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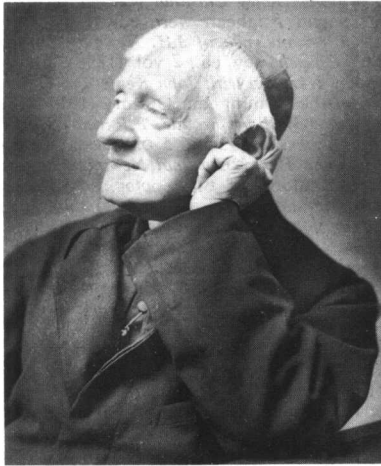
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Newman, John Henry

A leader of the Oxford Movement in the Church of England and then, after his conversion, a leader of the Roman Catholic Church, Cardinal Newman was one of the most remarkable churchmen and men of letters of the 19th century.

By courtesy of the Gernsheim Collection,
the University of Texas at Austin



Newman, photograph by Herbert Barraud.

Life before conversion. Newman was born in London on Feb. 21, 1801. After pursuing his education in an evangelical home and at Trinity College, Oxford, he was made a fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, in 1822; vice principal of Alban Hall in 1825; and vicar of St. Mary's, Oxford, in 1828.

Under the influence of the clergyman John Keble and Richard Hurrell Froude, Newman became a convinced high churchman (one of those who emphasized the Anglican Church's continuation of the ancient Christian tradition, particularly as regards the episcopate, priesthood, and sacraments).

When the Oxford Movement began he was its effective organizer and intellectual leader, supplying the most acute thought produced by it. A high church movement within the Church of England, the Oxford Movement was started at Oxford in 1833 with the object of stressing the Catholic elements in the English religious tradition, and of reforming the Church of England after the pattern of the Church of the first five centuries AD. Newman's editing of the *Tracts for the Times* and his contributing of 24 tracts among them were less significant for the influence of the movement than his books, especially the *Lectures on the Prophetic Office of the Church* (1837), the classic statement of the Tractarian doctrine of authority; the *University Sermons* (1843), similarly classical for the theory of religious belief; and above all his *Parochial and Plain Sermons* (1834-42), which in their published form took the principles of the movement, in their best expression, into the country at large. In 1838 and 1839 Newman was beginning to exercise far-reaching influence in the Church of England, because the stress upon the dogmatic authority of the church was felt to be a much-needed re-emphasis in a new liberal age, because he seemed so decisively to know what he stood for and where he was going, because in the quality of his personal devotion his

followers found a man who practiced what he preached, and because he had been endowed with the gift of writing sensitive and sometimes magical prose.

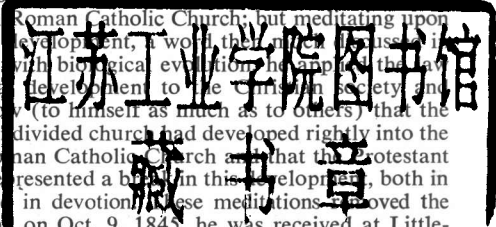
Newman was contending that the Church of England represented true catholicity and that the test of this catholicity (as against Rome upon the one side and what he termed "the popular Protestants" upon the other) lay in the teaching of the ancient and undivided church of the Fathers. From 1834 onward this middle way was beginning to be attacked on the ground that it undervalued the Reformation; and when in 1838-39 Newman and Keble published Froude's *Remains*, in which the Reformation was violently denounced, moderate men began to suspect their leader. Their worst fears were confirmed in 1841 by Newman's *Tract 90*, which, in reconciling the Thirty-Nine Articles with the teaching of the ancient and undivided church, appeared to some to assert that the articles were not incompatible with the doctrines of the Council of Trent; and Newman's extreme disciple, W.G. Ward, claimed that this was indeed the consequence. Bishop Richard Bagot of Oxford requested that the tracts be suspended; and in the distress of the consequent denunciations Newman increasingly withdrew into isolation, his confidence in himself shattered and his belief in the catholicity of the English church weakening. He moved out of Oxford to his chapelry of Littlemore, where he gathered a few of his intimate disciples and established a quasi-monastery.

He resigned St. Mary's, Oxford, on Sept. 18, 1843, and preached his last Anglican sermon ("The Parting of Friends") in Littlemore Church a week later. He delayed long, because his intellectual integrity found an obstacle in the historical contrast between the early church and the modern Roman Catholic Church; but meditating upon the idea of development, a word then new to him, in connection with biological evolution, he applied the law of historical development to the Christian society and tried to show (to himself as much as to others) that the early and undivided church had developed rightly into the modern Roman Catholic Church and that the Protestant churches represented a break in this development, both in doctrine and in devotion. These meditations removed the obstacle and on Oct. 9, 1845, he was received at Littlemore into the Roman Catholic Church, publishing a few weeks later his *Essay on the Development of Christian Doctrine*.

Life after conversion. Newman went to Rome to be ordained to the priesthood and after some uncertainties founded the Oratory at Birmingham in 1848. He was suspect to the more rigorous among Roman Catholic clergy because of the quasi-liberal spirit that he seemed to have brought with him (his mode of expressing the idea of doctrinal development, his teaching on the nature of faith); and therefore, though in fact he was no liberal in any normal sense of the word, his early career as a Roman Catholic priest was marked by a series of frustrations, as he at least felt them to be. In 1852-53 he was convicted of libelling the apostate former Dominican priest Achilli. He was summoned to Ireland to be the first rector of the new Catholic university in Dublin, but the task was in the conditions impossible, and the only useful result was his lectures on the *Idea of a University* (1852). His role as editor of the Roman Catholic monthly, the *Rambler*, and in the endeavour of Lord Acton to encourage critical scholarship among Catholics, rendered him further suspect and caused a breach with H.E. Manning, once himself a Tractarian and soon to be the new arch-

Newman's
conversion

The
Oxford
Movement



bishop of Westminster. One of Newman's articles ("On Consulting the Faithful in Matters of Doctrine") was reported to Rome on suspicion of heresy. He attempted to found a Roman Catholic hostel at Oxford but was thwarted by the opposition of Manning.

*Apologia
pro Vita
Sua and
Grammar
of Assent*

In 1864 Newman was delivered from the sense of frustration engendered by these experiences by an unwarranted attack from Charles Kingsley upon his moral teaching. Kingsley challenged him to justify the honesty of his life as an Anglican. Although he treated Kingsley more severely than some thought justified, the resulting history of his religious opinions, *Apologia pro Vita Sua* (1864), was read and approved far beyond the limits of the Roman Catholic Church; its fairness, candour, interest, and the beauty of some passages recaptured the almost national status that he had once held. Although the *Apologia* was not liked by Manning and by those who thought as he did, because it seemed to show the quasi-liberal spirit that they feared, it assured Newman's stature in the Roman Catholic Church. In 1870 he opposed a definition of papal infallibility, though he himself was a believer in the doctrine. During the same year he published his most important book of theology since 1845, *An Essay in Aid of a Grammar of Assent* (commonly known as *The Grammar of Assent*), which contained a further consideration of the nature of faith and an attempt to show how faith can possess certainty when it rises out of evidence that can never be more than probable. In 1879 Pope Leo XIII made him cardinal-deacon of St. George in Velabro. He died at Birmingham on Aug. 11, 1890, and is buried (with his closest friend, Ambrose St. John) at Rednal, the rest house of the Oratory.

Mind and
character

Newman's portraits show a face of sensitivity and aesthetic delicacy. He was a poet—his most famous contributions are in the *Lyra Apostolica* of his Anglican days, including the hymn "Lead, kindly light," written in 1833 when he was becalmed in the strait between Sardinia and Corsica, and *The Dream of Gerontius* (1865), based on the requiem offices and including such well-known hymns as "Praise to the holiest in the height" and "Firmly I believe and truly"—and his thought as a philosopher or theologian was never far from the poetic apprehension. He was always conscious of the limitations of prose and aware of the necessity for parable and analogy. Logical theologians sometimes found him elusive or thought him muddled.

But Newman's mind possessed both penetration and power, trained upon Aristotle, David Hume, Bishop Joseph Butler, and Richard Whately, and his superficial contempt for logic and dialectic erroneously led some into thinking his mind illogical. His intellectual defect was rather that of oversubtlety; he enjoyed the niceties of argumentation, was inclined to be captivated by the twists of his own ingenuity, and had a habit of using the *reductio ad absurdum* in dangerous places. Newman's mind at its best may be found in parts of the *Parochial and Plain Sermons* or the *University Sermons*; at its worst in the *Essay on Ecclesiastical Miracles* of 1843.

His sensitive nature, though it made him lovable to his few intimates, made him prickly and resentful of public criticism, and his distresses under the suspicions of his opponents, whether Anglicans defending the Reformation or ultramontanes (exponents of centralized papal power) attacking his Roman theology, weakened his confidence and prevented him from becoming the leader that he was otherwise so well equipped to be. Still, as creator of the Oxford Movement he helped transform the Church of England; and as upholder of a theory of doctrinal development he helped Roman Catholic theology become more reconciled to the findings of the new critical scholarship. In England the *Apologia* was important in helping break down the cruder prejudices of Englishmen against Roman Catholic priests. In both the Roman Catholic Church and the Church of England his influence has been momentous.

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Theological Works:

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Miscellaneous:

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(W.O.C.)

New Mexico

A state of the U.S. Southwest, New Mexico is part of the "Old West" of cattle drives, cowboys, and clashes between pioneers and Apache Indians. In the vast flatness of its Great Plains and the rough, weather-scored peaks of its mountain ranges, it still retains much of its frontier flavour. Severe tensions and increasingly frequent confrontations between its Spanish-American, Indian, and "Anglo" (English-speaking) populations are a continuing reminder of the bitter antagonisms that characterized its long history and were still unresolved when it became the 47th state in the Union in 1912.

The 121,666 square miles (315,113 square kilometres) of New Mexico make it the fifth largest of the U.S. states; it has only 221 square miles of water. Rectangular in shape except for a small panhandle in the southwestern corner, New Mexico is bounded on the north by Colorado, on the east by Oklahoma and Texas, on the south by Texas and the Mexican state of Chihuahua, and on the west by Arizona, which was part of the Territory of New Mexico from 1850 to 1863. At its northwestern corner it joins Arizona, Utah, and Colorado in the only four-way meeting of states in the nation.

Despite the traditionally agrarian nature of the state, augmented by successful irrigation methods, by the early 1970s New Mexico had become highly urbanized. Of its population of almost 1,300,000 reported in the 1980 census, more than 70 percent lived in urban areas—nearly one-third in Albuquerque and surrounding Bernalillo County. The capital, Santa Fe, is a much smaller city, but its founding in 1610 preceded that of Albuquerque by 96 years, and it is the oldest continuously used seat of

government in North America. It was also the southwestern terminus of the Santa Fe Trail, a wagon trail that was a major commercial and migration route from Missouri to the Southwest from 1821 to 1880, when the last section of the railroad was completed. (For information on related topics, see the articles UNITED STATES OF AMERICA; UNITED STATES, HISTORY OF THE; NORTH AMERICA; ROCKY MOUNTAINS; and GREAT PLAINS.)

THE HISTORY OF NEW MEXICO

New Mexico's first inhabitants were various groups of Indians, who farmed and hunted on the land for at least 10,000 years before white explorers appeared. The more peaceful agriculturists included the later groups, whose pueblo ruins dot the state. These groups had well-developed irrigation systems by the time the more aggressive and nomadic Navajo and Apache arrived from the north, probably in the 15th century.

Spanish and Mexican rule. Reports of the fabled seven cities of gold brought the first European explorers into New Mexico in 1540, led by the Spanish adventurer Francisco Coronado. The journey was fruitless, and they returned to Mexico. After several decades of desultory exploration by soldiers and friars, Juan de Oñate was given contracts for colonization in 1595 and made the first permanent white settlements during the following years, founding Santa Fe in 1610.

For the next century missionary work predominated, but attempts to eradicate Indian religion and culture brought on an uprising and massacre in 1680 that cleared out the Europeans for many years. By 1700 the Spanish had reasserted themselves, and for the next century there was considerable settlement. Albuquerque, founded in 1706, was the focal point in the south, and Santa Fe was the centre of the north. When New Mexico became a part of the Republic of Mexico, founded in 1821, it already had begun to trade with the United States over the Santa Fe Trail, and this trade led to still another allegiance 25 years later.

Territory and state. During the Mexican War, which began in 1846, New Mexico was taken by the Army of the West under Gen. Stephen Kearny. All residents were granted amnesty and citizenship in return for an oath of allegiance to the United States. The Territory of New Mexico was established by Congress in 1850. During the Civil War an invading Confederate force was driven out by the Colorado Volunteers.

The Navajo tribes were quelled and in 1868 were given a large reservation; but the Apaches, settled on two reservations in 1880, continued their struggles until 1886. The burgeoning cattle industry was the main development of these decades, and the territory often was bloodied by battles between cattlemen and sheepmen, large landowners and homesteaders. The legendary Billy the Kid and his lawman-nemesis, Pat Garrett, were products of this struggle. Apache leaders Geronimo, Cochise, and Victorio, though mainly active in Arizona, made forays into southwestern New Mexico. The Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway, which reached Albuquerque in 1880, brought new immigration, and farming grew rapidly with development of new irrigation methods and resources.

Following admission as a state on January 6, 1912, New Mexico retained its agricultural bases until World War II, when atomic research opened a new era in the state. Its best known scientific installation is at Los Alamos, centre of the project that created the first atomic bomb in 1945. The development of mineral resources has also helped the economy and income of the state.

THE NATURAL AND HUMAN LANDSCAPE

The natural environment. New Mexico has some of the flattest land in the world and also some of the most rugged mountains. Some portions have pine forests, rich meadows, and fish-laden mountain streams, while other areas are devoid of streams, and even cacti struggle to survive. The eastern third of the state is an extension of the Great Plains. The central third is the southern extension of the Rocky Mountains, the ranges interspersed with valleys and running in a north-south direction. The west-

ern third is a high plateau, but it also contains many plains and short mountain ranges.

Mountains. The average elevation ranges from 5,000 to 8,000 feet (1,500 to 2,500 metres) above sea level in the northwest to less than 4,000 feet in the southeast, with 85 percent of the state more than 4,000 feet above sea level. The highest mountain peaks, Wheeler Peak (13,161 feet) and South Truchas Peak (13,102 feet), are in the Sangre de Cristo range in the north central part of the state. The numerous valleys between the ranges are indispensable to agriculture and grazing. Unique volcanic formations abound as reminders of past lava flows. The caverns near Carlsbad are among the most spectacular natural rock formations in the world.

Rivers. Five major river systems—the Rio Grande, Pecos, Canadian, San Juan, and Gila—drain the state. The Rio Grande, which has played an influential role in New Mexico's history, virtually bisects the state. Agriculture in its floodplain has been significant since prehistoric times; European settlers initially lived exclusively in its valleys and those of its tributaries. The Pecos, east of the Rio Grande and approximately parallel to it, was also a popular route for explorers. The Canadian River, rising in the Sangre de Cristo Range and flowing east across the arid plains, was a useful avenue for explorers despite its deep canyons. The San Juan and Gila rivers lie west of the Continental Divide, in the northwest and southwest respectively. All but the Gila, which is not dammed in New Mexico, provide water for irrigation, recreation, and flood control.

Climate. Although New Mexico's average annual temperature is 53° F (12° C), extremes range from 110° F (43° C) to -29° F (-2° C). Variations are caused more by altitude than latitude, with temperatures falling by 5° F with every 1,000-foot increase in elevation. Nighttime temperatures tend to fall sharply. The average annual rainfall is 15 inches (375 millimetres), though precipitation tends to increase with elevation. About 40 inches of rain falls in the higher mountains, whereas lower areas may get no more than eight to 10 inches. Generally, precipitation is greatest in the eastern third of the state and least in the western third.

Vegetation. New Mexico has six vegetation zones, which are determined mainly by altitude. The Lower Sonoran zone, in the southern sections of the Rio Grande and Pecos valleys and in the state's southwestern corner, usually occurs at altitudes below 4,500 feet. It includes nearly 20,000 square miles of New Mexico's best grazing area and irrigated farmland. The Upper Sonoran, comprising about three-fourths of the state and including most of the plains, foothills, and valleys above 4,500 feet, is a region of prairie grasses, low piñon pines, and juniper shrubs. At higher altitudes, better stands reflect the more abundant rainfall. The Transition zone, covering some 19,000 square miles, is identified chiefly by the ponderosa pine. The Canadian zone, covering 4,000 square miles at elevations of 8,500 to 9,000 feet, contains blue spruce and Douglas fir. The Hudsonian and Arctic-Alpine zones, above 9,500 feet, are too small in area and too sparsely covered to be of great importance.

Animal life. The diversity of natural vegetation and elevation affect the wildlife, and the inaccessibility of much of New Mexico has helped preserve its abundance. Mule deer, brown bear, bighorn sheep, mink, muskrat, beaver, fox, mountain lion, and bobcat live in the mountain and forest areas above 7,000 feet, while at lower elevations antelope, coyote, and jackrabbit are found. Barbary sheep from North Africa have been introduced into several mountain areas. Many species of trout are common in the mountain streams, and warm-water fish abound in lower streams. Approximately 300 species of birds can be found year-round, including various game birds. Rattlesnakes and black widow spiders are common.

Patterns of human settlement. The first Spanish settlements were in the central Rio Grande Valley and its tributaries. The Spanish-speaking inhabitants are still concentrated in the north central portion of the state. The eastern third of the state is frequently referred to as "Little Texas" or the "East Side." It is an extension of the

Colonial
period

Zones of
vegetation

Surface
features

Great Plains of western Texas and was originally settled as a cattle frontier expanding westward from Texas after the Civil War. It continues to attract Protestant Anglos from Texas as ranchers, farmers, or oil-field workers, and they are often at odds with the Spanish-American Roman Catholics of Albuquerque and Santa Fe. The southwestern corner of the state, settled by Anglo miners after the coming of the railroads, also has little in common with the central area. The northwest corner received Mormon settlers from Colorado, but the greatest growth of this area resulted from oil and natural-gas discoveries after World War II.

Spanish
villages

Early settlers remained along streams because of the scarcity of water elsewhere. In a typical community adobe houses opened onto a plaza from which four streets ran outward, and the entire enclave was enclosed by a wall for defense. Nearby were small agricultural plots and orchards owned by individuals. Just beyond, in a great circle, was the ejido—land for communal grazing, recreation, or firewood. Despite fear of Indian attack, ranches away from settlements often were established. At the time of the American conquest, New Mexico was a self-sufficient agrarian community, with most people residing in small villages.

After the Civil War vast cattle ranches appeared on the East Side, their size limited only by the availability of water. The coming of the railroads in 1879 brought several waves of Anglo farmers, but frequent droughts ruined many who tried to till the soil as they had in their more humid homelands. Dry farming—tilling that uses drought-resistant crops or otherwise conserves soil moisture—saved many who remained, but today irrigated farming is the most important form of agriculture.

THE PEOPLE OF NEW MEXICO

Ethnic composition. The people of New Mexico are primarily Anglos, Spanish-Americans, or Indians. The original Spanish settlers intermarried with the Indians, and their descendants are designated as Spanish-Americans or Hispanics rather than Mexican-Americans, as elsewhere in the Southwest. Spanish-Americans were in the majority until the 1940s, and by 1980 still made up about 40 percent of the population. After World War II an influx of Anglos accompanied a widespread desertion of small agricultural villages by their Spanish-speaking residents, who moved to urban centres in the state or to California. Many such villages became ghost towns.

Indian
population

The Indian population has grown from 34,510 in 1940 to about 105,000 in 1980. The large Navajo reservation extends over the northwestern corner into Arizona, and nearby Gallup is famous as "the Indian capital of America." There are also reservations for the Utes, and for the Jicarilla and Mescalero Apaches; in 1981 more than 36,000 Pueblo Indians lived on 1,581,000 acres (640,000 hectares) of scattered land grants. The Indians preserve many of their ancient ways, tending flocks of sheep and producing handicraft items. But dissatisfaction with their low income, inadequate housing, poor health standards, and lack of educational opportunity has led to a growing militancy and an increasing exodus from their reservations or pueblos to urban centres.

Demography. New Mexico, traditionally rural, has joined the national trend toward urbanization. Since 1920 its rate of population growth has exceeded that of the United States as a whole. A growth rate of nearly 40 percent during the 1950s was largely the result of a proliferation of federal expenditures in the state for defense and research and of the discovery of oil and other minerals. The reduction of federal outlays and the levelling off of mining booms, however, caused the growth rate to plunge to only 7 percent in the 1960s, and in both decades half of the state's counties declined in population. During the 1970s, the rate increased to 28 percent, though chiefly due to an increased growth rate in the Southwest. Urbanization has involved a number of factors: the movement of Spanish-Americans away from their rural homes, the consolidation of farms, and the increasing inclination of many farmers to abandon their isolation for the larger towns and commute to their fields and flocks.

THE STATE'S ECONOMY

New Mexico's economy is similar to that of the developing nations of the world in that it is largely at the mercy of forces over which it has little control. Relying heavily on the export of raw materials and on federal expenditures for programs of no certain permanence, it is subject to shifting demands from outside the state. Overall, government spending accounts for nearly one-fourth of the state's economy. New Mexico is a comparatively poor state; in 1980 it ranked 38th nationally in per capita income. During the 1960s the income of the average New Mexican fell from about 85 percent to 79 percent of the national figure, but it increased slowly to 82 percent during the 1970s.

Agriculture. Gross farm income continues to rise slowly; in 1970 it accounted for only 7 percent of the state's income, but by the late 1970s it accounted for 13 percent. Under Spain and Mexico the people who lived in what is now New Mexico were self-sufficient, growing beans, corn (maize), cotton, and squash on the alluvial plain of the Rio Grande. Sheep thrived in the arid land and remained important until the 20th century. The Anglos brought cattle raising from Texas, and the sale of beef now accounts for more than one-half of the marketing receipts from agricultural products. Cotton is the leading cash crop, and hay ranks second. Wheat and sorghum are raised on the dry farms of the eastern part of the state, but the irregularity of rainfall makes this type of agriculture hazardous. Two-fifths of the total cropland of 2,300,000 acres is irrigated; such lands furnish the overwhelming share of the crop dollar.

Major
crops

Mining. The mining industry, which contributes 10 percent of the state's income, brought many settlers and attracted outside capital in territorial days. Gold and silver mining began in the 19th century, reached its peak in 1915, and has since declined. Copper mining remains important; coal mining, which declined with the increased use of other fuels, expanded in the 1960s as the result of improved technology. The share of coal in generating electricity in the state increased from less than 2 percent in 1960 to more than 65 percent in 1980. New Mexico produces about 85 percent of the nation's potash and, since the discovery of uranium deposits in 1950, it has led the nation in uranium production. Iron, lead, zinc, manganese, and molybdenum are also mined, but oil and natural gas account for about 60 percent of the state's mineral income. Natural gas is mainly produced in the southeastern corner and in the San Juan Basin in the northwest. Nationwide, the state ranks ninth in mineral production.

Manufacturing. Manufacturing in New Mexico was originally limited to the production of consumer goods, but it has increased rapidly since World War II and now accounts for 7 percent of the state's income. Food processing, petroleum refining, smelting, railroad maintenance, and the manufacture of construction materials are leading industrial activities. Atomic research is carried on at the Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory, with testing taking place at Sandia Military Base, in Albuquerque, or at the White Sands Missile Range, near Alamogordo. An offshoot of this is the private manufacturing of such products as ordnance, electronic equipment, and precision instruments. Because of the limited development of industry, unions are not widespread and are confined largely to the mining, smelting, and petroleum industries.

Tourism and trade. In 1980 wholesale and retail trade contributed 16 percent and services 18 percent of the state's income. The figure for services chiefly reflects the increasingly important development of recreation and tourism. The distinctive Indian and Hispanic cultures continue to draw large numbers of visitors. State and national parks and monuments, historic sites, hunting and fishing, skiing, and Indian ceremonies are major attractions.

Transportation. Geographic isolation was a basic cause of New Mexico's slow economic development. In the Spanish and Mexican periods, it took about six months to travel the distance between Mexico City and Santa Fe. The Santa Fe Trail route was much shorter and faster, and American consumer goods helped prepare the way for conquest. This isolation ended when the railroads

reached Albuquerque and Santa Fe in 1880. Today an extensive rail network unites the state. Highways link New Mexico's major population centres; three of these highways are part of the federal interstate system. Mountainous terrain makes road construction expensive, but secondary roads are adequate. Air transportation provides a vital link with other parts of the nation.

ADMINISTRATION AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS

Governmental structure. In most instances the state's constitution can be amended by a majority vote of the legislature and by a majority vote of the electorate. A public referendum on major issues is permitted, but public initiative on legislative matters is not. Nomination to office is by closed primary.

Executive. The governor has the usual powers of pardon, reprieve, and veto, but this executive has more authority than those of most states. The governor appoints most of the state boards, departments, agencies, and commissions, and consequently is the virtual master of patronage and the political organization. Like the lieutenant governor and other executive officials, the governor is elected for one four-year term. Officials are ineligible for state elective positions for four years thereafter, but the lieutenant governor may run for governor.

Legislature and judiciary. A legislature composed of 42 members of the Senate, elected to four-year terms, and 70 members of the House, elected to two-year terms, meets for a 60-day session in odd-numbered years and a 30-day session in even-numbered years. Heading the judiciary are five Supreme Court justices elected for eight years, with overlapping terms. Judges of the 11 judicial districts are elected for six years and serve ex officio as judges of juvenile courts.

Local government and politics. Each of New Mexico's 32 counties is administered by three commissioners elected for terms of two years. Other county elective officers are assessor, clerk, sheriff, surveyor, treasurer, and probate judge. In the territorial era citizens usually favoured Republicans, but since statehood Democrats have tended to dominate. The state voted for the winner in almost every presidential election from admission through 1980, the only exception being 1976.

Education. A public school system was established in 1891, and, since statehood, education has improved tremendously. In 1968 the educational attainment of the Anglo adult population averaged 12.1 years—compared, however, to only 8.1 years for Spanish-Americans. Per-pupil expenditure in the late 1970s was more than \$1,700 and average teaching salaries nearly \$16,700. Most improvements in education have been in the urban centres, however, and many rural and small-town schools remain substandard. Because Hispanics are dominant in these areas, education is poorer for their children. Legalized segregation for the Hispanic minorities in the eastern third of the state ended in the 1950s, but *de facto* segregation remains, primarily on the elementary level.

The state's largest institution of higher education is the University of New Mexico, in Albuquerque, established in 1889. Other state-supported institutions include New Mexico State University (1888), in University Park; Eastern New Mexico University (1934), in Portales; New Mexico Highlands University (1893), in Las Vegas; Western New Mexico University (1893), in Silver City; and New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology (1889), in Socorro. Northern New Mexico State School at El Rito, originally established in 1909 to train Spanish-speaking teachers, is today a resident high school. In addition, the state universities have established branch campuses, while some cities have organized junior colleges. There are also several private colleges.

Health and welfare. The state's department of health, created in 1919, administers an extensive social-service program, often in collaboration with federal agencies. New Mexico has about 60 hospitals, including the Carrie Tingley Crippled Children's Hospital, but medical services in rural areas are generally inadequate. The Emergency Health Communication network links emergency vehicles, including helicopters, with medical facilities throughout

the state. The state expenditure for health was \$46.25 per capita in 1980. Other state institutions include a penitentiary, an industrial school for boys, a girls' welfare home, schools for the blind and the deaf, a development centre for mentally retarded children, and eight special state-supported schools.

Intergroup relations. The greatest social problem that New Mexico faces is the cultural clash between Spanish-Americans, once dominant in the state, and the now-dominant Anglos. Distrust, hostility, prejudice, and discrimination exist between the two groups. Efforts in 1967 of an Hispanic group, the Alianza de los Pueblos Libres (Alliance of Free City-States), to regain lost land was a result of the frustration growing out of their declining social, educational, and economic status, for which demands for land grants became a symbol. Hispanics have legal equality, but in practical matters they are second-class citizens in their homeland. Their income averages little more than half that of Anglos, their education is less adequate, and they are under-represented in the professions. The percentage of Spanish-Americans living in substandard housing is higher than for other groups. Desertion of native villages for urban centres creates problems of social and economic adjustment that will take years to resolve.

CULTURAL LIFE AND INSTITUTIONS

The arts. Writers and architects have been influenced by New Mexico's Indian and Spanish heritages, which in turn are influenced by Anglo culture. The appearance of cowboys and miners, and the conflicts of the frontier territory in the 19th century, have also been dominant cultural themes. Painters have been concerned especially with the unique landscape, since no other area of the United States presents such a variety of scenery or so many modes of life existing side by side. New Mexico's cities have attracted artists in all fields from many parts of the nation and of the world. Taos was the first to have an important art community, but it is now rivalled by Santa Fe and Albuquerque. The state institutions of higher education, through their libraries and their departments of art, music, dance, and theatre, have played a key role in the dissemination of cultural knowledge. This has been accomplished directly and through the training of public-school teachers. The success of the Santa Fe Opera Association, organized in 1956, reflects the growth of musical appreciation. The company performs in an outdoor theatre in the Sangre de Cristo Mountains near the city, presenting a repertory that has won the group worldwide acclaim.

The historical atmosphere of New Mexico and its fusion of three cultures is represented by its unique architecture. Indian pueblo buildings were modified by Spanish settlers when they built Santa Fe, and many of these original structures have been restored. The statehouse, most public buildings, and many private ones have recently been constructed in the modified Spanish mission style.

Folk culture. Local Indians produce beautiful pottery of high quality. Each village has its own design to identify the work of its people. Navajo blankets are famous the world over. Many Indians make buttons, beads, pins, rings, necklaces, earrings, and belts, mainly for sale to the growing number of tourists. The United States Indian Arts and Crafts Board has attempted to preserve the authenticity of Indian jewelry by establishing standards in handworked silver. Individual pueblos preserve native dances by performing at numerous fiestas, the most important being the Inter-Tribal Ceremonial, which draws thousands of visitors to Gallup every summer.

Spanish folk art has been preserved largely by the Penitentes, a religious group within the Roman Catholic Church. In rural areas medieval Spanish music and art has been preserved.

Museums. The Museum of New Mexico, housed in the Palace of the Governors in Santa Fe, helps preserve archaeological sites, mementos, and folk arts of the past. The state archives also contain important relics. The Wheelwright Museum of the American Indian is in Santa Fe. In Taos is the Kit Carson Memorial Foundation, a history and art museum housed in the Kit Carson home.

Status of
Spanish-
Americans

Colleges
and
universities

Indian
arts

Communications. New Mexico has 21 daily newspapers, 88 radio stations, and eight commercial and educational television stations. The *New Mexico Historical Review*, a quarterly established in 1926, publishes scholarly articles on the state's history, while the University of New Mexico Press publishes books in many fields related to the Southwest.

Prospects. New Mexico's major problems lie in its intergroup relations and in its slight and uncertain economic base. Some unique advantages are available, however, to meet these problems. The scientific talent at Los Alamos and elsewhere in the state is a human resource that is valuable in the development of high-technology, energy-related industries. The state's natural beauty and climate can be better utilized to expand the already important tourist industry. The success in luring movie producers to take advantage of the unequalled landscape and the ability of cities like Roswell to bring in new industries to offset the loss of federal installations suggest that existing economic problems can be solved. The social problem can be eased greatly by providing more economic and educational opportunity for the Hispanic and Indian minorities, but this must be done in an atmosphere of trust and goodwill on all sides.

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(W.A.B.)

New Orleans

Unquestionably one of the most distinctive cities of the New World, New Orleans was established at great cost in an environment of conflict. Its strategic position, commanding the mouth of the great Mississippi-Missouri river system, which drains the rich interior of North America, made it a pawn in the struggles of Europeans for the control of North America. As a result, its peoples evolved a unique culture and society, blending many heritages. Its citizens of African descent—who have represented from a fourth to a half of the population of the city since its inception—have provided a special contribution in making New Orleans the birthplace of jazz. New Orleans is a city of paradox and contrast: while it shares the urban problems afflicting other U.S. cities, it has nevertheless preserved the exuberant and uninhibited spirit exemplified by its carnival season, culminating in the annual Mardi Gras, when more than 1,000,000 people throng the streets. The city also has a solid economic base: it is the largest city in Louisiana, the second port of the United States in tonnage handled, a major tourist resort, and a medical, industrial, and educational centre.

The city and Orleans Parish (county) are coextensive, covering an area of 364 square miles (941 square kilometres). The boundaries are formed by the Mississippi

River and Jefferson Parish to the west and Lake Pontchartrain to the north. The latter is connected by the Rigolets Channel to Lake Borgne on the east, and the southern boundary is made up of St. Bernard Parish and, again, the Mississippi River. The city is divided by the Mississippi, with the principal settlement on the east bank. The west bank, known as Algiers, has grown rapidly in recent years. It is connected to eastern New Orleans by the Greater New Orleans Bridge. The bridge, completed in 1958, has proved a bottleneck for the city's traffic, and construction of a second, adjacent bridge was begun in the early 1980s to alleviate the problem.

The early city was located on the east bank along a sharp bend in the river, from which its popular name, "Crescent City," is derived. The modern metropolis has spread far beyond this original location. Because its saucer-shaped terrain lies as low as five feet (1.5 metres) below sea level and has an average rainfall of about 57 inches (1,425 millimetres), maintenance of a levee system and proper drainage have always been of prime importance to the city. New Orleans has a moderate climate; the average daily temperature from October through March is 60° F (16° C) and from April through September is 77° F (25° C). Freezing weather is rare, and the temperature rises above 95° F (35° C) only about six days a year. (For further information see LOUISIANA and MISSISSIPPI RIVER.)

THE GROWTH OF THE METROPOLIS

Foundation and early settlement. The decision to found New Orleans was made in Paris in 1717 by John Law's Company of the West, which had taken control of Louisiana that year. The colony's new proprietors envisioned New Orleans (named for the French regent, the duc d'Orléans) as a "port of deposit," or transshipment centre, for future trade from upriver in the Mississippi Valley. Jean-Baptiste le Moyne, sieur de Bienville, the man who suggested the site, was entrusted with the actual foundation of the city. Clearing of underbrush for the new city probably began in March 1718. The engineers charged with this task met with problems arising from uncooperative convict labour, a shortage of supplies, two severe hurricanes (in 1721 and 1722), and the unpleasant physical conditions of mosquito-infested swamps as they set up the first crude dwellings covered with bark and reeds. An engineer, Adrien de Pauger, drafted the first plan for the town, encompassing the section known today as the Vieux Carré (French: Old Square), or the French Quarter, and consisting of 66 squares forming a parallelogram.

The first residents were a colourful mixture of Canadian backwoodsmen, company craftsmen and troops, convicts, slaves, and indigents. In a census taken in November 1721, New Orleans had a population of 470 persons: 277 whites, 172 black slaves, and 21 Indian slaves. In 1722 New Orleans was designated the capital of Louisiana, and in 1731 the city returned to the control of the French crown. More respectable colonists began to arrive, but growth continued to be precarious. The main economic staples grown in the vicinity of New Orleans were tobacco and indigo, grown chiefly for export, and rice and vegetables for local consumption. Naval stores were also exported, but French ships were reluctant to call at New Orleans to pick up such cargo because its value did not match its bulk.

In 1762 France, ready to part with its unprofitable port, secretly agreed to cede Louisiana to Spain, and by the Treaty of Paris (1763) Spain received New Orleans and the Louisiana Territory west of the Mississippi. After a brief rebellion—which was sternly suppressed—the inhabitants of New Orleans enjoyed peace and a growing prosperity under Spanish law, while trade arose with the British colonies in spite of Spanish restrictions. At the same time English-speaking colonists were moving west to settle along the tributaries of the Mississippi. In the decade of the American Revolution, these "Kaintucks," as they were called, began floating their cargoes downriver to New Orleans; several times Spanish officials suspended the right of deposit of American goods at New

Hostility of the environment

Historical and cultural heritage



The Louisiana Purchase

The early 19th century. New Orleans' population in 1803 was approximately 8,000—4,000 whites and 2,700 enslaved and about 1,300 free "persons of colour." Its prosperity was reflected in its 1803 exports, which had a value approaching \$2,000,000 and were bound mainly for American ports. In 1805, when it was incorporated as a municipality, New Orleans took on an identity separate

During the War of 1812, New Orleans was threatened by a British invasion force, which approached the city from the Gulf of Mexico. Gen. Andrew Jackson, with an army of frontiersmen and local volunteers, won a smashing victory on January 8, 1815, saving the city, though,

The era
of
cotton

unknown to him, the war already had been concluded.

The next 40 years constituted the golden age of New Orleans as a great cotton port. The first steamboat to reach the city, in 1812, was appropriately called the "New Orleans." Mississippi River steamboats increased to 400 by 1840, and local commerce skyrocketed in value, reaching \$54,000,000 by 1835. By 1840 the city was rated the fourth port in the world: after the 1840s canals and railroads diverted produce eastward to New York City.

German and Irish immigrants arrived in New Orleans in large numbers in the 1840s. By 1850 the city's total population had swelled to 116,375. New Orleans, however, had not learned to cope with the health hazards of its mushrooming growth: drinking water came from the river or cisterns; no sewerage system existed; drainage was deficient; and flooding was common after heavy rains. The results were sporadic outbreaks of cholera and yellow fever, the worst of which was the yellow fever epidemic of 1853, accounting for more than 8,000 deaths.

The Civil War and its aftermath. During the Civil War the strategic location of the city was inadequately appreciated by the Confederate military. The Union fleet of Adm. David Farragut was able to capture New Orleans in April 1862. The city was placed under the military command of Gen. Benjamin Butler, and city officials were removed from office. Although Butler was replaced as commander by Nathaniel Banks by the end of 1862, his brief regime became infamous in local history for his roughshod handling of the population.

During the period of Reconstruction, 1865-77, racial tensions ran high. "Scalawags" (white Southerners who cooperated with Republican forces) and "carpetbaggers" (Northerners accused of exploiting the situation for personal gain) cooperated to gain political control of the city and state, with the support of black voters. By 1872 amnesty had been granted to the ex-Confederates, and the municipal government returned to traditional white control, although state government and the city police force remained under Radical Republican control until 1877. In the 1880s the debt of \$24,000,000, incurred under carpet-bag regimes, increased steadily with each subsequent administration. This municipal debt had to be paid before the city could undertake any new bond issues for sorely needed municipal improvements.

In the last 20 years of the 19th century, therefore, New Orleans made limited, though steady, progress. Between 1840 and 1900 it had dropped from third to 12th place in national rank, although its population had increased to 287,104.

Yellow fever was sharply curtailed after the Civil War through fumigation of ships at a quarantine station on the lower Mississippi and was finally eradicated by 1906. By the early 20th century the river steamboats, unable to compete with railroads in bulk carried or in rates, disappeared; the Port of New Orleans, attracting less railroad freight than Eastern ports, reached a low ebb shortly before World War I. With the development of towboats and barges large enough to hold almost an entire trainload of cargo, however, cheap river transportation revived the river commerce, and the port again surged forward, becoming the second port in the nation after World War II. Substantial progress, at least in physical improvements, came to the city in the 1950s. During the administration of Mayor DeLesseps S. Morrison a vast railroad consolidation program was achieved and a \$15,000,000 railroad terminal constructed. Streets were widened, railroad ground crossings were spanned with overpasses, and a \$20,000,000 civic center, which includes the 11-story City Hall, was built.

THE CONTEMPORARY CITY

The people. New Orleans' population in 1980 was 557,482, a 6.1 percent decline from 1970. Of this figure, 308,136 were black; 236,967 were white; and 12,379 were of other races, among them about 5,000 Vietnamese. Whites accounted for slightly less than half of the total, whereas in 1970 they had made up a little more than half, and in 1960, almost two-thirds. In contrast to the population decline in Orleans Parish, the adjacent parishes—

which, together with Orleans, compose one of the national Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas—showed steady increases. The parishes of St. Bernard, Jefferson, and St. Tammany—the latter across Lake Pontchartrain from New Orleans—showed increases of 25, 34, and 74 percent, respectively. Because the black population in these three parishes is quite small, these figures indicate a white move to the suburbs, a trend common to major U.S. cities. The total population of the four parishes in the New Orleans Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area was just over 1,100,000 in 1980.

The shift in population to the suburbs has been motivated less by racial tension (although this may play a part) than by desires for better and more modern living facilities. The fact that a large segment of the black population resides in declining neighbourhoods (some segregated, some integrated) has spurred both black and interracial political, social, and religious organizations to work either independently or with city and federal agencies on projects to improve the quality of life for low-income citizens. The additional fact that New Orleans has an upper-class and a middle-class black population has been a significant factor in such projects.

The city's economy. *The port and its facilities.* New Orleans has always been primarily a commercial centre, with manufacturing playing a secondary role in its economic life. The busy harbour, besides adding to the city's cosmopolitan atmosphere, is the foundation of the metropolitan economy, influencing many aspects of urban life.

The era of the modern Port of New Orleans began in 1879 with the construction of jetties in South Pass, one of three passes that flow from the river into the Gulf. Sandbars had formed at intervals in these passes and had hindered ships entering the river since the city's founding. The jetties narrowed South Pass, forcing the river to cut a deeper channel to a depth of 30 feet. Later, a second channel, Southwest Pass, was deepened to 40 feet by installing jetties; it is now the main pass used by seagoing vessels entering and leaving the river. The distance from New Orleans to the Gulf is about 110 miles.

Another major step forward for the port was taken in 1896, when the state legislature removed wharf facilities from the control of private contractors and created the Board of Commissioners of the Port of New Orleans (the Dock Board), a body charged with administering the public wharves. In 1908 the Dock Board was authorized to issue negotiable bonds for the improvement of port facilities. The projects subsequently accomplished included the rebuilding and expansion of public wharves and the construction (in partnership with the Board of Levee Commissioners of the Orleans Levee District) of the five-and-a-half-mile Industrial Canal, which links the river to Lake Pontchartrain, the Intracoastal Waterway, and the Mississippi River-Gulf Outlet. In 1963 the Mississippi River-Gulf Outlet, a ship channel shortening the passage to the Gulf by 40 miles, was opened to maritime traffic. Tonnage handled at this terminal grew at an average rate of 80 percent annually.

The Dock Board has formulated a 30-year plan (1970-2000), called Centroport U.S.A., by which much of the port's activities will be switched from the Mississippi River to wharves and industrial complexes along the Gulf Outlet. The river frontage thus retired from maritime use will be diverted to such projects as high-rise apartments and public recreation areas. The Julia, Erato, and upper Poydras wharves were developed as the site of the 1984 Louisiana World Exposition.

New Orleans is a major grain port both in the United States and worldwide; other exports include raw and processed agricultural products, fabricated metals, chemicals, textiles, oils, petroleum and petroleum products, tobacco, and paperboard. There was tremendous growth in bulk exports in the early 1980s, which has made New Orleans the lighter aboard ship (LASH) cargo and Seabee barge capital of the world. Grain, coal, and animal feed make up a major portion of LASH and Seabee trade. In international commerce about 5,000 oceangoing vessels dock at New Orleans annually, and more than 40 nations have consular offices in the city.

Legislative
control of
the port

20th-
century
growth

Manufacturing. Greater New Orleans is a major industrial area. A concentration of petrochemical plants, representing a capital investment of about \$1,000,000,000, has sprung up along the Mississippi River above New Orleans. The National Aeronautics and Space Administration established the Michoud Assembly Facility in New Orleans in 1961 to produce the giant Saturn rocket boosters used in flights to the Moon. The major goods manufactured in the Greater New Orleans area are food products, clothing and related items, stone, clay and glass articles, primary metal and fabricated metal items, and transportation equipment.

Petrochemical industries along the Mississippi above New Orleans and offshore oil rigs in the Gulf have become serious polluters through oil-rig fires and oil slicks and discharges of mercury, arsenic, and lead, threatening the city's drinking water, ruining the taste of river fish, and endangering the ecology of the Gulf. Despite federal actions against the offending industries, much remains to be done.

Transportation. The transportation facilities of New Orleans include three airports: New Orleans International Airport, situated to the west of the city; New Orleans Airport, on Lake Pontchartrain, devoted to private and corporate use; and the U.S. Naval Air Station, serving air reserve units of the various armed services. Seven railroads operate out of New Orleans, and two passenger bus lines and 60 truck lines and barge lines transport people and cargo to and from the city. Regular express sailings by more than 100 scheduled steamship lines also offer passenger- and cargo-carrying service. The major access bridges serving the Greater New Orleans area, in addition to the Greater New Orleans Bridge, are the Huey P. Long Bridge, which crosses the river above the city, and the Pontchartrain Causeway, a twin span that is among the longest bridges in the world, stretching more than 23 miles.

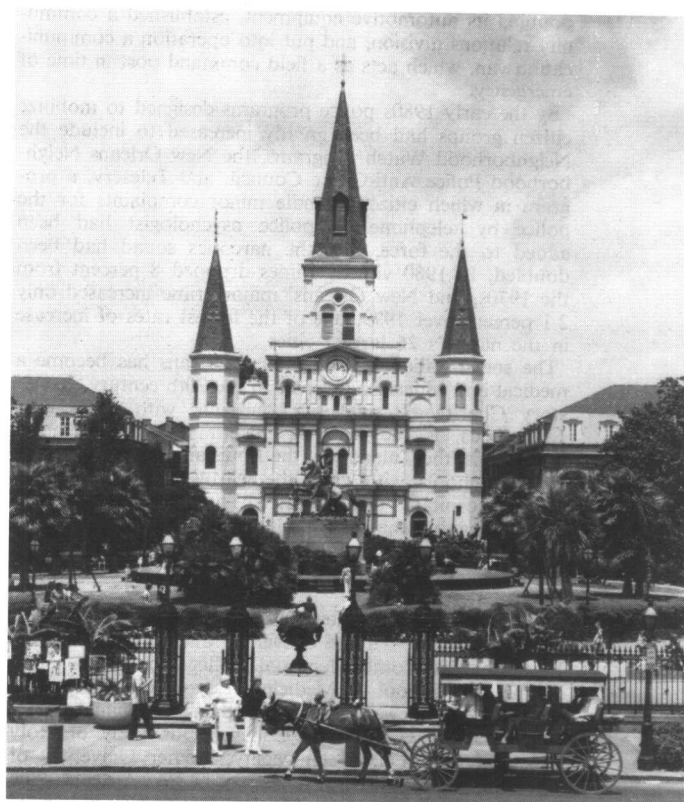
Politics and government. *The political framework.* Both the political life and the municipal government of 20th-century New Orleans have been dominated by factions of the Democratic Party. The question of state interference in city affairs versus home rule is one of the major issues. In 1954 New Orleans finally received a strong home rule charter, which substituted a mayor-council form of government for the mayor-commission form that had existed since 1912.

In addition to the mayor and seven council members—five elected from districts and two at large—who serve four-year terms, the position of chief administrative officer to the mayor was created. The mayor is the top administrator over the 13 municipal departments and oversees the affairs of various commissions and boards. The chief administrative officer is charged with supervision of city departments, the preparation of the annual budgets, and the coordination of city relations with state and federal agencies. The council is strictly a legislative body.

Political issues have changed. Gone is the antagonism between city and state governments that spanned the era from governors Huey Long in the 1920s through Earl Long in the 1940s. Political corruption is no longer an issue in city politics, and segregation also has deteriorated as a defensible position for whites to espouse. On the other hand, blacks have become more politically articulate since they emerged as the majority of the city's population. There has been an increase in voter registration among blacks, and black political groups now play an effective role in municipal politics. For the first time in New Orleans history a black mayor, Ernest Morial, was elected in 1978, and he won reelection in 1982.

Although most city and parish government has been consolidated in New Orleans, Orleans Parish officials continue to play an important role. These officials include the district attorney, the board of assessors, and the Orleans Parish School Board, which supervises public education under the state department of education.

Municipal services. In the 1960s expansion of new residential areas in New Orleans, combined with the spiralling cost of services, caused the operating budget for municipal services almost to double. New Orleans government



St. Louis Cathedral in the Vieux Carré (French Quarter), in New Orleans.

Joachim Messerschmidt—Bruce Coleman Inc.

entered the 1970s suffering from a grave lack of the funds necessary to carry out its work effectively and to provide an appropriate income for the employees of its various departments, and this condition continued into the 1980s. One of the major problems is the low assessment of taxes on both residential and industrial property and the loss of taxpayers to the suburban parishes.

Drainage has always been the chief problem among municipal services. Virtually surrounded by levees—25 feet high on the Mississippi River and 10 feet high on Lake Pontchartrain—the below-sea-level city has 14 major drainage pumping stations, with the average capacity of a single station being 2,500 cubic feet (71 cubic metres) per second. The drainage machinery used at these stations is among the largest found in the world. Following the disaster of 1965, when Hurricane Betsy flooded the city's lower Ninth Ward, the Sewerage and Water Board operating the pumping stations drafted a plan to make these facilities hurricane-safe. Further improvements in drainage canals and pumping equipment in the older sections of the city were made by the early 1980s.

Flood control along 129 miles of the river, Lake Pontchartrain, and secondary waterways in the city is under the direction of the Board of Levee Commissioners of the Orleans Levee District. In addition to its primary job of flood control, the board has, since the 1920s, reclaimed about 2,000 acres of Lake Pontchartrain bottom land and developed it into one of the most scenic lake-front areas in the United States. Approximately 60 percent of the land is dedicated to public facilities, which include sandy beaches, a marina, a cement seawall from which fishing and swimming can be enjoyed, picnic grounds, parkways with flower beds, fountains, and shelter houses. The remaining 40 percent of this reclaimed land has been turned into four residential subdivisions, which are among the finest in the city.

In the fight against the steadily rising crime rate in the city, the police department has, since 1961, introduced a guard-dog corps, reorganized its patrol system to increase its effectiveness by 60 percent, created two new police districts, built new stations in older districts, more than

Municipal
manage-
ment

Drainage
and flood-
control
systems

Police and
crime

doubled its automotive equipment, established a community relations division, and put into operation a communication van, which acts as a field command post in time of emergency.

By the early 1980s police programs designed to mobilize citizen groups had been greatly increased to include the Neighborhood Watch Programs, the New Orleans Neighborhood Police Anti-Crime Council, and Teleserv, a program in which citizens handle minor complaints for the police by telephone. A police psychologist had been added to the force, and the narcotics squad had been doubled. In 1980 violent crimes dropped 8 percent from the 1970s, and New Orleans' major crime increased only 2.1 percent over 1979, one of the lowest rates of increase in the nation's 25 largest cities.

The social milieu. *Health.* New Orleans has become a medical and educational centre in the 20th century. Its 19-story Charity Hospital of Louisiana, with more than 1,500 beds, is the teaching hospital for two adjacent institutions, the Tulane and the Louisiana State University medical schools, with which the nearby Veterans Administration Hospital is also affiliated. There are more than 30 hospitals within the metropolitan area, containing a total bed capacity of more than 8,000. In addition to serving local residents, specialists frequently treat patients from Latin America.

Education. Among New Orleans' institutions of higher learning are The Tulane University and its affiliates, the H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College for Women and The Tulane School of Medicine; Loyola University; the University of New Orleans; St. Mary's Dominican College; Delgado Community College; Our Lady of Holy Cross College; Dillard University; Xavier University of Louisiana; and Southern University in New Orleans. The Louisiana State University Medical Center also is located in New Orleans. The city has many private, parochial, and business schools. The public school system, which began in 1841 with 83 pupils and four teachers, had in the early 1980s an enrollment in excess of 87,000 and some 4,400 teachers. In 1960 a public school crisis, attracting international attention, developed when an attempt was made at the token integration of two white schools. Twenty years later the school system was overwhelmingly black, with about 73,000 black students and 14,000 white. The ratio of black teachers to white was almost three to one.

Racial relations. Historically, racial segregation in New Orleans differed from that of other Southern cities; for example, free persons of colour always were an important minority in antebellum days. Mixed neighbourhoods, or scattered groups of blacks living near whites, have been the rule rather than the exception in housing. By 1980 the population of New Orleans was almost 55 percent black, and major strides had been made by blacks in voting rights and in the attainment of high positions such as the mayor's office. White-collar jobs not easily available before to blacks had opened up in large numbers. To alleviate racial problems that may develop the city has an interracial Human Relations Committee whose members work with the mayor.

Cultural life and institutions. The cultural life of New Orleans is a synthesis of contributions by both whites and blacks. The white American heritage is reflected in the business and commercial life of the city, while the immigrant heritage—Irish societies, German Volkfests, Italian St. Joseph Day altars—adds ethnic colour to urban conformity. The black heritage is particularly rich. In antebellum days, free persons of colour were musicians, poets, journalists, business entrepreneurs, and landlords. Both black freemen and slaves were renowned for their craftsmanship in such trades as bricklaying, iron grillwork, and carpentry. The contribution of black musicians to the birth of jazz out of black blues and "field hollers" and white dance tunes and hymns is well known. New Orleans, therefore, is one American city in which the black as well as the white cultural contribution is abundantly clear and acknowledged.

Facilities for recreation and relaxation in New Orleans are justly famous. Often referred to as "the city that care

forgot," New Orleans has always been a town for those seeking a good time. Its residents love music, dancing, and a "Continental Sunday" spent in amusements. The three factors that have contributed to its popularity with tourists are the Old World charm of the Spanish-French architecture in its Vieux Carré, the madcap abandon of its carnival and Mardi Gras, and its reputation as the birthplace, between the 1880s and World War I, of jazz.

The Vieux Carré is a sightseer's delight. Its Creole architecture, creating the atmosphere of a foreign city, combines native architectural ingenuity with adaptations of French colonial traditions of eastern Canada and West Indian Spanish colonial styles. Typical are one-story cottages opening directly on the sidewalks, with high-pitched roofs and windows reaching to the ground. Another style is the L-shaped two-story dwelling with a side entrance to an inner patio. Also built to the sidewalk, it has a roof that extends out over balconies on both the street and patio sides. Iron grillwork, designs for which were created locally and executed to a high perfection by slave craftsmen, decorates these balconies and also supports the roof. Such houses are built side by side with no openings between them, but the patios offer space for trees, flowers, and fountains and ensure privacy for the occupants.

Central to the Vieux Carré is Jackson Square, facing the Cabildo and the Presbytère (former governmental centres, but now state museums) and St. Louis Cathedral. All date from colonial times, but considerable stylistic changes have been made on these buildings since they were erected.

On either side of this square are the Pontalba Apartments, built between 1849 and 1851, while nearby is the historic French Market. Curio and antique collectors throng the many shops on Royal Street. Side streets are lined with art galleries, perfume shops, sidewalk cafés, and tearooms. Bourbon Street is famous for its nightclubs, where jazz and risqué floor shows are a specialty. Devotees of jazz may also visit Preservation Hall and Dixieland Hall, where revivals of traditional styles may be heard. The New Orleans Jazz Club established a Jazz Museum and later donated the collection to the Louisiana State Museum system. The jazz collection and Mardi Gras exhibits are displayed in the Old U.S. Mint. Each spring the city puts on an International Jazz and Heritage Festival.

Every April the New Orleans Spring Fiesta Association sponsors walking tours of private homes and patios in the Vieux Carré and also of the spacious Garden District uptown, the elite 19th-century neighbourhood. Boats tour the extensive harbour facilities and the magnificent scenery of nearby waterways. The observation point atop the International Trade Mart (400 feet) at the foot of Canal Street offers a panoramic view of the river and city. Adjacent to this commercial centre is The Rivergate, a mammoth exhibition hall. The world-renowned Creole cuisine may be sampled in numerous restaurants, ranging from elegant dining rooms with French menus and waiters, to small cafés with checkered table-cloths, serving red beans and rice.

Sports share an honoured position with jazz and carnival activities in New Orleans. The city is the home of the New Orleans Saints, a member of the National Football League, and the site of the Louisiana Superdome, a sports arena with a capacity of up to 110,000. Racing has a 100-day season at the local Fair Grounds Race Track, while golf, a popular pastime, attracts top golfers every year to the Greater New Orleans Open Golf Tournament held at Lakewood Country Club. Boating, fishing, and swimming are popular pastimes on the city's many waterways. The city's Southern Yacht Club, on Lake Pontchartrain, is the second oldest in the country. In addition to the lakefront, popular recreation areas include the city's two largest parks, City and Audubon. The latter has made extensive renovations to its zoological gardens, making its exhibits of wildlife and farm animals one of the city's major recreational attractions. The New Orleans Recreation Department operates more than 100 playgrounds and directs organized recreation activities for thousands of youngsters. At the end of each year the Mid-Winter Sports

The Vieux Carré: Creole architecture and ironwork

The sporting life and the lively arts

Carnival is held in the city, featuring amateur competition in all major sports. It concludes on New Year's Day with the Sugar Bowl football contest between outstanding college teams.

Since World War II New Orleans has become an art centre, with many artists and art galleries offering original works to collectors. The New Orleans Museum of Art is a public museum displaying many art treasures. Live theatre is represented by several "little theatre" groups. Musical events include operas staged annually by the New Orleans Opera House Association, concerts given by the New Orleans Philharmonic-Symphony Society, a summer pops concert series, and concerts presented by the New Orleans Jazz Club and the New Orleans Recreation Department.

Mardi
Gras

The New Orleans carnival season, one of the events lending character to the contemporary city, begins after Christmas with local carnival organizations holding balls almost every night until Mardi Gras, the "Fat Tuesday" before Ash Wednesday. The two weeks before Mardi Gras are filled with parades, both day and night, climaxing on Mardi Gras with the Rex parade. The first parading carnival group (called a "krewe") was the "Mystick Krewe of Comus," which appeared in 1857, though celebrations by masked students go back to 1827. The krewe of Rex came into existence in 1872. Krewes, parades, and carnival crowds continued to grow until the late 1970s, when the city council limited the number of parades along the traditional routes.

In the latter half of the 19th century there were about a half-dozen leading newspapers, including one in French. Today, through a process of gradual consolidation, New Orleans has only one major daily, the *Times-Picayune/States-Item*. The city also has two weekly newspapers, numerous trade publications, several college journals, and two regional magazines of considerable circulation, *Louisiana Life* and *New Orleans Magazine*. Competitive journalism is kept alive among the city's five local television stations, four of which are commercial and one educational, and by the addition of cable television. There are more than 25 radio stations.

Problems and prospects. The major problem facing New Orleans is its lack of financial resources to maintain many vital city services, a situation directly linked to the faulty tax base, heavily dependent upon traditionally low property assessments, and the move to neighbouring parishes of prospective taxpayers. In addition to the possibility of revisions in the total taxation structure, a further hope for the future is the development of tracts of untouched land within the city limits for new suburban-like neighbourhoods and the urban renewal of old neighbourhoods. Both of these trends had already begun in the late 1970s, despite the slump in the building industry.

New Orleans East has become a prime new suburban area, and restoration of old houses in the heart of the city has saved entire blocks from demolition. In the central business district the Superdome has helped to bring about the revitalization of Poydras Street as a major artery for fashionable hotels and office buildings. Piazza d'Italia, near The Rivergate, combines a park with commercial and cultural activities. Future downtown face-lifting seems to be destined for the riverfront; the New Orleans Hilton Hotel pioneered building on the river. An 82-acre (40-hectare) site on the Mississippi, from the Spanish Plaza at the foot of Canal Street to Erato Street, was developed to accommodate the 1984 Louisiana World Exposition. City planners predict that by the end of the century the oldest portion of the riverfront, from Governor Nicholls Street to Erato Street, will be heavily involved in people-oriented industries and tourism, as well as in maritime commerce. The city has tried to attract more industries, and tourism has continued to grow. It is predicted that tourism will rise from about 6,000,000 visitors annually to 8,000,000 or 9,000,000 by the end of the 1980s, with jobs in tourist-related fields jumping from 45,000 to 75,000. With the volume of river traffic steadily increasing and an exciting building boom transforming the riverfront, New Orleans looks today, as it did at its inception, to the Mississippi River as its source of survival.

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(J.J.J.)

New South Wales

The first British colony in Australia, New South Wales is the oldest, richest, and most industrialized state of the Australian Commonwealth. Originally, the name New South Wales was applied to the entire east coast of Australia when the British explorer Capt. James Cook claimed the territory for the British crown in 1770. The separate colonies of Tasmania, South Australia, Victoria, and Queensland were proclaimed in the 19th century, and in 1911 and 1915 the Australian Capital Territory around Canberra and Jervis Bay was ceded to the commonwealth. New South Wales was thus gradually reduced to its present area of 309,433 square miles (801,428 square kilometres). It is bounded by Queensland to the north, the Pacific Ocean to the east, Victoria to the south, and South Australia to the west. By no means the largest Australian state, it is the most populous, with more than 5,300,000 inhabitants by the early 1980s. Its capital, Sydney, is the nation's largest city. Lord Howe Island, a dependency of New South Wales, is administered as part of the state.

The state of New South Wales reflects the dynamism and the growth problems of a fast-developing country. It is Australia's focal point of commercial farming, industry, and cultural development. It is also plagued by an imbalance between its urban and rural populations and often chafes under the financial restrictions of the commonwealth government. (For a discussion of the capital city, see SYDNEY.)

THE LANDSCAPE

The natural environment. *Relief.* The dominant geographical feature is the Great Dividing Range, which separates the narrow coastal strip from the great plains to the west. The coastal strip varies from 10 to 50 miles (16 to 80 kilometres) in width and is bounded along its entire length by a natural barrier of steep mountains. Beyond this barrier, however, the Great Dividing Range consists not of true mountains but of a series of high plateaus, or Tablelands, which slope gently to the west until they merge into the plains beyond. The average height of the Tablelands is about 2,500 feet. In some areas they rise to 5,000 feet, and they attain a height of 7,310 feet (2,228 metres) at Mt. Kosciuszko—the highest mountain in Aus-

The
Great
Dividing
Range

tralia—in the Australian Alps in the south. The gentle western side of the Tablelands is known as the Western Slopes. The plains cover nearly two-thirds of the state. Lying below 1,000 feet, they are interrupted only by the elevated country between Orange and Cobar in the east and by the Main Barrier and Grey ranges in the west.

Drainage. The Great Dividing Range is the state's main watershed. Numerous rivers flow eastward from the range to the Pacific Ocean. Though often beautiful, they are too short and rapid to be of much economic value. The major rivers that flow west—the Namoi, the Macquarie, the Lachlan, and the Murrumbidgee—cross some 500 miles of sunburned plains before joining the Murray and Darling rivers. These brown, muddy, inland rivers meander across the plains and lose a great deal of their water by evaporation. Over 1,600 miles of the Darling River, which rises in Queensland, flow to the southwest across the plains to join the Murray. Rising in Victoria, the Murray runs for over 1,200 miles along the southern border of New South Wales before crossing South Australia to reach the Pacific Ocean.

Soils. A great deal of New South Wales is naturally fertile, and the red and black soil plains are extremely rich. The coastal strip, however, consists mostly of poor and sandy soils. Agricultural potential is severely limited by inadequate and uncertain rainfall and intense evaporation.

Climate. About 19 percent of the state receives less than ten inches of rain a year, and approximately 23 percent receives only ten to 15 inches. The coastal districts have the most annual rainfall, varying from about 30 inches in the south to about 75 inches in the north. Precipitation diminishes progressively away from the coast. The average annual rainfall in the northwest is only eight inches, and some of the land beyond the Darling River merges into desert.

If the dry climate and brilliant sunshine present severe agricultural problems, they are yet attractive to the inhabitants of the coastal cities. Newcastle, Sydney, and Wollongong have a delightful climate. It is rarely too hot in summer or too cold in winter, and Sydney is without sunshine for an average of only 23 days a year. Inland it is both hotter in summer and colder in winter. Average temperatures range from 74° to 83° F (24° to 29° C) in the summer months and from 49° to 54° F (7° to 13° C) in winter. Temperatures of over 100° F (38° C) are frequent in summer, and frost at night is common in winter. Heavy snow falls on the southern mountains and, more rarely, on the northern and central Tablelands. On Mt. Kosciusko snowdrifts linger throughout the summer.

The seasons are fairly well defined; autumn begins in March, winter in June, spring in September, and summer in December.

Vegetation. The natural vegetation ranges from the dense semitropical forest of the northern coast to the sparse plant life of the western plains. Nearly one-tenth of the state is forested, and, except for the plains, a much larger area is covered with bush and scrub. The forests, concentrated mainly on the coast and Tablelands, give way to shrub eucalyptus on the Western Slopes and to salt bush and spinifex (a spiny grass) in the far west. The predominant tree is the eucalyptus, which is the state's chief source of hardwood. Smaller quantities of softwoods, such as the red cedar, the hoop pine, and the rosewood, are found on the northern coast, while the cypress pine grows on the Western Slopes. Native grasses are found everywhere but in the extreme west, and there are many wild flowers.

Animal life. The rich birdlife includes many species of parrot and cockatoo, the flightless emu, and the mound-building scrub turkey and mallee bird. Most of the species of marsupials, mammals that do not develop a placenta and that carry their young in an external pouch, are represented. These include the wombat, the koala, the common and ring-tailed opossum, the common and long-nosed bandicoot, and a variety of kangaroos and wallabies. Many of the smaller marsupials, diminished by agriculture and forestry, are retreating into uninhabited regions. The platypus and spiny anteater are common.

Several species of poisonous snakes, including black, brown, and tiger snakes, are found throughout the state. The best known fish is the Murray cod, which is found in the western rivers and is an excellent food source. Trout have been introduced into the streams of the Great Dividing Range.

Traditional regions. There are four regions of traditional activity. The coastal strip is mostly used for dairy farming, the Tablelands for sheep and cattle raising, and the Western Slopes for wheat cultivation. The plains are the site of the great sheep stations, for over 100 years the basis of the state's economy. They still provide almost 40 percent of Australia's wool.

There are also four distinct political regions. The northern Tableland is known as New England. Its population, almost entirely rural, tends to resent the government's preoccupation with Sydney. There has long been an unsuccessful movement to form a new state. Similar feelings can be found in the Riverina district, located between the Murray and Murrumbidgee rivers. There, too, people tend to favour separatism; in practical matters, they look toward Melbourne, the capital of Victoria, rather than to Sydney. The Monaro sheep country comprises the windy, upland district of the southern Tableland, including what is now the Australian Capital Territory. The sheep graziers of the Western plains, living a remote and lonely life, feel a common loyalty born of common interests.

The landscape under human settlement. *Rural settlement.* Climatic conditions have also dictated the size of landholdings. The smallest are in the coastal strip, where dairy and fruit farming are the chief occupations. Holdings are considerably larger—between 500 and 5,000 acres—on the Tablelands and Western Slopes, where mixed farming is the normal practice. Further west they grow larger still; in the dry lands of the Western Division, many sheep stations cover over 100,000 acres. The exception to this general rule is in irrigated areas along the Murrumbidgee and other inland rivers, where diversified cultivation makes small holdings possible.

The tenure of landholdings in New South Wales is mostly either freehold or leasehold from the crown. Tenancy, as understood in Europe, is uncommon, and, except in the Western Division, most land is occupied by the owners.

Because of the large size of the average field, or paddock, and the relatively uncultivated appearance of the land, a typical sheep station presents a characteristic appearance. The heart of each property is the homestead, with its cluster of low buildings and well-watered trees and gardens, surrounded by bare, brown paddocks. There are no villages, and the nearest country town may be 30 or 40 miles away. In spite of the severe problems faced by sheep graziers because of the unstable price of wool and the constant threat of drought, life on the larger properties is still considered a pleasant and privileged one.

Urban settlement. The largest industrial urban area is the coastal complex of Newcastle, Sydney, and Wollongong. There are several towns of 30,000 or fewer inhabitants in the interior, such as Albury and Wagga Wagga in the southeast and Orange and Tamworth in the east central region. These are essentially country towns serving the surrounding rural population. The only interior industrial town is Broken Hill, in the far west, which depends upon the rich mineral deposits in the Barrier Range.

THE PEOPLE

Population groups. *Ethnic origins.* The people of New South Wales are in no way different from those of Australia as a whole. Nearly 80 percent are of British origin, and over 20 percent are of Irish descent. The small remainder is composed mainly of continental Europeans. There are also some 24,000 native tribesmen, or Aborigines, and a few thousand Chinese.

Religious groups. Almost the entire population professing a religion is Christian. The largest groups are Anglicans (Church of England), 42 percent, and Roman Catholics, 31 percent. Other groups are Presbyterians, Methodists, Greek Orthodox, and Baptists. Lutherans and Congregationalists each comprise less than 1 percent of the population.

Rainfall

Landholdings

Marsupials

Demography. The birthrate and deathrate and other vital statistics do not vary substantially from those of the rest of Australia. Since 1960, however, New South Wales has had a slightly lower birthrate than the other states, presumably because of the higher proportion of people living in cities. The birthrate in 1965 had fallen to 18.6 per 1,000 but has since risen slightly. Since 1947, immigration has accounted for over one-third of the total population increase.

The most striking feature of the population is the disparity between those living in the rural areas and those in the cities. Three-fourths of the state's 4,500,000 people are crowded into 2 percent of its area in Newcastle, Sydney, and Wollongong. This urban population increased by over 400,000 from 1966 to 1971, while that of the rest of the state declined by more than 126,000. The state government has long been concerned by this trend, and various schemes have been proposed to correct it. If it continues, by the end of the 20th century 82 percent of the population will be crammed into the central-coast industrial area.

THE ECONOMY

Economically the most important state in Australia, New South Wales contains about one-half of the country's sheep, one-quarter of its cattle, and one-third of its pigs. It produces a large share of the nation's grain, dairy products, and wool and mines most of its black coal and silver, lead, and zinc. It is also the country's most industrialized area and produces over two-fifths of the nation's manufactured goods.

The extent and distribution of resources. *Biological resources.* In 1970 there were about 70,000,000 sheep, 150,000 horses, and 5,500,000 cattle grazing on the state's vast grasslands. There were also about 500,000 pigs. The state forests provide an important natural resource of hardwood timber, although the percentage of forest land—12 percent—is low by international standards. The Pacific Ocean provides valuable fish.

Mineral resources. The most important mineral resource is the vast black-coal deposits of the central coastal region. The main silver, lead, and zinc deposits are located at Broken Hill. Large copper deposits have been discovered at Cobar. Other mineral resources include tin from the Ardlethan and Tallebong fields and rutile (a red or black mineral cut into gems), found in the coastal sands. By the early 1970s, no iron ore, nickel, uranium, oil, or natural gas had been discovered.

Power resources. Coal is the most developed power resource, while the Snowy River offers important hydroelectric potential.

Sources of income. *Agriculture, forestry, and fishing.* Agriculture is spread throughout the state. About half of the acreage under crops is devoted to wheat, which is grown for both domestic consumption and export. Other grains grown include oats, maize (corn), and rice; fodder, potatoes, grapes, sugarcane, and fruit are also raised. Excellent wine is produced in the Hunter Valley and cotton is grown on the Namoi River. Sheep are raised mainly for their wool, which is also exported. Both slaughter and dairy cattle are important.

New South Wales is the most important timber-producing state, accounting for about one-third of Australia's production. Hardwoods and softwoods are exploited, and there is a regular pine reforestation program.

Tuna fishing is the most important marine industry, and mullet, shark, and Australian salmon are also caught in significant numbers. The state provides about one-third of the national fish catch, as well as all of the oysters consumed domestically.

Mining and quarrying. The most important coalfields are in Hunter Valley above Newcastle, around Wollongong, and at Lithgow. Silver, lead, and zinc are mined at Broken Hill. Copper is mined chiefly near Cobar, and tin is mined in the central and northern Tablelands.

Industry. About two-thirds of the manufacturing industries are located in Sydney. Other important industrial centres are Newcastle, Wollongong, Lithgow, and Broken Hill. The fastest growing industry is the manufacture of

iron and steel and metal goods. Other important products are textiles, food, beverages, tobacco, chemicals, paints, paper, and printed material. Factories are mainly small, and only a few employ over 1,000 persons. A very few large concerns, such as the Broken Hill Proprietary Company Ltd. (iron and steel) and the Australian Consolidated Industries Ltd. (glass), employ over half the industrial workers.

Power. Electricity is generated and distributed by the Electricity Commission of New South Wales. Power is sold to local authorities, the state railways and tramways, and large industrial users. Almost all the state's electricity is generated by thermal-power stations. The Snowy Mountains hydroelectric scheme, begun in 1949 and to be completed in 30 years, has diverted the waters of the Snowy and other rivers westward into the Murrumbidgee. After its completion, about 20 percent of the state's electricity will be generated by waterpower.

Finance. Since 1942 the commonwealth has collected all income taxes and reimbursed the states on an agreed formula. As a result, New South Wales is almost entirely dependent upon commonwealth grants for its revenue. In 1971 the states were given the right to levy a payroll tax, but it was not clear that this "growth tax" would be sufficient for their mounting needs.

Management of the economy. Like the rest of Australia, the state has essentially a capitalist economy, with the great majority of industry owned by public companies. The state government, however, owns and manages the railways, some coal mines, and the production of electricity. There is a vigorous trade-union movement. The Chamber of Manufacturers and other employers' organizations represent the interests of private enterprise.

Transportation. New South Wales has excellent internal air services. The state railways provide an adequate link between Sydney and larger population centres. They have suffered, however, from competition with air and road transport. Sydney has Australia's only underground rail network, and electric rail services connect the city with many of its suburbs.

Roads. There are 131,330 miles of public roads, including 22,410 miles of state highways and main roads. Most of these are paved, but many, including the main highways to Brisbane and Melbourne, are too narrow for the traffic they now bear. Most country roads are surprisingly good, though not all are yet paved.

Inland waterways. There are no commercial waterways, although before the railways were built the Murray and Darling rivers and their tributaries were used extensively for carrying freight.

Ports. The four major ports are Sydney, Newcastle, Port Kembla, and Botany Bay. Together they handle approximately 40,000,000 tons of cargo each year. All ports are administered by the Maritime Services Board of New South Wales.

Railways. The railways cover over 6,000 miles and centre upon Sydney. They also provide adequate facilities to the other major urban centres including Broken Hill, 700 miles to the southwest. The lines run from north to south along the coast and roughly from east to west in the Tablelands and plains.

Air services. Air services, largely for passenger traffic, are provided by a number of lines. Air links are operated to all the major towns, and the airport at Sydney can accommodate jet aircraft.

ADMINISTRATION AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS

Government. *Constitutional framework.* The state government administers internal matters, while the national government (commonwealth) is responsible for defense, foreign policy, immigration, trade, customs and excise, post and telegraph services, and air and sea transport. Within those limitations, the state is sovereign and has powers to make laws for the welfare and good government of New South Wales. It has no armed forces other than the police.

The Parliament consists of two houses—the lower house, or Legislative Assembly, of 94 members who are directly elected by the people, and the 60-member upper

Metro services in Sydney

Houses of Parliament

Wheat and wool

house, or Legislative Council, one-fourth of whose members are elected by both houses every three years. The Cabinet is chosen from the party that commands a majority in the Legislative Assembly; it is headed by a premier. Parliament meets for three years but can be dissolved earlier.

The state also has its own governor, who is appointed by the Queen on the recommendation of the government. The titular head of the government, he is now always an Australian, and his duties are almost entirely formal.

Local government. New South Wales is divided into more than 200 local-government areas, which are controlled by councils. These councils are elected every three years by adult residents of their areas.

Elections. All elections are by universal adult suffrage; the voting age is 18 years. Voting for the Legislative Assembly is compulsory, but voting for local councils is not.

Political parties. Political parties are usually state branches of the federal political parties and tend to have the same policies and interests. The three principal parties are the Liberal Party, the Country Party, and the Australian Labor Party. There is also a branch of the Australian Democratic Labor Party, without a seat in either house, and a small Communist Party, which still retains some influence in a few trade unions. Elections are fought on state issues, but the fortunes of the parties are often affected by the fortunes of the same parties in the commonwealth.

Justice. State law and its administration are largely based upon the British system. Legal procedure includes trial by jury in criminal cases, the right of appeal, and an independent judiciary. The highest state court is the Supreme Court, against which appeals can be made to the High Court of Australia and, in certain cases, to the Privy Council in London. Minor offenses are dealt with by magistrates in the Courts of Petty Sessions, while more serious cases are brought before a judge and jury in the Courts of Quarter Sessions.

Administration. **Education.** Education is compulsory for all children between the ages of six and 15. Most children are educated in free, nondenominational primary and secondary schools. A minority go to private schools, most of them administered by the Roman Catholic Church. There are also a few denominational secondary schools for the children of the wealthy. There are five universities in the state; the cost of administration is shared with the commonwealth.

Health and welfare. The state government is responsible for the supervision of public health, hospitals, and medical services. There are almost 270 public and a large number of private hospitals. The national health-insurance scheme is financed and administered by the commonwealth, as are the social services such as family allowances, child endowment, unemployment benefits, and pensions.

Social conditions. New South Wales shares in the high standard of living and generous social services enjoyed by all Australians. The state has its own Industrial Commission to settle industrial disputes, though here, too, the Commonwealth Arbitration system has become predominant. The basic wage—adopted from time to time by the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Commission—is adopted for state awards and agreements. The 40-hour workweek is now standard.

CULTURAL LIFE AND INSTITUTIONS

The state cannot claim a unique culture that distinguishes it from the rest of Australia. It is perhaps the most representative and typical of all the states, and its greater population and wealth give it a leading position over all but Victoria.

The state of the arts. Sydney has the oldest and reputedly the best of the symphony orchestras. There are many small theatres, but no professional drama company of first-class quality was established by the early 1970s. Sydney's Opera House, which opened in 1973, is a major arts centre with a concert hall, a large theatre for opera and ballet, and a small theatre.

Many of Australia's leading poets and novelists were either born in the state or live there. Sydney is the centre of a school of contemporary painting that looks toward the United States and Europe for its inspiration. The Art Gallery of New South Wales has the best collection of Australian painting in Australia. In general, the cultural climate is marked more by a healthy and democratic vitality rather than by any special distinction. This is equally true of the popular arts, where there are large audiences for and keen interest in both Australian and foreign folk singers and jazz and rock groups.

The mass media. Sydney has three morning papers, including the *Australian*, which has a national circulation, and the *Sydney Morning Herald*, which is the oldest paper in Australia. There are also two evening papers and four Sunday papers. Many weeklies and magazines are also published there. Most country towns, even those of medium size, also have their own newspapers. In both television and radio broadcasting, the Australian Broadcasting Commission competes with a number of commercial stations.

Prospects for the future. Because of its wealth, geographical position, and mixed economy, New South Wales is well placed to share in the progress and prosperity of Australia. It is likely to remain, for some time to come, the most important state in the commonwealth. Whether it will also remain a distinct political entity is more doubtful and must depend on the future of federalism in the country. Though there is a certain loyalty to their state among New South Welshmen, this more often finds expression in sports than in politics. The Australian Labor Party openly and some Liberals secretly are centralists who would like to abolish the states or at least reduce them to administrative units. It can be argued that the state governments and parliaments are in any case likely to lose their reason for existence if they are not given back the power to raise their own revenue to meet their own expenditures.

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(J.D.Pr.)

New Thought

New Thought, a mind-healing movement based on religious and metaphysical (concerning the nature of ultimate reality) presuppositions, originated in the United States in the 19th century. Involving both individuals and denominations, it maintains an influence beyond the particular organizations associated with the movement. The diversity of views and styles of life represented in various New Thought groups are difficult to describe because of their variety, and the same reason makes it virtually impossible to determine either membership or adherents. The influence of the various New Thought groups has been spread by its leaders through lectures, journals, and books not only in the United States but in the United Kingdom, in Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia. Many adherents of New Thought consider themselves to be Christian, though generalizations about their relations to Christianity have been questioned.

History of the New Thought movement. *Origins.* The origins of New Thought may be traced to a dissatisfaction on the part of many persons with scientific empiricism and their reaction to the religious skepticism of the 17th and 18th centuries. The romanticism and idealism of the 19th century also influenced the New Thought movement, of which Phineas P. Quimby (1802-66) is usually cited as the earliest proponent. From Portland, Maine, Quimby practiced mesmerism (hypnotism) and developed his concepts of mental and spiritual healing and health based on the view that illness is a matter of the mind. Quimby's influence may be seen in the writings

Influence
of
Phineas P.
Quimby

of Mary Baker Eddy and in the development of Christian Science (which she founded), although Mrs. Eddy retracted acknowledgment of dependence on her teacher. Quimby's influence has been readily acknowledged by Warren F. Evans (1817-89) and by Julius A. Dresser (1838-93) and his son Horatio W. Dresser (1866-1954). Evans, a Methodist and then a Swedenborgian minister (leader of a theosophical movement based on the teachings of the 18th-century Swedish scientist and theologian Emanuel Swedenborg), published a number of works exploring and systematizing the ideas of Quimby. These included *Mental Cure* (1869), *Mental Medicine* (1872), and *Soul and Body* (1876).

Julius Dresser was a popular lecturer who emphasized the theories of Quimby, and his son Horatio spread the elder Dresser's teachings and later edited *The Quimby Manuscripts* (1921).

Organization of New Thought groups. As the ideas of Quimby and his students began to spread, interested persons began to gather in congregations. They organized New Thought congresses (the first in 1894), the National New Thought Alliance in 1908, and the International New Thought Alliance (INTA) in 1914. In the alliance are (or have been) such groups as the Unity School of Christianity (founded by former Methodists, Charles and Myrtle Fillmore), Divine Science (founded by Nona L. Brooks), the Church of Religious Science (founded by Ernest Holmes), and others, such as the Home of Truth, the Church of Truth, the Christ Truth League, the Society of the Healing Christ, and the Christian Assembly. The alliance has depended for its continuity upon the lengthy tenures of two of its presidents (James A. Edgerton, 1915-23, and again 1934-37; and Robert H. Bitzer, 1949-63) and upon the cooperation of the leaders of various schools of New Thought recognized by the alliance. Its headquarters have been successively in Washington, D.C., in New York City, in Hollywood, California, and in Scottsdale, Arizona.

Smaller groups have often gathered around teachers noted for their powers of healing and have organized themselves in rather loose congregational patterns. There is no single organizational structure.

New Thought teachings and practices. New Thought represents the influence of Platonism, based on the views of the 5th-4th-century-BC Greek philosopher Plato, involving the view that the realm of ideas is more real than that of matter; Swedenborgianism, especially Swedenborg's view that the material realm is one of effects whose causes are spiritual and whose purpose is divine; Hegelianism, based on the views of the 18th-19th-century German philosopher G.W.F. Hegel, especially those concerning the external world, mental phenomena, and the nervous organism as the meeting ground of the body and the mind; Orientalism, involving spiritual teachings of Eastern religions (e.g., Hinduism); and, particularly, the Transcendentalism (a form of Idealism) of the 19th-century American philosopher and poet Ralph Waldo Emerson.

Though it is difficult to summarize New Thought beliefs, since it is to a large degree individualistic, it is possible to summarize some of the more prevalent views. As far as Christian Science is concerned, New Thought adherents do not accept Mrs. Eddy's teaching or any other formulation as the final revelation. Rather, truth is viewed as a matter of continuing revelation, and no one leader or institution can declare with finality what is the nature of truth.

Moreover, New Thought does not oppose medical science, as Mrs. Eddy did, and it is essentially positive and optimistic about life and its outcome.

Basic views. In 1916 the alliance agreed upon a purpose that embraces some central ideas of most groups:

To teach the Infinitude of the Supreme One; the Divinity of Man and his Infinite Possibilities through the creative power of constructive thinking and obedience to the voice of the indwelling Presence which is our source of Inspiration, Power, Health and Prosperity.

In 1917, at the St. Louis (Missouri) Congress, the alliance adopted a "Declaration of Principles." It was modified in

1919 and was printed in *New Thought* until revised in the 1950s.

This purpose and these principles emphasized the immanence of God, the divine nature of man, the immediate availability of God's power to man, the spiritual character of the universe, and the fact that sin, human disorders, and human disease are basically matters of incorrect thinking. Moreover, according to New Thought, man can live in oneness with God in love, truth, peace, health, and plenty. Many New Thought groups emphasize Jesus as teacher and healer and proclaim his kingdom as being within a person. Reference to Jesus or the Christ is totally omitted in the principles, however, as revised in 1954. New Thought leaders, unlike Quimby, it should be noted, have increasingly stressed material prosperity as one result of New Thought.

New Thought implies a kind of monism, or view of the oneness of the world, but it also has strong Gnostic (i.e., dualistic, matter being opposed to spirit) undertones; that is, though New Thought is open to all, spiritual healing and strength of mind and body are available only to those who have the insights and who have been initiated into the movement at some point. There are no established patterns of worship, although the services often involve explication of New Thought ideas, testimony to healing, and prayer for the sick.

Spread of New Thought ideas. New Thought conceptions have been spread by a wide variety of periodicals, the following of which are still being published: *New Thought* (INTA); *Unity* and *Daily Word* (Unity School of Christianity); *Divine Science Monthly*, *Science of Mind*, *Religious Science*, and *Crusader* (published by Brother Mandus, English leader of the World Healing Crusade).

New Thought ideas have also been spread by a number of writers who have produced several religious books with significant popular appeal: Ralph W. Trine, *In Tune with the Infinite* (1897); Orison Swett Marden, *Pushing to the Front* (1894); Robert Collier, *The Secret of the Ages* (1926); and Emmet Fox, *Power Through Constructive Thinking* (1940) and *The Sermon on the Mount* (1934).

More recently, clergymen outside the movement, such as Glenn Clark, in *How to Find Health Through Prayer* (1940), and Norman Vincent Peale, in *The Power of Positive Thinking* (1952), have contributed to the distribution of some New Thought ideas. Though it is very difficult to generalize about the social and ethical consequences of New Thought, there is evidence, as suggested by this popular literature, that New Thought has been individualistic in its ethical concerns. It has attempted to promote a positive personal attitude toward life and to encourage a success mentality in an industrialized and urbanized America.

This has made it appealing to middle and upper class clientele and has reinforced the suspicion of its adherents concerning those who attempt to deal with the corporate problems of life by means of political power. The general Methodist orientation of persons such as Evans and the Fillmores suggests a source of the perfectionist aspects of New Thought views.

New Thought groups. *Unity.* Among the most prominent groups spreading New Thought motifs is Unity—i.e., the Unity School of Christianity—which was organized by Myrtle (1845-1931) and Charles (1854-1948) Fillmore. Both were originally Methodists, and both suffered from physical and emotional troubles. The Fillmores came under the influence of Emma Curtis Hopkins, a former follower of Mrs. Eddy, at the Christian Science Theological Seminary in Chicago. They started publishing *Modern Thought* in 1889 and *Unity* in 1891 and expanded their influence greatly through a ministry they called Silent Unity, which involved an affirmative prayer and counseling service on request. At first this type of healing and spiritual ministry was carried on through correspondence and later also by telegraph and telephone. Unity claims to receive an average of more than 2,000,000 letters and telephone calls for prayers each year. From small beginnings in Kansas City, Missouri, Unity expanded, with Unity Centers developing elsewhere; the Fillmores also founded a Unity Village, 15 miles southeast of Kansas

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