

25X1

Page Denied

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Bol'shaya Sovetskaya Entsiklopedia
 [Great Soviet Encyclopedia], Second
 edition, Vol XXXIX, 1956, Moscow,
 Pages 357- 354

Unsigned Article

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I	General information	1
II	Physicogeographical description	4
III	Population	31
IV	Economic geography description	38
V	Historical outline	111
VI	Government structure	194
VII	The Armed forces	200
VIII	Political parties	205
IX	The Trade union movement	213
X	The press and radio	221
XI	The Medical and health situations	227
XII	Education	235
XIII	Natural and technical sciences, philosophy, political economy, and linguistics	241
XIV	Literature	283
XV	Fine arts and architecture	312
XVI	Music	321
XVII	Theater and cinema	327
XVIII	A chronological table of US history	337

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

I. GENERAL INFORMATION

The US is a state in North America. It borders on Canada to the north and on Mexico to the southwest. It is washed by the Atlantic Ocean to the East, by the Gulf of Mexico to the Southwest, and by the Pacific Ocean to the West. The length of its borders is 9,080 km, and the seacoast is 22,680 km. Its total area is 7.8 million sq km. Its population was 150,687,000 according to the 1950 census and the estimated number as of 1955 is 165,256,000.

Administratively the country consists of 48 states and a federal district (the capital city). Washington is the capital.

US AREA AND POPULATION BY REGIONS AND STATES*

Regions and States	Area in 1,000 sq km	Population as of 1950 census in 1,000 persons
[1]	[2]	[3]
I. The Industrial North		
New England	172.6	9,214.5
Maine	36.0	918.6
New Hampshire	24.1	533.2
Vermont	24.9	377.7
Massachusetts	21.5	4,690.5
Rhode Island	3.2	791.9
Connecticut	12.9	3,007.3
Middle Atlantic states	266.1	30,163.5
New York	126.4	14,830.2
New Jersey	20.3	4,835.3
Pennsylvania	117.4	10,498.0

[1]	[2]	[3]
Northeastern Center	643.1	30,899.4
Ohio	106.7	7,946.6
Indiana	94.1	3,934.2
Illinois	146.1	8,712.2
Michigan	150.8	6,371.8
Wisconsin	145.4	3,434.6
The Northwest	1,339.7	14,061.4
Minnesota	217.8	2,982.5
Iowa	145.6	2,621.1
Missouri	180.4	3,954.7
North Dakota	183.1	619.6
South Dakota	199.5	652.7
Nebraska	200.0	1,325.5
Kansas	213.1	1,805.3
II. The Former Slave-holding South		
South Atlantic states	722.4	21,182.3
Delaware	5.3	318.1
Maryland	27.4	2,343.0
District of Columbia	0.2	802.2
Virginia	105.7	3,318.7
West Virginia	62.6	2,005.3
North Carolina	136.5	4,061.9
South Carolina	90.4	2,117.0
Georgia	152.6	3,444.6
Florida	151.7	2,771.3
The Southeast	471.3	11,477.2
Kentucky	104.6	2,944.8
Tennessee	109.4	3,291.7

[1]	[2]	[3]
Alabama	133.7	3,061.7
Mississippi	123.6	2,178.9
The southwest	1,136.4	14,537.6
Louisiana	125.7	2,683.5
Texas	692.1	7,711.2
Oklahoma	181.1	2,233.4
Arkansas	137.5	1,909.5
 III. The Colonized West		
Mountain states	2,237.3	5,075.0
Montana	381.1	591.0
Wyoming	253.6	290.5
Colorado	269.0	1,325.1
New Mexico	315.1	681.2
Arizona	295.0	749.6
Utah	219.9	688.9
Nevada	286.3	160.1
Idaho	216.4	588.6
Pacific States	838.8	14,486.5
Washington	176.6	2,379.0
Oregon	251.2	1,521.3
California	411.0	10,586.2
Total	7,827.7	150,697.4

* Compiled from the figures of the Statistical Abstract of the United States 1954, Washington, 1954

US POSSESSIONS

Possessions	Area in 1,000 sq km	Population in 1950 in 1,000 persons
Alaska	1,519.0	128.6
Hawaii	16.7	499.8
Puerto Rico	8.9	2,210.7
Guam	0.5	59.5
Samoa (American part)	0.2	18.9
Panama Canal Zone	1.4	52.8
Virgin Islands (American part)	0.3	26.7

The US also possesses a number of small islands (Midway, Wake, etc) and received in 1947 under trusteeship from the United Nations the Carolinas, Mariannas, and Marshall Islands in the Pacific.

II. PHYSIOGEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION

General Characteristics

The US is situated in the southern half of the North American continent and is almost completely within the temperate and subtropical belts, between the Pacific Ocean in the west and the Atlantic in the east. The entire west of the country is covered by the great cordillera. Vast plains extend in the center which are bordered on the east by the medium large Appalachian Range. To the extreme east and south are the coastal lowlands. The climate in the coastal lowlands is warm and moist and predominantly subtropical (temperate in the northwest). Part of the area is covered with coniferous or mixed forests (in the extreme southeast with evergreen tropical forests). Characteristic of the Appalachian Mountains

(reaching up to 2,036 m high according to the new figures) are: a relief of leveled parallel ridges with ancient glacier forms in the north and erosions in the south; soft, moist, temperate, and subtropical climate; deep, short rivers and dense forests on the slopes. The climate in the central plains is continental with increasing continental features from the southeast toward the northwest; there is a well developed river system (Mississippi River system); in the northern part, which was ice-covered in the remote past, there are many lakes (including the Great Lakes). The natural vegetation in the plains has been almost destroyed and the topsoil over a considerable part of the territory is subjected to powerful erosion. In the cordillera system, the eastern fringe consists of the Rocky Mountain system (up to 4,399 m high) of boulders and igneous rock with a contemporary ice cover (in the northern part) and with a relatively arid climate and coniferous forests. Extending along the west are the Pacific ranges (highest point in US, Mount Whitney, 4,418 m) with a temperate and predominantly moist ocean climate and thick coniferous forests in the northern part, and subtropical climate (of the Mediterranean type) and vegetation (coniferous and evergreen forests and shrubbery) in the south. Between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific mountain ranges are high semidesert and desert interior plateaus (1,000-3,000 m high), which are in places criss-crossed by deep canyons and which do not everywhere have a watershed to the ocean.

Coasts

The territory of the US is washed by the Pacific Ocean to the west and by the Atlantic to the east which also forms the large Gulf of Mexico on the southern coast of the US. The latter is separated from the open ocean by the Peninsula of Florida. Running along the west coast is the cold California current. The southeast of the US up to 35° N lat is washed by the warm Gulf Stream and the northeast of the country up to 38°

N lat by the cold Labrador Current. Only the bays in the northeast up to 39° lat freeze in winter (not every year). The length of the US coastline is 22,680 km. The Atlantic and Mexican coasts of the US are low level and are fringed with a wide strip of continental sandbank. The Atlantic coastline is uneven. In the northwest (up to 40° N lat) it is dotted with numerous small bays (Massachusetts, etc). Situated near the coast are islands (Long Island, Martha's Vineyard, Nantucket, etc). It is also the terminal point of river estuaries (the Hudson, for example). Between 40° and 35° N lat beaches and estuaries predominate along the coast. There are huge bays accessible to ocean-going vessels (Delaware, Chesapeake, etc). South of 35° N lat the entire US coast, washed by the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico, is typified by lagoons. The Pacific coast line is hilly, straight, less uneven, and almost without islands. The sandbar strip is narrow. There are only 2 large bays, Puget Sound and San Francisco.

Topography

Four belts predominantly stand out in the relief of the US. Extending across the country from north to south is a broad belt of plains comprising more than 1/2 of the entire territory. Covering the western part is the broad cordillera (q. v.) which extends from north-northwest to south-southeast. The eastern part consists of narrower belts extending from northeast to southwest, namely the Appalachian Mountains and the Atlantic plain (q. v.). The absence of ranges extending from east to west is characteristic.

The Atlantic Plain

Extending along the Atlantic coast to the south of the Cape Cod peninsula is a lowland plain gradually expanding to 300 km toward the southwest. In the extreme southwest it adjoins the interior plain belt

of the US. Its surface is even, almost all of it being below 200 m above sea level. Many sections are marshy. It includes the Florida peninsula, a considerable part of which is covered with marshes.

The Appalachians

Adjoining the Atlantic lowlands from the north is the medium sized Appalachian Mountain region about 2,300 m long. To the north of the Mohawk Valley (between Lake Ontario and the Hudson River), the Appalachians consist of a number of boulder massifs and peaks reaching up to 1,900 m, divided by deep valleys with prominent traces of the Quaternary ice period. To the south of the valley the Appalachian relief has been formed by the erosive action of the rivers. The exposure of solid rocks corresponds to the narrow ranges running from the northeast to the southwest. The loose earth surface corresponds to the longitudinal valleys. To the east, the mountains are fringed by a piedmont plateau and to the west by the Appalachian Plateau. The first is of a crystalline boulder type with undulating surface at an 80 m level in the east and up to 400 m in the west. The plateau is separated from the Atlantic lowland by a sheer ledge. Rising above it from the west is the crystalline Blue Ridge (Mount Mitchell, according to verified figures, is 2,036 m high). Further to the west are numerous short flat top ranges (900-1,250 m high) consisting of compressed sedimentary rocks. The ranges are separated by broad longitudinal valleys and crosscut gorges. The Appalachian Plateau is criss-crossed by a ramified river network and slopes gently to the west. Its southern part is characterized by an abundance of caves.

Plains of the Interior US

The interior areas of the US are covered by the great and central

plains which form an asymmetrical depression with its tapering axis along the broad Mississippi Valley. In the south the great plains are fringed by the broad Mexican lowlands. In the west they are continuous with the cordillera and slope down from 1,500 m at the foot of the Rocky Mountains (eastern cordillera chain) to 500 m at the border of the central plains (97-98° W long). The central plains decline from 450 m in the north to a 100 m in the south, declining also toward the Mississippi River which runs along a valley up to a 120 km wide. The northern part of the plains, under ice during the quaternary period, has a hilly moraine relief. The central part is criss-crossed by a river and ravine network, particularly the great plains, within which some ravines reach a depth of 100 m (so-called Bad Lands). The large rivers run along broad and flat valleys. Cavernous territory is prominent along the left banks of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers and in limestone areas. Rising above the flat land along the right Mississippi bank is the Ozark Plateau (762 m) and the Washita Mountains (884 m according to precise figures).

The Cordillera System

The west of the US is covered by the cordillera system which is up to 1,700 km wide. The system consists of the Rocky Mountains in the east, the Pacific ranges in the west, and the interior plateau and table-land between them. The Rocky Mountains are formed for the most part by coulee-type ranges reaching up to 4,400 m high (Eibert Mountain, 4,399 m; Blanca Peak, 4,386 m; Ancompagre Peak 4,360 m, etc), among which are situated the broad basins (so-called parks) or deep valleys. Most ranges have flat tops or blunted peaks, and their slopes are very steep. Traces of the Quaternary ice period, including glacial troughs, alpine shaped ridges, etc are abundant in many places, particularly in the north. In the central

and southern parts there are areas of recent volcanic eruptions (Yellowstone National Park, San Juan Massif, etc).

Between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific ranges is the interior plateau belt consisting of the Columbian Plateau, the Great Basin, and the Colorado Plateau. The first reaches a height of 700-1,000 m and is formed by a vast lava cover criss-crossed by the Columbia and Snake River Canyons which are up to 900 m deep. The Great Basin is for the most part from 1,200 to 1,800 m high and consists of alternating short meridional boulder-type ranges (2,500-3,000 m high) and wide longitudinal depressions filled with destroyed remnants of the ranges (the deepest of them, Death Valley, is 85 m below sea level). Some depressions are covered with salt lakes (Great Salt Lake, etc) or with salt marshes and many sections are covered with sand. In the southeast is the steppe-type Colorado Plateau (2,000-3,000 m high) which is formed by a thick layer of almost horizontal residual rock. Rivers had cut that layer into deep canyons (the Colorado River Grand Canyon is almost 1,800 m deep). Rising along the edges of the plateau are volcanic massifs. To the south of the Great Basin and the Colorado Plateau is the lowland part of the interior plateau, 200-500 m high, with depressions reaching to 75 m below sea level (Salton Sea Lake) and the Sandy Gila deserts in the east and the Mojave Desert in the west.

On the west, the interior plateau and tableland belt are fringed with a belt of Pacific ranges consisting of the Cascade Mountains and the Sierra Nevada Range in the east, the coastal ranges in the west, and the Willamette river in the north, and the California River in the south separating these systems of deep longitudinal valleys. The Cascade Mountains represent a boulder-type massif with a leveled ridge up to 2,400 m high over which tower the snow capped peaks of active and inactive

volcanos (Rainier, 4,391 m high; Shasta, 4,316 m, etc). Traces of the ancient ice cover are clearly discernible in the Cascade Mountains in the shape of numerous lakes and waterfalls. In the south the Cascade Mountains extend as far as the crystalline Sierra Nevada Range, which rises over the Great Basin as an almost sheer wall 2.5 km high. The Sierra Nevada Range top forms an undulating surface with glacier, impressions and separated almost snowless tops (Mount Whitney is reportedly 4,418 m high, the highest point in the US). The Willamette and California Valleys are deep tectonic depressions whose bottoms (20-160 meters deep) are made up of a thick cover of river alluvium. The depressions are divided by the Klamath Mountain Massif up to 2,706 m high. The coastline ranges rise steeply over the Pacific coast, up to 2,000 m high, and form several parallel lines. To the south, in the Los Angeles area, the mountains recede somewhat from the coast. There they are represented by separate boulder-type massifs rising 3,500 m high. They are extended in the north by the Olympian massif, up to 2,424 m high.

Geological Structure

Geologically US territory is divided into (a) the North American region (b) the region of Paleozoic plication bordering the area on the east and south, and (c) the region of Mesozoic-Cainozoic plicated structures (cordilleras) covering the western part of US.

The North American area consists of 2 basic structural layers, a plicated foundation formed by converted and dislocated Pre-Cambrian rocks and an area cover made up of Paleozoic deposits, and in the western part also of Mesozoic and Cainozoic deposits. The surface of the Pre-Cambrian

foundation is uneven and forms a number of depressions within which the area cover is the heaviest, and it is raised where its thickness is not great. The most important depressions are the Appalachian, Michigan, Illinois, western coal basin, and the Permian basin of southwest Texas. Between the Appalachian and Illinois depressions is the meridional Cincinnati elevation. Between the Illinois depression and the western coal basin is the Ozark elevation with exposed Pre-Cambrian rocks. Between the western coal basin and the Permian basin is the Wichita latitudinal elevation. To the west of the Permian basin along the fringes of the area is the meridional bend elevation which is complicated in the south by the Llano projection with exposed Pre-Cambrian rocks at the surface. At the end of the Paleozoic as well as the Mesozoic and Cainozoic periods, the western part of the area (Rocky Mountains) was criss-crossed by a number of raised and depressed blocks forming depressions which were filled with solid Mesozoic and Cainozoic deposits, and by separate mountain ranges.

The Pre-Cambrian foundation of the area is made up of gneiss, metamorphic shale, granite, and weak metamorphic elements, such as shale, sandstone, quartzite, and limestone. The most ancient formations of the area cover are the Cambrian (2 upper layers), consisting of shales, limestone, and red sandstone (300-600 m). The Ordovician deposits, connected with the Cambrian by a gradual transition, are represented by dolomites, limestone, clay, and sandstone (200-700 m). Prominent in the Wichita system are Cambrian, Ordovician, and siliceous limestone up to 2,500 m deep. Silurian deposits are predominant chiefly in the eastern part of the area. They consist of limestone, dolomites, clay, and sandstone 100-200 m high, and the Michigan depression up to 600 m. The Devonian system covers the Silurian and includes great gaps which accounts for the almost total

absence of a lower devonian layer. Characteristic of the Devonian system are limestone and black clay. The Mississippi system, corresponding to the lower carbon layer, begins with dark shale-like clay which is covered with a thickness of sandstone, and limestone and shale in the central and western parts of the area. The depth of the system reaches 100 m (Illinois basin), and 1,600 m in Wichita. The Pennsylvanian system (middle and upper carbon) is an uneven cover over the lower layers down to the Ordovician. It consists of sandy clay and of partly carboniferous thicknesses (up to 1,500 m). The Permian system is predominant in the west of the area. Its thickest part is in the Permian basin where it also includes a limestone layer (1,500 m), some reef ledges (Capitan Reef), and is covered with saline and reddish colored formations (1,000-1,500 m). The Mesozoic and Cainozoic deposits are conspicuously represented in the depressions of the Rocky Mountains. In the Denver depression for example, are known to be Triassic continental deposits (up to 300 m), limestone, shale, and sandstone of the Jurassic system (up to 150 m), marine-terrigenous and continental deposits of the chalk system (5,000 m), and lake and ash deposits of the tertiary system with conglomerates and coals (1,000 m).

Geological History

The development of the North American area is divided into 2 principal stages. In the Archean and Proterozoic eras, comprising the first stage, thick layers of residual deposits (sandstone, limestone, dolomites, etc) were formed and subsequently underwent great changes (metamorphosis) and were compressed into folds and breached by the intrusion of granite and other erupted rocks. That is how the plicated foundation (fundament) of the area was formed. At the end of the pre-Cambrian

period the territory of this area represented a vast land region where the Pre-Cambrian and metamorphic rocks were eroded and the relief leveled. The second stage of the area's development, the formation of an area cover, began in the Cambrian period. Due to the sinking of the area below sea level, marine elements of the Cambrian period were deposited on the washed-out surface of the fundament. During the Silurian and Devonian periods, the size of the sea-covered area frequently varied and that was manifested by a number of large transgressions and regressions of the sea. The Mississippi epoch was characterized by one of the greatest sea transgressions. In the Pennsylvania epoch, the sea conditions over considerable areas were replaced by lake-continental conditions and carboniferous layers were formed. At the beginning of the Permian period, the sea basin remained in the west of the area only but was soon broken up into lagoon-type water reservoirs in which salt was deposited. During the Triassic period, continental conditions predominated all over the area. In the Jurassic period, the sea covered insignificant sectors on the western fringe of the area, but the bulk of the deposits of that period were also of a continental nature. In the Cretaceous period, the sea basin was larger and also covered the southern fringe. The Tertiary period was characterized by a general area elevation. Lake deposits were at that time accumulated in the still sinking depressions of the Rocky Mountains. Just as in the Russian area (q. v.), the Quaternary period was characterized by considerable icing and the formation of morainic and fluvio-glacial deposits.

The Paleozoic plication region includes the Appalachian (q. v.) and Washita plicated systems as well as the Gulf depression with the Florida Peninsula and the Atlantic seacoast where the Paleozoic plicated foundation is overlaid with a thick Mesozoic-Cainozoic cover. The Appalachians represent the southeast borderline of the area and the Appalachian depression

represents their terminal cave-in which is filled with thick sandstone-shale layers of the Devonian and carboniferous systems. The solidity of the Appalachian plication increases in an easterly direction. To the east of the Appalachians is the piedmont plateau (q. v.) which was formed by Pre-Cambrian crystalline rocks overlaid by almost horizontal residual deposits of the Mesozoic-Cainozoic period. The Paleozoic layer in the Appalachians is up to 13 km thick.

In the southeasterly direction the Appalachians become submerged and are covered with chalk and paleogene in the Mississippi Valley. In Arkansas, 500 km to the west, the paleozoic plications are again exposed at the surface forming the folded Wichita system which represents merely the northern part of a vaster folded structure overlaid with the gulf Mesozoic-Cainozoic deposits. The Washita folds are made up chiefly of the Mississippi system Flysch (5,000 m) and sandstone-clay deposits with conglomerates of the Pennsylvania system (3,000 m). The Washita folds overlap the area in the north. To the west they take a sharp turn southward, forming an angular entrance to the area outline within which is the inner area Wichita folded system. The Washita is traceable southward under cretaceous deposits toward the Llano elevation where it skirts it, and, turning westward, reaches the surface in the Marathon Mountains and disappears under the cordillera overthrust.

The Mesozoic-Cainozoic cover, overlaying the Paleozoic plicated foundation, is made up of sandstone-clay Cretaceous and Tertiary layers (500 m) on the Atlantic seacoast. In the gulf the layer is thicker. The lower chalk (600 m) is represented by limestone and anhydrites, the upper chalk (450 m) by clay, sands, limestone, and plain chalk. The Tertiary deposits (4,000-7,000 m) are represented by sand-clay marine and continental deposits. The gulf Mesozoic-Cainozoic layers are broken

by numerous saline cupolas (over 150 m). The age of the sodium chloride that forms the nucleus of the cupolas is presumably traceable to the Permian period.

The Appalachian plication system was preceded, at least since the Cambrian period, by a region of intensive sagging of the earth's crust (geosyncline) which was broken up into a number of small elevations and depressions. In the Mississippi epoch, the general elevation of the earth's crust and the marine conditions were gradually replaced by continental conditions. The formation of folds took place in the Carboniferous and Permian periods, and in the Triassic period the Appalachian region was changed into mountain country. Such is the general outline of the history of the development of the southeastern extension of the Appalachians. During the Permian, Triassic, and Jurassic periods, the Appalachians and apparently the entire region of the Paleozoic fold formation represented a land mass upon which mountain ranges were raised and eroded. The only exception was the gulf where the existence of basins with high concentrations of sodium chlorides is attributable to the Permian period. During the Cretaceous and Tertiary periods a considerable part of the region was covered with sea basins (the gulf, the Florida and Atlantic seacoast) washing the mountain ranges from the southwest. In the Mesozoic and Cainozoic periods the gulf was in a state of rapid submersion in the process of which the sodium chloride cupolas grew into being. The cupolas are still rising today which accounts for the low-hill surface of the gulf plain.

The Mesozoic-Cainozoic folded structures of the cordilleras are located between the North-American area and the Pacific coast. Standing out prominently are: (1) the cordilleras proper, consisting of mesozoic era plications; connected with the formation of the cordilleras was the decimation of the western fringe of the area and the origin of the Rocky

Mountain depressions; (2) the Great Basin, representing a central massif within the limits of which the Paleozoic folded foundation is overlaid with continental mesozoic Cainozoic, and young lava covers; and (3) the zone of young Cainozoic folds of the Pacific coastline. The formation of the cordillera folded structure took place during the Pre-Cambrian period, characterized by the thick layers of quartzite and shale, the Paleozoic, Mesozoic, and Cainozoic periods. The Paleozoic period is represented by all its systems. The Cambrian period (3,700 m) is evidenced by a layer of sea origin consisting of quartzite, sandstone, shale, limestone, and in the upper part by dolomites. The Silurian formation (1,900 m) is made up of clay shales and limestone which are abundant in the Great Basin. The Devonian formation (up to 1,500 m) is represented by limestone, sandstone, and shale deposits. The lower part of the carboniferous system (2,800 m) consists of quartzite and siliceous shale, and the upper part of limestone. The Permian system consists of red and saliferous deposits. The cross-cut of the Mesozoic formation begins in the Triassic period which is evidenced by thick layers (4,000-5,000 m) of volcanic and tufaceous rock or limestone interstratified with extrusive elements. The Jurassic period is also represented by thick (5,000-7,000 m) effusive clay and sandstone-conglomerate layers broken up by numerous intrusive elements which included the huge Nevada batholite formed in the Jurassic period. The Cretaceous deposits are thickest in the Pacific coast ranges. The lower chalk (7,800 m) was formed by a sea layer of clay and sandstone interstratified with limestone, and the upper chalk by Chico sandstone-conglomerate formations (1,000 m). The Tertiary system, prominent in the coastal ranges, is represented by thick sandstone-clay layers interstratified with limestone and coal.

In the cordillera region, the geosyncline sea basin existed as far back as the Cambrian and Silurian periods. Intensive fold formation took place in the Silurian period, and the paleocordillera structures came into being. A destructive and leveling-off process of the paleocordilleras took place at the end of the Silurian and in the Devonian periods, and only in the west was there continued sagging and accumulation of thick deposits. In the Permian period there was a general elevation of the cordilleras. In the Triassic period there began an intense submerging of a geosyncline type, and cracks appeared which were filled with lava. Marine and volcanic deposits in the Triassic period underwent a so-called palisade plication process. The submerging process and accumulation of heavy volcanic deposits continued in the Jurassic period and culminated in the formation of the Nevada folded system and the enormous granite intrusion, the Nevada batholite, which extends 1,500 km along the cordillera expanse. The cordillera elevation took place in the Cretaceous and Tertiary periods. Their western part continued to submerge which action was accompanied by the accumulation of very heavy terrigenous layers (sandy clay and conglomerates).

Minerals

The US holds first place among the capitalist countries of the world in regard to geological reserves of coal and lignite, oil, natural gas, iron ore, zinc, molybdenum, phosphorites, natural sulfur, and one of the first places in reserves of copper, lead, vanadium, gold, potassium salts, and certain other minerals. The US also has considerable deposits of silver, antimony, wolfram, uranium, aluminum and magnesium raw materials, fluorspar, barytes, and a variety of building materials.

The following elements on the other hand are either lacking or available in very limited quantities in the bowels of US territory: manganese ore, chrome iron ore, tin, nickel, cobalt, diamonds, corundum and sheet mica.

According to the 1948 figures of the US Bureau of Mines and the US Geological Survey and the 1954 figures of the American Oil Institute, the total US reserves are estimated (in million t): coal and lignites 2.8 million, oil 4,300, iron ore 69,500, chromites 2.0, manganese ore 3.5, copper 25.2, lead 7.0, zinc 20.0, molybdenum 1.2, tin 0.006, nickel 0.5, bauxite 37-50, phosphorites 13,500, potassium salts 91, and sulfur 61. Most of the oil and natural gas sources are within the limits of the North-American area. The Appalachian and Illinois depressions, the west coal and Permian basins are the largest oil-gas regions. The Rocky Mountain depressions also contain oil. Oil and gas are contained in the limestone and sandstone layers of Silurian, Devonian, carboniferous and Permian deposits (the Permian basin is the origin of the Panhandle). In the Rocky Mountains, the Mesozoic and Cainozoic deposits also contain oil. In the Mesozoic plicated system the large oil sources are connected with the sodium chloride cupolas and other gulf structures where oil is extracted from various horizontal tertiary and Cretaceous deposits. The largest of them is the east Texas oil reserve. In the Mesozoic-Cainozoic plication region, the largest oil sources (Los Angeles, Ventura, etc) date back to the Tertiary sand-clay deposits which filled the intermountain depressions of the coastal ranges. The US coal basins are connected with the Appalachian and Washita coal-deposit system as well as with the interior area depressions (the Illinois depression and the western coal basin). Coal deposits were also known to exist in the Appalachians of the Triassic period and in the Cretaceous residues of the Rocky Mountains. Lignite deposits date back to the Tertiary deposits of the cordilleras. The largest iron ore deposits of the Proterozoic age are found in the

southern fringe of the Canadian projection in the upper lake district. The iron ore sources also originated from the Silurian deposits of the Appalachian system (Alabama state). The proterozoic lava of the upper lake district originated the large deposits of copper ore. The latter also date back to the Tertiary intrusions of the Rocky Mountains and the cordilleras. Abundant also are lead, zinc, molybdenum, and wolfram deposits in the cordillera, Rocky Mountains, and Ozark districts. Located in the cordillera system are numerous placer-gold deposits connected with the Nevada batholite. Dating back to the Mesozoic deposits (Triassic, Jurassic) are the carnotite ores of the Colorado sandstone plateau from which vanadium and uranium are produced. The saliferous sources originate from Silurian deposits of the northeastern part of the area and the Permian strata of its southwestern part where the basic sources of potassium chloride are found. The saliferous cupolas of the gulf were formed by rock salt of an unidentified age. The domes of the saliferous cupolas are connected also with the sulfur deposits. The large phosphorite sources on the Florida peninsula are connected with the Tertiary period deposits (neogenes).

Climate

The diversity of the US climate is due to its large territorial expanse, the complexity of its topography, and the different influences of the adjoining oceans. The northern part of the country, up to about 40° N lat, is in the temperate zone, the south in the subtropical, and southern Florida in the tropical zone. The cordillera mountain chains reduce the influence of the Pacific Ocean on the central and eastern parts of the country which are easily penetrated by cold air masses from the north and warm ones from the south. In view of these phenomena, the ocean climate affects only a narrow strip along the Pacific coast and the

extreme southeast. The climate within the rest of the country is continental (temperate) particularly in the interior belt of the cordilleras.

The winters in the US are affected by cyclone activities on the polar front. Anticyclone conditions with cold dry weather prevail in the interior table land (except in the south). Moist, warm weather, produced by the incursions of Pacific air masses into the continent, predominates the Pacific coastline. The occurrence of cyclones in the central and eastern parts of the country is accompanied by rapid weather changes. Northern winds (blizzards) produce cold snowy weather, and thaws and ice-crusted ground are brought about by southwestern winds. The incursion of Pacific Ocean air into the great plains is characterized by unusually strong foehn winds (Chinook). Heavy snowfall is frequent in the northeast US. Atlantic air masses predominate the coastal lowlands and souther Appalachians producing moist, warm weather with light frosts.

In the summer the air masses over most of the US undergo an intense warming process, particularly over the interior of the cordillera plateau, producing low pressure and hot, dry weather. The western fringe of the US comes under the Pacific high pressure region (Hawaiian maximum) which accounts for the clear, dry weather on the Pacific coast. Only to the north of 45° N lat do the westerly winds produce a certain amount of moisture. Hot weather with thundershowers are frequent over the plains. Dry winds and dust storms are common in the great plains region. The southeast is affected by the Gulf of Mexico air masses and contains the rainiest district in the country during the summer. The passage of tropical cyclones over the southern and southeastern parts of the US brings about destructive tornadoes.

The average annual temperature in the Pacific west, due to pre-dominant ocean air masses, is very even. On the continental intermountain plateau temperature fluctuations are greater. They are particularly significant in the central plains region. The lowest winter temperature is observable in the north of the interior plains which are often penetrated by arctic air. The average temperature there is -16° and the absolute minimum is -50° . The January temperature in Gulf Stream-warmed Florida and on the Gulf of Mexico coast is as high as $+14^{\circ}$ or $+20^{\circ}$ and as low as -10° and -20° . In the northwest of the Atlantic coast the average January temperature goes down to -6° , and the absolute minimum is -30° . On the high interior plateau of the cordillera the average January temperature in the north is -2° and -4° (freezing to -35°), and in the south to 12° . In the winter, the Pacific coast line is considerably warmer than the Atlantic. The average January temperature is from $+6^{\circ}$ in the north to $+12^{\circ}$ in the south, and absolute minima are -15° in the north and -2° in the south.

In the summer the western coast of the US under the impact of the California Current, has the lowest temperature in the world for those particular latitudes. The average temperature of the warmest month (August) does not exceed $+14^{\circ}$ in the north and $+22^{\circ}$ in the south. But immediately beyond the coastal chains, in the California Valley the average July temperature is $+22^{\circ}$, and $+28^{\circ}$; in the interior plateau $+22^{\circ}$ and $+25^{\circ}$, and in the desert southwest $+30^{\circ}$ and $+32^{\circ}$. On the plateau the heat may reach $+40^{\circ}$ (in Death Valley $+56.7^{\circ}$ which is the highest temperature in the western hemisphere). Almost the entire east of the US has an average July temperature of over $+20^{\circ}$ (on the southwest plains and in western Florida up to $+28^{\circ}$). The average July temperature in the north, which is affected by the air masses from Canada, goes down to $+18^{\circ}$, and in the northeast which is affected by the cold Labrador Current it goes down to $+16^{\circ}$.

The average duration of the frostless period in the north of the central plains is 120-140 days, in the south 220-250, and on the Gulf of Mexico coast up to 300 days. In the Atlantic states it lasts 180 days in the north to 270 days in the south, and in the south of Florida freezing does not occur every year. On the high interior plateau of the cordillera the average duration of the frostless period is 100-180 days, in the desert southwest up to 300 and more days, on the north pacific coast up to 250 days, and in the south freezing is rare.

The total annual precipitation gradually diminishes from east to west, and only in the extreme northwest does it sharply increase again. In the east of the country the annual precipitation is 1,000-1,200 mm, with a low maximum during the warm period. In the central plains region precipitation is 500-900 mm, and on the great plains 400 mm and less, particularly in the summer months. On the cordillera intermountain plateau precipitation amounts to 200-500 mm (in the desert areas along the lower reaches of the Colorado River it is less than a 100 mm). In the Pacific southwest the precipitation is 300-500 mm exclusively in the cold period. In the southwest it is up to 1,500 mm with an autumn-winter maximum (on the Olympic Peninsula and the western slopes of the Cascade Mountains up to 6,000 mm, the maximum precipitation in the US). The height of the snow cover is also largest on the Pacific range slopes (in the Sierra Nevadas up to 10-11 m) and in the northwest of the country up to 2 m. In the north of the central plains it usually does not exceed 60-80 cm and sharply diminishes in the great plains region and the intermountain plateau. On the lowland of the Gulf of Mexico coast, on the Florida peninsula, and in the valleys and the foot of the Pacific mountains there is practically no snow cover.

BASIC CLIMATIC INDEXES OF THE US

The Place and Its Location in the Country	Average Monthly Temperature		Annual precipitation (in mm)
	January	July	
[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
Seattle (Puget Sound coast, extreme northwest)	+3.9	+17.0	368
San Francisco (central Pacific coast)	+9.7	+14.0	562
Los Angeles (southwest Pacific coast)	+12.3	+20.9	386
Fresno (California Valley)	+7.7	+27.4	237
Uma (Mojave Desert)	+12.2	+32.5	88
Modena (Great Basin)	-3.1	+21.7	259
Bismarck (north of Great Plains)	-13.2	+21.1	414
Amarillo (south of Great Plains)	+1.4	+24.7	531
Chicago south shore of Lake Michigan, north of Central Plains)	-3.7	+23.1	835
St. Louis (at the Mississippi-Missouri confluence, middle part of Central Plains)	-0.8	+25.8	951
New Orleans (Mississippi River mouth, Gulf of Mexico coast)	+12.0	+27.4	1,459
Portland (Atlantic coast, extreme northeast)	-5.2	+19.7	1,067
New York (Atlantic coast, central part)	-0.8	+22.8	1,091
Charleston (Atlantic coast, south)	+9.7	+26.9	1,149
Miami (Atlantic coast, southeast Florida)	+19.7	+27.6	1,410

Rivers

The main interocean watershed in the US is in the Rocky Mountain region which contains several hydrographic junctures. Thus about 2/3 of the US territory, specifically the plains and Appalachian mountains, belong to the Atlantic basin, and the major part of the cordillera west to the Pacific basin. The interior watershed region is within the large basin. The density of the hydrographic network is extremely uneven. It is very great in the districts of great precipitation, particularly in the east and southwest, and insignificant in the southern part of the intermountain cordillera belt. Certain intermountain plateau districts have practically no surface water streams.

The Atlantic plains in the US are drained by short but deep rivers flowing from the Appalachians (Connecticut, Hudson, Susquehanna, Potomac, James, Santee, and Savannah rivers, etc). The rivers are for the most part fed by rains, and in the north by snow and rain. These rivers form the "watershed line" at the piedmont recess, and are used for the production of electric power. The central and great plains areas are drained chiefly by the very complex Missouri-Mississippi system. The basic drainage is provided by the deep left Mississippi tributaries, particularly the Ohio River, which are fed mostly by rains and reach a high flood level in the spring. The large tributaries on the right, the Missouri and Yellowstone, Platte and Kansas, Arkansas and Canadian rivers, and Red River and the Rio Grande which empties directly into the Gulf of Mexico originate in the Rocky Mountains and flow across the arid Great Plains. They have little water during most of the year but overrun their banks during the spring thaw and summer thundershowers. In the west of the country the rivers are of a mountain type. The largest of them, the Columbia with the Snake River and the Colorado, originate in the Rocky Mountains. They are fed chiefly by ice and melted snow, and their water level rises sharply

in May and June. These rivers contain the most significant power reserves in the US, particularly the Columbia River which is fed also by rains during the cold part of the year (the water level drop occurs in the autumn). The Colorado River, flowing across the arid Colorado Plateau, loses more water through evaporation than it gets from underground drainage. The arid region of the Great Basin and the southwestern desert have short water streams which terminate in landlocked lowlands. The largest of these is the Humboldt. Their water level is subject to extreme fluctuation. Many of them dry up or maintain an episodic flow. Many short rivers flow from the western fringes of the cordillera ranges into the Pacific. The water level of the Pacific northwest rivers is quite constant, with a diminishing loss of water occurring only in the fall. The rivers of the southwest are deep in the winter and spring period and are practically dry at the end of the summer. The major US navigable rivers are the Missouri-Mississippi system, the Hudson, the Atlantic lowland rivers to the foot of the piedmont plateau, the Columbia and the Sacramento.

The lakes in the US are located chiefly in the northern districts of the country, that is, the district of the Great Lakes system (Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario) more than half of whose surface belongs to the US (and the rest to Canada). These lakes are of a tectonic-glacier origin. In the northern parts of the Appalachians and in the cordilleras there are many morainic lakes and tarns. The Florida peninsula abounds with cave-lakes while lagoon-type lakes are numerous on the coastal lowlands of the east and south. A considerable number of relic salt lakes are found in the low parts of the Great Basin (the largest of them is the Great Salt Lake in Utah).

Soils

US soils are divided into meridional zones in accordance with

topographic, climatic, and other natural peculiarities. Only in the east is the zonality latitudinal. The northwest US and the Great Lakes region are covered with podzol soil on moraine deposits. Further to the south, approximately up to 36° N lat and 92-96° W long, the terrain is covered with brown soil of deciduous forests and changes to moist yellow and red subtropical soil with vast lowland marshes in the southeast and up to 97° W long. The southernmost part of Florida and the central part of the lowland along the Gulf of Mexico coast are covered with the swampy soil of mango overgrowth and marshes. Wedged into the north of the Mississippi valley is a broad strip of alluvial soil. Extending to the west of 92° W long northward and 97° W long southward are first meridional (from east to west) black-soil type prairies covering a vast area on the left banks of the Mississippi, Wisconsin, and Illinois, and then real black soil (between 96-99° W long in the north and 99-103° in the south) and, finally, chestnut-brown soil in the west of the Great Plains and toward the north of the Colorado Plateau. Observable on the cordillera ranges is a complexity of mountainous soils with an altitudinal zonality and a predominance of mountain forest brown soil in the southern chain of the Rocky mountains and the Pacific ranges. Mountain meadow soils are most prominent on the Cascades and the Sierra Nevadas, as well as on the highest Rocky Mountain ranges in Colorado. The soil in the Rocky Mountain "parks" (mountain region hollows), in the moister districts of the Colorado Plateau and in the California Valley is chestnut brown, and in the loess of the Columbia Plateau it is chestnut-brown and black. Predominant in the rest of the interior plateau are various types of desert-steppe soils with sizable sections of sandy and siliferous soils and chloride-sulphate solonchaks in the Great Basin. The southwestern deserts are covered with desert-type sandy and rocky soils.

Vegetation

The US vegetation zones extend chiefly in a meridional direction. The natural vegetation in the moister eastern parts of the country as well as the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific mountain ranges is of the forest-steppe and steppe type, and the vegetation in the interior tableland of the cordillera is predominantly of the semidesert and desert kind. As of now (1956), more than 40% of US forests have been cut down and the steppes are used for agriculture or have been destroyed by overgrazing. The coniferous forests have been pretty well preserved in the northern part of the Appalachians where they consist principally of black spruce and balsam fir trees. Considerably less well preserved are the mixed forests which previously covered a vast territory in the Great Lakes region and in the central part of the Appalachians. They have now been reduced to small groves of yellow birch, beech, sugar maple, elm, and small white and black pine forests including hemlock and white cedar (western thuja). The lower belt of the southern Appalachians is covered with broad leaved forests consisting chiefly of chestnut trees, oaks, (chestnut, yellow, and others), and hickory trees. Also there is a variety of endemic vegetation (for example, tulip trees and white acacia). Above 800-1200 m there is a mixed and coniferous forest belt. The area above 1,500-1,800 m is covered with alder tree overgrowths, rhododendrons, mountain bay trees, and cereal fields. Prominent between the Ohio and Mississippi rivers and to the west of the Mississippi are hickory forests with an admixture of elm, plane trees, and maple, and to the east of the Appalachians on the piedmont plateau are oak tree forests with an admixture of pine. The forests have been almost completely destroyed in the valleys and on the plains to the west and the east of the mountains.

Evergreen subtropical forests with an abundance of lianas and epiphytes are characteristic of the Atlantic lowland, to the south of 34° N lat, and the

eastern part of the Gulf of Mexico coast lowland (up to 95° W long) as well as the Florida peninsula. Typifying some of those forests are small woods of long-needle and short-needle pines. Growing on the clay soils are forests of evergreen oaks, liquidambar, magnolia, and low palm trees. In the marshy sections of the Mississippi banks and flood areas are forests of swamp cypress. Tropical vegetation (palms, ficus, musk melon trees and others) is found in southernmost Florida. Parts of the coastline are fringed with mangroves.

Prior to the arrival of the Europeans, the western part of the central plains was covered with forest-steppe. Forest cutting and frequent fires led to a predominance of perennial tall grass vegetation (beard grass, feather grass, and Indian grass) and mixed grasses, or the so-called prairie grass. In the Great Plains the prairies gave way to short grass steppes characteristic of which are cluster grass, blue, and bison grass. The vegetation in the southern part of the Great Plains is of a savannah type. Here and there in the arid steppe one comes across short trees, oaks, juniper, leguminous bushes, and quite a few cactus plants.

Due to diversity of topographic and climatic conditions, the vegetation of the mountainous west is highly variegated. Its basic characteristic is the contrast between the forest-covered mountain ranges and the treeless tablelands, and the gradual north-to-south change from water-requiring vegetation to plants requiring less moisture.

The rocky mountain ranges are covered with coniferous forests, and the vegetation in the intermountain depressions is of the steppe type. Characteristic of the ranges of the moist northern and central parts of the Rocky Mountains are dense coniferous forests of white pine, western deciduous trees, "Engelman" fir with an admixture of red cedar, yellow, and black pine. Predominating the more arid southern part of the Rocky

Mountains are yellow pine and white spruce trees. Bush-type oaks and juniper grow on the southern slopes.

The northernmost part of the intermountain plateau belt is covered with forest-type vegetation, particularly yellow pine and spruce. Adjoining the eastern part of the Columbian Plateau are dry grass steppes which are prevalent also in the southeast of the Colorado Plateau. Wormwood, goosefoot, and halophyte-growing semideserts (also growing greasewood trees) are predominant in the southwest of the Columbian Plateau, throughout the Great Basin and in the Northwest of the Colorado Plateau. In the southern part of the intermountain plateau belt (to the south of 37° N lat) most of the area is covered with a creosote semi-desert (creosote shrubbery, cactus, agave, yucca, ocatillo, mesquite, etc). The sparsest vegetation is to be found in the extreme southwest of the belt, the Mojave and particularly the Gila Desert. The semideserts gradually give way to savannahs in the southeastern part of the belt.

Most of the Pacific belt mountain ranges are covered with high-trunk coniferous forests. Prominent within them, in the moist northwest, are Douglas fir, red cedar and western hemlock. These forests give way to alpine meadows on the Cascade mountain peaks. The coastal mountain forests down to San Francisco Bay consist of evergreen sequoia. Sub-tropical, coniferous, and mixed forests are characteristic of the southwest. The western slopes of the Sierra Nevada mountains, at a 1,200-2,000 m elevation, are covered with forests of sugar and yellow pine, white and red spruce, rock rose cedar, and occasional sequoia trees up to 150 m high, 15 m in diameter, and about 5,000 years old. Higher, at a 2,800-3,000 m elevation, the forests consist mainly of spruce and cedar. The south coast mountain chains are covered with the above coniferous plants (except sequoias), tanning and mountain oaks, chestnut and bay trees, with an admixture of certain leaf-shedding trees. Evergreen oak and tough-leafed shrubbery (chaparral) overgrowths are abundant in the lower Sierra Nevada belt and on the mountain ranges of

the extreme southwest. The native California Valley vegetation (diverse-grass steppe) has not been preserved.

The Animal World

Zoogeographically, the US territory is part of 2 subregions of the non-Arctic region, namely the southern (and larger) part of the US belongs to the Sonora subregion, and the northern part to the Canadian. The Canadian subregion fauna is of the taiga type and is similar to the fauna of the corresponding natural zone of Europe and Asia. The principal representatives of the animal world in this part of the US are the wapiti deer, American moose, puma, lynx, black bear, raccoon, otter, American mink, marten, elk, wolf, red fox, Canadian beaver, chipmunk, squirrel, muskrat, and Canadian porcupine. In addition to some of the above types, the mountain goat, mountain sheep, and grizzly bear are also found in the mountainous districts. The Sonora subregion is different in that it has a number of endemic types and species. The prevalence of animals in this subregion corresponds to the meridional extension of the geographic zones in this part of the US. Peculiar to the forest zone of the east US are the Virginia deer, the "baribal" bear, red lynx, raccoon, common skunk, grey fox, various types of squirrels and moles, and the common opossum. Typical birds of that zone are the wild turkey, carolina duck, the ring tail, and in the south also, the vulture, and American types of pelicans and flamingos. Hummingbirds flock there during the nesting period. There is quite a variety of reptiles with large specimens among them, such as the fresh water tortoise and, in the south, the alligator. The types of amphibians are very numerous. The most unique of them are the amphium, siren, and the giant bull frog. There is a considerable variety of fresh water fish. Of interest among them are the ancient relics, namely armored pike, (amia), and the flat-nose. Bisons, horned antelopes, long-eared deer,

coyotes, American badger, prairie foxes, various types of prairie dogs, gophers, and kangaroo rats roam over the steppe and semidesert zone. Straying into the state of Texas from Mexico are the jaguar and one type of armadillo. Peculiar to that zone among the birds are the field grouse and the barn owl. There are numerous other types of reptiles, particularly in the south of the country. Among them are rattlesnakes and venomous lizards. Quite unique is the fauna of the mountain forest in southwest US, including certain tropical types ("nosukha"). Only within this zone are mountain beavers and wool-tailed moles prevalent. Also found are the grizzly bear and the puma. Among the birds are the California and Turkey vultures.

III. POPULATION

In size of population (165,250,000 in 1955), the US occupies the fourth place in the world after the Chinese People's Republic, India, and the USSR. Over a long period of time the US population was rapidly increasing. Prior to World War I of 1914-1918 the US population growth was greatly affected by immigration in addition to its natural accretion. The development of capitalism in the European countries doomed millions of city and country workers to unemployment and poverty and forced them to seek a way out in migrating across the ocean where untapped natural resources were still available. Immigration into America began in the seventeenth century and increased to a considerable extent in the second half of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century. Predominant in the stream of emigrants during the first period were people from the British isles. In the second quarter of the nineteenth century there was an influx of immigrants from Central Europe and the Scandinavian countries, and at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century from eastern and southern European countries. Immigration from Asiatic countries (Japan, China, the Philippines, etc), mostly to the west coast

states, was on a much smaller scale than from Europe due to the laws passed late in the nineteenth and early in the twentieth century forbidding so-called colored immigrants to take up permanent residence in the US. During the period of 1821-1860, about 5 million immigrants entered the US. In 1861-1900 their number reached 14 million, and in 1900-1914 it was 13.5 million people. Helping to settle the unoccupied lands, and constituting a reserve labor force for industry, the immigrants played a large part not only in the formation of the population but also in the entire process of developing the capitalist economy in the US. With that in mind, Engels wrote in 1882: "Thus the stream of immigrants, shipped by Europe annually to America, merely contributes to the development of the capitalist economy, with all its consequences, to its extreme limits which sooner or later will make a colossal crisis there inevitable. Immigration will then cease and possibly even reverse its course" (K. Marx and F. Engels, Soch. [Collected Works] Vol 15, page 612). Indeed, with the onset of a general crisis of capitalism, when the economic development tempos in the major country of capitalism were sharply curtailed, producing a chronic multimillion-man army of unemployed, immigration into the US was greatly diminished and in some years (as in 1931-1935, for example) emigration exceeded immigration. Entry to the US was restricted by immigration laws adopted after World War I.

The period of the general crisis of capitalism in the US is characterized by slower tempos of population growth as a result of both less immigration and a diminution of natural accretion. The average annual population increase in 1871-1913 was 21% and in 1913-1949 it was 1.2%. The average annual natural population growth showed some gain in the first years after World War II. The diminution of the natural increase in population has brought about a comparative decrease of the young population on the one hand and an increase of older people on the other. In 1900, people up to 15 years of age in the US accounted for 34.4% of the total population, in 1930 for 29.4%, and in 1950 for 26.9%. The US population census of 1950

showed an excess of women over men (98.7 men for 100 women).

The national composition of the US population is heterogenous. The North American nation was formed in the process of capitalist development in the US as a result of a mixing of various European nations whose emigrants gradually settled the country. The descendants of European settlers account for the majority of US population (135,215,000 in 1950). The indigenous American population, the Indians (q. v.), belong anthropologically to the American race (see races), a special branch of the mongoloid races. There were about one million Indians on the present US territory prior to its colonization by Europeans. Several centuries later the indigenous US population was reduced by almost 1/2 (455,500 in 1950). Most of the Indians (over 300,000) were settled in reservations (q. v.), chiefly in western US. The Negroes (q. v.), descendants of Africans brought to America in the seventeenth-nineteenth centuries as slaves for work on plantations, numbered 15,042,000 (in 1950). Living in the US are also such national minorities as Mexicans (4-5 million), Chinese (117,600), Japanese, Puerto Ricans, etc. The Negro population is concentrated for the most part in the former slave-holding South. The majority of the Mexicans live in the rural areas of southwest US which formerly belonged to Mexico. The descendants of the Chinese workers, imported through the Pacific coast ports, live in the towns and mining settlements of California. There are "Swiss" communities in Wisconsin, "Dutch" villages in Michigan, settlements of Norwegian descendants in Wisconsin, North Dakota, etc. The large US cities have their Russian, Italian, Irish, and other sections.

The state language of the US is English which is spoken by the majority of the population including the Negroes. Some of the national groups are bilingual (Mexicans etc). The Indian population speaks a variety of languages which are classified under the general name of Indian languages of America (q. v.). Some of them are of a polysyndeton construction.

The majority of religious groups in the US population belong to various protestant denominations and sects (over 250 organizations). The protestant population is predominant in the south and in the small towns and rural communities of the north and west. Catholicism is practiced by people of Italian and Irish descent, and Mexicans and Indians. Judaism is practiced chiefly in the large cities of the eastern states (among Jews, some Negroes, etc).

The distribution of population in the principal areas of the country is characterized by the following figures.

Principal Areas	1900	1930	1950	in %
	in millions		in millions	
Industrial north	47.4	73.0	83.9	55.7
Former slave-holding south	24.5	37.9	47.2	31.3
Colonized west	4.1	11.0	19.6	13.0
Total	76.0	122.8	150.7	100.0

The average population density is about 20 people per sq km. The highest density is in the northeast (114 in the middle Atlantic states, 54 in New England), where it is more than 200 people per sq km in some states. The lowest population density is in the west (particularly in the mountain states, 2.2), despite the considerable population increase in that area, particularly California which accounted for over half of the west's population (10.6 million) in 1950.

Characteristic of the US was the large-scale population movement over the country, mostly in search of work. That process affected tens of millions of people, particularly the rural population of the northwestern part of the central states, the southwestern and southeastern parts of the central states. As a result of that process, the population of North Dakota, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Oklahoma sustained a decrease in 1950 as compared to 1940. The changes in the distribution of the Negro

population were chiefly due to the mass ruination of Negro farmers in the south and their employment in the industries of the north. The number of Negroes in the former slaveholding south in 1950 was 68% as against 90% early in the twentieth century. Outside of the south, the Negroes live for the most part in large cities (in New York, Chicago, etc), where part of them are housed in the extremely overcrowded quarters of Negro ghettos.

Sixty-four % of the country population live in cities (1950). The growth and large percentage of the city population in the US are a result of not only the development of industry and trade but also of the ruination of a considerable part of small agricultural units. The size of the city population is particularly large in the northeastern states. In the middle Atlantic states it is 80.5%, in New England 66.2%, and in the Pacific states 75.0. The lowest numbers are in the northwestern center (North Dakota 26.6%, South Dakota 33.2%, in the southeastern center (Mississippi 27.9%), and in the southwestern center (Arkansas 32.4%). It should be borne in mind that not all the population referred to as rural is engaged in agriculture. More than half of it is so-called nonfarming population. The size of the actual farming population decreased from 30.2 million in 1930 to 23.1 million in 1950 (15.3% of the total population).

There were 106 cities in the US in 1950 with over 100,000 population, accounting for 29.4% of the country's total population, with 11.5% of it living in 5 cities of one million population each: New York (7,892,000 people), Chicago (3,621,000), Philadelphia (2,072,000), Los Angeles (1,970,000), Detroit (1,948,000). Washington's population is 802,000. Actually the population concentration in the big cities is still higher as each of those cities has been expanded by numerous suburbs.

Characteristic of the US, as of the other capitalist countries, is the steadily increasing class-stratification of society. The wage earners account for about 80% of the gainfully occupied population of the US, and the farmers for 9.5%. Farm labor is used only by the capitalist top layer of the farmers. The overwhelming majority of farmers are either using hired labor temporarily and on a limited scale or do not use it at all. In 1950, almost 2/5 of all the US farmers were forced to supplement their income by outside work. According to American statistics, the industrial and financial enterprises and their administrative personnel account for 8.9% of the gainfully occupied population. Private property owners, including capitalist farmers exploiting hired labor, account for no more than 10% of the gainfully occupied population.

According to the 1950 census, 53.2% of all US families had an income below the minimum wage as defined by official statistics. The militarization of the economy and increasing armaments led to higher taxes, higher prices of consumer goods and a deterioration of the working people's living conditions. Compared to 1927-1937, the direct taxes in the 1953-1954 fiscal year were increased almost 12 times. According to official figures, living costs in 1953 were double those of 1939. According to the figures of the electrical workers trade union, they increased 3 times. Wages are lagging behind the cost of living. Unemployment is a chronic phenomenon in the US. Even during the economic prosperity of 1955 there were about 3 million fully unemployed in the country, in addition to the almost 9 million partly unemployed.

DISTRIBUTION OF GAINFULLY OCCUPIED POPULATION IN THE US

[1]	1920		1940		1950	
	1,000's	in %	1,000's	in %	1,000's	in %
	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
Total gainfully occupied population	41,236	100.0	44,888	100.0	56,239	100.0
In production activities						
Agriculture, lumber, and fishing	10,624	25.8	8,496	18.9	7,005	12.5
Mining industry	1,090	2.6	914	2.1	929	1.6
Processing industry	12,809	31.1	10,568	23.5	15,476	25.9
Construction			2,075	4.6	3,440	6.1
Transportation, communication, and other public services	3,062	7.4	3,108	6.9	4,368	7.8
Total	27,585	66.9	25,161	56.0	30,318	53.9
In nonproductive activities:						
Federal and municipal governments*	738	1.8	1,406	3.1	2,489	4.4
Trade	4,226	10.2	7,546	16.8	10,548	18.8
Banking and insurance			1,472	3.3	1,916	3.4
Professions, personal services, etc	8,687	21.1	9,303	20.8	10,968	19.5
Total	13,651	33.1	19,727	44.0	25,921	46.1

*The total number of people in government service, including federal and municipal governments, was 3,657,000 in 1940 and 5,496,000 in 1950

Note. The table does not include the US armed forces. Their number of 1953, according to official figures, was 3,555,000.

There is a noticeable increase in people engaged in nonproductive activities in the US and a corresponding decrease in those engaged in production. This is due to the expansion of the banking, trade, and administrative machinery and its service personnel as well as to the increase of the armed forces.

IV. ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION

General Characteristics of the Economy

The US is the major country of modern capitalism. Highly developed economically, the US is also a country of sharp social contrasts where the bulk of the national resources is concentrated in the hands of monopoly groups and where the contradictions of the capitalist system are felt particularly strongly.

About 1/2 of the industrial production of the capitalist countries is concentrated in the US. America's share of it grew from 45% in 1937 to 58% in 1948, but was somewhat diminished in subsequent years. The US accounts for 1/2 of the oil production and steel smelting, over 1/3 of the coal production, 1/3 of the railroad network and merchant marine tonnage of the capitalist countries. The US holds first place among the capitalist countries in regard to merchandize and capital export.

The emergence of the US as the major country of capitalism is one of the manifestations of the law of uneven development of capitalism. In 1860, the US held third place in the world (after Britain and France) in volume of industrial production. After the Civil War of 1861-65, which paved the way for the development of capitalism in the US., production tempos were accelerated. The contributing factors that made US economic

development faster than in the other capitalist countries in that period were freedom from feudalistic fetters (including the south where some forms of slavery still survived), the availability of vast unsettled lands, large scale settlements of immigrant masses encouraged by economic considerations, the expansion of the domestic market (as a result of the new settlements), the utilization of European capital, and the reinforcements of the labor force by immigrants. An important part was played by the favorable geographical location (access to oceans and the weakness of the neighboring countries), favorable natural conditions, rich natural resources (minerals, hydroenergy, etc), and their relatively convenient distribution in the country, and the fact that over a long period of time there had been no fighting, and the country therefore did not suffer any war-connected destructive consequences. At the same time the US profited from trading with the warring countries, thereby strengthening its economic position. By 1890 the US held first place in the world in volume of industrial production, having outstripped Britain, France, and Germany.

The growth of industry at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century was accompanied by a concentration of production and the formation of monopoly unions of the capitalists. Already in 1909, according to the figures cited by V. I. Lenin in his "Imperialism as the Highest Stage of Capitalism," the largest US enterprises, of a million dollars or more, accounted for 1.1% of the total enterprises, employed 30.5% of the labor force, and produced 43.8% of the gross industrial output (see V. I. Lenin, Soch. Fourth Edition, Vol 22, page 185). With the entry of capitalism into the monopolistic stage of development at the end of the nineteenth century, the US became a classical country of trusts, a country of dominant finance capital. The US monopolists conducted a policy of enslaving the countries of Latin America, and of economic penetration of China and the other countries of Asia. The investments

of American monopolies abroad in 1900 amounted to about 500 million dollars. By the beginning of the World War I of 1914-1918 they increased 5-fold. US long term indebtedness to other countries however was still considerably greater than its long term capital investments abroad. World War I contributed to the colossal enrichment of the American monopolists and to the strengthening of their position. The demand of the warring powers for armaments, war materials, and foodstuffs contributed to the considerable growth of US production. Exports were increased 3-fold. By the end of the war the European countries' indebtedness to the US exceeded 10 billion dollars. After many years as a debtor the US became a creditor.

The general crisis of capitalism, begun during World War I, particularly as a result of the division of the world into capitalist and socialist systems, weakened the entire system of capitalism and exerted a profound influence on the US. The US economic development tempos were slowed down. Below-capacity work of enterprises and permanent mass unemployment have assumed vast proportions. Even in the years of partial stabilization of capitalism only 80% of the productive capacity of the US processing industry was utilized. Subsequently in 1930-1934 the utilization of production machinery was sharply diminished having been reduced to 60% and lower.

In the comparatively short period of time between the first and second world wars the US economy was shaken 3 times by economic crises (in 1920-21, 1929-33, and 1937-38). The 1929-33 crisis, embracing all the capitalist countries, began in the US and hit that country the hardest. The volume of industrial production in the US during those years was cut in half. Considerable reductions were made in agriculture, transportation, trade, and banking activities. The capitalists shifted the burden of the crisis onto the working people. According to official figures, the number of

fully unemployed in the country in 1932 was 13.2 million in addition to many semiemployed (in February 1932 they amounted to 11 million). In agriculture, the crisis brought about mass ruination of farmers. Tens of thousands of farms were sold at auction for failure to pay debts. The number of workers' strikes grew in proportion to the deepening crisis. The 1929-1933 crisis provided evidence that under conditions of a general crisis of capitalism the cyclical economic crises of overproduction became more lasting and destructive. The crisis gave way in 1933 to a depression of a special kind. From the second half of 1937 US economy again found itself in the grip of a crisis. The volume of industrial production by the middle of 1938 was reduced by 1/3 as compared to the summer of 1937. Industrial production subsequently went up due to World War II of 1939-1945 which brought a stream of large war orders. Since the war, the economy has been greatly affected by militarization which has brought about an increasing instability of the country's economy.

The concentration of production and the centralization of capital in the US have reached an extremely high point. Already before World War II, 250 of the largest corporations had 65% of the US processing industry capacity concentrated in their hands. At the end of 1953, the large American companies (with assets of over 100 million dollars each) held 54% of all the companies of the processing industry, receiving 70% of all the profits. Their profit rate was twice as high as that of the smaller companies. The expansion of the large companies was accompanied by bankruptcies and the swallowing up of the weaker companies. By way of mergers between 1948 and 1954, 1,610 independent corporations of the processing and mining industries were swallowed up.

Monopoly capital controls not only industry but also transportation, banking, and domestic and foreign trade. The growing concentration of banking business is evidenced by the shrinking number of banks from 30,000

in 1921 to 14,400 in 1955. The bulk of the capital is concentrated in a small number of large banks. In 1951, 14 railroad companies accounted for 68% of all railroad workers and employees. Large monopolies are also dominant in agriculture. The American farmer depends on them in marketing his produce, in getting agricultural equipment and fertilizer and in obtaining credit. Industrial, transportation, trading, and banking corporations are controlled by a few financial groups, the largest of which are the Morgan, Rockefeller, Dupont, and Mellon groups as well as the Chicago, Boston, Cleveland, and California groups. A desperate struggle for a larger share of the income from the exploitation of workers in the US and in other countries is going on among these groups as well as within them. Finance capital determines the policy of the state by making use of the state machinery for the purpose of securing maximum profits and enhancing the total power of the monopolies. The further expansion of state monopoly capitalism in the US has continued since the end of World War II.

The militarization of the economy, while adversely effecting the conditions of the working people, is used by the monopolies for the purpose of colossal enrichment. Between 1946 and 1953 the net profit of the corporations, according to official figures, amounted to 19 billion dollars a year against 8.6 billion a year in 1939-1945. The absolute and relative pauperization of the working class, on the other hand, has been progressing. The workers' share of the national income fell from 54% in 1924 to 40% in 1951.

The exploitation of human reserves and natural resources in other countries is also an important source of profits for the American monopolies. US foreign expansion was greatly enhanced after World War II when the problem of foreign markets became acute as a result of the collapse of the world market and the contraction of the area of the

capitalist countries' activities. The policy of the underdeveloped countries, which embarked upon a course of independent development, the policy of creating their own industry, is also contributing to the contraction of the market for industrial goods. At the same time, the existence of 2 world markets, a democratic one and a capitalist one, opens wide possibilities for the development of mutually beneficial trade among all the states. Taking advantage of the weakness of its capitalist competitors after World War II, the American imperialists seized a considerable share of the world capitalist market, stepped up the export of capital, and are fighting for a redivision of raw material sources. But the US is losing the monopolistic status it enjoyed in the first postwar years, as the other capitalist countries are improving their competing capacity. All this inevitably leads to growing contradictions among the capitalist countries and a deepening of the general crisis of capitalism.

Characteristic of the economic structure of the US is the growing domination of industry. In point of labor force employed industry exceeds agriculture 2 to 1. The value of the industrial output is almost 5 times that of agriculture (1950), and manufactures accounted for almost 2/3 of the entire 1953 export. And yet agriculture is an important branch of the US economy which plays a large part in supplying the domestic market with foodstuffs and industry with raw materials. Agricultural products, particularly cotton, wheat, tobacco, soy bean, and animal products are important items of US export.

Industry

Industry is the leading branch of the US economy. Having a large mining industry, the US holds first place in the capitalist world in the extraction of a number of minerals (coal, oil, iron ore, copper, lead,

zinc, molybdenum, sulphur, phosphorites, etc). The share of this branch in industrial production however is not great (its share of the labor force in 1950 was 6%) and has a tendency to diminish. At the same time the importance of the processing industry, particularly machine building, continues to grow.

Characteristic of US industry is the chronic below-capacity work of the industrial machinery, the prevalence of a permanent reserve army of labor, and spasmodic and uneven development. The economic crises which grew more acute in the general crisis of capitalism have strongly shaken industrial production.

TABLE 1

INDEX OF US INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION (1929 LEVEL TAKEN AS 100)

1929	100	1948	176
1932	53	1929	164
1937	103	1953	227
1938	81	1954	212
1943	215	1955	234
1946	153		

As the above figures show, a production upswing is usually followed by a slump. Thus in 1932 US industrial production was reduced to 1/2 as compared with the 1929 level. A substantial production shrinkage took place in 1938, 1945-1946, 1949, and 1954.

The economic crises usually set the US economy back many years. The 1929-1933 crisis was particularly long and acute. Thus in 1932 the ferrous metallurgical industry was producing at 19% capacity, and the production volume continued down to the level of the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries. Coal production in 1932 dropped 41% as compared to the 1929 level, iron ore 86%, and automobile production 75%. The new

economic crisis, begun in the second half of 1937, was interrupted by World War II. The production machinery and war production were considerably expanded during the war while civilian industrial production remained at the prewar level and was even somewhat curtailed. About 25 billion dollars were spent for the construction of war industry enterprises, including 18 billion by the US government. During the war, the capacity of the aluminum plants was increased more than 4-fold, light machine-building was doubled, the aviation industry capacity was increased more than 10-fold, etc. A synthetic rubber industry was practically built anew. An atomic industry came into being. The transfer of the newly built government enterprises to the monopolies netted huge profits for the latter. After the war part of these enterprises were sold to the monopolies for very little and part of them were closed down. In 1947-1948, taking advantage of the postwar destruction in the other capitalist countries, the necessity of renewing part of the basic capital and the militarization of the economy, US monopoly capital somewhat expanded its industrial production as compared with 1945-1946. But between October 1948 and October 1949 industrial production took another drop of 22%. The development of the economic crisis was halted by the intensified armament race due to the outbreak of the Korean War in 1950. Industrial production rose again, but only in 1953 did it reach the high peak of the World War II level. In 1954, industrial production took another 7% drop as compared with the 1953 level. In 1955 it was back to about the 1953 level.

Below-capacity production is an essential feature of US industry. According to American economists only 55% of the production capacity of the US processing industry was used even in 1952 when production volume was large.

The expansion of the various branches of industry was very uneven. That process in 1952-1954, as compared to 1937, may be judged from the following figures (with 1937 figures taken as 100%).

TABLE 2

Indexes	1952	1953	1954
		in %	
Coal production	102	98	84
Oil production	176	180	176
Pig iron smelting	153	135	143
Steel production	165	198	156
Aluminum production	645	861	1,004
Automobile production	115	152	136
Freight car production	100	106	49
Sulfuric acid production	260	285	280
Cotton goods production	110	118	113

Considerable expansion is noted mostly in the industries working on war orders. The 1952 airplane and machine production for military purposes was 70% and radio equipment 65%, while 1/4 of the total production of steel, 2/3 of aluminum and 1/3 of copper in 1952 were for military purposes. The total war industry production amounted to 1/4 of the entire output of US industry. Civilian industry production was lagging far behind those working on war orders.

The structure of the US industry is characterized by a predominance of heavy industry. Machine-building alone (including transportation and electrical equipment) accounts for over 1/4 of the entire output value (25% in 1947, 30.8% in 1952), and for over 1/4 of the number of workers employed (25.6% in 1947, 28% in 1952).

TABLE 3

THE STRUCTURE OF THE PROCESSING INDUSTRY (in 1952)

Branches of Industry	Workers Employed		Cost of Finished Product	
	in thousands of workers	%	in million \$	%
[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
Total	12,706	100.0	109,162	100.0
Ferrous metallurgy	873	6.9	7,087	6.5
Nonferrous metallurgy	192	1.5	1,984	1.8
Metal processing	820	6.5	7,108	6.6
Machine building	3,547	28.0	33,718	30.9
automobile production	600	4.7	6,141	5.6
airplane production	513	4.0	4,451	4.1
electrotechnical equipment	741	5.8	6,873	6.3
Oil refining and coal processing	170	1.4	2,619	2.4
Chemical	513	4.0	8,539	7.8
Rubber	206	1.6	1,744	1.6
Printing	471	3.7	5,660	5.2
Lumber (including paper industry)	1,374	10.8	9,237	8.5
Textile	1,037	8.2	5,257	4.8
Garment	1,018	8.0	4,849	4.5
Leather and footwear	324	2.6	1,597	1.5
Food	1,075	8.5	11,340	10.4
Tobacco	85	0.7	868	0.8
Silicate-ceramics	436	3.5	3,531	3.3

The distribution of the extracting as well as the processing industry in the US is extremely uneven. The south holds first place in the output of the extracting industry chiefly because of the greater concentration of oil and gas sources in that area. A transfer of certain branches of the processing industry (cotton, wool, chemical, shipbuilding,

airplane construction, etc) from the north to the south and to the west coast states has been taking place in the twentieth century. But the north nevertheless retains its predominance in industry. According to 1950 figures, it accounted for over 70% of the workers and 73.4% of the processing industry's production value. It is significant that new industrial construction during World War II and in the first postwar years was carried out chiefly in the industrial north which absorbed over 2/3 of the capital investments.

Significant in US industry is the high concentration of production and centralization of capital. More than 4/5 of all the processing industry enterprises are medium and small-sized but they account for less than 1/6 of the country's workers. At the same time, the largest enterprises (employing over 1,000 workers) which make up less than 1% of all the enterprises account for about 1/3 of the workers.

TABLE 4
CONCENTRATION OF PRODUCTION IN THE PROCESSING INDUSTRY

Classes of Enterprises	1947		1952	
	% of the total			
According to Numbers of	enterprise	workers	enterprise	workers
Workers				
1-99	89.9	25.0	89.7	23.0
100-499	8.2	29.1	8.4	29.0
500 and over	1.9	45.9	1.0	48.0
Including 1,000 and over	0.8	32.8	0.8	35.0

The overwhelming part of industrial production in the US is in the hands of a small number of very large monopolies. The militarization of the economy and the placing of enormous government orders with the largest monopolies lead to a still greater concentration of production and centralization of capital.

TABLE 5

MONOPOLY CONTROL OVER SOME OF THE INDUSTRY BRANCHES IN US

(as of 1949)

Branches of Industry	Number of controlling monopolies	Monopoly-controlled output (in %)
Aluminum	3	100.0
Copper smelting	3	88.5
Steel smelting (1950)	4	63.0
Automobile (1950)	4	92.0
Aviation	6	60.4
Agricultural machine building	3	66.6
Chemical	6	62.7
Rubber	3	70.3
Meat	3	64.0

Characteristic of US industry is the high degree of production mechanization and the automation of production processes. Competition exerts a dual influence on the development of the US productive forces. The domination of the monopolies produces the prerequisites for hampering technical progress and holding back the productive forces. Thus, for example, the US monopolies held back the construction of the huge power plants on the St. Laurence waterway for almost half a century. The oil, Coal, and power companies, fearing the competition of cheap hydroelectric power, are blocking the utilization of rivers for power. The railroad companies are interested in blocking the development of waterway transportation, etc. At the same time, the know-how in certain branches of US industry (radio, the utilization of nuclear energy, tool making, the production of calculating machines, synthetic rubber, etc) is rapidly developing as a result of desperate competition and the monopolists' race for higher profits as well as the armaments race. The electrification of industries is expanding, new and more efficient machinery of simplified

construction are being produced and automatic machines are put into production on an increasing scale. A number of enterprises are being re-equipped, on the basis of automation, thereby sharply reducing the number of workers used for operating the machinery. Mechanization and automation of production processes, combined with a maximum intensification of labor in the US, are conducive not only to a substantial rise in labor productivity but also to the displacement of a considerable number of workers from production, the growth of a reserve army of labor and the intensification of exploitation.

According to available figures, the rate of surplus value in the mining and processing industry of the US rose from 145% in 1889 to 210% in 1929, to 220% in 1939, and to approximately 260% in 1947.

Electric power and the extracting industry. Up to World War I, coal was of decisive importance in the country's power production. In the subsequent period there was an increasing diminution of the importance of coal although it still played a prominent part in the country's power output. After World War II, the combination of oil and natural gas has emerged in the foreground.

TABLE 6

THE SPECIFIC WEIGHT OF THE BASIC ENERGY SOURCES IN GENERAL

Type of Power	USE IN THE US (in %)			
	1911-15	1936-40	1950	1953
Coal	84.0	53.0	40.5	32.5
Oil	9.2	32.0	36.6	40.6
Natural gas	3.1	11.3	18.6	23.0
Hydroelectric	3.7	3.7	4.3	3.9

US hydroelectric resources are estimated at 105 million kw. The largest reserves of hydroelectric power are in the west, particularly in the Columbia River basin, which accounts for over 1/3 of all hydroelectric resources in the country. The utilization of hydroelectric power is blocked by the policies of the oil and coal monopolies and by the owners of thermal power plants. The established capacity of the hydroelectric plants was 23 million kw in 1953. During World War II, the construction of hydroelectric power plants was intensified. But the importance of hydroelectric power plants in production still shows a tendency to diminish.

TABLE 7

DYNAMICS OF ELECTRIC POWER PRODUCTION IN THE US (in billion kwh)

Types of Plants	1930*	1945	1953
All plants	91.1	271.3	514.2
Including hydroelectric plants	31.2	84.7	109.6
Specific volume of hydro- electric plants (in %)	34.3	31.2	21.3

*Only public utilities power plants.

The construction of the largest hydroelectric power projects was undertaken at government expense on the Columbia, Colorado, and Tennessee rivers. The construction of the Grand Coulee power plant on the Columbia River began in 1934. The dam was completed in 1942. The first part of the power plant, with a 992,000 kw capacity, was completed in 1949, and the second part, with 980,000 kw, in 1952. The Bonneville power plant (564,000 kw) was built on the Columbia River, and a number of others (the McNary, Chief Joseph, etc) are under construction. A large atomic industry plant was built at Hanford, Washington, as well as other large enterprises designed to use Columbia River power. The Boulder Dam plant

with 1.25 million kw capacity was built on the Colorado River. The capacity of the previous and newly built power plants on the Tennessee River amounts to 3.5 million kw. These supply power to the Oak Ridge and Paducah plants and to the aluminum and warchemical enterprises. Highest in capacity of thermal power plants are the middle Atlantic states (particularly New York and Pennsylvania), the northeast (mostly Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan), the south Atlantic states (particularly West Virginia), the southwest (primarily Texas) and California on the west coast. The construction of large thermal power plants in the Tennessee river valley, in Tennessee, Alabama, and Kentucky, has been started. The overall capacity of US power plants in 1945 was 63 million kw, in 1950 83 million kw, in 1952 97.3 million, and approximately 120 million kw by the end of 1955. US power plant capacity was particularly stepped up after 1950. The decisive factor in the utilization of electric power was the increase use of that power for war production. Since World War II, the production of electric power by government power plants has rapidly increased, in the interests of monopoly capital. By 1953, the share of government and municipal power plants in the production of power by public utilities plants was 20%. A number of power producing companies, interested in maintaining a power shortage in the country with a view to keeping the price of power at a high level, are fighting a desperate battle against any further government construction and operation of power plants, but they are resisted by other capitalist groups which are interested in cheap electricity for their enterprises.

The US has at its disposal rich mineral resources for the development of ferrous and nonferrous metallurgy as well as of power, chemical, construction, and other industries. At the same time, a number of US minerals fall short of industry's requirements. Thus the US has to meet its requirements of manganese ores, chromites, tin, nickel, cobalt, graphite,

diamonds, corundum, and tantalum, in full or in part, by imports from other countries. Large quantities of these and other minerals, including copper, lead zinc, and uranium were imported by the US after World War II for stockpiling strategic materials.

TABLE 8

PRODUCTION OF BASIC TYPES OF MINERALS IN THE US

Name of mineral	Unit	1937	1943	1949	1953 ³	1954 ³
Coal	Million t	451	593	438	443	378
Oil	same	173	203	253	319	313
Natural gas	Billion cu m	70	99.5	153	237.8	268
Iron ore	Million t	73	103	86	121	79
Manganese ore	Thousand t	41	186	114	143	181
Chromites	same	2	145	0.4	53	145
Copper ¹	same	764	990	683	860	763
Lead ¹	same	422	411	366	310	289
Zinc ¹	same	568	675	530	497	422
Tin ¹	t	172	6	17	-	-
Nickel	same	199	582	716	596	...
Wolfram (concentrates)	same	3,175	10,820	2,508	8,730	12,521
Molybdenum	same	13,344	27,972	10,220	25,965	26,501
Mercury	same	569	1,790	342	494	655
Antimony	same	1,148	5,042	1,365	335	726
Bauxite	Thousand t	427	6,333	1,167	1,605	1,937
Magnesite	same	185	685	261	502	...
Gold	t	128	43	60	61	58
Silver	same	2,218	1,271	1,075	1,169	1,151
Potassium salts ²	Thousand t	258	670	1,014	1,734	1,780
Phosphorites	same	4,330	5,455	9,040	12,704	14,042
Sulfur (native)	same	2,786	2,580	4,820	5,308	5,604

1. According to metal content in ore.
2. Expressed in K_2^0 .
3. Figures taken from the statistical book, Proizvodstvo vazhneyshikh tovarov v kapitalisticheskikh stranakh [Production of the Most Important Goods in the Capitalist Countries], 1955, Moscow.

The table illustrates the uneven nature of the dynamics of mineral extraction. Production is subject to great fluctuations which has an unfavorable effect on mining.

The Coal Industry

The US has huge coal and lignite resources, but bituminous coal and anthracite are mined for the most part. The enormous deposits of lignite, particularly in North Dakota and Montana, are practically unused. The distribution of coal mining is very uneven. Over 80% of the coal is concentrated in 5 states, namely Pennsylvania (25% in 1952 including about 6% anthracite), Ohio (7%), Illinois (9%), West Virginia (28.2%), and Kentucky (13.5%). Prominent among the other states in mining are Indiana, Virginia, and Alabama. Insignificant use is made of the large coal resources of the West. The US coal industry is in a state of stagnation, suffering from the keen competition on the part of the oil and gas industries. In 1918 coal production went up 615 million t but dropped to a lower level in subsequent years. The 1918 level was reached only in a few isolated years (620 million t in 1944, 621 million t in 1947) but was followed by a new drop. US coal production in recent times has been on a considerably lower level than 35 years ago (443 million t in 1953; 378 million t in 1954). The Pennsylvania coal industry has shown a particularly steep decline. Its 1954 coal production was the lowest since 1880, with anthracite production affected by the steepest decline (24.5 million t in 1954 against 90 million in 1917).

A considerable part of the coal in the US is concentrated in the hands of large companies. Thus over 20% of the coal reserves belong to 4 companies headed by the Pittsburgh Consolidated Coal Company of the Mellon interests. A prominent place in the production of coal is held by the mines owned by large steel companies, railroads, etc.

The Oil Industry

The US holds first place in the world in oil production. US oil production in 1954 was 313 million t (more than half of the total produced by the capitalist countries). The distribution of oil extraction has undergone a change. The Appalachian basin (Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and New York) which played a decisive part in the early period of the oil industry, produced less than 1% of the country's total output in 1952-1953. About 80% of the production is concentrated in the richest oil states of the southwest (Texas, Louisiana, and Oklahoma) and in California. Natural gas is produced in about the same areas as oil. Its output went up from 70 billion cu m in 1937 to 268 cu m in 1954.

Almost the entire US oil industry is controlled by several large monopolies. But not satisfied with that, the American monopolies began to expand in many countries of the world, particularly the economically backward ones. They completely monopolized the production of oil in Saudi Arabia and on the Bahrein islands, and seized a dominant position in the oil industry of Venezuela, Colombia, and Canada. They are participating in the exploitation of the oil riches of Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Qatar, Indonesia, and Egypt. The largest monopolies are the Rockefeller-controlled Standard Oil of New Jersey, Standard Oil of California, and Socony Vacuum Oil, the Texas Oil Corporation, controlled by various New York banks and Chicago groups, the Mellon-controlled Gulf Oil Corporation. They hold a dominant position in the US oil

industry, and their oil output in other capitalist countries went up from 35.6% in 1938 to 57.3% in 1952. The share of the British monopolies during the same period was reduced from 50.6% to 31.3%. A desperate struggle for oil sources is going on among the oil monopolies, particularly between the US and Britain. The American monopolies are exerting increasing pressure on the British monopolies.

The Mining Industry.

The US accounts for 40-45% of all the iron ore extracted in capitalist countries. This production is subject to substantial fluctuations, having amounted (in million t) to 77 in 1929, 10 in 1932, 103 in 1943, 72 in 1946, 103 in 1948, 121 in 1953, and 79 in 1954. Over 80% of the entire output is produced in the Lake Superior districts (including 60% of the Mesabi deposits) in Minnesota and Michigan, 6-8% by the Birmingham group of iron ore deposits in Alabama, and 3-4% by the Adirondack deposits in New York. Two-thirds of the iron ore production is concentrated in the hands of 4 companies, namely the US Steel Corporation, the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, the Republic Steel corporation, and the Cleveland Cliffs Iron Company [sic]. The US monopolies, especially the US Steel Corporation and the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, extended their control to the iron ore sources of Cuba, Brazil, Chili, Colombia, Liberia, French Guiana and to the recently discovered rich resources of Venezuela and of the Labrador peninsula (Canada).

The US has rich deposits of nonferrous, rare, and precious metals. It accounts for over 1/3 of the copper production in the capitalist countries, about 1/3 of the zinc and 1/4 of the lead. The larger part of the deposits is concentrated in the mountain states of the west. Arizona and Utah produce over 70% of the copper output.

The first place in the country's zinc production up to World War II was held by the "3 states" area embracing the contiguous states of Missouri, Kansas, and Oklahoma. After the war however this area's output went down to 13% as against 38% in 1937, and the mountain states of the west (mostly Idaho, Arizona, Montana, and Colorado) accounted for about 60% of the entire output. Zinc is mined mostly in southeast Missouri and north Idaho (Coeur de Lion district).

The US produces about 90% of all the molybdenum produced in the capitalist countries. Most of it comes from the Utah and Arizona copper-molybdenum deposits and about 2/5 (1950) from the Climax molybdenum district of Colorado.

Wolfram is mined in California, Nevada, Idaho, and Colorado as well as at the recently discovered deposits in North Carolina, while 90% of the antimony comes from the complex antimony-gold deposits of the Yellow Pine, Idaho, area, mercury chiefly from California, bauxites from Little Rock, Arkansas, and vanadium and uranium mostly from Colorado. A very prominent part in gold and silver mining is played by Utah, Colorado, Nevada, Montana, Idaho, and California. Considerable gold mining is done also in the area of the Black Hills, South Dakota.

The exploitation of nonferrous, rare, and precious metal deposits is controlled by a small handful of monopolists. The Anaconda Copper Mining Company, Kennecott Copper, and Phelps Dodge account for over 4/5 of the copper production. Lead and zinc mining is controlled by the American Smelting and Refining Company, Anaconda Copper, St. Joseph Lead, Federal Mining and Smelting, and Eagle Pitcher. Molybdenum production is monopolized by Climax Molybdenum, Anaconda Copper and Kennecott Copper. Vanadium and uranium is monopolized by the Vanadium

Corporation of America and United States Vanadium Corporation (a subsidiary of the Union Carbide and Carbon company). Dominating the US bauxite industry is the Mellon-controlled Aluminum Company of America.

The US monopolies are increasingly extending their control over the nonferrous and rare metal deposits of the other countries in the capitalist world. They acquired control over the bauxite production in British Guiana, Surinam, and Jamaica and the polymetal mines in southwest Africa. They hold a dominant position in the production of copper, lead, zinc, and rare metals in Latin American countries. They control about 1/2 of the copper and nickel mining in Canada. They participate in the exploitation of the copper and cobalt deposits in northern Rhodesia, uranium and polymetal mines in Canada, polymetal mines in Australia and French North Africa, and of the uranium and copper-cobalt mines in the Belgian Congo. They made their way into the gold and uranium mining industry of the Union of South Africa. The investment of US capital into the mining industries of British, French, Belgian, and Dutch possessions leads to a sharpening of contradictions between the monopolies of the US and those of other capitalist countries.

Of great importance among the nonmetallic minerals in the US are phosphorites (more than half of the total output of the capitalist countries) and potassium salts (1/3 of the output of the capitalist countries). About 3/4 of the phosphorite production comes from Florida, although more than 1/2 of the deposits are concentrated in the western states of Utah, Idaho, etc. New Mexico (Carlsbad) accounts for 85-90% of potassium salt production, and 10% is produced in California (Lake Serls). Very little use is made of the large deposits of hard potassium salt in the western states.

In sulphur production the US is now far ahead of Italy which played a decisive part in that industry early in the twentieth century. Since World War II the US has been producing 80-90% of the total sulphur output of the capitalist countries. Mining is concentrated in east Texas and west Louisiana. There is large scale exploitation of the deposits of rock salt, barites, fluorspar, dolomite, quartzite, fire-proof clay, and construction materials (cement and others).

The Processing Industry

Characteristic of the US processing industry is the growing domination of the heavy industry over the light industry. A leading place in it is held by ferrous and nonferrous metallurgy, machine building, metal processing, and the chemical industry. They employ about 1/2 of all US industrial workers. The disparity in the development of the different branches of industry was accentuated during and after World War II.

Thus 2/3 of all the capital investments during World War II went to the war industries whereas the production facilities of the light industry were either not renovated or only slightly so.

Ferrous Metallurgy

The production capacity of the US ferrous metallurgical industry in 1937 was 30 million t of cast iron and 71 million t of steel. This production took a sharp upswing in subsequent years due to the war and the intense militarization of the economy after the war. At the beginning of 1953, the US had 258 blast furnaces with a total capacity of 72 million t of cast iron and ferroalloys, 971 Marten furnaces, 33 Bessemer converters, and 278 electric furnaces with an overall capacity of 106.6 million t of steel. Steel smelting is subject to sharp fluctuations.

Thus it dropped from 57 million t in 1929 to 14 million t in 1932. In 1953 it reached 101 million t but dropped to 80 million in 1954. The output of steel in 1955 according to preliminary figures was 105 million t. The principal centers of ferrous metallurgy are in the northeast (the oldest and chief center is Pittsburgh) and in the Great Lakes area (Chicago-Gary, Cleveland, Buffalo, etc). The metallurgical plants of these districts are run on the coal of the nearby Appalachian coal basin and the iron ore of the Lake Superior area (Mesabi, etc). Of lesser importance is the ferrous metallurgy of the Birmingham area in Alabama, despite the nearness of iron ore deposits and coking coal. Metallurgical plants were built during World War II in Fontana near Los Angeles, and Geneva, Utah, in the west and Houston, Texas, in the south. However the basic capacity increment, both in wartime and in the postwar years, is still noted in the old centers. After World War II new plants were built and old ones expanded (Sparrows point, Bethlehem) on the Atlantic seaboard, designed to a large extent for the use of iron ore imported from sources controlled by US capital.

The dominant positions in black metallurgy are held by the US Steel Corporation, controlled by the Morgan interests, the Bethlehem Steel Corporation (Morgan and Mellon interests), the Republic Steel, Youngstown Sheet and Tube, Inland Steel and Wheeling Steel (Cleveland financial interests), and the Jones and Laughlin Steel, American Rolling Mills and Crucible Steel Company of America (Mellon interests). The enterprises of these monopolies produce about 4/5 of the entire pig iron output and 3/4 of the steel smelting in the country.

Nonferrous Metallurgy

The most important branches of nonferrous metallurgy are copper,

lead, and zinc smelting, concentrated principally in the ore extraction districts, and the aluminum industry. The 1954 production (in million t) was: copper 0.9, lead 0.5, and zinc 0.8. Kennecott Copper, American Smelting and Refining, Anaconda Copper Mining, Phelps Dodge, and American Metal control over 90% of the production capacity of the copper smelting plants and all the copper electrolyte plants in the US. The same companies (with the exception of Phelps Dodge) as well as Bunker Hill and Sullivan Mining and Concentrating, American Zinc, Lead and Smelting, and St. Joseph Lead, control the overwhelming part of the lead and zinc smelting plants' production. Tin is smelted from concentrates imported from Bolivia, Indonesia, and Malaya at the Texas City, Texas, plant built in 1942.

Large aluminum and magnesium plants were built during World War II. As a result of that, aluminum production rose from 133,000 t in 1937 to 835,000 in 1943, and magnesium from 2,600 t to 167,000 t. After the war the government plants were either shut down or sold at bargain prices to the aluminum monopolies. By 1946 aluminum production dropped to 371,600 t, and magnesium to 4,800 t. Production was subsequently expanded again and new plants were built. In 1954 aluminum production jumped to 1,325,000 t and magnesium to 63,000 t. Large aluminum industry centers were built near hydroelectric power sources of the Columbia River on the Pacific coast, in Tennessee, and near the natural gas sources of Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas. Of lesser importance are the old enterprises in New York State. The working magnesium plants are located in Freeport, Texas, and the reserve ones are distributed in New York, Connecticut, Ohio, and in Washington and California. A predominant place in the aluminum industry is held by the Aluminum Company of America (controlled by Mellon), Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation and Reynolds Metals. Dow Chemical holds a controlling part in the magnesium industry.

Machine Building

The most prominent feature of machine building is the automobile industry. The number of automobiles produced in 1929 was 5,359,000 (the car producing capacity was 8.5 million). Following a sharp reduction of production during the 1929-1933 economic crisis (1,371,000 in 1932), the output of automobiles by 1937 was 4,809,000. During World War II the automobile plants were converted to the production of war planes, tanks, and other types of armaments. The production of passenger cars and trucks in 1953 was 7,323,000, in 1954 it dropped to 6.6 million, and in 1955 it went up to approximately 9.2 million. The main center of automobile production is Detroit, Michigan, and the surrounding area. The largest among the other production centers are Flint and Lansing, Michigan, Cleveland, Ohio, South Bend, Indiana, Chicago, Illinois, and Buffalo, New York. Automobile parts and accessories are produced in the cities closely tied to Detroit. Large automobile assembly plants are located in Los Angeles, California, and in Atlanta, Georgia. The automobile industry is highly monopolized. More than 9/10 of the entire production is concentrated in the hands of 3 monopolies, General Motors Corporation, Ford, and Chrysler. The US automobile monopolies own enterprises also in the other countries of the capitalist world.

The aviation industry was given a strong boost in World War II. Airplane production in 1944 jumped to 96,369 units. The largest airplane centers are Los Angeles and San Diego, California, Seattle, Washington in the west, and New York, Baltimore, Bridgeport, and Buffalo in the east. Large aviation plants were built during the war in the Great Lakes area (Detroit, Chicago), and in the northwest (Wichita, Omaha, St. Louis) and in the southwest (Dallas, Fort Worth, Tulsa, Oklahoma City). The production

of airplane motors including jet motors however remained concentrated in the northeast and in the Great Lakes area. Of the 16,000 planes produced in 1953, 12,000 were military planes. The production of planes is monopolized by a few large companies prominent among which are Boeing, Douglas, Lockheed, Glen Martin, General Dynamics, and North American. The production of airplane motors and propellers is controlled by Curtis Wright, United Aircraft, and by the automobile and electrotechnical monopolies particularly General Motors Corporation and General Electric.

Large strides were made by the production machinery of ship building industry during World War II. Merchant ships with a total tonnage of 33.6 million t were built between 1941 and 1945. Ship building was sharply curtailed after the end of the war but has made some gains in subsequent years. The tonnage of the ships launched was 471,000 t in 1952 and 477,000 t in 1954. The largest shipbuilding centers on the Pacific coast are San Francisco and Los Angeles, California, and Seattle-Bremerton, Washington. On the Atlantic coast they include Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and ports of Hampton Roads Bay (Norfolk, Newport News) and on the Gulf of Mexico coast they include New Orleans and Mobile. The large wharfs built during the war in a number of western and southern port cities were shut down. Morgan and Rockefeller financial interests dominate the ship building industry.

Locomotive and railroad car building is concentrated mostly in the northeast and in the Great Lakes area. The chief centers are Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, and Chicago. In 1954 the output of freight cars was 38,300 units, passenger cars 585 units. The number of locomotives commissioned in 1952 was 2,412 and in 1954 1,113. The railroad equipment industry is feeling the growing pinch of competition

on the part of automobile and air transportation. The production of steam locomotives has practically ceased due to their replacement by diesel locomotives. The largest share of the diesel locomotive market was captured by the General Motors Corporation. In 1952-1953 the American Locomotive, Baldwin Locomotive, and American Car and Foundry companies were working mostly on orders for tanks, artillery, and other types of armament.

The major part of the machine tool and electric machine building industry is concentrated in the northeast and in the Great Lakes area. The machine tool production centers are Hartford and Bridgeport, Connecticut; Providence, Rhode Island; Cleveland and Cincinnati, Ohio; Detroit, Michigan; Chicago, Illinois; and Milwaukee, Wisconsin. The largest electric machine building enterprises are located in Boston and Springfield, Massachusetts; Hartford and Bridgeport, Connecticut; New York, Schenectady, and Buffalo, New York; Cleveland and Cincinnati, Ohio; Chicago, Illinois; Milwaukee, Wisconsin; St. Louis, Missouri; and Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The output value of machine tool production in 1953 was 1.3 billion dollars and for electrical equipment (including also radio technical) it was 16.9 billion dollars. A dominant place in electrical machine building is held by the Morgan-influenced General Electric Company (employing about 200,000 workers) and the Mellon-controlled Westinghouse Corporation.

Considerable gains were made by agricultural machine building. Its production centers are distributed for the most part in the Great Lakes area and the adjoining northwest, including Minneapolis, Minnesota; Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Chicago, Rock Island, Moline, and Peoria, Illinois; St. Louis and Kansas City, Missouri; and Waterloo and Davenport, Iowa. The most important is Chicago. About 2/3 of the production is controlled by 3 monopolies and the largest of them, International Harvester, is controlled by Chicago financial interests.

The US chemical industry was expanded in the twentieth century, particularly during and after World War I. World War II gave a powerful boost to this particular industry. Large scale production of sulfuric acid, superphosphates, soda, nitrogen compounds, cellulose, explosives, dyestuffs, plastics, artificial and synthetic fiber, synthetic rubber, etc has been developed in the US. The output of synthetic rubber amounted to 500 t in 1937, 862,000 t in 1953 and 633,000 t in 1954. Production of sulfuric acid rose from 4.5 million t in 1937 to 12.9 million t in 1953. In 1954 it was 12.7 million t. Production of nitric acid was 160,000 t in 1937 and 1,811,000 t in 1954; caustic soda production was 879,000 and 3,079,000 t respectively; calcium soda 2,756,000 and 4,265,000 t; and superphosphate (in terms of 18% phosphoric acid) 4,056,000 t in 1937 and 8,518,000 t in 1953. The chemical industry is distributed for the most part in the Great Lakes area and in the northeast (Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan), as well as in Maryland and West Virginia. Based on the processing of crude oil and gas, the large chemical industry has grown since World War II in the southwest (particularly in Texas and Louisiana), as well as in California. The south accounts for more than 4/5 of the capacity of the synthetic rubber plants. The basic centers are Houston, Port Natchez at Beaumont in Texas; Lake Charles, Baton Rouge, Louisiana; and Louisville, Kentucky. The Texas and Louisiana chemical industry is based also on sulfur deposits. The main center of the rubber industry is Akron, Ohio. The mineral fertilizer plants are found mostly in Georgia, South and North Carolina, Florida, and Virginia. Dominating the chemical industry are the large firms headed by Dupont de Nemour and Company, United Carbide and Carbon, and Allied Chemical and Dyes.

Large funds were invested by the government in the atomic industry which largely serves military purposes. Judging from the published data,

atomic industry plants were built at Hanford on the Columbia River near the Grand Coulee power plant and in the Tennessee River Basin at Oakridge and Paducah. The construction of a plant for hydrogen bomb components was undertaken on the Savannah River in South Carolina, and a plant for uranium isotopes U^{235} , similar to the Oakridge and Paducah plants, is under construction near Portsmouth on the Ohio River. The atomic industry is in fact also controlled by the largest monopolies (General Electric Company, Union Carbide and Carbon, Dupont de Nemour, etc).

In 1952 there were 363 plants in the oil processing industry. In 1953 they processed 351 million t of oil, producing 153 million t of gasoline, 73 million t of diesel fuel, 7.5 million t of lubricants, and 16.7 million t of kerosene. The largest oil processing plants are located on the Gulf of Mexico coast, in Texas and Louisiana, in California on the west coast, and in New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the Great Lakes area. About 36% of the oil and oil products is transported through pipelines, 28% by fuel trucks, 28% by sea and river tankers and barges, and only a small part by the railroads. The US oil processing industry is dominated for the most part by the same monopolies as the oil extracting industry. The US monopolies control the oil processing industry of Venezuela, the Dutch West Indies, Colombia, Canada, Japan and other countries, they own the entire oil processing industry of Saudi Arabia and the Bahrein Islands.

The Lumber Industry

Prior to the arrival of the Europeans, the wooded area of the US covered 366 million ha of land, that is, about 50% of the country's present territory. The forests have been cruelly destroyed by the lumber companies.

Tremendous losses are brought about by forest fires. Frequent forest fires in the US occur annually sometimes affecting considerable wooded areas. The US wooded area (including brushwood and burnt down forests) now amounts to about 252 million ha. A considerable part of it however is no longer suitable for commercial development. The west accounts for approximately 40% of the entire wooded area, the south for 33%, and the north for 27%. About 3/4 of the wooded area is privately owned. The annual production of lumber before World War II was 330 million cu m which was 15 million cu m more than the natural increment. Besides the annual losses from fire, overmaturity and forest pests cost over 40 million cu m. The original reserves of saw timber stands were estimated at 32.5 billion cu m, and in 1940 they were down to 7 billion cu m. The west coast and the south (between North Carolina and Louisiana) account for the largest volume of lumber production. The northwest which produced about 2/3 of the country's lumber in the middle of the nineteenth century, accounted for only 5.9% in 1949. The 1953 coniferous lumber production was 72.8 million cu m, deciduous lumber 19.3 million cu m, plywood 66 million cu m, cellulose 8 million t and paper 10.3 million t. The largest centers of the cellulose-paper industry are located in New England (Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont); the Pacific northwest (Washington and Oregon) and the south (Virginia, North Carolina, and Florida, and Louisiana and Arkansas).

Holding first place in the light industry is the textile industry; including cotton, wool, and silk processing (chiefly artificial silk). The cotton industry is in a state of stagnation. The total number of spindles was reduced from 37.9 million in 1925 and 34 million in 1930 to 22.9 million in 1953. The production of cloth was 10,157 million m in 1942, 9,515 million m in 1952 (8,701 million m according to the UN statistical yearbook) and 10,180 million m (9,330 million m according to the UN) in 1953. The distribution of the cotton industry has changed.

New England had 41.8% of the spindles in 1928-1929 and only 16% in 1949. In 1947-1948 the south accounted for 87% of the raw cotton consumption, and New England for 8.5%. Among the largest cotton industry centers of the south are Greensboro, Charlotte, and Gastonia in North Carolina; Spartanburg, Greenville, and Anderson in South Carolina; Augusta Atlanta, Columbus, and Macon in Georgia. The largest of the New England industry centers are found in Massachusetts (Lowell, Lawrence, Fall River, and New Bedford) and Rhode Island (Providence and Central Falls). The production of wooldens shrank from 483 million m in 1942 to 334 million m in 1953 (309 million m, according to the UN statistical yearbook). The bulk of the production comes from Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Maine. Its production in the south however continues to expand in proportion to its shrinkage in New England.

The production of cloth from artificial fibers amounted to 1,740 million m in 1953 and 1,517 million m in 1954. This production is particularly large in Virginia (main center is Roanoke), West Virginia (Charleston), Tennessee, Georgia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. The leather footwear industry is found primarily in the New England states and in New York, Wisconsin, Illinois, and Missouri. There are also some shoe manufacturing industries in the South. US production of all types of footwear was 533 million pairs in 1952 and 524 million pairs in 1954. The food industry is well developed in the US. In 1947 it produced 12.1% of the purely commercial output in the US. It accounts for 9.2% of the labor force. Its most important branches are flour milling, meat, canning, dairy, and sugar. In 1952 the food industry employed 1,075,000 workers, including (in thousands) 88 in flour milling, 239 in the meat industry, 185 in canning, 65 in dairy, 27 in sugar, 67 in confectionery, and 197 in breadbaking. Leading in the flour milling industry are the Great Lakes and northwest areas (Minneapolis -- St. Paul is the largest

center in the country). The largest slaughter house and meat packing industries are Chicago, Illinois; Cincinnati, Ohio; Omaha, Nebraska; Kansas City, St. Joseph, and St. Louis, Missouri; and Sioux City, Iowa.

The vegetable and fruit canning industry is highly developed in California (Los Angeles, San Francisco, and San Jose). Sugar production is highly developed in New Orleans, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. Leading in the production in canned milk and cheese is the state of Wisconsin. The bulk of the tobacco industry output comes from Virginia, North Carolina, Maryland, Kentucky, and Florida.

The food industry is among the highly monopolized industries. A decisive position in the control of the meat packing industry is held by 4 monopolies (Swift, Armour, Wilson, and Cudahay). Of the dairy industry output 2/3 is concentrated in the hands of 6 companies and 2/3 of the confectionery industry production is controlled by 3 companies. The tobacco industry is dominated by 3 companies which concentrated in their hands more than 3/4 of the industry's entire output in the country.

Agriculture

The US holds first place among the capitalist countries in the production of wheat, corn, oats, barley, soy bean, cotton, meat, and dairy products. Characteristic of US agriculture are the high level of the development of capitalism, the high differentiation of the farm population, the domination of large farming units, and the expropriation of the small producers.

Agriculture in the major part of US territory developed under conditions which knew no large scale land ownership nor survivals of feudalism. Lenin referred to the bourgeois evolution of agriculture without large scale land ownership as the American type of capitalist

development in agriculture. The abundance of unoccupied land in the vastnesses of the west, and the distribution of those lands under the Homestead Law (1862, see Homestead Act) freed agriculture of absolute rent and contributed to the relatively rapid development of production forces on the basis of capitalist relations. At the same time the share of the agricultural output as well as the output of the entire economy was steadily going down. A more or less considerable increase in agricultural production, and in industrial production, was common during the war years. The average annual increase in 1920-1939 was 0.79%, in 1940-1945 3.6%, and in 1946-1949 0.35%. Accounting for 13.5% of the country's total population, the farmers get about 5% (5.1% in 1954) of the national income.

(See Table 9 on Page 71)

According to the figures in Table 9, 55.8% of the total number of farms in 1950 had only 10.1% of the total land area, but the farms of over 200 ha accounted for 53.4% of the total land including the 42.6% which went to farms of over 400 ha each. About 30% of the overall agricultural output comes from 1/3 of the farms. Over 50% of the agricultural output comes from 9% of the farms while 61% of them produce only 12% of the total agricultural output. At the same time the large farms, making up only 5% of the total number, account for about 40% of agricultural production while 2% of the very largest farms produce twice as much as the 3.3 million small and medium farms (in 1949). Between 1940 and 1950 the number of farms was reduced by more than 700,000. It was reduced by another 600,000 in 1950-1954, according to preliminary figures.

TABLE 9
LAND DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO FARM SIZES

Farm Sizes	Number of Farms				Land Area			
	1940		1950		1940		1950	
	Number (in 1,000)	% of total	Number (in 1,000)	% of total	1,000 ha	% of total	1,000 ha	% of total
Up to 40 ha	3,578	58.7	3,010	55.8	58,066	13.5	47,506	10.1
up to 3.6 ha	507	8.3	485	9.0	1,080	0.2	983	0.2
3.7-19.9 ha	1,780	29.2	1,477	27.4	19,222	4.5	15,912	3.4
20-40 ha	1,291	21.2	1,048	19.4	37,764	8.8	30,605	6.6
Over 40 ha	2,519	41.3	2,372	44.2	371,234	86.5	421,837	89.9
202-404 ha	164	2.6	184	3.4	45,298	10.4	50,982	10.8
Over 404 ha	100	1.6	121	2.2	147,331	34.3	200,115	42.6
Total	6,097	100	5,382	100	429,300	100	469,343	100

Agriculture in the US is mechanized to a high degree. The use of complicated agricultural machinery has become widespread in the '40's and '50's of this century. Between 1940 and 1945 the number of tractors was increased by 54.5%, and between 1945 and 1950 by 49%. In 1950 there were 3,509,000 tractors, 714,000 combines, 456,000 corn picking machines, and 2,207,000 trucks in agriculture. The 1955 machinery included 4,750,000 tractors, 960,000 combines, and 600,000 corn picking machines. Most of the US tractors are of the wheel-type, and only a small number are on caterpillar tracks (about 4% in 1954). The use of agricultural machinery is more widespread in the northern states (where 68.6% of the farms had tractors in 1950) and much less so in the southern states where 26.1% of the farms have tractors. Best equipped of all are the areas growing corn and wheat for commercial purposes which are dominated by large farms or so-called "grain factories." Thus in the northwestern states 71.8% of the farms have tractors, 26.4% are equipped with combines, and 24.2% use corn picking machines.

Mechanization is reducing the amount of labor per unit of production (that is, one ha of planted land or one head of cattle) and per unit of output (one centner of grain, meat, milk, etc). The amount of labor used per one ha of grain-sown area was reduced to almost 1/2 in 20 years. According to the figures of the US Department of Agriculture, the labor used per one centner of wheat in 1950-1953 was one hour as against the 2.6 hours in 1930-1934. Labor consumption per one ha of corn in 1950-1953 was 32 hours as against the 63 hours in 1940-1944.

The increase of agricultural equipment, accompanied by a decrease in labor consumption per output unit, the improvement of the work on the land and the increasing use of fertilizer have produced higher yields but at the same time have adversely affected the situation of the small farmers and tenant farmers who are crowded off the land by large farms

(which own 75% of the tractors, 90% of the combines, and 70% of the cotton picking machines). The farming population of the country is being rapidly reduced from 30.5 million people in 1940 to 24.8 million people in 1952. The greatest loss of farming population is recorded in the southern states which showed a considerable increase in the number of cotton picking machines and particularly tractors between 1930 and 1950.

The small farmer is unable to compete with the large farms equipped with up-to-date machinery. The capitalist leaders are exploiting the labor of the farm laborers and small farmers. The number of farmers forced to hire themselves out jumped from 1,747,000 in 1940 (28.6%) to 2,089,000 in 1950 (38.8%), with 1,265,000 farmers doing additional work outside of their farms 100 days a year. In his message to Congress on the state of the union (January 1956), President D. Eisenhower stated that the American farmers are "squeezed between 2 millstones, the rising cost of production and the falling prices" of farmers' produce.

Tenant farming is widespread in US agriculture. According to 1950 figures, 26.8% of the farmers were tenant farmers and 15.3% were only part owners. The number of tenant farmers is gradually decreasing as a result of their complete ruination and their joining the ranks of the proletariat. Of all tenant farmers 52% were crowded off the land between 1935 and 1952. Between 100,000 and 150,000 tenant farmers are ruined annually. The indebtedness of the small and medium farmers is on the increase. The total indebtedness of the farmers was 7.6 billion dollars in 1946 and 18.5 billion dollars at the beginning of 1955. About 1/3 of the farms are mortgaged. Many farmers work on land which they own only nominally. The banks are actually dominating a considerable part of the farms and taking an increasing share of their income.

Survivals of slavery still exist in US agriculture. Share cropping is widespread. It has assumed a particularly enslaving character in the southern states with a large Negro population. Part of the share croppers not only rent the land but are also compelled to rent the landlords' equipment, seeds, inventory, and living quarters from him. The number of sharecroppers in the south has been considerably decreased. In 1930-1950 alone that decrease amounted to 54.6% of their total number. Government subsidies and bonuses paid for reducing the cultivated area make it possible for the large farms to intensify production on smaller areas. As a result the sharecroppers are crowded off the land. A similar result is achieved by the increasing use of agricultural machinery which reduces the consumption of labor per unit of cultivated area.

The deepening agrarian crisis in recent years has been manifested by an accumulation of large quantities of unsold agricultural products, falling farm income, growing indebtedness, and the accelerated ruin of small and medium farms. The government Commodity Credit Corporation, designed to maintain a high retail price level in the interests of the big capitalists as well as for purposes of foreign trade expansion, is buying up agricultural products. It usually gets rid of them by dumping them on foreign markets or by destroying them.

Of the 5 million farm laborers 500,000 to one million have no permanent employment. In the spring they look for work in the vegetable fields and berry farms of the south, and in the summer in the corn and wheat fields of the middle western states. In the fall they pick potatoes in the north and then make their way south again to pick cotton and citrus fruit and cut sugar cane. A considerable number of the migrant laborers are used also in the fields and in the orchards of the west, particularly in

California. The migrant laborers consist of US citizens who were crowded off the land, mostly Negroes, as well as of seasonal laborers from Mexico, Puerto Rico, and other nearby countries. They are subjected to the most cruel exploitation for miserable pay. Almost 1/3 of the agricultural proletariat are women. Among the seasonal laborers are many adolescents. The pay received by agricultural workers does not exceed 40% of the earning of industrial workers.

Animal husbandry is a leading part of agriculture. In 1950 it produced 54.9% of the commercial output of agriculture. The animal husbandry industry is particularly extensive in the north (58.5% of the agricultural commercial output against 35.7% in the south), where the production of fodder is concentrated. Of chief importance is cattle raising, 94.7 million head in 1954 (78.3% of the value of all cattle), including 24.7 million head of milk cows. Over 50% of the cattle is concentrated in the north. Prevalent in the western states where the climate is dry (the mountain states, the southwest, and the northwest) is the grazing of beef cattle part of which is sold to be fed in the corn growing eastern states. A considerable part of the herds in the northeast and the lake area consists of dairy cattle (over 60% of dairy cows are in the north). Dairy cattle raising is poorly developed in the south and in the west. The average annual milk yield per cow is from 240 to 250 lit. Pig raising is also an important industry (48.2 million head in 1954). About 73% of the pigs are concentrated in the north, 24% in the south, and only 3% in the west. The pig raising industry is distributed chiefly according to the corn raising districts which are also used for feeding cattle. Sheep and goat raising (30.9 million head in 1954) is widespread in the mountainous west (about 41% of the total number) and in the western parts of the north and south. Meat production in 1954 amounted to 11.5 million t and animal fats to 0.66 million t. Poultry raising also plays an important

part. Over 60 % of the total poultry are found in the northern states. Poultry raising is also widespread in California.

The total area of arable land in the US is estimated at 469 million ha. The sown area amounts to 166 million ha, pasture land to 196 million ha including 40 million ha under cultivation. Another 55 million ha covered with woods and underbrush are also used for grazing purposes. A considerable part of the US land area is affected by erosion in varying degrees.

The importance of the animal industry has affected the very structure of agriculture. Over half of the cultivated area is planted to corn and other fodder cultures. In 1955, the area planted to corn alone was 40.2% of the cultivated land while 57.3% of the area was used for grain culture. The US holds a leading place in the world in the production of corn. It accounts for approximately 55-60% of the worlds corn output (without the USSR). About 85% of the area under cultivation is planted with highly yielding hybrid seeds. The yield of corn has been raised considerably in the past 10-15 years.

TABLE 10

CORN YIELDS

Years	Centners per ha	Years	Centners per ha
1931-35 (average)	14.4	1945-50 (average)	23.2
1936-40 (average)	16.4	1953	24.9
1941-45 (average)	20.8	1954	23.0

In 1955 corn yields went up to 27 centners per ha.

Wheat yields during the mentioned period fluctuated between 8.9 centners per ha in 1931-1935 and 12 centners per ha in 1954.

TABLE 11

CULTIVATED AREA AND GROSS HARVEST OF BASIC GRAIN CULTURES

Cultures	1944-1953 average		1954	
	Cultivated area in millimeters ha	Crops in millimeters ha	Cultivated area in millimeters ha	Crops in millimeters ha
Corn	34.3	78.3	22.4	75.3
Wheat	27.4	31.4	21.7	26.5
Rye	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.6
Oats	16.0	19.2	17.0	22.4
Barley	4.2	5.8	5.2	8.1
Rice	0.7	1.8	0.9	2.7
Soy bean	4.9	6.5	6.8	9.0

According to official figures, the 1955 area planted to 8 grain cultures amounted to 80.5 million ha, and the crops therefrom to 146 million t, including 81 million t of corn.

Certain regions of the country go in for specialized agriculture, depending on the natural and economic conditions. Corn is raised in almost all states east of the cordilleras but it is widespread within the belt extending from South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas eastward to Ohio. Iowa and Illinois are the leading states in size of corn-planted area and harvest volume. This is also a large center of wheat, oats, and seed grass as well as pig raising and feeding of livestock which is shipped there in large quantities from other areas. North of the corn belt lies an area of seed grass and dairy cattle raising.

Extending to the south of the corn belt is a mixed strip of corn and winter wheat. The large summer wheat area covers North Dakota, South Dakota, and the northeastern part of Montana. The hard winter wheat area embraces Kansas and Oklahoma. There are considerable wheat-sown areas also on the Columbian Plateau.

TABLE 12

THE AREA UNDER TECHNICAL CULTURE AND THEIR YIELDS

	1934-38 average		1953	
	Sown area in millimeters ha	Crops in millimeters t	Sown area in millimeters ha	Crops in millimeters t
Cotton	11.5	2,755	9.96	3,531
Tobacco	0.6	590	0.7	928
Flax (for seeds)	0.5	209	1.8	944
Sugar beets	0.3	8,100	0.3	10,910
Sugar cane	0.1	5,100	0.1	7,217

The cotton belt covers practically all the southern states. The most important cotton growing area is the Mississippi delta and central Texas. Large quantities of cotton are grown also on the irrigated fields of the western states. Sugar cane is produced on the Gulf of Mexico coast. In the northeast and the east the cotton belt borders on a large tobacco growing area (Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Virginia). Flax is grown for the most part in the rainy north (primarily in Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota). Vegetable growing is developed mostly along the Atlantic seacoast. Sugar beets, cotton, and other crops are grown on the irrigated land of the mountain states, but the most important agricultural branch in that area is sheep raising. Florida and California are important centers of citrus fruit, grape, and fruit growing. Ninety % of the country's grape crop, half of the peaches and pears are grown in California. The US holds one of the first places in the world in the production of citrus fruits. The orange and tangerine crops amounted to 4 million t in 1953 and lemons to 448,000 t.

The US exports cotton, tobacco, wheat, corn, meat, and dairy products. It imports large quantities of wool, coffee, sugar, vegetable oil, etc. The relatively limited volume of national consumption caused by the limited purchasing power and demand of the broad masses of working people, combined with the difficulties of marketing agricultural products on foreign markets and the intensified competition with other capitalist producers, brought about an overproduction in US agriculture.

State monopoly capitalism has embarked upon a course of forcible reduction of plowing and restriction of agricultural production which is a graphic manifestation of the decay of American capitalism. Thus the wheat-sown area in 1954 was reduced by 21% compared to 1953. Reductions in the planting of wheat, rice, cotton, and tobacco were made in 1955.

A considerable reduction of planting is planned for 1956. The relative overproduction is intensified also by the fact that the monopolies artificially maintain high retail prices on agricultural products.

Transportation and Communication

The US has a well developed railroad system, a dense network of automobile roads, and oil and gas pipelines. There are extensive inland waterways. Well developed also is sea and air transportation. Characteristic of US transportation is the desperate competition among the monopolies controlling various types of transportation. First in point of freight haulage are the railroads which account for about 52% freight volume. The Great Lakes handle 8% of the freight volume, the other inland waterways 6%. The pipelines about 15% and trucks about 19%. The railroad freight volume in 1953 was 934 billion t-km, and the automobile roads 302 billion t-km.

Railroads

The US holds first place in the world in total railroad mileage (356,000 km in 1952) but is considerably behind other countries in the density of the railroad networks. There are 4.6 km of railroad for every 100 sq km of territory in the US. The American railroads are controlled by a few monopolies. Six of the largest companies, namely Pennsylvania Railroad, New York Central Railroad, Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe, Union Pacific Company, South Pacific and Baltimore, and Ohio Railroad Company, hold a total of 11 billion dollars worth of assets (about half of the value of all US railroads).

The railroad lines of different companies, competing in the same areas, frequently run parallel to each other over long distances. This leads to below-capacity operation and inadequate utilization of the

rolling stock. About 85% of the railroad lines are single-track lines. The railroad network has not been increased since World War I, and after 1929 it began to decrease (the highest level was 419,000 km). This was largely due to the competition from other types of transportation, particularly trucking and pipelines. After World War II railroad steam engines began to be rapidly replaced by the more economical motor engines. The diesel locomotive became the most important tractive force. By early 1954 the freight car pool consisted of about 1.8 million cars. The electrified railroad lines account for less than 2% of the total trackage.

The density of the railroad network in the northeast and the areas adjoining the Great Lakes system averages 10-12 km per 100 sq km of territory which exceeds 4-5 times the density of the railroad network in the west where it constitutes less than 2 km per 100 sq km in the mountain states and approximately 3 km per 100 sq km in the Pacific states. Of prime importance in the US railroad system are the trunk lines crossing the country from east to west and connecting the large cities of the Atlantic coast (New York, Philadelphia, etc with the Pacific coast (Seattle, Portland, San Francisco, and Los Angeles).

Automobile Transportation

The total length of automobile roads in 1951 was 4.8 million km, including 2.75 million km of improved roads (gravel, oil roads, asphalt, and macadam). The 1954 passenger car total amounted to 48 million units, trucks and buses to 9.6 million units. About 60% of the automobiles are concentrated in the industrial north. Leading in the number of cars in the south is Texas, and in the west is California. The automobile in the US is the strongest competitor of the railroads, especially in passenger transportation as well as in freight hauling

over short distances (and after World War II over considerable distances). The total interurban bus lines is 575,000 km and city lines 45,000 km. Many automobile roads cross the country from east to west and from north to south. The east-west highways of the Great Lakes area are connected with the coastal areas of the Gulf of Mexico. On the Atlantic and Pacific coasts the automobile highways connect all the large ports and industrial centers.

Oil Pipelines

The total length of the pipelines in 1954 was 269,000 km. The pipelines connect the large oil extraction centers with the oil refining and consumption centers as well as with the ports of embarkation. The ports of the north where the oil is shipped and refined are connected with the areas of oil products consumption. The pipeline network in the chief oil extraction area, the southwestern states, is particularly dense. Running from there are pipelines to the oil refining centers of the northeast and the Great Lakes area as well as to the embarkation ports of the Gulf of Mexico. In the west a dense network of pipelines is concentrated in the Los Angeles area. Closely linked with the oil pipelines are natural gas pipelines. The pipelines are utilized by the oil monopolies as one of the weapons in the struggle for oil markets.

Inland Waterway Transportation

Between 60% and 70% of the water-borne freight is shipped via the Great Lakes system which became a continuous water route from Duluth on Lake Superior to the source of the St. Lawrence river, following the construction of the Sault St. Marie and Welland ship canals. The waterway is navigable along its entire length and connects with the Mississippi, Ohio, Hudson, and St. Lawrence rivers and, through them, with the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico. Huge quantities of iron ore,

lumber, grain, and meat are shipped from west to east on the lake waterway system, while coal and industrial products are hauled in the opposite direction. The total length of US navigable rivers is about 50,000 km. The largest waterway in the country is the Mississippi River. Its navigable part together with its tributaries account for 50% of all US inland waterways. The transportation possibilities of the Mississippi, just like those of the other American rivers, are inadequately utilized due to the competition among the monopolies which own different types of transportation. The basic types of freight hauled on the Mississippi River are oil (particularly in the lower reaches), grain, cotton, coal (particularly along its left tributaries), metal, and metal products. The rivers of the Atlantic and Mexican coasts are mostly interconnected by the coastal canal consisting of a number of separate canals which run parallel to the seacoast. The 560-km long Erie Canal connects the Great Lake system, through the Hudson, with the port of New York. Among the Pacific coast rivers, the Columbia is an important navigable waterway. The 1952 freight turnover on US rivers amounted to 84 billion t-km (including 59 billion t-km on the Mississippi and its tributaries), and on the Great Lakes system to 167 billion t-km.

Maritime Transportation

The 1955 tonnage of the US merchant marine (including the reserve fleet) was 26.4 million registered gross t. The huge government investments into shipbuilding during World War II brought its tonnage up 41 million. In 1946 more than half of the merchant ships of all capitalist countries were under the American flag. A considerable part of the ships was sold after war, and another part was reregistered and is sailing under foreign flags (Panama, Liberia, and Honduras) for the purpose of evading tax payments and saving on the wages of seamen. The US registered

fleet accounted for 22% of the foreign trade cargoes in 1939 and 50% in 1950. Despite US monopoly resistance, the other capitalist countries restored their merchant fleets and reinforced them by additional shipbuilding. The US, however, still owns about 1/3 of the capitalist world's merchant fleet (1952). The US tanker fleet was about 4.5 million t in 1953, that is, about 20-22% of the tanker fleet of the capitalist world, but far smaller than Great Britain's fleet. However, many tankers sailing under different flags actually belong to US monopolies.

Of great importance for east-west connections in the US as well as for international trade is the Panama Canal (q. v.). The distance between New York and San Francisco through the Panama Canal is 2.5 times shorter than through the Strait of Magellan, and between New Orleans and San Francisco 2.9 times shorter. The Panama Canal "shortened the distance" between the US Atlantic coast and Australia, east Asia, the Pacific islands, and Japan, and facilitated US expansion into the Central and South American countries and the Far East. Pursuing expansion purposes in the Near and Middle East, the US oil monopolies are making much use also of the Suez Canal (q. v.).

The US has a large number of ports. The bulk of the ship traffic and freight turnover is handled by a relatively small number of large ports. The largest ports on the Atlantic coast are New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, and a group of ports at the Hampton Roads bay. On the Gulf of Mexico coast are Houston, New Orleans, Mobile, and Beaumont-Port Arthur, and on the Pacific coast, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Portland, and Seattle. The largest of them is New York which holds first place the country's foreign trade freight handling.

Air Transportation

Air transportation has been considerably developed, particularly in the field of passenger carrying. Air transportation links the large cities and connects also with large traffic centers of other countries both on the American and other continents. Passenger air travel in 1953 amounted to 29.2 billion passenger km, that is, only about 1.7 times less than on the railroads. Freight shipments by air are not large. Compared to the prewar period, the number of airports was increased approximately 25 times.

Communications

In addition to post and telegraph services, telephone communication is widespread in the US. The number of telephones in the country as of 1 January 1954, was 50.4 million. Telephone communication is controlled mostly by the American Telephone and Telegraph Co. (through its subsidiary, the Bell Telephone System). In some of the northeastern states there are up to 40 telephones for every 100 people (Connecticut has 41, and New York 38), and in the far west up to 30 and more (in California, 32). In the southern states, on the other hand, there are slightly over 10 telephones for every 100 residents (Mississippi, 11; Arkansas, 12). Large scale use is made also of wireless communication, radio telephony, and radio telegraphy. Radio relay lines (q. v.) are used extensively in radio communication.

The first commercial broadcasting station in the US was opened in 1920. Broadcasting in the US has now become an important branch of the economy which is monopolized by the following 4 companies: The American Broadcasting company, the National Broadcasting company, the Columbia Broadcasting System, and the Mutual Broadcasting System. In 1954, there were 3,403 radio stations and 356 television stations in the US. In 1950,

40.4 million apartments had radios and 5 million had television sets (television sets were available in 12% of the apartments, including 15.7% in the cities and 2.7% in the rural areas).

The growth of radio and television is determined by the development of electronics and the radio-technical industry which is also of great military importance (production of radio, remote control machinery, etc). The output of radio receivers (including car radios) was 17 million in 1954. The companies controlling various types of communications are engaged in a desperate struggle among themselves.

Foreign Economic Ties, Foreign Trade, Trade Balance, and Capital Export

During the era of imperialism, the US rose to one of the highest places in the capitalist world in point of foreign trade. Supplying the warring countries during World War I with war and other materials, the US effected an increase in the physical volume of its exports by 1919 amounting to 43% above the 1913 level, and an increase in imports by 23%. To step up its sales of agricultural and industrial products and to extend the sphere of capital investment, the US adopted a law in 1934 of bilateral trade agreements with foreign countries "on a reciprocal basis." Such agreements were concluded with a number of countries, including Britain and Canada, which reduced the duties on certain American goods and cancelled part of the preferential custom duties established by the Ottawa Conference of the British Empire in 1932.

US monopolies took advantage of the defeat of Germany and Japan in World War II and the economic weakening of Britain and France to acquire many markets where American goods had met keen competition before. The 1941-1945 shipments of armaments and other materials to the allies through lend-lease (q. v.), the post war temporary "aid" programs

and the Marshall Plan (see Marshall Plan), and since the autumn of 1951 also the Mutual Security program, were used by the US monopolies for purposes of foreign economic expansion. The same purposes are served by the International Monetary Fund (q. v.) and the International Bank for reconstruction and development which are strongly dependent on American imperialism.

An idea of the US export and import volume may be gained from the following table.

TABLE 13

	FOREIGN TRADE (in million dollars)				
	1929	1944	1950	1953	1954
Exports	5,249	14,259	10,275	15,773	15,077
Imports	4,399	3,929	8,852	10,873	10,208
Trade balance	+841	+10,330	+1,423	+4,900	+4,869

From 1936-1938 through 1944, the value of US exports increased 4.7 times, and its physical volume 2.9 times.

In 1947, the US share of the total export of the capitalist countries amounted to 32.6% due to the fact that certain countries temporarily dropped out of the world's foreign trade while others became weaker. But in 1950 the growing competition of other capitalist countries reduced it to 21.9% and in 1954 to 19.6%. In 1947 the export volume rose to 275% and imports to 108% as compared with 1936-1938 period, and in 1954 the figures were 254% on exports and 146% on imports. In 1952 the value of US exports amounted to 8.9% of the country's entire output. However, exports play a larger part in regard to a number of goods. Thus the export of wheat in 1952 was 48.3% of the crop, rice 57.9%, cotton 36.6%, tobacco 25.1%, machine tools 11% of the total output, rolling mill machines 34%, trucks 13%, and tractors 22%.

The structure of US foreign trade is characterized by a pre-dominance of manufactures in exports, and industrial raw materials and foodstuffs in imports.

TABLE 14

THE STRUCTURE OF US FOREIGN TRADE (in % of total)

	Export			Import		
	1936-38	1952	1954	1936-38	1952	1954
Raw materials and semimanufactures	40.6	24.1	24.8	51.3	51.2	48.1
Foodstuffs	10.5	13.9	10.0	29.3	29.3	32.4
Manufactures	48.9	62.0	65.2	19.4	19.5	21.5

The largest export items are industrial equipment, automobiles, chemical products, ferrous metals, textile manufactures, cotton, coal, wheat, and wheat flour. War materials have also become prominent export items (19% in 1954). Between 1952 and 1954 certain export items revealed a sizable reduction. The US share of the total ferrous metal exports from the capitalist countries in 1947 was 60%, in 1952 it was 22% and in 1953 only 18%. However, thanks to the large scale armament shipments, the US share of the world's capitalist exports is now about 1/5.

The import of manufactures is restricted by a high tariff system as well as by special restrictive quotas. At the same time, US industry absorbs increasing quantities of raw materials from the capitalist world, particularly from the colonial and dependent countries (for example, uranium from the Belgian Congo and the Union of South Africa; nickel from Canada; tin from Bolivia, Malaya, and Indonesia; chromites from the Philippines, Turkey, Southern Rhodesia and the Union of South Africa; bauxite from Surinam; natural rubber from

Indonesia and Malaya, etc). The US is buying up enormous quantities of raw materials to stockpile strategic supplies. The total expenditures for such supplies exceeded 5 billion dollars by the end of 1955. The basic import items are coffee, sugar, rubber, wool, oil, mined, and manufactured minerals, nonferrous and rare metals, and paper.

US trade with Canada and the Latin American countries has been considerably expanded. In 1936-1938, 1/3 of US exports went to the western hemisphere countries, and in 1954 it was more than 2/5. Imports from those countries to the US rose from 37% of its total in 1936-1938 to 58% in 1954. The expansion of imports from the western hemisphere countries is largely determined by the larger importations of raw materials. Thus Latin America exported to the US in 1949 100% of its nitrate, 85.5% of the copper, 70% of the oil, and 61.8% of the oil products. US exports to the countries of the British Empire have been greatly expanded. The value of the exports to Canada in 1952 was increased 6.5 times compared to 1936-1938, and in 1954 it accounted for 22.6% of the country's total export. US expansion in the colonial and dependent countries of Asia and Africa has been intensified. As a result of the forced exports of mineral and vegetable raw materials from those countries, the value of US exports from the African countries in 1952-1954 was 9 times as high as in 1936-1938. US exports to the countries of Asia is about the same as before World War II, whereas those countries' share of US imports was cut in half (from 29.9% in 1936-1938 to 14.4% in 1954). This is due to the termination of trade with China as well to the reduced purchasing of silk from Japan, and to the reduced consumption of imported natural rubber following the development of synthetic rubber production in the US. This is accompanied by increasing oil imports from the Near and Middle East and the intensified penetration into those countries by American monopolies which are trying to crowd the British monopolies out of there.

TABLE 15
GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF US EXPORTS (in % of total)

Countries	1954		1954
	1936-1938 average	Without "special category" goods*	Total export, including "special category" goods*
Capitalist countries of Europe	40.4	26.7	33.8
Canada	15.5	22.6	19.7
Latin American countries	18.3	27.5	23.4
Countries of Asia (not including the USSR and the other socialist camp countries)	16.8	15.7	17.7
African countries	4.3	4.6	3.8
Australia and Oceania	3.1	2.0	1.6

*The "special category" includes shipments of arms and other war materials. Use was made of the figures appearing in the survey Ekonomicheskoye Polozhenie Kapitalisticheskikh Stran v 1954 godu [The Economic Situation of the Capitalist Countries in 1954], 1955, Moscow, page 278.

TABLE 16

DISTRIBUTION OF US IMPORTS (in % of total)

Countries	1936-1938 (average)	1954
Capitalist countries of Europe	27.8	19.8
Canada	14.0	23.3
Latin American countries	23.2	34.5
Countries of Asia (not including the USSR and the other socialist camp countries)	29.0	14.4
African countries	2.6	5.9
Australia and Oceania	1.3	1.6

Western Europe continues to hold first place in American exports. Taking advantage of the economic weakness of the other capitalist powers in the first post war years, the US intensified its expansion in the countries of western Europe. The US share of their imports in 1952 was 15% as against the 10% in 1937. Italy's purchases in the US accounted for 21% of her total imports (11% in 1927), those of the Belgian-Luxemburg economic union to 15% (8.5% in 1937), and of France 10%. The growth of Britain's and France's competitive capacity, followed by the restoration of West German and Japanese positions, served to intensify the struggle for foreign markets, particularly for the markets of the west European capitalist countries. In 1954 the US share in Italy's imports was reduced to 12.1%, in the imports of the Belgian-Luxemburg economic union to 10.4% and of France to 8.3%.

The export of war materials, listed in US statistics as a "special category," amounted to 4.125 billion dollars in 1953 and 2.882 billion dollars in 1954. US armament shipments between October 1949 and December 1954 alone amounted to 10.5 billion dollars. The bulk of these shipments

went to west European countries (62% in 1954 and 71% between October 1949 and December 1954).

To push the sale of its goods abroad, the US concluded about 300 treaties and agreements between 1945 and 1953 on trade and navigation, on lend-lease payments and the sale of surplus war materiel, and on loans, credits, etc. The various types of US military and economic "aid" offered to other capitalist states between July 1950, and June 1955, are estimated at 25 billion dollars. The major part of these funds was earmarked for armament.

Trade relations between the US and the USSR had been developing quite well in the period preceding World War II and during the war. The most-favored-nation clause was applied to tariffs on their goods. After World War II the US adopted a policy of discrimination against trade with the Soviet Union, the Chinese People's Republic, and the other countries of the democratic camp, and established an "export control" over the shipment of American goods to these countries. The monopolist circles sought to make the other capitalist countries embargo the shipment of a variety of goods to the countries of the democratic camp. A military-economic blockade was in effect started against the Chinese People's Republic. An increasing body of business opinion in US has in recent years favored the removal of trade barriers and the resumption of trade with the USSR, China, and the other countries of the socialist camp.

Due to the higher value of its exports, as compared to the imports, as well as to the increasing receipts from cargo hauling by the American merchant marine and the income from capital investments abroad, the US has shown a favorable trade balance of 45 billion rubles in the 7 years between 1946 and 1952. The 1952 favorable balance of payments amounted to 4.227 billion dollars. The income from maritime shipments was 322

million dollars, and interest and dividends from abroad were 1.911 billion dollars. The payments by foreign states of enormous amounts on the American loans and credits and on the capital investments by the US monopolies are a big burden on the balance of payments by the debtor countries.

US investments abroad rose from 11.4 billion dollars in 1939 to 17.1 billion in 1945 and 42.2 billion in 1954. Included in these figures are private capital investments which amounted to 26.6 billion and government investments of 15.6 billion dollars. Private investments were concentrated on oil, mining, and other highly-profitable enterprises. The US is holding first place in the capitalist world in the export of capital which is one of the most important foundations of monopoly capitalism. There is a great volume of government granted loans and credits, that is, the export of unproductive capital in the shape of loans. The income from US capital investments abroad jumped from one billion dollars in 1946 to 2.8 billion in 1954.

The Currency System and Finance.

The US monetary unit is a dollar consisting of 100 cents. In 1934 the dollar content was fixed at 0.888671 g of pure gold, and the purchase "price of gold" in banknotes at \$35.00 per troy oz (31.1035g). That reduced the gold content of the dollar to 59.06% of the 1900 parity. The drop in the purchasing power of the dollar that followed the 1929-1933 depression actually reduced the dollar to a paper currency unit. The minting of gold coins was discontinued in 1934, and the gold coins in circulation at that time were to be submitted to the treasury for resmelting into bars. The buying up of gold abroad after World War II and to some extent also during the war at reduced prices resulted in a decrease in the gold reserves of the other capitalist countries.

The US finance system consists of a federal budget, and state and local finances. Almost half of the expenditures on the annual budgets between 1933-1934 and 1938-1939 (the US fiscal year begins on July 1) consisted of appropriations for so-called antidepression measures which meant subsidizing the monopolies with the taxes of the working people. In 1938-1939, 4.269 billion dollars out of a total expenditure of 8.707 billion dollars were set aside for "antidepression measures." US expenditures for military purposes during World War II, between 1941 and 1945, amounted to 311 billion dollars. The financing of the armament program, the construction of war plants in the US and the construction of strategic roads, airfields, naval, and air bases far from the US constituted the greatest source for the enrichment of the American monopolies. The exceptionally rapid growth of military expenditures in the postwar years produced a heavier tax burden for the working people, a higher government debt and more inflation. In 1954-1955, the average per capita tax was \$250 as against \$7 in 1929-1930 and 3.5 dollars in 1913-1914. The 1952-1953 budget showed a deficit of 9.449 billion dollars (income: 64.825 billion; outgo: 74.274 billion dollars). Following a new increase in taxes, the 1953-1954 budget deficit was reduced to 3.117 billion dollars (income: 64.655 billion; outgo: 67.772 billion dollars). The deficit estimated for 1954-1955 was about 4.5 billion dollars, and for 1955-1956 about 2.4 billion dollars. The revenue part of the 1953-1954 budget consisted of taxes from consumer goods and services 10.536 billion dollars; income tax, 32,383 billion dollars (mostly from taxes on low and middle incomes); and corporation taxes, 21.523 billion dollars (these are to a large extent paid by the workers through higher prices). The estimated 1955-1956 income is to consist of 9.920 billion dollars from taxes on consumer goods and services, 32,500 billion dollars from income taxes, and 17.034 billion from corporation taxes.

Military expenditures in 1953-1954 came to 46.522 billion dollars, and the estimated figure for 1955-1956 is 40.548 billion dollars. Interest on the national debt in 1953-1954 was 6.470 billion dollars. The 1953-1954 federal expenditures on education and general research work (funds for education are to a considerable extent appropriated also in local budgets) amounted to only 258 million dollars, and the appropriation for 1955-1956 is 285 million dollars. The amount of paper currency in circulation was greatly increased during World War II. By the end of 1954 it was estimated at 30.5 billion dollars (against 7.6 billion in 1939). In addition to that, there were 106.6 billion dollars on current accounts in the banks. The process of militarization of the country's economy is reflected in the chronic government deficits, the heavy tax burden, the growing national debt, and inflation. The national debt as of 31 December 1954 amounted to 278.3 billion dollars.

In the era of monopoly capitalism an unusual expansion was achieved by the banks which evolved from "modest brokers" into "all-powerful monopolies which manage practically all the finance capital of the large and small capitalists as well as most of the means of production and raw material sources in their own country and in a number of other countries." (V. I. Lenin, Sochinenia, [Collected Works] Fourth Edition, Vol 22, page 198). While the number of banks in the US is very large, the banking business is concentrated in the hands of a small group of monopolists. The largest banks are Bank of America, with assets up to 9.7 billion dollars in 1955, which is controlled by the Gianini group (California); the Chase Manhattan Bank (after the merger of Rockefeller's Chase Bank with the Bank of Manhattan) with assets of 7.5 billion dollars; and the First National City Bank of New York (after the merger of Morgan's National City Bank of New York with the First National Bank of New York) with assets of 7.2 billion dollars.

TABLE 17
THE SHARE OF THE 3 BASIC REGIONS OF THE US

Indexes	Years	Unit	North	South	West	Total
Area	1950	1,000 sq km	2,421	2,331	3,076	7,828
		%	30.9	29.8	39.3	100.0
Population	1950	million	83.9	47.2	19.6	150.7
		%	55.7	31.3	13.0	100.0
Extracting industry output	1950	\$ million	3,553	5,965	2,337	11,855
		%	30.0	50.3	19.7	100.0
Number of workers in processing industry	1950	thousand	10,304	3,032	1,240	14,576
		%	70.7	20.8	8.5	100.0
Net output of processing industry [Ⓢ]	1950	\$ million	65,743	15,740	8,083	89,566
		%	73.4	17.5	9.1	100.0
Gross agricultural output	1950	\$ million	11,657	6,356	4,036	22,049
		%	52.4	28.8	18.8	100.0
Power production by public utility power plants	1950	billion kwh	174.2	90.7	64.2	329.1
		%	52.9	27.6	19.5	100.0
Length of railroad lines	1950	1,000 km	181.1	117.9	61.0	360.0
		%	50.3	32.8	16.9	100.0

[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
Number of automobiles	1950	thousand	26,875	13,508	8,184	48,567
		%	55.3	27.8	16.9	100.0
Local wholesale trade turnover	1948	\$ billion	129.4	37.2	22.0	188.6
		%	68.6	19.7	11.7	100.0
Assets of all banks	1950 (Dec 30)	\$ billion	134.7	33.2	23.4	191.3
		%	70.4	17.4	12.2	100.0

Basic Economic Regions

The vast US territory has historically consisted of 3 basic regions, namely the industrial north, the former slave-holding south, and the colonized west. The scientific explanation for this division is provided by V. I. Lenin in his work "Novie dannie o zakonakh razvitiia kapitalizma v zemledelii" [New Data on the Law of Development of Capitalism in Agriculture] Soch, Fourth Edition, Vol 22). Capitalist development in the north, free from slavery and its legacy, was more rapid. The great majority of the immigrants, bringing with them a labor force and capital, settled in the north. All this and the combination of favorable geographical conditions (large and easily accessible deposits of iron ore and coal, large tracts of fertile soil on the central plains, etc) made it possible for the north to outstrip the other regions and gain first place in the country's economy. The development of the south in the past was hampered by the slave system, and after 1865 by the powerful legacy of slavery. The development of the west began later than in the north and south (since the middle of the nineteenth century), and it still contains large sparsely populated and little utilized tracts of land.

The division of the US into 3 principal regions reflects the differences in the process of economic development, in the production relations, and the level of development of various parts of the country. It also reflects a great disparity in the distribution of productive forces.

The economic development of the different regions in the US is progressing against the background of keen competition between the monopolist groups of the north which are interested in keeping the south and west as "domestic colonies" and the growing capitalist groups of the other regions (primarily of California and Texas), which are striving for a larger share of the profits.

The north is the most developed area of the US. It covers about 1/3 of the country's territory, but concentrated within it is more than half of the entire population, almost 3/4 of the processing industry's output, 1/2 of the agricultural output, 1/2 of the power production, 1/2 of the railroad network, and over 1/2 of the country's automobiles. The north is leading in such branches of industry as ferrous metallurgy and machine building (lathe and motor production and other important branches). In 1951 the north accounted for 88% of the pig iron production and 90% of steel production. In 1950 the north produced 87% of the value of machine building (including 99% of the lathe production value). The north plays a dominant part in the field of finance and trade. Concentrated in it are over 2/3 of all the banks' assets and the domestic wholesale trade turnover.

The predominance of industry in the economy of the area is conspicuous in the oldest settled part of the industrial north, the northeast, which includes the middle Atlantic states and New England. Occupying only 6% of the country's territory, the northeast contains 27% of the population, produces 34.5% of the processing industry's output (in 1950) and has 2/5 of all the bank deposits. More than 3/4 of the population of the northeast live in the cities which is due to both the development of industry and the concentration of the leading financial and business institutions of US monopoly capital in the large cities of the northeast (New York, Philadelphia, Boston). New York, the largest city of the northeast, is the most important industrial, business and financial center of the country and is its largest port. Metal processing, machine-building, and the textile and show-making industries were developed in New England a long time ago. But its share of the country's economy is being reduced. Many enterprises of the cotton, wool, and footwear industries are closing down, due to the

slump in those industries and to the shifting of cotton manufacture to the south Atlantic states where cheap labor is available, and to the competition from the footwear industry in the midwestern states. At the same time, new branches of war and machine-building industries are springing up in New England (airplane motors, electrical industry, and particularly the production of electronic equipment, radar facilities, etc). Boston is the largest port, and financial, business, and industrial center in New England.

Important industrial centers are found along the Erie Canal and the New York railroad line. The development of industry there (metal processing, machine building, and the chemical and garment industries) was furthered by good transportation conditions. The largest of those centers, Buffalo, is greatly benefited by its convenient location at the end of the Great Lakes waterway and near the Niagara hydroelectric power plants. Extending south of New York, almost to Baltimore, is an almost unbroken chain of cities with various industries. The most important among them is Philadelphia, a large port and industrial center, which is exceeded only by New York, Chicago, and Detroit in point the size of labor force employed. The industry of this area processes great quantities of raw materials, both domestic and imported (iron ore, nonferrous metal ores, oil, etc).

At the junction of the Northeast and lake area states is the main coal and steel center of the US, known also for its machine-building, chemical, and war industries, the production of cement, glass, etc. The chief center of this heavy industry district is the city of Pittsburgh. In 1950 the state of Pennsylvania accounted for 26.7% of US coal extraction, 28.2% of pig iron smelting, and 34% of steel production. Agriculture in the northeast, though of an auxiliary nature, is highly developed. It concentrates on supplying the cities with milk, vegetables,

poultry, etc. Certain parts of the northeast are predominantly agricultural. The north of New England is agriculturally backward (mostly lumber and fishing industries).

Agriculture is well developed also in the Great Lake area states which have advanced industries. That area accounts for about 1/3 of the country's corn crops, 1/6 of the wheat, 1/4 of the pig herds, and 1/6 of the livestock. The lake area states produce about 1/3 of the industrial manufactures in the US. Their most important branches of industry are ferrous metallurgy and machine building (automobile production, agricultural machine building, locomotive, railroad car, and machine-tool production). In 1947 the lake area states employed 48% of all the machine-building industry workers in the US. More than 40% of the area's processing industry workers are employed in that particular industry. The lake states are among the leading war industry areas (tanks and planes). They are also an important center for processing agricultural products. At the same time their textile and other light industries are poorly developed. The great lakes play an important part in the transportation of coal, iron ore, grain, and other freight. The most important city of that area is Chicago. The second largest American city in point of population and the largest railroad center (32 lines), it is very important also as a business, financial, and industrial center. Detroit is the capital of the automobile industry and has a well developed aviation industry. Cleveland is a city of machine building, metallurgy, and chemistry.

Less well developed industrially is the western part of the north, the northwest center. The number of people working in its agriculture is twice the number of industrial workers. There are few large cities. The northwestern center contains the country's 2 leading wheat-growing areas,

the spring wheat belt in the north, and the winter wheat belt in the south. The northeastern part of the northwestern center, just like the intermediate lake area district, specializes in dairy industry. The southeastern part constitutes a part of the corn belt. Cattle grazing is the main feature of the arid western part.

The industry of the northwestern center is concentrated largely on the processing of agricultural products. Certain branches of the machine building industry, primarily war production (airplane motors) and agricultural machine production, have been built there since World War II. The main cities of the northwestern center are: St. Louis, with a food and heavy industry; Minneapolis-St. Paul, with a food industry (particularly flour milling) and agricultural machine building; and Kansas City and Omaha.

Despite the expansion of a number of industries in the last decades, the south remains primarily a supplier of various mining and agricultural raw materials for the industrial north. The south is rich in natural resources. It has large deposits of oil, coal, sulfur, phosphorites, bauxite, and other minerals. Its climatic conditions make it possible to raise valuable agricultural products, such as cotton, tobacco, early vegetables, and in the extreme south, citrus fruit. In the eastern part of the south are vast woodlands. The Tennessee and other southern rivers have huge reserves of hydroelectric power. The south however is considerably behind the north in economic development due to certain historical conditions (the predominance of slavery in the past and its legacy in the present), and as a result of the policy of the monopolies which are interested in keeping the south as a raw material appendage of the industrial north and as a source of cheap labor. The south accounts for half of the output of the US mining industry but its share of the processing industry is only 17.5% (in 1950). The leading branch of the

South's economy is agriculture in which the lingering influence of the old slavery period is still very strongly felt. A considerable part of the southern farmers consists of tenant farmers who rent the land from rich land owners on a share cropping basis. Particularly poor are the conditions of the share croppers who own no land, equipment, draft animals, or seeds, and are forced to pay for these with the major part of their crops. The south is considerably behind the north and the west in the use of agricultural machinery, and the living standard in the south is considerably lower than in the other parts of the country. The Negroes, comprising about 1/4 of the population in the south, live under poor conditions. They are subjected to racial discrimination and oppression. Cotton is the basic agricultural product of the south, and it is raised practically everywhere except in its northeastern part. Cotton plantations are prevalent particularly in the Mississippi delta and in central Texas. Tobacco is grown in Kentucky, Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee. Agriculture in Florida and along the lower reaches of the Rio Grande specializes in citrus fruit and early vegetables. Corn is raised practically everywhere. Peanut and soybean growing is widespread. The southern states produce 4/5 of the US rice crop. Cattle grazing is prominent in the arid western parts of Texas and Oklahoma. The single-crop type of agriculture is a prominent feature in many of the southern states. Thus in Mississippi, cotton accounts for 3/4 of the state's agricultural output. In Alabama, half of the agricultural output is cotton, and in North Carolina (in 1949), tobacco comprises 57% of the state's agriculture. One of the disastrous consequences of single-crop agriculture is the rapid loss of soil fertility as well as soil erosion. The south holds first place in the US in point of soil destruction.

Texas, Louisiana, and Oklahoma supply almost 2/3 of the oil in the US and over 3/4 of the natural gas. One third of the coal is mined in West Virginia and Kentucky. Sulfur mining is extensive in Texas and Louisiana, phosphorites in Florida, and bauxites in Arkansas.

The south is far behind the north in the development of the processing industry. Since World War II however industrial development in this area has been accelerated. By 1950 the number of workers employed in industry was almost equal to that in agriculture. Characteristic of that industry is the military significance of such branches as chemistry, atomic energy, airplane construction, shipbuilding, and light metal smelting. The south however remains dependent on the north for its equipment. In 1951 the south accounted for only 7.3% of America's productive capacity of pig iron and 4.7% of steel smelting. Certain enterprises in the south are owned by local capitalist groups, but indicative of the southern industry as a whole is its control by the northern monopolies which derive particularly high profits from the exploitation of cheap southern labor. The average wages in various branches of the southern industry are 20-40% lower than in the north. Negroes' wages are particularly low. Women's and child labor are used extensively in the enterprises of the south. An important feature of the southern processing industry is the production of cotton goods. About 4/5 of all the country's spindles are concentrated there. Large tobacco plants are found in Virginia and North Carolina. The production of synthetic fibers and other products of the chemical industry is expanding. A large industrial area, including the production of aluminum and ferroalloys, chemical and atomic production, grew up around the Tennessee valley hydroelectric and thermal power plants. Oak Ridge and Paducah are among the main atomic energy centers of the US. The production of semimanufactures that go into the making of hydrogen bombs was started

on the Savannah River near Augusta. The chief industrial centers of the eastern part of the South are Birmingham (ferrous metallurgy), Louisville (chemical and food industries), and Atlanta (machine building and textile industry). Prominent in the southwestern part of the area are the extraction and refining of oil and natural gas which gave rise to a large chemical industry (Beaumont, Port Arthur, Baton Rouge, Freeport, and Lake Charles). The main city of that part of the south is Houston with its chemical industry, metallurgy, and machine building. In addition to oil and chemical production, airplane construction has made rapid strides in north Texas and Oklahoma (Dallas, Fort Worth, Tulsa, and Oklahoma City). Ferrous metallurgy has been considerably advanced in the south (the smelting of aluminum, magnesium, tin, and zinc).

The West

The west is the least settled region of the US, compared to the north and south, although its economy has undergone a number of changes since World War II. The settling of the west is still continuing, but the nature of this colonization, as compared with the time when land plots were distributed under the Homestead Act (q. v.), has radically changed. The major part of the cultivable land now belongs to large scale capitalist farmers and companies. Settlers from other parts of the country are driven westward by the desire to find at least temporary jobs on the capitalist farms and in the expanding war industry. The basic feature of the region's economy is the production of various types of raw materials. In 1950 the West accounted for only 9.1% of the output of the country's processing industry.

Of the 2 groups of states comprising the west (mountain and Pacific states), the highest level of development was attained by the

Pacific states (California, Oregon, and Washington). Concentrated in them are 3/4 of the population, 9/10 of the processing industry output and almost 7/10 of the agriculture of the west. California is economically the best developed state of the west, and almost 80% of its population live in the cities. California's agriculture, specializing in fruit and vegetable growing, is controlled by rich farmers and monopolies; it is characterized by a high degree of mechanization, and by the large scale use of hired labor. The latter consists primarily of migrant agricultural laborers, particularly Mexicans. California plays a prominent part in the country's oil extracting industry. Food production (canning) and oil refining are the leading branches of the processing industry. It also has a large motion picture industry whose center is in Hollywood, a part of Los Angeles. Ship building, airplane construction, and the chemical industry were greatly expanded during World War II. Los Angeles and San Francisco are largest economic centers of California.

Washington and Oregon states specialize in lumber production and shipments, wheat raising and other agricultural products, and fishing. The recently built hydroelectric power plants (Grand Coulee, Bonneville, etc) gave rise during World War II to a new power-consuming industry, mostly for war production, namely aluminum and magnesium smelting and an atomic industry (a plutonium combine in Hanford). The aviation and shipbuilding industries have been expanded. These industries too are designed primarily for war production. Seattle and Portland are the major cities.

An intense struggle for the control over the industry and agriculture of the far west between northern financial groups and Californian financial interests, which have considerably improved their position, has been going on since World War II.

Mining is the principal industry of the mountain states. The minerals mined are nonferrous metals, uranium-containing ores, molybdenum, gold, potassium salt, and to a lesser extent oil. Cattle grazing is the principle branch of agriculture. Agriculture requires irrigation almost everywhere, but the irrigated area is expanding slowly. The available cultivated land tracts (to the south of Salt Lake City, near Denver, along the Snake river in Idaho, etc) are mere little islands surrounded by enormous almost uninhabited vastnesses. It was in the unfavorable natural conditions of these states that the so-called reservations were established for the remnants of the Indian population. There are several national parks in the mountain states. The most prominent of them is Yellowstone National Park in northwest of Wyoming, and the Colorado River Grand Canyon. The sparse population of the mountain states is scattered among the mining settlements, trading centers, and farms. There are only 3 cities for an area containing over 100,000 population, namely Denver, Salt Lake City, and Phoenix.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Lenin, V. I., "Imperialism As the Highest Stage of Capitalism" and "New Facts on the Laws of the Development of Capitalism in Agriculture," Soch. [Collected Works], Vol 22, Fourth Edition
- Boli, A., Severnaya Amerika [North America], 1948, Moscow, translated from French
- Voyeykov, A. I., Izbrannie sochinenia [Selected Works], Vols 1-2, 1948-1949, Moscow and Leningrad
- Voyeykov, A. I., Klimaty zemnogo shara [Climates of the Earth], 1884
SPB [Vsesoyuznoe spetsialnoe proektnoe byuro -- All-Union Special Planning Office]

- Vitvitskiy, G. N., Klimaty severnoy Ameriki [North American Climates],
1953, Moscow
- Ilyinskiy, A. P., Rastitelnost' zemnogo shara [Flora of the Earth],
1937, Moscow and Leningrad
- Bobrinskiy, N. A., Geografiya zhivotnykh [Animal Geography], 1951,
Moscow
- Mazarovich, A. N., Osnovy regionalnoy reologii materikov [The Bases of
the Regional Geology of Continents], Part 1, 1951, Moscow
- Uspenskaya, N. Yu. Neftegazonosnost' paleozoya severoamerikanskoy
platformy [The Oil and Gas Deposits of the Paleozoic Era of the
North American Continent], 1950, Moscow and Leningrad
- Shatskiy, N. S., "On the Comparative Tectonics of North America and
Eastern Europe," Izvestiya Akad. Nauk SSSR, Seriya geologicheskaya
[News of the Academy of Sciences USSR, Geological Series, No 4,
1945
- Irdli, A., Strukturnaya geologiya severnoy ameriki [The Structural
Geology of North America], 1951, Moscow, translated from English
- Ziman, L. Ya., Prirodniye resursy SShA i ikh ispolzovaniye [The Natural
Resources of the US and their Utilization], 1954,^o Moscow
- "The Agricultural Crisis in the United States and the Position of the
Farmer," Sbornik Materialov [Collection of Materials], trans-
lated, 1955, Moscow
- Miroviye ekonomicheskiye krizisy [World Economic Crises], Vols 1-2,
1937-1939, Moscow, edited by E. Varga

- Soedinenniye shtaty ameriki [United States of America], 1946,
Moscow, Second Edition, (among the guide books for foreign
countries)
- Korporatsii-milliardery [Billion Dollar Corporations], 1954,
Moscow, translated from English
- Ekonomika kapitalisticheskikh stran posle vtoroy mirovoy voiny,
Statisticheskii sbornik [The Economy of the Capitalist
Countries after World War II, A Statistical Collection],
1953, Moscow
- Ekonomicheskoye polozheniye kapitalisticheskikh stran v 1954
[The Economic Situation of the Capitalist Countries in 1954],
1955, Moscow
- Blair, D. M., Houghton, H., and Rose, M., Ekonomicheskaya kontsentratsiya i
vtoraya mirovaya voyna [Economic Concentration and World War II],
1948, Moscow, translated from English
- Kuchinskiy, Yu., Ocherki po istorii mirovogo khozaistva [Essays on
the History of the World Economy], 1954, translated from German
- Lynch, D., Kontsentratsiya ekonomicheskoy moshchi v SShA [The Concentra-
tion of Economic Power in the US], 1948, Moscow
- MacWilliams, K., Bedstvuyushchaya zemlya [Poverty Stricken Land], 1949,
Moscow, translated from German
- Perlo, V., Negry v selskom khozaistve yuga SShA [Negroes in the Agriculture
of the Southern US], 1954, Moscow, translated from English
- Monopolii sevodniya [The Monopolies of Today], 1951, Moscow, translated
from English

- Atlas of American Agriculture, 1936, Washington
- Atwood, W. W., The Physiographic Provinces of North America, 1940,
Boston
- Foster, W. Z., The Negro People in American History, 1954, New York
- Ward, R. de C. and Brooks, Ch. F., The Climates of North America, Page 1,
Mexico, Unites States, Alaska, B., 1936,
- Alderfer, E. B. and Michl, H. E., Economics of American Industry, 1942,
New York
- Hoover, C. B. and Ratchford, B. U., Economic Resources and Policies of
the South, 1942, New York
- Miller, G. and Parkins, A., Geography of North America, 1954, Wiley,
Third Edition
- Ostrolenk, B., Economic Geography of the United States, 1941, Chicago
- Royen, W. and Bowles, O., Atlas of the World Resources, Vol 2, Mineral
Resources of the World, 1952, New York
- Whitaker, J. R., and Ackerman, E. A., American Resources, 1951, New York
- Allen, E. L., Economics of American Manufacturing, 1952, New York
- Annual Survey of Manufacture, 1949 and 1950, 1952, Washington
- Annual Survey of Manufacture, 1951 and 1952, 1953, Washington
- Annual Survey of Manufacture, 1953, 1955, Washington
- Statistical Abstract of the Unites States (for 1951, 1952, 1953, and 1954),
1951-1954, Washington

Census of Population, 1950, Vols 1-2, 1952-1953, Washington, US
Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census

Census of Manufactures, 1947, Vols 1-3, 1949-1950, Washington

US Census of Agriculture, 1950, Vols 1-5, 1952, Washington, US
Bureau of the Census

Mineral Resources of the United States, 1948, Washington

Minerals Yearbook, 1948-1951, 1950-1954, Washington

Historical Statistics of the United States, 1789-1945, 1949, Washington

Vital Statistics of the United States, 1945-1950, 1947-1953, Washington

V. HISTORICAL OUTLINE

The Indigenous US Population Prior to the European Colonization of North America

Prior to the colonization of North America by the Europeans the US territory was populated by Indians and Eskimos (q. v.). The Indians belong to the Americanoid race which is related to the Mongoloid race. It is believed that the ancestors of the Indians came to America from northeast Asia, across the Bering Strait 10,000-15,000 years ago.

The North American Indians and Eskimos lived in various stages of the primitive community system. The Eskimos lived along the North American arctic coast between Alaska and Greenland. Their principal occupation was hunting and fishing. Weak traces of family structure were left in the social life. The Indian tribes of the North American west coast (Tlingits, Haida, etc) combined fishing with hunting. Their social relations were characterized by patriarchal slavery, well developed barter trade, and inequality of property ownership. In the southwest

lived the more advanced agricultural tribes called Pueblo Indians (Keres, Hopi, Zuni, etc). They engaged in irrigated agriculture, built large community houses, acquired a better mastery of the art of pottery than the other Indian tribes of North America, and did a lively barter trade with the neighboring tribes. At the time of the European colonization the Pueblo Indians were in a transition stage toward the patriarchal type of community.

The prairies were inhabited by nomadic tribes whose principal occupation was hunting prairie animals, particularly buffaloes. It is believed that these former agricultural tribes, having moved to the prairies, adapted themselves to a completely nomadic life. Many of the prairie tribes, while socially matriarchal, also showed inchoate patriarchal features. The prairie Indians established several military alliances, the most numerous and strongest of them being the 7 tribe-Dakota alliance. The California Indians were behind the other North American nations in development. They lived on wild growing fruit, particularly acorns, which were processed by complicated methods. They also engaged in fishing and hunting. In the eastern part of the continent lived agricultural tribes, for example, Iroquois, Algonquins, Muskogees (q. v.), etc. According to rough estimates by American historians, there were about one million Indians on the American territory in the sixteenth century. See also America, ethnographic description.

The Colonial Period (1607-1775)

Soon after the discovery of America by Columbus (in 1492), British expeditions headed by Cabot discovered Newfoundland, the northeast peninsula of America, and the major part of North America's east coast (up to 38° N lat).

The colonization of North America by Europeans began in the sixteenth century. The colonizers were Spain, France, England, the Netherlands, and Sweden. The Indians offered heroic resistance but the Europeans had a superiority in armaments and besides the Indians were disunited and fighting each other which made it easier for the Europeans to conquer North America. The colonization process was accompanied by uninterrupted wars with the Indians (the first war was in 1622-1634) by the seizure of their lands, by pushing them westward, and exterminating them. The first permanent English settlements were founded in the south (in Virginia in 1607) and in the north (in Massachusetts in 1620). Having built a number of colonies during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (the last one, Georgia, in 1733), and having captured in the 1672-1674 war with Holland the Dutch colony, "New Netherlands," England extended her possessions to the Atlantic coast. As a result of the 7-Years War of 1756-1763, England seized Canada and east Louisiana which had belonged to France.

In the eighteenth century the Russians discovered Alaska and began to settle it (see Alaska, Historical Outline). In the beginning of the nineteenth century Russian settlements sprang up in California.

The English colonies were the most developed. The 13 English colonies established on the territory of the US were settled principally by arrivals from Great Britain and Ireland. The bulk of the immigrants consisted of ruined farmers and tradesmen. A capitalist system began to develop in the colonies. Small scale farming became widespread. There was an abundance of uncultivated land and an acute shortage of labor in the colonies. The settlers were able to acquire land and build their own farmsteads. A domestic industry geared to the farm economy gradually came into being. Capitalist production began to develop in the second half of the seventeenth century in the New England (q. v.) as well

as in the central colonies. Agriculture still retained certain elements of feudalism such as primogeniture rights and the ban on alienating land allotments. In certain colonies (New York, for example) there was large scale land ownership of a semifuedal system under which the land was worked by hereditary tenant farmers who paid a fixed rent. The small farmers struggled against the colonial authorities for land and political rights. There were numerous instances of restlessness and uprisings in Maryland (in 1654-89), in Virginia (under the leadership of N. Bacon in 1676), in Pennsylvania (1763), in New York (1766), the uprising of "levelers" in North Carolina (in 1765-1766), etc. There were uprisings of tradesmen and city petty bourgeoisie in Boston (1689) and in New York (1689-91). An active part in the people's movements was played by the "white slaves." These were temporarily bonded servants (4-7 years) from among immigrants, persons sentenced for vagrancy or for political reasons and criminals and settlers made into slaves for failure to pay debts. Negro slavery became widespread in the south following the importation of Negroes from Africa to Virginia early in the seventeenth century by Dutch slave traders. Slave labor served as the foundation for the development of the plantation-type economy in the southern colonies which up to the eighteenth century specialized in tobacco growing and later in cotton. Subjected to the most cruel exploitation and deprived of all rights, the Negroes revolted, sometimes jointly with the "white slaves" or with the Indians.

As the colonies developed economically, contradictions between them and the mother country began to increase. The growing colonial bourgeoisie successfully competed against the British merchants in the fur trade with the Indians, in fishing, shipbuilding, and in trading with the West Indies. England held back the economic development of the colonies endeavoring to keep them as a raw material source and a market

for her industrial production. England particularly hindered any trade relations between the colonies and other countries. Under the law of 1750 the colonies were forbidden to build blast furnaces, rolling mills, and foundries. Despite all that however industry continued to develop in the colonies. Also expanded was the trade among the colonies and their trade with the West Indies, particularly during the Seven Years' War of 1756-1763 (q. v.) when England found it difficult to counteract the economic development of the colonies. As capitalism developed a single market gradually emerged, the economic ties among the colonies became stronger, and a bourgeois North American nation came into being. After the Seven Years' War, England undertook some decisive measures designed to halt further economic development in the colonies. A royal proclamation issued in 1763 forbade the settlement of the land beyond the Allegheny Mountains. The restrictive measures against contraband trade became harsher. Striving to cover the enormous expenditures incurred by the Seven Years' War at the expense of the colonies, the mother country resorted to levying taxes on the colonies. The 1765 Stamp Act represented the first attempt at a direct tax on the colonists. In 1765 the mother country also made attempts to station English troops in the colonies. A considerable part in the liberation movement against the mother country was played by the "sons of freedom" organization, created in 1765 and consisting of tradesmen, workers, farmers, and merchants and headed by the most radical elements of the bourgeoisie. The congress of colonial representatives convened in New York (in 1765) contributed much to their unification. The congress adopted a decision to boycott English goods. The powerful people's movement forced England to abolish the Stamp Act in 1766, but the English Parliament at the same time confirmed the right of the mother country to pass any law regarding the colonies. Taxes on tea, glass, and paints imported into the colonies were introduced in 1767. The movement for boycotting English goods and popularizing the

development of local industries began to spread in all the colonies. In 1770 taxes on goods were abolished with the exception of a small tax on tea. The stationing of English troops in the colonies led to bloody clashes between the colonists and those troops in Boston in 1770. Correspondents' committees created in Boston in 1772 and later in other cities assumed the leadership over the growing national liberation struggle against the mother country. The correspondents' committees were under bourgeois leadership, but they also contained representatives of tradesmen, city petty bourgeoisie, and farmers. In December 1773 the members of the "sons of freedom" organization dumped into the sea a cargo of tea brought to Boston and belonging to the English East Indies company (the Boston "tea party"). The English government retaliated by closing the port of Boston in 1774. New contingents of troops were sent to Boston which was proclaimed in a state of siege. These measures, coupled with the annexation of the vast northwest territory beyond the Alleghenies to Canada under the Quebec Act of 1774, gave a new impetus to the revolutionary movement which also affected large sections of farmers who were anxious to settle on the fertile western lands. The First Continental Congress (q. v.), convened in 1774, adopted a resolution to boycott English goods and resist English repressions. The English king declared the colonies as being rebellious and subjected them to a blockade.

The War of Independence, 1775-1783

In 1775 the American people started a revolutionary war of independence from England (see War of Independence in North America, 1775-1783). In April 1775 the farmers defeated the English troops at Concord and Lexington. In March 1776 the American troops occupied Boston. On 4 July 1776 the Second Continental Congress in Philadelphia adopted a Declaration of Independence drawn up by T. Jefferson (q. v.). The

declaration was of a revolutionary nature. It proclaimed the formation of an independent state, the United States of America. As far back as 1775 congress had appointed G. Washington to head the army which was made up of guerrilla detachments and colonial militia.

With considerable reinforcements from England, the English managed to win a number of battles in the first years of the war. The English troops occupied New York in 1776 and Philadelphia in 1777. After their major defeat at Yorktown (October 1781), the English troops surrendered to the Americans. The victory was facilitated by the international situation favorable to the US, which was characterized by growing contradictions between England and other European powers. A Franco-American alliance, brought about by the efforts of the US representative in France, B. Franklin (q. v.), was signed in 1778. Participating in the war against England were the French army and navy. Spain joined the war against England in 1779, and Holland in 1782. Important for the victory of the colonies also was the position of Russia on whose initiative (the Declaration of 1780) a number of European states declared "armed neutrality" directed against England. According to the Versailles Peace Treaty, signed in 1783, England recognized US independence. The War of Independence was a bourgeois revolution. The victory over England was won by the masses of the people who played a decisive part in the revolutionary war against England. Actively participating in the struggle against England were the Negroes. As a result of the war of independence, the American people were liberated from the colonial oppression that held back the development of their productive forces. Royal lands and the major part of the property belonging to the loyalists (q. v.) were confiscated, slavery in the northern states was abolished, the church was separated from the state, and voting rights were broadened. The elimination of the elements of feudalism from agriculture and the land nationalization (in 1787) in the

west determined the course of the American type of capitalist development in agriculture in north US. At the same time a plantation system of agriculture based on slavery came into being in the south under the impact of the industrial revolution in England and the growing demand for cotton by the English textile industry. When the plantation owners turned to cotton growing, slavery, as K. Marx pointed out became a commercial system of exploitation. The US south became a raw material base of the English textile industry.

K. Marx and F. Engels thought very highly of the historic significance of the revolutionary War of Independence in North America, and emphasized that it exercised a strong influence on the course of the struggle against the feudal absolutist system of Europe. V. I. Lenin considered the War of Independence as one of the great truly liberating and truly revolutionary wars.

The Economic and Political Development of the US at the End of the Eighteenth and in the Nineteenth Centuries (before the beginning of the Civil War)

As a result of the War of Independence, the bourgeoisie and plantation owners came into national power and utilized the victory over England in their own class interests. The entire weight of the economic destruction that followed in the wake of the war rested on the shoulders of the working people. The sharpening of the class struggle in the post war period was expressed in instances of army restlessness (1783) and the poor farmers' rebellion (in 1786-1787; see Shays' Rebellion which was suppressed by armed force. The farmers' rebellion strengthened the bourgeoisie's aspiration to consolidate their dictatorship and centralize their power for dealing with the resistance of the masses of the people. The 1781 constitution, the Articles of Confederation, formalizing the union of sovereign independent states, did not insure the political and economic

unity of the country. The states reserved for themselves the power to levy taxes and issue tariff laws, which acted as a brake on the development of a single national market. At the constitutional convention in Philadelphia in 1787, the representatives of the ruling classes drafted a new federal constitution consolidating the domination of the bourgeoisie and plantation owners in the form of a bourgeois democracy. Congress was empowered to levy taxes, control interstate commerce, and dispose of the nationalized uncultivated lands in the west. Great power was vested in the President. The Constitution sanctioned the existence of slavery in the South. The constitution, going into effect in 1789, aroused the discontent of the working people. Part of the bourgeoisie and plantation owners also came out in opposition to it. The first 10 amendments to the constitution sanctioning bourgeois democratic liberties were adopted in 1791 under pressure of the growing mass movement in the country. These amendments came to be known as the Bill of Rights.

In the process of acute political struggle in 1789-1791, 2 bourgeois parties, the Federalists and the Republicans, came into being in the US. The Federalists represented the interests of the rich trading bourgeoisie, the big northern landlords, and part of the southern plantation owners. They favored a stronger federal government. The Republicans (or Anti Federalists) wanted a democratized constitution, and leaned at that time on a motley social bloc consisting of part of the bourgeoisie, small and middle class plantation owners, farmers, and petty bourgeoisie of the cities. The Republicans were in favor of states' rights. Unlike the Federalists who were oriented toward England, the Republican policy was to support revolutionary France.

George Washington (q. v.), commander-in-chief of the colonists in the War of Independence, became the first president of the United States (1789-1797). In 1793 Washington proclaimed US neutrality in the war against

revolutionary France waged by a coalition of European powers. In 1794 the government concluded a treaty with England, humiliating for US national sovereignty (see Jay's Treaty), which gave rise to widespread resentment in the country. There was opposition also to the government's domestic policy which was to a large extent determined by the anti-democratic leader of the Federalists, A. Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, 1789-1795. The farmers' resentment was aroused particularly by the government tax policy which led to the farmers' rebellion in Pennsylvania in 1794 (known in bourgeois literature as the Whiskey Rebellion) and to discontent among the farmers in Pennsylvania in 1799. In 1798 Federalist J. Adams (President, 1797-1801) passed a law "on sedition" providing jail sentences for criticism of acts of the government. US relations with France became very tense. The government's policy was opposed by the democratic forces united behind the Republicans. This led Republican leader T. Jefferson (President, 1801-1809) to victory in the 1800 presidential elections. The Jefferson government abolished the reactionary laws of 1798 and instituted a number of progressive reforms. Conspicuous among them was the agrarian law of 1804 reducing the size of the government-sold homesteads in the west to 160 acres and lowering their prices which were to be paid in installments. The agrarian policy of the Republicans facilitated the settling of the western lands by farmers. The acquisition of western Louisiana from France for 15 million dollars in 1803 considerably expanded US territory. The establishment of the diplomatic relations between the US and Russia in 1808-1809 contributed to the improvement of the US international position.

Early in the nineteenth century England was still the chief enemy of the US. Taking advantage of US economic dependence on England and its military weakness, the English bourgeoisie continued its efforts to restore its domination in the former colonies of North America. Acting in violation

of the Versailles Peace Treaty of 1783, England did not withdraw its troops from the northwestern forts for a long time, and continued to seize American merchant ships. The 1807 embargo (a ban on trade with European countries and the closing of US ports to foreign ships) which the Jefferson government declared in retaliation aroused the discontent of the bourgeoisie which was reluctant to lose its profits from that trade. Jefferson lifted the embargo in 1809, before the expiration of his term of presidency. Relations between the US and England, which would not be reconciled with the loss of her North American colonies, continued to deteriorate. The English navy continued to seize American ships.

In June of 1812 the US declared war on England. The American army suffered a series of defeats in that war. American troops attempted to break into the territory of Canada but failed. In 1814 the British occupied the American capital, Washington, and burned most of the city. However as the war went on the American army and navy, consisting mostly of privateers, were able to deal the English a number of blows on land and at sea. In January 1815 (after the signing of the peace treaty), the Americans defeated the English troops at New Orleans. According to the peace treaty concluded in Ghent in December 1814, the US retained her prewar borders. US independence was consolidated as a result of the war. After the Anglo-American war of 1812-1814, America's international position became stronger.

In 1819 the US compelled Spain to sell Florida which actually had already been seized by the US. In 1823, US President J. Monroe proclaimed a doctrine (see Monroe Doctrine) which at that time was directed against the interference of European powers in the affairs of the Western Hemisphere. That doctrine at the same time reflected US expansionist tendencies in regard to the Latin American countries.

The abundance of land and natural riches in the US, the large scale immigration from Europe, and the influx of foreign capital as well as the weakness of US neighbors created favorable conditions for the rapid economic development of the country. The US however remained economically dependent on England. The growing demand for cotton, following the successful industrial revolution in England, and the industrial revolution in the northeast of US, begun early in the nineteenth century, prompted the development of the plantation-type economy in the southern states based on the large scale use of slave labor. Cotton was exported primarily to England from which industrial goods were imported. The plantation owners strove to seize new lands in the west, a desire prompted by the slave systems, as under the plantation-type economy the soil soon became exhausted. The colonization of the west was accompanied by uninterrupted wars with the Indians and their extermination (see map).

US economic development proceeded in 2 directions, industrial and agricultural in the north and the slave system in the South, producing a source of sharp social contradictions and an intense political struggle in the country. The bourgeoisie favored agreement with the plantation owners. The slave system area was somewhat extended in 1820 (up to $36^{\circ} 30'$ N lat). At the same time slavery was forbidden on the territory to the north of $36^{\circ} 30'$ N lat (see Missouri Compromise). The slaveholders and the bourgeoisie were united by a common fear of a popular movement. Certain bourgeois circles maintained close economic ties with the slave holders. This explains the policy of compromise on the part of the bourgeoisie and its indecision and inconsistency in the struggle against slavery. However those compromises, which did not eliminate the contradictions between the capitalist north and the slaveholding south, could only delay their inevitable clash. Industry was

developing comparatively rapidly in the north, as was agriculture in the west. The construction of railroads began in the end of the 1820's and contributed to the rapid settlement of the west. The colonization of the west expanded the domestic market and accelerated the development of the industry. The industrial bourgeoisie was interested in protecting the industry from foreign competition, and worked toward the establishment of high protective tariffs on industrial goods. But the planters were against high tariffs. The farmers too were interested in the abolition of high tariffs. Particularly great resentment was aroused by the 1828 tariff introduced by the government of John Quincy Adams (president, 1825-1829).

The old Republican Party began to disintegrate under the conditions of mounting political struggle between the bourgeoisie and the slave owners. New political parties came into being. In 1828 the Democratic party began to take shape, initially uniting part of the planters, part of the bourgeoisie connected with the southern slave owners, and a considerable part of the farmers. In 1834 the Whig party, representing the interests of the grand bourgeoisie, came into being. The Democratic Party nominee, A. Jackson, (president, 1829-1837) won the presidential election of 1828. Jackson carried out a policy of exterminating the Indians and was in favor of slavery. At the same time certain reforms were introduced during his term of presidency under pressure of the masses of the people. White males were granted the right to vote in almost all the states, imprisonment for the failure of debt payments was abolished, and workers organizations, previously semilegal, were permitted. The workers organized local parties in Philadelphia, New York (1828-29), and later in a number of other cities. The workers parties demanded free land allotments for those who desired them, the abolition of the debtors' prisons, the introduction of democratic reforms, and the reduction of the work day to 10 hours. However these few weak workers parties fell apart in the early 1830's. The abolitionist (q. v.) movement

for the abolition of Negro slavery in the US got underway in the 1830's. The abolitionists launched an active propaganda campaign against slavery. Their main organ was the newspaper, Liberator (1831-1865), edited by the abolitionist W. L. Garrison. In 1840 the abolitionist societies numbered up to 200,000 members. Among the chief factors of the struggle against slavery were the numerous Negro rebellions the most conspicuous of which was the rebellion led by the Negro Nat Turner of Virginia (in 1831). The plantation owners ruthlessly suppressed the action of the Negroes, persecuted the abolitionists and frequently resorted to lynching. The political struggle in the country grew more intense in the 1840's. The abolitionist Liberty Party was launched in 1840. In 1848 there emerged a mass farmers' party of Free Soilers (q. v.) which was supported by workers organizations. The Party was in favor of halting the further spread of slavery in the US, and against the slave owners' expansion. In the 1840's, the socialist movement (dominated by Owenists, Furrierists, etc) got into its stride.

The population of the north, where the influx of immigrants settled down, grew faster than in the south. By 1860 there were 22 million people in the north and, according to rough estimates, 9 million in the south of which 4 million were Negro slaves. The Democratic Party however, which by the 1840's had become a party of southern slaveowners and banking and trading bourgeoisie connected with them, managed to hold on to power through abuse and demagogy almost up to 1860. Striving to conquer new lands, the slave owners succeeded in having Texas taken away from Mexico in 1836, and slavery began to develop in that territory. In 1845 Texas joined the US by a unilateral act. As a result of the war with Mexico in 1846-1848 (see American-Mexican War 1846-1848, the US seized almost half of the Mexican territory under the terms of the 1848 Guadalupe-Hidalgo peace treaty. Under the treaty of 1853 (which came to be known as the "Gadsden Treaty," after the US ambassador in Mexico who signed it), the US took away from Mexico another 140,000 sq km of territory. Following

the settlement of the dispute with England (in 1846), the US acquired part of the Oregon Territory. The US attempted to buy or seize the island of Cuba belonging to Spain. It tried to force its influence on Nicaragua and other countries of Central America. In 1850 the US concluded an agreement with England on the control of the future canal across the territory of Central America (see Clayton-Bulwer Agreement of 1850). In the 1840's US expansion spread to China. In 1844 the US foisted on China an unequal treaty at Wang Hia. The US participated in the suppression of the people's Taiping uprising of 1851-1864. By the threat of armed force it forced Japan to conclude an unequal terms treaty in 1854. In 1858 the US compelled China to sign an enslaving agreement. The interests of the slave-owners and part of the bourgeoisie coincided in the expansionist foreign policy, but certain bourgeois circles interested in restricting slavery took a stand against the seizure of Texas, against the war with Mexico, and against interference in the affairs of Central America.

By the middle of the nineteenth century slavery was still hindering the development of the productive forces in the country and the growth of industry. The clashes between the bourgeoisie and the slave owners however usually ended in compromise. Following lengthy debates in Congress, California was admitted into the federation in 1850 as a non-slave state. But as a result of the agreement between the bourgeoisie and the slave owners, who had a controlling influence in the US government and Congress, the latter passed a law in 1850 under which the authorities of the northern states were to capture the fugitive slaves. In 1854 the plantation owners secured the adoption of the Kansas-Nebraska bill (q. v.) according to which the slavery question in the territories was to be decided by the settlers themselves. This decision eliminated the conditional borderline between the free and slave states established in 1820 at 36°30' N lat. Acting in the interests of the slave owners, the US Supreme Court ruled in 1857, in the case of the Negro, Dred Scott (q. v.),

that slavery may exist in any state. All these measures served to strengthen the abolitionist movement. In 1854-1856 the clashes between the farmers and slave owners, begun during the settling of Kansas, grew into an armed struggle. In that struggle the government supported the slave owners.

The bourgeois Republican Party was created in 1854. It included the Free Soilers who represented its left radical democratic wing. The party's left wing was supported by the farmers and workers. The right, moderately liberal wing of the party consisted of the part of the bourgeoisie that was interested in expanding the domestic market and restricting the spread of slavery.

As a result of the economic crisis of 1857 and the long depression that followed it, the condition of the farmers and workers considerably deteriorated. The labor movement became increasingly better organized in the 1850's. The number of strikes increased and the trade unions became stronger. The workers gradually became involved in the political struggle. The workers' struggle merged with the struggle of the farmers for land and against slavery. Radical sentiments grew among the abolitionists. The Negroes took an active part in the struggle against slavery. A prominent part in the struggle for the liberation of the Negroes was played by the outstanding representative of the Negro people and noted personality of the American revolutionary movement, F. Douglas. Negro slaves fleeing from the southern states were moved by a so-called underground railroad (whose stations were the homes of citizens sympathetic to the fugitives) to the north, usually to Canada. The armed rebellion against slavery in 1859, led by John Brown (q. v.), was suppressed, but it provided a stimulus for an intensified struggle of the Negro slaves, workers, and farmers against slavery. The discontent of the peoples masses, Negroes, and poor white population of the south, continued to rise. The 1860

presidential elections turned into a bitter struggle for power. The plantation owners attempted to surmount the crisis of the slavery based economy by the conquest of new lands and the forcible extension of slavery over the entire territory of the US. To this end, they tried to keep the federal power in their hands at all costs. After the presidential elections which brought to power the Republican Party nominee, A. Lincoln (q. v.) (president, 1861-1865), the slave owners, long since engaged in preparations for a rebellion, adopted a decision on the secession of the southern states. The establishment of a pro-slavery confederation was proclaimed in February 1861. The slavery of the Negroes was declared as their "natural property."

The Civil War in the US and the Reconstruction of the South

A civil war (q. v.) broke out in April 1861. The governments of England and France actively assisted the rebels, supplying them with ammunition, and tried to organize an intervention. At the same time Russia, declining the Anglo-French suggestion to interfere in the civil war on the side of the rebels, took a position favorable to the Lincoln government. The arrival of 2 Russian squadrons in the US in 1863, in connection with the growing Anglo-Russian tensions, contributed to the improvement of the Lincoln government's international position. Part of the northern bourgeoisie was undecided and reluctant to fight a war with revolutionary methods. The North was not prepared for war. Therefore the north suffered defeats in the first period of the war (1861-1862), and therefore it lasted 4 years despite the enormous superiority of the Northern forces over those of the South. The main force opposing the rebels consisted of the masses of workers and farmers who were against slavery, in favor of democracy and the integrity of the country. Following a number of defeats by the North, the Lincoln government, spurred by pressure from the people and the radical democratic wing of the Republican Party,

introduced a number of measures that brought about a turning point in the war. A compulsory draft into the army and navy was proclaimed in May 1862. A homestead act was passed at the same time, under which any American citizen (or anyone arriving in the US and declaring his intention of becoming a citizen), could get an 160 acre land parcel at a small sum (see Homestead Act). The army and the government machinery were purged of traitors. General U. Grant, a man of proven military talent, became commander in chief of the northern army in 1864. A law liberating Negro slaves, without land allotments, who belonged to planters participating the rebellion came into force on 1 January 1863. Almost 190,000 former slaves from the Southern territories occupied by the Northern army joined the Federal army. The Negroes, participating in the struggle against the slave owners not only at the front but also in the rear of the Southern rebels, played an outstanding part in the achievement of victory. By the struggle against the slave owners, the Negro people made a decisive contribution to the cause of their own liberation. The adoption of revolutionary methods of warfare in the second period of the Civil War (1863-1865) insured the defeat of the rebels. The victory of the North was facilitated by the struggle of the workers of the European countries, primarily the English proletariat, who opposed the Anglo-French plans of intervention. K. Marx and F. Engels engaged in an active struggle against the threat of intervention. European revolutionaries took part in the war of the North against the slave owners.

The Civil War in the US, which ended in a victory for the North, was of the nature of a bourgeois democratic revolution, particularly in its second stage (1863-1865). The masses of the people fought a just war against slavery. K. Marx and F. Engels frequently emphasized the enormous progressive importance of the Northerners' fight. The progressive character of the Civil War was noted later by V. I. Lenin.

The civil war led to the introduction of a number of bourgeois democratic changes which created favorable conditions for the development of capitalism in the country. Conditions were created for changing the US in the future into a unified state. The American way of capitalist development in agriculture emerged victorious. The democratic solution of the land problem in the west and the abolition of slavery contributed to the expansion of the domestic market.

The defeat of the southern slave owners posed before the northern bourgeoisie the problem of political and economic reconstruction of the south. During the 1865-1877 Reconstruction, certain influential bourgeois circles, whose interests were expressed by US President A. Johnson (1865-1869), pursued a conciliatory policy toward the planters for fear of an intensified revolution movement. The planters, who strove to keep the Negroes in conditions of semislavery and keep them out of political activities, were thus enabled to introduce in 1865-1866 anti-Negro "black codes" and organize the terrorist Klu Klux Klan and other organizations. Freed from slavery, but receiving no land, the Negroes found themselves in a state of semislave economic dependence on the planters. They were forced to become share croppers. Consolidating their position in the south, the planters again began to claim a leading place in America's administration.

The radical Republicans, representing the interests of the revolutionary part of the bourgeoisie, wanted to introduce bourgeois democratic changes in the south. Acting on the initiative of the radical Republicans, Congress adopted the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution (which came into force in 1865, 1868, and 1870, respectively) which put a legislative sanction on the abolition of Negro slavery, granting the Negroes civil and political rights. Gaining a majority in Congress,

the radical Republicans, headed by C. Sumner and T. Stevens, passed a number of laws on the reconstruction of the south over President Johnson's veto. The most important of them was the First Law on Reconstruction adopted on 2 March 1867. Under that law the southern states were divided into military districts, a military dictatorship was introduced in the south, and the former rebels attempting to restore slavery and openly opposing the adoption of the constitutional amendments were deprived of political rights.

The events of the Reconstruction period were revolutionary in character. During the Reconstruction Negroes and poor Whites took a very active part in political life, particularly in the activities of the newly created governments of the southern states which were the Reconstruction governments. Certain Negroes were elected to Congress for the first time in the history of the United States. This was of great progressive importance. The Negroes organized so-called union leagues which had detachments of Negro militia and Negro rifle clubs under them. These leagues, constituting organizations of a political nature, were in command of the Negro armed resistance to the terror maintained by the planters, and played a big part in the Negroes' struggle for land. In many places land plots were seized by Negroes. The Negroes demanded the division of the large plantations in the southern states. The overwhelming majority of the bourgeois politicians in the north however were against those demands thereby dooming the revolutionary changes to failure.

The victory in the Civil War was achieved by the broad masses of the people, but the fruits of that victory went chiefly to the rich bourgeoisie which worked for a compromise with the planters. The former rebels were granted political rights as early as 1872. The republican party was split in the early 1870's, and a considerable number of the party leaders came out in opposition to the continued Reconstruction

of the south. The growing class struggle of the 1870's in the north led to a political deal between the northern bourgeoisie and the former southern slave owners in 1877, known as the Tilden-Hayes compromise. During R. Hayes' presidency, the dictatorship in the south was abolished. Betraying its wartime allies, the bourgeoisie of the north made a deal with the planters of the south for the purpose of suppressing the movement of the working class, the farmers, and the Negro people. The agrarian problem in the south remained unsolved. Carrying out a policy of compromise with the southern planters, the bourgeoisie tried to "restore everything possible, and do everything possible and impossible for the shameless and foul oppression of the Negroes" (Lenin, V. I. Sochinenia, Fourth Edition, Volume 22, page 13).

The land parcels seized by the Negroes were taken back from them almost everywhere. Intimidation, violence, lynching, and bloody programs were used to deprive the Negroes of most of their rights. The disfranchisement of the Negroes was sanctioned by a number of racial laws which were subsequently adopted in the southern states. There was also racial discrimination against Mexicans and immigrants from Asiatic countries. Interned in their reservations, the Indians were never granted even formal rights.

The inflation begun during the Civil War, speculation, and rising prices served to depress the living standard of the workers and small farmers. The differentiation of the farmers became intense and their dependence on the banks increased. Most of the farmers who acquired land under the Homestead Act were soon ruined. Their land was taken away by auctioneers and banks. The bourgeoisie shifted the payments of the enormous national debt (over 2.8 billion dollars) onto the shoulders of the working people. The intensification of the class struggle was

manifested in a growing worker-farmer movement. A national union, demanding an 8 hour workday, was founded in 1865. A national labor union (which existed to the beginning of the 1870's) was organized in 1866 under the leadership of Sylvis (q. v.). Back in the 1850's the Communist Club of New York was organized. Sections of the First International came into existence in the US in 1867. The farmers Grange organization (the "Patrons of Husbandry") was created in 1867. In 1868 a labor party was organized, as was a Negro workers organization. Labor pressure in a number of states prevented the passage of anti-strike bills. The labor movement in the US however had to cope with difficult conditions. The great turnover in the labor force prevented the formation of permanent proletarian cadres. The bourgeoisie managed to weaken the labor movement by bribing labor leaders organizing company unions, inciting American workers against Negroes and immigrants and fanning national animosity among immigrant workers from different countries.

The US at the End of the Nineteenth Century -- The Growth of Pre-Monopoly Capitalism Into Imperialism

In the period following the Civil War and the Reconstruction of the south the US became a highly developed industrial capitalist country. The US held fourth place in the world in point of industrial output volume in 1860, and first place in 1894. This was facilitated by the abolition of the slave system, the enormous post war expansion of the domestic market, the rich natural resources, the large scale use of new machinery, mass immigration to the US from various countries, and by the influx of capital from Europe. The concentration of capital accelerated. Large corporations and millionaires (Vanderbilt, Carnegie, Rockefeller, Morgan, etc) began to expand their activities. Standard oil was organized

in 1870, extending its control to more than 90% of the US oil industry by 1879. Other large monopolies came into being in various branches of the national economy. The National Association of Manufacturers (q. v.), the largest organization of American monopolists, was created in 1895. The activities of the capitalist monopolies (particularly in railroad construction) were accompanied by squandering state lands and funds and monstrous speculation and corruption which served to make the economic crises particularly acute. All the forces of reaction united for the struggle against the spreading movement of workers and farmers. The Republican and the Democratic parties, both of which had become parties of the rich bourgeoisie, were drawn closer to each other. The Republican Party was in power practically all the time (the A. Johnson government, 1865-1869; U. Grant, 1869-1877; R. Hayes, 1877-1881; J. Garfield, 1881; Ch. Arthur, 1881-1886; B. Harrison, 1889-1893). The Democratic Party managed to win the presidential elections only twice (the Grover Cleveland governments in 1885-1889 and in 1893-1897.)

Custom duties were raised, and a law introducing the gold standard was passed in the interests of the rich bourgeoisie. The best government-owned lands were turned over to speculators, to railroads, and other companies. The northern railroad companies alone received about 44 million acres of land. The government's financial policy, high tariffs and rising prices on industrial goods and the plundering of land by the rich bourgeoisie put the farmers in a difficult position, making them increasingly dependent on the banks. All this served to heighten the farmers' discontent and stimulate the farmers' movement.

The farmers Greenback Party (q. v.) came into being in the 1870's. Uniting with the workers organizations in 1878, the Greenbackers party came to be known as "The National Labor Party of Greenbackers." This party demanded that the paper currency in circulation be left intact (which,

in the erroneous opinion of the farmers, was to bring about higher prices of agricultural products). They also demanded restrictions on capitalist corporations, the introduction of a progressive income tax, a lower tariff, and the introduction of an 8-hour workday. The Green-backers polled over a million votes in the 1878 congressional election, but their party soon fell apart through lack of consistent revolutionary leadership. To weaken the farmers' movement, Congress made certain concessions leaving intact the paper currency in circulation, over the President's veto. The economic crisis and the depression that followed it (1873-1878) greatly harmed the conditions of the working class. The number of unemployed in 1877 rose to almost 3 million. Workers' wages were reduced by 40-50%. Strikes and demonstrations by unemployed workers took place all over America. To intimidate the workers, the authorities retaliated against the leaders through the courts. Thus after the Pennsylvania miners' strike (1874-1875), many of the strike leaders were sentenced to death or to long term imprisonment on trumped-up charges. A big railroad strike was put down by troops in 1877. The Socialist Labor Party (SLP, at first called the Labor Party) emerged in 1876 as a result of a combination of several socialist groups. An active part in the organization of the party was played by F. A. Sorge (q. v.), a German Marxist, student and companion of K. Marx and F. Engels, who lived in the US. Weakened by sectarianism however the SLB never became a mass party. The growth of the party and its influence on the masses were impaired by the social heterogeneity of its composition, its division into separate national groups as well as its lack of attention to trade union work. The Knights of Labor (q. v.), organized back in 1869, became the legal mass trade union organization in 1878. The American Federation of Labor (q. v.) (AFL), built on the craft basis, took shape in 1881. The AFL, whose leadership was seized by S. Gompers and other

trade union leaders implementing an opportunistic policy and justly nicknamed "the labor lieutenants of the capitalist class," evolved into a reformist organization.

The class struggle grew more acute in connection with the economic crisis of the eighties. Labor, labor-farmer, and farmer parties were organized in certain states. The enhancement of the revolutionary labor movement was manifested by a series of large scale class activities. A big miners' strike took place in Pennsylvania in 1885, and an impressive railroad strike in 1886. A wave of strikes and demonstrations swept the country on 1 May 1866. The demonstrators demanded the introduction of an 8-hour workday. In Chicago, where the strike almost reached the scope of general strike, a workers' demonstration was attacked by the police. A bomb thrown by provocateurs into a meeting in Chicago on 4 May, for the purpose of inciting antilabor repressions, killed 4 workers and 7 policemen. False evidence offered by the provocateurs led to the execution of 4 organizers of the meeting and the long term imprisonment of many of its participants. The struggle of the US workers for an 8-hour workday was supported by the international labor movement. The First Congress of the Second International, held in Paris in 1889, proclaimed 1 May as the day of international solidarity of the proletariat and the struggle of the workers in the whole world for an 8-hour workday. A number of antidemocratic measures, designed to intensify the repressions against the mass movement of the people, were introduced by the big capitalists and rich landowners. States began to revise their constitutions with a view to strengthening the executive power. The National Guard was reorganized, and parts of it were subordinated to the Federal general staff. The bourgeoisie sowed racial and national dissension. Negro workers and immigrants were subjected to the most cruel exploitation and discrimination. At the same time the American bourgeoisie was bribing the labor aristocracy and trade union bureaucracy.

The American working class had no militant revolutionary party. Despite the few positive elements of its activities, the Socialist Labor Party did not correct its mistakes of a sectarian nature and therefore failed to become a mass party. While exposing the opportunists, the party leader D. de Leon used the wrong sectarian methods himself. The Socialist Labor Party did not extend its activities to the reformist trade unions. De Leon defended the reactionary theory of "uniqueness of American capitalism." The SLP's mistakes made it easier for the reformists to carry out a policy designed to split the socialist movement. F. Engels sharply criticized the sectarian nature of the American socialists pointing out that Marxism was just a dogma to them, not a guide to action.

The government maintained a policy of severe repressions against workers' and farmers' organizations. The movement against the trusts led to the adoption of the Sherman Act (q. v.) which was declared as an "anti-trust" law. That law however was utilized for the persecution of trade unions and for fighting strikes. The monopolist associations on the other hand actually benefited by the law. The number of monopolies was rapidly increasing. Many farmers were ruined and 23% of the total number of farms were mortgaged to the banks. The farmers' Populist Party (q. v.), supported by many labor organizations, was created in 1892. The party's program was directed against the banks and capitalist corporations. The populists polled over a million votes at the 1892 presidential elections. But in the 1896 elections the Democratic Party made use of the most populist slogans with a view to undermining their further successes. A socialist professional and labor alliance was organized by de Leon in 1895.

Two tendencies, revolutionary and reformist, came into sharp conflict in the labor movement. Miners staged frequent strikes in the beginning of the 1890's, a big strike of metal workers broke out in 1892

in Homestead (Pennsylvania), and a railroad workers strike in 1894 occurred at the Pullman Car Company's plants in the Chicago suburbs (see Pullman strike). The Pullman strike was led by the American Union of Railroad Workers headed by E. Debs (q. v.). Both the Homestead and Pullman strikes were put down by the government by armed force.

The US carried out an expansionist foreign policy. The American bourgeoisie strove to dislodge English capital from Latin America and use the Latin American countries as a source of raw materials and a market for US monopolies. To this end, the US called a conference of the Latin American states in Washington in 1889 under the pretext of Pan Americanism (see Pan American Conferences). As early as 1867 the US succeeded in buying Alaska from the Tsarist government for an insignificant sum (7.2 million dollars). The US ruling circles also pushed their expansion in Asia. In 1871 the US attempted a military invasion of Korea. In 1882 it forced an enslaving treaty on Korea. In 1889 the US signed an agreement with England and Germany on a protectorate over the Samoan islands. In 1893 the US organized a coup on the Hawaiian Islands which was followed by the formation of the Hawaiian Republic with a government entirely dependent on the US.

The US in the Period of Imperialism (prior to World War I)

Toward the end of the nineteenth century American capitalism entered the stage of imperialism. Capitalist monopolists flourished and the process of production and capital concentration became intensified. The export of capital was accelerated and foreign policy expansion assumed greater proportions. The US entry into the imperialist stage was characterized by a growing reaction all along the line, both in domestic and foreign policy. The process of capital concentration in the US was moving faster and on a larger scale than in the other

countries. After the 1900-1903 crisis, the monopoly became the foundation of the country's entire economy. V. I. Lenin defined the American trusts as "the high point of imperialist economy or monopoly capitalism" (Sochinenia, Vol 23, Fourth Edition, Page 32).

By the end of the nineteenth century the US was ahead of the old capitalist states in economic power. The expansion of the monopolies was paralleled by their increasing domination of the economic and political life of the country, and by the government's subordination to monopoly capital. The financial oligarchy determined the domestic and foreign policy of the Republican administrations (the McKinley government, 1897-1901; T. Roosevelt, 1901-1909; W. Taft, 1909-1913) as well as the Democratic administrations (the W. Wilson government, 1913-1921). The T. Roosevelt administration, intent on enlisting the support of the masses who opposed the oppression of the monopolies, took legal action against a number of trusts on the basis of the so-called Sherman Anti-Trust Act. But the corporations managed to get away with small fines and, whenever disbanded, to reorganize under different names. The interests of monopoly capital were furthered by the preservation of a high tariff (duties on a number of commodities were further raised in 1909).

The labor movement in the US grew stronger toward the end of the nineteenth century. In 1898 E. Debs organized the Social Democratic Party which was the basic nucleus of the Socialist Party to emerge in 1900-1901. The creation of the Socialist Party exerted a positive influence on the development of the American labor movement. This party however did not evolve into a revolutionary party of the working class. Confining its political activities to the fight for congressional seats, it eventually became a reformist party. The government used cruel measures to suppress the strike movement. In 1902 it broke the strike of 150,000 coal miners who were fighting for shorter working hours, higher

wages, and the recognition of the trade union. Betraying the interests of the workers, the leaders of the coal miners' trade union made an agreement with the mine operators and the government. The American government's foreign policy, just like its domestic policy, was determined by the interests of the big monopolies. From the end of the nineteenth century on, the US ruling circles manifested an increasing desire to gain a dominant position on the world market. The US made an open claim to greater participation in colonial expansion. By that time however the world had already been divided among the other capitalist states. The Spanish-American War (q. v.) of 1898, unleashed by the US in April 1898, was the first imperialist war for the redivision of the world. The US forced the defeated Spain to give up her overseas colonies. As a result of the Spanish-American War, the US captured the Philippines, Guam, and Puerto Rico and established its domination over Cuba which remained under American occupation from 1899 through 1902. Imperialist pressure brought about the inclusion of the so-called Platt Amendment (q. v.) in the Cuban Constitution in 1901 granting the US the "right" to intervene. Having first taken advantage of the national liberation movement in the Philippines against Spain, the US proceeded to suppress it by cruel methods (in 1899-1901). In 1898 the US officially annexed the Hawaiian Islands. In 1899 the US concluded an agreement with Germany on the division of Samoa. In 1903 the US engineered a coup d'etat in Panama resulting in the secession of Panama from Columbia. Establishing its control in Panama, the US forced a treaty on that country under which it took over the Panama Canal Zone (the canal was completed in 1914). Under the terms of a protocol forced on the Dominican Republic in 1905-1907, the US undertook the "settlement" of her foreign debt. The Dominican republic fell under the monopoly influence of the US. Striving to extend its domination to the Latin American and other countries, the US made wide use of "dollar diplomacy" combining it with direct military intervention and the suppression of liberation movements. In 1899 the US proclaimed the so-called Open Door

Policy which was designed to facilitate its expansion in China. Behind the demagogic demand for "equal opportunities" for all countries in China was the US desire to subject the whole of China to its influence. America's imperialist policy in China was manifested also in its participation in 1900-1901 in the suppression of the national rebellion in China (1899-1901) against the foreign oppressors.

The government of T. Roosevelt, engaged in a policy of large scale foreign expansion, aided Japan in its preparation for war against Russia. During the Russo-Japanese war of 1904-1905, it offered economic, financial, and diplomatic aid to Japan. The US actually agreed to Japan's occupation of Korea (see Katsura-Taft Agreement). After the signing of the Portsmouth Peace Treaty in 1905, Japan blocked American access to Manchuria. The ensuing negotiations with Japan, accompanied by a demonstration of US naval force in the Far East, culminated in the signing of an agreement between the US and Japan on the Pacific basin in 1908 (see Root-Takahira Agreement).

The Russian revolution of 1905-1907 found favorable reaction in the US. Societies of "friends of Russian freedom" were organized in a number of cities (Boston, San Francisco, etc). The influence of the Russian revolution contributed to the enhancement of the labor movement in the US. The Industrial Workers of the World (q. v.) trade union (IWW) was founded in 1905 with the aim of organizing the trade union on an industrial basis (to counterbalance the previous craft unions). There were large scale strikes by miners (in 1907 and 1912), garment workers (in 1909-1910), textile workers (in 1912), etc. While leading many of the strikes, the IWW committed some grave mistakes of a sectarian nature. The leadership of that organization was captured by the anarchosyndicalists in 1908. The Negro people's struggle for their rights and against racial discrimination assumed a larger scope. The

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People was born in 1909.

The Socialist Party held a conference in 1912. Its right-wing leaders succeeded in pushing through a resolution whereby the party in effect gave up its revolutionary struggle proclaiming the election campaign as its basic method of struggle. The social basis of this opportunism was the labor aristocracy which was bribed by the bourgeoisie with funds from the enormous profits it was making by intensifying the exploitation of the working class, farmers, and Negroes and by increasing foreign expansion.

During the 1912 presidential elections, a splinter group of the Republican Party, headed by T. Roosevelt, came out as the national progressive party (and fell apart after the elections). Its election platform contained promises to fight the trusts, introduce progressive factory legislation, and a number of other reforms. The program and propaganda of the "progressives" were merely an attempt to save capitalism with the aid of bourgeois reforms. The republican Party split contributed to the election of the Democratic Party nominee, W. Wilson, who received an insignificant majority of votes. Eugene Debs, the Socialist Party candidate, polled about a million votes. In an effort to paralyze the growing socialist movement, Wilson declared that "an era of new freedom" was to be ushered in, but his political course was entirely in keeping with the interests of the big monopolies. The subordination of the government to the financial oligarchy became pronounced. The Federal Reserve System was instituted in 1913 on direct instructions from the monopolies. The reserve banks were to coordinate the activities of all banks, and were granted broad rights in the matter of issuing bank notes. The Federal Advisory Board, including the biggest financial

tycoons, became the real financial policy maker. To suppress the strikes, the Wilson government resorted to repressive measures. The big Colorado miners trike in 1913-1914 was put down by the troops.

The US during World War I of 1914-1918

On 4 August 1914, following the outbreak of World War I, the US declared its neutrality. The American monopolies undertook to supply foodstuffs, ammunition, and loans to the warring countries, mostly the Entente countries. The creeping economic depression of 1913-1914 turned into prosperity by 1915 as a result of the military situation. The American monopolists (particularly the Morgan group) made enormous profits on their shipments to the European countries. The US took advantage of its neutrality period for making the necessary economic, political, and ideological preparations for entering the war. A law passed in 1916 provided for the expansion of the navy, larger appropriations for the army, and therefore for higher taxes. The national defense council created in August 1916 was designed to make preparations for industrial mobilization. The desire of the American monopolies to secure maximum profits inevitably pushed the US into direct participation in the war for the redivision of the world. There had been sharp disagreements between the US and the Entente countries, particularly with England, before but during that period US-German tensions became more prominent. Colonel E. House, former confidante of Wilson, stated at the end of 1915: "The US cannot permit the defeat of the Allies leaving Germany as a military factor dominating the world." The economic ties between the US and the Entente countries were considerably expanded during the neutrality period. American financial magnates had granted the Entente countries many millions in credits and loans and were afraid to lose them in case of a German victory. The merciless German submarine warfare served to raise US-German tension still higher.

On 6 April 1917 the US declared war on Germany. The period of America's participation in the war was marked by a growing reaction at home, a rising military clique, a conversion to war economy, and a still greater subordination of government authority to the monopolies. The workers living standard went down during the war. Prices on food-stuffs and consumer goods went up. In 1917 food prices were increased by an average of 57% and in 1918 by 87% as compared with 1913. Prices of clothing were increased by 49% in 1917 and 105% in 1918 respectively. Rising prices, rapidly rising taxes, compulsory subscriptions to war loans, intensified exploitation, a severe wartime regime, and the existence of a large army of unemployed despite the economic prosperity, combined to deteriorate the conditions of the working class. The workers responded to the growing exploitation with numerous strikes. There were more than 4,400 strikes in 1917, and the Wilson government took cruel reprisals against the labor movement. Under the Espionage Law (June, 1917), every demonstration of workers against the war was declared treason to the state. The left-wing socialist and IWW members, who took a courageous stand against the war, were subjected to repression. W. Haywood and E. Debs, prominent leaders of the American labor movement, were arrested. The imperialist war brought about a split in the US Socialist Party whose internationalist wing, opposing the war, formed a socialist propaganda league in 1915. The right-wing leaders of the Socialist Party openly supported the imperialist policy. The policy maintained by the AFL leadership was one of "class cooperation" with the monopolies and the government. In March 1917 the AFL conference offered its service to the government in case of war. AFL leader Gompers was included in the advisory committee to the council of national defense.

Taking advantage of the European countries' preoccupation with the war, the US stepped up its expansion in Latin America. The Wilson government organized an intervention in Mexico in 1914 and later in 1916-1917. The occupation of Nicaragua, begun by the Taft government in 1912, was continued (and lasted, with a short interruption, until 1933). Between 1915 and 1934 the US occupied Haiti, and between 1916 and 1924 the Dominican Republic. US intervention in Cuba took place in 1917-1922. Denmark was compelled to sell Danish West Indies to the US in 1916. An agreement between the US and Japan at the expense of China (see Lansing-Ishii Agreement) was concluded during the war. This agreement however failed to check the increasing American-Japanese tensions. The war produced fabulous profits for the American monopolists. The average annual income of the US corporations in 1916-1918 was about 4 billion dollars higher than the 1912-1914 annual average.

The Russian bourgeois democratic revolution of February 1917 greatly alarmed the American ruling circles who feared Russia's withdrawal from the war. The US hastened to recognize the bourgeois Provisional Government and support it with huge loans.

From a debtor country the US emerged after World War I as the greatest creditor, while the European countries found themselves indebted to it for over 10 billion dollars. Practically all the Entente countries became dependent on the US. V. I. Lenin pointed out that the American billionaires fattened on the war more than everybody else. US foreign trade was considerably expanded. Thus between 1913 and 1920 American trade with the Latin American countries increased 4-fold. More than half of the world's gold reserve was concentrated in the US. The war stimulated the further development of a number of heavy industry branches. The process of centralization of capital was stepped up.

By the end of World War I, over 50% of the entire wealth of the country was owned by 1% of the population.

The US Between the 2 World Wars

A general crisis of capitalism set in during World War I, particularly as a result of Soviet Russia's withdrawal from the capitalist system. An upswing of the revolutionary labor and farmer movement in the US occurred after World War I. The influence of the Great October Socialist Revolution had a telling effect the revolutionary movement in the US. There was a significant increase in the number of American strikes in 1919. The strike of 365,000 steel workers (organized by W. Foster) and 435,000 miners were among the biggest. The same year also saw powerful strikes in the ports of New York and Seattle.

The US took part in the intervention against Soviet Russia along with England and France. The US carried out an open military intervention in the Soviet north (1918-1919) and in the Soviet Far East (1918-1920).

In January 1918 Wilson propounded an imperialist peace program, the so-called 14-Point Program. Acting together with the other imperialist powers, the US tried to use the Paris Peace Conference of 1919-1920 for the expansion of its intervention and the enforcement of a blockade against Russia. Wilson succeeded in having the covenant of the League of Nations included in the Versailles Treaty of 1919 (q. v.). He attempted to utilize the league of Nations in the interests of American foreign policy. A number of noted bourgeois statesmen (Senator Lodge, Secretary of State Lansing, etc) opposed US participation in the League of Nations where England and France played a leading part. They sharply attacked Wilson's concessions to Japan at the Paris Peace Conference which threatened American position in China. Most of the Republicans (Lodge, Hoover, etc)

opposed Wilson under the slogan of so-called isolationism. Having failed to ratify the Versailles Treaty, the US concluded a separate peace with Germany in August 1921 which was very similar to the Versailles Treaty except that it did not contain the articles on the League of Nations.

The Communist Party of the United States was founded in September 1919 under the conditions of mass revolutionary movement. It took up the struggle against capitalist oppression and for the betterment of the lot of the working class and all toiling people. The communist took an active part in the 1919-1920 strike of the port workers who refused to load war materials for the American interventionist troops in Russia, and for the White Guardists.

A wave of protests against American participation in the anti-Soviet intervention swept the country. The American workers created a "Friends of the Soviet Union" organization which collected signatures for a petition to the government to call off the intervention and lift the blockade on Russia. About 100 trade unions signed the petition. "Hands off Russia" committees were also organized. In 1920 the American government was compelled to withdraw its troops from Russia.

The economic crisis which began in the US in 1920 reached its peak in 1921. In a number of industries the production volume was reduced by 40% and more. The number of unemployed rose 5.5 million. Wages were cut, and the crisis spread also to agriculture. The ruined farmers went to the cities, augmenting the ranks of unemployed. The bourgeoisie stepped up its attack on the rights of the working people. Employers refused to negotiate with trade unions and tore up collective agreements. This policy met with resistance from the working class. The number of people involved in the 1921-1922 strikes was 2.5 million.

Over 600,000 people participated in the 1922 coal miners' strike. The railroad workers (about 500,000) struck at the same time as the miners. The Republican government of President W. Harding (1921-1923) suppressed a number of strikes with the actual cooperation of the AFL leadership. The latter preached "class cooperation" with the capitalists and helped them in the capitalist rationalization of production which led to an intensified exploitation of the working class. The AFL policy was designed to split the ranks of the working class. The AFL leadership opposed the admission of Negroes and unskilled workers into the AFL.

Cruel repressive measures were used to suppress the struggle of the Negro people for democratic rights and against growing racial discrimination. Anti-Negro programs broke out in a number of cities in 1917-1919. According to official figures, considerably minimized, 38 people were killed, over 500 wounded, and hundreds of homes were destroyed or burned in Chicago in July 1919.

America's economic and political role in the capitalist world was considerably enhanced after the war. The US became the center of the financial exploitation of the world. American capital began to penetrate into the economy of many capitalist countries. At the same time, the conflicts between the US and the other capitalist countries, particularly with England and Japan, continued to develop. Acting in the interest of the monopolies, the Harding government continued American expansionist policy which was clearly revealed in the course of the Washington Conference of 1921-1922 (q. v.). Under the 5-power treaty signed at the conference, the US compelled England to accept the equality of American and English navies. The Anglo-Japanese union of 1902, which strengthened England's and Japan's positions vis-a-vis the US in the Far East, was abolished. The 9-power treaty signed at the conference on US initiative

represented a collusion of the imperialists against China. Taking advantage of its status of universal creditor, the US actually sought to fortify its position in China to the maximum under cover of the "Open Door" principle. The frequent proposals of the Soviet government to normalize relations between the US and the USSR were declined by the American ruling circles. During the partial, temporary stabilization of capitalism, begun in 1924, there was still chronic unemployment. A number of industries still worked below capacity. The number of renters increased and the volume of export capital grew (the capital export in 1929 amounted to 4 times the prewar figure). Capitalist rationalization of industry brought about an intensified exploitation of the workers and increasing unemployment. The number of farm bankruptcies was on the increase. More than 300,000 people were on strike in the US in 1928. An active part in the leadership of the strikes was played by the communists.

The defenders of American imperialism created the prosperity myth, the so-called uniqueness of American capitalism. They claimed that the development of American capitalism was allegedly entirely different from that of European capitalism and that it was immune to crises. These "theories" on "prosperity" and "uniqueness" of the US were propagandized in every way by reactionary trade union leaders and other reformists with a view to confusing the broad masses of the working people. Actually however the stabilization of capitalism, characterized by growing conflicts between the workers and capitalists, between imperialism and the peoples of colonial countries, and between the imperialists of different countries, was just as partial and temporary in the US as in the other capitalist countries.

The so-called progressive bloc which was organized during the 1924

presidential elections represented the interests of the farmers and the petty bourgeoisie of the cities and was supported by some of the trade unions. This bloc emerged as a result of the workers' discontent with both the Republican and Democratic parties. The program advanced by the bloc was designed to bring about an insignificant democratization of the government machinery and certain improvements in the conditions of the workers and farmers. Senator R. La Follette, who ran for the presidency as a nominee of that bloc, polled a considerable number of votes (after the elections the bloc fell apart). The election was won by the Republican Party candidate C. Coolidge (q. v.) who had been Vice-President in the Harding administration and became President in 1923 following the sudden death of Harding. The Coolidge government (1923-1929) continued to prosecute the case against Sacco and Vanzetti (q. v.), members of the American labor movement. Sacco and Vanzetti were executed on false charges (in 1927). The execution of Sacco and Vanzetti set off a campaign of protests in the US and the whole world. The Coolidge government blocked the passage of bills to provide assistance for bankrupt farmers. Acting in the interests of the monopolies, it raised the tariff. In foreign policy, the Coolidge government was known for its unfriendly attitude toward the USSR.

The German reparations plan (the so-called Dawes Plan) drafted in 1923-1924 (mostly by the American monopolists) was designed to revive German militarism as a force directed against the Soviet state and to create the necessary conditions for the establishment of foreign, primarily American, control over Germany's economy. In 1924-1929, the influx of foreign capital into Germany exceeded 10-15 billion marks in long-term investments alone. American capital investments accounted for 70% of all long term loans. The US and France introduced a proposal to conclude an international

pact "renouncing war as an instrument of national policy" (the Kellogg-Briand Pact of 1928). The US and other imperialist powers intended to use that pact as a weapon for isolating the USSR but were compelled by public opinion to invite the USSR to sign it.

With a view to securing high profits for the US monopolies exploiting the Latin American countries and suppressing the democratic forces of those countries, the Coolidge government continued its military intervention in Haiti as well as in Nicaragua where an antiimperialist liberation movement was underway. It also interfered in the internal affairs of Mexico and other Latin American republics. In an effort to strangle the Chinese antiimperialist and antifeudal revolution, the US and the other imperialist powers began to intervene in China. American warships participated in the bombarding of Nanking in March 1927. America's continued expansion led to further aggravation of imperialist contradictions, particularly in Anglo-American and Japanese-American relations. The Anglo-American disagreements of the 1920's became the major disagreements within the capitalist world. A struggle for markets and raw material sources, particularly oil, got underway between the US and England, with US pressure on England mounting all the time. In the middle of 1920's American capital export was more than double that of Britain's.

In the 1928 presidential elections the monopolist bourgeoisie had H. Hoover nominated by the Republican Party. Hoover was elected under the slogan of "prosperity." The devastating depression of 1929-1933 however was a striking proof of the inconsistency of the "theory" of "prosperity" and "uniqueness" of the American way of capitalist development. Worst affected by the world economic depression was the major

country of capitalism, the US itself, which had by that time concentrated in its hands about 1/2 of the production and consumption of the capitalist world. The economic depression affected industry, agriculture, trade, and the credit system. It was unusually severe and long lasting. The crisis placed a particularly heavy burden on the shoulders of the working people. Workers wages were reduced by 60% and farmers' income by 59%. According to official figures, there were 13.2 fully unemployed people in the US in 1932, and the overwhelming majority of them received no relief of any kind from the state. The depression produced a sharper class struggle. The upswing in the country's labor movement and the mass movement of the unemployed were under the direct leadership of the Communist Party. On March 1930 the Communist Party organized mass demonstrations of unemployed in a number of cities, with 1.25 million people participating. The "hunger march" of unemployed on Washington organized in 1931 demanded the institution of unemployment insurance and relief for the unemployed. A march on Washington by unemployed war veterans took place in 1932. The marchers were met with cruel retaliations by troops commanded by General D. MacArthur. More than 3.5 million workers participated in the strikes of 1929-1934. The national farmers conferences held in 1932 and 1933 with the participation of the Communist Party adopted a decision to join forces with the workers in the struggle against the oppression of the monopolies. The farmers protested against low agricultural prices by refusing to sell their produce to the monopolist companies. By offering aid to big capital, the Hoover government shifted the entire burden of the depression onto the shoulders of the working people. It created a financial corporation with a capital of 3.5 billion dollars which was to subsidize the monopolies with a view to saving

them from bankruptcy during the depression. At the same time the government stepped up its repressions against strikers. In the 1931 Scotsboro Case (q. v.), the Alabama authorities attempted to bring about the execution of 9 Negro youths. But the intimidations and repression could not halt the struggle of the Negro people against the reaction. The Negro masses became better organized. The progressive national Negro congress held in Chicago in 1938 was attended by delegates from 551 Negro organizations uniting 3.3 million people.

US expansion in Latin American and in the Far East was furthered under the Hoover administration. Certain American monopolies continued to supply Japan with strategic raw materials and ammunition after she invaded Manchuria in 1931. Reviving Germany's military industrial potential, which the US, England, and France endeavored to direct against the USSR, the American monopolists took an active part in drawing up the Young Plan (q. v.) in 1929.

F. Roosevelt (q. v.), Democratic Party nominee, emerged victorious in the 1932 presidential elections. Roosevelt was subsequently reelected 3 more times (in 1936, 1940, and 1944) and was president from 1933 through 1945.

After his inauguration, Roosevelt proclaimed the "New Deal" which was an attempt to overcome the depression by "controlling" private capitalist activity, to reinforce the capitalist system by strengthening state capitalism, and to stem the tide of revolutionary activities by making a few concessions to the masses. Constituting the basis of the "new Deal" were 2 laws passed in 1933, the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA) and the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA). NIRA provided for government

regulation of the industry and specified "fair competition practices" for the various industries fixing prices on goods, determining the level production, distributing markets, and setting up maximum working hours and minimum wages. The basic purpose of these "practices" was to alleviate the crisis by reducing production. The government administration set up for the implementation of NIRA included representatives of the largest monopolies. Taking charge of the implementation of the "practices," the imperialists instituted a policy of compulsory cartelization, and proceeded to cut wages. The profits of the monopolies took a big jump under the Roosevelt administration. The National Labor Relations Board set up by Roosevelt is, in effect, defending the interests of the employers. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration, established in 1933, attempted to solve the unemployment problem by sending some unemployed workers to labor camps for public works and by unemployment relief payments. But only an insignificant part of the workers were employed in public works, and only 20% of the unemployed were given some relief. At the same time the government spent about 3 billion dollars to help the banks. The law on agricultural control was to raise the prices on agricultural produce. To achieve that end, the government paid bonuses to farmers for reducing their cultivated area and herds of cattle. The AAA worked to the advantage of the biggest agricultural monopolies and marketing corporations and naturally could not stop the mass bankruptcies of the farmers. The slow upswing in industrial production that began in 1933 turned into a special kind of depression. The efforts of the Roosevelt administration to deal with the depression and forestall another one with the aid of the "New Deal" ended in failure.

The strike movement of the proletariat assumed a wider scope in 1933-1935. There were 1,695 strikes in 1933, 1,856 in 1934, and 2,014 in 1935. These strikes involved a total of 4 million workers, and affected

textile, steel making, coal, automobile, and other industries. A textile strike broke out in 1934. The San Francisco general strike of 1934, affecting the entire west coast, assumed particularly great proportions. Many of the militant activities of the working class were organized by the Communist Party which always struggled for the unity of action by the working class and farmers. The Communist Party launched an active campaign against the threat of fascism and war. The Ninth Communist Party Congress (1936) called for a united democratic front of workers, farmers, petty bourgeoisie, and the Negro people.

The Communist Party had considerable influence among the left-wing trade unions which favored the reorganization of the AFL on a productional basis. The Congress for Industrial Organization (q. v.) was organized in 1935 (up to 1938 the CIO was known as the Committee of Industrial Trade Unions). In 1936, the reactionary AFL leadership expelled the trade unions (about one million members) which joined the Committee of Industrial Trade Unions. The left-wing elements however were unable to take charge of the CIO whose leadership was captured by such right-wing trade union leaders as Lewis, Murray, Carey, etc.

Pressed by the working people, the Roosevelt government made certain concessions to the working class. The so-called Wagner Act, adopted by Congress in June 1935, proclaimed the right of workers to enter into collective agreements with employers. But this law also provided for compulsory arbitration with a view to breaking up strikes.

The monopolies considered most of the "New Deal" measures as beneficial to themselves as long as the grave and protracted depression lasted. But as soon as some measure of economic recovery became obvious, they changed their attitude to "planning" experiments and demanded their abolition. As a result of that, the Supreme Court ruled in 1935 and 1936

that the NIRA and AAA were unconstitutional, and that meant their abolition.

The foreign policy of the Roosevelt administration was carried out by methods which in many ways differed from those of the preceding administrations. On 16 November 1933, the US established diplomatic relations with the USSR. The more far-sighted American statesmen admitted that the recognition of the USSR and the development of economic ties with the USSR were in keeping with American interests. Prompted by the growing resistance of the Latin American peoples to US expansion, Roosevelt proclaimed the so-called "Good Neighbor Policy" in 1933 which in effect served as a cover for the old policy of intervention in the affairs of the Latin American countries. US reactionary circles helped General Cedilla to stage a revolt against the legitimate government of Cardenas in 1938.

In 1935 the US passed the neutrality law granting the President the right to ban shipments of arms to any country in a state of war. Declaring the legitimate Republican government of Spain to be a "belligerent country," the American government denied it the right to purchase arms in the US. At the same time the US increased its exports of strategic raw materials and armaments to Italy and Germany which were engaged in military intervention in Spain (1936-1939). Italy and Germany were not considered by the US as "belligerent parties." Thus the US used the neutrality law to support the Italo-German intervention in Spain. In March 1938 the US forbade the departure of American volunteers for Republican Spain, and in April 1939 it officially recognized the Franco government. The American progressive forces took a determined stand against the neutrality law demanding aid for the Spanish Republican government and the application of sanctions against Germany and Italy.

Many American antifascists left for Spain where they fought in international brigades.

The new world economic crisis that began in 1937 again affected the US more than the other capitalist countries. The wages received by 60% of the working families amounted to only 50% of the minimum cost of living. Unemployment relief was reduced from 278 million dollars in 1936 to 96 million in 1937 and public works were discontinued. The number of strikes in 1937 was double that of 1936 (there were 4,740 strikes involving 1.86 million people). The Communist Party fought for unity of action by the American working masses, demanded unemployment relief, and struggled against racial discrimination.

A number of reactionary organizations such as the Ku Klux Klan, the American Legion (created in 1919), etc, stepped up their activities in the US in the 1930's.

A big part in America's foreign policy in the prewar years was played by the so-called isolationists. Pretending to be against the interference in the affairs of Europe, Asia, and Africa, the isolationists, representing in those years the most reactionary circles of the American bourgeoisie, actually supported fascist aggression. The US declined to support the USSR's proposals calling for a policy of collective security, the preservation of peace, and struggle against fascist aggression. The US cooperated in the Munich agreement between England and France on the one hand and Hitlerite Germany and fascist Italy, on the other. Thus shortly before the Munich agreement (q. v.) US diplomatic representatives conducted negotiations with the representatives of the ruling circles of Hitlerite Germany, England, and France which made it clear that the US would not oppose Hitlerite aggression in the east. The American ambassador in Germany, G. Wilson, went to Prague in August 1938, to induce the

Czechoslovak government to make concessions to Hitlerite Germany. The US approved N. Chamberlain's negotiations with Hitler at Berchtesgaden and Godesberg (in September 1938). US policy, just like the policy of England and France, contributed to the unleashing of World War II of 1939-1945.

The US During World War II of 1939-1945

Formally a nonbelligerent country, the US sided with England and France from the very beginning of the war. In November 1939, Congress revised the neutrality law permitting the sale of armaments to the warring countries which meant in effect a permission to ship arms to England and France.

During the Soviet-Finnish war of 1939-1940, the US placed a "moral embargo" on the shipment of goods to the Soviet Union in 1939, and granted a 40-million dollar loan to the Finnish government. The persecution of communists and all progressive leaders was at the same time intensified within the United States. The Smith Act (q. v.) passed by Congress in 1940 was subsequently used against the progressive forces.

Preparing to enter the war after the defeat of France (in June 1940), the US embarked upon a large scale rearmament program. In September 1940 the draft law was passed. The US offered assistance to England in the fight against Germany. In the summer of 1940 it sold to England one million rifles, 84,000 machine guns and 2,500 artillery guns. The lend-lease law (q. v.) adopted in the US in March 1941 made it possible to considerably increase the shipments of ammunition and war materials (mostly to England). However, while supporting England against Germany, the US at the same time tried to take advantage of

England's difficulties and establish American control over certain English possessions and spheres of influence. Under the 1940 agreement (finally formalized as the Treaty of March 1941), the US obtained a 99-year lease from England on certain strategically important points in the Atlantic for the construction of American naval and air bases in exchange for 50 overage destroyers. Later in the course of the war the US concluded a number of other agreements with England designed to make her financially and economically dependent on the US. In July 1940 the US succeeded in having the Pan American conference adopt the so-called Havana Declaration allowing "any American country" to occupy any European possession in the Western Hemisphere if it believed that the possession may be captured by one European country from another. In April 1941 the US established its military control over Greenland and in November 1941 over Dutch Guiana.

On 22 June 1941 Hitlerite Germany treacherously invaded the Soviet Union. Repulsing the aggressor's attack, the USSR entered the war. The Great Patriotic War of the Soviet Union (1941-1945) was started. The USSR had to withstand the major blows of fascist Germany, and the Soviet-German front became the decisive front of World War II. A powerful coalition was formed, headed by the Soviet Union, the US, and Great Britain, which, uniting into a single camp, pursued the aim of defeating Hitlerite Germany. The formation of an anti-Hitler coalition was in the interests of all freedom loving people.

By that time the conflicts between the US and Germany had reached a new peak. The US clashed with Germany in the struggle for the division of spheres of influence, colonies, and raw material sources. The American capitalists were particularly alarmed by the consolidation of Germany's economic and political positions in Latin America. At the

same time the ruling circles of the US and Britain could not help taking into account the aspirations of the broad masses of the peoples of their countries to close cooperation with the Soviet Union for the successful struggle against Hitlerite Germany. On 24 June the Roosevelt government announced that the United States would support the Soviet Union. The first personal representative of the American president, H. Hopkins, arrived in Moscow on 30 July and an exchange of USSR-US notes extending the existing trade agreement for another year took place in Washington on 2 August. The Atlantic Charter, a declaration of war aims by the American and British governments, was signed on 14 August. A conference of representatives of the USSR, the US, and England adopting a decision to increase the shipments of arms, ammunition, and foodstuffs to the Soviet Union, and Soviet shipments of raw materials to England and the US, was held in Moscow 29 September to 1 October 1941.

The fighting cooperation between the USSR, the US, and England, members of the anti-Hitler coalition, which came into being despite the differences in their economic and political systems, was of enormous importance for the achievement of victory over the bloc of fascist aggressors in World War II. The anti-Hitler coalition became a powerful union of freedom-loving peoples. A sympathetic attitude toward the Soviet Union, which bore the major burden of the war against Hitlerite Germany, became widespread among the American people.

America's strained relations with the Germany were accompanied by deteriorating US-Japanese relations. On 7 December 1941, Japan attacked the American and British Pacific possessions and bases. The American bases on the Hawaiian Islands (Pearl Harbor), in the Philippines, and on Guam and Wake islands came under the attack. The American navy suffered heavy losses in the first hours of the war. On 8 December 1941

the US declared war on Japan. On 11 December 1941 Germany and Italy declared war on the US. In June 1942 the US declared war on Bulgaria, Hungary, and Rumania. Thus the US found itself in a state of war against Japan and Germany with her allies (except Finland).

A Soviet-American agreement on principles of mutual aid in the conduct of war against aggression was signed in Washington on 11 June 1942. The Anglo-Soviet communique on V. M. Molotov's visit to London and the Soviet-American communique on V. M. Molotov's trip to Washington, published in Moscow, London, and Washington on 12 June 1942, pointed out that during the negotiations " a full understanding was reached in regard to the urgent problem of second front in Europe in 1942." By the summer of 1942 there were over 4 million troops in England and Canada and more than 2 million in the US, but no second front was opened in 1942 nor in 1943.

The American and British reactionary circles were not interested in the speedy termination of the war. They wanted to see the USSR and Germany exhaust each other.

The US and Britain made a landing in North Africa in November 1942 and in Italy in 1943. On the Pacific front the US launched offensive operations against Japan in 1943.

During the war the US concentrated its armed forces in various parts of the world which were of economic, political, and military importance and important also for the expansion of America's spheres of influence. American bases were established in Canada, Iceland, Greenland, and North Africa. The second front was only opened in 1944 when it became obvious that the USSR was capable of occupying

Germany and liberating Europe from fascist oppression with its own forces. In June 1944 the Anglo-American armed forces crossed the English Channel, made a mass landing in northern France and launched an offensive against the Hitlerite troops under the supreme command of the American General D. Eisenhower. But even after the opening of the second front the major front was still the eastern, the Soviet-German front, where about 200 German divisions were concentrated (Germany kept only 75 divisions in the west). Certain American monopolies maintained connections with German monopolies during the war, and strategic goods found their way to Germany through a number of channels leading through Spain and Portugal.

The imperialist contradictions between the US and Britain remained unchanged during the war. The US took advantage of Britain's difficulties for a large scale encroachment on British positions. The US strove to weaken the British colonial empire and extend its own influence to the British colonial possessions. In exchange for American armaments, Britain was forced to yield to the US part of her capital investments in the United States, Latin American countries, and Canada. US capital investments in Canada jumped from 4.151 billion dollars in 1939 to 5.157 billion in 1947, while British capital investments were reduced from 2.476 billion dollars to 1.668 billion during the same period. There was also an increase in American political influence in Canada both during and after the war.

The US took advantage of the military situation to further its expansion in Latin America. The overwhelming major part of Latin American exports and imports fell into the hands of the American monopolies. Having forced the German and Japanese monopolies out of Latin

America, the US brought considerable pressure to bear also on its British ally (Britain's share in Latin-American imports fell from 11.7% to 3.6% between 1938 and 1944). The Rio de Janeiro conference of American foreign ministers of January 1942 set up an inter-American defense committee with headquarters in Washington and sanctioned US aid in the establishment of bases in Latin America.

In the course of the war with Hitlerite Germany, the US took part in the Teheran Conference of the chiefs of state of the 3 great powers (28 November-1 December 1943; see Teheran Conference of 1943) and in the Yalta Conference (in February 1945; see Crimean Conference of 1945). After the defeat of Hitlerite Germany which signed an unconditional surrender on 8 May 1945, the heads of the USSR, the US, and British governments met for the Berlin Conference (q. v.) in 1945, in Potsdam, near Berlin (17 July-2 August). This conference adopted concerted decisions of the 3 powers on the very important problems connected with prosecuting the war and the post war organization of the peace. The 1945 Potsdam Declaration (q. v.) of the 3 heads of government, of Britain, the US, and China, demanding the unconditional capitulation of Japan, was signed on 26 July. But that demand was declined by the Japanese government. By that time the US achieved considerable success in the Pacific war (see Pacific Campaigns of 1939-1945). Back in 1944 the US had already captured the Marshall and Marianna islands, and in 1945 the American armed forces occupied the Philippines, seized by Japan in 1942, and took possession of the Japanese island of Okinawa. Japanese military targets were subjected to increasing pounding from the air. In the course of the fighting, the US achieved superiority over Japan on the sea and in the air.

Early in August 1945 American atom bombs were dropped on Hiroshima (6 August) and Nagasaki (9 August) causing the death of many thousands of peaceful residents. The use of atomic weapons, according to many spokesmen of world public opinion, was not warranted by military necessity but primarily by political considerations.

After the entry of the USSR in the war against Japan on 8 August 1945, in accordance with previous commitments, and after the defeat of the Japanese major land forces by the Soviet Army, Japan capitulated (the capitulation act was signed on 2 September 1945).

The American capitalists, particularly the big monopolies, made enormous profits during the war. Early in the war the monopolies did not take any steps to increase war production until they made sure of favorable terms, big tax reductions and guarantees of high profits. In view of this the government built a large number of military enterprises with funds from the state budget. New enterprises and new equipment costing more than 25 billion dollars were put to work during the war. Most of them were built with government funds. These government built enterprises were placed under the management of the big monopolies, and after the war were sold to them at reduced prices. The largest war orders (up to 70%) were placed with the big monopolies. Industry became more concentrated during the war. In 1945 250 of the largest corporations owned about as many production facilities as were owned by all the corporations in 1939. The monopolies' profits rose sharply. In 1939-1945 the total net profits of the American capitalists amounted to about 60 billion dollars as against the 14 billion dollars during the prewar period of 1931-1938.

The output volume of nonagricultural products was doubled between 1939 and 1944. The industry's production capacity was increased by about

40%. In 1944 the number of unemployed was reduced to 700,000. The expansion of American production during the war was facilitated also by the fact that there were no military activities on US territory, and American cities were not bombed. But under the conditions of war, the steady marketing of goods could not be secured. Even when war production was at its peak, the industry was not working at full capacity. The highest production level was reached in 1943, after which time production began to decline. The gap between industry's production capacity and the limited purchasing power of the American working people was getting wider.

Direct and indirect taxes were rising in wartime, and inflation was on the increase. All that brought about a reduction in real wages. Collective agreements were violated by the employers.

The American people made an important contribution of the cause of the struggle by the freedom loving peoples against the fascist aggressors. Striving to help in the achievement of victory over the enemy, the US working class stepped up the output of war materiel by their hard labor. The organization of the US working class was improved during the war. The number of trade union members in 1941 was about 10 million and in 1944 more than 14 million.

The American Communist Party called upon the working people not to spare any effort toward the achievement of victory over the fascist powers. The Communist Party demanded that the government live up to its obligations in regard to a second front.

During World War II the Communist Party struggled against Browderism. E. Browder, who wormed his way to the Communist Party leadership, and his followers attempted to liquidate the Communist Party

in 1944 under the pretext of "reorganizing" it into a communist political association. The majority of the communists, headed by W. Foster and E. Dennis, remained loyal to the cause of the working class and succeeded in convening an unscheduled congress in July 1945 which adopted the decision to restore the Communist Party. Browder was expelled from the party.

At the 1944 presidential elections, F. Roosevelt was reelected for a fourth term. The majority of the people's votes for Roosevelt was to a considerable degree influenced by his stand in favor of fighting for a speedy victory over the fascist aggressors.

The US after World War II

As a result of World War II, Germany and Japan were temporarily incapacitated as competitors of the US. The US was the only capitalist country that emerged from the war with stronger economic and military positions. After the end of the war however the US had to face great difficulties. The termination of war orders brought about a slump in industrial production. Compared to 1943, industrial production in 1945 for the country as a whole dropped about 15%, the output of the processing industry about 17%, and construction was reduced by more than 66% in comparison with 1942. Due to the sharp reduction in lend-lease shipments, exports dropped to 9.8 billion dollars in 1945 as against the 14.4 billion in 1944. There was an increase in unemployment. Speculation and inflation were spreading.

Large scale strikes, particularly of steel and auto workers, took place in 1945-1946. The cooperation between white and Negro workers became closer. About 1.5 million Negro workers were organized into trade unions in the postwar years.

To keep their enormous wartime profits, the American monopolies tries to maintain a high level of production which in turn depended on the outcome in the struggle for foreign markets as well as on the domination of the world raw material markets and on increasing exports of goods and capital.

With a view to retaining high profits under conditions of falling purchasing power, the American monopolies did everything possible to force the export of goods by taking advantage of the

postwar situation in the war-devastated countries. The American capitalist succeeded in raising the production level through a number of measures. By the end of 1948 however exports went down (from 15.4 billion dollars in 1947 to 12.7 billions in 1948). Industrial production began to drop. The economic crisis that set in at the end of 1948 was halted by the growing armament race in connection with the war in Korea. The US imperialist circles began to look for a way out of the increasing difficulties by further foreign expansion which involved a reconversion of production to war purposes, an armament race, a return to the system of war orders and enormous government appropriations for the war industry. The total amount of US military expenditures in 1946-1953, including the amount spent on arming the North Atlantic bloc countries, was almost 250 billion dollars. The role of the National Association of Manufacturers in the political life of the country was still further enhanced after World War II. Assuming increasing control of the government machinery, the monopolies exercise a definite influence both on the domestic and foreign policy of the country.

President F. Roosevelt died on 12 April 1945 and was succeeded by Vice President H. Truman. The influence of the reactionary circles in the US government became stronger. After the end of World War II the US abandoned the previously agreed upon policy maintained during the war by the members of the anti-Hitler coalition, renounced cooperation with the USSR, and unleashed a "cold war" against it.

The US made an open claim to "world leadership" in the postwar period. The policy designed to establish the world domination of American monopolies and prepare for war against the countries of the

socialist camp came to be known as the policy "from a position of strength."

The US set up a large number of bases on the territories of other countries, in England, France, West Germany, and a number of other European countries, in many countries of Latin America, Asia, Oceania, and Africa. The remilitarization of West Germany by the US began immediately after the end of the war. In China the Chiang Kai-shek clique, backed by American aid, precipitated a civil war with a view to defeating the democratic forces of the country. The US built its bases in China and kept its troops on Chinese territory. The US imperialists consolidated their positions in China under cover of various unequal treaties and agreements with the Chiang Kai-shek government as, for example, the Chinese-American "Treaty of Friendship, Trade and Navigation" (1946), and the Chinese-American agreement on economic aid (in 1947). The total amount of loans and other types of material assistance offered by the US to the Chiang Kai-shek government amounted to 6 billion dollars in 1949.

In his message to congress in March 1947, Truman outlined the essentially expansionist so-called Truman Doctrine (q. v.). Systematically interfering in the affairs of the Latin American countries, the US reactionary circles contributed to the organization of coups d'etat in a number of Latin American countries (in Bolivia in 1946, in Venezuela in 1948, etc). An uprising in Puerto Rico was put down by the US in October 1950. At the Inter-American Conference of Rio de Janeiro (in September 1947) (q. v.), the US engineered the conclusion

of an inter-American treaty on mutual aid (which went into effect in 1948). The US supported the Netherlands in the war against the Indonesian people (in 1945-1946). In 1947 the US concluded a military agreement with Iran, establishing the control of American advisors over the Iranian army. The US was helping France in her war against the people of Indochina.

Repressions against the labor movement and progressive organizations were intensified within the US itself. The antilabor Taft-Hartley Law (q. v.), directed against strikes and depriving the trade unions of many of their rights, was passed by Congress in 1947. The Truman directive on the "loyalty review" of government workers was put into effect in the same year. This directive served as a pretext for the dismissal of democratic elements from US government service. The different congressional investigative committees, particularly the "Committee on Un-American Activities," extended their field of activity. The latter committee persecuted large numbers of progressive journalists, motion picture personalities (the investigation of "subversive" activities in Hollywood, begun in 1947), and trade union officials. Numerous reactionary organizations, like the Ku Klux Klan, the American Legion, etc, also stepped up their activities.

The 1948 presidential election was won by Truman, the Democratic Party candidate. The Truman government leaned on the so-called bipartisan bloc of the Democratic and Republican parties. Taking part in the election in addition to the 2 parties of monopoly capital, Democratic and Republican, was the Progressive Party created in 1948 and consisting mainly of the progressive intelligentsia and certain elements of the bourgeoisie and the farmers. The party's program

was the struggle for peace and the democratic rights of the American people.

The court trial of 11 Communist Party leaders, which were sentenced to long term imprisonment, was organized in 1949. This was followed by a number of other trials of Communist Party leaders. The persecution of all progressive leaders was stepped up. The reformist trade union leaders supported the policy of militarizing the country and the attack on the progressive forces. At their 1949 congress, the CIO leaders passed a resolution approving the entire policy of the US ruling circles. A number of progressive trade unions, numbering about one million members, were expelled from the CIO in 1949-1950. In 1949 the CIO left the World Federation of Trade Unions.

Taking advantage of the "Marshall Plan," adopted in 1948, the US strengthened its control over the economy and policies of a number of west European countries. Acting jointly with England and France, the US carried out a policy designed to deepen the split of Germany. The aggressive North Atlantic military bloc (q. v.) was created in 1949.

In June 1950 the US intervened in the Korean civil war, and followed it up by pushing through a UN resolution on the participation of UN member countries in the Korean War. However some of the capitalist states which committed themselves to help the US in Korea were compelled under pressure of public opinion to restrict themselves to a token participation in the Korean War. The war in Korea was fought mostly by the American armed forces. The US reactionary circles would not be reconciled with the failure of their plans

in China following the victory of the Chinese people's revolution (in 1949) and the rout of Chiang Kai-shek's troops. In June 1950 the American navy broke into the Chinese territorial waters at Taiwan, and later the American armed forces actually occupied Taiwan.

The Truman government proclaimed a "state of emergency" in the country in December 1950 in connection with the war in Korea. The numerical strength of the American armed forces was considerably increased. The American monopolies used the war in Korea for making enormous profits. The capitalists' profits jumped from 27.1 billion dollars in 1949 to 42.9 billion in 1951. The monopolies were again granted tax reductions with a view to expanding military production. This also brought about a 16 billion dollar increase in taxes collected from the population only a year and a half after the outbreak of the war in Korea.

The war in Korea stimulated a temporary expansion of industrial production. This was facilitated also by large scale shipments of American arms to other countries on the basis of the so-called Mutual Security Act passed by the American congress in 1951. Under that act also was the appropriation of 100 million dollars for financing subversive activities against the countries of the democratic camp.

The military draft (about one million people in 1951 alone) and the expansion of war production could not prevent the growing unemployment brought about by the curtailment of civilian production. There were at least 3 million fully unemployed workers

in the US in 1952 despite the increasing war production. There was also a large number of partially unemployed. The net income of the American farmers in 1953 was 35% below their average annual income in the 1946-1948 period.

A number of antidemocratic laws were passed in the US in the postwar period. Supplementing the antilabor Taft-Hartley Law of 1947 was the 1950 McCarran-Wood Law directed against the Communist Party and all democratic organizations. That law provided for a number of restrictive and repressive measures against the Communist Party as well as against people suspected of associating with, or being sympathetic to, communists. The McCarran-Walter Act on immigration and naturalization passed in 1952 was directed against progressive personalities, particularly the progressive elements among the immigrants.

The policy of segregation and racial discrimination against Negroes was continued. A number of court trials of Negroes were held. Thus at the Martinsville trial of 1949, 7 Negroes were falsely accused of raping a white woman, sentenced to death, and were executed in February 1951.

American progressive forces, primarily the working class, rose to the defense of their rights. In 1950 there were 4,843 strikes involving a total of 2.81 million people. In 1951, 2.22 million people participated in 4,737 strikes. And in 1952 the number of strikes rose to 5,117 and the number of people involved 3.54 million. The peace congress of educators was held in New York in March 1949. By 1 November 1950, 2 million Americans signed the Stockholm appeal to ban atomic weapons. A movement under the slogan "Hands Off Korea!" got underway in the US during the Korean war.

New organizations of peace partisans came into being, including the Peace Partisans Information Center (created in 1950), The National Committee of the American Trade Union Peace Conference, the "American Crusaders for Peace," etc. Coming out in defense of peace were a number of farmers' organizations (the farmers' congresses in Iowa in 1951, in Pennsylvania, New York, etc). Five thousand delegates attended the National Peace Congress held in Chicago in the summer of 1951. The congress elected a national committee to guide the peace movement. The Negro people took an active part in the struggle for peace. The American Quakers also came out in defense of peace. The peace movement in the US however was still weaker than in many other countries.

In 1951 the US severed the existing American-Soviet trade relations by an unilateral act. This was followed by Congress passing the so-called Battle Act designed to make all countries receiving American aid break their trade relations with the USSR, the Chinese People's Republic, and the European countries of the people's democracy.

When signing the separate peace treaty with Japan in September 1951 (see San Francisco Conference of 1951) the US also concluded a military treaty with Japan (a so-called security treaty), according to which the US obtained the right to keep its armed forces in or near Japan for an indefinite period of time. An US-Philippine "mutual defense" treaty was signed as early as August 1951. In September 1953 the US concluded an agreement with Spain on the establishment of American military bases on Spanish territory. An American-Japanese agreement "on aid and

"mutual defense" was concluded in March 1954. The penetration of American monopolies into the colonies and "spheres of influence" of the west European countries assumed larger proportions. To penetrate into the colonial and dependent countries, the American monopolies are making wide use of the agreements signed in accordance with the so-called Truman's point-four program . program proclaimed in 1949. US interference in the affairs of the Latin American countries was stepped up in the postwar period. In 1952 the American reactionary circles helped engineer a military coup d'etat in Cuba.

US expansionist policy led to greater contradictions among the imperialist countries, particularly between the US and England. The Anglo-American struggle for influence in the British colonies and dominions became intensified. The US maintains its military bases and troops in Canada. In September 1951 the US concluded a "mutual defense" treaty with Australia and New Zealand (without the participation of England). American capital is gaining a firmer footing in French, Belgian, and Portuguese colonial possessions. A more intensive penetration into the countries of Southeast Asia has been noted in the postwar years.

The US is encroaching on England's remaining positions in Latin America. The American monopolies took advantage of the International Oil Consortium of 1954 to seize the major part of the Iranian oil that previously belonged to British capital. The contradictions between the US and the other capitalist countries became still more pronounced in view of the growing competition on the part of West Germany and Japan (in Latin America and other areas).

At the 1952 presidential elections, the Progressive Party nominated V. Hollinen as its candidate for the presidency. He was supported by the Communist Party and the other American progressive organizations. Stevenson was nominated by the Democratic Party, and the Republican Party nominated General D. Eisenhower who was supported by the majority of the largest American monopolies. Eisenhower, who promised during the election campaign to put an end to the war in Korea, was elected president. The representatives of the biggest monopolies occupied the most important government posts. In 1953-1954, the Eighty-third Congress passed a number of laws transferring to the monopolies a considerable number of enterprises built on government funds. Under the Tidelands Law (signed in May 1953), the oil deposits of 4 coastal states were turned over to those states which meant in effect the transfer of those oil deposits to the big oil companies. The excess profits taxes were abolished.

The American troops in Korea suffered defeats. The Korean people's army and the Chinese people's volunteers halted the offensive launched by the troops of the United States and the other countries participating in the Korean war, inflicting heavy losses on them. World public opinion demanded an end to the war in Korea.

In July 1953 the US agreed to conclude a truce in Korea. But in October 1953 the US signed a so-called mutual defense treaty with South Korea providing for the maintenance of American armed force in South Korea. The state of emergency proclaimed by the Truman government was not lifted in the US despite the cessation of military activities.

In February 1953 13 prominent leaders of the Communist Party were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment. In August 1954 the President signed the so-called 1954 law approved by Congress on the control of communist activities, known also as the Humphrey-Butler or the Brownell-Butler law. This law is in effect designed to ban the activities of the Communist Party and is against the trade unions. The Progressive Party and many other progressive organizations (totaling over 250) were placed on a list of "subversives." There are still instances of retaliations against Negroes. The murder of a Negro boy, E. Till, by racists in Mississippi, the subsequent exoneration of the murderers (in 1955), as well as other acts of violence precipitated by racists gave rise to a protest movement in the country. The movement is headed by the NAACP which is heavily supported by trade unions. Many trade unions organized meetings demanding an end to racial discrimination and repressions against Negroes.

At the congressional elections in 1954 the Republican Party suffered a defeat. The Democratic Party gained a majority of seats (though an insignificant one) in Congress.

In the middle of 1953 production in the US took a downward course which lasted until the autumn of 1954. The index of industrial production between July 1953 and March-April 1954 showed a 10% drop. By the end of 1954 the number of totally unemployed was 3.23 million even according to official figures. There was spurt of production at the end of 1954, with war production accounting for 25% of the entire output of American industry.

The strike movement after World War II is characterized by the following figures. There was a total of 43,700 strikes in the US between 1945 and 1954, involving 27.3 million people, as compared with the 20,000 strikes affecting 9 million people during the period of 1930-1939. In 1953 there were 5,091 strikes involving 2.4 million people, according to final figures. Preliminary figures showed 3,468 strikes affecting 1.53 million workers in 1954. In the Detroit strikes of electrical workers and radio mechanics in 1954 the police made use of their clubs and tear gas bombs. Strikes broke out in the automobile, steel, and mining industries in 1955. The workers of General Motors, Chrysler Corporation, Ford Motor Corporation, United States Steel Corporation, etc were on strike. The total number of strikes in 1955, according to preliminary figures, was 4,200 and the number of workers involved 2.75 million. According to official figures, there were about 3 million totally unemployed and 9 million partially employed in the US in 1955.

The joint congress of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organization, held in 1955 as a result of their merger, created a single trade union organization known as the AFL-CIO. The leadership of that organization remained in the hands of right wing trade union officials.

A conference of foreign minister of the 4 powers, (q. v.) called on the initiative of the Soviet Union, was held in Berlin in January-February 1954. The US rejected the USSR's proposal designed to solve the German problem in a democratic spirit and opposed the Soviet Union's proposal to create a European system

of collective security. But the Berlin conference reached an agreement to call a foreign ministers conference at Geneva of the following 5 great powers: the USSR, US, France, Great Britain, and the Chinese People's Republic. The Geneva conference of foreign ministers (q. v.) successfully solved the problem of restoring peace in Indochina. Although the position taken by certain delegations, first of all by the US delegation, prevented an agreement on a final peaceful settlement in Korea, the Geneva Conference played a positive part and contributed to the reduction of international tension.

However, soon after the end of the Geneva Conference in 1954, another conference was held in Manila in September of the same year on the initiative of the US, England, and France. This conference resulted in the signing of a treaty on the "defense of Southeast Asia" and the creation of an aggressive military bloc in Southeast Asia and the Pacific, the so-called SEATO (see Agreement in Manila). In December 1954 the US concluded a "mutual security" treaty with the Chiang Kai-shek clique under the terms of which the actual United States occupation of Taiwan and islands was extended for an indefinite period of time. In January 1955 Congress granted the President the power to use American armed forces against the Chinese People's Republic in the event of an armed conflict in the Taiwan Strait area.

In June 1954 the American reactionary circles, making use of mercenary troops, organized an armed intervention in Guatemala whose government had begun to implement agrarian reforms and an independent policy. This intervention resulted in the overthrow of the legitimate government of Guatemala. The expansion of the US

monopolies spurred a growing resistance of the masses of the people as well as resentment on the part of the Latin American national bourgeoisie. The struggle in Latin America for the nationalization of the natural resources, plundered by the North American monopolies, is assuming greater proportions. Despite US resistance the Pan American Conference held in Caracas in 1954 adopted resolutions on agrarian reforms and other measures directed primarily against US expansion in Latin America.

Acting jointly with England in October 1954 the US succeeded in concluding the Paris military agreements designed primarily to speed up the revival of German militarism and the inclusion of the Federal Republic of Germany in the Western Powers' military blocs. A treaty of friendship, trade, and navigation was signed between the US and the Federal Republic in October 1954. The Federal Republic joined the West European Union and was admitted as a member of the North Atlantic Union. In December 1954 the Council of the North Atlantic Bloc adopted a decision to prepare for an atomic war.

The "cold war" and armament race stimulated the growing resistance of the people of the whole world. The desire to reduce tension in international relations became stronger among large sections of the American people.

Appeals to the American government to enter into negotiations with the USSR have been made, since the beginning of 1955, by church organizations, pacifist groups, trade union, farmers; and youth organizations, teachers' organizations, Negro, women's and other organizations, as well as by individual Americans. Favoring negotiations were also certain representatives of US business and

and political circles. The president of the National Steel Corporation, E. Weir, stated in May 1955 that "if the threat of war is eliminated, it will be possible to turn Russian-American hostility into a peaceful competition between 2 entirely different political and social systems" (quoted from the St. Louis Post Dispatch of 25 May 1955). In July 1955, 29 Democratic congressmen came out in favor of negotiations between the great powers. A similar message was addressed to President Eisenhower at the same time by 10 Republican and Democratic congressmen. Prompted by the spreading peace movement in all countries, including the US, the United States participated in a number of international actions (in 1955) which contributed to the reduction of international tension.

Following the establishment of a basis for the solution of the Austrian problem, as a result of the negotiations between the USSR and Austrian government delegations, the US, among other powers, signed the state treaty on the restoration of an independent, democratic Austria in May 1955.

A US government delegation, headed by President Eisenhower, took part in the conference of the heads of government of the 4 powers, the USSR, US, England, and France, at Geneva in July 1955. That conference had a beneficial effect on the reduction of tension in international relations (see Conference of 4 Heads of Government at Geneva in 1955). American public opinion was favorable toward the visit of Soviet delegations in 1955 and the trips of American delegations to the USSR. The "Geneva spirit," and the desire for a further reduction of international tension were supported by large sections of the American people. Taking a stand in favor of negotiations

among states and the cessation of the "cold war" were the following conferences held in the wake of the Geneva 4-power conference: the conference of the independent trade union of the electrical and radio industry workers, the annual AFL conference of Illinois, the AFL trade union congress of California, the AFL garment workers, CIO electrical workers, etc. The National Farmers Union, the CIO executive committee, the national Council of Christian Churches, and other organizations also came out in support of negotiations. But at the same time influential US circles continued a policy directed against international cooperation. The effort to induce the Near and Middle East countries to join the Anglo-American controlled military blocs, particularly the Baghdad Pact, directed against the Soviet Union and the other peace-loving countries, begun in 1954, was continued even after the Geneva Conference of the 4 heads of government.

At the 4-power foreign ministers conference held at Geneva between 27 October and 16 November 1955, the US, England, and France took a position which hampered the conclusion of an agreement on a number of very important international problems. The conference however helped to focus popular attention on the most vital international problems and elucidate both the difficulties and possibilities in the way of a successful solution of international problems (see 4-Power Foreign Ministers Conference at Geneva in 1955).

After the conference, certain influential US circles were still striving to implement a policy "from positions of strength," to continue the "cold war." At the same time a number of prominent statesmen favor peaceful cooperation between the East and West.

Thus in February 1956, about 100 prominent American scientists, church, political, and trade unions leaders called upon the members of Congress to "accept the challenge of peaceful competition" and eliminate the obstacles on the way to the development of trade and exchange of delegations between capitalist and socialist countries.

The broad masses of the American people who, like the peoples of the other countries, strive for a stable peace and a reduction of international tension, are displaying increasing activity in favor of the peaceful coexistence of countries with different socioeconomic systems.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Marx, K., "The American Problem in England," Marx, K. and Engels, F., Sochineniya [Works], Vol 12, Part 2, Moscow, 1934; Marx, K., "The Civil War in North America," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "The Civil War in the United States," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "America -- Fremont's Suspension and Crime," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "American Affairs," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "Apropos a Critique of the Situation in America," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "Abolitionist Demonstrations in America," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "On the Situation in America," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "The Removal of McClellan," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "English Neutrality -- on the Situation in the Southern States," *ibid.*, Marx, K., "To the President of the United States Abraham Lincoln," *ibid.*, Vol 13, Part 1, Moscow, 1936; "The Appeal of the International Brotherhood of Workers to President Johnson," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "An Appeal to the National Labor Union of the United States," *ibid.*; Marx, K., "The Resolutions of the General International Brotherhood of Workers on the Split in the US

Federation Adopted at the Conferences of 5 and 12 March 1872," *ibid.*,

- Vol 13, Part 2, Moscow, 1940; Marx, K. and Engels, F., "The US Budget and the Christian-German Budget," Marx, K. and Engels, F., *Sochineniya*, Vol 7, pages 131-134, Moscow-Leningrad, 1930; Marx, K. and Engels, F., "The Civil War in America," *ibid.*, Vol 12, Part 2, Moscow, 1934; Marx, K. and Engels, F., "The Situation on the American War Theater," *ibid.*; Marx, K. and Engels, F., *Izbranniye Pisma* [Selected Works], Moscow, 1953 (see subject index); Engels, F., "The Lessons of the American War," Marx, K. and Engels, F., *Sochineniya* Vol 12, Part 2, Moscow, 1934; Engels, F., "On the Concentration of Capital in the United States," *ibid.*, Vol 15, Moscow, 1935; Engels, F., "Protectionism and Freedom of Trade," *ibid.*, Vol 16, Part 1, Moscow, 1937 (pages 314-317 and 323-325); Engels, F., "The Situation of the Working Class in England, A Foreword to the American Edition," Marx, K. and Engels, F., *Ob Anglii* [On England], Moscow, 1952; Engels, F., "Introduction (to Karl Marx's work, 'The Civil War in France')," Marx, K. and Engels, F., *Sochineniya*, Vol 1, Moscow, 1952 (page 443); Marx, K. and Engels, F., *Letters to Americans, 1848-1895*, New York, 1953;

Lenin, V. I., *Sochineniya*, fourth edition, Vol 8, "Marx on the American Land Reallotment;" Vol 12, "Foreword to the Russian Translation of the Book *Pis'ma I. F. Bekkera, I. Ditsgena, F. Engel'sa, K. Marksa, i dr. k F. A. Zorge i dr* [Letters from I. F. Bekker, I. Ditsgen, F. Engels, K. Marx, and Others to F. A. Sorge and Others];" Vol 13, *Agrarnaya Programma Sotsial-Demokratii v Pervoi Russkoi Revolutsii*, [The Agrarian Program of Social Democracy in the First Russian Revolution of 1905-1907]; Vol 15, *Goryuchiy Material v Mirovoi Politike* [Fuel in World Politics]; Vol 18,

"Achievement of American Workers," "Results and Significance of the Presidential Elections in America," "Russians and Negroes," "'Scientific' Sweat Shop System"; Vol 19, "Capitalism and Taxes," "Capitalism and the Immigration of Workers;" Vol 20, "4,000 Rubles a Year and a 6-Hour Workday," "The Taylor System," "The Enslavement of Man by Machine;" Vol 22, "New Data on the Laws of Development of Capitalism in Agriculture. First Issue. Capitalism in US Agriculture," "Imperialism as the Highest Stage of Capitalism;" Vol 23, "A Caricature on Marxism and 'Imperialist Economism,'" pages 32, 34-35, "Imperialism and the Split of Socialism," "Bourgeois and Socialist Pacifism," "Statistics and Sociology;" Vol 24, "War and Revolution," pages 366 and 381; Vol 25, "The Threatening Catastrophe and How to Cope with It," pages 308-309, "The State and Revolution," page 387; Vol 27, "Foreign Policy Report at the Joint Conference of the All-Union Central Executive and the Moscow Soviet of 14 May 1918," pages 331-332; Vol 28, Pismo k Amerikanskim Rabochim, Perviy Kongress Kommunisticheskogo Internatsionala 2-6 Marta, 1919 goda -- Tezisy i Doklad o Burjuaznoi i Diktature Proletariata 4 Marta, stranitsy 438-439 [A letter to the American Workers, The First Congress of the Communist International of 2-6 March, 1919 -- Theses and a Report on Bourgeois Democracy and the Dictatorship of the Proletariat, 4 March, pages 438-439; Vol 29 O Gosudarstve [On the State], "A Lecture at the Sverdlov University on 11 July 1919, pages 447-450," "Answers to an American Journalist's Questions;" Vol 30, "Report to the All-Union Congress of Communist Organizations of the Peoples of the East, 22 November 1919," "Replies to Questions by an American Correspondent of the New York Evening Journal;" Vol 31, "'Leftism', and Infantile Disease of Communism," pages 71, 78-79, 80, "Speech at a Meeting of the Aktiv of the Moscow Organization of the Russian Communist Party (bolsheviks) On

6 December 1920;" Ibid; "After the US Elections," Kommunist No 6,
1954; Ibid.: Userdie ne po Razumu [Zeal Without Intelligence];
V Amerike [In America]

Stalin, J. V., Sochineniya, Vol 3 Protiv Federalizma; Amerikanskiye
Milliardery [Against Federalism; American Billionaires],
Vol 10 Beseda s Pervoi Amerikanskoi Rabochei Delegatsiei 9
Sentiabrya 1927 goda [A Talk with the First American
Workers' Delegation on 9 September 1927]

Dennis, E., Articles and Speeches (1947-1951), translated from
English, Moscow, 1952

Foster, W., "The Decline of American Capitalism," translated from
English, Moscow, 1951; Ibid.: "An Outline of American Political
History," translated from English, Moscow, 1953; Ibid.: "The
Negro People in American History," translated from English,
Moscow, 1955; Ibid.: "American Trade Unionism. Principles
and Organization. Strategy and Tactics," New York, 1947;
Ibid.: "The History of the Communist Party of the United
States," New York, 1952

Documentary Materials

American State Papers, Vols 1-38, Washington, 1832-1864; Annals of
Congress Debates and Proceedings... compiled by J. Gales,
Vol 1-42 (1789-1824), Washington, 1834 -- United States.
Congress. The Congressional Globe, containing debates and
proceedings, Washington, 1833-1873; United States. Congress.
Congressional Record, Vol 1-86, Washington, 1873 (publica-
tion continuing)

- A Compilation of Messages and Paper of the Presidents, 1789-1897,
Vol 1-10, edited by Y. D. Richardson, Washington, 1896-1899
- Treaties, Conventions, International Acts, Protocols, and Agreements
Between the United States and Other Powers, Vols 1-4,
Washington, 1910-1938
- Treaties, and other International Acts, of the United States of
America, edited by H. Miller, Vols 1-68, Washington, 1931-1948
- Documents of American History, edited by H. Commager, fourth edi-
tion, New York, 1948
- Documentary History of American Industrial Society, edited by J. R.
Commons, a. o., Vols 1-10, Cleveland, 1910
- Hamilton, A., Madison, J., Jay, J., The Federalist of the New
Constitution Paper, New York, 1945
- United States Department of State. Papers Relating to the Foreign
Relations of the United States, 1861-1938, Washington, 1862-
1955 (publication continuing)
- The Debate of the American Revolution, 1761-1783, edited by M. Beloff,
London, 1949
- Paine, T., The Complete Writings, Vols 1-2, New York, 1945
- Jafferson, T., The Writings, edited by A. A. Lipscomb and A. E.
Bergh, Vols 1-20, Washington, 1903-1904
- Franklin, B., The Complete Works, Vols 1-10, New York-London,
1887-1888
- Washington, G., The Writings, Vol 1-39, Washington, (1939-1944)

Lincoln, A. The Writings, Vol 1-18, New York-London, 1905-1906

Douglass, Fr., Life and Writings, by Ph. S. Foner, Vols 1-4,
New York, 1950-1955

Debs, E. V., Speeches with a Critical Introduction, New York
(1928)

Colonel House's Papers, translated from English, Vols 1-4,
Moscow, 1937-1944

A Documentary History of the Negro People in the United States,
edited by H. Aptheker, New York, 1951

General Works and Monographs

Yefimov, A., K Istorii Kapitalizma v SSHA [On the History
of Capitalism in the USA], Moscow, 1934; *ibid.*: Ocherki
Istorii SSHA. Ot Otkrytiya Ameriki do Okonchaniya
Grazhdanskoi Voyny [Essays on US History, From the Dis-
covery of America to the End of the Civil War], Moscow, 1955

Zaslavskiy, D. O., Ocherki Istorii Severo-Amerikanskikh Soyedinennykh
Shtatov XVIII i XIX Vekov [An Outline of US History of the
Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries], Moscow, 1931

Barral-Monferra, Ot Monro do Ruzvelta [From Monroe to Roosevelt],
1823-1905, Moscow-Leningrad, 1925

Bogar, T. L. Ekonomicheskaya Istoriya Soyedinennykh Shtatov [Economic
History of the United States] Moscow, 1927

Perlo, V., "American Imperialism," translated from English, Moscow,
1951

Rochester, A., "American Capitalism," translated from English, 1607-
1800, Moscow, 1950

Simons, A. M., *Klassovaya Bor'ba v Amerike [The Class Struggle in America]*, second edition, Leningrad, 1925

Andrews, V., "The History of the United States After the War of the States," 1861-1862, translated from English, St. Petersburg, 1905

Harvard Guide to American History, Cambridge (Massachusetts), Vols 1-10, Boston, 1834-1875

Faulkner, H. U., "American Economic History," New York-London, (1926)

Hildreth, R., "The History of the United States of America," Vols 1-6, New York, 1880

Kirkland, E. C., "A History of American Economic Life," New York, 1932

Adams, H., "History of the United States of America," Vols 1-9, New York, 1931

McMaster, J. B., "A History of the People of the United States from the Revolution to the Civil War," Vols 1-8, New York-London, 1917-1921

Beard, Ch., "Contemporary American History," 1877-1913, New York, 1914

Channing, E., "A History of the United States," Vols 1-6 and (7), New York, 1927-1932

"The American Nation. A History from Original Sources," edited by A. B. Hart, Vols 1-28, New York-London, 1904-(1935)

Lewis, E. R., "A History of American Political Thought from the Civil War to the World War," New York, 1937

Latana, J. H., Wainhouse, D. W., "A History of American Foreign Policy," 1776-1940, New York, 1941

Lippincott, I., "Economic Development of the United States," third edition, New York-London, (1933)

Parkes, H. B., "The United States of America, A History," New York, 1954

Rhodes, J. F., "History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850 to the End of the Roosevelt Administration," new edition, Vols 1-9, New York, 1928

Simons, A. M., "Social Forces in American History," New York, 1926

Schlesinger, A. M., "Political and Social Growth of the American People," 1865-1940, third edition, New York, 1941

Rochester, A., "The Populist Movement in the United States," New York, 1943

Malkin, M. M., Grazhdanskaya Voina v SShA i Tsarskaya Rossiya [The Civil War in the US and Tsarist Russia], edited and with an introduction by E. V. Tarle, Moscow-Leningrad, 1939

Dobrov, A., Dal'nevostochnaya Politika SShA v Period Russko-Yaponskoy Voiny [US Far Eastern Policy During the Russo-Japanese War], Moscow, 1952

Romanov, B. A., Ocherki Diplomaticheskoi Istorii Russko-Yaponskoy Voiny [An Outline of the Diplomatic History of the Russo-Japanese War] 1895-1907, second edition, Moscow-Leningrad, 1955

Zubok, L. I., *Imperialisticheskaya Voina SSHA v Stranakh Karaibskogo Basseina [US Imperialist Wars in the Caribbeans], 1900-1939, Moscow-Leningrad, 1948*

Berezkin, A. V., *SSHA - Aktivniy Organizator i Uchastnik Voennoi Interventsii Protiv Sovetskoy Rossii [The US, An Active Organizer and Participant of the Military Intervention Against Soviet Russia], second edition, Moscow, 1952*

Sevostyanov, G. N., *Aktivnaya Rol' SSHA v Obrazovinii Ochaga Voyny na Dalnem Vostoke (1931-1933) [The Active Part of the US in Creating a Hotbed of War in the Far East, Moscow, 1953*

Lemin, I. M., *Anglo-Amerikanskie Protivorechia Posle Vtoroi Mirovoi Voyny [Anglo-American Contradictions after the Second World War], Moscow, 1955*

A Russian translation of F. Sorge's "The Labor Movement in the US," St. Petersburg, 1907

Bimba, E., *Istoriya Amerikanskogo Rabocheho Klassa [A History of the American Working Class], Moscow, 1930*

Foner, F., *Istoriya Rabocheho Dvizhenia v SSHA ot Kolonialnykh Vremen do 80 godov XIX Veka [A History of the US Labor Movement from Colonial Times to the Eighties of the Nineteenth Century], Moscow, 1949*

Kuchinskiy, U., *Istoriya Usloviy Truda v SSHA s 1789 po 1947 god [A History of Labor Conditions in the US from 1789 through 1947], Moscow 1948*

- Ieln, C., *Iz Istorii Zabastovochnogo Dvizhenia v SSHA* [From the History of the Strike Movement in the US], Moscow, 1950
- Rochester, A., *Pochemu Bedny Farmer? Agrarniy Krizis v Soyedinennykh Shtatakh Ameriki* [Why Are the Farmers Poor? The Agrarian Crisis in the US], Moscow, 1949
- Draper, D. V., *Istoriya Severo-Amerikanskoy Mezhdousobnoy Voiny* [The History of the North American War of States]. "The Nature and Life of America and Its Attitude Towards the Origin of the War," St. Petersburg, 1871
- Meyers, G., *Istoriya Amerikanskikh Milliarderov* [The History of the American Billionaires], Vols 1-2, Moscow, 1924-1927
- Kimpen, A., *Imperialisticheskaya Politika Severo-Amerikanskikh Soyedinennykh Shtatov* [The Imperialist Policy of the United States of North America], Moscow, 1925
- Nearing, S. and Freeman E., *Dollar Diplomacy*, London, 1926
- Sayres, M. and Kahn, A., *The Secret War Against America*, Moscow, 1947; Kahn, A. "The Betrayal of the Country," "The Plot Against the People," second edition, Moscow, 1951
- Allen, D., *Atomic Imperialism*, Moscow, 1952
- Mayer, G. D., *Neizbezhna li Gibel' Ameriki? [Is America's Downfall Inevitable?]*, Moscow, 1950
- "The US Progressive Forces in the Struggle for Peace and Democracy," *Sbornik Materialov pod Redaktsiei i so Vstupitelnoi Statiei N. Vasilieva* [A Collection of Materials Edited, and with an Introductory Article by N. Vasiliyev], Moscow, 1953

- Marion, D., The Trial in Foley Square, Moscow, 1950
- Haywood, G., The Emancipation of Negroes, Moscow, 1950
- Liu Ta-Nian, Istoriya Amerikanskoi Agressii v Kitaya [The History of American Aggression in China], Moscow, 1953
- Nataryan, D., Amerikanskaya Ten'Nad Indiei [The American Shadow Over India], Moscow, 1953
- Apteker, H., Laureaty Imperializma [Prize Winners of Imperialism], Moscow, 1955
- Andrews, Ch., "The Colonial Period of American History," Vols 1-4, New Haven-London, 1939-1948
- Haroy, J., The First American Revolution, New York, (1937)
- Rippy, J. F., Rivalry of the United States and Great Britain over Latin America (1808-1830), Baltimore, 1929
- Whitman, A., Labor Parties, 1827-1934, New York, 1943
- Schlesinger, A. M., The Age of Jackson, (reprint), Boston, 1946
- Schluter, H., Lincoln, Labor, and Slavery, New York 1914
- Allen, J. S., Reconstruction. The Battle for Democracy (1865-1876), New York, 1937
- Milton, J. F., Conflict. The American Civil War, New York, (1941)
- O'Neal, J., The Workers in American History, fourth edition, (New York), 1921

- Obermann, K., *Joseph Weydemeyer: Pioneer of American Socialism*,
New York, 1947
- Todes, Ch., *William H. Sylvis and the National Labor Union*, New
York, 1942
- Hicks, J. D., *The Populist Revolt. A History of the Farmers'
Alliance and the People's Party*, Minneapolis, 1931
- Hisseltine, W. B., *History of the South, (1607-1936)*, New York,
1936
- Clark, D. E., *The West in American History*, New York, 1937
- Turner, F. J., *The Frontier in American History*, New York, (1931)
- Du Bois, W. E. B., *Black Folk. Then and Now, An Essay on the
History and Sociology of the Negro Race*, New York, 1939; *ibid.*,
*Black Reconstruction, An Essay on the History of the Part
Which Black Folk Played in the Attempt to Reconstruct
Democracy in America (1860-1880)*, New York, (1935)
- Aptheker, H., *Essays on the History of the American Negro*, New York,
(1945); *ibid.*, *American Negro Slave Revolts*, New York, (1944);
ibid., *The Labor Movement in the South during Slavery*, New
York, 1954
- Rochester, A., *Rulers of America. A Study of Financial Capital*,
New York, 1936

VI. GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE

The US is a bourgeois republic. The existing US Constitution was adopted in 1787 and put into force in 1789. It was subsequently supplemented by 22 amendments. An amendment to the Constitution is adopted by a 2/3 vote of both chambers of Congress, and must be ratified by the legislatures or conventions of 3/4 of the states. According to the Constitution the US is a federation consisting of 48 states. The Constitution placed a limited number of questions under the jurisdiction of the federal government, including foreign relations, questions of war and peace, foreign trade and interstate commerce, naturalization laws, the mint, post office, etc. In reality however the federal government's field of activity covers any problem of political economy, labor legislation, etc. Retaining its federative structure, the US is actually a unitary state. The highest federal legislative body is the Congress which consists of 2 chambers, the House of Representatives (435 members) and the Senate (96 Senators, 2 from each state). The Senate is the second chamber and has a higher age qualification for its members (minimum age for representatives is 25 years and for senators 30 years), a longer term of office (2 and 6 years, respectively), and requires longer residence in the state (7 and 9 years, respectively). One-third of the Senate is elected every 2 years. The right to vote is granted to every US citizen (including women since 1940) 21 years old (18 years in Georgia) with specified lengths of residence in each state and election district (ranging from 6 months to 2 years in different states). Citizens failing to register lose the right to participate in the elections. Many states have additional restrictive requirements which keep considerable numbers of working

people out of the elections (22 states require a literacy test, 6 states have a poll tax; deprived of voting rights also are people living on public relief funds, etc). All these requirements keep a considerable number of people out of the elections. Almost 40% of the voters who did not participate in the 1952 elections had been disqualified "because" they had failed to pay the poll tax, violated the residence requirements, or failed to register. Elections to both chambers of Congress are direct. The system of representation is based on the majority rule (q. v.). Under the constitution, both chambers of Congress enjoy equal rights in the legislative field. The Senate however has a number of additional and quite important rights. It ratifies international treaties (by a 2/3 majority), and approves presidential appointees to cabinet posts, ambassadors, judges, and numerous other officials of the federal apparatus. The right to declare war belongs to Congress. An important part is played by the standing committees (19 committees in the House and 15 in the Senate; there are also joint House-Senate committees), which have the power to conduct various investigations with a view to gathering information.

The executive power is held by the president. The president must be American-born, not younger than 35 years and must have resided in the states not less than 14 years. The president is elected for a 4-year term under a 2-stage election system. According to an amendment to the constitution adopted in 1951, he can be reelected for another 4-year term if before his first election to the presidency he had not discharged the duties

of president for over 2 years due to his election as vice president. The voters of each state select a number of electors, equal to the number of the representatives and senators from that particular state, who in turn elect the president. The voters as a rule are actually able to make their choice between only 2 candidates nominated several months before the elections at the national conventions of the 2 major bourgeois parties by voting for the list of electors made up in each state by one or the other party. These electors are obligated to vote for the official candidate of their party. Since in each state the list of electors, which are elected by a majority vote without any reference to the minority vote, is considered as a single unit, the number of electors of each party does not necessarily correspond to the number of votes cast throughout the country for the particular candidate of a party. Thus in 1952, the 34 million votes cast for the republican candidate were represented by 442 electors, while the 27 million democratic votes were represented by only 89 electors. In the event that neither of the candidates gets an absolute majority of the electors' votes, the House of Representatives elects a president from among the 3 candidates with the largest number of votes. In that case each state representation has only one vote. The same system of election is used also in the case of the vice president who acts for the president, in the event of the latter's demise, until the next elections, in case the president is impeached (q. v.) by Congress, or resigns or proves incapable of discharging his duties. The US vice president presides over the Senate sessions. The president's powers are very broad. He appoints and dismisses cabinet members who are responsible to him alone, as well as chairmen and members of numerous federal committees, commissions, and boards. The Senate's

right to approve such appointments is in the vast majority of cases only a formal one. The president is the commander in chief of all the armed forces and can in effect take military action without a formal declaration of war by Congress (as, for example, in Korea in 1950-1953). He can enter into agreements with foreign states which, unlike treaties, do not require Senate approval. Though not formally vested with legislative power, the President exerts enormous influence on congressional legislative activities. He has the right of veto. A bill passed by Congress may be returned to it for reconsideration within 10 days. To override a presidential veto during a second consideration of a bill, Congress has to get a 2/3 majority in both chambers. Such a majority cannot as a rule be mustered, and the president's veto becomes final. In case the president does not return a bill to Congress within 10 days, it is considered vetoed ("pocket veto"). The president may call Congress into special session, issue directives, and send messages to Congress recommending to adoption of certain legislative measures on any question, etc. The president carries out legislative initiative on a large scale through his messages and the introduction of bills by individual members of congress. Another strong weapon in the hands of the president is the "patronage" right, that is the appointment of federal officials in Washington and elsewhere, which enables him to exert influence on the members of Congress. The US government, the cabinet, includes the following ministries or departments: the Department of State (whose major function is foreign affairs, and it is headed by the Secretary of State), the Defense Department, the Treasury, Post Office, Justice Department, the Departments of Agriculture, Interior, Commerce, and the Health, Education, and Welfare

Department. The departments of the Army, Navy, and Airforce are subordinated to the Defense Department, and their heads are not included in the cabinet. The cabinet usually considers the questions submitted by the president. The latter has a right to make any decision regardless of the opinions of his cabinet members and even without consulting them beforehand. Thus the US cabinet is in effect an advisory body under the president.

Judiciary power in the US is vested in the federal Supreme Court, federal courts, district courts, and courts of appeals, and certain special courts. All the judges and presiding judges are appointed by the president with the approval of the Senate. The Supreme Court consists of a chief justice and 8 associate justices. In the US there is judicial control over constitutional matters which means that the Supreme Court may rule that any federal or state law is unconstitutional and thereby make it invalid.

The Bill of Rights (the first 10 amendments to the constitution adopted in 1791) and certain other constitutional amendments adopted later formally consolidate a number of bourgeois-democratic rights and freedoms including freedom of speech, of the press, personal freedom, etc. In reality however these freedoms declared by the constitution are curtailed by federal and state legislation, as for example, the McCarran "internal security" law (1950) which requires the registration of leaders and members of progressive organizations, prohibits their employment in defense enterprises, and may have them interned in concentration camps by administrative decree should the President declare a state of emergency. In a number of states Negro segregation (q. v.) is

enforced through legislation which deprives the Negroes of political and civil rights. Intermarriage between Negroes and whites is forbidden under penalty. There is no federal law prohibiting the lynching of Negroes. The McCarran-Walter Act (1952) practically reduces the noncitizens in America (about 3 million persons) to a rightless state and compels them to register annually with the Department of Justice.

The structure of the state governments is determined by their constitutions. All states have their elected legislatures (an unicameral legislature in Nebraska, and 2 chambers in the other 47 states). In many states the membership of the legislature is not proportional to the population. Executive power is vested in the governor who is elected for varying terms (from 2 to 4 years). The secretaries (of different titles), heads of committees and boards, and members of the state courts of various levels are either appointed by the governor or (more frequently) elected by the people or legislative organs. Local government is controlled by state legislation. In the overwhelming majority of the states, the administrative territorial unit is the county which is headed by an elected board. In certain small townships of the northwestern states, local power is exercised by a general meeting and the officials elected by it. The following administrative systems are used in the cities: (1) the mayor and council system under which the "legislative" organ is a unicameral, or occasionally bicameral, council, and the executive organ is represented by the mayor who is elected by the population; a variation of this system is the "strong mayor" system under which the mayor is vested with particularly broad powers; (2) the committee system under

which the city is run by an elected committee (a small body of 5 people) whose members distribute the various administrative functions among themselves; (3) the council and city manager system under which the city administrative machinery is headed by a manager appointed, and removable, by the municipal council. In reality state and local administration is in the hands of the political party in power whose machinery is in full control of referendum procedures, legislative initiative, and recall of elected officials (provided for by the constitutions of certain states and a number of city charters).

The US colonial possessions (officially referred to as "territories") are administered by governors appointed by the president with the approval of the Senate. The Hawaiian and Virgin islands have their local elected organs (with limited rights) whose decisions can be vetoed by the governor or US federal organs. US colonial domination has in effect been retained in the "voluntarily reunited state of Puerto Rico." In other so-called "unorganized" territories (the Panama Canal Zone, Guam, American Samoa, etc) there are no local elective organs. The trusteeship territories, which are actually part of the American colonial empire, are administered on a similar basis.

VII. THE ARMED FORCES

The president is the commander in chief of the armed forces and exercises his leadership over them through the National Security Council, the War Mobilization Board, and the Defense Department. The National Security Council also has an influence on foreign

•

and military policy as well as on every aspect of the work of the various ministries connected with military measures. The central intelligence agency is subordinated to the National Security Council. The War Mobilization Board is in charge of all the work connected with the mobilization of the economy for military preparations and the conduct of war. The Department of Defense is in direct charge of the armed forces. Subordinated to the secretary of defense are the secretaries of the army, air force, and navy. The highest organ of the Defense Department is the strategy board which is in charge of planning and military organization. The secretary of defense is in charge of the general organization and administrative economic aspect of the armed forces which functions he discharges through his assistants. The operational strategic aspect of the armed forces he administers through the joint chiefs of staff. The latter consists of a chairman and 3 members (chiefs of army, air force and navy staffs) and is responsible to the secretary of defense as well as to the president. Subordinated to the joint chiefs of staff are the following joint committees: strategic planning, intelligence, stateside planning, research and development, etc. The working organ of the chiefs of staff is the joint staff which consists of the following 3 departments: strategic planning, intelligence, and stateside planning.

The land forces consist of a regular army and a reserve. The peacetime regular army, numbering 1.1 million as of 1 January 1956 (its 1940 strength was 263,000 men), is designed for service in overseas territories, border guard duty at home, and serves as a basis for mass mobilization. During World War II of 1939-1945 the US augmented its land army to 6 million men. The land forces reserve consists of the national guard and army reserve. In point

of training the reserves are divided into first, second, and third categories. Under the new plan adopted by Congress in the summer of 1955, the first category army reserves are to be increased to 1.68 million by 1960. The basic army tactical units are infantry, armored, and parachute divisions. An infantry division (about 17,500 men) consists of 3 infantry regiments, a tank battalion, a reconnaissance company, 3 batteries of 105 mm howitzers, one battery of 155 mm howitzers, a self-propelled antiaircraft battalion, engineering and medical battalions, and a number of service companies. An armored division consists of 4 tank battalions, 4 battalions of motorized infantry, a reconnaissance battalion, artillery, engineering, and other units and formations. A parachute division is organized the same way as an infantry division but has an additional company in charge of parachute arrangements. In time of war, the land troops are combined into army corps, field armies, and army groups which are temporary formations. In World War II a corps consisted of 3-6 divisions, a field army of 2-4 corps, and an army group of 2-4 armies.

The airforce consists of a regular and reserve air force. The regular air force includes fighting and service air formations and units. In January 1956 the regular air force had about 9,300 planes organized into 127 air wings (a wing is equivalent to a regiment), not counting the reserve and service supply planes. By the end of World War II the US air force had 250 wings and a personnel of 2.8 million men. The air force reserves consist of the national guard air force and an air force reserve grouped into 3 categories according to the degree of training. The basic tactical and administrative unit of the air force is the air wing

consisting of a staff and staff squadron, a fighter plane group, and 3 service groups (for repairs, supplies, airfield and medical services). An air force group consists of 3 squadrons (a squadron has 3-4 units) and a group staff. The groups are divided into bombing units (30-48 planes), fighter units (75 planes), reconnaissance units (30-54 planes), airborne units (36-48 planes) and transportation units. Airforce wings can be formed into divisions, armies, and air force command. Air force armies and commands may be strategic, tactical, air-borne, and transportation. The basic types of planes with which the US air force is equipped are: B-36 bombers with conventional motors, and B-52, B-47, and B-57 jet bombers; F-84, F-86, F-89, F-94, and F-100 jet fighter planes (as of 1955). Special attention in the US is focused on the development of the strategic air force.

The naval forces consist of the navy, naval air arm, and the marines. Organizationally the navy is divided into 2 strategic fleets, the Atlantic and Pacific fleets, which in turn assign task forces for operations in various sea areas. By the beginning of 1956 the active naval forces had at their disposal 1,066 ships including battleships, the 60,000-t superheavy plane carrier (3 more similar plane carriers were under construction; it is planned to build 10-12 superheavy plane carriers), 22 heavy plane carriers, 12 light plane carriers, 18 cruisers, 250 destroyers, 120 submarines, 75 patrol ships, 50 subchasers, 140 minesweepers, 375 landing craft, as well as 350 auxiliary craft and base floating facilities. The reserve fleet number 1,280 ships of all types including 250 fighting ships. The active naval air arm had about 13,000 planes combined into 17 aviation groups of the carrier-based airforce, 8 land-based air force wings, 15

squadrons of the antisubmarine defense, and a number of other mixed and auxiliary squadrons. The marine corps numbered about 202,000 men organized into 3 marine divisions and 3 air force wings.

The development of mass destruction weapons (thermonuclear, atomic, bacteriological, and chemical) prompted the US armed forces to undertake the development of new organizational methods and tactics that would be most adaptable to fighting a war with such weapons.

Recruitment of privates and sergeants for the armed forces is done through compulsory military service and on an enlistment basis. Under the law of "universal military training and military service," all males of 18.5 years of age are subject to the draft. Both draftees and enlisted personnel between the ages of 18.5 and 25 must serve 2 years in the regular forces and 4 years in the reserve. The following military ranks have been established for army and air force officers: second lieutenant, first lieutenant, captain, major, lieutenant-colonel, colonel, brigade general, major general, lieutenant general, general, and army general; in the navy: ensign, lieutenant (junior grade), lieutenant, lieutenant-commander, commander, captain, commodore, rear admiral, vice admiral, admiral and fleet admiral.

By the beginning of 1956, more than 32% of the armed forces personnel were stationed on foreign territories. The US keeps various military advisors and instructors in 49 countries. Acting under pressure from the US, many capitalist countries of Europe, north Africa, and Asia are engaging in a variety of undertakings of military nature, including the construction and improvement of air and naval bases, airfields and ports, and the fortification of

borderlines. The major attention is focused on the construction of air bases, particularly around the USSR and the countries of the people's democracy.

VIII. POLITICAL PARTIES

In the US (like in Britain and certain other capitalist countries) there is a 2-party system under which 2 bourgeois parties alternate in power. The 2 major bourgeois parties in the US, the republican and democratic, are the parties of American monopoly capital which determines their policy. The vital interests of the working class and all the workers of the US are expressed by only one party, the Communist Party of the United States.

The Communist Party of the United States is the vanguard detachment of the US working class. It is struggling for the vital interests and rights of the working class and all working people of the US, and for a stable peace among nations. It was founded by the Constituent Assembly that took place between 1 and 5 September 1919 during the upswing of the US labor movement under the influence of the Great October Socialist Revolution in Russia. Immediately upon its foundation the Communist party took charge of a number of large strikes, particularly the metal workers' strike, and demanded an end to anti-Soviet intervention. The Communist Party of the US grew stronger in the struggle against the Trotskyites and right-wingers who defended the reactionary theory of the "uniqueness of American capitalism." Having expelled the fractionists from its ranks, the US Communist Party

proceeded to consolidate its ranks. It was in charge of many instances of mass action by the unemployed workers during the world economic crisis of 1929-1933.

During World War II of 1939-1945, the US Communist Party took a strong stand in favor of international cooperation in the struggle against the bloc of fascist aggressors. In those years the Communist Party had to fight against Browder and his followers who had made their way to leadership. That group succeeded in disbanding the party in May 1944, and creating in its place a non-partisan communist political association. However, acting on the demand of its rank-and-file members headed by W. Foster and E. Dennis, the special congress of July 1945 restored the US Communist Party as a political party of the American working class. The congress adopted a new party statute and elected a national committee. W. Foster was elected chairman of the national committee. In 1946 the national committee plenum elected E. Dennis secretary-general. Browder was expelled from the party. In the postwar period, the US Communist Party has been struggling against the monopolies' encroachment on the workers' living standard, against racial discrimination, and for the democratic rights of the American people. The American communists have been consistent in their demand for a ban on atomic weapons. Following America's crude intervention in the Korean civil war (1950), the national committee of the Communist Party published a statement demanding that the government immediately withdraw the American ships and planes from the Far East and see to it that not a single gun or a single plane be sent to Korea, Taiwan, and Indochina. The Fifteenth Congress of the US Communist Party, held in December 1950, devoted its major attention to the organization of the American

people's struggle for peace and against the infringement of the vital rights of the working people by the American monopolists. The congress decisions laid particular stress on the fact that the aim of the US Communist Party is the establishment of an effective people's front. The resolution passed by the Fifteenth Congress stated that the Communist Party must step up its work among the Negro people and extend the fight against racial discrimination in every walk of life since the creation of a united front is impossible without it.

In 1949 11 leaders of the US Communist Party were sentenced by the court to long-term imprisonment. This was followed by another series of court trials which resulted in the jailing of many Communist Party officials. The law adopted in August 1954 was in effect designed to ban the Communist Party. But despite the persecutions the Communist Party is continuing its brave struggle. In August 1954 the national conference of the Communist Party adopted a party program which emphasizes the basic task of bringing about the unity of the American people, working class, farmers, small businessmen, and the Negro people, under the leadership of the working class.

The American Communist Party is built on the principle of democratic centralism. Its basic nuclei are the primary party organizations which are organized on the production-territorial principle. The national party congress, convened every 2 years, is the highest organ of the party. The congress elects a national committee which is the leading party organs between congresses.

The national committee is headed by a chairman and a secretary general, (see also the article, Communist Party, US).

The Progressive Party is a political party formed in 1948 and uniting mostly representatives of the progressive intelligentsia, certain sections of the petty bourgeoisie, and farmers. The party's declared program is for peace and the democratic rights of the American people. In the 1948 presidential elections the Progressive Party's candidate polled about 1.2 million votes. The party played a substantial part in organizing the protest movement against US interference in the Korean civil war. It took an active part in the signature collection campaign under the Stockholm appeal for a ban on atomic weapons. From the very beginning of its existence however the party has been unable to enlist any significant support of the people which reflected its weakness.

In 1949-1950 the party went through a grave internal crisis. Sharp differences of opinion on matters of principle affecting party policy arose in its national committee. When the 1952 elections rolled around the party was organized in only 2 states, New York and California. The party's presidential nominee received an insignificant number of votes. There was a further decrease in the party's activities after the 1952 campaign, followed by some revival of activity during the 1954 congressional election. The party wound up in financial straits. It was placed on the Attorney General's list of subversive organizations, and many of its branches went out of existence.

The Democratic Party is one of the 2 parties of American monopoly capital. It was founded in 1828. In its initial period the party included part of the planters, certain groups of the bourgeoisie connected with the southern slave-holders, and a considerable part of the farmers. The class structure of the party soon underwent a radical change. As the slave economy developed in the country, the party became the party of rich slave-owning planters and the part of the rich bourgeoisie connected with them. The party became the protagonist of the unlimited expansion of slavery at home and a policy of political expansion abroad. The party leadership prepared for and carried out the annexation of Texas (in 1845) and organized the aggressive war against Mexico in 1846-1848. The farmers, who favored restrictions on slavery and opposed the reactionary policy of the slave-owners, gradually left the party. Through demagoguery, bribes and terror, the party of slave-owners managed to win the presidential elections of 1844, 1852, and 1856. As a result of the growing contradictions between the northern bourgeoisie and the southern planters and the intensified struggle for land between the farmers and slave-owners, the party was split and that was one of the causes of its defeat at the 1860 presidential elections. The southern slave-holders, belonging to the Democratic Party, staged a rebellion and formed a slave nation known as "The Confederate States of America" (in 1861).

Soon after the American Civil War of 1861-1865 (q. v.) the difference between the democratic and republican parties (the

Republican Party was founded in 1854) rapidly began to diminish. The Republican Party, just like the Democratic Party, became one of the 2 bourgeois parties of the US. In the post Civil War period the Democratic Party was most of the time in opposition to the Republican Party in power but criticized only the inessential points of its program. "That struggle was of no importance to the people at large. The people were cheated and their attention distracted from their vital interests by showy and meaningless duels of the 2 bourgeois parties" (Lenin, V. I., Sochineniya, fourth edition, Vol 18, page 374). The 2-party system was one of the major weapons employed by the bourgeoisie to prevent the creation of a third, truly national mass party. The Democratic Party, just like the Republican party, became the executor of the policy of the financial oligarchy in the epoch of imperialism. The US entered World War I in 1917 under the democratic President W. Wilson (1913-1921). Acting jointly with the other imperialist powers in 1918-1920, the US participated in the military intervention against Soviet Russia.

During the 1929-1933 economic depression and expanding labor-farmer movement, the Democratic Party leadership took advantage of the people's discontent with the republican policies and achieved a victory in the 1932 elections. The presidency was won by the Democratic Party candidate F. Roosevelt (q. v.) who was reelected in 1936, 1940, and 1944. In World War II the US joined the anti-Hitler coalition which was a fighting union of freedom-loving peoples against the fascist aggressors. After World War II, the government of the Democratic Party's President H. Truman (1945-1953), implementing a so-called bipartisan foreign policy, renounced the policy of international cooperation. The Democratic Party suffered a defeat at the 1952 presidential elections. A

considerable part of the voters thereby expressed their lack of confidence in the party which proceeded to militarize the country and persecute the progressive organizations after World War II.

The structure of the party is adapted to the conditions of election and parliamentary struggle. National conventions where the presidential and vice-presidential candidates are nominated are held before the elections. In charge of the current business between the conventions is the national party committee headed by a chairman. The party publicizes its election program during the election campaign. The party has no permanent members. Members are recruited during the election campaign by functionaries (activists). The functionaries are organized into clubs which engage in organizational and propaganda work during the elections. An important role in the party is played by political bosses who maintain close connections with the leading politicians of the Democratic Party. The biggest monopolies subsidize and determine its policy.

The Republican Party is one of the 2 parties of American monopoly capital. It was founded in 1854 by the northern bourgeoisie and farmers who strove to keep the slaveowners out of power. The left, radical-democratic wing of the party was represented by Free Soilers (q. v.). The right, moderately-liberal wing of the party consisted of the bourgeoisie which favored restrictions on slavery but could not bring themselves to insist on its abolition. In the 1860 presidential elections, the Republican Party, which nominated Abraham Lincoln (q. v.), gained a victory over the Democratic Party. During the Civil War the right wing of the party held a vacillating position in regard to slavery in the south. Acting under pressure from the working class, farmers, and the left wing of

the party (radical republicans), the government passed the Homestead Act (q. v.) and proclaimed the emancipation of the Negro slaves which belonged to the rebel planters.

After the Civil War the Republican Party became the party of big capital carrying out a bourgeois dictatorship. Using demagogic methods and bribes, the Republican Party managed to score frequent election victories (a considerable number of people in the north and in the west usually voted Republican) and remained in power over a long period of time (1865-1885, 1889-1893, 1897-1913, 1921-1933, and since 1953). In the period of imperialism the Republican Party became a party of monopoly capital. Under republican President McKinley the US unleashed an imperialist war against Spain (in 1898) in the interests of the monopolies. An expansionist policy was carried out also by the republican administrations of T. Roosevelt and W. Taft. They carried out numerous interventions in the countries of Latin America. In 1900-1901, the US participated in the suppression of the national antiimperialist rebellion in China, and in 1903 seized the Panama Canal Zone. Republican Party leadership favored America's entry in World War I. They supported the anti-Soviet intervention. The republican administration of Harding (1921-1923), Coolidge (1923-1929), and Hoover (1929-1933) carried out a policy of reviving German militarism. During World War II certain Republican Party leaders opposed the creation of anti-fascist coalition, and particularly the opening of a second front in Europe. After World War II the Republican Party leadership supported the Truman foreign policy. In 1953 the Republican Party came back to power under the leadership of General Eisenhower.

The structure of the Republican Party, just like that of the Democratic Party, is adapted to the conditions of election and parliamentary struggle. The party holds conventions where presidential and vice presidential candidates are nominated. Handling the current business between the conventions is a national committee headed by a chairman. The party has no permanent members. All voters who register as Republicans are entered on the list of party members. An important part in the affairs of the Republican Party, just as in the Democratic Party, is played by the party bosses who are proteges of monopoly capital. The party's policy is expounded by its leadership during the election campaign. The party maintains close connections with the biggest monopolists who subsidize it and determine its policy.

IX. THE TRADE UNION MOVEMENT

The first labor organizations in the US came into being at the end of the eighteenth century. An organization of shoemakers in Philadelphia was founded in 1792, and an organization of printers and a federative society of shoe workers in 1794. Those organizations were of the guild type and their existence was semilegal. The rapid development of industry in the north and the numerical increase of the industrial proletariat led to a better labor movement organization in the first half of the nineteenth century. The workers began to organize into trade unions so as to be able to struggle against the employers. A ship's carpenters union was organized in 1803, building trade carpenters in 1806, and a printers union in 1809. The metal workers union organized in Philadelphia was the first to publish an American trade union magazine, "Free Labor Press," in 1828-1831. These trade unions were for

the most part loosely organized, expounded utopian programs, and were rapidly disbanded due to the uninterrupted turnover of the members, many of whom left to settle in the West, and due to their persecution by the employers. For a long time the trade unions status was semilegal. The laws existing at that time in various states under which trade unions were treated on a par with conspirators, were abolished in the 1830's. A central (city) council of trade unions was organized in New York in 1833. In 1834, the Boston Central Labor Association came into being, uniting 16 trade unions, and was followed by similar organizations in other industrial centers of the country. In 1838 the trade unions already numbered about 300,000 members. Those trade unions, however, united only skilled workers. Many of the trade unions fell apart during the 1837 economic depression.

The trade union movement was revived again between the 1850's and 1860's. Old trade unions were revived and new ones organized not only in different localities but on a national scale. The national union of printers was created in 1850, masons in 1853, hat makers in 1854, steel smelters in 1855, and metal workers and blacksmiths in 1859. The trade union organizations took an active part in the Civil War of 1861-1865 on the side of the northerners.

After the Civil War the proletariat stepped up its political activity and the struggle for its vital interests. There were about 30 national trade unions in the 1860's. The national labor

union was created in 1866 (and disbanded in the early 1870's). It combined a considerable number of trade unions, cooperatives, and other labor organizations. Its organizer was W. Sylvis. The National Labor Union maintained connections with the First International. The Knights of Labor (q. v.), an organization uniting mostly unskilled laborers, was founded in 1869. The Paris Commune of 1871 exerted a considerable influence on the development of the labor movement in the US. The class struggle became more acute as a result of the severe economic depression begun in 1873. The American bourgeoisie undertook a large scale attack on the working people. Troops, police, and gangster elements were used to retaliate against the best representatives of the working class and its organizations. Labor organizations were banned and their leaders were subject to arrest. But despite the severe persecutions, the American labor movement continued to grow. The strike movement of the American workers in the last quarter of the nineteenth century assumed unprecedented proportions. In the summer of 1877 the revolutionary movement of the proletariat rose to such a pitch that the government declared martial law in a number of states. The fight for an 8-hour work day became particularly popular among the American workers between the 1870's and 1880's. But the majority of the strikes in those years ended in the defeat of the workers. The American labor movement was relatively weak. The workers had no revolutionary political organization capable of leading the struggle of the proletariat. Most of the reinforcements of the working class in the second half of the nineteenth century came from the European immigrants. There was a considerable number of skilled workers among the immigrants. Some of them had experience in the labor and trade union movement. The American bourgeoisie

fanned national animosity between native American and immigrant workers as well as among immigrant workers of various nationalities. The bourgeoisie did everything possible to set the white workers against Negro and immigrant workers from the Asiatic countries. Pursuing a policy of repressions against the working class, the bourgeoisie at the same time strove to split the working class and subordinate the workers to their influence. Bought off by the bourgeoisie, the leadership of the working class, the so-called labor aristocracy began to champion the cause of bourgeois influence on the proletariat. A mass labor organization, the American Federation of Labor (AFL), built on the craft principle, was founded in 1881. The AFL organized its trade unions according to professions as well as trades. Its rightwing leadership did everything to prevent the admission to the AFL of Negroes and unskilled workers as well as women and youth. Closely linked with the leadership of the democratic and republican parties, the AFL leaders pursued a policy of class cooperation with the capitalists, subordinating the interests of the working class to those of the bourgeoisie.

Reformist trade unions of railroad workers, called brotherhoods, were created side by side with the AFL in the second half of the nineteenth century. The brotherhoods, over 20 in number, organized with their members on the craft principle.

Early in the twentieth century, so-called company unions (q. v.) came into being in the US. These organizations were created on the initiative of the employers with a view to utilizing the workers cooperation to raise the income of their enterprises and to prevent the foundation of genuine trade unions. The reformist policy of the AFL leadership, its opposition to the strike movement,

its struggle against the unity of the working class, as well as the artificial separation of the skilled workers from the rest of the proletariat gave rise to an opposition within the AFL. A movement to reorganize the craft unions into industrial unions got underway in the US at the beginning of the twentieth century. A new trade union organization, "The Industrial Workers of the World" (IWW), (q. v.), was founded in 1905 to counterbalance the AFL unions. Among the active organizers of that union were the labor movement leaders, D. deLeon, E. Debs, and W. Haywood (q. v.). The IWW was organized on the industrial principle, and it recruited its members mostly from among unskilled and semiskilled laborers. In contrast to the policy of class cooperation pursued by the AFL, the IWW recognized the irreconcilability of the interests of labor and capital and took a position in favor of the class struggle. The IWW fought for the improvement of the economic position of the American proletariat and against militarism. The IWW however did not grow into a mass organization. There were different conflicting tendencies within it, revolutionary, reformist, and anarcho-syndicalist. In 1908 the IWW was taken over by the anarchosyndicalists.

When the US joined World War I in 1917, the AFL leadership forbade all the trade unions under its jurisdiction to engage in strikes. The AFL leaders tried in every way to keep "peace in industry." During World War I the exploitation of the workers was intensified and the conditions of the laboring masses deteriorated.

The revolutionary labor movement in the US began to gain strength under the influence of the Great October Socialist Revolution in Russia. There was a considerable increase in the number of strikes (the strikes of the metal workers and miners in 1919 were

among the biggest). And as the mass movement of workers continued to expand the AFL leaders did everything they could to widen the split of the working class. In a number of industries, particularly steel, meat-packing, lumber, automobile, etc, the trade unions were completely destroyed, and considerably weakened in other industries. The AFL membership dropped from 4,078,740 in 1920 to 2,865,799 in 1924. The Trade Union League was organized in 1920 on the initiative of the outstanding leaders of the American and international labor movement, W. Foster and other labor movement leaders. It was active within the AFL trade unions, worked for the reorganization of the craft unions into industrial ones, for the abolition of the "class cooperation" policy and for taking a decisive stand against the bourgeoisie attacks. The Trade Union League was fighting the policies of the AFL leaders. The League's efforts were directed toward the strengthening the left wing in the trade unions. It took an active part in the efforts of the American workers in the defense of Soviet Russia. The AFL leadership resorted to repressions against the league followers. Hundreds and thousands of workers belonging to the league were expelled from the AFL trade unions. The New York garment workers unions alone expelled several tens of thousands of workers in the middle 1920's for opposing the AFL leadership. That created the necessity of a new national trade union association. In 1929 the Trade Union League was reorganized into the Trade Union Unity League which became a new trade union center. The League's membership rose to about 125,000.

The mass strike movement in the US began to gain strength during the world economic crisis of 1929-1933 and the special type of depression that followed it. Large numbers of unorganized

workers took part in the strike side by side with organized labor. The growing labor movement encouraged the workers to seek better organization and admission to trade unions. With a view to strengthening the struggle for labor unity, the Trade Union Unity League adopted a decision in 1935 to go out of existence so that its members could join the AFL unions. A movement to reorganize the trade union craft structure arose within the AFL. At the 1935 AFL congress the exponents of such a reorganization submitted a resolution to admit to the unions the unorganized workers of a number of industries, and to organize the new trade unions along industrial lines. That resolution was rejected by a majority of votes. This prompted the followers of industrial unions to organize a Congress of Industrial Organizations in 1935 (q. v.) or the CIO. In 1936 the AFL expelled from its organization a number of trade unions (including the miners, textile workers, garment, and oil workers) for participation in the CIO organization. The CIO stepped up its effort to organize new trade unions in the steel, aviation, automobile, radio, and electrical industries. It managed to recruit over a million members by 1936 and over 5 million by 1938. The Communist Party of the US played a significant role in the movement for industrial trade unions. The CIO was organized along industrial lines, united both skilled and semiskilled workers and began to accept Negroes into its unions. In the prewar years the CIO was in charge of a number of strikes. A sharp struggle between the rightist and leftist oriented leadership has been going on within the CIO since its foundation. After World War II, the right-wing leadership gained the upper hand in the CIO. The right-wing leaders pursued a policy in the international labor movement

designed to prevent the establishment of working class unity, and tried to impose their influence on the trade unions of other countries, particularly those of Latin America. In 1949 the CIO left the World Federation of Trade Unions which it had joined in 1945. In 1949-1950 the CIO expelled a number of trade unions (among them the radio and electrical workers union, the furriers and leather workers unions, etc) for their progressive activities and opposition to the leadership. The organizations expelled from the CIO came to be known as independent unions.

In the postwar period the US ruling circles launched a large scale offensive on the political and economic rights of the American workers. The Taft-Hartley Law, passed in 1947, actually imposed government control over trade union activities. The government was empowered to postpone and even ban strikes altogether. That law banned political strikes, sympathy strikes, and strikes by government workers. The employers were granted the right of exacting reimbursements from the trade unions for the losses they suffered as a result of strikes and other trade union activities. Trade union leaders were compelled to sign a pledge that they do not belong to the Communist Party or any other organization whose name appears on the list of "subversive" organizations.

The independent trade unions and the broad masses of the people took up the struggle against the right-wing trade union leaders, against bourgeois encroachment on the political rights of the working masses, and particularly against the antilabor laws.

By the beginning of 1955 the American trade unions numbered approximately 17 million members. About 1/3 of the industrial workers belonged to trade unions. According to rough estimates, the AFL had 10.3 million members organized into 99 unions. The CIO had 4-5 million members organized into 34 unions, and the independent trade unions (including the 4 railroad workers union which did not belong to the AFL or CIO) had about 2 million members.

In December 1955 the AFL and CIO held a joint convention merging the 2 organizations into the AFL-CIO. The new organization made no changes in the organizational structure of the trade unions previously belonging to the AFL and CIO. The right-wing union leaders remained in charge of the new AFL-CIO. One of the decisions adopted by the right-wing union leaders at the joint convention was "the struggle against Communism" which means the struggle against the progressive forces of the US labor movement and the international labor movement. The policy of the right-wing trade union leaders arouses the resentment of the rank-and-file members of the American trade unions.

X. THE PRESS AND THE RADIO

The Press

The daily and periodical press in the US is concentrated mostly in the hands of a small number of publishing houses, newspaper trusts, information agencies, and press syndicates. These are big capitalists, connected with the powerful American financial oligarchies, the Morgans, Rockefellers, Mellons, Duponts, and the corporations and banking business of the industrial middle west (Chicago, Cleveland) and others. Of the 12,381 newspapers published in the country in 1955, 1984 were dailies and 9,928 (mostly provincial publications) came out once a week. The 8,408 magazine publications consisted of 1,675 weeklies, 536 biweeklies, and 4,312 monthly publications.

o

The progressive press organs, defending the interests of the working people and demanding democratic rights for the working masses, as well as the employees of the progressive press are subjected to persecutions. The true economic and political situation of the country as well as the US foreign policy are explained by the progressive publications which do not depend on monopoly capital and bourgeois information sources. Among the consistently progressive publications which spread of ideas of Marxism-Leninism, expose the imperialist policy of the US monopolies, and defend the peace and friendship of people are the daily newspaper, Daily Worker (q. v.), published in New York, and its Sunday edition, The Worker; the San Francisco daily, The People's World; the monthly Political Affairs, a theoretical and political magazine of scientific socialism; and the literary political monthly magazine Masses and Mainstream which reflects the opinion of progressive intelligentsia. Democratic views are expressed by the weekly newspaper National Guardian which is close to the Progressive Party leadership; the monthly magazine New World Review which devotes much space to publicizing the life in the USSR and the countries of the people's democracy; and certain other progressive publications.

Among the most numerous American bourgeois papers are the Hearst publications. That company publishes 18 newspapers and 13 magazines. The largest of them are the dailies, New York Journal-American and New York Daily Mirror, the monthly literary political magazine Cosmopolitan, the monthly magazine for women Good Housekeeping, etc. The McCormick-Patterson newspaper syndicate publishes the large dailies, Chicago Tribune and New York Daily News. The Scripps-Howard Syndicate publishes 19 newspapers, chief of them being the

New York World Telegram and Sun and the Washington Daily News. The Gannett paper syndicate publishes 21 provincial newspapers, mostly in the state of New York. The Knight newspaper syndicate publishes 4 daily newspapers including the Chicago Daily News. Among the leading publisher of large circulation publications is the Luce Company which puts out the following 3 magazines: Life, a weekly illustrated magazine which includes also a biweekly international edition for Latin American countries and Europe; Time, a general political weekly; and Fortune, a monthly political economical journal. Among the other large publishing houses also are McGraw-Hill Publishing Company which puts out 37 technical and commercial magazines as well as one of the leading economical political weeklies, Business Week; Curtis Publishing Company which publishes several magazines including the Saturday Evening Post; the Crowell-Collier Publishing Company which publishes the following literary political magazines: the monthly American Magazine, the biweekly Colliers (a weekly up to August, 1953), Women's Home Companion, etc; the Cole Magazines, Inc. publishes the illustrated biweekly magazine Look and other publications.

There is a group of so-called nonsyndicate publications in the US. The daily New York Times is owned by the Sutzberger-Ochs-Adler families, is closely connected with influential monopolist circles and is in effect a semiofficial government organ. A similar well informed paper, reflecting the official US policy, is the New York Herald Tribune. It belongs to the Reed family of millionaires which is close to the large industrial and financial magnates. Competing with these papers for influence and inside information is the Washington daily, Washington Post (which bought McCormick's Times-Herald in March 1954 and has since been called Washington Post

and Times Herald), as well as the Boston Christian Science Monitor.

These papers are in possession of official information and, despite their relatively small circulation are quite influential. Belonging to the same group of nonsyndicate press organs are the Wall Street Journal, a political-economical newspaper reflecting the opinion of the large rentier class, stock brokers, medium sized business firms, banks and insurance companies, and the daily New York Post. Among the nonsyndicate magazines also are the weekly US News and World Report, closely connected with influential monopoly circles; the general political weekly Newsweek, owned by several banking and industrial magnates including the Harrimans, the Astors, Whitneys, and others; Foreign Affairs (published once every 3 months), a magazine on foreign policy and international relations. The Nation and New Republic, small circulation magazines, are oriented mostly to bourgeois intelligentsia circles. The monthly Readers Digest, a literary political publication, has an enormous domestic and foreign circulation. Numerous publications are put out by various banking and industrial associations, individual monopolies, church organizations, etc.

An important part is played also by several information agencies and press syndicates. The largest of them, the Associated Press, which is closely connected with the New York Times publishers, distributes information to several thousand newspapers, magazines, radio, and television stations. The other 2 large agencies, the United Press and International News Service belong to the Scripps-Howard and Hearst publishers, respectively. These news services supply a large number of provincial newspapers with political articles,

reviews, newspaper type-scripts, etc. One of the largest services, the Western Newspaper Union, supplies about 3,000 weekly newspapers with newspaper type-scripts. The Bell Syndicate comprises 3 press syndicates including the leading North American Newspaper Alliance which is connected with the New York Times. Many newspaper publishing companies also have their own press syndicates, information agencies, and "independent" press organs.

The bourgeois press organs are not formally connected with the 2 major parties of monopoly capital, the republican and democratic parties, and are therefore considered "independent" publications. Actually many of them maintain direct contact with either the republican or democratic party machine or both. The press organs' party position is usually openly declared during the election campaign. The Luce magazine publishers, the Cole Magazines, Inc. and the New York Herald Tribune and others are traditionally connected with the Republican Party. The McCormick press is close to the wing of the Republican Party that reflects the interests of the monopoly circles of the Chicago and Cleveland industrial centers (middle west). Supporting the Democratic Party candidates are the Nation, New Republic, the newspaper New York Post, etc. During the presidential election campaign the press as a rule lends more active support to the candidate selected by the country's most powerful monopolist groups.

Radio Broadcasting

Radio broadcasting in the US began in 1920 with the commercial exploitation of the first radio station. There were more than 3,000 radio stations and about 115 million radio receivers

in the US at the beginning of 1954. Radio broadcasting was monopolized by 4 very large companies, the American Broadcasting Company, Columbia Broadcasting System, Mutual Broadcasting System, and the National Broadcasting Company. These companies are connected with powerful financial groups, the Morgans, Rockefellers, Mellons, etc. About 650 radio stations are owned wholly or partially by publishing houses, newspaper trusts, and individual publications. The New York Times, Chicago Tribune, and the Washington Post and Daily Herald own several radio stations each. The television industry, already an important factor in the country's economy, is developing rapidly. The number of television stations in operation early in 1954 was 356 and the number of registered television sets about 30 million. The television transmissions are monopolized and most of the television stations controlled by the National Broadcasting Company, Columbia Broadcasting System, American Broadcasting Company, Mutual Broadcasting System and the Dumont Laboratories, Inc. Radio and television transmissions are presented on a commercial basis and are paid for mostly by monopolist advertising sponsors. Big capital control of radio and television actually precludes the possibility of utilizing these media by progressive organizations for their own transmissions.

Broadcasts to foreign countries (the Voice of America) are controlled by the government information agency. These broadcasts are sent in 42 languages over radio stations located in the US and in a number of capitalist countries.

XI. THE MEDICAL AND HEALTH SITUATIONS

Sickness and Death Rate

While the infectious disease incidence showed a considerable drop as a result of the energetic fight against it, the sick rate in other types of diseases continues to grow.

According to the Statistiques Epidemiologiques et Demographiques Annuelles of 1939-1946, 1947-1949, and 1951, the incidence of smallpox was reduced from 9,874 cases in 1939 to 11 in 1951. Typhoid fever was reduced during the same period from 13,069 to 2,128 cases, diphtheria from 24,053 to 3,953, and malaria from 82,655 to 5,600 cases. The incidence of scarlet fever, though declining, is still high (162,897 cases in 1939, 84,151 in 1951, and 134,232 cases in 1953); also dysentery (35,765 cases in 1951, 54,336 in 1949, while in 1939 there had been only 25,549 cases); syphilis, though the mortality rate incident to it has been declining (there were 256,463 cases of syphilis in 1949 with 8,581 of them fatal, and 214,000 cases in 1951 with 6,274 fatalities); and gonorrhoea (245,045 cases in 1953). A considerable drop was registered in the mortality rate incident to tuberculosis which showed an average of 123 cases per 100,000 population in 1914, 42.2 in 1940, and 14.7 in 1952. During that period tuberculosis dropped from the first to the seventh place on the list of the 10 major causes of death. The incidence of tuberculosis however is not declining. In 1952 (according to Tuberculosis Abstracts, No 7, 1954), there were 109,837 new cases of tuberculosis, 85,000 of them in an advanced stage, while in 1938 there were only 94,052 new cases. Tuberculosis

is not among the illnesses subject to official recording, and the extent of the incidence therefore can be judged obliquely by the number of cases using medical service. American authors are inclined to explain the increase in the number of recorded illnesses by the more widespread of use of medical services on the part of the population. The actual number of TB patients however is considerably in excess of those figures since private physicians do not normally keep an accurate record of their patients.

First place among the causes of death in the US is held by heart and cardiovascular diseases and the mortality connected with it (as well as sick rate) is steadily growing (it was 185.9 cases per 100,000 population in 1913, 178.1 in 1924, and 349.1 cases in 1949).

The incidence of neurological and mental illnesses in the US is very high and continues to grow. According to former President H. Truman and official figures there are no fewer than 10 million people in the US afflicted with those illnesses. According to the American Association of Psychologists (1954), there are 750,000 patients in psychiatric hospitals (55% of all patients treated in hospitals). Besides there are 120,000 mental defectives and 20,000 epileptics taken care of in special institutions (Journal of American Medical Association, Vol 152, No 1, 1953, pages 48-49). The number of people suffering from traumatism in industry and daily life is very great. In 1950 there were 8.9 million accidents in the US, 90,000 of them fatal. In 1953 the number of accidents rose to 9.34 million, including 100,000 fatalities. In 1953 according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics 2,034,400 workers were afflicted with shock at their enterprises; 15,000 of those cases were fatal,

and 84,000 resulted in invalidism. (Labor Facts Book, 1955).

The general mortality rate of the US population dropped from 13.2 per 1,000 residents in 1913 to 9.2 in 1954. The birth rate increased after its decline during the world depression, begun 1929, and World War II.

BIRTH RATE (per 1,000 population)

1915	1920	1925	1930	1935	1940	1945	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954
25.0	23.7	21.3	18.9	16.9	17.9	19.5	23.6	24.5	24.6	24.7	24.9

Both the mortality and sick rate vary among different social groups, and this is particularly obvious when comparing the mortality and sick rate of Negroes and whites. In 1950 and 1951 the mortality rate per 1,000 population among whites was 9.5, and among the colored people 11.2 and 11.1 respectively. Child mortality per 1,000 white children in 1951 was 25.8, and among colored children 44.6. Death from tuberculosis per 100,000 Negro population in 1946 was 92.3, and for the white population 29.8. The average life span of Negroes in 1953 was 12 years shorter than that of whites.

The following table shows the difference in mortality from basic causes among Negroes and whites.

MORTALITY RATE PER 100,000 POPULATION AMONG NEGROES AND

Causes of death	WHITES (Public Health Reports, Vol 65, No 1, 1950)			
	Whites		Negroes	
	men	women	men	women
[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
Tuberculosis (all forms)	28.6	13.2	86.7	58.8
Pneumonia and grippe	30.8	23.0	64.0	49.0

[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
Early age diseases	47.1	32.1	85.3	62.9
Nephritis (chronic)	17.0	14.8	31.6	30.0

Medical Service System

Medical service in the US, just as in all the capitalist countries, is for the most part offered by privately practicing physicians. Although there are many physicians and hospital beds available, medical service is too expensive for the great majority of the working people. Former President H. Truman admitted in 1951 that medical service is so expensive that it is inaccessible to the majority of US citizens. In his message to Congress of 7 January 1954, D. Eisenhower also admitted that prolonged illness may spell financial catastrophe for the average family, and that half of the American families cannot afford to pay for medical service. The annual expenses for medical services paid by the population amounts to about 10.2 billion dollars whereas both local and federal organs spend only 1.8 billion dollars. Free medical service is offered by municipalities and various philanthropic organizations on a limited scale. There is no state social insurance in the United States. All the bills submitted between 1943 and 1953 on the introduction of state insurance against sickness were either rejected or not even considered by Congress. The available voluntary associations for such purposes exist on the premiums paid by the insured (Blue Cross, for hospital service, and Blue Shield, for doctor's bills, etc). In 1953 they insured about 92 million people for hospital expenses, over 73 million for surgical expenses, and about 36 million for other types of medical service. But that voluntary insurance in 1953 covered only 15% of the 10.5 billion dollars spent by the American population on

hospitalization and medical service (American Journal of Public Health, Vol 44, No 3, 1954, pages 389-390). The medical insurance companies (of which there were about 800 in 1954) are making enormous profits.

In 1950 there were 6,300 hospitals with 1,400,928 beds in the US, including 130,809 beds in federal hospitals, 665,019 in state hospitals, 185,229 beds in hospitals belonging to local organs, and 419,871 in hospitals belonging to private individuals, religious, philanthropic, and insurance organizations. By 1953 the number of hospitals was increased to 6,978 and their beds to 1,580,654 (10.4 beds per 1,000 people); 691,855 of the total number of beds are in psychiatric wards. The number of confinement cases handled by the hospitals is considerable. As far back as 1947 the hospitals handled 93% of all confinement cases in the cities and 50% in the rural areas. The distribution of the hospital medical service (a paid service in almost all hospitals) in the US is extremely uneven. There are particularly few hospitals in the rural areas. In 1953 there were 209,211 physicians in the country (approximately one for 750 people), 83,000 dentists, about 50,000 midwives, and 331,879 nurses. The US has a considerably higher number of physicians per population than the other capitalist countries. The distribution of the medical force however is very uneven. The majority of physicians are concentrated in large cities and in the financially independent sections of the cities. In addition to the regular physicians, there are also a considerable number of (over 36,500 officially registered) "medical practitioners," that is quacks. They are allowed to "treat" people but not to prescribe medicines or perform any surgery.

1,363 local public health departments in 2,197 counties. The functions of these departments are only medical educational. Different branches of the public health service (medical supervision in industry, school hygiene, etc) are under the jurisdiction of different ministries, the Department of Labor, Agriculture, etc. There is no single uniform medical service law in the US. Each state makes its own laws and sanitation regulations with the exception of those that come within the competence of the federal public health service.

In addition to the above administrative organs, public health affairs and scientific work are engaged in also by numerous private and philanthropic organizations (for example, the American Red Cross, the Hygiene Association, the Nurses Association, the National Union for the Prevention of Blindness, the Anti-tuberculosis Association, etc). A certain amount of coordination among them is carried out through the national public health council. An important part, particularly in medical education, is played by the American Medical Association which publishes a number of medical journals and combines numerous medical societies in the counties and cities. Another powerful medical organization is the American Hospital Association. Such large organizations as the Rockefeller Foundation and Public Health Foundation appropriate large funds for the study of medical problems (mostly in connection with the effects of the atomic bomb, bacteriological weapons, etc).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Smillie, W. G., Public Health Administration in the United States, Second edition, New York, 1945; Ibid., Preventive Medicine and Public Health, second edition, New York, 1952

- Goldmann, Fr., Public Medical Care: Principles and Problems, New York, 1945
- Mountin, J. W. and Flook, E., Guide to Health Organization in the United States, second edition, Washington, 1951; Moutin, J. W. and Greve, C. H., Public Health Areas and Hospital Facilities, Washington, 1950
- McCormack, J. F., "Blue Shield, Blue Cross, and the Medical Profession," New York State Journal of Medicine, Vol 52, No 5, New York, 1952
- "Voluntary Health Insurance Gains in 1951," Journal of the American Medical Association, Vol 149, No 10, Chicago, 5 July 1952
- "Pas Si Merveilleux que Ca," La Presse Medicale, No 24, 9 April, Paris, 1949
- "Medical and Health Budgets of Federal Agencies," Journal of the American Medical Association, Vol 153, No 11, 14 November, Chicago, 1953
- Peters, R. J., "Public Health in the United States," Edinburgh Medical Journal, Vol 57, No 5, Edinburgh-London, 1950
- Mott, F. D. and Roemer, M. J., Rural Health and Medical Care, New York, 1948
- "Statistique Epidemiologiques et Demographiques Annuelles 1947-1949," pages 1-2, Geneve, 1952-1953
- Gamble, C. J., "Preventive Sterilization in 1948," Journal of the American Medical Association, Vol 141, No 11, 12 November, Chicago, 1949

XII. EDUCATION

The administration of education in the US is decentralized. Each of the 48 states and the District of Columbia has its own budget, passes its own school laws, draws up its own school program and curriculum, defines the teachers' qualifications, and approves the school text books. State schools of a particular administrative district are under the supervision of a school board. The latter is in charge of the most important problems of school work, most particularly the administrative and financial aspects of it. The management of the schools is carried out by a board-appointed superintendent of schools who is in charge of the department of education consisting of inspectors and other employees. The education business of the state as a whole is also in charge of a school board and a superintendent or commissioner of education. The functions of the Federal administration of public education, which is part of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, are mostly of an informational and statistical nature. It is also in charge of congressional appropriations for education (from the federal budget). Only about 3% of the funds appropriated for the maintenance of elementary and high schools is paid by the federal government. About 42% is paid by the state governments and 55% are covered by local resources (from taxes on property).

The result of the decentralization of education is inequality of educational opportunities. In the economically backward states (as in a number of southern states, for example), the schools are operated under incomparably worse conditions than in the more advanced states. There are substantial differences in the very organization of public education inasmuch as the different states pass their

own laws on the most important questions of public education. In 17 states and the District of Columbia the law requires that whites and Negroes be instructed separately, which is one of the manifestations of segregation (q. v.). In May 1954 the Supreme Court ruled that the segregation of white and colored students in schools was unconstitutional. A number of southern states however are taking certain measures designed to prevent desegregation in schools. Thus the state of Mississippi passed a law in 1955 under which any white student attending a school also attended by Negro students is subject to fine or imprisonment. An amendment to the Louisiana state constitution provides for the compulsory segregation of white and Negro students "not for reasons of race but for the improvement of health, morale, peace, and order."

Negro schools are worse off than white schools in every respect. In Mississippi, where this difference is particularly conspicuous, the average annual amount spent per white student in 1950 was \$122.93 and per colored students \$32.55. The average annual salary of a teacher in a white school was more than double that of a Negro school teacher. Under far worse conditions are the children of the indigenous US population, the Indians. According to 1947 figures, 120,000 Indian children did not attend school at all. In New Mexico (according to 1952 figures), 88% of the Navajo youth were illiterate.

There is no unified system of education in the United States. There are preschool departments in elementary schools for children

between 5 and 6. The children are kept there 2-3 hours daily. Children between 6 and 12 years of age attend elementary schools (first through sixth grade); between 12 and 15, junior high school (seventh through ninth grade); and between 15 and 18 they attend regular high school (tenth through 12th grade). There is another system of education in existence (particularly in small communities) which consists of an 8-year elementary school (grades 1-8 and a 4-year high school (grades 9-12). Most of the states have compulsory universal education providing for school attendance by children and adolescents 7-16 years of age, but the child labor laws in most states permit the employment of children (with certain restrictions) of 14, and in some states of 12 years. Upon graduation from high school, part of the students enter a 4-year college which is either part of a university or an independent institution. There are also 2-year colleges which are, in effect, high schools with extension courses. Some of them train technical personnel. The 4-year colleges offer a general education designed to complete the general educational training of high school students and a special education (technical, pedagogical, etc). Graduation from a 4-year college entitles the student to a Bachelor of Science degree. Some of the B. S. degree holders join the higher departments of the university, law, medicine, etc. After one year in a higher specialized institute (faculty) the student can acquire a Master of Science degree, and after an additional 2 years, and the submission of a thesis, a doctorate.

In addition to the state-operated schools in the US, there are a number of private schools, elementary, high schools, and colleges. These are attended by children of wealthy parents, are well equipped and are staffed with highly qualified teachers. The majority of the

private elementary and high schools are run by the Catholic Church.

In 1950 there were 128,225 state elementary schools and 10,375 private ones. The total attendance in the state elementary schools in 1955 was 22,101,989 students and in the private and local elementary schools 3,506,200. The elementary schools for Indians, run by the federal government, were attended by 27,400 students.

An American high school curriculum is different from that of equivalent schools in other countries. Beginning with the ninth grade, the subjects are divided into compulsory and elective. English, American history (or civics), and physical education are compulsory for all students, and one course in mathematics is compulsory also for ninth grade students. The other compulsory subjects are determined by each school, depending on the type of students. A certain amount of algebra, geometry, biology, foreign languages, physics, and chemistry are compulsory for students preparing for college. Typing, stenography, and secretarial work are compulsory for students preparing for office jobs. Less attention is focused on subjects of a general educational nature. A considerable number of students, particularly children of working people, take up a so-called general course. These students go through a minimum of general education subjects. They take up a course on so-called general mathematics instead of algebra and geometry, and "general natural history" instead of chemistry, physics, and biology. They also study such subjects as housekeeping (girls), as well as "home economics," "consumer buying," etc. Certain trade skills are also taught in US high schools. In the school shops the students are familiarized with a number of trades.

There are high schools for professional training.

There were 24,542 state high schools and 3,331 private ones in the country in 1950. The 1955 attendance of state high schools of all types was 8,472,173 students, and of private and local schools, 774,800. The federal-run schools for Indians were attended by 12,300 students. In 1955, 1,138,922 teachers were employed in the US schools.

Teachers are trained in normal schools and to some extent also in general colleges. In most states elementary school teachers are required to have a high school education plus a 2-year training course. Almost all states require high school teachers to have a 4-year training course beyond a high school education. The number of college-graduating teachers for elementary schools is lagging behind the demand, and their number is decreasing from year to year. The number of high school mathematics teachers graduated in 1950 was 4,618 and in 1953, 2,710; biology teachers, 3,413 in 1950 and 1,830 in 1953; chemistry teachers, 1,660 in 1950 and 722 in 1953; physics teachers, 954 in 1950 and 317 in 1953.

The higher educational institutions in the US are called universities, institutes, or colleges. A university consists of one or several general education colleges, special colleges, and higher special faculties. Many colleges, just like the institutes, function as independent educational institutions. The level of education offered by the universities varies a great deal. By higher education in the US is meant not only a 4-year college training, the first 2 years of which are equivalent to the 2 senior classes of the European middle schools, but also a 2-year college course. The level of specialization acquired in the various university faculties also is not uniform.

The majority of the universities and colleges (about 2/3 of them) are private. Tuition fees in private universities are much higher than in state universities. The average annual tuition fee in state universities is \$718, and in private ones \$1,225 to \$2,000. Private universities are subsidized by capitalist firms.

There were 1,856 higher education institutions in the US in 1955, with a total student body of 2,716,000. That number includes also 2-year college students. Due to the large number of students dropping out of colleges, the number of graduates per year is only slightly over 300,000. Compared to this figure, the number of students completing their postgraduate courses is insignificant. Among the most popular US higher education institutions are Harvard University in Massachusetts (founded in 1636), Yale University in Connecticut (founded in 1701), Pennsylvania University in Pennsylvania (founded in 1740), Princeton University in New Jersey (founded in 1746), Columbia University in New York (founded in 1754), John Hopkins University in Maryland (founded in 1876), Stanford University in California (founded in 1885), Chicago University (founded in 1857), the West Point Military Academy in New York, etc.

Among the most important libraries, not counting the school libraries, are the Library of Congress in Washington (founded in 1800; contains 8,956,000 books and brochures and 11,970,000 manuscripts), The Carnegie Institute Library (founded in 1895; 1,200,000 books), the New York public library (5,427,208 volumes), the Chicago public library (2,233,462 volumes), the Boston public library (1,960,922 volumes), the Los Angeles public library (2,006,835 volumes).

The most popular among the US museums are the US National Museum in Washington, the Metropolitan Museum of New York, the largest

art museum in the US (founded in 1870), the American-Indian history museum in New York (founded in 1916), the American Museum of Natural History in New York (founded in 1869), the Chicago Natural History Museum, the Marine Museum in Virginia (founded in 1930), etc.

XIII. NATURAL AND TECHNICAL SCIENCES, PHILOSOPHY,
POLITICAL ECONOMY, AND LINGUISTICS

Natural and Technical Sciences

The initial stage of the development of science in North America is closely linked with the history of English science and the scientific institutions of Great Britain. The ruling circles of Great Britain manifested a great interest in the natural riches of the American colonies and encouraged the study of them. Up to the middle of the eighteenth century however the work in that field was done primarily by amateurs and self-educated people. Harvard College, the oldest and, prior to the eighteenth century, the only college in the country, was founded in 1636. For many decades the North American scientific forces had been oriented toward the London Royal Society (founded in 1660) whose correspondents in the American colonies collected materials on North American flora and fauna. The collection of paleontological materials was initiated by J. Crogan (who died in 1782). An outstanding political figure and educator, T. Jefferson (1743-1826), made a collection of fossil animals. Of practical importance for the agriculture of the North American colonies were the experiments made by J. Logan (1674-1751) in the cultivation of maize, popular among the Indians, as well as the introduction

of maize and silage

of clover and chicory by J. Eliot (1685-1763). Eliot published one of the first guides on agriculture in America. One of the prominent representatives of science in North America was the outstanding political figure, economist and physicist, B. Franklin (1706-1790), whose basic research was made in the field of electricity, and is an important landmark in the history of his scientific studies. In 1727 he founded an amateur scientist club in Philadelphia which was reorganized into the American Philosophical Society in 1743. A friend of Franklin's, a physicist and botanist K. Colden (1688-1766), did research work into the nature of light. D. Rittenhouse (1732-1796), a physicist and astronomer, worked on the theory of magnetism. J. Winthrop (1606-1676) was one of the first to conduct astronomical observations. Another J. Winthrop (1714-1749), a Harvard College professor of mathematics and founder of the first observatory in Philadelphia (in 1769), observed Halley's comet in 1759 and the eclipses of the sun by Venus in 1761 and 1769.

The first half of the nineteenth century produced scientists whose works acquired nationwide importance. Of outstanding importance were the works of J. Henry (1797-1878) which were closely connected with the discoveries of the great English physicist, M. Faraday. In 1832 Henry defined the phenomenon of self-induction, and in 1842 the oscillatory nature of a condenser discharge. The development of astronomy in the US was greatly influenced by the work of the English astronomers V. and J. Herschel and the French astronomer and physicist, P. S. Laplace. The translation of Laplace's book "Celestial Mechanics" was made in 1829-1839 by the American mathematician and navigator, N. Bowditch (1773-1838). The foundation for independent research in astronomy was laid by D. Olmsted

who developed the first sawmill and saws), mechanical inventions before the last decades of the eighteenth century were very rare. The intensified development of industry following the war of independence of 1775-1783 was reflected in the adoption of the patent law by Congress in 1790. A water-operated spinning loom was constructed by the Barr brothers in 1789. An English mechanic, Slater (1768-1835), who had previously worked in one of the Arkwright plants, built some English model spinning looms in the US in 1789-1791. Of great importance was the cotton gin invented in 1793 by Ely Whitney (1765-1825). The Waltham (Massachusetts) factory built in 1813 was the first to combine mechanical spinning, weaving, dyeing, and bleaching departments. The machine-building plant of that factory was the first to produce mechanical weaving looms. The water wheel was the major type of motive power in the basic US industry, the textile industry, at the end of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth century. Steam engines were first used in the US for pumping water out of the mines in New Jersey and Rhode Island between the eighties and nineties of the eighteenth century, and in the processing industry, at a New York sawmill, in 1803. Mechanic O. Evans (1755-1819) constructed a high-pressure steam engine model in 1810. The first attempts to use steam power in water transportation go back to 1785 when J. Fitch (1783-1798) built a rowboat whose oars were operated by steam. The first patent on a steam-operated boat was received by J. Ramsey in 1791. The attempts to build a steamship suitable for commercial exploitation were completed by R. Fulton (1765-1815). His wheel boat "Claremont" made its first trip in 1807. The first 12-mile long railroad line in the US (from Baltimore towards Ohio) was laid in 1828 and opened in 1830. The Charleston-Augusta railroad line, 133 miles long, was opened in 1833. Locomotive construction in the US was begun in

1829 when P. Cooper (1791-1883) built the first railroad steam engine in Baltimore. The large scale use of water power in US industry encouraged greater interest in hydraulic motors. In 1838, S. Goud took out the first patent on a hydraulic turbine with an exterior radial water feed to the runner. A hydraulic turbine was developed in 1849 by a hydrotechnician J. Francis (1815-1892). Machines for the production of bolts and nuts, chains, snaps and buttons, etc were built in the first half of the nineteenth century. The first milling machine in the US was designed early in the nineteenth century by E. Whitney, the inventor of the cotton gin. The production of various machines and tools, watches, musical instruments, agricultural machines, etc was begun between the 1830's and 1840's. In 1830 E. Fairbanks (1792-1864) invented the flat decimal scale. A working model of a sewing machine was made in 1832-1834 by mechanic W. Hunt (1796-1859). Its construction was considerably improved in 1846 by E. How (1819-1867). Taking advantage of the many years of experience of designers and inventors of different countries, K. Schols (1819-1890) built a typewriter which subsequently became popular under the name of Remington. The use of the metal plough became widespread around 1825, and it was first patented in the US in 1797. S. McCormick's (1809-1884) hay mowers and reapers appeared in the 1830's.

Up to the 1860's the metallurgical industry consisted of numerous small enterprises operating on charcoal. The blast heating method, developed in Scotland in 1829, was adopted in the US from 1834. The Bessemer process was introduced in the American metallurgical plants in the 1860's. The first attempt to introduce new methods of reducing pig iron and steel was made by W. Kelly (1811-1888) who built a dumping converter in 1858. Scientists and inventors of a

number of countries worked on the problem of electrical telegraphy in the 1830's. In 1837 S. Morse (1791-1872) patented an electromagnetic telegraph apparatus. A more efficient construction of the Morse apparatus was developed in the early 1840's. The first telegraph line, Washington to Baltimore, was equipped in 1844. In 1855 D. Hughes (1831-1900) designed a letter-printing machine. The laying of a cable on the bottom of the Atlantic was completed in 1866. An important discovery in chemistry, the vulcanization of rubber, was made in 1839 by the self-taught inventor C. Goodyear (1800-1860).

Up to the end of the nineteenth century American science depended to a large extent on the theoretical and technological achievements in the European countries. The country's universities devoted much attention to theology but the exact sciences were relegated to a secondary place. But toward the beginning of the twentieth century, the large universities (Harvard, Yale, Chicago, etc) became important scientific research centers in the field of natural sciences. A prominent place in the history of mathematics in the US was held by B. Pearce (1809-1880) and his son J. Pearce (1836-1906). The application of mathematical methods in various fields of physics was facilitated by the work of J. Gibbs (1839-1903) one of the founders of chemical thermodynamics and statistical mechanics. In 1873 he drew up an entropy diagram and in 1875-1878 discovered the method of thermodynamic potentials. In 1881 A. Michaelson (1852-1931) began his famous research on the determination of the speed of light. In the last third of the nineteenth century the attention of many astronomers in Europe and America was focused on the study of the sun spectrum. Working in this field in the US was G. Draper (1837-1882); C. Young (1834-1908) was one of the first to photograph protuberances and to study the spectrum of the

chromosphere. In 1901 S. Langley (1834-1906) drew up an atlas of the infrared part of the sun spectrum. The development of spectroscopy was facilitated in 1880 by physicist G. Roland's (1848-1901) diffraction gratings for electroscopes with up to 800(strokes) per mm. In 1908 G. Hale (1868-1938) discovered the existence of a magnetic field around sun spots. E. Pickering (1846-1919) made the first precision measurements of the brightness of stars and compiled a photometric catalog of them in 1876-1884 simultaneously with the Russian scientist V. K. Tseraskiy. In 1906-1912 the American astronomer G. Russell and a Dutch scientist E. Herzprung discovered the existence of small starlets and giant stars. In 1913 Russell drew up a luminosity spectrum diagram for stars. The spectral method of determining the absolute dimensions of stars was developed in 1914 by W. Adams (born in 1876). Astronomers G. Hill (1838-1916) and S. Newcomb (1835-1909), working in the field of celestial mechanics, made a considerable contribution to the perfection of calculation methods. In the 1870's, the US Geological committee coordinated all the geological research work which had previously been done independently in different states. The geological administration was headed by C. King (1842-1901), known for his researches on the cordilleras, and since 1881 by G. Powell (1834-1902). The great geologists of the older generation, J. Dana and J. Hall, devoted their work to problems of stratigraphy. In 1889 the geochemist F. W. Clark (1847-1931) began to publish the results of his calculations of the average content of chemical elements in the earth's crust. Geomorphologist G. K. Gilbert (1843-1918) defined the block-faulting of the cordilleras. American biological sciences were greatly influenced by Darwin's work. Botanist A. Gray, whom Darwin had familiarized with his theory of the origin of species as far back as 1857, took up the defense of Darwinism against one of the most rabid

anti-Darwinists, L. Agassiz (1807-1873). Darwin's ideas largely determined the course of activities of the noted selectionist L. Burbank (1849-1926). Beginning with the 1890's the development of physiology in the US as greatly influenced by the classical works of I. P. Pavlov and the physiological experimentation methods he developed. Various problems of experimental biology were studied by the physiologist and biochemist J. Loeb (1859-1924). His work on the ionization of egg whites became one of the bases of the ionic theory of stimulation. The first decades of the twentieth century saw the birth of the chromosome theory of heredity by T. H. Morgan (1866-1945) who made use of the theory of special hereditary elements by the German biologist A. Weisman.

America's evolution into a high developed industrial capitalist country by the end of the nineteenth century was accompanied by an intensive development of technical sciences and inventiveness. In particular the rapid expansion of the railroad network brought about a number of developments in transportation technique. The first sleeping cars, designed by the engineer and entrepreneur G. Pullman (1831-1897), appeared in 1858-1864. Blocking and signalling devices were patented in 1867 by T. Hall (1827-1880). In 1869 G. Westinghouse (1846-1914) took out the first US patent on railroad brakes activated by compressed air. A. G. Bell (1847-1922) took out a patent on the telephone in 1876. E. Gray (1835-1901) worked on the construction of the telephone at the same time. The name of the outstanding inventor T. A. Edison (1847-1931) is associated with one of the stages of technological development during the expansion of capitalism in the US. Among his achievements are the duplex and quadruplex system of telegraphy (1869-1874), the phonograph (1877), the development of the incandescent lamp in 1879, and the construction

of the first large power plant in the US. The first street car in the US, designed by F. G. Sprague (1857-1934), was built in Richmond in 1887-1888, following a number of experiments by Edison and others. The invention of the method of celluloid production by the Hyatt brothers goes back to 1869. The development of the "dry plate" and the celluloid photographic film (in the 1880's by G. Eastman (1854-1932) was the starting point for the large monopolist organization in the photographic industry (Eastman-Kodak). Of the other inventions, mention should be made of the linotype constructed in 1884 by a German by origin O. Morgenthaller (1854-1899), and the development of the adding machine in 1886 by Burroughs (1857-1898). The methods of producing carborundum and calcium carbide, etc in electric furnaces were developed in the 1880's and 1890's. The electrolytical method of extracting aluminum from bauxites was devised in 1886 by C. Hall (1863-1914). Along with the inventors who subsequently became large scale employers (Westinghouse, Eastman, etc), there emerged a new type of inventor, an employee of the capitalist monopolies. Among the early representatives of this type of inventor was the mathematician and engineer, C. Steinmetz (1865-1923) who spent the major part of his productive life in the service of General Electric Company which was founded in 1892. Steinmetz is credited with more than 200 inventions in the designing of electric motors and other electrical equipment.

Automobile production in the US began to develop in the end of the nineteenth century. Among the first models was an automobile by G. B. Selden (1846-1922) which was patented in 1879 and put to use only in 1895. The first attempts to build an airplane were made in the 1890's. A 50 hp gasoline motor tandem monoplane,

designed by C. Menley (1876-1927), was tested in 1903. The tests ended in failure. Almost at the same time, the brothers Wilbur and Orville Wright built a 16 hp plane. It was flown by Orville Wright 2.5 seconds over a distance of 32 m. The first American hydroplane was built by G. Curtiss (1878-1930). American researchers and engineers are credited with outstanding achievements in radio technology and electronics. E. Thomson (1853-1937), N. Tesla (1856-1943), and R. Fessenden (1866-1932) made a thorough study of the arc generators used in the first continuous oscillation transmitters. The heterodyne radio receiving set was invented by Fessenden in 1905. The first 3-electrode electronic bulb was produced at the same time by Lee de Forest (born in 1873). In 1908 E. Alexanderson (born in 1878) designed the high frequency induction type machines. E. Armstrong (born in 1890) invented an effective scheme of regenerative reception (in 1913) and offered a new method of superheterodyne reception (in 1918) which subsequently became a basic method.

World War I accelerated the process of subordinating scientific research to the power of the monopolies. The militarization of science in that period was reflected particularly in the activities of the National Research Council which enlisted the work of the physicians A. Michaelson, P. Bridgeman, R. A. Millikan and others for the solution of military technical problems. The leadership of the council actually consisted of the G. Eastman, P. Dupont, and other very big monopolies.

The US produced a number of outstanding research workers in the field of modern mathematics, physics, and chemistry. Significant achievements in the field of mechanics and the general theory of differential

equations belong to G. Birkhof (1884-1944); in mathematical analysis and calculations, to N. Wiener (born in 1894); in functional analysis, to G. Neiman (born in 1903); and in topology, to O. Veblen (born in 1880), G. Alexander (born in 1888), S. Lefschetz (born in 1884, and others. R. A. Millikan (1868-1953), an experimenting physicist, became widely popular for his researches in atomic physics at the beginning of the twentieth century. The phenomenon of light resonance was discovered and studied in 1902 (simultaneously with the Russian physicist I. I. Kosonogov) by an optics physicist, R. W. Wood (born in 1868). Experimental research in electricity was done by Millikan, Steinmetz, and M. Pupin (1858-1935). I. Langmuir, a physician and chemist (born in 1881), and others studied electrical discharges in gases and thermoelectronic emissions and the adsorption of gases on surfaces of solid bodies. In 1912-1916, G. Lewis propounded the theory of chemical bonds. Working with his associates (G. Urey, (born in 1893, etc), he succeeded in isolating the heavy hydrogen isotope in 1932. Lewis' and Langmuir's achievements played an important part in the development of the modern concept of the structure of the atom. A. Dempster (born in 1886) built the first mass spectrometer in 1918 (and a double focusing mass spectrograph in 1935) and discovered a number of isotopes after 1920. The discovery by A. H. Compton (born in 1892) in 1923 of the changes in X-ray lengths due to their diffusion by electrons confirmed the quantum nature of light. The discovery of electron diffraction was made in 1927 by 2 Bell Telephone Co scientists, K. Davisson (born in 1881) and L. Germer (born in 1896). L. Pauling (born in 1901), physician and chemist, applied the quantum mechanics principle in the study of molecular structure and the nature of chemical bonds. After the discovery of the neutron by the British scientist G. Chadwick

in 1932, research work on its properties was taken up by physicist G. Danning (born in 1907), G. Pegram (born in 1876), and A. Rabi (born in 1898). R. Oppenheimer (born in 1904), a physics theoretician, is known for his work in the field of quantum mechanics and atomic nuclear theory. In 1930 E. O. Lawrence (born in 1901) propounded his idea of a cyclotron, model of which was built by him jointly with N. Edlefsen (born in 1893). Beginning with 1932 a number of different types of high voltage cyclotrons were built by the joint efforts of R. Van de Graaf (born in 1901), M. "Tiuve" [sic] (born in 1901), C. Lauritsen (born in 1892) and others. The first high voltage electrostatic machine was designed by Van de Graaf in the early 1930's. In 1940 physicist D. Kerst (born in 1911) built a betatron. K. Anderson (born in 1906), an experimenting physicist, discovered the existence of positrons in 1932 and mesons in 1936 (in collaboration with S. Neddermeyer who was born in 1907). In 1936-1938, Millikan, simultaneously with the Soviet physicist S. N. Vernov, perfected a new method of measuring charged particles of cosmic rays based on the utilization of the deflecting action of the earth's magnetic field. The study of cosmic rays continued (1946-1949) by R. Schatt, H. Bradt, and V. Peters. In 1951, an experimenting physicist, M. Deutsch, and his collaborators discovered the existence of positronium, an atomic type system consisting of an electron and positron which are subsequently converted into photons.

World War I and the suspension of imports of chemicals from Germany prompted the development of the chemical industry in the US.

of great importance in this field.

Of great importance in this field was the development of chloroprene rubber production (in 1931) by G. Newland and W. Caruthers who died in 1937, the development of nylon by Caruthers in the early 1930's, and the work of a number of other research workers resulting in the development of new dyestuffs, plastics, high octane gasoline, etc.

As far back as the beginning of the twentieth century the US already had a number of observatories which included, in addition to the Harvard Observatory, the Lick Observatory (1888), Yerkes Observatory (1897) and the Mount Wilson Observatory (1904). Between the 2 world wars the observatories were equipped with the latest instruments. Several new observatories with modern equipment were built (for example, Mount Palomar and MacDonald, both in 1939). A great deal of research work was done by the Americans during that period. H. Shapley (born in 1855) is known for his studies of stellar conglomerations (1918) and the structure of galaxies. G. Hale (1868-1938) used the spectrohelioscope to study the structure of the sun. In 1920 A. Michaelson, a physicist, devised new methods for measuring the diameter of stars with the aid of an interferometer. The interdependence between mass and the luminosity of stars was defined in 1923-1924 by G. Russell working together with the Dutch astronomer E. Hertzsprung and the British scientist E. Eddington. In 1924 E. Hubble (born in 1889) proved the existence of stellar systems similar to the Galaxy. O. Struve (born in 1897) occupied himself with the study of stellar spectra and spectral binary stars. He observed the phenomena of star rotation (1927-1930) simultaneously with the Soviet Astronomer G. A. Shine. In 1930 W. W. Tombow (born in 1906) discovered the planet Pluto on the basis of earlier

calculations made by P. Lovell (1855-1916). R. Aitken (born in 1864) discovered about 3,100 binary stars and compiled a general catalogue of binary stars. Utilizing a so-called dynamic method, E. Rabe produced a very precise definition of the solar parallax.

Characteristic of modern American geology, just as in the nineteenth century, is the large volume of descriptive works. Of the leading US geologists mention should be made of K. N. Fenner (1870-1949), G. Sperry (born in 1870), W. G. Twenhofel (born in 1875 and geochemist D. M. Clark (born in 1882). Prominence was gained by the works of R. O. Daly (born in 1871) on magnetic rocks; V. Lindgren (1860-1939) and W. H. Emmons (born in 1876) on geology and the origin of ore deposits.

F. Lilly (1870-1947), embryologist and cytologist, studied the problems of cellular fission and impregnation (he is the author of the so-called artificial insemination theory). R. G. Garrison (born in 1870) studied the transplantation of parts of embryonic vertebral tissues and the cultivation of isolated tissues (since 1907). One of the progressive scientists and public figures in the US was the physiologist W. Kennon (1871-1945) who worked on the problems of adaptive and nervous system control in the organism. F. G. Benedict (born in 1870), physiologist and biochemist, is known for his work on the nutrition and metabolism of animals and human beings. A prominent place in the history of US biochemistry is held by the research work on vitamins done by G. Evans (born in 1882) and E. MacCollum (born in 1879) as well as by E. Kendall (born in 1886) whose name is associated with the discovery of tyrocsin (1914) and cortisone (1936).

During World War II of 1939-1945 American research work was utilized primarily for military purposes. The administration for scientific research and technical development organized early in the

war was designed to mobilize science for the solution of military problems and the development of military technology. In the production of tanks, the thermal processing of thin armor was speeded up several times by the use of improved hardening methods. Highly effective aviation fuel, 100-octane gas and triptane, were produced. The improvement of the fuel quality brought about changes in airplane, automobile, and diesel engine construction etc. Intense work has been going on since the 1940's in the designing of jet motors, in radio technology, electronics and its various uses, in the production of electronic calculating machines, etc. An important part in the development of American science was played by the following European scientists who moved to the US in the 1930's: the German physicists A. Einstein (1879-1955) and G. Boethe (born in 1906), the Italian physicist E. Fermi (1901-1954), etc.

The scope of scientific research, particularly in the various branches of the war industry, as well as the personnel involved in that work have been greatly increased in the last decades. In 1954 the US had about 200,000 scientific workers in the field of natural and exact sciences (including about 100,000 chemists) and approximately 650,000 engineers. The total amount spent by the government, private industry, and universities on scientific research for military purposes in 1952 was \$3.75 billion.

The militarization of science and technology was intensified in the postwar period. The requirements of the Defense Department determine the course of the National Bureau of Standards (founded in 1901) which does research work in the field of exact sciences and technology (electronics, automation, and measuring instruments). The Rand (research and development) Corporation, organized in 1946

under the auspices of the Douglas Aircraft Company, is working on a number of aspects of military technology. Of the funds appropriated by the government for scientific research 90% was used for research of a military nature. The military nature of scientific research is strikingly demonstrated in the work on atomic energy. The discovery of the atomic nucleus in the 1930's in a number of countries prompted large scale atomic work in the US which led to the production of the atomic bomb with the aid of such noted physicists as Oppenheimer, Boethe, Fermi, etc. The first atomic reactor was put into operation at the end of 1942, and atomic bombs were dropped on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945. Further development of atomic weapons led to the construction of a still more destructive weapon, the hydrogen bomb, and an announcement of its test was made in 1953. Work was also underway toward the production of atomic artillery shells (first tested in May 1953) and special guns for firing those shells. Work is continued toward the creation of atomic motors for submarines, planes, etc. Enormous funds are being spent on designing and producing guided missiles and pilotless planes. At the same time, the utilization of atomic energy for peaceful purposes is being delayed by the monopolies for fear of the devaluation of their capital investment in the electrical, fuel, and other industries. The foundation for an atomic power plant in the US was laid in September 1954, after such a plant had already been commissioned in the USSR. The development of electronics is to a considerable extent determined by the requirements of the Defense Department which uses electronic equipment. The latest types of calculating machines find their application in military laboratories and institutes. Research is underway also in the field of bacteriological and chemical warfare facilities.

The US has several complex scientific institutions of the caliber of a national academy. Among them is the American Philosophical Society in Philadelphia for the dissemination of useful knowledge, the oldest scientific institution founded at the suggestion of B. Franklin in 1743. Franklin himself and T. Jefferson were among the presidents of the society. The society has the following departments: mathematical and physical sciences, geological and biological sciences, and humanitarian sciences. The society has been publishing collections of its work under the title of Transactions every few years since 1818, and Proceedings since 1838. The American Academy of Arts and Sciences (in Boston, founded in 1779) has 3 principal departments: physicalmathematical sciences, natural history, and philosophical and political sciences. The Academy has been publishing its scientific notes (Memoirs, since 1785) and its monthly Proceedings (since 1848). The National Academy of Sciences in Washington was founded in 1863 (its statute was approved by Congress and signed by A. Lincoln). The Academy has the following departments: mathematics, astronomy, physics, technology, chemistry, geology, botany, zoology and anatomy, physiology and biochemistry, pathology and bacteriology, anthropology, and psychology. The academy has been publishing its scientific notes Memoirs, since 1866 and its Annual Report since 1863. The American Association for the Advancement of Science in Washington, founded on the basis of the Association of American Geologists and Naturalists which had existed since 1840, consists of 2 departments, the Pacific and Southwestern departments. The association unites more than 200 scientific and educational organizations (universities, institutes, and societies). The association includes 16 sections on the basic fields of knowledge. It has been publishing its Summarized

Proceedings since 1848 and Symposia since 1936. The weekly magazine Science, published since 1880, has been the association's official organ since 1901. The Smithsonian Institution in Washington was founded in 1846 with the funds bequeathed by a British mineralogist, George Smithson (1765-1829). The institution has the following departments: anthropology, biology, geology, art and technology, history, and ethnology. The institution has been publishing the Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections once or twice a year since 1862. Among the complex scientific research institutions also is the Carnegie Institute founded in Washington in 1902 with the funds donated by the big monopolist of the metallurgical industry, A. Carnegie. The institute has the following departments: astronomy, geophysics, biology, and history. It has been publishing Scientific Monographs (since 1903) and an year-book publication (since 1902). Among the specialized scientific organizations mention should be made of the American Mathematical Society in New York (founded in 1888), the American Astronomical Society (1897), the American Meteorological Society (1919), the American Society of Physics (1899), the American Physical Institute (founded in 1931 as an association of a number of scientific societies for various branches of physics), the American Chemical Society in Washington (1876), the Geological Society (1888), the Mineralogical Society (1919), the American Geophysical Union (1919), the National Geographic Society in Washington (1888), the American Geographical Society (1852), the American Medical Association in Chicago (1847), and others. There are a large number of scientific institutions and associations in the field of technological sciences: the American Society of Civil Engineers,

the oldest society of engineers in the US (founded in 1852); the American Society of Mechanical Engineers (1880); the Institute of Electrical Engineers (1884); the Institute of Mining and Metallurgical Engineers (1871); the Edison Electrical Institute (1933); the Society of Electrical Engineers in New York (1881), the Society of Automotive Transportation Engineers (1904), the Institute of Radio Engineers (1912), and others. Some states and large cities have local scientific associations, as for example, the Washington Academy of Sciences (founded in 1898) which unites the representatives of a number of scientific and technical societies in Washington. The Franklin Technical Institute in Philadelphia (founded in 1824) is one of the oldest institutions coordinating scientific research and popular sciences. The institute has a museum, a planetarium, and several laboratories.

The large industrial and financial monopolies play a huge part in the organization of scientific research work in the US. Of the 96,000 research workers employed by 2,000 companies in 1952 40% were working for 44 large companies employing over 25,000 people each. The monopolies control the activities of almost all the universities and colleges. They took advantage of the government financed scientific research during the war, and after the war they were given part of the patents on inventions made possible by government funds. Although some of the atomic centers as well as certain institutes and laboratories are operated by the government, the basic method of government participation in the organization of scientific research continues to be the financing of research carried out by the monopolies and the universities and colleges which are dependent on them.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Struik, D. J., *Yankee Science in the Making*, 1948, Boston

Ster, B. J., "Freedom of Research in American Science," *Science and Society*, Vol 13, No 2, 1954, New York, pages 93-122

Handbook of Scientific and Technical Societies and Institutions of the United States and Canada, fifth edition, 1948, Washington

Philosophy

The first book on philosophy published in America was written as an aid to logic in the Descartes spirit by W. Bratlow (1662-1716). At the beginning of the eighteenth century the development of philosophy was strongly influenced by religion. Among the noted philosopher theologians were S. Johnson (1696-1772) and J. Edwards (1703-1758), both followers of J. Berkeley. Among the foremost American educators were B. Franklin, I. Allen (1737-1789), T. Paine (1737-1809), T. Jefferson (1743-1826), and T. Cooper (1759-1840), a follower of the English materialist Priestley, etc. They struggled for the independence of the American people from the English colonizers and criticized feudal ideology. Jefferson, US president and author of the Declaration of Independence (1776), which was based on the principles of bourgeois democracy, was a believer in the philosophy of sensationalism. During his stay in Paris Jefferson became acquainted with the philosopher Cabanis (q.v.) and adopted some of his materialist viewpoints. He opposed the dominance of the church and religion, championed the cause of freedom of speech and education, and defended the democratic elements of society. The boldest and most consistent philosopher-educator among the leaders of the revolution in England's North American colonies was T. Paine, publicist, active participant in the War of Independence, and friend of J. Condorcet and J. Danton. Paine disclaimed any belief in the Jewish, Roman Catholic, Greek Protestant, or any other church. He believed his own reason was his church. In his works The Rights of Man (1791-1792), Age of Reason (1794-1807), Common Sense (1776), etc, Paine upheld the cause of national independence and social justice.

In the first half of the nineteenth century, the development of philosophy in the US was markedly influenced by the European idealist philosophy, particularly by Kantianism. The background for an idealist

philosophy had been provided by religious mystics, a large number of whom came to the US after the latter had become an asylum for European sectarians in the eighteenth century. Also belonging to that school of philosophy was the defender of the emancipation of women, S. M. Fuller (1810-1850). Also among them was H. D. Thoreau (1817-1862), the defender of John Brown who was executed for his heroic attempt to bring about a Negro rebellion in Virginia in 1859. These philosophers called themselves the "Concord" group. The leading philosopher of the group was the poet R. W. Emerson (1803-1882). He sharply criticized the ruling class of American society. Emerson believed that the substance of that class was represented by the market where everything was for sale, including talent, beauty, virtue and man himself. In the middle of the nineteenth century US philosophy was influenced by G. Hegel. The American followers of Hegel translated his works and started the publication of the first philosophical magazine in the US, The Journal of Speculative Philosophy. This school, connected with political liberalism, exerted an influence on its competitor, the school of pragmatism (q.v.), founded by Ch. Peirce (1839-1914) who adopted the "triad" from Hegel, medieval nominalism (q.v.) from Duns Scotus, and the primacy of logical forms over sensual perceptions from Plato and I. Kant. The acme of this entire system directed against materialism was the recognition of God as a personality in the spirit of Christianity. Peirce formulated a thesis according to which the sum total of practical effects, necessarily following from the truth of a concept, represents the meaning of such a concept. This thesis subsequently became the principal method of the cognition of pragmatism. Among the objective idealists was J. Royce (1855-1916), whose philosophy is based on religion, and whose ethics are placed in the service of capitalism. The essence of morals, according to Royce, was the "loyalty" of man

which meant that man uncomplainingly endures all hardships in the belief that God is suffering with him. Royce's successor in recent years was A. N. Whitehead (1861-1947) who moved to the US from England in 1924. At first, as coauthor with B. Russell of Principles of Mathematics (3 volumes, 1910-1913), he developed the philosophy of logic. In his subsequent works Process and Reality (1929), Science and the Contemporary World (1925), etc, Whitehead came close to neorealism and combined subjective idealist gnosiology with religion.

The beginning of the 1820's in the US witnessed the spread of the ideas of utopian socialism by R. Owen, Ch. Fourier, and A. St. Simon whose followers organized numerous cooperative communities. These communities however could not exist very long. The socialist labor movement in the US and, with it, Marxism got underway in the 1850's, particularly after the beginning of the Civil War. A friend and pupil of K. Marx and F. Engels, I. Weidemyer (1818-1866), came to the US in 1851. He played an active part in the army of the North, called on the workers to fight for the liberation of the Negroes from slavery and founded the first German language Marxist weekly in the US, Die Revolution. F. Sorge (1828-1906) found a communist club in New York and the American section of the First International (1867). They propagated the communist world outlook. A contribution to the development and popularization of the materialist world outlook was made by progressive public figures such as the outstanding American scientist L. Morgan (1818-1881) with his book The Ancient Society (1877) and J. W. Draper with his History of Conflict Between Religion and Science (1874). A "native" bourgeois philosophy, striving to chart its own course and exert an influence on European philosophy, began to take shape in the US with the advent of the epoch of imperialism. A principal historic part in this course was played by the subjective idealist school of pragmatism. The fullest

elaboration of pragmatism was made by W. James (1842-1910) in his Principles of Psychology (2 volumes, 1890), The Will to Believe (1897), Pragmatism (1907), Pluralistic Universe (1909), and Essays on Radical Empiricism (1912). Denying the objective meaning of knowledge, James believed that truth was that which is useful for practical purposes, not that which corresponds to reality. In the field of psychology, James was a theologian and voluntarist. A critique of James' pragmatism appears in Lenin's book Materialism and Empiriocriticism [Materialism and Empiriocriticism] (1908, published in 1909). One variation of pragmatism is instrumentalism (q.v.) which was developed by John Dewey (1859-1952). Dewey believed that concepts are mere "instruments" for "regulating" the world and do not reflect any reality. In his works Psychology (1896), The Bases of the Critical Theory of Ethics (1891), Sketches of the Logical Theory (1903), Democracy and Education (1916), The Reconstruction of Philosophy (1920), Logic as a Research Theory (1938), etc, Dewey preached "social cooperation" in preference to the theory of class struggle, that is, the subordination of the exploited to the exploiters. He opposed the revolutionary transformation of society, offering instead his pedagogical system, the principal point of which was to "develop" certain "businesslike" qualities in students rather than to facilitate their acquisition of positive knowledge. Another feature of idealism in the US was neorealism and critical realism (q.v.). Among the followers of the first of these tendencies, which emerged in 1912, were R. Perry (born in 1876), W. Montague (1873-1953), F. G. U. Woodbridge (1867-1940), etc. By favoring the substitution of natural science for philosophy and by proclaiming themselves as enemies of idealism, the neorealists actually identify existence with consciousness and struggle against the materialist theory of knowledge. Unlike their confreres in England who switched

to spiritualism, the American neorealists deny consciousness and take a position in favor of behaviorism (q.v.). In 1920 the neorealists were opposed by the "critical realists" who included A. Lovejoy (born in 1873), Pratt, Rogers, Strong, and the best known among them, G. Santayana (1863-1952). In his works Life of Reason (5 volumes, 1905-1906), Realm of Spirit (4 books, 1928-1940), etc. Santayana refers to conviction and the existence of matter as "animal belief" and considers reality as an infinity of spiritual essence which exists in itself. At the same time he preaches agnosticism in the belief that everything is doubtful, including doubt itself. In Santayana's opinion, any explanation merely serves to confound the confusion already existing in the world, For this reason, he claimed, the best thing in life is to forget it. But Santayana also recommends lending credence to illusions, since without them the life of man is allegedly impossible. The American type of Machism, appealing to the upper strata of the bourgeois intelligentsia, particularly the technical intelligentsia, represents logical empiricism and semantic philosophy (q.v.). The logical empiricist school, also referred to as "neopositivism," "logical positivism," "operationalism" or "physicalism," is headed by the leaders of the "Vienna circle" founded in the US in the 1930's. This circle included R. Carnap (born in 1891) (Unity of Science, 1932, The Logical Structure of the World, 1928; An Outline of Logic, 1929, The Logical Syntax of Language and The Proof of Meaning), F. Franco (born in 1894) (The Law of Causality and its Limits, 1932, The End of Mechanistic Physics, 1935, Between Physics and Philosophy, 1941), G. Reichenbach (born in 1891, year of death unknown) (The Atom and the Universe, 1930, The Theory of Probability, 1935, Experiment and Foresight, 1938), etc. With a view to opposing the materialist theory of knowledge, this school perverts mathematical logic on a

large scale and distorts the ideological treatment of the latest theories of physics, biology, cosmology, psychology, and linguistics. Its major philosophical task is proclaimed to be a "logical analysis" of scientific concepts and propositions. Declaring logic to be a game with strictly conditional rules, this school opens its doors to sophistry which is in the service of reactionary imperialist ideology. Semantic philosophy is merely a subtle variation of logical empiricism which represents a reversion to medieval nominalism on a subjective idealist basis. The semantic theories of R. Carnap, A. Kozhibskiy (1879-1950) (The Maturity of Mankind, 1921, Science and Sense, 1933), S. Chase (born in 1888) (The Tyranny of Words, 1938), Ch. Morris (Language and Behavior, 1946), etc. deny the real meaning of common concepts and scientific theories. They see the problems of philosophy in an analysis of the language structure, in "regulating" the world by creating a special universal "metalanguage" of symbolic logic. This "metalanguage" will allegedly eliminate all philosophical errors, political dissension and "lack of understanding" existing among classes. Instead of liberating the working people from exploitation, the semanticists propose to "purify the language" by eliminating the words "devoid of meaning" such as "imperialism," "fascism," "class struggle," "socialism," etc.

Prominent in contemporary American bourgeois philosophy are sociological doctrines. Social Darwinism, racialism, and Malthusianism are built on a perversion of Ch. Darwin's theory and on Mendel-Morgan genetics. Abusing mathematical methods, the representatives of the reactionary school of imperialist sociology (the White Russian emigres P. Sorokin, N. Rashevskiy, etc) are using differential and integral equations to "prove" the inevitability of capitalism, exploitation, war, etc. Mathematician N. Wiener's cybernetics, based on the great progressive importance of the mathematical

theory of communication and information (see communications theory), is utilized by reactionary sociology in its noisy campaign claiming the alleged future possibility of the complete substitution of machinery for human brains, of machine controlled social relations, etc.

The period following World War II witnessed the flourishing of mystical tendencies in bourgeois philosophy including variations of intuitivism and existentialism (q.v.) as well as other irrational tendencies, such as Nietzscheanism, oriental mysticism, etc. They preach a spiritual community with God, "revelations," despair, intellectual and moral nihilism, etc. The philosophical schools of neo-Thomism and personalism (q.v.) have acquired wide prominence. Numerous so-called Thomist universities run by the Catholic church spread the medieval theological dogma of Thomas Aquinas and are active in the struggle against social progress. Among the neo-Thomists, that is, neoscholastics, are V. Berk (born in 1907), author of the book, A Search of Augustine's Wisdom, S. G. MacFaddeck, G. Rein, M. Maritien, etc. The "personalists," B. Bowen (1847-1910), author of the Theory of Thought and Perception (1897), Metaphysics (1882), and Personalism (1908); R. T. Fluelling (born in 1871), E. S. Brightman (1884-1953) etc, believe that nature is the communication medium between God and the human personality which is a spiritual element of existence. Opposing materialism in the realm of social relations, personalism reaches the conclusion that people should struggle not for the remaking of society but for a "new soul."

Showing increasing growth and strength at present is a progressive tendency among natural scientists, philosophers, and cultural leaders who are fighting for scientific and art progress and opposing war propaganda. Among those looking at social events from a democratic

point of view are K. Lemont, author of Illusion of Immortality (1935), Humanism As a Philosophy (1949), and Independent Thinking, R. Sellers, G. Somerville (Soviet Philosophy, Philosophy of Peace) etc. American progressive philosophers G. G. Selsam, author of What is Philosophy (1938), Socialism and Ethics (1943), G. Aptheker, G. Wells, etc. as well as such prominent scientists as the outstanding mathematician of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology professor D. J. Stroick, are successfully exposing the reactionary philosophy and developing a scientific world outlook of dialectical and historical materialism. Professor Stroick, author of The Yankees Create Science (1948), B. Dunham, author of An Outline of Kant's Esthetics (1934), Man Against Myth (1947), and A Giant in Chains (1953), Wilkerson, G. Philipps, etc. have recently been ousted from their university positions. Marxist philosophical works are published in the periodicals, Science and Society, Masses and Mainstream, and Foreign Affairs. The Jefferson School of Social Sciences in New York is the only one in the US where instruction is given on a Marxist basis. The revolutionary theory of Marxism is courageously defended by the US Communist Party and its leaders W. Foster and E. Dennis.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Lenin, V. I., "Materialism and Empiriocriticism," Sochineniya, fourth edition, Vol 14, page 327
- Foster, W. Z., The Decline of World Capitalism, translated from English, 1951, Moscow
- Foster, W. Z., An Outline of America's Political History, translated from English, second edition, 1955, Moscow
- Kvitko, D. J., Ocherki sovremennoi anglo-amerikanskoi filosofii [Essays on Contemporary Anglo-American Philosophy], 1936, Moscow-Leningrad

- Lingart, I., Amerikanskiy pragmatizm [American Pragmatism], translated from Czech, 1954, Moscow, Cornfort, M., Science Versus Idealism, translated from English, 1948, Moscow
- Lingart, I., In Defense of Philosophy, Against Positivism and Pragmatism, translated from English, 1951, Moscow
- Dennis, E., Ideas They Cannot Jail, 1950, New York
- Rogers, A. K., English and American Philosophy Since 1800, 1923, New York
- Muller, G. E., Amerikanische Philosophie, 1936, Stuttgart
- Parrington, V. L., Main Currents in American Thought, Vols 1-2, (1927-1930) New York
- Emerson, R. W., Works, translated from English, Vol 1-2, 1901-1902, St. Petersburg
- Emerson, R. W., A Moral Philosophy translated from English, Parts 1-2, 1868, St. Petersburg
- James, V., Scientific Bases of Psychology, translated from English, 1902, St. Petersburg
- James, V., Is Life Worth Living, translated from English, second edition, 1901, Moscow
- James, V., Diversity of Religious Experience, translated from English 1910, Moscow
- James, V., Pragmatism, translated from English, second edition, 1910, St. Petersburg

Political Economy

The development of political economy in the US, just as in the other capitalist countries, has been indissolubly connected with the economic and political history of the people and the development of the class struggle.

A few books and brochures dealing with current economic problems were published during the colonial period of US history (by P. Douglas, N. Weber, etc). but they were of limited theoretical importance. An outstanding scientist who tried to provide a theoretical analysis for economic problems was the ideologist of the burgeoning American bourgeoisie, B. Franklin (q.v.) who, as Karl Marx pointed out, offered "the first conscientious and clear analysis of exchange value in its relation to working time" (Marx, K., K kritike politicheskoy ekonomii [Appropos of a Criticism of Political Economy], 1953, page 44). The analysis of exchange value was a remarkable element in Franklin's economic works. Franklin however failed to understand the nature of labor which creates commodity values and therefore did not discover the true nature of money, its functions, and the difference between metal and paper currency.

The War of Independence was followed by a period of expansion of American capitalism. The chief exponent of the bourgeois political economy of that period was A. Hamilton (1757-1804), head of the Federalist Party, the party of the big bourgeoisie and landlords of the north. He was the theoretician of protectionism. His program was designed to mobilize the sources of capitalist accumulation for the development of industry by way of intensifying the exploitation and plunder of the working people. Hamilton denied the theory of value based on labor, and was one of the first authors of the vulgar theory of the "capital producing capacity of the credit system." Hamilton's adversary both in the field of politics and in economic outlook was the noted democratic figure of the revolutionary war period, T. Jefferson (q.v.). Jefferson's economic views, strongly influenced by the physiocrats (q.v.), bore the imprint of "agrarian romanticism," the idealization of the individual farmstead. His "agrarian ideal" smacked of petty-bourgeois agrarian utopia.

Eventually however Jefferson was compelled to retreat from his "agrarian ideal" position under the pressure of economic events and to recognize the necessity of industry and banking. Much influence was exerted in the first half of the nineteenth century by Hamilton's followers (H. Clay, D. Raymond, etc) who defended the policy of a higher degree of industrial protectionism. The principal representative of the Jefferson school of that period was T. Cooper (1759-1840) who began as the champion of "freedom of trade" and ended up as a believer in protectionism. While believing in the theory of A. Smith and D. Ricardo, Cooper strove to combine this theory with the so-called inductive method in political economy.

The major exponent of the bourgeois political economy in the US in the period of industrial capitalism was H. Carey (q.v.) (1793-1879) who also exerted considerable influence on the vulgar political economy of other countries. Carey propounded the theory of "harmony of interests" of the various classes, presenting it as "the universal law," and tried to provide a theoretical foundation for the "identity of interests of monarch and subjects, landlord and tenant farmers, capitalist and worker, planter and slave." A "political economy" of slaveholders also came into being in the US, one of the most reactionary variations of bourgeois political economy which offered a "theoretical" defense of Negro slavery (D. Holmes, H. Hughes, D. Tucker, and G. Fitzhugh).

Considerable influence on the subsequent development of bourgeois political economy in the US was exerted by F. Yoker (1840-1897) who eclectically combined the so-called historical inductive method with the theories of the Epigonus followers and the vulgarizers of the English classical school. Yoker propounded a peculiar "4-

factor" theory which included, in addition to land, capital, and labor (rent, interest and wages), a "fourth factor," that is the "organizational abilities" of the entrepreneurs whom he considered as a special class, different from the capitalists, whose profits he described as "rental for abilities." To fight the labor movement and stupefy the minds of the masses, the bourgeoisie not only utilized the open apologists of capitalism, such as Carey, Yoker, etc, but also tried to gain control of the labor movement and subordinate it to its ideological and political influence. The reformist trade union leaders, agents of the bourgeoisie in the labor movement, have been and are used for that purpose. A similar role was played by various bourgeois "reformers" the most prominent of whom was G. George (q.v.) (1839-1897), the preacher of the "single land tax" bourgeois program.

K. Marx and F. Engels devoted much attention to the criticism and exposure of the bourgeois political economy in the US. Thus Marx's works reveal the inconsistency of the theoretical premises offered by S. Newman (1797-1842), who considered trade as an "act of production, the sources of surplus value by F. Wayland (1796-1865) who affirmed that the value of the consumer goods used by the workers is to be added to the cost of the products, just as in the case of the cost of the means of production. Also criticized were Carey's theory of "harmony of interests" and G. George's agrarian theory.

Opposing the bourgeois political economy in the US as early as in the first stages of capitalist development were a number of economists who strove to defend the interests of the working class. They were very inconsistent about their work, however, since their viewpoints reflected the immaturity and backwardness of the labor movement in the US, and they were influenced by petty-bourgeois utopias and prejudices. One of the first representatives of this

political economy school was a Philadelphia printer, L. Billesby, who published a book "Remarks on the Causes and Results of Uneven Distribution of Wealth (1826). Acting as a Ricardian socialist and basing his belief on the labor theory of value, he argued that all the income of the wealthy classes is produced by the labor of the workers. A captive of many petty bourgeois ideas himself however, Billesby maintained a negative attitude toward technical progress, and his program consisted of utopian demands for the establishment of "free associations" and "full pay for labor" within the framework of capitalism. Ideas of utopian socialism were propagated also by A. Brisbane (The Social Purpose of Man 1840), P. Godwin (A Popular Outline of Fourier's Theory 1844), etc. An outstanding contribution to the development of economic thought in the US was made by the prominent leaders of the American labor movement, W. Sylvis and A. Steward. In his articles, speeches, and letters, Sylvis (1828-1869) criticized A. Smith and J. S. Mill as ideologists of the bourgeoisie and exposed the theories of the American bourgeois economists on the "harmony of interests." His theoretical and political viewpoints however were confined within the narrow framework of trade unionism.

A considerable part in the development of economic thinking in the US was played by A. Steward (1831-1883), a tireless propagandist and organizer of the labor movement in the 1860's and 1870's for an 8-hour work day. In his works, "Reduction of the Work Day and Reflections on the Movement for an 8-Hour Work Day, Steward developed the utopian idea of liquidating capitalism by the introduction of an 8-hour workday. The merits of his works consisted in that they contributed to the mass movement for an 8-hour workday, but at the same time they gave rise to reformist illusions and came close to petty bourgeois opportunist theories. The American Marxists led by I.

Weydemyer and F. Sorge (q.v.), who in turn were acting under the direct guidance of K. Marx and F. Engels, were the most consistent defenders of the really vital interests of the working class and of scientific socialism.

Two major political economy schools began to take shape in the US during the transition to the imperialist stage, (a) the diminishing returns school (G. B. Clark, 1947-1938, T. Carver, E. Seligman, etc) and (b) the institutionalists (T. Veblen, 1857-1929, W. Mitchell, 1874-1946, etc). Certain American economists tried to combine the programs of both schools (G. Commons, 1862-1944). The theory of diminishing returns is merely a variation of the antiscientific theory of diminishing utility. The basic premise of the theory of diminishing returns (G. B. Clark, The Distribution of Wealth, 1899. The Bases of Economic Theory, 1907; T. Carver, The Distribution of Wealth, 1904), asserting that the growing number of productive factors (land, capital, and labor) is accompanied by their diminishing productivity which will be reduced to naught beyond a certain point, is designed to prove that the wages should be fixed at the level of the least productive worker. At the same time it affirms that capital, which allegedly produces profit independently of the workers' labor, also treats such profits on the basis of diminishing returns. All this pursues the aim of refuting the fact of capitalist exploitation and lending credence to the notorious "harmony of interests."

Institutional economics is a peculiar variation of the "historical genetics" method which harmonizes to some extent with social Darwinism. Denying the existence of objective laws of economic development of society, the institutionalists claim that the prime mover of this development consists of instincts, customs, mores, and psychological motives embodied in economic institutions such as private

property, money, credits, etc. Such an idealistic conception of the economic development of society tends to transform this development into a history of "instincts" and "psychological motives." At the same time the institutionalists look upon the development of society as a more or less smooth evolution, an evolution without leaps and bounds, one that precludes social revolution.

The "institutionalism" position was taken also by numerous ideological representatives of the petty and middle class bourgeoisie which suffered from the domination of capitalist monopolies. The writings of these economists frequently contain sharp criticism of the monopolies' policies and exposures of the machinery used for the enrichment and parasitic practices of the financial oligarchy. These works however are far from a scientific understanding of the laws of economic development of society, and are usually based on petty bourgeois illusions of the possibility of "reforming" the foundations of capitalism. Thus T. Veblen's books (The Theory of the Leisure Class, 1899, The Theory of Business Enterprise, 1904, etc), while putting much stress on the parasitic nature of "big business," offer a program of action which calls for the transfer of leadership over society not to the working class but to a technical intelligentsia ("council of technicians"). Another institutionalist, J. Commons, acting in the belief that the foundation of economic development lies in "legal institutions" (The Legal Foundations of Capitalism, 1924, and Institutional Economics, 1934), proposed the establishment of "control commissions" to mitigate the contradictions of capitalism.

A large part in determining the direction of economic thinking in the US in the period of imperialism was played by the sharp critics of capitalism, E. Bellamy (1850-1898) (Looking Backward, 2000-1887, 1888, a very popular book on the social structure in the year 2000),

B. Adams (1848-1927) The Theory of Social Revolution, 1913) H. O' Connor (Melion's Millions, 1933), etc. Their works reveal the parasitic nature of modern capitalism, and help to expose the policies of capitalist monopolies and their apologists.

The defense of monopolies in the American bourgeois political economy is expressed in 2 basic forms, (1) the denial of the domination of capitalist monopolists by the assertion that the monopolies do not destroy competition (G. M. Clark, E. Chamberlin, G. K. Galbraith, and G. Stigler) and (2) the justification of monopoly domination on the basis of the advantages of large scale production (S. Sherwood, G. Molton, and D. Lilienthal). The first "theory" distorts the actual correlation between monopolies and competition, and the other substitutes the question of monopolies by another question, the advantage of large scale production. The advantage of large scale production, however does not presuppose the necessity of preserving monopoly capitalism but the necessity of a transition to socialism. The bourgeois economists are trying also to distort the essence of state monopoly capitalism by portraying it as a system of subordinating the monopolies to the state (H. Hansen and S. Harris). Actually however this system is characterized by the complete subordination of the state to the monopolies.

During the general crisis of capitalism the American bourgeois economists suggested the possibility of overcoming the contradictions of capitalism by appropriate policies on the part of the bourgeois state. The bourgeois economists are trying to debase the socialist system of economy instituted in the USSR and under construction in the countries of the people's democracy and to prove the viability and "superiority" of capitalism. This has brought forth a number of theories on "national capitalism," "democratic capitalism," "neo-

capitalism" (T. Carver, L. Lorwin, S. Slichter, etc) and on the "exceptional nature" of American capitalism which is allegedly capable of maintaining "permanent prosperity," "equalizing incomes," and insuring a "high living standard" for all sections of the population.

Economic depressions, chronic below capacity production, and mass unemployment have loomed particularly high in the period of the general crisis of capitalism. In this connection, many bourgeois economists are trying to gloss over the inevitability of depressions under capitalism and to propound the theory of the "depressionless cycle" (the Harvard School of Business, etc).

Proposed also are a number of prescriptions and programs for a so-called "antidepression policy" which, as the 1929-1933 depression showed, is helpless before the spontaneous forces of development of capitalist economy. Much prominence is given to the "full employment" theory which promises to liquidate unemployment and the below capacity output of the productive machinery.

The second stage of the general crisis of capitalism saw the formation of 2 principal groups of American bourgeois economists, (1) the advocates of government interference in the economy and the "planning" and "control" of the capitalist economy (A. Hansen, L. Lorwin, J. M. Clark, S. Chase, etc) and (2) the advocates of "free enterprise" (B. Anderson, E. Johnston, L. Mizes, etc). Some of the American bourgeois economists occupy a middle of the road position (G. Molton, F. McCloop, etc). The first group is very close to Keynesism (q.v.), the major bourgeois economic theory in the period of the general capitalist crisis. One of the peculiar features of American Keynesism is that, while recognizing the Keynesian method of stimulating "private investments" with a view to achieving "economic stability" and "full

employment," it attaches great importance to the "stimulating" role of government spending as a method of "priming the economic pump." The Keynesians are trying to define certain "new" economic categories, the "multiplier" and "accelerator," which allegedly determine the correlation between investment, employment, and national income, making it possible to control the capitalist economy in such a way as to prevent depressions and achieve "full employment." In reality the Keynesian program is a program of attacking the living standard of the workers with the aid of inflation, reduction of real wages, and the imposition of higher taxes on the people. Many bourgeois economists (Samuelson, Johnston, etc) propose to replace the "full employment" program and inflation with a program of "a high rate of employment without inflation" which is a frank admission of the necessity of unemployment under capitalism.

At present many exponents of both theories are attempting to justify the militarization of the economy which they claim is an effective method of preventing depressions and achieving full, or a high rate of, employment. A number of bourgeois economists in the US, drafting programs for militarizing the economy, are also making ideological preparations for war and spreading Malthusian and racial theories with the object of preparing for a new war. Much attention in the work of these economists is focused on the drafting of all sorts of programs of "world planning," "world control," increasing the exports of American capital, etc. All this serves the purposes of US monopoly expansion.

In the US, as in the other capitalist countries, there also exists a petty bourgeois political economy. The representatives of the petty bourgeoisie and certain sections of the middle class

bourgeoisie suffering from the domination of the monopolies are more or less resolute in exposing the policies of the monopolies and the imperialist state. The books by F. Landberg (The 60 Families of America, 1937, 1938, 1946), George Seldes, A Thousand Americans (1947), K. Edwards, International Cartels in the Economy and Politics (1944), W. Berge, International Cartels, 1944, D. Lynch, Concentration of Economic Power (1946), etc, though frequently revealing indecision and advocating the petty bourgeois utopia of a return to small scale production, were nonetheless directed against imperialist reaction. A considerable number of petty bourgeois economists follow some of the provisions of the Keynesian theory and try to use it for channeling government to public works, social security, the construction of houses, schools, hospitals, etc. These demands however are made under the petty bourgeois illusion that it is possible to improve the condition of the workers without a class struggle and to eliminate depressions and unemployment within the framework of capitalism.

There is also a progressive economic science in the US which is developing on the basis of the Marxist-Leninist theory. A number of serious Marxist works on problems of economic theory were published in the US, including W. Foster's book The Decline of World Capitalism (1949) and his articles in Political Affairs, particularly the articles criticizing Keynesian theory, books by G. Allen, International Monopolies and Peace (1946), Atomic Imperialism (1952) and Atomic Energy and Society (1949), the works of A. Rochester, American Capitalism (1949) and Why the Farmers are Poor (1940). B. Perlo, American Imperialism (1951), H. Haywood, The Emancipation of Negroes, and H. Loomer, Military Economy and Depression (1954). These books contain a profound analysis of the basic problems of modern

times. A thorough study of the development of the US economy is made by the Labor Research Association and the Jefferson School of Social Sciences.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Al'ter, D., Burjuazniye Ekonomisty SShA na Sluzhbe Amerikanskoi Reaktsii [US Bourgeois Economists in the Service of American Reaction], 1948, Moscow
- Blumin, I., "US Bourgeois Economists' Apology for Capitalist Monopolists," Kommunist, No 4, 1955
- Ryndina, M. N., Burjuazniye Ekonomisty Anglii i SShA na Sluzhbe Imperialistichskoi Reaktsii [The Bourgeois Economists of England and the US in the Service of Imperialist Reaction], 1954, Moscow
- Dunbar, Ch. F., "Economic Science in America, 1776-1876," in his book Economic Essays, 1904, New York
- Selingman, E. R. A., Essays in Economics, 1925, New York, (Chapter 4: "Economics in the United States," pages 122-161)
- Fetter, F. A., "The Early History of Political Economy in the United States," Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society, Vol 87, No 1, 1943, Philadelphia
- O'Connor, M. J. L., Origins of the Academic Economics in the United States, 1944, New York
- Dorfman, J., The Economic Mind in American Civilization, 1606-1865, Vols 1-2, 1946, New York
- Schumpeter, J. A., History of Economic Analysis, 1954, New York

Linguistics

The most prominent exponent of nineteenth century historical linguistics in the US was W. D. Whitney. In his works, Language and Linguistics (1867) and Life and the Development of Language (1874),

he anticipated to some extent the theses of the German linguist H. Paul, the theoretician of the "Young Grammarians" school Printsipy istorii yazyka [Principles of the History of Language], 1880). In the twentieth century American linguistics became an independent science. In the introduction to his Language Textbook of the American Indians (3 parts, 1911-1938), F. Boas outlined new principles for treating the subject of linguistics. He calls for a fixation of linguistic facts as seen directly by the observer, without any reference to the previous experience of European linguistics and without any attempt to correlate the observable facts with the various categories of European languages. F. Boas' ideas are further developed by E. Sapir (q.v.), M. Swadesh, B. Warf, and other scientists. The scientific treatment of the wealth of materials on Indian languages (their collection had been started by missionaries long before the emergence of scientific linguistics) is designed for large scale propagation of linguistic knowledge. The languages of the American Indians are systematically treated and explained in the magazine International Journal of American Linguistics, published since 1917. The essence of this trend in American linguistics is revealed in the collection of works Language Structure of Native America, (1946). Taking a different tack, the L. Bloomfield school (q.v.) (B. Block, Z. S. Harris, G. L. Trager, E. A. Naida, etc), known as the school of "descriptive linguistics," is focusing its attention on a new method of the formal treatment of languages based on the principle of keeping out of the language itself, or "micro-linguistics," such "extraneous linguistic" elements as meanings, thought, semantics, etc. All these questions belong to a special science, "macrolinguistics," or "metalinguistics," the outline of which has not yet been defined. The principal organ of this school is the magazine Language. G. L. Trager publishes a magazine,

Studies in Linguistics, which pursues the aim of formalizing the method of language description by making wide use of mathematical symbols. The materials on the languages of American Indians prompted the development of comparative historical linguistics. Special mention should be made of the comparative study of the Algonquin languages by L. Bloomfield. If E. Sepir used the study of grammatical structure as a basis for comparative historical researches, then the subsequently developed original methods of studying the words of the compared languages also made use of archeological data as well as precise methods of establishing chronological data (M. Swadesh). Use was also made of the statistical methods of treatment of materials. Unlike the mentioned major trends, the New York Linguistic Circle, founded in 1945 and headed by A. Martine (the circle publishes the magazine Word), leans toward the modern ("neo-Sosyurianism" [sic], publicizes the work published along these lines and strives to draw American linguistics closer to the European. Work is also being done on the comparative historical study of the Indo-European languages (E. Sturtevant, R. Kent, and G. Lane).

American linguists belonging to different schools are now united in their interest in the "information theory," in translating machines, international language, etc. The current work on the "American language" dates back to N. Webster's lexicography, H. Mencken's works, and their followers. The principal purpose of this is the study of the peculiarities of the American variation of the English language. A systematic collection of materials on these questions is done by the magazine American Speech (published since 1925).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Papers from the Symposium on American Indian Linguistics, 1954, Berkely-Los Angeles

- Newman, S., "American Indian Linguistics in the Southwest," American Anthropologist, Vol 56, No 4, Part 1, 1954, New York
- Hall, P. A., "American Linguistics, 1925-1950," Archivum Linguisticum, Vol 3, Fascicle 2, 1951, Glasgow, Vol 4, Fascicle 1, 1952
- Carroll, J. B., The Study of Language -- A survey of Linguistics and Related Disciplines in America, 1953, Cambridge, Massachusetts
- Trager, G. L., "The Language of America," American Anthropologist, Vol 57, No 6, Part 1, 1955, Menasha, Wisconsin
- Yartseva, V. N., "Contemporary American Linguistics," Nauchnyy Byulleteny Leningradskogo un-ta [Scientific Bulletin of the Leningrad University], No 8, 1946
- Reformatskiy, A. A., Uchenyye zapiski Moskovskogo gov. pedagogich. un-ta im. Potemkina [Scientific Notes of the Moscow City Pedagogical Institute named after Potemkin], first edition, Vol 5, 1941

XIV. LITERATURE

The first literary works in the English language originating on the American continent date back to the seventeenth century. Among them were descriptions of the life in the colonies by J. Smith, J. Winthrop, W. Bradford, S. Sewall, etc. Over a period of 1.5 centuries however the major part of the English language literature in the North American colonies consisted of Puritan theological treatises, frequently imbued with the spirit of religious fanaticism (I. Maser, 1639-1723, K. Maser, 1663-1728, etc.). A prominent part among the publications containing democratic motives protests against the domination of Puritan theocracy and appeals for religious tolerance was played by the works of R. Williams (born circa 1603, died 1683), a courageous and able defender of the progressive ideals of the English bourgeois revolution of the seventeenth century and a sharp critic of the persecution of different religions. The progress of

literature and art in America was to a certain extent held back by the peculiar conditions of life in an undeveloped country where the majority of the population lived in out-of-the-way, isolated places.

The national literature of the country began to take shape in the period preceding the War of Independence (1775-1783) and during that war, when the bourgeois educators and democrats B. Franklin (1706-1790), T. Paine (1737-1809), and T. Jefferson (1743-1826) emerged in the literary and political arena. Their creative works, in many ways based on the writings of European educators, provided the ideological justification for the War of Liberation against England. As direct participants in the struggle for the establishment of an independent republic in North America, they wrote mostly publicist literature, articles, pamphlets and aphorisms, combining revolutionary passion with picturesque style. One of the originators of democratic culture among the American people was B. Franklin. His moral educational aphorisms, articles, and autobiography contain elements of bourgeois moralizing, but they also voice a protest against the domination of the aristocracy, reflect hatred for feudal survivals, respect for men of labor, and sympathy for Negroes and Indians. The most prominent left wing leader of the advocates of American independence and courageous participant in the armed struggle against England was the artisan T. Paine. In his pamphlet Common Sense (1776) he outlines the right of the colonies to independence. In a series of revolutionary pamphlets, published under the general title Crisis (1776-1783), Paine called on the people to continue their resolute struggle. The most important among his later publications were the pamphlet The Rights of Man (2 parts, 1791-1792), directed against the enemies of the French bourgeois revolution of the eighteenth century, and the pamphlet Age of Reason (3 parts, 1794-1807), exposing the church and its servants. After the end of the War

of Independence Paine was subjected to persecution by slave owning circles. His literary legacy was debased. T. Jefferson, author of the world famous historical document the Declaration of Independence, is also credited with a number of other outstanding works of American literature, including the book, Notes on Virginia (first published in 1786 in French and in 1787 in English), in which he severely condemned slavery and advocates the separation of the church from the state.

The first substantial work of American poetry was also the product of the general popular upswing brought about by the War of Independence. F. Freneau (1752-1832), an outstanding American poet who became prominent in the eighteenth century, reflected the people's protest against English oppression in his "British Floating Prison" (1781) and other poems. Freneau heartily welcomed the French bourgeois revolution (in his poem "On the Anniversary of the Capture of Bastille," 1793, etc), and spoke of the Indians with respect and affection (in the poem "Indian Cemetery," 1787, etc) Freneau's later poetry, combining sentimental motives with elements of romanticism, reflects profound discontent with the spirit of bourgeois acquisition that emerged in the young republic. Freneau also acted as a courageous publicist defending for the most part the interests of the farmers, for which efforts he was persecuted like T. Paine. Progressive educational views were expressed also by J. Barlow (1754-1812) in his poems "Columbiad" (1807) and "Advice to the Raven in Russia" (1812) condemning Napoleon's plans of conquest. Freneau and his spiritual author friends, ideologically close to T. Jefferson, proved their democratic sympathies in the struggle against the antidemocratic poets of the "Hartford wits" group, T. Dwight (1764-1846), J. Trumbull (1750-1831), etc (although J. Trumbull's satirical poem McFingal (first published in full in 1782)

played a positive role in the struggle for independence).

The creative work of the American people also showed considerable progress during the War of Independence. Numerous songs and ballads were written criticizing the English mother country. American folklore continued to make progress in the first half of the nineteenth century and later. Comical stories of incredible "exploits" of various braggadocios and habitual liars enjoyed great popularity in the US. Of some interest also were the tales of heroic and fantastic deeds of legendary and semilegendary conquerors of nature and defenders of the oppressed (Paul Bunyan, etc) portrayed as the embodiment of the people's might and its protest against enslavement.

Of great significance from an artistic point of view is the creative work of the original inhabitants of North America, the Indians. The existing records do not adequately portray the richness of Indian folklore. (For a long time scientists paid little attention to it. Besides, certain Indian tribes were completely exterminated) Nevertheless, the published songs, legends, and tales paint a clear picture of the Indians' love of freedom, their sense of human dignity, and poetic phantasy. Indian folklore, a contribution to the country's culture, served to enrich the works of such noted American writers as J. F. Cooper, W. Whitman, H. Longfellow, etc (for reference to Negro creative work see Negro literature below).

In the first period following the liberation of the country from British domination American art and literature made slow progress. The reason for that was the weakness of national cultural traditions, a certain shrinkage of the mass democratic movement in the beginning of the nineteenth century as well as the scornful attitude toward the development of literature and art on the part of the influential circles of the American bourgeoisie affected by Puritan tendencies.

The first novels in the US appeared in the 1790's, including the satiric novel of H. G. Breckenridge (1748-1816), Modern Knighthood (complete edition 1792-1815), and the writings of Ch. B. Brown (1771-1810) which were influenced by the traditions of the gothic novel and to some extent paved the way for American romanticism. American literature rose to a higher level of progress by the 1820's and 1830's, when some of F. J. Cooper's best novels were published.

Throughout almost the entire first half of the nineteenth century the development of US literature was dominated by romanticism. The progressive trend was expressed in the novels, stories, and poems of novel writers who often reflected the illusory hopes for a better life in the young country with its boundless unoccupied lands and, apparently unlimited opportunities. But they also expressed with great artistic force the disappointment of rank-and-file Americans in bourgeois progress. That was a period when the social contradictions of capitalism had not yet been fully uncovered, and the labor movement had made only its first steps. Nor had the liberation struggle against slavery developed as far as it did later, before the Civil War. The progressive works of the romanticists however continued to reflect to some extent the people's discontent with the growing power of the bankers, industrialists, land speculators, and planters, and their sympathy for the Indians who were being exterminated by the colonizers. Typical of the best works of American romanticism was the high praise of the might and beauty of nature in America, untouched by civilization, the poetization of man living from the world of selfish interests and proving himself in the courageous struggle against the menacing forces of nature, the spiritual poverty of the business folk, and the portrayal of the tragic death of noble people in the clash with triumphant evil, selfish acquisition.

The progressive elements of early American romanticism are associated mostly with the names of W. Irving, W. Bryant, and J. F. Cooper. In his most brilliant humorous novels, Irving (1783-1859) drew on the traditions of folklore and fable. His productions contain elements of satire directed against bourgeois customs (The Devil and Tom Yoker, etc). This writer however frequently revealed a tendency to idealize the landlord mode of life, and in some of his later works (Astoria, or Anecdotes from History of One Enterprise Beyond the Rockies, 2 parts, 1886, etc) he sang praises to bourgeois enterprise. Democratic sentiments were expressed (particularly in popular literature) by the author of political poetry, W. Bryant (1794-1878), who was also a nature poet. James Fenimore Cooper (1789-1851) was the author of historical novels which truthfully reflected certain contradictions of the period of bourgeois society development in America (his best works are represented in the following 5-book series: The Pioneers, 1823, The Last of the Mohicans, 1826, The Prairie, 1827, The Pathfinder, 1840, and Animal Hunter, 1841). Along with the books written in a democratic spirit, Cooper also wrote several novels revealing clearly reactionary tendencies. In his best novels, filled with poetry, Cooper presents an original combination of elements of romanticism and realism and paints and tragic picture of the death of Indian tribes, of courageous and honest people blazing a trail for civilization through virgin forests and across prairies only to become victimized by a society dominated by greed (hunter Bumpo, etc). In his Monikins (1835), Cooper presents a satiric characterization of the English and American social political system of that time. V. G. Belinskiy, M. U. Lermontov, and M. Gorkiy thoughtfully of Cooper's works.

Typical of the later romanticism in American literature were the growing somber intonations and moods reflecting an increasing

disillusionment with the value-destroying bourgeois reality. A gloomy picture of Puritan America is presented by H. Hawthorne (1804-1864) in his psychological novels and stories. His novels (The Scarlet Letter, 1850, House of Seven Gables, 1851, etc), dealing primarily with ethical problems, tell of the writer's profound discontent with bourgeois society. At the same time his works betray a lack of perspective. E. A. Poe (1809-1849) is the author of lyric poetry and novels portraying a tragic sense of callousness in the bourgeois world. Many of his works (particularly stories), poetizing horror and praising death, are characterized by decadence. A warm sympathy for the common people is felt in the romantic writings of H. Melville (1819-1891). In his novel (Taipei) (1846), Melville contrasts the romanticized world of savages living on the South Pacific Islands with the world of exploitation and hypocrisy. His Moby Dick (1851) contains a symbolic portrayal of the triumph of evil in a bourgeois society. The fantastic nature of many of Melville's books is frequently based on a realistic foundation and serves a definite satiric purpose.

The reactionary tendency in American romance literature is for the most part represented by certain works of W. Sims (1806-1870) and other writers idealizing the South of the planters.

V. I. Lenin's emphasis of the importance of the American people's revolutionary tradition connected with the Civil War of 1861-1865 provides a key to the understanding of the historic upswing of US literature in the middle of the nineteenth century. The development of the bourgeois democratic movement against Negro slavery brought about a number of gifted literary works on the eve of the Civil War. Reflecting in their work the growing popular struggle against slavery, the writers developed the traditions of the progressive romanticists

to some extent and at the same time laid the groundwork for realistic trends. The flourishing of antislavery literature dates back to the 1840's, and particularly to the 1850's and 1860's. Passionate antislavery poetry had been written by G. H. Wittier (1807-1892) as far back as the 1830's. A substantial contribution to antislavery literature was made by H. W. Longfellow (1807-1892), author of Songs of Slavery (1842). The author is not devoid of sentimentalism, and some of his works show a tendency to embellish America's past, but in his outstanding poem, Song of Hiawatha (1855), based on Indian folklore, he painted a poetic though perhaps too idyllic picture of the life of the Indian tribes in the northern part of the American continent. The US invasion of Mexico and the predatory morals of the southern slave holders are stigmatized in the satiric poetry of J. R. Lowell (1819-1891).

Dating back to the 1850's are the best works of H. Beecher Stowe (1811-1896). Her novels Uncle Tom's Cabin (1852) and Dread (1856) imbued with a feeling of sincere sympathy for Negroes and voicing a protest against the cruelties of slave holders, contributed to the ideological preparation of the democratic strata of the country for the struggle against the slave holding South. Despite her inclination to sentimentalism and religious tendencies, a woman writer managed to portray with great emotional force the inhumanity of slavery, thereby inflicting a blow on the reactionary literature dealing with the "ideals" of the planters. R. Hildreth's novel (1807-1865) The White Slave (1852, the original version was the story entitled Slave, or Recollections of Archie Moore, 1836) portrays not only the cruelty of the slave holders but to some extent also the resistance of the Negroes. Among the highly talented writers were the leaders of the abolitionist movement, W. L. Garrison (1805-1879) and W. Philipps (1811-1884). A Lincoln went down in the history of American literature

as the author of some brilliant publicist publications distinguished for their simplicity and expressiveness. They frequently bristled with piercing folk humor. Prominent among the writers struggling against the planters was the remarkable thinker and fiery publicist, the Negro F. Douglas (born circa 1817, died 1895). The philosopher-idealist R. W. Emerson (1803-1882), leader of the writers' circle known as the "transcendentalists," severely condemned the actions of the American troops in Mexico and the compromises with the slave holders and other antidemocratic measures in his poems "Ode" (1847), "The Boston Hymn" (1863), etc, as well as in his articles. He advocated the creation in the US of a genuine national literature reflecting the peculiar features of American life and with the other "transcendentalists" criticized certain aspects of capitalism from an idealistic point of view. Emerson's individualist tendencies however grew stronger in the course of time and frequently led him (particularly after the Civil War) to an openly apologetic acceptance of bourgeois progress. Another courageous enemy of slavery was H. Thoreau (1817-1862) who produced outstanding examples of passionate abolitionist literature, including his article On Civil Disobedience (1849), the speech on slavery in Massachusetts (1854), etc. His book Walden, or Life in The Woods, extols the virtues of life in the great outdoors, and condemns the suppression of individualism by bourgeois civilization. Also outstanding among the writers connected with "transcendentalism" was the critic and feminist Margaret Fuller (1810-1850).

Among the writers who felt the beneficial effect of the anti-slavery movement was the great American poet democrat W. Whitman (1819-1892). A collection of his poetry and verse published in book form under the title Leaves of Grass (1855: new and enlarged editions

were published throughout the poet's life) convey the idea of the necessity of fighting against the slave owners. This people's poet extolled the virtues of the common people, seeing them as fighters against injustice ("A Song of Himself," 1855, etc). He dreamed of an America liberated from slavery and embodying the ideal of the brotherhood of the working people ("A Song of the Axe," 1856, etc). Typical of his basically realistic writing (though not without a romantic admixture in the portrayal of a positive hero) are his passionate and tender love of nature and his asseveration of human greatness, optimism, and faith in the bright future of the people's masses. Whitman's poems express the revolutionary traditions of the American people with great force. During the Civil War the poet wrote a collection of poems The Drumbeat (1865, later included in the Leaves of Grass collection) calling upon the people to struggle against the southern planters. Widely popular also are Whitman's poems dedicated to the memory of A. Lincoln who was assassinated by the agents of the slave owners ("Oh, Captain! My Captain!," 1865. ("When Lilacs First in the Dooryard Grew," 1865-1866). Leaves of Grass betrayed certain bourgeois illusions peculiar to the poet. He managed to overcome some of them after the Civil War in the book "Democratic Vistas (1871), in the article "American National Literature" and in others. Whitman exposed the corruption prevalent in the country, ridiculed the spiritual futility of the self-satisfied American bourgeois, and condemned the work of the "dominating bards" of America. The artistic originality of Whitman's lyrics is explained by this close familiarity with the traditions of American folklore, particularly the creative work of the Indians, and by the fact that he introduced oratorical intonations, free verse, and new rhythms into American poetry.

The growth of realistic tendencies in US artistic literature is

indicated also in the somewhat romanticized works of Francis Bret Harte (1836-1902). Condemning the corrupting power of gold, he portrayed in his stories of California the spiritual nobility of the common people, the gold diggers.

Soon after the Civil War, when "free" capitalism was in the process of evolving into monopoly capitalism and labor capital conflicts grew more acute, American literature entered a new stage of its history. Dominating the American book market at that time were superficial entertainment novels that embellished bourgeois reality and led the reader away from the actual problems of life (books by F. M. Crawford, F. Stockton, etc). While the literature that contributed to the consolidation of the bourgeois order deteriorated both from an ideological and artistic point of view, the democratic trend in American literature continued to develop and acquire new depth. Realism began to gain ground in the works of American writers by the middle of the nineteenth century, due to the progress of the antislavery movement, but critical realism became the basic feature of progressive American literature only after the Civil War and particularly toward the end of the nineteenth century when the growing contradictions of capitalism accelerated the labor-farmer movement. The American literature of critical realism (that emerged in the US considerably later than in Europe) reflected the people's resentment at the increasing capitalist exploitation and their discontent with the expansionist activities of the American rulers in the international arena.

One of the most prominent figures in the American literature of the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century was Mark Twain (1835-1910) in whose work the life of the common Americans is depicted with kindly humor and true poetry (the novel, Adventures

of Tom Sawyer, 1876, etc). It also reveals undertones of disillusionment with American capitalist reality. Mark Twain, a great satirist and zealous exposé of bourgeois bigotry, rapaciousness, and falsity, painted a true picture of social injustice (Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, 1884, The Man Who Corrupted Hadleyburg, 1899, etc). The writer defended the right of the people to a revolutionary struggle against oppression (A Connecticut Yankee at King Arthur's Court, 1899). As a writer closely tied to the people, Mark Twain was sharply critical of America's adoption of an open imperialist political line (in pamphlets The Man Who Walks in the Dark, 1901, In Defense of General Funston, 1902, etc). Mark Twain's works also reflect certain bourgeois illusions peculiar to a considerable number of average Americans, but the principal features of his work are a protest against reaction, affection for the people of labor, and a true portrayal of the destinies of the American people. Drawing on the traditions of the people's creative work, Twain introduced a peculiar type of humor into American literature, a humor characterized by extreme, and sometimes fantastic, hyperboles. The literature of his last years is imbued with profound sarcasm. By his Huckleberry Finn, the greatest work of American critical realism of the nineteenth century, Twain paved the way for the realistic novels of F. Norris, J. London, and Th. Dreiser.

A distinguished place in the literature of the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century was held by H. James (1843-1916), the author of psychological novels and stories, mostly on the life of the upper strata of the American bourgeoisie and European aristocracy. His work reflects the crisis of bourgeois culture. Some of James' works are characterized by features of realism. They often voice a protest against the negligent attitude toward art in capitalist America. His aloofness from the people however accounts

for the narrow scope of the vital materials dealt with in his books and for their decadent tendencies. E. Dickinson's (1830-1886) lyrics may be characterized as chamber-type composition.

A definite part in the development of critical realism in the last decades of the nineteenth century was played by the works of A. Tourgee (1838-1905), E. Howe (1853-1937), G. Frederick (1856-1898), G. Fuller (1857-1929), H. Garland (1860-1940), S. Crane (1871-1900), and W. Howells (1837-1920). The novels and stories of these writers for the most part removed from the people's struggle for their rights, reveal naturalist tendencies and at times, a certain melodramatic quality. In their best productions however they (particularly Crane, Garland, and Tourgee) reflected the hard life of the farmers, Negroes, and poor city folk, the shady machinations of the stock brokers, and the common people's fear of war. Howells did a great deal to popularize the work of I. S. Turgenev, L. N. Tolstoy, and other Russian writers in the US. He championed the cause of realism in American literature, but, affected by bourgeois prejudices and increasing ideological influence of the ruling class toward the end of his life, he advocated the portrayal of American reality in "smiling tones." E. Bellamy's (1850-1898) popular novel Looking Backward 2000-1887 (1888, Russian translation 100 Years Hence, 1890) became highly popular at the end of the nineteenth century. It was one of the novels of a time when the criticism of reality was combined with utopian pictures of the future.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, when the US emerged as the greatest imperialist state, and when the labor movement assumed a wider scope, the struggle between the forces of progress and the forces of reaction in American literature became more acute. Under conditions of consolidating monopoly power and a policy of large

scale imperialist expansion adopted by the US, a considerable portion of large circulation bourgeois literature embarked upon a course of extolling the virtues of the capitalist employer, publicizing false ideas of alleged equal opportunities in the "pursuit of happiness," and glorifying the expansionist activities of the American imperialists (the so-called "red blood" literature). Under the influence of the dominant bourgeois ideology, certain writers (H. Garland, for example) abandoned their positions of realism and began to write books of an apologetic nature.

US progressive literature developed in the stubborn struggle against the writers of the reactionary camp. Overcoming numerous obstacles in their creative work, Th. Dreiser, F. Norris, and J. London produced some of their outstanding works, proved themselves as worthy successors of the democratic traditions of nineteenth century American literature, and at the same time opened a new page in the history of the realistic novel in the US. The growing movement against the domination of the monopolies and against the imperialists and the further enhancement of the consciousness of the proletariat produced a favorable effect on their work. It is significant that these writers created important works soon after the Spanish-American War of 1898 which initiated the epoch of imperialism. The American realist of the early twentieth century depicted the farmers, workers, and working intelligentsia under the dreary conditions of their existence, told of the death of the common people's illusory hopes for a free and happy life in bourgeois America, painted the rapacious visage of the monopolist, exposed the cynicism of the prevailing morals, and at the same time captured the mood of the growing protest and struggle among the working Americans. But even the works of certain progressive democratic writers betray characteristics of naturalism which may be explained by their lack of understanding of the historic role of the

working class and by their exaggeration of the power of the monopolies which allegedly predetermines the destinies of the common people.

In the struggle for untainted realism and true art the American writers learned a great deal from the great Russian realists, I. S. Turgenev, L. N. Tolstoy, M. Gorkiy, etc.

In his novel Octopus (1901), F. Norris (1870-1902) gave a realistic account of the farmers being ruined by capitalist concerns, and for the first time in American literature painted a picture of the people's armed struggle against the power of the monopolies. J. London (1876-1916) was the first distinguished American writer to be directly involved in the organized struggle of the working class for socialist ideals. His work had been greatly influenced by M. Gorkiy. London produced works of great talent, characterized by the romanticism of struggle and adventure. The heroes of his best stories and novels are people of great resolution challenging the hostile forces of nature and the capitalist system. Exposing the bourgeois orders, the writer depicted the workers engaged in the revolutionary struggle against the oppressors. London's most significant books were written during the first Russian revolution of 1905-1907 and after (The Iron Heel, 1907, Martin Eden, 1909, and some stories and articles). London's story, Love of Life (1906), was highly praised by V. I. Lenin. The dominant influence of opportunism in the American socialist movement however had a negative effect on London's works. Along with the books reflecting the views of progressive American workers, he is credited also with writings extolling individualism and frequently idealizing the strong man who tramples the rights of others.

The outstanding American writer of the twentieth century T. Dreiser (1871-1945) covered a long ideological and creative road

culminating in his joining the ranks of the US Communist Party. In his novels of the first 2 decades of the twentieth century (Sister Carrie, 1900, Jennie Gerhart, 1911, The Financier, 1912, The Titan, 1914, and The Genius, 1915) Dreiser revealed great realistic mastery in the depiction of the tragic fate of the common people in an America dominated by heads of monopolies, and he created the image of a rich employer who made amorality the foundation of his business and personal life.

A literary movement of "muckrakers," criticizing the oppression of monopoly capital primarily from a petty bourgeois point of view, emerged in the beginning of the twentieth century. The recognized leader of that movement was the writer J. L. Steffens (1866-1936). In his early writing career U. Sinclair (born in 1878) was close to the muckrakers. A characteristic feature of his work was the sympathetic interest in the life of the workers as manifested in his social novels The Jungle, 1906, and King Coal (1917). Sinclair's opposition to the war in 1915 attracted the attention of V. I. Lenin who referred to him as "a socialist by nature."

O. Henry (1862-1910) wrote a large number of fascinating stories, frequently with an unexpected ending, which made him very popular. While identifying himself with the bourgeois literature of the "consolation" type which inspires the reader with the false hope for happiness under capitalism, O. Henry shows a sympathetic treatment of the common people and an ironically censorious attitude toward the bourgeois order in the US in some of his best books (The Roads We Choose, 1904, etc).

At the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth, American bourgeois poetry was in a state of stagnation.

However the poets who did not seek asylum from life in "ivory towers" and more or less responded to the democratic spirit of the times did produce gifted poems. Antiimperialist motives are discernible in some of W. V. Moody's works (1869-1910). The poem "Man with a Hoe" by E. Markham (1852-1940) acquired great popularity. The works of such noted poets as E. A. Robinson (1869-1935), R. Frost (born in 1875), C. Sandberg (born in 1878) and V. Lindsay (1879-1931) were published before and during World War I. The discontent of the common people with bourgeois reality is portrayed in the Spoon River Anthology (1915) by E. L. Masters (1869-1950).

The democratic trend in American poetry was enhanced by the writer of ballads and songs on the life of workers, G. Hill (1879-1915), who was executed on a false murder charge. His poems are in tune with the modern creative work of the American workers who produced quite a few songs censuring the capitalists and strike breakers. Negro folklore also continued to develop, reflecting the hard lot and rebellious sentiments of the Negroes and their reluctance to submit to discrimination.

The general crisis of capitalism that broke out during World War I and which became more acute when Soviet Russia broke away from the capitalist system, as well as the concomittant labor-farmer movement for their vital rights determined the trend of American literature during the most recent period. Under the new conditions, the ideologists of the ruling class offered more active support to the literature defending the interests of the bourgeoisie and imperialist expansionists. The work of the apologists of reaction, though acquiring some popularity in recent decades, is of an obvious decadent nature (E. Pound, etc). On the other hand the work of the realist writers representing the antireaction camp shows a clearer

realization of the doom of bourgeois society. Living images of modern revolutionary proletarians are beginning to emerge in US literature.

Under the conditions of the growing labor movement certain writers have switched to revolutionary positions. J. Reed (1887-1920), a gifted novelist and publicist, warmly welcomed the victory of the Russian proletariat in October 1917 and was one of the founders of the US Communist Party. His book Ten Days that Shook the World (1919) is devoted to the events of the Great October Socialist Revolution. Poet, prose writer, and critic M. Gold (born in 1894) and playwright and critic G. H. Lawson (born in 1895) became famous for their progressive work early in the twentieth century. The great October Socialist Revolution was welcomed by J. L. Steffens who later became close to the communists. An important part in the development of progressive American literature was played by the periodicals Liberator (1918-1924) and New Masses (1926-1948).

T. Dreiser's works entered a new stage of development. The writer's ties with the labor movement became stronger. His most important novel The Great American Tragedy, written in 1925, is a convincing portrayal of the way bourgeois society crippled a young American spiritually and turned him into a self-promoter and murderer.

The disturbing feeling of the spiritual and political crisis of capitalist America, the growing protest of the wide masses against imperialist wars, and the hostility of common Americans to fascism also found their reflection in the work of other writers who produced works of critical realism in the 1920's even though their ideological limitations and aloofness from the people prevented them from depicting the contradictions of reality as forcefully as Dreiser. The realistic novels of S. Lewis (1885-1951), Babbitt, (1922) and Arrowsmith, (1925), paint a true picture of declining

spiritual life, dullness and cruelty of the employers, and the tragic fate of the men of science who are forced to do the will of big capitalists. Impressions of the daily life of the average American are presented in the satiric novels of R. Lardner (1885-1933), Dorothy Parker (born in 1893), etc. Among U. Sinclair's numerous books there are quite a few that are weak from an ideological and artistic viewpoint, but he also produced some important expository publications, including the novel Jimmy Higgins (1919), about a socialist worker espousing the struggle against intervention in Soviet Russia, and Boston (2 volumes, 1928), about legal arbitrariness in the US.

The influence of decadent tendencies in American literature began to be felt even in the books of those writers who gravitated toward realism. This applies, for example, to the works of S. Anderson (1876-1941), the author of a number of interesting stories and novels. Certain features of American life, particularly provincial life, are depicted in the autobiographic novels of T. Wolfe (1900-1938), W. Cather (1876-1947), E. Ferber (born in 1887), etc. but the realistic value of their productions is somewhat diminished by their subjectivism. Elements of criticism of the capitalist system are contained in E. O'Neill's (1888-1953) early plays. His subsequent writings however revealed the tendency characteristic of modern US literature to disparage the human being. The attitude of the "lost generation" (a label put by bourgeois critics on those whose discontent with World War I was enhanced by confusion and a spiritual vacuum) is portrayed in a number of books by E. Hemingway (born in 1889) and other writers. Hemingway's novel, The Sun Also Rises (1926, translated into Russian under the title Fiesta, 1935), and W. Faulkner's A Soldier's Reward (1926) paint a sympathetic picture of people crippled by the imperialist war but incapable of grasping

its essence nor of voicing a conscientious protest against it. Hemingway's antiwar sentiments are graphically portrayed in the novel Farewell to Arms (1929), which contains a number of vivid pictures but is not entirely free of decadent influence. Hemingway is also the author of a number of stories distinguished by their literary mastery.

As early as the dawn of the twentieth century such writers as Norris, London, and Dreiser, who in many ways followed the traditions of Whitman as the author of "Democratic Vistas," made valuable suggestions in regard to literature. The twenties are known for the emergence of good literary works which, though far from Marxism, revealed a tendency on the part of their authors (V. Parkington, 1871-1929, V. W. Brooks, born in 1886 etc) to strengthen the democratic traditions of American literature. Of particular interest is Parkington's production Basic Trends in American Thought -- An Interpretation of American Literature from Its Beginning to 1929 (3 volumes, 1927-1930). Popular among the bourgeois critics are H. Mencken (born in 1880) and G. Canby (born in 1878) who have been openly propounding reactionary views in recent decades.

The sharpening of the class struggle during the economic depression begun in 1929 and the development of the antifascist movement have left their profound effect on progressive American literature. Struggling against the decadent literature encouraged by the reaction, the progressive men of letters drew their strength from the struggle of the people defending their vital interests. Outstanding success was achieved by T. Dreiser in the last decades of his life. His collection entitled A Gallery of Women (2 volumes, 1929), including the story "Ernite," is the first important production of American literature on communists. His The Great American Tragedy (1931) and America is Worth Saving (1941) represent landmarks on the writer's road to communism.

Dreiser's last novels The Stronghold (1946, posthumously) and The Stoic (1947, published posthumously) made a great contribution to American literature. As editor of the New Masses, M. Gold has done a great deal to enlist new literary creative forces. Prominence was gained by an entire group of young writers who, like Gold and Lawson, identified their fate with that of the proletariat (A. Maltz, H. Fast, M. Leseur, etc).

Numerous novels on the labor movement and poems of an obvious antibourgeois nature made their appearance in the US in the 1930's. Progressive writers strove to juxtapose sharp criticism of capitalist principles with images of the best representatives of the people, fighters for democracy and socialist principles. In his highly dramatic and realistic plays, stories, and novels, A. Maltz (born in 1908) portrayed the hard life of the working people as well as the grandeur of the common people who raise their voice against reaction. In his Deep Spring (1940) he exposed the beastly visage of fascists fighting against progressive elements, and created remarkable types of fighters for proletarian ideals. Fine poetry, frequently imbued with revolutionary motives, as well as true stories on the life of Negroes were produced by the Negro poet and prose writer, L. Hughes (born in 1902). A growing talent was manifested by the poetess, G. Taggard (1894-1948). A number of interesting stories and narratives, mostly on the life of the southern farmers, were written by E. Caldwell (born in 1903). Characteristic of his work is the peculiar method of interweaving humor and tragedy in the life of the poverty-stricken common people for whom he shows deep sympathy. The writer deviates from realism however when he impassively depicts and even exaggerates human depravity. L. Helman (born in 1905) became popular for her realistic plays expressing in highly dramatic form a profound anxiety for the fate of the people in capitalist America (Little Foxes, 1939).

Despite their distrust and occasional hostility to the labor movement which account for the contradictions in their creative work, Lewis and Hemingway were influenced by the growing struggle against the threat of fascism in the US and were able to paint a true picture of certain aspects of reality and produce impressive accounts of that threat in the 1930's and later. Lewis' It Can't Happen Here (1935) and Kingsblood Royal (1947) were written in the traditions of critical realism. Hemingway wrote a novel of great social significance To Have and To Have Not (1937) and an antifascist play The Fifth Column (1938). In her novels of the 1930's on the life of Chinese peasants Pearl Buck (born in 1892) presented a realistic treatment of certain manifestations of colonial oppression, despite the blurring of social contradictions. Among the great works of the 1930's was the novel by J. E. Steinbeck (born in 1902), Grapes of Wrath (1939), which depicts the poverty of the farmers deprived of their land by the capitalists. Alarm over the threat of fascism is felt in a number of poems by C. Sandburg, E. St.-V. Millay (1892-1950), A. MacLeish (born in 1892), S. V. Benet (1898-1943) etc.

After World War II (1939-1945) the reactionary US circles, eager to attain world domination and disturbed by the growth of the progressive forces, began to promote a large circulation of novels, plays, and poems which openly propounded misanthropic ideas and advocated aggression. The imperialist circles are exerting pressure on writers demanding that literature present rose-colored picture of modern bourgeois America, that it idealize the businessman, the usurer, and the racist. The creative work of the novelists, playwrights, and poets who succumbed to the influence of reaction has entered a stage of decadence. The heroes of the latest and obviously decadent novels by Steinbeck are mostly pathological creatures. The work of J. Dos Passos (born in 1896) has completely deteriorated. In the postwar

years U. Sinclair has been defending the position of the imperialist circles and this has adversely affected his creative work. Published in millions of copies in the US are detective stories, "horror" stories, and novels dealing with all sorts of phenomena of psychopathological nature, and books extolling militarism. Mysticism and the preaching of fatalism found their way into the work of the novelist and playwright Wilder (born in 1897) and a number of other deteriorating prose writers, poets, and playwrights.

By supporting in every way the writers who keep aloof from realism, the ideologists of the reaction are endeavoring to block the reader's access to the writings of progressive authors. The leading "artists of the written word," H. Past, A. Maltz, the Marxist critic, J. H. Lawson, and others were thrown into jail in the early 1950's. The staff members of the progressive magazine New Masses and Mainstream (q.v.), which superseded the New Masses and Mainstream in 1948 are experiencing great difficulties in their attempt to continue the publication. The progressive American writers are struggling energetically against the incendiaries of war. An outstanding progressive part is played by the scientific, literary, and artistic works of one of the oldest Negro leaders of the liberation movement, W. E. B. DuBois (born in 1868). Works of critical realism, though not always devoid of decadent sentiments, continue to appear in the US. The present-day reactionary American dramaturgy is countervailed by the best plays of L. Helman, A. Miller (born in 1915) (Severe Test, 1953, translated into Russian as The Salem Trial, 1955), J. Howe (1907-1962), and A. D'Usseau (born in 1916) (Deep Roots, 1946) etc. Among other examples of critical realism are the novels by M. Wilson (born in 1913) Life Among Lightnings (1949, translated into Russian as Life in the Dark, 1952) and the Negro writer J. Killens (Youngblood, 1954). Interesting novels were written by R. Lardner, Jr. (born in 1915) and D. Olmen (born in 1919). In some

of their novels which are thematically close to those of the novelist of the 1920's. F. S. Fitzgerald (1896-1940) and J. O'Hara (born in 1905) present a picture of the life of the morally deteriorating upper crust of American bourgeois society which, though superficial, have a definite documentary value. W. Faulkner who in recent years has been known mostly for his decadent writing on the dying aristocracy of the South produced a novel, Parable (1954), expressing antiwar sentiments. The distinguishing characteristic of Hemingway's novel The Old Man and the Sea (1952, translated into Russian in 1955) is sympathy for the working man.

A prominent part in modern US literature is played by writers who espouse the cause of the proletariat and have achieved a definite success in the mastery of socialist realism. Among them, besides H. Fast, A. Maltz, M. Gold, J. H. Lawson, and M. Leseur, already mentioned, are A. Saxton, L. Brown, F. Bonoski (born in 1918), the poet, W. Lowenfels, etc. A prominent master of the novel and story is H. Fast (born in 1914) whose historical novels stress the progressive traditions of the American people, expose racial persecution and the cruelty of the American military and create images of fighters for the interests of the workers (The Last Frontier, 1941, Citizen Tom Paine, 1943, Freedom Road, 1944, etc). The desperate class struggle in the US after World War II was for the first time portrayed in his novel Clarcton (1947). In his articles on literary topics and particularly in the book Literature and Reality (1950), Fast discusses the necessity of mastering the method of socialist realism by progressive writers. In his Silas Timberman (1954) the writer created a convincing image of an honest representative of the working intelligentsia who will not be intimidated by the forces of reaction. In 1953 Fast was awarded the international Stalin prize "for strengthening the peace among peoples."

The efforts of the American workers under the leadership of the Communists to defend their rights are described by A. Saxton in his novel, The Great Midwestern (1948), by the Negro writer L. Brown in his Iron City (1951), and by F. Bonoski in the novel, The Burning Valley (1953). The Marxist critics V. Jerome (born in 1896) S. Sillen (born in 1910), editor of Masses and Mainstream, etc. have also come to the fore in recent years. Closely linked to the people and the struggle of the progressive forces, the progressive writers are drawing on the best traditions of American literature and at the same time are studying the experience of the Soviet "artists of the word" and the progressive writers of other countries. Of great importance for progressive US literature are the scientific and literary works (including articles on literary themes) of W. Foster (born in 1881). chairman of the national committee of the US Communist Party.

Despite the intrigues of the reaction, some of the books published in the US testify to the viability of the democratic traditions of American literature and to the fact that these traditions are further enhanced in the process of development of the consciousness of the masses. The best American writers are not only creators of outstanding artistic productions but are also public figures. They are credited with a prominent part in rallying the people to the struggle for peace and democracy.

Negro Literature

US Negro literature in the English language is an integral part of American literature. Negro folklore played an important part in the development of American culture (stories of animals, proverbs and legends). (See Negroes). The first samples of Negro creative work, oral folk poetry of the slavery period ("songs of sorrow," religious hymns, spirituals, songs of revolting slaves), reflected the hardship

of the Negro slaves and their struggle for freedom. A protest against slavery, without any political implications, is voiced in the works of the first Negro poets and publicists of the American War of Independence period, the followers of the eighteenth century bourgeois philosophy of enlightenment, poetess F. Whitley (born circa 1753, died in 1874), publicist, mathematician, and astronomer B. Bannecker (1731-1806), etc. During the preparation for the Civil War the Negro abolitionists, former slave and subsequently an outstanding public and political figure, publicist and speaker F. Douglas (born circa 1817, died in 1895), poet J. Whitfield, and journalists D. Yoker (1785-1830), G. Garnet (1815-1862) etc, called for the immediate abolition of slavery. After the Civil War, when the South became a prison for the "freed" Negroes, there emerged a new type of national poetry ("chain gang songs," "protest songs") and a new democratic prose written in the spirit of critical realism (novels and stories by Ch. Chesnut, 1858-1932) full of resentment against capitalist exploitation, racial discrimination, and terror. A different course was taken by the poet P. L. Dunbar (1872-1906) who painted sentimental and embellished pictures of the slave holding South. But even his poetry occasionally sounded notes of protest. His description of the life of Negro workers reveals his great affection for them. The Negro writer and public figure, B. Washington (1856-1915), came to be prominent at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth. While pursuing the aim of improving the lot of the Negroes, he linked that pursuit with the prosperity of the Negro bourgeoisie and the interests of the US ruling class. At the beginning of the twentieth century Negro literature reflected the national liberation movement whose ideologist was the outstanding writer and scientist W. E. B. Du Bois (born in 1866). He exposed the venality and deterioration of the American ruling clique and demanded equal

rights for Negroes in his book of poetic prose The Soul of the Black People (1903), in the novel Beyond the Silver Fleece (1911), and in other literature.

Progressive Negro literature developed in the struggle against reactionary ideology. The naturalist and decadent trends of the first 2 decades of the twentieth century merged into a so-called "Negro Renaissance" with which the "Harlem school" poets are identified (J. W. Johnson, 1871-1938, etc). The characteristic feature of this school was an interest in the people's creative work expressed by enthusiasm over the exotic Negro character. These poets as well as A. Locke (born in 1886), a student of Negro literature and editor of the anthology The New Negro (1925), played a significant part in the popularization of Negro poetry. The economic depression of the 1930's and the growing American labor movement and the national liberation movement of the Negro people brought to the fore a group of progressive poets and prose writers who created positive images of common people. This group included S. Brown (born in 1901), A. Bontemps (born in 1902), C. Cullen (1903-1946), etc. In the 1930's and 1940's the progressive Negro writers centered their activities around the Communist Party organ, Daily Worker and the magazine New Masses. R. Right (born in 1908) produced a collection of stories under the title Uncle Tom's Children in 1938. Typical of those stories are the topics on exploitation and racial discrimination, but beginning with his Native Son (1940), Right has been gradually veering toward a reactionary position and his work has deteriorated. Expressing reactionary viewpoints are the works of C. Himes (born in 1909) and R. Ellison (born in 1914). The revolt of the Negro slaves at the beginning of the nineteenth century is portrayed by A. Bontemps in his novel Black Thunder (1936). After a spell under decadent influence, L. Hughes (born in 1902), one of

the greatest Negro poets and prose writers, adopted the course of proletarian internationalism. Hughes' participation in the struggle against fascism and war contributed a great deal to his creative development. His poems of the 1930's, produced under the influence of V. V. Mayakovskiy are imbued with revolutionary pathos. They call on the people of labor to unite for the struggle against imperialist and racial oppression. Striving to get closer to the people and their creative work, the progressive Negro literature is elaborating the theme of fighting for the freedom and happiness of the people (the autobiography of the Negro communist, E. Herndon, born in 1913, I Want to Live, 1937).

After World War II the democratic Negro writers together with the progressive American men of letters have been joining the camp of peace partisans. Among them are W. E. B. Du Bois, L. Hughes, S. Graham (born in 1904), woman novelist and author of novelized biographies of prominent representatives of Negro culture in the US (P. Robeson, 1946, F. Douglas, 1947 F. Whitley, 1949, and B. Bannecker), J. Killens and L. Brown (born in 1913) whose novel Iron City (1951) pictures the struggle of American communists against reaction and racial discrimination.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Gorkiy, M., Sobraniye sochineniy [Collected Works], Vol 24, 1953, Moscow, pages 225-227; Istoriya amerikanskoi literatury [History of American Literature], Vol 1, 1947, Moscow-Leningrad, Akad. Nauk SSSR. In-t mirovoy lit-ry im. A. M. Gor'kogo [Academy of Sciences USSR, Institute of World Literature imeni A. M. Gorkiy]; Progressivnaya literatura stran kapitalizma v bor'be za mir [Progressive Literature of the Capitalist Countries in the Struggle for Peace], 1952, Moscow, Akad. Nauk SSSR. In-t mirovoy lit-ry

- im. A. M. Gor'kogo; Sovremennaya amerikanskaya literatura [Modern American Literature], a collection of articles, 1950, Moscow, Akad. Nauk SSSR. In-t mirovoy lit-ry im. A. M. Gor'kogo: Amerikanskaya novella XIX veka [The American Novel of the Nineteenth Century], compiled, edited, and introduced by A. Startsev, 1946, Moscow;
- Trent, V. and Erskine, D., The Great American Writers, translated from English, 1914, St. Petersburg. Stories of America, translated from English, 1950, Moscow. America Through the Eyes of Americans (stories, pamphlets and excerpts from novels by progressive US writers translated from English), 1954 Moscow. Stories of American Writers, translated from English, 1954, Moscow
- Zenkevitch, M. and Kashkin, I., Poetry ameriki. XX vek. [Twentieth Century American Poets], an anthology, 1939, Moscow
- The Cambridge History of American Literature, edited by W. Trent (a.o.), Vols 1-3, 1946, New York. Cambridge (England)
- Parrington, V. L., Main Currents in American Thought, an interpretation of American literature from the beginnings to 1920. Vol 1-3, (1927-1930), New York
- Trent, W., A History of American Literature, 1607-1865, 1929, New York. London
- Van Doren, C. and Van Doren, M., American and British Literature since 1890, 1940, New York London
- Van Doren, C., The American Novel, 1789-1939, 1940, New York
- Macy, J., The Spirit of American Literature, 1913, New York.
- American Poetry, from the beginning to Whitman, edited by L. Untermeyer, (1931). New York. The Oxford Book of American Verse, edited by B. Carman, 1927. New York. London: Literary History of the United States, edited by R. E. Spiller (a.o.) second edition, 1953, New York, American Authors, 1600-1900,

a biographical dictionary of American literature, edited by
 S. I. Kunitz and H. Haycraft, 1938, New York

Bekker, M., "US Negro Literature in the Struggle Against Slavery,
 Reaction, and Imperialism", Zvezda [Star], No 1, 1951

Afrika v Amerike [Africa in America], an anthology of American
 Negro poetry, compiled and translated by Yu. Anisimov, 1933,
 Moscow

Brown, S., The Negro Poetry and Drama, 1937, Washington

Brown, S., The Negro in American Fiction, 1937, Washington

Brown, L. L., "Which Way for Negro Writers?" Masses and Mainstream,
 Nos 3-4, 1951, The Negro Caravan, writings by American Negroes,
 selected and edited by S. A. Brown, A. P. Davis, and U. Lee 1941,
 New York

Gellert, L., Negro Songs of Protest, 1936, New York

XV. FINE ARTS AND ARCHITECTURE

The Indians had developed a vivid and original art in North
 America prior to the arrival of the Europeans. They created peculiar
 types of dwelling constructions, like the "long houses" of the Iro-
 quois and other Indians and the "village houses" of the Pueblo
 Indians. They developed painted wood sculpture highly, usually of
 the cult type, which reflected the Indian artists' keen observation
 of surrounding nature. Much importance was also attached to the paint-
 ing of ceramics, cloths, and buffalo skins and to ornamentation of
 clothes (see Indian Art). This ancient culture gradually began to
 disappear. The English and Dutch colonists introduced in America
 austere and dull forms of seventeenth century English and Dutch
 architecture. This type of architecture adorned their log cabins.
 Characteristic of the painting art were simplified methods of flowery
 baroque style portraiture which had been maintained by itinerary artists
 and local dilettantes well into the middle of the eighteenth century.

The architecture of the French colonies (in the Mississippi River basin) was modeled on French architecture. The early stone public buildings (as for example, the old city hall in Philadelphia, the so-called Independence Hall, 1741), though built in the baroque style, were nevertheless austere in appearance and of a restricted decorative range. The third quarter of the eighteenth century was marked by the rapid growth of the art of portraiture based on English paintings but distinguished by an abundance of details of everyday life and brilliant local color (J. Blackburn, born circa 1700, died after 1765; R. Fick, 1724-1769; most prominent for their early paintings were J. S. Copley, 1737-1815, and B. West, 1738-1820).

The first flourishing of US art was connected with the War of Independence, 1775-1783, and the patriotic and democratic upswing it brought about. Progressive national art developed rapidly in the new republic liberated from England's domination. At the end of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth century US architecture evolved into a national modification of classicism (q.v.) typified by its stress on certain geometrical forms. The widespread and long lasting (particularly in the provinces) classicist style was used in the construction of government and public buildings (the White House in Washington, begun in 1792, by architect J. Hoban (born in 1762 or 1758, died in 1831), the old New York city hall, 1812, etc), churches, and other buildings. A number of classicist style structures were created by the outstanding American educator and architect T. Jefferson (1743-1826). That period is known also for new and bold city planning work (the systematic planning of Washington by the architect P. S. L'Enfant (died in 1825) and others). Although the best painters of the preceding period, Copley and West, moved to England, it was precisely the art of painting that reached its high stage of development in the US by the end of the eighteenth and beginning

of the nineteenth century. Its greatest masters were the realistic portrait painter G. Stuart (1755-1828), the painter of true portraits of G. Washington and other outstanding figures of the War of Independence, and J. Trumbull (1756-1843), who produced an entire gallery of contemporary figures in miniature portraits and a series of historical pictures dedicated to the events of the struggle for liberation. Despite the conventional elevated style of portraying gestures and movements, Trumbull's pictures were among the first examples of historical paintings dealing with realistic contemporary themes. Expressive, lifelike portraits in that period were painted by R. Earl (1751-1801), E. Savage (1761-1817), Ch. W. Peale (founder of the first museum of natural history in the US, 1741-1827) J. Right (1756-1793), particularly M. Brown (1761-1831) and the keen, inspired painter T. Sully (1783-1872). The first experiments in genre painting were made by M. Pratt (1734-1805). Most of the American painters of that period studied in England (under B. West), but the Academy of Arts was founded in Philadelphia as far back as 1805. An important part in the development of American culture was played by the French sculptor, J. A. Goudon, who traveled to the US to work on a Washington statue.

The flourishing period of the end of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth century was followed by long decades of relative stagnation in US art. In the period between the 1820's and the 1850's, marked by a swift development of capitalist relations, the sharp social and ideological contrasts found their expression in a multiform discrepancy of artistic manifestations. Official bourgeois art strove to emphasize ostentatious splendor and surface brilliance designed to create a halo of magnificence over prosperous businessmen. In the architecture of that period classicism gave way to eclectic trends

with the superficial imitation of every possible style (from the gothic to the classic art of ancient Greece), and there emerged a tendency toward grandiose and ostentatious effects. It was at that time that the Capitol (the Congress building in Washington) was undergoing reconstruction and a colossal dome was built over it. Brilliant and daringly executed portraits (S. Morse (1791-1872), famous for his invention of the telegraph key) and insipid, superficial pictures on biblical subjects (W. Olston, 1779-1843) were gaining popularity. The efforts to work out strict principles of classicism (J. Vanderlin, 1778-1852) could not prevent the spread of sentimental romantic or of vulgar style naturalistic art, including portraits by Ch. L. Elliott (1812-1868), G. Inman (1801-1846), etc. as well as idyllic and overdone romantic landscape paintings (despite the attempt to portray certain aspects of the wild American nature) by T. Doughty (1793-1856), A. B. Durand (1796-1886), and T. Cole (1801-1848) of the so-called "Hudson River School." Counterbalancing this art were isolated quests into new styles of painting inspired by the incipient democratic movement of that period (abolitionism, etc) which found expression in portraits clearly depicting the makeup and spiritual life of man (S. Waldo (1783-1861) and R. Peale (1778-1860), the son of Ch. W. Peale in the interest in scenes of the people's life (W. S. Mount (1807-1868), J. K. Bingham (1811-1879), who made a thorough study of the life of the Middle West) and in the enthusiastic and close study of nature (ornithologist and painter J. Audubon, 1785-1851). These modest but increasingly distinct realistic tendencies paved the way for a new stage in the history of American art which assumed a definite shape during the Civil War of 1861-1865.

The second improvement in US art began shortly after the end of the Civil War. The development of the democratic and progressive social forces and their sharp clash with the reactionary predatory

bourgeoisie found their reflection in art. Official bourgeois art merely tried to imitate the French high society art, having been unable to produce its own masters since the 1860's. The architectural art of the second half of the nineteenth century, which showed a tendency toward businesslike and prosaic designs and patterns and tended to adapt itself to the styles of all periods and nations, was nevertheless not without its gifted architects. The efforts of G. Richardson (1838-1886) as well as J. O. Roebling (1806-1889) and W. O. Roebling (1827-1926), the builders of the Brooklyn bridge in New York (opened in 1883), contributed to the progress of construction technique. Unlike architecture, the progressive painting of the second half of the nineteenth century attained a high level of ideological importance and artistic force approximating the best productions of American literature of that period. The best productions of art created by the American people are credited to such realistic US painters of the second half of the nineteenth century as W. Homer; T. Eakins, and J. Whistler.

The central figure of American realism in nineteenth century art was W. Homer (1836-1910), a singer of the common people of America, sailors, hunter, and lumberjacks, and a creator of remarkable images of Negroes. Beginning his career as a painter of colorful patriotic pictures of the Civil War, the artist reached the peak of his profound and pithy poetic mastery by the 1890's. His creative work is imbued with a sense of nature appreciation. He admires the moral force of the common man and the beauty of creative work. T. Eakins (1844-1916) was an outstanding realistic portraitist who created powerful intellectual images of his progressive contemporaries (portraits of Walt Whitman, Doctor Gross in his clinic, etc) He did a great deal for the development of the daily life genre and exerted a great influence on the later realist artists. J. Whistler

(1834-1903) who lived a long time in France and England painted a number of severe, punctually executed and lyrically embellished realistic portraits. Later on however he became a follower of impressionism (q.v.), and his art acquired more of a superficial and contemplative character. Characteristic of the realistic painting in the US in the second half of the nineteenth century was the widespread use of a variety of genres. Portraits of profound psychological and social value were painted by W. M. Ghent (1824-1879), who devoted the last years of life to experiments in monumental painting, as well as by F. Duvenek (1849-1916). Forceful and expressive portraits were painted in their best productive period by W. Chase (1849-1916) and J. S. Sargent (1856-1925), who had spent a long time in Europe and later evolved into a fashionable "high society" portraitist. In addition to Homer and Eakins, genre painting was adopted by such thoughtful and serious masters and painters of pictures imbued with a feeling of sympathy for the people as I. Johnson (1824-1906) and T. Hovenden (1840-1895), the producer of the picture, "John Brown Led to His Execution" glorifying the famous fighter for the freedom of Negroes. The motherhood and childhood themes are dealt with in the works of the woman portraitist M. Cassatt (1845-1926) who became close to E. Manet and E. Dega in Paris. The painting of realistic national landscapes also became prominent in the second half of the nineteenth century. Tribute to it was paid by W. Homer. One of the most prominent painters of this type of landscape was J. Inness (1825-1894), a talented lyrical artist close to the Barbazon School (q.v.). Realistic landscapes were painted also in that period by F. E. Church (1826-1900) and J. F. Cansett (1818-1872), who had come from the "Hudson River School," R. A. Blakelock (1847-1919), G. Martin (1836-1897), and J. Tuoktmen [sic] (1853-1902). A. P. Ryder's (1847-1917)

creative work, of a fantastic and symbolic nature, was in a class by itself in the second half of the nineteenth century. That period is marked also by the development of realistic graphic arts (etching and water color pictures by W. Homer, etchings by J. Whistler, etc). An outstanding political cartoonist of the Civil War period and the decades that followed was T. Nast (1840-1902) who exposed the venality of the bourgeois upper strata, and contributed to the democratic orientation of twentieth century graphic arts.

The considerable development of American sculpture also originated in the second half of the nineteenth century. Among the greatest US sculptors was O. St. Gaudens (1848-1907) whose psychological portraits and monumental sculptures were frequently of an allegorical nature. Distinguished by its expressiveness is the small bronze plastic work of F. Remington (1861-1909) who was also known for his paintings and drawings (pictures of the life of the Far West and illustrations for Longfellow's Hiawatha). K. A. Ward (1830-1910) was a talented master of monumental statues.

Since the end of the nineteenth century, in the epoch of imperialism, the development of US artistic culture was subjected to the increasing influence of formalist trends. Since the beginning of the twentieth century the realist trend has encountered difficult conditions. But it has been able to continue, and it is precisely this trend that contains all the real values produced by American art in this period.

US architecture of the twentieth century has been developing under the influence of technological and economic considerations. The great successes achieved in those fields have relegated all problems of art to a secondary place. The gigantic skyscrapers built in a number of cities have reduced the streets to narrow dark slits. The

most gifted US architects of the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century. L. Sullivan (1856-1924) and F. L. Wright (born in 1869), tried to infuse esthetic meaning into technical possibilities. Sullivan tackled the problem of steelgirder structures that would enable the erection of buildings for large numbers of people. Wright persevered in his work on new types of small residential houses close to nature that would meet new social requirements. Sullivan's and Wright's adventures in art did not get any support and could not change the general situation in architecture. The end of the nineteenth century, following the period of impressionist tendencies (C. Massam, 1859-1935, Prendergast, 1861-1924, etc), was noted for the emergence of symbolist painters and modernist stylists. The rapid sweep of formalist tendencies in the US dates back to world war I of 1914-1918. Surrealism (q.v.), preaching misanthropic ideas and wild irreality, came to dominate those tendencies by the 1930's. Abstract art and other formalist trends also became widespread in the US. But the realist US art of the twentieth century, responding to the powerful influence of the growing labor movement, has been progressing in the struggle against these profoundly decadent tendencies. This art, though at times inconsistent, is nonetheless representative of democratic, progressive tendencies. Continuing the realist tradition under new conditions in the beginning of the twentieth century were such distinguished masters as sculptor J. Barnard (1863-1938), graphic artists J. Pennell (1860-1926) and B. Robinson (born in 1876), painters J. Sloan (1871-1951), R. Henry (1865-1929), J. Lux (1867-1933), and J. Bellows (1882-1925). After the Great October Socialist Revolution progressive American art came under the increasing influence of communist ideas which were strikingly reflected in the political graphic art of R. Minor (1884-1952), W. Gropper (born in 1897), F. Ellis (born in 1886), A. Young (1866-1943), and other artists connected

with the Daily Worker, Masses and Mainstream, and other progressive publications. The activities of commercial artists and cartoonists reached a high stage of development between the 1920's and 1930's. During World War II (1939-1945) and the years immediately preceding, progressive ideas in US art were frequently expressed in contractory conventional forms. Abstract symbolism was applied in drawings of an historical and sociopolitical nature (C. White, born in 1918 B. Schun, born in 1939, E. Robinson etc). Sketchiness and conventionality are typical of much of sculptor W. Zorach's (born in 1887) work. Expressionist tendencies color the work of a number of antibourgeois and antifascist satirists (F. Evergood, born in 1901). There has been a growing inclination among progressive US artists toward a more perfect realist form in the postwar period.

Outstanding among the progressive modern US artists striving for a rich realist art are the painter and graphic artist R. Kent (born in 1882), painter of severe northern landscape and masterful book illustrations, portraitist I. Glinskiy (born in 1878), R. Sawyer (born in 1899) and his brother M. Sawyer (born in 1899), who paint true pictures of modern American city life, sculptor M. Fields (born in 1901), J. Epstein (born in 1880), who lives in England, and other artists. A great contribution to the history of American art was made by Negro painters (Eakins' gifted student G. O. Tanner, 1859-1937, H. Pippin, died in 1946, the progressive graphic artist, C. White, etc) Defending the interests of the people are the members of the "Graphic Workshop" group and other artists (A. Refregier, born in 1905, etc) united by the ideals of the struggle for peace and democracy.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Muter, R., The History of Nineteenth Century Art, translated from German.
Vol 3, 1901 St. Petersburg

- Mumford, L., *From Log Cabin to Skyscraper*, translated from English,
1936, Moscow
- Hartmann, S., *A History of American Art*, Vols 1-2, 1902, Boston
- Newcomb, R., *Outlines of the History of Architecture*, Vols 1-4,
1932-1939, New York
- Taft, L., *The History of American Sculpture*, new edition, 1930,
New York, 1930
- St-Gaudens, H., *The American Artist and His Times*, 1941, New York
- Barr, A. H., "Painting and Sculpture in the United States," *Trois
Siecles d'Art aux Etats-Unis*, Exposition. Musee du "Jeu de
paume," Paris, Mais-Juillet 1938 (catalogue), second edition,
1938, Paris
- MacAndrew, J., *Architecture in the United States*, *Trois Siecles
d'Art aux Etats-Unis*, Exposition, Musee du "Jeu de paume,"
Paris, Mais-Juillet 1938, (catalogue), second edition, 1938,
Paris
- Watson, F., *American Painting Today*, 1939 Washington
- Weitenkamp, F., *American Graphic Art*, 1924, New York, *American
Painting and Sculpture, 1862-1932*, (Catalog), 1932, New York.
The Museum of Modern Art: Exhibition of American Painting,
1935, San Francisco, M. H. DeYoung Memorial Museum, California
Palace
- Walker, J. and James, M., *Great American Paintings from Smibert to
Bellows, 1729-1924*, 1943, London-New York-Toronto
- Barker, V., *American Painting, History and Interpretation*, 1950,
New York
- Larkin, O., *Art and Life in America*, 1949, New York

XVI. MUSIC

The origin and development of musical culture in the US were
influenced by the various national cultures of the peoples inhabiting

the country. The native inhabitants of America, the Indians, had a rich musical folklore of their own which is reflected in the work of certain American composers. Music played an important part in the daily life and customs of the Indian people who created numerous works, military, ritualistic, lyrical, and other songs. Indian folk music, unique in its rhythm and melody, is based on the 5-tone scale. The distinguishing characteristic of Indian folk songs is the downward melodic movement. An important part in the development of US music was played also by American Negro music which stems from ancient African culture and was modified in the US under the influence of European music, particularly psalm singing. American Negro singing is characterized by a variety of genres and forms. Negro folk songs are distinguished for their variety of rhythms, flexibility, melody, and poetic quality. The basic types of Negro music are songs of labor, protest songs, religious hymns (spirituals), lyrical songs (blues), etc.

The conditions of life of the first European colonists in America contributed little to the development of musical art. The Anglican Church, encouraging austere Puritan customs, opposed any secular singing for almost a century. The only popular type of singing was psalm singing.

In the southern colonies where the Calvinist influence was weaker, the English, Scotch, and Irish settlers sang their folk songs brought from Europe. Many songs and dances, stemming from ancient English and Scotch folklore, have remained to this day in Kentucky, Tennessee, and the Appalachian mountain valleys. Many songs were created by cowboys. Lumberjacks' and log rafters' songs are sung in the logging camps of the northern US. Numerous ballads and songs were created by American sailors. In the southern states bordering on Mexico the folksongs and

dances bear close resemblance to Mexican and Spanish music. The influence of French folksongs (Creole songs) is strongly felt in Louisiana. All these different influences were gradually fused into a unique style of national US music distinguished by its unique melodic effect and lively syncopated rhythm.

Since the 1720's the increasing flow of immigration has contributed to the spread of secular music and the popularization of European musical instruments, the violin, guitar, flute, keyboard instruments, etc. The first musical society was founded in Charleston in 1768. It has been sponsoring concerts by professional musicians. Operatic concerts and recitals came into vogue in the US about the middle of the eighteenth century. The activities of the first American composers were initiated during the War of Independence (1775-1783). They included F. Hopkinson (1737-1791), author of the allegorical opera "Minerva's Temple" glorifying the union of America with Republican France, W. Billings (1746-1800), a tanner by trade and author of songs and hymns (including the revolutionary hymn "Chester"), J. Lyon (1735-1794), etc. Among the later popular composers were S. Foster (q.v.) (1826-1864) who wrote over 200 songs ("Old Black Joe," "Oh, Susanna," etc. and L. M. Gottschalk (1829-1869), noted pianist, composer of a number of piano pieces including some based on the melodies of Negro and Creole songs. An important contribution to the development of musical culture in the US was made by the composer and teacher, L. Mason (1792-1872). Since the second half of the nineteenth century a number of European musicians have come to live in the US and have occupied an important place in the musical life of the country. In some of the large American cities symphony orchestras and music schools were organized after the 1860's. The Metropolitan Opera was opened in New York in 1883. Performances in that theatre are given by Italian, French, and German actors, and the operas played are

those of European composers. A characteristic feature of US musical life has come to be known as the system of "patronage of art" by rich patrons, and the result of this practice has been that the activities of musical enterprises and societies are actually directed by private individuals. That period was known for its noted composers such as J. Paine (1839-1906), J. Chadwick (1854-1931), A. Foote (1853-1937), and G. Parker (1863-1919). Having received their musical education in Europe, they helped to popularize European musical culture in the US along the lines of the Leipzig School (q.v.) traditions. Outstanding among the other American composers was C. Loefler (1861-1935), an Alsatian by origin who had spent his childhood in Russia. Highly popular are his orchestral suite "Childhood Memories," reminiscent of Russian and Ukrainian folklore, and "Pagan Song." The most outstanding American composer of the second half of the second half of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century was E. McDowell (q.v.) (1861-1908), composer of 3 symphonic poems, 2 suites, piano concerts, sonatas, pieces, songs and other compositions. In his "Indian Suite" he made use of Indian musical folklore. The great Czech composer A. Dvorak, director of the New York Conservatory from 1892 to 1895, exerted a great influence on the development of American music. A number of American composers studied under him. Dvorak stressed the importance of Negro folklore in American music and encouraged his students to make use of it in the further development of American national music. One of the composers influenced by him was G. F. Gilbert (1868-1928). The following young composers came to the foreground in the first decades of the twentieth century: A. Copeland (born in 1900), G. Antell (born in 1900), W. Piston (born in 1894), and R. Harris (born in 1898) who got their musical education in Paris and reflected the influence of modernist French music in their compositions. Their compositions at the same time revealed a trend toward a national musical style as did

the compositions of C. Ives (born in 1874), W. Rigger (born in 1885), J. Carpenter (1876-1951), D. Taylor (born in 1884), L. Gruenberg (born in 1883), S. Barber (born in 1910), E. Siegmeister (born in 1909), and W. Schuman (born in 1910). A progressive part in the development of modern musical culture in the US was played by the "composers' collective" organized in New York in 1932. Supported by the P. Deheyter [sic] clubs, that association extended its activities to the broad masses of the working people. A number of recitals, operas, choral, and popular songs of a progressive nature were written by A. Copeland, R. Seshens (born in 1896), Ya. Schaffer (1888-1936), M. Blitzstein (born in 1905), A. Adomyan (born in 1905), and E. Siegmeister, all members of the composers' collective." Valuable compositions for workers' musical societies were written by E. Robinson (born in 1911), author of the popular Ballads for Americans and Songs of Joe Hill. Elements of Negro musical folklore were successfully incorporated into their work by the gifted Negro composers G. Berley (1866-1949), R. N. Dett (1882-1943), and W. G. Still (born in 1895). composer of 2 operas and numerous symphonic productions including "Afro-American Symphonies," and the cantatas "They Hanged Him on a Tree," conveying antilynching sentiments.

During World War II (1939-1945) many European composers from France, Germany, and Austria, including I. Stravinskiy, A. Schoenberg, P. Hindemith, and E. Ksenek made their homes in the US. Representing formalist trends in the arts, these composers contributed to the consolidation of the decadent cosmopolitan tendencies in American music which had been popularized by the "Composers' League" (founded in 1923). The creative work of many American composers assumed ugly forms (the compositions of G. Cowell to be performed on a piano with the aid of fists and elbows, sonatas by J. Cage for "specially equipped" pianos, and "concrete music," consisting of a "medley" of noises

recorded on a magnetophone, etc). Modern American composers trying to ~~defend~~ the principles of realist art are classified by the critics as "out fashioned." Musical art in the US is strongly influenced by jazz (i.e.). A kind of entertainment music, mostly dance music, which has been very popular since 1915. Among the masters of jazz music mention should be made of E. (Duke) Ellington (born in 1899), gifted Negro composer, improviser of piano music, and leader of a highly popular jazz band. Certain stylistic methods of jazz music were used by G. Gershwin (1898-1937), a talented composer and author of popular lyrical songs and concerts to be performed on the piano with an orchestra and of "Rhapsody in Blue" for the piano accompanied by symphonic jazz. In his opera, "Porgy and Bess" (1935), dealing with the life of poor Negro people, Gershwin made use of the intonations of American Negro songs.

The musical life in the US is to a large extent connected with the activities of foreign artists, orchestra conductors, pianists, violinists, singers, etc, many of whom are permanent residents in the country. Among the most popular American artists are conductors L. Stokowski (born in 1882), L. Bernstein (born in 1918), and E. Ormandy (born in 1899), violinists A. Spalding (1888-1953) and Y. Menuhin (born in 1916), singers L. Tibbett (born in 1896) and P. Robeson (born in 1898), who is not only an outstanding performer but also a distinguished fighter for the freedom of the Negro people and an active member of the international peace movement, and women singers J. Ferrar (born in 1882) and M. Anderson (born in 1908). The large US cities have their own first class symphony orchestras which are in most cases led by noted conductors. There is a permanent opera theatre in the US, the Metropolitan Opera of New York. Concert performances are controlled by commercial organizations which operate a network of concert bureaus throughout the country. Practically all

the conservatories and music schools belong to private individuals (the Julliard Music School in New York, the Malkin Conservatory in Boston, etc). The phonograph industry is highly developed (large numbers of records of light and classical music are produced annually in the US) as is the production of tape recorders and musical instruments.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Howard, J. T., Our American Music, 300 Years of It. 1939, New York
- Howard, J. T., Our Contemporary Composers -- American Music in the Twentieth Century, 1943, New York
- Chase, G., America's Music, 1955, New York
- Elson, L. C., The History of American Music, 1925, New York
- Aldrich, R., Concert Life in New York, 1902-1923, 1941, New York
- Lomax, J. A. and Lomax, A., American Ballads and Folk Songs, 1934, New York
- Cuney-Hare, M., Negro Musicians and Their Music, 1936, Washington
- Reis, C., Composers in America (Bibliographical sketches of living composers with a record of their works), 1938, New York
- Shneyerson, G., Sovremennaya Amerikanskaya Muzyka [Modern American Music], 1945, Moscow
- Konen, V., "Legend and Truth About Jazz", Sovetskaya muzyka [Soviet Music], No 9, 1955
- Gilel's, E., "Rendezvous in America," Sovetskaya muzyka No 2, 1956

XVII. THE THEATER AND THE CINEMA

The Theater

At the end of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth century American road shows were performed by English stock companies. For a long time the theatre was persecuted by the Puritan minded authorities. Between 1775 and 1783 all theatrical performances were forbidden due to the fight of the North American colonies for their

independence. But even those years saw the appearance of dramatic productions imbued with a sense of patriotism and heroic pathos (the plays by M. O. Warren, H. G. Ereckenridge, etc. In the eighteenth century local road troupes became popular in the country. They usually included entire actors families and were managed by the leading actor (entrepreneur). Dramatic art expressing educational tendencies emerged toward the end of the eighteenth century (T. Godfrey (1736-1763), R. Tyler (1757-1826), and W. Dunlap (1766-1839). Contributing to the romantic trend of the US theater were the playwrights of the so-called Philadelphia School (R. Byrd, 1806-1854, etc). The playwrights B. Howard (1842-1908), J. Hearn (1831-1901), and F. Bret Harte (1839-1902) developed realist tendencies in their work of the second half of the nineteenth century. The American theater as a whole however was of an imitative nature, copying the styles of the English. The outstanding American dramatic actors E. Forrest (1806-1872), E. Booth (1833-1893), and A. Aldridge (q.v.) (born circa 1807, died in 1867) appeared for the most part in Shakespearean repertoires. Road companies of European actors played an important part in American theatrical life. The repertoires of the local troupes included translated plays (tragedies, comedies and farce). Stationary theaters with permanent repertoires performing plays by American authors and translated dramatic productions came into being in the nineteenth century. This contributed to the development of US theatrical art. The nineteenth century was marked by a rapid growth of stage performance. Among the outstanding American actors of that period were J. Jefferson (1829-1905), J. Drew (1853-1927), the Barrymore family which included a number of gifted performers, and later M. M. Fisk (1865-1932), R. Mansfield (1857-1907), etc. Among the noted figures in theatrical art who operated theaters and played an important part in furthering American stage art were playwright D. Boucicault (1822-1890), critic and playwright O. Daly

(1838-1899), and conductor and playwright C. McEcy (1842-1894). The development of the art of orchestra conducting was initiated by the actor, playwright, and conductor D. Belasco (1854-1931) who trained many US actors.

At the end of the nineteenth century the drama was crowded from the repertoires by detective and pseudonational "exotic" plays. The system of "stars" gained a firm footing in the American theater, and the chief attention was focused on leading role performers. The theatrical life of the country is now regulated by entrepreneurs pursuing commercial aims. Competition among the entrepreneurs and the race for profits, resulting from the development of imperialism in the US, have destroyed the system of stationary theaters and enhanced the entrepreneur element of US art. Conductors took to producing copies of New York concerts (usually of inferior quality) and sending them to the provincial places. The itineraries of the road troupes were mapped by special "booking offices." The first "theatrical syndicate" was created in 1896. Large theatrical trusts monopolizing the country's theatrical life were created in the beginning of the twentieth century. They bought buildings and press agent services and subordinated the life of the theater exclusively to the profit motive. The creative life of the theater fell into the grip of a lasting crisis. Musical comedies, revues (q.v.), and music hall performances became predominant. The plays and revues performed on the stage of the commercial theaters preached the immutability of the capitalist system and glorified the "American way of life." Attempts to organize theaters with permanent collectives, and varied repertoires proved unsuccessful. Such theaters could not hold their ground against the commercial enterprises nor meet the competition of the trusts and were therefore soon closed. Competing against the

Broadway (q.v.) commercial theaters were the so-called little theaters (q.v.) consisting of professional actors and amateurs. It was on the basis of one such theater (the Actors' Theater of Washington Square) that the New York Theater Guild was organized (1919). Its repertoire of the early twenties included plays by E. Shaw, H. Ibsen, L. N. Tolstoy, E. O'Neil, L. N. Andreyev, etc (in the middle of the twenties the Guild became a commercial theater).

An important event in the theatrical life of the US were the performances given by the Moscow Art Theater (1923-24) which exerted a certain influence on the Civic Repertory Theater (New York, 1926-1933) headed by E. Le Gallienne (q.v.) etc. Prominent in the repertoire of US theaters at the end of the twenties and in the thirties were the plays of the greatest American playwright, O'Neil (q.v.) ("Love Under the Elms," "Beyond the Horizon," "Mourning Becomes Electra," etc). A number of progressive theaters came into being in the US between 1930 and 1940. The Theater Group, founded in 1931, included in its repertoire plays exposing certain features of capitalist reality (C. Odets, S. Kingsley, etc). Among the new theatrical associations that emerged were "The New Playwrights" (which included the writers Lawson and Gold in their membership) and the "Theatrical Union." The latter performed plays by P. Peters, G. Sklyar ("The Stevedore"), Lawson, etc. It was at the same period that new organizations of semiprofessional workers' theatrical groups sprang up, the so-called federal theaters (q.v.), which staged a number of progressive plays ("They Shall Not Die" by G. Wexley, "Dark Mine" by A. Maltz, etc).

The plays staged by the commercial theaters during World War II contributed to the fanning of war and atomic hysteria and to the spread of misanthropic ideas. They purported to emphasize the

predestination of men and the futility of their struggle for a better future. Insane individuals and alcoholics were played up as heroes in dramatic productions. Plays by T. Williams, T. Wilder, etc. predominated the Broadway repertoire. The staging of the realist plays by L. Hellman D'Useau, J. Howe, A. Miller, etc. could not radically change the trend of the Broadway theaters. The crisis in creative production experienced by the US commercial theaters as well as the competition of the cinema, television and radio productions tend to bring about an economic crisis. The number of unsuccessful plays is increasing, profits are shrinking, and unemployment in the world of art is growing. At the same time there is a consistent and uninterrupted development of theatrical art expressive of progressive, democratic tendencies. Despite the persecution by the reaction, the following progressive theaters continue to function: the National Drama Theater, the Harlem Theater, the Unity Theater in New York, the Workers theater in San Francisco, etc. They keep up the struggle for realist art, staging plays by progressive writers ("Deep Roots" by J. Howe and A. D'useau, "Thirty Silver Coins" by H. Fast, "The Morrison Case" by A. Maltz, "The Biggest Thief in Town by D. Trambo, etc). Among the greatest US actors and conductors are H. Hayes, K. Cornell, P. Robeson (q.v.), M. Webster (q.v.), etc.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Odell, G. C. D., Annals of the New York Stage, 1927-1930, New York
- Quinn, A. H., A History of the American Drama, Vols 1-2, 1923-1927, New York-London, (factual material may be used)
- Clurman, H., The Fervent Years, 1945, New York
- Hornblow, A., A History of the Theater in America from the Beginning to the Present Time, Vols 1-2, 1919, Philadelphia
- Baker, B., Dramatic Bibliography, an annotated list of books on the history and criticism of the drama, 1933, New York

The Cinema

The US motion picture industry came into being in the 1890's. The repertoire of the first motion picture theaters featured news-reels, eccentric comedies, and plays dealing with crime. The emergence of cinematic art is associated with the names of the producers E. Porter ("The Great Train Robbery," 1903) and D. Griffith who produced several hundred movie shorts from 1903 to 1914. Griffith developed the fundamental expressive methods of movie production in his films (planning, arrangements, etc). The history of the US cinema is inseparable from the struggle of the motion picture trusts for the monopoly of the motion picture industry. From 1908 to 1912, a movie patent company headed by T. Edison was defeated in the struggle against a group of independent movie producers. The result of that struggle led to the organization of a number of firms (Paramount, Universal, etc) in Hollywood which became the center of the American motion picture industry. The penetration of the European market by the American motion picture industry began in 1911. Since 1915 the US has held first place in the number of films produced (400-450 per year). The inventor of the "conveyor" system of motion picture production (simultaneous filming of a number of movies under one producer) was T. Ins who produced several hundred adventure and melodramatic films. Pacifist movies ("Civilization," by Ins, 1916, and "Intolerance," by Griffith, 1916) were superseded, after the US entry in World War I by militaristic ones ("Hearts of Peace," by Griffith (1918), "The Heart of Mankind," by A. Holubar (1919).

Among the prominent figures in American cinematic art were director producer M. Sennett, director and actor C. Chaplin, who developed the eccentric comedy genre, C. de Mille, producer of religious and idle rich plays, and actors M. Pickford, W. Hart, L. Gish, D. Fairbanks, L. Chaney, etc. After the end of World War I

American film exports to the West European countries increased. The concentration and monopolization of production led to the organization of a "Movie Producers and Distributors Association" in 1922. Hollywood produced films on the west ["The Covered Wagon" by D. Cruse (1923) and "The Long Trail" by R. Walsh (1930) dealing with the settlement of the new lands and plays on gangsters and dry law violators ("The Underworld" by D. Sternberg, 1927. Also highly popular were H. Lloyd's and B. Keaton's comedies. Attempts at satirical portrayals of US capitalist circles are noted in the films directed by E. Stroheim ("Silly Wives" (1922), "Greed" (1923), and "Wedding March" (1928)). Modern life is well portrayed in the movies directed by McGown. "The Overseer's Whip" (1923) and by K. Vidor, "The Mob" (1928). The progressive trend in US cinema art toward a true portrayal of reality was most fully reflected in the creative work of C. Chaplin who at that time became one of the greatest movie producers and actors in the world. His pictures exposed the hypocrisy and inhumane essence of bourgeois society and exploded the myth of universal prosperity ("The Kid" (1921), "The Pilgrim" (1923), "Parisian Woman" (1923), and "The Gold Rush" (1925)). Prominent among the documentary films for their realism and poetic quality were R. Flaherty's pictures ("Nanook of the North," 1922, and "Moana of the South Seas," 1926). The first sound picture in the US ("Don Juan") was produced in 1926. Within 4 years all the silent movies were replaced by sound films. The major patents on sound recording and reproduction were taken over by finance companies which reequipped the motion picture industry and its outlets for showing sound films. Since the beginning of the 1930's the finance monopolies have been exercising control over Hollywood and exerting a decisive influence on the development of the American cinema. In the 1930's considerable prominence was also accorded to musical revues, crime and adventure pictures, and

idle-rich and eccentric comedies. Among the better films of that period are "Born Gentlemen" by E. Green (1934) on the fate of the American intelligentsia, "Our Daily Bread" by K. Vidor (1934) on the life of American unemployed workers and their struggle for a living, and "Juarez" by W. Dieterle (1939) on the struggle of the Mexican people against the French interventionists. Among the outstanding productions of American and world cinema art are C. Chaplin's pictures "City Lights" (1931) and "Modern Times" (1936) presenting a graphic depiction of the growing social contradictions and the tragic fate of "the little man" in a bourgeois world. W. Dieterle's "Blockade" (1938) and "Spanish Soil" by the Dutch producer, Y. Evans, who worked in the US represented a true reportage of the war events in Spain (1936-1939).

There were several progressive motion picture organizations (industrial and public) in the US during that period. Some of them ("Frontier Films") were producing films, others ("Films for Democracy" and "The Antifascist League") were fighting the reactionary elements and helping progressive artists to have their films shown. Participating in these organizations were movie executives G. Eiberman, P. Strand, L. Hurwitz, J. H. Lawson, and O. Stewart. A great deal of popularity was gained during the sound film period by such actors as P. Muni, C. Laughton, W. Beery, G. Garbo, and B. Davis, and directors J. Wong-Howe, W. Daniels, H. Stradling, and H. Toland. Color movies ("Technicolor") came into prominence shortly before World War II. Among the more successful color films were "Blood and Sand" (1941) produced by Mamoulyan, "Gone with the Wind" (1939) and "The Wizard of Oz" (1939) by V. Fleming and Disney's animated cartoons, "Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs" (1938), "Bambi" (1942), etc.

Among the antifascist pictures produced during World War II were

"The Hurricane" (1940) by F. Borsaje, "The Dictator" (1940) by C. Chaplin, "Hitler's Children" (1943) by E. Dmitrek, "Watch on the Rhine" (1943) by H. Shumlin, "Executioners Also Die" (1943) by F. Lang, etc. Many directors (J. Ford, W. Weiler, F. Capra, and H. Kanin) participated in the production of documentary newsreel films on the war events. The heroic struggle of the Soviet people against the Hitlerite invaders was reflected in the "Song of Russia" (1943) by G. Ratoff, "The Battle of Russia" (1943) by F. Capra and A. Litvak, and "North Star" (1943) by L. Milestone. The tragic plight of the California farm hands, the pauperization and ruination of the small farmers are pictured in J. Ford's "Grapes of Wrath," based on J. E. Steinbeck's book (1940), and "Tobacco Road" based on E. Caldwell's book (1941). The yellow press is exposed in O. Welles' "Citizen Kane" (1941) and racial discrimination is condemned in I. Kasan's "Gentlemen's Agreement" (1948). Among the films released by Hollywood however were many reactionary productions of little artistic value. Mysticism and superstition are propagated in "Our Town" (1940) by S. Wood and by "Song of Bernadette" (1943) by H. King. Imbued with undisguised militaristic ideology are the pictures "Immortal Sergeant" (1943) by D. Stel, the "History of a Soldier" (1945) by V. Fleming, etc. Many crime plays, gangster pictures, animated cartoons, and so-called "westerns" have been produced since the end of World War II. In their attempt to capture new markets, the Hollywood motion picture monopolies flooded the west European and American countries with reactionary films of an unprincipled character. A group of progressive producers, organized into an independent firm, "Liberty," has been fighting against the lowering of the ideological and artistic standard of American cinema art. Opposing the reactionary trend in American cinema art were W. Weiler's "The Best Years of Our Lives" (1946), on the return of the demobilized servicemen to the US and

their attempts to find a place in the postwar world, "The Flaming Cross" (1947) by W. Holmes, an anti-Ku Klux Klan film, "The Easy Tempered" [sic] (1949) by S. Mayers, on juvenile crime (which won a prize at the Venice Movie Festival in 1949), and "Strange Victory" by L. Hurwitz. Certain prominent figures in cinema art have been trying to produce pictures outside the dominant monopoly system and to find ways and means of shooting the films and having them shown in the movie houses. That is how the picture "Native Soil" (1942), dealing with the growing labor movement in the US, was produced by L. Hurwitz and P. Strand. In 1954 a group of producers, scenario writers, and actors (P. Jerricho, H. Biberman, etc), ousted from Hollywood after a clash with reactionary circles, produced a picture, financed by the miners' union, on the Beyard miners' strike, "Salt of the Earth," which won a prize at the eighth international motion picture festival at Carlovi-Vari. The following US producers became popular in the middle of the 1950's: J. Houston, J. Negulesco, F. Zinneman, I. Bergman, J. Kelly, J. Weeman, etc. Considerable success has been attained in the US by animated cartoons and documentary films. Cinemascope and cinerama were introduced in US motion pictures in 1952.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Rotha, P., The Film Till Now, 1949. London
- Potamkin, H. A., The Eyes of the Movies, 1934, New York
- Jacobs, L., The Rise of the American Film -- A Critical History, 1939, New York

XVIII. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF US HISTORY

Date	Historic Facts
Tenth century	The first sailings of the Norsemen to the north-east coast of America
October 1492	The discovery of America by C. Columbus (landing on Bahama Islands)
1497-1498	The discovery of Newfoundland, the northeastern islands, and the major part of the east coast of North America (up to 38° N lat) by English expeditions headed by J. Cabot
1517-1519	The discovery of the east and north coasts of the Gulf of Mexico by the Spaniards, Alaminos and Pineda
1565	The beginning of the Spanish colonization in North America, the foundation of the first Spanish settlement on the territory of Florida
1604	The beginning of French colonization in North America
1607	The foundation of the first English settlement in North America (on the territory of Virginia) by a London company
1619	The arrival in Virginia of the first shipment of Negro slaves from Africa
1620	The foundation of an English settlement on the territory of Massachusetts
1622-1634	The first war of the English colonizers against the Indians
1626	The foundation of New Amsterdam by the Dutch West Indies Company (it was renamed New York after its capture by the English in 1664)
1643	Formation of the union of English colonies in North America to fight the Indians
1672-1674	The war between England and Holland resulting in the annexation of the Dutch colonies in North America by England
1676	The rebellion in Virginia led by Nathaniel Bacon
1689	The Boston rebellion of tradesmen and petty bourgeoisie
1689-1691	The rebellion of tradesmen and petty bourgeoisie of New York City
1750	England passes a law forbidding the construction of furnaces, rolling mills, and forges in the North American colonies

1756-1763 The 7-Year War, the capture of French Canada and east Louisiana by the English

1763 Riots by Pennsylvania farmers

1763 Royal edict forbidding the settlement of colonists beyond the Allegheny Mountains

1765 The English Parliament passes the Stamp Act, the first attempt to impose a direct tax on the colonists

1765 Formation of a secret revolutionary organization "Sons of Liberty"

1765-1766 The farmers' rebellion in North Carolina

1765 Representatives of the colonies convened in New York the boycott of English goods in the colonies initiated

1765 The English Parliament passes a law on stationing troops in the colonies

1766 Repeal of the Stamp Act

1767 Introduction of taxes on tea and certain other goods imported to the colonies

1770 Bloody clashes between the colonists and English troops in Boston

1772 The creation of the first committee of correspondence in Boston

1773 The destruction of the first tea shipment arriving in Boston by the "Sons of Liberty" (Boston Tea Party)

1774 The English close the Boston port and declare the city in a state of siege

5 September-26 October 1774 The first Continental Congress meets in Philadelphia

1775-1783 The War of Independence in North America

19 April 1775 The English troops are defeated by the colonists at Concord and Lexington

10 May 1775 to 2 March 1781 The second Continental Congress

4 July 1776 The second Continental Congress adopts the Declaration of Independence and proclaims the separation of the colonies from England and the creation of an independent state

17 October, 1777 The surrender of the English troops under General Burgoyne at Saratoga

6 February 1778 The US-French Treaty of Alliance and Trade concluded in Paris

1780 Russia declares her "armed neutrality" which was directed against the English and contributed to the victory of the rebellious colonies

1781 Enactment of the "Articles of Confederation," the first US constitution defining the union of independent states

October 1781 The surrender of the English troops commanded by General Cornwallis to the Americans

30 November 1782 The signing of the preliminary peace treaty between England and the US

1783 Restiveness in the American army

3 September 1783 The signing of the Versailles Peace Treaty under which England recognized US independence

1786-1787 The poor farmers' rebellion led by D. Shay

September 1787 Adoption of a new US constitution (went into effect in 1789)

1789-1797 The presidency of G. Washington

1791 Adoption of the Bill of Rights, the first 10 amendments to the US constitution adopted under pressure of the national movement

1791 Foundation of the US National Bank

1793 E. Whitney invents the cotton gin

1794 Pennsylvania farmers' rebellion ("Whiskey Rebellion")

19 November 1794 The conclusion of an Anglo-American treaty (the Jay Treaty), humiliating to US national sovereignty and strongly resented by the country

1797-1801 The presidency of J. Adams

1798 Adoption of the "Alien Law," directed against the revolutionary immigration from France and Ireland, and the "Sedition Law," which provided for imprisonment for criticizing the activities of the government

1799 Farmers' riots in Pennsylvania

1801-1809 The presidency of T. Jefferson

1809 Organization of the printers' trade union

1809 Abolition of the "Embargo Act"

1809-1817 The Presidency of J. Madison

1812-1814 The Anglo-American war

24 December 1814 The Chent Peace Treaty between England and the US

1817-1825 The presidency of J. Monroe

1819 The purchase of Florida from Spain, in effect already
 occupied by the US

1820 The Missouri Compromise

1823 Proclamation of the Monroe Doctrine

April 1824 The conclusion of the US-Russian agreement on borders

1825-1829 The presidency of J. Quincy Adams

1828 Construction of the Baltimore and Ohio railroad begun

1828-1829 Formation of the first labor parties in Philadelphia and
 New York

1828 Formation of the Democratic Party

1829-1837 The presidency of A. Jackson

1831 Rebellion of Negro slaves in Virginia led by Nat Turner

18 December 1832 The signing of the US-Russian treaty of trade and
 navigation

1833 The foundation of the central (city) council of trade
 unions in New York

1834 The Whig party forming

1834 The creation of a central labor association in Boston
 combining 16 trade unions

1837-1841 The presidency of M. Van Buren

1840 The abolitionist Liberty Party taking shape

1841-1845 The presidency of J. Tyler

3 July 1844 The Wanghia unequal rights treaty imposed on China by
 the US

1845-1849 The presidency of J. Polk

1845 The seizure of Texas from Mexico by the US

1846-1848 US war of aggression against Mexico

2 February 1848 The signing of the US-Mexican peace treaty at Guadalupe-Hidalgo under which the US took away about half of the Mexican territory

1848 The emergence of the farmers' Free Soilers party

1850-1853 The presidency of M. Filmore

19 April 1850 The agreement between England and the US on the control of the future canal between the Atlantic and the Pacific through the territory of Central America

1850 The US adopts a law on runaway slaves under which the northern slaves were duty bound to capture them

1850 The foundation of the National Printers' Union

1853-1857 The presidency of F. Pierce

1853 The foundation of the National Masons Union

30 December 1853 The conclusion of the US-Mexican treaty (the Gadsden Treaty) under which the US annexed about 140,000 sq km of Mexican territory

1854-1856 The armed struggle between the farmers and slave owners in Kansas

30 March 1854 The signing of the unequal rights American-Japanese treaty concluded by Japan under pressure from the US

May 1854 The Kansas-Nebraska Bill

1854 The foundation of the Republican Party

1854 The foundation of the national hat makers union

1855 The foundation of the national steel smelters union

1857-1861 The presidency of J. Buchanan

March 1857 The Supreme Court decision in the Dred Scott case which amounted to the sanctioning of slavery throughout the US

18 July 1858 The Tientsin unequal rights treaty between the US and China

October 1859 The antislavery rebellion led by John Brown

1859 Foundation of the national metal workers union

20 December 1860 South Carolina secedes from the US

1861-1865	The presidency of A. Lincoln
1861-1865	The Civil War in the US
12-14 April 1861	The beginning of military action, the southerners capture Fort Sumter
2 May 1862	The Lincoln administration introduces the draft for the army and navy
May 1862	The adoption of the Homestead Act under which every citizen could get 160 acres of land (65 h) upon the payment of a small tax
1 January 1863	The act on the liberation of negro slaves who had belonged to the southern planters and participated in the rebellion goes into effect
1-3 July 1863	The victory of the northerners at Gettysburg
3 April 1865	The occupation of Richmond by General U. Grant's troops
9 April 1865	The surrender of the southern army under General Lee
14 April 1865	The assassination of Lincoln
1865-1877	The reconstruction of the South
1865-1869	The presidency of A. Johnson
1865	The creation of a labor league for an 8-hour workday
1865-1866	The introduction of racial and anti-Negro "black codes" in the southern states by the planters
18 December 1865	The thirteenth amendment to the Constitution (abolition of slavery) goes into effect
1866	The foundation of the national labor union
2 March 1867	Congress passes the first law on the reconstruction of the south
30 March 1867	The signing of the US-Russian agreement on the purchase of Alaska by the US for 7.2 million dollars
1867	Sections of the First International emerge in the US
1867	The foundation of the Grangers organization (national society for the promotion of agriculture)
28 July 1868	The fourteenth amendment to the Constitution (granting civil rights to Negroes) goes into effect
1868	The foundation of the Labor Party
1869-1877	The presidency of U. Grant

1869 The foundation of the Order of the Knights of Labor

30 March 1870 The fifteenth amendment to the constitution (under which Negroes could not be deprived of the right to vote) goes into effect

1871 An American squadron attempts to penetrate Korea

1872 Political rights are granted to former rebellious slave owners

1876 The creation of a socialist labor party (originally called the Labor Party)

1877-1881 The presidency of R. Hayes

1877 The railroad strike is put down by troops

1881-1885 The presidency of C. Arthur

1881 The foundation of the American Federation of Labor (AFL)

22 May 1892 The treaty imposed on Korea by the US

March-April 1885 Pennsylvania coal miners strike

1885-1889 The presidency of G. Cleveland

1 May 1886 Mass strikes and demonstrations for an 8-hour workday, police attack on the May First demonstration in Chicago

1889-1893 The presidency of B. Harrison

1889 The US, England, and Germany sign an agreement to establish their protectorate over the Samoan islands

1890 The Sherman "antitrust" law, used for persecuting trade unions and fighting strikes

1892 The foundation of the Populist Party

June-November 1892 The metal workers' strike at the Carnegie plants of Homestead, Pennsylvania (the Homestead strike)

1893-1897 G. Cleveland's second term as president

1893 The foundation of the American railroadmen's union headed by E. Debs

1893 Coup d'etat on the Hawaiian islands organized by the US, the formation of a Hawaiian republic and government entirely dependent on the US

May-July 1894 Mass railroad strike begun at the plants of the Pullman Car Company (in the outskirts of Chicago)

1895 The creation of the National Association of Manufacturers, the largest organization of monopolists in the US

1897-1901 The presidency of W. McKinley

April-August 1898 The Spanish-American War, the first imperialist war for the redivision of the world

1898 The foundation of the Social Democratic Party

July 1898 The annexation of the Hawaiian Islands

10 December 1898 The Paris Peace Treaty between the US and Spain

1899-1901 Philippine rebellions suppressed by the US

1899-1902 The occupation of Cuba by American troops

6 September 1899 The note by US Secretary of State J. Hay outlining the imperialist "open door" doctrine in China

October 1899 Antiimperialist conference in Chicago with representatives of 30 states participating

1899 Agreement on the division of the Samoan islands between the US and Germany

1900-1901 US participation in the suppression of the people's antiimperialist rebellion in China (1899-1901)

1901-1909 The presidency of T. Roosevelt

1901 The treaty between England and the US granting the latter all rights for the construction of the canal between the Atlantic and the Pacific (the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty)

May-October 1902 Pennsylvania coal miners' strike

November 1903 Coup d'etat in Panama organized by the US, the separation of Panama from Columbia, and the capture of the Panama Canal Zone by the US

18 November 1903 The signing of the US-Panama treaty legalizing the American imperialists' seizure of the Canal Zone

1905 The foundation of the "Industrial World Workers" organization (IWW)

27 July 1905 The signing of the US-Japanese agreement (Katsura-Taft agreement)

1906-1909 The occupation of Cuba by US troops

1907 Miners' strike

30 November 1908 US-Japanese agreement on Pacific issues (Root-Takahira Agreement)

1909-1913 The presidency of W. Taft

1909 The foundation of the National Association for the
 Advancement of Colored People

1909-1910 Garment workers' strike

1912-1933 The occupation of Nicaragua by US troops
(with a short
interruption)

1912 The foundation of the Chamber of Commerce, an organi-
 zation of US monopolists

1913-1921 The presidency of W. Wilson

1913 The institution of the Federal Reserve System

1913-1914 Colorado miners' strike

1914 US intervention in Mexico

4 August 1914 The US government declaration of neutrality in World
 War I

1914 Completion of the Panama Canal construction

1915 The foundation of the Socialist (Enlightenment) League

1915-1934 The occupation of Haiti by US troops

1916-1917 US intervention in Mexico

1916 The purchase of the Danish West Indies by the US

1916-1924 Occupation of the Dominican Republic by US troops

1917-1922 US intervention in Cuba

6 April 1917 US declaration of war on Germany

May 1917 The introduction of universal military service (the
 first time in US history)

January 1918 The publication of Wilson's "14 Points"

1918 The beginning of open US military intervention against
 Soviet Russia

January 1919 to The Paris Peace Conference
January 1920

1919 Mass strikes in New York and Seattle

1-5 September Constituent Congress of the US Communist Party in
1919 Chicago, the foundation of the Communist Party of
 the US

September 1919 Big steel smelters strike lasting about 4 months

November- December 1919 Mass miners' strike
 November 1919 Senate refuses to ratify the Versailles Peace Treaty
 1919-1920 Large scale strikes of dock workers who refuse to load war materials for the US interventionist troops and the White Guardists in Soviet Russia
 1920 Withdrawal of the American troops from Soviet Russia
 1921-1923 The presidency of W. Harding
 August 1921 Separate peace between the US and Germany
 November 1921 to February 1922 The Washington Conference
 1922 Powerful miners' and railroad workers' strikes
 1923-1929 The presidency of C. Coolidge
 16 August 1924 The London Conference approves the Dawes Plan, a reparations plan for Germany drafted by an international committee of experts headed by the American banker Dawes
 March 1927 US warships participated in the shelling of Nanking
 23 August 1927 Execution of N. Sacco and B. Vanzetti, labor movement members
 1929-1933 The world economic crisis which had a particularly strong impact on the US
 20 January 1930 The Hague Conference approves the Young Plan, the second reparations plan for Germany
 6 March 1930 Mass demonstrations by unemployed workers in the US
 4 July 1930 The national conference of unemployed in Chicago
 1931 The "Hunger March" of unemployed on Washington
 May-November 1931 A powerful miners strike
 1932 The war veterans march on Washington, the shooting down of the marchers by the troops
 1933-1945 The presidency of F. Roosevelt
 1933 The adoption of the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA) and the Agricultural Adjustment Administration (AAA)
 16 November 1933 The US established diplomatic relations with the USSR

1934 The San Francisco general strike

June 1935 The adoption of the so-called Wagner Act (on labor relations)

August 1935 The adoption of the neutrality law

November 1935 The foundation of the Congress of Industrial Trade Unions (CIO, it was called the Committee of Industrial Unions up to 1938)

March 1938 American volunteers are forbidden to depart for Republican Spain

6 September 1939 US neutrality in World War II proclaimed by the Roosevelt government

November 1939 Revision of the neutrality law, lifting of the embargo on arms shipments to the warring countries

December 1939 The US grants a 40 million dollar loan to the reactionary Finnish government

28 June 1940 The US Congress passes the so-called Smith Law

July 1940 The Inter-American Conference at Havana adopts the so-called Havana Declaration

September 1940 The introduction of the draft law

11 March 1941 The US Congress passes the Lend Lease Law

27 March 1941 The US obtains a 99-year lease from England on a number of strategically important places in the Atlantic for naval and air bases in exchange for 50 overage American destroyers

April 1941 The establishment of US military control over Greenland

24 June 1941 The Roosevelt government declares its support of the Soviet Union in the war against Hitlerite Germany

July 1941 The landing of American troops in Iceland

14 August 1941 The signing of the Atlantic Charter

29 September 1941 The Moscow Conference of USSR, US, and English representatives to 1 October 1941

November 1941 The establishment of US military control over Dutch Guiana

7 December 1941 Japan attacks US possessions and bases in the Pacific

8 December 1941 The US declares war on Japan

11 December 1941	Germany and Italy declare war on the US
23 February 1942	Anglo-American agreement on "principles applicable to mutual aid in the war against aggression"
June 1942	US declares war on Bulgaria, Hungary, and Rumania
11 June 1942	USSR-US agreement on "principles applicable to mutual aid in the conduct of war against aggression"
12 June 1942	The publication of the Anglo-Soviet and Soviet-American communiques which pointed out that in the course of negotiations "a complete understanding was reached in regard to the urgent task of opening a second front in Europe in 1942"
November 1942	The landing of Anglo-American troops in north Africa
September 1943	The landing of Anglo-American troops in south Italy
19-30 October 1943	The Moscow conference of foreign ministers of the USSR, US, and Great Britain
28 November 1943, 1 December	The Teheran Conference of the chiefs of state of the USSR, US and Great Britain
6 June 1944	The landing of Anglo-American troops in north France
4-12 February 1945	The Crimean (Yalta) Conference of the chiefs of state of the USSR, US, and Great Britain
1945-1953	The presidency of H. Truman
8 May 1945	The signing of the capitulation act by Germany
17 July to 2 August 1945	The Berlin (Potsdam) Conference of the chiefs of state of the USSR, US, and Great Britain
6 August 1945	The US Air Force drops an atom bomb on Hiroshima
9 August 1945	The US Air Force drops an atom bomb on Nagasaki
2 September 1945	The signing of the capitulation act by Japan
November-December 1945	The workers of General Motors, the largest monopoly in the US automobile industry, go on strike
4 July 1946	The US President's statement on granting independence to the Philippines

29 July to 15 October 1946 The Paris Peace Conference

4 November 1946 The US signs a treaty with the Chiang Kai-shek government of China

2 March 1947 The promulgation of the Truman Doctrine

March 1947 Truman orders a loyalty check of government employees

23 July 1947 The antilabor Taft-Hartley Law is passed

2 September 1947 The signing of the Rio de Janeiro treaty "on Western Hemisphere defense"

8 October 1947 The conclusion of a military agreement between the US and Iran

April 1948 The US Congress adopts the Marshall Plan

July 1948 The foundation of the Progressive Party

1949 E. Dennis and 10 other US Communist Party leaders are tried and sentenced to many years of imprisonment

20 January 1949 Speech by Truman outlining the so-called Truman Point 4 Program designed to facilitate US capital penetration into the colonial and dependent countries

25-27 March 1949 US Peace Congress

4 April 1949 The signing of the aggressive North Atlantic Pact in Washington legalizing the establishment of a military grouping of a number of capitalist countries

June 1949-March 1950 Miners strike

1-4 October 1949 Trade union peace conference in Chicago

June 1950 US intervention in the Korean Civil War, actual occupation of the Chinese island of Taiwan by the US

1950 An information center of peace partisans created in the US

September 1950 The adoption of the McCarran-Wood Law directed against the Communist Party and all progressive organizations

October 1950 The US suppresses the Puerto Rico rebellion

December 1950 The Truman administration proclaims "an emergency situation" in the country

February 1951	The execution of 7 Martinsville Negroes
29 June to 1 July 1951	National Peace Congress
30 August 1951	The signing of the US-Philippine "mutual defense" treaty
1 September 1951	The US, Australia, and New Zealand sign a "mutual defense" treaty
8 September 1951	The US and a number of other capitalist countries sign a separatist peace treaty with Japan
10 October 1951	The US Congress passes the Mutual Security Act
May-July 1952	Strike of the steel smelting industry workers
27 June 1952	Congress passes the so-called McCarran-Walter Act (on immigration and naturalization)
November 1952	General D. Eisenhower is elected president
February 1953	Thirteen Communist Party leaders are sentenced to various terms in jail
27 July 1953	The conclusion of a truce in Korea
September 1953	An agreement between the US and Spain on the establishment of American military bases on Spanish territory
October 1953	Strike of New York dock workers
October 1953	The treaty on so-called mutual defense between the US and South Korea providing for the stationing of American armed forces in South Korea
25 January to 18 February, 1954	The Berlin conference of the foreign ministers of the USSR, US, France, and Great Britain
February 1954	US-Pakistan agreement on granting American military aid to Pakistan
8 March 1954	The US and Japan sign an agreement "on aid to insure mutual defense"
26 April to 21 July 1954	The Geneva Conference of Foreign Ministers
19 August 1954	The so-called 1954 Subversive Activities Control Law, passed by Congress actually designed to ban the activities of the Communist Party, is signed by the US President
8 September 1954	The signing at the Manila Conference of the "South-east Asia Defense" treaty giving legal status to the military bloc (SEATO) in southeast Asia and the Pacific area

23 October 1954	The conclusion of the Paris military agreements
15 May 1955	The representatives of the USSR, US, England, France, and Austria sign a state treaty in Vienna on the restoration of an independent and democratic Austria
18-23 July 1955	The Geneva conference of the heads of 4 powers, the USSR, US, England, and France
7-20 August 1955	International technical scientific conference on the peaceful uses of atomic energy, engineers and scientists of many countries, including the US, participating in it
27 October to 16 November 1955	The Geneva Conference of the foreign affairs minister of 4 powers, the USSR, US, England, and France
December 1955	The joint congress of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organization, the creation of a united trade union organization AFL-CIO

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Page 558. The Pacific coast near Santa Monica, California

[Between pages 558 and 559]

Physical map of the United States

State borders	Dams, rapids, and waterfalls
State capitals	Sands and lava fields
Centers of possessions	Swamps and salt marshes
Railroads and mountain passes	Active volcanoes
Navigable canals	Glaciers
Stretches of navigable parts	Coral reefs
Aqueducts	Height and depth markers
Rivers and lakes that dry up (in summer)	Yellowstone National Park

Fresh water and salt water

lakes

Scale of depth and height in m. Scale 1:15,000,000

Page 559. [Upper left] North Appalachians. Glacier traces in the
White Mountains

Page 559 [Lower left] Deep crevices in the South Dakota Badlands.

Great Plains

Page 559 [Right center] A mountain range in the Great Basin. Desert vegetation. Nevada.

Page 560. The Grand Canyon of the Colorado River.

[Between pages 560 and 561]

Quaternary system	Silurian system, correspond-
Neogene system	ing to Upper Silurian in the
Paleogene system	Ordovician system, correspond-
Cretaceous system	ing to Lower Silurian in the
Jurassic system	USSR
Triassic system	Silurian-Ordovician
Solid Mesozoic structure	Cambrian system
Permian system	Solid Lower Paleozoic structure
Pennsylvania system, corresponding	Proterozoic group
to the Middle and Upper Carbonaceous	Pre-Cambrian group
system in the USSR	Solid pre-cambrian structure
Mississippi system, corresponding	Aciduous volcanic rocks (mezo-
to Lower Carbonaceous system in the	cainozoic, paleozoic, precambrian)
USSR	Basic volcanic rocks
Solid Carboniferous system	Cainozoic effusives
Devonian system	
United States, geological map	

[Map, page 561]

North American platform: 1. ledges of the Pre-Cambrian foundation [the southern fringe of the Canadian massif, Ozark (O), Adirondac (A), Llano (L)]; 2. the area of the platform's top cover formation; 3. the basic depressions of the platform; 4. The basic elevations of the platform; 5. Rocky Mountains (western part of the platform changed by the Mezo-Cainozoic movements); 6. basic depressions of the Rocky Mountains:

I. Big Horn; II. Powder River; III. Wind River; IV. Green River;
 V. Laramie; VI. Uinta; VII. Denver; VIII. San Juan; and 7. Dis-
 location of the Wichita elevation

The area of paleozoic plication: 8. Appalachian folds, Washita
 (W) and Marathon Mountains (M); 9. internal geosynclinal area of the
 Appalachians (the Pre-Cambrian formation of piedmont); 10. the Mezo-
 Cainozoic platform top cover of the Gulf and Atlantic coast; and 11.
 the area of saline domal structure development.

The area of Mesozoic-Cainozoic plication: 12. the Cordillera
 Mesozoic folds; 13. the middle massif of the Great Basin; 14. Pacific
 coast Cainozoic folds; and 15. Inter-mountain depressions.
 United States of America, Tectonics Diagram
 Scale:
 Page 563. A sandstorm near Lamar, Colorado

Page 565. North Platte River in the Great Plains region.

Page 566. Douglas fir forests in the northern Cascade Mountains

[First page following page 566, upper left] General view of Washington.

[First page following page 566, lower left] General view of Chicago.

[First page following page 566, upper right] New York, lower Manhattan.

[First page following page 566, lower right] General view of Pittsburgh.

[Second page following page 566, upper left] General view of New Orleans
 from the mouth of the Mississippi.

[Second page following page 566, lower left] The port of Seattle.

[Second page following page 566, upper right] San Francisco. The
 waterfront.

[Second page following page 566, lower right] Fargo, North Dakota.

[Third page following page 566, upper left] A valley in the Appalachians.
 North Carolina.

[Third page following page 566, lower left] Central plains, Minnesota.

[Third page following page 566, upper right] Wooded flat peaks of the
 southern Appalachians.

[Third page following page 566, lower right] Central plains near
Hoopeston, Illinois.

[Fourth page following page 566, upper left] Niagara River and
waterfall

[Fourth page following page 566, lower left] Southern part of the
Rocky Mountains. Colorado.

[Fourth page following page 566, upper right] "Terrible swamps"
on the Atlantic lowlands. Foreground: breathing roots of swamp
cypress.

[Fourth page following page 566, lower right] The Gila Desert, Arizona.

[Between pages 568 and 569]

National boundaries	Sea routes and distances in km
State boundaries	Ports
Washington, National capital	Navigable rivers and their Mississippi navigable portions
Nassau, Territorial centers	Dams, rapids, and waterfalls
Denver, State centers	Rivers and lakes that dry up (in summer)
Cities according to population	Aqueducts
over 1,000,000	Sands and marshes
500,000 - 1,000,000	Coral reefs
100,000 - 500,000	
50,000 - 100,000	The following states on the map are indicated with figures.
10,000 - 50,000	1. Vermont 6. Rhode Island
less than 10,000	2. New Hampshire 7. New Jersey
Railroad trunk lines and passes	3. Massachusetts 8. District of Columbia
Other railroad lines	4. Pennsylvania 9. Maryland
Navigable canals	5. Connecticut 10. Delaware
Political administrative map.	

[First page following page 576, upper left] General view of the Grand
Coulee power plant on the Columbia River.

[First page following page 576, lower left] Open-cast copper mining at
(Morens). Arizona.

- [First page following page 576, upper right] The Douglas Dam on the Tennessee River.
- [First page following page 576, middle right] Oil fields in California.
- [First page following page 576, lower right] Open-pit ore mining in the Lake Superior area.
- [Second page following page 576, upper left] Blast furnaces in Chicago.
- [Second page following page 576, upper middle] Electrolytical plant in Anaconda, Montana
- [Second page following page 576, upper right] A forge press department in a Philadelphia automobile plant.
- [Second page following page 576, lower left] A synthetic rubber plant in Port Natchez, Texas.
- [Second page following page 576, lower right] The atomic plant at Oak Ridge, Tennessee.
- [Third page following page 576, upper left] A corn processing plant in Texas.
- [Third page following page 576, lower left] Tending the soybean fields in Idaho.
- [Third page following page 576, upper right] Irrigation of corn fields.
- [Third page following page 576, lower right] Hay-mowing and shredding in Minnesota.
- [Fourth page following page 576, upper left] Livestock corral at large dairy farm near Los Angeles.
- [Fourth page following page 576, upper right] General view of a large farm in Minnesota.
- [Fourth page following page 576, lower left] Orange groves in California.
- [Fourth page following page 576, lower middle] Tending tobacco plantations in South Carolina.
- [Fourth page following page 576, lower right] Soil erosion in the Tatmen Creek district, Garfield County, Washington.

Page 585. General view of Baltimore

Page 586. Miami, Florida

Page 587. Oil refining plant in Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Page 588. General view of Portland

[Map, between pages 590 and 591]

CANADA

Louisiana

United States of America

The line west of which the colonists were forbidden to occupy land by the edict of 1763.

Besieged by American troops:

Boston in 1775-1776; Savannah in 1778. Yorktown in 1781.

Operations of American troops.

French navy and troops directed to aid the Americans.

Areas of most active guerrilla activities.

Operations of British troops.

Places where British troops surrendered.

Places and figures on the very important battles won by the Americans.

Operations at Concord and Lexington. 18-19 August 1775

US national boundaries established as a result of the War of Independence against England and approved by the 1783 Versailles Treaty.

Borderlines between the English colonies in 1775.

The road to Concord taken by the British detachment under Smith and his retreat. The movement of the American units. Places of battle between the American militia and a British unit.

The following states on the map are indicated by figures:

- 1. Rhode Island, 2. Connecticut,
- 3. New Jersey, 4. South Carolina.

The War of Independence in North America (1775-1783)

Scale: 1:15,000,000

[Map, page 592]

Places and figures on the armed clashes.

Territory assigned to Indian tribes in 1842-1854

Reservations in April 1943

Wars of extermination against the Indians on US territory (eighteenth and nineteenth centuries) and Indian reservations.

[Page 594:]

The so-called "underground railroad." The shifting of runaway Negroes from the southern slave states to the north. Artist K. T. Webber.

[Page 596]

The suppression of the US railroad strike (1877). Execution of strikers by troops in Baltimore.

[Map, page 600]

Cities affected by the strike movement of 1918-1923

Places of the strongest clashes between strikers and punitive forces

The principal districts affected by the steelworkers strikes.

The principal districts affected by the miners strikes.

Demonstrations in favor of Soviet Russia

City workers

Farmers

Indicated in figures on the map are the following states:

1. New Hampshire, 2. Vermont, 3. Massachusetts, 4. Rhode Island,
5. Connecticut, 6. New Jersey, 7. Delaware, 8. Maryland, 9. Pennsylvania,
and 10. District of Columbia.

[Opposite page 604, top] "Hunger march" in Chicago, 1930.

[Opposite page 604, bottom] May Day demonstration in New York, 1934.

[Opposite page 605, upper left] A meeting of solidarity with the
Soviet Union in New York, 1943.

[Opposite page 605, upper right] Guard cavalry men of the formation
under Lieutenant General Oslikovsky and soldiers of the Thirteenth
American Infantry-Tank Corps who met at the Elba River in May 1945.

[Opposite page 605, lower left] A demonstration in New York in favor
of banning atomic weapons.

[Opposite page 605, lower right] Meeting the Soviet agricultural
delegation in Des Moines, Iowa, July 1955.

Page 643 [Upper left] The old city hall (Independence Hall), Phila-
delphia, 1741.

Page 643 [Upper right] The Capitol in Washington. Foundation laid in
1793, the building being built and rebuilt in the nineteenth century.

Page 643 [Lower left] Street with classicist buildings in New Haven,
Connecticut, early nineteenth century.

Page 643 [Lower right] The Martin House, by F. L. Wright, Illinois, 1901.

Page 644 [Left] "Delaware Valley," by J. Inness, 1865, Metropolitan
Museum, New York.

Page 644 [Right] Bronze relief of Robert Louis Stevenson, by O. St.
Gaudens, 1887, St. Gaudens Museum, New Hampshire

[First page following page 644] "The Wind Grows Stronger," by W. Homer,
1876, The National Art Gallery, Washington

[Second page following page 644, top] "The Capture of the Hessian Sol-
diers at Trenton," by J. Trumbull, 1876, Yale University Art Gallery.

[Second page following page 644, lower left] Portrait of G. Washington,
by G. Stuart, 1795, National Art Gallery, Washington.

[Second page following page 644, lower right] Portrait of a boy (so-called "torn hat"), by T. Sully, 1820, Boston Art Museum.

[Third page following page 644, upper left] "Old Kentucky Home," by I. Johnson, 1859, New York Public Library.

[Third page following page 644, upper right] "Hunter and Hound Dog," by W. Homer, 1892, National Art Gallery, Washington.

[Third page following page 644, lower left] Portrait of a Mother, by J. M. W. Whistler, 1872, Louvre, Paris.

[Third page following page 644, lower middle] Portrait of W. McDowell, by T. Eakins, circa 1886, private collection, New York.

[Third page following page 644, lower right] Indian Girl of Santa Clara, by R. Henry, 1917, private collection, New York.

Page 645 [Upper left] Portrait of A. Lincoln, by J. Barnard, marble, beginning of twentieth century, Metropolitan Museum, New York.

Page 645 [Lower left] "The Face of Trade Union Bureaucracy," by R. Minor, 1920, drawing.

Page 645 [Right] Portrait of Paul Robeson, by J. Epstein, bronze, 1928, private collection, New York.

[Opposite page 646, upper left] Paul Robeson as Othello, in "Othello," by W. Shakespeare, Theater Guild, New York.

[Opposite page 646, upper right] A scene from the play, "Deep Roots," by J. Howe and A. D'Useau, 1947, Fulton Theater, New York.

[Opposite page 646, lower left] C. Cornell as Masha in "Three Sisters," by A. P. Chekhov, produced by H. M. Clintick, 1942, New York.

[Opposite page 646, lower right] A scene from the play, "People in White," Group Theater, New York, 1933.

[Opposite page 647, upper left] "Intolerance," directed by D. Griffith, 1916.

[Opposite page 647, upper right] "Greed," directed by E. Stroheim, 1923.

[Opposite page 647, lower left] C. Chaplin in "Modern Times," 1936.

[Opposite page 647, lower right] "Salt of the Earth," directed by P. Jerricho and H. Biberman, 1954.