthcare than any other nation in the world. Despite the fact that we all pay for healthcare, the US nevertheless has a three times higher IMR than Finland or Japan (6 per 1000 vs. 2 per 1000). Surprisingly, the IMR in America is also greater than it is in Lebanon, Cuba, and Botswana. The answer to this riddle is complicated, but it is obvious that a large portion of American new-borns' deaths are caused by poverty and the odd American healthcare system. The IMR of a nation also takes into account how women are seen in society. Later in the chapter on gender, that aspect of the conundrum is discussed.

DISCUSSION

View the state-by-state IMR map above. It is clear that in the US, poverty, ethnicity, and local politics are important determinants of new-born health. Compared to the impoverished, minority, and conservative states of Mississippi and Alabama, babies born in Vermont, a liberal, white, and rich state, had a 50% lower mortality rate. According to studies, the issue arises in the roughly 10-month period after a baby's discharge from the hospital, not in the

hospital care given to them. The health care system for new-borns from low-income households breaks down in these latter months, particularly if their parents are African-American. Not only is there poverty. Cuba's government focuses on providing everyone with affordable, accessible healthcare, which maintains its IMR lower than the US despite the fact that Cuba clearly has less income than the US.

Expected lifespan

Life expectancy, like IMR, is a helpful measure of a population's general health. A person's projected lifespan as of the day of birth is shown by this measure. It's a projection of the average age at which persons who were born in that year will pass away. In addition to other factors, calculations are mostly based on observed mortality rates. Things like war or the emergence of illnesses may have a significant impact on the life expectancy of a community. As AIDS spread over the continent, for instance, life expectancy in Africa recently stalled after years of progress. As the battles in the area have dragged on forever, life expectancy has fallen in recent years in Iraq and Syria [5], [6]. Today's new-borns in the United States may anticipate living for roughly 79 years. Again, this isn't ideal since life expectancy is often a function of a country's affluence and health care spending. Nearly all established countries and a few emerging ones, including Chile, Cuba, and Costa Rica, have life expectancies that are comparable to or even higher than those of Americans.

The fact that the US life expectancy actually decreased in 2016 is a sign of unsettling societal tendencies. American life expectancy is typically attributed to poverty and unhealthy habits. Given that cultural practises, government policies, and poverty all have an impact on lifespan, geography has a significant impact on life expectancy. The county with the lowest life expectancy in the US, McDowell County in West Virginia, has a median income of about \$23,000 annually, about 1 in 5 residents lack health insurance, few residents complete high school or college, more than 16% have diabetes, and more than 35% of adults smoke. This rural county has an abnormally high murder rate. Thus, new-borns in the affluent and health-conscious Marin County, California, may anticipate living approximately 15 years longer than those in McDowell County, West Virginia [7], [8].

Although it has a significant impact, ethnicity doesn't seem to be as significant as location. For instance, Asians might anticipate living around 13 years longer than African-Americans generally, perhaps as a result of differences in affluence, food, access to healthcare, and possibly genetics. The disparity increases when you consider geography, gender, and race. For instance, Asian-American females born in Boston are predicted to live, on average, to nearly 92, but African American boys born in Washington, DC, only have a life expectancy of 66.5 years! However, Asian-American boys born in Hawaii may anticipate living to be almost as old as African-American boys born in Minnesota today. The key takeaway from this study is that geography affects health and food habits just as much as ethnicity does, if not more. This has implications for how long people live.

Health, both Physical and Mental

A survey of a person or group of individuals is another technique to get information about their general health and well-being. Survey techniques are used by geographers to acquire data on a variety of study topics. When utilising survey data, even when it was gathered by someone else, researchers must use considerable care since well-done surveys are difficult to organise, carry out, and analyse. The Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) uses the assistance of local health departments to conduct the biggest telephone survey in the history of the globe. Its name is the Behavioural Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS), and it offers a lot of high-quality information regarding Americans' health and access to healthcare. A few of the questions are helpful in gauging people's quality of life throughout the US. Health geographers now have simple access to the very high quality data required to

address a wide range of health-related issues thanks to the CDC's availability of this data in a number of forms, including GIS formats [9], [10].

Optimum Days

Numerical response, none, uncertain, or refusal to respond. Similar inquiries are made about mental health. When these types of questions are combined and plotted for a region (county or state), they assist provide a convincing picture of the health of that area. These data are used by hundreds of academics and several organisations dedicated to enhancing community health and well-being. According to survey findings, the number of days that Americans spend ill over each 30-day period varies greatly. In certain locations, the average number of sick days each month is 2 or less. In some areas, particularly in the Deep South and Appalachia, the average number of sick days each month is one full week. Even while a few days' difference may not seem significant, when multiplied by the thousands of individuals who reside in most counties, it becomes a significant difference. At the very least, chronic sickness has a considerable impact on the local economy. For a minute, consider how a business seeking to establish a plant in Appalachia would assess the health indicator data for a region where the average person is ill for around three months out of every year. Because the poor health of Americans in other parts of the country is frequently transferred to the rest of the country via taxes and increased insurance costs, the unhealthy conditions of Americans living in poverty are not only a humanitarian concern but also a significant economic drain on the entire US economy.

Disability

Disability is one of the main effects of poor health. At the end of 2013, almost 12 million Americans were receiving disability benefits. The monthly reward provided to applicants was typically in the neighbourhood of \$1,000. After cutbacks to other welfare benefits reduced cash payments to the able-bodied poor, many of whom were struggling parents of young children, the programme, which had been started in 1957, dramatically expanded in the 1990s. The possibility that someone may become reliant on the government for help is increased by unhealthy lifestyles, hazardous working environments, unsafe cultural practises, and terrible luck. When we map these people as groups, we may start to observe quite erratic patterns that imply that cultural norms and economic circumstances are both significant causation factors in the development of a disability problem in the United States.

Since industrial and mining labour are often physically demanding and sometimes hazardous, it seems logical that employment in these fields is one predictor of worker impairment. Few additional career options are available for persons with simply a physical impairment in many of these same places due to a lack of economic diversity. The regional distribution of disability benefits is shown on the map, which is quite different from media preconceptions of people getting government assistance. A frequent and inaccurate cliché of the urban welfare queen, a politically charged representation of the exploitation of public aid, often by minorities, is countered by mapping disability coverage. According to the hotspot map for disability payments, welfare benefits are really distributed to mostly white, rural populations. The tight clustering that is seen on the map encourages additional investigation into why particular counties have such a high percentage of handicapped persons, even if it is impossible to determine the percentage of fake disability claims.

Even while the demographics of impoverished, rural counties trend towards the elderly and those who are ill-equipped to cope with a handicap, statistically speaking, it is very implausible that roughly one-third of any region's entire population could be rendered physically incapacitated by workplace accidents. Geographers age-adjust the statistics to reflect this reality since older persons are more likely to have a work-related injury from which they cannot recover. If a person has an injury that would not be considered an injury for someone with a degree in computer programming, they may be pronounced handicapped.

Fraud may be widespread since accidents should happen to individuals fairly randomly, yet disability claims in the US follow a clear geographical pattern. However, it is quite difficult to demonstrate fraud. A growing opioid drug addiction is closely related to the pandemic of disabilities in the US. Many of the same US areas that have a high percentage of unemployed people also have a sizable opioid addiction problem. The chapter on crime and punishment goes into further detail about this dilemma.

Autism

Autism, more formally known as Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASDs), is one of the diseases recognised by the US government. In actuality, autism is a set of linked illnesses characterised by a range of cognitive and behavioural impairment levels. Among the health issues with the fastest global growth are ASDs. Millions of hours of study have been devoted to understanding the reason, or causes, of ASDs, yet no one explanation has been identified. In general, scientists believe that genetics is the main contributing component, although establishing causation has proved to be quite challenging. This is due in part to the difficulty in diagnosing the symptoms itself, but it's also due to the geographic distribution of autism. Due to the fact that autism clusters are rather simple to locate on a map, medical geographers and spatial epidemiologists are highly engaged in autism research. For instance, Calabasas, Laguna Beach, and Mission Viejo are all in the larger Los Angeles area. Naturally, Los Angeles has a well-deserved reputation for air pollution, which has led some people to think that exposure to airborne contaminants is a contributing factor.

In fact, there is some evidence to indicate that exposure to certain toxins in the environment may serve as a trigger for the illness, but concrete solutions have remained difficult. Less elusive is how neighbourhood affects people. Given that many of the autism clusters in the greater Los Angeles area are in affluent areas, geographers believe that this is more likely a result of medical professionals serving the upper middle class having better diagnostic tools than it is a sign of a true rise in ASD. Parents, families, and school administrators seem to misdiagnose ASD in poorer places, where environmental factors are often much worse, or fail to recognise signs that are frequently seen in affluent neighbourhoods. The chance that parents would notice or accept an ASD diagnosis might also vary depending on racial and economic factors. Because the known pool of people who have been diagnosed with ASD is an unrepresentative sample of the real population with ASD, the uneven geographical distribution of diagnosis makes the process of determining the fundamental causes more difficult.

Vaccinations

The widely held but unfounded scientific theory that new-born immunisations cause ASDs has been one of the most contentious parts of ASDs. A few diseases have returned to the US due to parents' fear of immunising their children against common, sometimes fatal, illnesses. The measles is a prime example. Since no Americans contracted the illness in 2000, the CDC proclaimed measles to be eliminated from the US. However, citizens of the US who have not had the measles vaccine are still at danger if they go abroad or come into contact with foreigners or immigrants who have the disease and have entered the country. In the last 20 years, many parents have chosen not to vaccinate their children due to worries about the safety of vaccinations, enabling the illness to remerge. Early in 2015, a big measles epidemic developed in Southern California when a measles patient visited Disneyland in Anaheim and the disease spread among the area's unvaccinated youngsters.

Another illness that has recently returned is pertussis, sometimes known as whooping cough due to slack immunisation policies. The frequency of pertussis cases in the US has increased in recent years to levels not seen since the 1940s. An extremely erratic pattern may be seen when plotting pertussis rates. Infection rates among Latino babies in California were by far the highest in 2014, at 174 per 100,000. This high proportion is probably a result of

immigrant families' limited access to inexpensive, high-quality healthcare, particularly for new-borns and expectant women. Some of it is probably a result of communication difficulties between patients and medical staff. The health of new-borns and young children living in congested housing with extended families is at danger, particularly if the parents have just come from Latin America without having received the most current vaccines. People at the opposite end of the socioeconomic scale are likewise susceptible to pertussis. Many rich families purposely choose not to participate in vaccine campaigns, which feeds the pertussis epidemic in areas that are otherwise unusually wealthy, healthy, and well-served by medical facilities. More than half of parents in affluent Sonoma County signed personal belief exemption forms, but they still sent their kids to school without immunisation against common contagious diseases.

As a result, several schools had vaccination rates well below the crucial herd immunity threshold in 2014, where pertussis rates were exceptionally high. While pertussis is rare to kill healthy children in affluent areas, it is nevertheless very infectious and may travel to other areas or even other nations, putting new-borns from low-income families at considerable danger for the illness. Because of this, California revoked the majority of exemptions for students enrolled in public schools in 2015. Herd immunity, which describes populations of individuals in whom 90% or more have acquired immunity to an infectious illness, often via vaccines, is used by parents who are not immunised. Those without immunisations or immunity are far less likely to get an illness thanks to group immunity. This behaviour is often presented as an illustration of the free rider dilemma, in which people exploit communal resources without helping to keep them maintained. The free rider issue is similar to the tragedy of the commons scenario covered in the political geography chapter.

Location of Disease

Because it spreads from person to person, pertussis is an example of an infectious illness. Additionally, certain infectious illnesses may be passed from animals to humans. In underdeveloped nations, infectious illnesses, usually referred to as communicable diseases, rank highly among the primary causes of mortality. Non-communicable illnesses including cancer, heart disease, and stroke are increasingly common causes of death in the United States, Europe, and other industrialised areas. Because they affect individuals over a longer period of time and often afflict persons who are older, the majority of non-communicable diseases are classified as chronic diseases. On the other hand, infectious illnesses may harm anybody, but they are more likely to claim the lives of the disadvantaged, the unwell, and/or young individuals. The paragraphs that follow provide a number of brief vignettes on various illnesses in order to illustrate how geography helps us comprehend health and sickness.

Influenza

The airborne infectious illness known as influenza, or the flu, is often transmitted by someone sneezing or coughing tiny microorganisms into the air. Nearly 4,000 individuals die from the flu each year. Flu epidemics often usually last a few months and are localised. Epidemics are these transient localised disease outbreaks. On rare occasions, illnesses like the flu spiral out of control, spreading across large territories for many months. These kinds of massive, global disease outbreaks are referred to as pandemics. The most well-known flu pandemic was the deadly Spanish Flu, which struck during World War I and claimed 50–100 million lives. Almost the whole world was afflicted, and impoverished nations like China and India had particularly high mortality rates. Over one-fourth of the population in the United States was afflicted. It claimed the lives of almost half a million Americans, significantly more than they lost fighting in World War I. A new strain of the Spanish Flu, now known as H1N1, has just surfaced. Panic spread around the globe when it was dubbed a global epidemic. Although the origin of the flu strain and the location of patient zero are unknown, epidemiologists have linked the initial pandemic symptoms to Veracruz, Mexico.

There, factory-style hog raising may have produced the optimal environment for the first identified cases to emerge and spread around January 2009. It was evident that the virus was quickly spreading throughout Mexico by April 2009. In reaction, authorities in Mexico City severely reduced public activities. Travel warnings were issued by the European Union Health Commission, advising individuals not to visit Mexico or the United States, where the flu was starting to spread. Around the world, various quarantine orders kept people in hotels, aboard cruise ships, and airports. The number of new flu cases started to decline after around six months, and by February 2010 the pandemic was gone. Officially, the 2009–2010 flu pandemic claimed the lives of 18,000 people globally, while alternative estimates place the death toll as high as 500,000. This is because a large portion of the fatalities occurred in regions of Africa and Asia where there are few labs that can establish the precise reasons of death. Americans seem to have only lost 10,000 people to H1N1, which was about average for a flu season, in the United States, where the public health system reacted fast and effectively.

Even though the 2009 H1N1 strain seemed to be less hazardous than its 1918 progenitor, the effort of health agencies all around the globe was crucial in preventing a catastrophe. Geographers at the CDC in Atlanta, Georgia, were aware that California or Texas would likely see the first instances of a disease that was spreading from Mexico. In fact, San Diego and Imperial Counties in California, both of which have a direct border with Mexico, saw the emergence of the first American cases. Texas has other early examples. Health geographers at the CDC were able to predict where, when, and how serious epidemics will develop in different sections of the country using data from prior flu outbreaks, computer models, and GIS technology. Health authorities may more effectively send vaccinations and other resources needed to fight the flu to areas where people are more at risk by being able to forecast the geographical patterns of epidemics or pandemics. In 2009–2010, the CDC and other public health organisations made an enormous effort that undoubtedly saved thousands of lives.

Malaria

Another infectious illness that claims at least one million lives annually around the globe is malaria. Millions of people get unwell as a result, severely hampering many African and Asian areas' ability to thrive. A parasite invasion of the blood causes malaria. When female mosquitoes feed on blood, they inject parasites into the circulation via their saliva, which is how malaria is spread. As a result, mosquitoes serve as disease vectors by transferring contagious parasites across hosts. Other typical disease vectors include flies, ticks, fleas, and lice. The parasite that causes malaria has several life stages, which contributes to the disease's complexity. The parasite may infect different bodily areas and can lie dormant for extended periods of time. It often spends some of its life in human hosts and some of it in mosquitoes. The host may sometimes be an animal. The varied spatial behaviours and environmental requirements of mosquitoes, hosts, and parasites make malaria challenging to manage. Geospatial techniques and technologies are necessary for every solution. Malaria has been present for thousands of years and probably had a role in the collapse of the Roman Empire, but in the 1950s, it was almost completely eliminated. Or so it was thought.

After World War II, powerful medications and extensive pesticide spraying programmes seemed to be doing wonders to combat this epidemic. But when the disease-causing bacteria and the mosquitoes that transmit it changed, many medications and insecticides were essentially ineffective in the battle against malaria as it exists today. The English believed that malaria did not exist in North America when they first began colonising the country. They were still unsure of the disease's origin. They believed it to be the result of a miasma, as they believed cholera to be. Due to the reservoirs of malarial blood that both European and African immigrants carried over the Atlantic Ocean in their bodies, the illness simply needed

to find an appropriate mosquito vector to start spreading. Within a decade, malaria had developed into a significant issue in the colonies, particularly in the Southeast where rice crops provided perfect mosquito breeding grounds. Africans were somewhat resistant to malaria, which made them desirable as slaves in the burgeoning plantation system of the 1800s.

CONCLUSION

It is essential for decision-makers, healthcare workers, and anyone wishing to promote wellbeing to comprehend the complex nature of illness and health. The need of a comprehensive strategy that tackles socioeconomic determinants of health, advances health equality, and gives people the capacity to make healthy decisions is emphasised in this abstract. Stakeholders may collaborate to develop settings and systems that promote the health and well-being of people and communities by understanding how many elements are interrelated. In summary, a complex combination of biological, social, psychological, and environmental elements affects both disease and health. This abstract emphasises how important it is to deal with socioeconomic determinants of health, encourage healthy living, and put in place efficient healthcare systems. Societies may work towards obtaining ideal health outcomes and fostering well-being for everyone by taking a holistic approach.

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CHAPTER 25

ANALYSIS OF GEOGRAPHIC ECONOMICS

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ABSTRACT:

This summary gives a general introduction of the study of geography economics, a branch of economics that looks at the geographical aspects of economic activity and how they affect local development, trade, and globalisation. It examines the fundamental ideas and methods of geographic economic analysis and emphasises the importance of comprehending the spatial components of economic systems. The study of geographic economics is concerned with how place, geography, and spatial relationships affect economic results. The abstract acknowledges the significance of geographic considerations, including natural resources, climate, transportation systems, and accessibility to markets in shaping economic activity and patterns of growth. In order to understand the local context and dynamics of economic processes, it also recognises the use of qualitative methodologies, case studies, and fieldwork. Furthermore, the abstract emphasises how important geography economics is for comprehending regional differences, commerce, and globalisation. It addresses how geographic considerations affect the distribution of industries, patterns of specialisation, and the development of economic clusters. The effects of globalisation and international commerce on regional economies are also examined, along with the significance of supply chains, transportation networks, and the geographical distribution of economic activity.

KEYWORDS:

Economic, Factory, Geography, Government, Product.

INTRODUCTION

The social science of economics focuses on the creation, exchange, and consumption of commodities and services. It covers a broad spectrum of our everyday actions, including our occupations and financial decisions. Almost all economic transactions include a geographical component, and transactions take place at various spatial sizes. Understanding how wealth is produced, dispersed, and transferred across people, communities, and even nations is made easier by economic geography [1], [2]. Understanding how the economy functions is crucial to comprehending how society as a whole function. Nearly every question concerning politics, religion, culture, ethnicity, or any other topic may be answered persuading by someone who understands how the economy operates. Without a doubt, economics played a significant role in your choice to attend college.

It definitely explains a significant portion of your enrolment in this class or choice of institution. If you believe that money has a significant influence on almost everything and everywhere, Marxism's political-economic philosophy, especially Historical Materialism, may be of interest to you. If you're not cautious, you can be charged with succumbing to economic determinism, which, like some of the other deterministic viewpoints discussed elsewhere in this work, can result in an excessive dependence on a single causative variable. If you've been paying attention to this work, you've probably noticed that the author supports historical materialism as a method for comprehending current social and cultural situations. Applied economic geography, however, is the main topic of this chapter [3], [4].

Financial Sectors

The majority of people are required to work, but the kind of occupations that are accessible to you typically depend on where you reside. Because practically every city, town, and hamlet linked to the global economy has to sell something of value to outsiders so that products unavailable locally may be obtained, various regions specialise in different sorts of

enterprises. A place must be able to meet all of its requirements on its own if it is unable or unwilling to trade with other parties, a situation known as autarky, or total economic independence. Nearly every community participates in commerce of some kind since practically no group is able or willing to survive independently from all other economies. Without the capacity to conduct commerce, places that cannot generate any item or service worth trading would be economically weak and may even vanish.

Basic industries are businesses that draw outside commerce, bringing money from another location into the local area. These are export-oriented sectors. The Saudi Arabian oil extraction business is a clear illustration of a fundamental industry. Every local economic system basically has to include one or more base industries, often known as fundamental industries. These sectors determine a region's economic independence from its neighbours. Without base industry, everyone in an area would leave or migrate to a neighbouring region to find work, and their hometown would lose its local economy. On the other hand, non-basic industries are commercial pursuits that do not draw revenue from beyond the regional economy. For instance, since dental clinics seldom get out-of-town visitors, they are not fundamental industries. Because they are used to move money across an area's economy, the majority of service sector employment are not fundamental in nature [5], [6].

First Sector

Communities have often built their own economies from scratch. Many local and national economies are based on agriculture, mining, fishing, logging, or other extractive activities that draw riches from the ground. Due to the unequal distribution of the earth's natural resources, certain locations may experience economic growth far more quickly than others. Wealth is likely to amass locally in those areas where the earth offers opportunity to extract or harvest a highly valuable resource, like oil. Where the planet doesn't provide much, few economies flourish. The main economic sector is made up of extractive industries. Like the majority of other industrialised nations, the United States is endowed with an abundance of natural resources upon which to base a thriving economy.

A primary sector that is undeveloped is a major contributor to poverty in many different parts of the world. In certain regions, people just are unable to extract anything from the earth or water that is valuable to outsiders. Many of the world's poorest nations suffer economically because of a lack of natural resources [7], [8]. A thriving primary industry often generates high-calibre employment for locals and generates sufficient outside revenue for them to wisely invest in the growth of other economic sectors. But in many places, an excessive dependence on the extractive industry causes as many issues as it resolves. All too often, pollution, environmental deterioration, and eventually resource depletion occur. The long-term health of persons working in the primary sector is sometimes jeopardised by physically demanding and hazardous tasks in this industry.

Mining of Coal

The dangers of relying on one extractive sector are best shown by the coal mining that takes place in states like West Virginia and Kentucky. For generations of men who braved the mines, work in underground coal mines was particularly hazardous. Because of the dearth of worthwhile employment possibilities in this area, coal mining emerged as the most alluring profession. Coal firms hired a lot of people to work in the Appalachian coal mines, many of whom came from Europe or the Deep South. Because farming was not lucrative in the native Appalachian area, coal mining occupations permitted people to remain there. However, families often stayed destitute as a consequence of coal mining company regulations. Although miners often earned respectable pay, many mining towns were created by the mine owners as company towns, where the firm controlled almost all the homes, businesses, and services. Some businesses even paid employees in corporate scrip rather than US dollars, which drove employees to exclusively buy at establishments that they owned. Coal miners'

salaries and benefits were increased thanks to widespread strikes during both world wars, but mine safety is still a concern. Over the years, US mining accidents caused tens of thousands of injuries or fatalities many more developed a range of long-term health issues, such as black lung.

The fact that the great wealth gained from coal mostly fled Appalachia adds to the personal tragedies. The owners and executives of coal companies who resided abroad received the bulk of the enormous revenues from coal. The potential multiplier impact that coal mining may have had on the Appalachian economy was significantly reduced by the migration of earnings out of the local economy. Locals had less money to invest in socially beneficial infrastructure, such as schools and universities, as a result of those profits being spent or invested elsewhere. This could have opened the door for the development of new economic opportunities in the area, a process known as economic diversification. Today, coal-dependent mining communities that formerly thrived are often abandoned. The regional coal industry in Appalachia has been severely hampered in recent decades by the depletion of available coal deposits, competition from less expensive alternative energy sources such as natural gas, solar, and wind energy, and environmental rules prohibiting the use of local, high-sulphur coal. Other extractive industries, such as forestry, fishing, farming, and quarrying, are characterised by similar circumstances and procedures.

DISCUSSION

In the best case scenario, having an extractive industry helps draw in high paying manufacturing employment in the secondary sector of the economy. Generally speaking, manufacturing refers to the process of converting raw materials into usable products, such as iron pipes, gasoline, corn meal, fish sticks, etc. However, secondary industries also include activities we might not typically think of as manufacturing, such as oil refining and food processing. Primary sector workers extract materials, such as iron ore, crude oil, corn, fresh fish, etc. from the secondary sector industries and turn them into these useful products. Manufacturing offers enormous advantages and terrible repercussions if industrialists and local authorities handle them badly, similar to extractive industries. Manufacturing generally results in high unit profits or value added per unit since it transforms things with low use value like a log into things with high use values like a dining room table. A significant portion of the value created during the production process may sometimes be returned to employees in the form of increased salaries provided labour circumstances are favourable. Good-paying industrial occupations allowed American workers to live extremely high-quality lives over the majority of the 20th century. Due to global competition, shareholder greed, and pro-business government legislation, many of those jobs have been destroyed.

Various Production Factors

The major expenses associated with establishing and maintaining any firm are typically land, labour, and capital. Manufacturers are particularly aware of this. These expenses are referred to collectively as the production factors. When choosing a place to develop a factory, industrialists must consider the cost and availability of each aspect since they are essential to a company's potential to be profitable. Industrial site location analysis, which is the process of choosing a place for a plant, is a highly profitable career path for economic geographers.

Labour

A manufacturing owner's ideal scenario would be to recruit highly trained personnel and pay them as little as feasible. Of course, compensation includes salary, but it also often includes the cost of fringe benefits like health insurance, retirement plans, and other perks. Low-skill manufacturing is used when the activities required to make a product may be completed with minimal training or experience. Companies that just need low-skill labourers often look for areas with cheap costs of living because residents there are willing to accept lower salaries. Because certain businesses need highly qualified individuals, there are fewer places where

they can be found. If the cost of labour makes up a sizable amount of the total cost of manufacturing an item and there are no substantial barriers to that industry's migration, it tends to often relocate in search of labour that is ever more affordable. Footloose industries are those that may relocate without suffering an adverse impact on their profitability. A sector that has no rules is the textile industry.

Textile Production

The industrial revolution in the United States began with the production of apparel, which was a significant early component. In order to take use of the many waterfalls that occur along the Atlantic Seaboard's fall line, the majority of the early textile plants in the US were constructed in New England. Water wheels that were propelled by gravity gave energy to enterprises located near to several mill ponds. These industries used mill girls, who were sourced from local rural communities, as cheap female labour. For many years, textile manufacturing persisted in New England, ultimately relying on cheap immigrant labour as native-born employees left textile factories in search of better-paying positions in other sectors. Electrical power eventually replaced waterpower, allowing industry owners to leave autumn line communities. In the early 1900s, New England industrial owners started relocating their operations to southern locations like Charlotte, North Carolina, where land and labour were less expensive. Additionally lowering transportation expenses, southern industries were located closer to cotton growers in neighbouring states.

Unfortunately, the labour and transportation advantages that attracted companies to the South also drove them out, which was bad news for the textile workers in the southern US. An estimated 300,000 jobs in the textile and clothing sector were lost when the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) was passed in 1994, many of which were sent to Latin America and Asia where wages are substantially lower. Other low-skill sectors relocated there because factory owners and stockholders could make more money there than in the United States, Mexico, or China. Free trade agreements, such as NAFTA, provide cost-benefit studies that often attempt to balance the cost of lost employment against the decrease in the cost of products for consumers. The sporadic addition of new manufacturing employment in the United States is not discussed. Through NAFTA, certain high-skill occupations that were formerly in Mexico moved to the US. For instance, Cummins produced huge truck diesel engines in Mexico before NAFTA. After the free trade agreement removed Mexican import taxes on engines built in the United States, Cummins shuttered its manufacturing there and moved production to Jamestown, New York.

The main economic geography paradigm guiding the placement and relocation of industrial activities is the concept of comparative advantage. Fundamentally, the logic of the comparative advantage concept compels free trade participating nations to specialise in the production of the items they can produce most effectively. In other words, under the theory of comparative advantage, production must be concentrated in the places where it is cheapest and best. Instead than attempting to manufacture goods that they cannot produce efficiently or affordably, locations could import them. Inefficient industries gradually disappear in favour of more productive ones, which benefits industrial systems. Because buyers may purchase better quality items for less money, efficiency is lucrative. Workers who lose their jobs to competitors who pay less probably won't find any solace in this. Industrial rivalry in a free trade environment has ruined the economics of whole towns or regions. A tragic-comedy about the effects of General Motors' decision to shift the majority of manufacturing jobs from Michigan to Mexico, *Roger & Me* is a well-known documentary by Michael Moore.

Containerization

Although wage competition and concerns about the quality of American-made products hurt the country's manufacturing sector in the 1970s and 1980s, one of the most significant yet least discussed factors in the decline of US manufacturing was the widespread use of the

modest intermodal container. These rectangular metal boxes, which were created in the 1950s, completely changed how commodities are transported. These containers were designed to be swiftly loaded with goods and piled on top of one another. Maximising the effectiveness of transportation systems. Additionally, since containers are intermodal, the same steel boxes may be used to move products on trucks, trains, barges, and ships. A uniform size and design were eventually adopted by several shipping firms, enabling rival businesses to mix and match goods on a single transport vehicle.

The impact on the price and delivery time was significant. In the 1950s, it took many hundreds of dockworkers and hours to unload a huge cargo ship that had arrived at a coastal port. The method was sluggish both expensive and ineffective. Every time a shipment was loaded or unloaded, each break in bulk worked as a sizable tax on the cost of each commodity that was being carried. You may recall that breaking bulk had a substantial impact on the development of big cities by necessitating the demand for labour and storage space. Thanks to containerization, it only takes a few personnel a few hours to unload enormous container ships, reload the goods onto intermodal trains, or a fleet of intermodal vehicles. As the cost of shipping products from countries like China or Mexico significantly decreased, thousands of people lost their well-paying employment at the ports and many more thousands lost their manufacturing positions to foreign competition.

Developing Import Substitution

The concept of comparative advantage is one that many nations or areas believe to be detrimental to their economy and populations. Such governments often use a range of trade restrictions to shield domestic businesses from foreign competition. Protectionists use a variety of tactics to lessen foreign competition, including import taxes, import quotas, and safety regulations. Import substitution industrialisation is a strategy that several nations, notably in Latin America, have chosen to severely restrict the importation of manufactured products. Generally speaking, they made an effort to safeguard their so-called new-born industries, at least until they had developed enough to compete on a global scale.

Locally, the policy was somewhat successful, particularly in promoting the growth of low-skill manufacturing. Even with trade protectionist measures, it was challenging to build capital-intensive, heavy sectors like vehicle manufacture in many of these nations due to their tiny domestic markets. Even while the majority of economically advanced nations, like the US, adopted comparable protectionist measures throughout the 19th century, capitalist nations like the US also banned import substitution schemes. By the 1990s, many overt import substitution strategies had been abandoned globally, in part due to the International Monetary Fund's demand. This multilateral financial institution forbade lending money to nations that continued to enact protectionist measures. Even though it is now officially frowned upon by virtually all industrialised nations, almost all governments participate in a range of deft protectionist strategies meant to defend domestic businesses from foreign competition.

Land

Another important element for individuals who wish to construct a factory is the price of the land. production owners have more alternatives for locations when the raw resources required at the production are easily accessible or inexpensive to transport (like water). However, in most cases this is not the case since profitability varies greatly across locales. Some land just costs too much to be used for industries. For instance, factories are seldom constructed close to central areas because cheaper land is accessible in the periphery of cities, where there is more of it. Because freight (truck) access is challenging and sluggish, factories that stay in dense, inner city neighbourhoods often experience spatial diseconomies of scale. Despite being near to low-cost labour (poor inner city residents?), the expense of receiving inputs and conveying completed goods via a jam-packed highway and street network raises

expenses and lowers revenues. Locations next to little used motorways are suitable and economical. Access to and from the plant is also simple for both workers and materials. Transport alternatives become even more affordable if connection to rail or water is available.

Bulk Gaining - Bulk Reducing

Where certain things are created also depends on the nature of the production process. It makes sense to manufacture the product near to the source point of the raw materials, for instance, if the final product produced by a factory is less expensive to transport than the raw material. Due to the fact that the final product weighs less than the raw ingredients, these types of firms are known as bulk reduction industries. These goods are considered to be oriented towards raw materials[9], [10]. The timber sector is a good illustration. Shipping logs straight from the forest to a site like Home Depot, where workers would cut them into boards, would be inefficient for a number of reasons. The main reason for this is the high cost and cumbersome nature of transporting wood. As an alternative, logs are trucked to sawmill situated close to the woods where trees are harvested.

The sawmill converts logs into boards, which may be effectively delivered to market by being neatly piled within a truck or railway car. Although a sizeable portion of each log cannot be utilised as lumber, the leftover shavings, sawdust, wood chips, etc. are used to create plywood, particle board, and other wood products. Each of those ancillary goods may be transported at a reasonable price. The location guidelines are the reverse for another group of industries. These are bulk-gaining sectors that are more focused on the market. These sectors produce goods that get heavier or more costly while they are being made, yet the primary ingredient is easily accessible. Coca-Cola is a prime example. The majority of the world's supply of concentrated Coca-Cola syrup is made in Atlanta, Georgia, and the secret recipe for Coke is stored there in a vault close to the company's headquarters. Water, however, makes up the majority of a bottle of Coke. Since water is the primary component of soda, Coca-Cola's decision to produce the beverage in Atlanta and export it to other countries defies economic geography theory. Instead, Coca-Cola merely distributes the concentrated syrup from Atlanta to hundreds of bottling facilities throughout the globe in big drums. At these facilities, local water, sweeteners, and carbonation are then added to the syrup before the cans or bottles are sealed and prepared for shipping.

Every bottling facility is given a franchise, and each franchise is given a certain geographic distribution territory where it has the exclusive right to produce and market Coke products. It makes sense why soda brands like Coke and Pepsi often taste different when you purchase one to drink in another location because this method utilises local water. Because factory owners with location limitations cannot successfully transfer production elsewhere in quest of cheaper pay, workers engaged in companies with particular geographical constraints often earn greater salaries than those employed in footloose industries. This isn't always the case, as shown in the logging sector. Because sawmills don't need a lot of cash, trees may be located anywhere and transferred without suffering a significant loss in earnings.

Location Model by Weber

Prior to choosing a production location, the majority of enterprises must weigh complicated sets of material and transport costs. Site location experts now have a fundamental tool to take into account a variety of weighted inputs thanks to Alfred Weber's Least Cost Location Model. The location of the optimal factory should be closer to the input or output with the greatest related travel costs as Weber's model, in its most basic version, solely considers transportation costs. Because transport expenses are greatest from point S4 in the example shown on the right, the factory (F1) is situated closest to that point. The least expensive site would shift to the top of the triangle if the cost of transit to T1 rose considerably. Although there are undoubtedly a lot of other aspects to take into account when developing a new plant, Weber's model is still a valuable resource.

Capital, or investment funds, is the last component of production and is often taken into account by people choosing where to locate industrial sites. Industrialization requires investors. To establish a company, money must be available to someone. Investors provide capital, which may come from well-off people, shareholder groups, or institutions that specialise in providing investment funds. A unique kind of investor known as a venture capitalist focuses on providing high risk loans to beginning businesses in the goal of earning significant profits if and when the start-up enterprise makes it big. There are more venture capitalists or regular investors in certain places than others. California has a large number of venture investors, who are in part to blame for the state's thriving tech sector.

There are more types of capital. For instance, improvements to existing industries have made employees far more productive and sometimes superfluous when robotic gear takes their place. The productivity and revenues from this kind of capital are increased, but jobs might be lost. Other less obvious production parameters are impacted by capital, and not all of it originates from businesses that profit. For many businesses, governments constitute a significant source of indirect capital. Many Americans simply ignore the indirect role that government plays in the creation, growth, and upkeep of all types of enterprises. Tax-funded projects that businesses exploit to generate profits include roads, ports, airports, colleges, and public schools. In some regions of the globe, particularly Asia, governments collaborate closely with corporations to advance their interests.

Factories do not just locate in areas with the lowest labour because of indirect government capital. Many US employment have recently been sent to China, where salaries are cheap. That reasoning, however, does not require manufacturing owners to relocate to places like Zaire, Haiti, or Guatemala, where wages are even lower. Why? The solution is money from the government. Effective governments, like the one in China, collaborate closely with businesses to entice the capital required to construct and equip factories.

Some developing nations' governments can lack the tools necessary to draw in international investment. Additionally, many governments are utterly corrupt. Therefore, even if industrial owners wished to go where labour is cheapest, there are often no infrastructural improvements provided by the government in areas with very low salaries. For shipping and receiving, industries need high-quality highways, bridges, and port infrastructure. Industrial facilities need sufficient electrical power as well as dependable phone and internet connectivity. Governments must invest in their children, not just the males, since factories need educated labour. Workers need to be in generally good health, hence nations with publicly funded healthcare are particularly appealing to business owners of factories since the workers are healthy and the factories do not have to foot the bill for pricey healthcare for each employee.

In addition, human capital is required, but maybe less so than financial investments. Factory owners require employees who are used to the disciplined grind of the workplace. The availability of a pool of skilled women to work in factories seems to be a crucial aspect of industrialisation. This is located where cultural capital and economic capital converge. The likelihood that such regions will participate in the global economy is low if familial, governmental, and cultural structures prevent or forbid women from working for pay. Numerous highly educated female labourers may be hard to find in areas where orthodox forms of Islam, Hinduism, and even Christianity are prevalent. Worker loyalty, honesty, and adaptability are a few more cultural traits that increase the possibility of industrialisation.

CONCLUSION

It emphasizes how crucial it is to take spatial considerations into account when developing efficient economic policies, such as trade policies, regional development plans, and infrastructure designs. It admits the need of place-based strategies that take into consideration the unique qualities and difficulties of various geographical areas. Policymakers, scholars,

and practitioners who want to comprehend the spatial aspects of economic systems must be familiar with the study of geography economics. This abstract outline the main ideas, approaches, and political ramifications of regional economic research. Stakeholders may improve decision-making and focus interventions by combining spatial views to better understand the forces that shape economic growth, regional inequalities, and globalisation dynamics. In conclusion, the study of geography economics offers important insights into how economic activity is spatially distributed and how it affects local growth, trade, and globalisation. The significance of comprehending how geographic variables and spatial interactions affect economic results is emphasised by this abstract. Stakeholders may collaborate to create more equitable and sustainable economic systems that take into account the distinctive qualities and potentials of various areas by integrating regional economic analysis into policy.

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