

A. VITVER

**ECONOMIC
GEOGRAPHY OF
FOREIGN COUNTRIES**

**TEXTBOOKS FOR 9th GRADE
SECONDARY SCHOOL**

**UCHPEDGIZ
1953**

Source:

Title: Economic geography of foreign countries. Textbook for 9th
Grade High School Author: Vivern I.A. Publishing: Uchpedgis
Year edition: 1953
Language: Russian
Translated and transcribed into English.

The Socialist Truth in Cyprus-London Bureaux

<http://www.st-cyprus.co.uk>



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Direct Democracy (Communist Party)

www.directdemocracy4u.uk



**E-Book:
February 2020**

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Approved by
the Ministry of Education of the RSFSR

THE FOURTEENTH EDITION

**STATE EDUCATIONAL
AND PEDAGOGICAL PUBLISHING HOUSE
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION OF THE RSFSR**

MOSCOW * 1953

By the decision of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, prof. Vitver Ivan Aleksandrovich for this textbook was awarded the Stalin Prize of the second degree for the 1950s.

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HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHIC INTRODUCTION

Until the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution, capitalism dominated the world. The October Revolution split the world. There is no longer a single capitalist world. There were two worlds: capitalist and socialist. The socialist world is shaking the foundations of capitalism, which is torn apart by internal contradictions.

After the Second World War, a large group of countries fell away from capitalism, created a people's democratic system and quickly built the foundations of socialism, using the powerful support of the Soviet Union. A number of peoples, suppressed by imperialism, are successfully fighting for their national independence.

The forces of socialism are steadily growing and strengthening in foreign countries, while the rule of capitalism is being undermined.

Division of the world by the beginning of the twentieth century. The capitalist world is essentially a world of inequality, of the oppression of the majority by the minority; such are the relations between the social classes and between the countries that are part of the capitalist system.

One of the main contradictions of modern capitalism is "... the contradiction between a handful of dominant 'civilised' nations and hundreds of millions of colonial and dependent peoples of the world" (Stalin). The

bourgeoisie of the developed capitalist countries, which has financial, industrial and military power, is not limited to exploiting “its” working class. It captures and draws into its circle of exploitation the peoples of the weaker and more backward countries, the exploitation of backward countries promises it particularly great benefits: there’s a lower vital level and, therefore, lower wages than in developed countries; there can be “not ashamed” and apply to “colour” population the methods of direct and overt violence and coercion; from there you can at a cheap price to valuable raw materials need for the industry; there you can sell on the best the conditions of low-grade products that are in more affluent and therefore more demanding countries “will not work”. In short, in the backward colonial countries, the bourgeoisie is provided with particularly high profits.

The conquest of colonies by European powers began with the great geographical discoveries of the XV-XVI centuries. It took place in a fierce struggle between the strongest states of that time (Spain, Portugal, Holland, England, France). But it is especially intensified struggle over the division of the world with the ‘70s of the XIX century to the beginning of the transition of capitalism in its latest stage, the stage of imperialism.

V. I. Lenin defined the essence of imperialism as follows: “Imperialism is capitalism at the stage of development when the rule of monopolies and financial capital was established, the export of capital became prominent, and the division of capital began,” by international trusts and ended the division of the entire

territory of the earth between the largest capitalist countries.”

The most characteristic feature of imperialism is monopolies, i.e. unions of capitalists (trusts, concerns), which aim at monopolistic (exclusive, non-rival) domination of markets, monopolistic seizure of raw material sources, displacement and undermining of competitors. Trusts and concerns do not just be commanding a force of over production and domestic market of the country, but dominate the production and markets of other countries, are fighting over the division of the world, do not hesitate any political boundaries (typical example of the struggle of the two giant monopolies—the struggle of the American oil trust, Standard oil the Anglo-Dutch oil trust Royal Dutch shell).

Monopolies represent the dominant political force in imperialist states. state power serves their interests; the foreign policy of imperialist states is guided by the interests of trusts and major banks seeking to seize new markets or sources of raw materials, seeking to crush rivals, etc.

A country captured by an imperialist power and completely losing its political independence is called a colony. An imperialist country that owns colonies is a metropolis in relation to them.

The possession of colonies is the most convenient form of domination for the imperialists. It allows unlimited disposal of the wealth of the country and its labor force, does not allow competitors to go there, etc. But this is not the only form of imperialist domination. “Typical of this era are not only two main

groups of countries: those that own colonies and colonies, but also various forms of dependent countries, politically, formally independent, but in fact entangled in networks of financial and diplomatic dependence” (Lenin).

This dependency is created in various ways. Direct violence is often used: through wars, the imperialists impose unequal treaties on a weak and backward country, placing it in a dependent position. But often dependence is created on the basis of loans that weak and backward countries are forced to ask from countries that are powerful and rich. By granting a loan to a country in a straitened situation, the imperialists take advantage of this to obtain favorable concessions from the borrowing country, in order to oblige it to use part of the loan for the purchase of goods from the creditor country; sometimes the loan is given under the condition of putting certain sources of income under the control of creditors. So the economy of the debtor country “gets its hands on”, and it turns into a vassal of its imperialist “patron”.

Countries that have fallen into close dependence on the imperialists, but retain formal independence, are called semi-colonies, or dependent countries.

in addition to the strongest imperialist powers and the colonial and semi-colonial countries oppressed by them, there are still many countries that occupy an intermediate, dual position in the system of imperialism. these include secondary european states. many of them own vast colonies (for example, belgium, the netherlands, portugal), with which they do no better than the “older” imperialists. but even the most

advanced of these “small” imperialists are usually within the sphere of influence of the stronger imperialists. More some weak and the backward ones are close in their position to the type of semi-colonial country (for example, Portugal—a long-standing vassal of England).

Aggravation of contradictions between the imperialist powers. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the division of the world between the strongest imperialist powers was completed. By fully subjugating three-fifths of the world’s territory and creating, in addition, all sorts of transitional forms of dependence, imperialism has laid its hand on the whole world. “For the first time, the world has already been divided, so that only repartitions, i.e. the transition from one “owner” to another, and not from mismanagement to “master” (Lenin), will continue.

The distribution of the colonies was devoid of any uniformity. England alone captured a quarter of the globe. The colonies of all the other great Powers combined were smaller than those of England alone. In addition, British imperialism had extensive “spheres of influence” in the semi-colonial states of Asia (China, Iran, Afghanistan), in South Asia, America.

Until the last quarter of the XIX century, the world colonial coin of England coincided with its world domination in the field of industry, trade, and finance, but since the end of the XIX century, this dominance has already wavered. New, stronger countries—the United States and Germany—have emerged. They were far ahead of England in terms of industrial production,

especially in terms of heavy industry. This can be judged by “pig iron (in million tons).

Countries	1870	1913
England....	6.0	10.3
USA.....	1.7	19.3
Germany	1.4	17.5

In general, industrial production increased during this period in the united states by 9 times, in Germany- by 5 ½ times, in England—only by a little more than 2 times. It was in the United States and Germany that the most powerful monopolistic unions of capitalists were created—trusts, concerns, cartels.

The rapid growth of Germany and the United States at the end of the XIX – beginning of the XX century. and the lagging behind the former “leader” of capitalism, England, is one of the most important manifestations of *the law of uneven development of capitalist countries* in the era of imperialism.

This uneven development, constantly changing the balance of forces of the great powers (some are being strengthened at the expense of others), makes imperialist wars for the redivision of an already divided world inevitable. The distribution of colonies and dependent countries, which took shape by the beginning of the 20th century, basically reflected the correlation of forces that had been established in the era of the world primacy of England; it no longer corresponded to the new balance of forces created by the advancement of Germany and the United States.

At the centre of the imperialist contradictions that led to the first World War I was a rivalry between Germany and Britain. Germany waged a fierce struggle for markets, sought colonial conquests, heavily armed itself both on land and at sea. In all this, she collided first of all with England, which had long-won positions everywhere. The British imperialists, accustomed to dominating the seas, were especially irritated by the reinforced naval armaments of Germany. Intertwined with the Anglo-German rivalry were the contradictions between Germany and France (remember that Germany in 1871 took Alsace and part of Lorraine from France) and with Russia. Germany and Austria-Hungary, allied with it, sought to subjugate the Slavic Balkan countries, which have long been closely associated with Russia, and threatened Russia's interests in the Black Sea.

The First World War and the split of the world economy into two systems. World War 1914-1918 was an imperialist war for the redivision of the world. Two groups collided: on one side were Germany and Austria-Hungary allied with it, which Turkey and Bulgaria joined during the war, on the other—the powers of the Triple Accord, or the Entente,—England, France and Russia, with which many European countries fought, countries (Serbia, Montenegro, Belgium, Italy, Romania), as well as the United States (which entered the war only in April 1917) and Japan, whose participation in the war was limited to the seizure of German possessions in the Pacific Ocean.

The imperialist war shook the entire system of world capitalism and marked the beginning of a period of its general crisis. The main fact of the general crisis of capitalism is Russia's revolutionary withdrawal from the camp of imperialist states. As a result of the Great October Socialist Revolution, the world split into two systems— the capitalist system and the socialist system. The Soviet Union crushed counter-revolutionary movements and imperialist intervention. Despite the colossal exhaustion caused by the world war, and then by the civil war and intervention, it restored its economy and launched planned socialist construction at a pace that no capitalist country had ever known.

Germany and her allies were defeated in the war. Under the Treaty of Versailles, concluded in 1919 between Germany and the victorious powers, Germany lost part of its territory and all its colonies. Austria-Hungary fell apart, Turkey lost part of its possessions in Asia. Of the victorious powers in the division of the possessions of the defeated states, England and France received the most. New states emerged in Europe.

The Second World War. The Versailles Peace and the system of international relations that arose on its basis were fundamentally flawed and soon revealed their fragility. No system of international relations could be stable if it was built without the participation of the Soviet Union. Meanwhile, the Versailles system was not only built without the participation of the Soviet Union, but was also hostile to it. The reactionary governments of the victorious powers tried to overthrow the Soviet regime through intervention. German imperialism,

which unleashed the First World War, was not destroyed by the Versailles Peace: the defeated Germany managed to maintain its monopolies, its military cadres, the military industry and prepare a new war of conquest, even more terrible than the First World War. In 1933, the Nazis seized power in Germany. From that time on, fascist Germany began to feverishly arm itself, throwing all the country's resources and all equipment to prepare for an aggressive war in order to enslave and rob other peoples.

Sharp contradictions arose among the victorious powers themselves. In the United States, after the war, the "isolationists" prevailed, that is, the supporters of removing the United States from interfering in European international conflicts; the US Senate rejected the ratification (approval) of the Versailles Treaty. However, this "isolationism" did not in the least prevent the United States from seizing foreign markets and sources of raw materials, enslaving countries with loans and other forms of capital export. Japan, for which the whole meaning of its participation in the war was in the conquests it made, was preparing for new conquests, pursued its own line and soon broke away from the other victorious powers; Italy, in which the fascists seized power since 1922, considered itself "deprived" of the Versailles Peace and also strove for conquests.

As for England and France, which remained "strongholds" of the Versailles system, there was no unity between them, and most importantly, the policy of each of them was strongly influenced by reactionary groups close to fascism; in the critical years of the outbreak of the Second World War (1936-1939), the governments of these countries were concerned not with

repulsing the fascist aggressors, but with pushing them into a war against Soviet Russia. For this purpose, they made all kinds of concessions to fascist Germany and encouraged her aggression. The USA pursued the same policy: the American capitalists, by providing loans to Germany, helped to strengthen the German monopolies and restore the military strength of Germany.

The threat of a new war especially intensified with the onset of the world economic crisis of 1929-1933, which shook the world capitalist economy.

Japan in 1931-1932 captured Manchuria from China. In 1937, she started a war with China, captured a significant part of East China, but was unable to break the resistance of the Chinese people.

Fascist Italy attacked Abyssinia and captured it (1935-1936). In 1939 she invaded Albania. Germany in 1938 seized Austria without war, and then, with the consent of England and France, part of Czechoslovakia, after which it dismembered it and completely deprived it of its independence.

In September 1939, Germany attacked Poland, on whose side Britain and France were forced to act. Poland and France were defeated, the French government surrendered treacherously; a number of small countries were either captured by Germany, or reduced to the position of her vassals, forced to fight on the side of Germany.

On June 22, 1941, fascist Germany treacherously attacked the Soviet Union, violating the non-aggression pact concluded between it and the USSR in 1939; she involved Finland, Romania, Hungary, Italy in the war against the USSR. The entire Soviet people rose to defend their homeland. The Great Patriotic War began.

During its course, the heroic Soviet Army, led by the brilliant commander Comrade Stalin, not only alone withstood the sudden onslaught of the German military machine, reinforced by the forces of German vassals, but also dealt crushing blows to the invaders who encroached on Soviet soil.

At the end of 1941, Japan began military operations against the possessions of the USA, England and the Netherlands in the Pacific and Indian Oceans. After that, Germany declared war on the United States of America. The war has engulfed all parts of the world and all oceans.

The decisive victories of the Soviet Army led to the defeat of Germany and to her unconditional surrender (May 8, 1945); "... the Soviet people by their selfless struggle saved the civilization of Europe from the fascist pogromists. This is the great merit of the Soviet people to the history of mankind "(Stalin).

The decisions of the Crimean Conference of the leaders of the three powers—the Soviet Union, the United States of America and Great Britain—held in February 1945, expressed an unyielding will to destroy German militarism and Nazism (i.e., fascism) and to create guarantees that Germany will never will no longer be able to disturb the peace of the world. It was decided in the near future to establish a general international organization to maintain peace and security. It was also decided that the establishment of order in Europe and the reorganisation of national economic life should be achieved in such a way that would allow the liberated peoples to destroy the last

traces of militarism and fascism and create democratic institutions of their own choice.

After the end of the war in Europe, the Berlin (Potsdam) conference of the three powers took place (took place in Potsdam, near Berlin, from July 17 to August 2, 1945). In its decisions, the foundations laid down by the Crimean Conference were further developed. An agreement was reached on the most important issues of the post-war structure of Europe, ways of further cooperation of freedom-loving peoples were outlined.

After Germany's surrender, Japan remained the only great power to drag out the war. The Soviet government, seeking to bring the advance of peace closer and free the peoples from further sacrifices and suffering, declared war on Japan (8 August 1945). The Soviet Army launched an offensive on the borders with Manchuria and Korea and inflicted complete defeat on the Japanese troops in the very first days. It was a devastating blow to Japan. On September 2, Japanese representatives signed an act of unconditional surrender.

At the end of the war, an international organisation was established to maintain global peace and security, called the "United Nations Organisation".

The Soviet Union is unswervingly fighting for the implementation of the decisions of the Crimean and Berlin conferences aimed at eradicating fascism, for the democratic reconstruction of the life of the peoples liberated from the fascist yoke, for the strengthening of peace and peaceful cooperation between peoples.

The opposite position was taken by the United States and Britain, which pursued in the war not democratic, but purely imperialist goals. Already during the war, being in the same camp with the Soviet Union, they played a double game—they acted in the hope of mutual exhaustion of both the Soviet Union and Germany. They tried in every possible way to delay the formation of a second front in Europe and did so only when it became clear that the Soviet Union could defeat Germany and liberate the peoples of Europe without their help. They hoped to use the victory over Germany and Japan, achieved thanks to the heroic struggle of the Soviet Union, in order to eliminate competitors and assert their dominance. The United States, the only imperialist power that emerged from the war, not weakened, but significantly strengthened, began to pursue this policy with particular aggressiveness. At the end of the war, the US government began to shamelessly violate the progressive treaties and agreements concluded during the war, began to stifle democratic movements, and everywhere to support and spread the forces of fascism.

TWO CAMPS—TWO LINES OF DEVELOPMENT AFTER WORLD WAR II

As a result of the decisive role that the Soviet Union played in the defeat of the fascist aggressors, and the great struggle that it is waging for peace and democracy, *the moral and political authority of the USSR has grown enormously throughout the world.*

The world-historic victory of the Soviet Union over fascist Germany caused a widespread upsurge of anti-fascist democratic forces. The Second World War shook the life of many nations and states to their foundations and changed the face of the world. A number of countries in central and southeastern Europe fell away from the capitalist system. In them, the people's democratic system, which is one of the forms of the dictatorship of the proletariat, won and strengthened. With the friendly support of the Soviet Union, which ensured the independence and the possibility of free development of the people's democracies, these countries carried out deep democratic transformations and moved on to building socialism.

Of great importance in this chain of events is the formation of the *German Democratic Republic* (1949), which, according to Comrade Stalin, was a turning point in the history of Europe.

The national liberation struggle of the colonial peoples intensified, the disintegration of the colonial

system of imperialism began. “The peoples of the colonies do not want to live in the old way anymore. The ruling classes of the metropolis can no longer rule the colonies in the old way” (A. A. Zhdanov). The multimillion-dollar masses of China have won victory in the struggle for liberation. *Semi-colonial China became a people’s republic* (1949). The people’s democratic republics of Korea and Vietnam emerged. Together with the previously formed Mongolian People’s Republic, a huge group of people’s democratic countries of the East was created in terms of area, population, resources. This means *a new breakthrough on the imperialist front, this time in the colonial East, the most important sector of the colonial world.*

Now one third of humanity has been torn out of the yoke of imperialism, freed from the chains of imperialist exploitation.

As Comrade Stalin pointed out, the people’s democracies, together with the Soviet Union, formed “... a single and powerful socialist camp opposing the capitalist camp. The economic result of the existence of two opposing camps was that a single all-encompassing world market collapsed, as a result of which we now have two parallel world markets, also opposite to each other. “The most important feature of the new world market is that the Soviet Union and the people’s democratic countries have established economic cooperation and mutual assistance. “The experience of this cooperation shows that no capitalist country could provide such real and technically qualified assistance to the people’s democracies as the Soviet Union renders them. The point is not only that this assistance is as

cheap as possible and technically first class. The point is, first of all, that this cooperation is based on a sincere desire to help each other and achieve a general economic recovery. As a result, we have high rates of industrial development in these countries. It can be said with confidence that with such a rate of industrial development, it will soon come to the point that these countries will not only not need to import goods from capitalist countries, but they themselves will feel the need to release surplus goods of their production aside.

But it follows from this that the sphere of application of the forces of the main capitalist countries (USA, England, France) to world resources will not expand, but shrink, that the conditions of the world sales market for these countries will worsen, and the underload of enterprises in these countries will increase. This, in fact, is the deepening of the general crisis of the world capitalist system in connection with the collapse of the world market” (Stalin). The United States, followed by Britain and France, tried to strangle the USSR and the people’s democracies by means of an economic blockade. But this caused serious damage to themselves, having lost important markets and at the same time, against their will, contributed to the strengthening of the new world market.

The key to understanding all the most important features of the development of both camps is provided by the basic economic laws of modern capitalism and socialism, discovered by Comrade Stalin and formulated in his brilliant work “Economic Problems of Socialism in the USSR.” **The basic economic law of modern capitalism** is that modern monopoly capitalism requires

maximum (highest) profits. Comrade Stalin showed that modern capitalism seeks to ensure maximum capitalist profits "... through the exploitation, ruin and impoverishment of the majority of the population of a given country, through enslavement and systematic robbery of the peoples of other countries, especially backward countries, and finally, through wars and the militarization of the national economy used by to ensure the highest profits."

The basic economic law of socialism was formulated by Comrade Stalin as follows: "... ensuring the maximum satisfaction of the constantly growing material and cultural needs of the entire society through the continuous growth and improvement of socialist production on the basis of higher technology." Thus, both the goals of production and the means that serve to achieve these goals are diametrically opposed under socialism and under monopoly capitalism. From this it follows with immutable clarity that the development of the socialist and capitalist countries is proceeding along opposite lines.

"One line is the line of continuous growth of the peaceful economy in the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracy, an economy that does not know crises and develops in the interests of ensuring maximum satisfaction of the material and cultural needs of society. This economy provides a systematic rise in the standard of living of the masses and full employment of the labor force. This economy is characterised by friendly economic cooperation between the countries that make up the democratic camp.

Another line is the line of the capitalist economy, whose productive forces are marking time, an economy beating in the grip of an ever-deepening general crisis of capitalism and constantly recurring economic crises, the line of militarisation of the economy and the one-sided development of industries working for war, the line of competition between countries, the enslavement of some countries by others “(G. Malenkov, Report to the XIX Party Congress on the work of the Central Committee of the CPSU (B))

The following table shows the differences in the course of development of industrial production in the USSR, USA, England and France for 1929-1951. (the level of production achieved in 1929 is taken for each country as 100, subsequent changes are shown as a percentage by 1929):

	1929	1939	1943	1948	1951
USSR	100	552	573	721	1266
USA	100	99	217	175	200
England ...	100	123	Information	135	160
France	100	80	not public	85	104
			forged		

It is especially interesting to compare the data in the table for the USSR and the USA. Industrial production in the USSR during the period from 1929 to 1951 increased almost 13 times, despite the fact that the Second World War held the development of Soviet industry for 8-9 years. For the same period, industrial production in the United States has only doubled; it is especially characteristic that the moments of the rise of

American industry are invariably associated with wars, with the growth of war production; This is how it was during the Second World War, and this is how it has been in recent years as a result of the unleashing of a war against the Korean people and the transition to an intensified arms race. However, the inflation of war production, which brings unheard-of enrichment to a handful of capitalists, is accompanied by worsening living conditions and a reduction in the purchasing power of the majority of the US population; in the postwar years, this was accompanied by a separation from such important markets as the USSR and the countries of people's democracies, trade with which was disrupted due to the fault of the US government. The inevitable result of this is the growing instability of the economic life of the USA, a feverish succession of ups and downs in production, and incessant mass unemployment. Such is the bleak situation in the most powerful and most aggressive country of modern capitalism, exploiting and enslaving other countries, claiming world domination.

While international cooperation and mutual assistance is developing in the camp of socialism, international contradictions are sharpening in the camp of capitalism. The American imperialists are striving to use the defeat of Germany and Japan and the weakening of Britain and France to establish world domination by the United States. Under the guise of "aid" to the countries affected by the war, they imposed on the West European states the enslaving "Marshall Plan" in order to subordinate the economies of England, France and other countries to the interests

of the American monopolies. They force Western European countries to buy American goods on unfavorable terms and deprive them of the opportunity to trade with Eastern European countries, thus disrupting the long-standing multilateral trade relations of Western European countries and replacing them with unilateral ties with the United States. They seize the sources of raw materials and markets for the British and French colonies. By such actions, American imperialism disorganizes the economies of the rest of the capitalist countries. It threatens the profits of the capitalists of England, France and other countries. Hence the aggravation of the contradictions between the United States and the rest of the imperialist countries, primarily between the United States and Britain. England, followed by France and other capitalist countries, are trying to break free from the subordination of the United States in order to secure their independent position and high profits.

In the main defeated countries—Germany (Western), Japan, which are under American oppression, the desire to break free from this oppression is also growing. “These countries are now eking out a miserable existence under the boot of American imperialism. Their industry and agriculture, their foreign and domestic policy, their entire life are shackled by the American “regime” of occupation. But these countries were yesterday still great imperialist powers, shaking the foundations of the domination of Britain, the USA, France in Europe and Asia. To think that these countries will not try to get back on their feet, break the US

“regime” and break out on the path of independent development is to believe in miracles “(Stalin).

It follows that the reasons that make wars between the imperialist countries inevitable remain in force, despite the hatred of the camp of socialism and democracy that unites the imperialists.

The American imperialists see the path to achieving world domination in kindling an aggressive war directed against the Soviet Union, which is the main bulwark of peace, as well as against other peace-loving countries. This criminal purpose is served by a system of aggressive military alliances organized under the leadership of the United States, an example of which is the North Atlantic bloc, created in 1949. For the same criminal purpose, the armed forces of West Germany and Japan are being restored, American military bases are being created in various countries located nearby from the Soviet borders. The American imperialists are trying to undermine the peaceful construction and defense capability of the Soviet country and the people’s democracies by means of espionage, sabotage and murder. For these despicable goals, they send their agents into the countries of the socialist camp, using the remnants of counter-revolutionary or morally unstable elements of society that are still preserved in these countries.

By creating an obedient majority in the United Nations, the United States has turned this organization, destined to be the bulwark of the world, into a weapon of war. By attacking the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, the United States has already switched to direct acts of aggression.

The aggressive policy of the imperialist camp, led by the United States, is meeting the growing resistance of the peace supporters. The struggle for peace unites not only the peoples of the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracies, it increasingly embraces the popular masses of the capitalist countries as well. The world congresses of peace supporters play an important role in uniting and strengthening the forces fighting for peace. Since the proponents of peace constitute the vast majority of humanity, it is clear that by joining forces, they can curb the warmongers. "Peace will be preserved and consolidated if the peoples take the matter of preserving peace into their own hands and will defend it to the end. War can become inevitable if the warmongers succeed in entangling the masses with lies, deceiving them and drawing them into a new world war "(Stalin).

In the struggle between the two camps, the authority of the communist parties as loyal fighters for peace, for democracy, for national independence, that is, for something that meets the interests of the broadest popular masses and that is rude trampled by the imperialists.

The Soviet people, under the leadership of the Communist Party, are leading this noble struggle for peace and democracy. Fighting for the preservation of peace, unswervingly pursuing a policy of peaceful cooperation between all countries, the Soviet people, at the same time, do not for a moment forget about the danger of new aggression on the part of the presumptuous warmongers. Therefore, he tirelessly strengthens his defences and readiness for a crushing

rebuff to any aggressors. That is why he is increasing his vigilance against the intrigues of the agents of imperialism and enemies of the Soviet people who are trying to undermine the power of the Soviet state by any means.

The experience of both world wars, engendered by imperialist policies, teaches that each such war weakens the forces of capitalism and strengthens the forces of socialism and democracy. Therefore, the words of Comrade Molotov are quite understandable: "... in our time, new imperialist adventures are a dangerous game of the fate of capitalism."

POPULATION

Number and location. It is impossible to indicate the exact number of humanity, since in some countries there are no censuses. Approximately 2,250 million people live on the globe. In relation to 149 million square meters. km of the earth's land, this gives an average of 15 people per 1 sq. km. However, this average figure is not indicative, since in reality the population is distributed extremely unevenly on the earth. This can be judged by the differences in the population density of individual parts of the world: the average density in Europe is over 50 per 1 sq. km, in Asia—28, in America—7, in Africa—5, in Australia—1; Antarctica is completely uninhabited. But even behind these numbers, there are sharp differences in density inherent in each inhabited part of the world.

Uninhabited or very rarely inhabited territories that can be called especially difficult for development - polar or high-mountainous areas of eternal cold, deserts, areas of hot and humid tropical forests. On the other hand, it is easy to point out many areas with favorable natural conditions for humans—soil fertility, abundance of minerals—which are especially densely populated. However, the dependence of population density on natural conditions is only of relative importance, since the possibility of developing natural resources, and with them the conditions of settlement, change along with the development of society. So, for example, with the development of the capitalist mode

of production, opportunities for the use of coal were created, and in a number of countries, powerful industrial regions with a population density exceeding 1000 people per 1 sq. km. At the same time, large reserves of coal in some backward countries were almost never used and did not attract the population. Under capitalism, along with huge populations in big cities and industrial areas, many localities and even entire countries were depopulated. Ireland versus England is a prime example of this: between 1840 and 1900, the population of England doubled and the population of Ireland doubled. Another example is the depopulation of many areas of Africa as a result of the slave trade and the brutal exploitation of the 15 indigenous population by European colonialists¹. Finally, even in developed capitalist countries, it is not difficult to point out examples of how the accumulation of population in some areas occurred at the expense of the desolation of others.

Only the socialist system with its inherent planned economy ensures the planned and expedient distribution of the population. Examples include the development and settlement of the eastern and northern regions of our homeland; it was inaccessible

¹ In colonial countries one can find such strange, at first glance, contrasts: less fertile lands are inhabited more densely than more fertile ones. Such is the situation, for example, in northern Algeria, where the French colonialists seized fertile valleys and created large farms there, cultivated by machines; the indigenous inhabitants (Kabila) are expelled to mountainous areas and live on the worst lands in conditions of extreme overcrowding.

for tsarist Russia and became possible for the Soviet Union, the country of victorious socialism.

It should be borne in mind that population density cannot be used to judge the level of development of countries. With a high population density, the social system of a country may be backward, and, conversely, with a relatively low density, the social system may be advanced. “The population density in Belgium is 19 times higher than in the United States, and 26 times higher than in the USSR, but the United States is higher than Belgium in terms of social development, and Belgium lagged behind the USSR for a whole historical epoch, for Belgium is dominated by capitalism. system, while the USSR has already done away with capitalism and established a socialist system “(Stalin).

Population growth and resettlement movements.

Natural population growth occurs unevenly in different countries and at different times. This can be judged by the following table (see page 16), which shows the number of births, the number of deaths and the increase per 1000 inhabitants in England, Germany and France for 1930-1939, and for comparison, the same data for that the period when population growth in each of these countries was greatest.

Countries	Years	Per 1000 inhabitants		
		born	died	increase
France	1930-1939	15	15	0
“.....	1821-1830	31	25	6
England	1930-1939	15	12	3
“.....	1871-1880	35	21	14
Germany ..	1930-1939	17	11	6
“.....	1891-1900	36	22	14

As can be seen from the table, each of the countries shown had its own period of the greatest population growth, and each of them had this period in the past. A decline in population growth is a common feature of capitalist countries in the era of imperialism; this is one of the characteristic features of the decay of capitalism.

Real population growth in individual countries depends not only on fertility and mortality, but also on the relocation of people. Migration of people took place throughout the history of mankind, but they took on a particularly massive character under capitalism. The capitalist mode of production, accompanied by the massive ruin of small producers—peasants, artisans—inevitably leads to the formation of “surplus” labor, which is not used in the homeland. The Western European countries, which were the earliest to embark on the path of development of capitalism, provided the largest number of immigrants—emigrants. Over the century from 1815 to 1914, from 35 to 40 million people moved from Europe to other parts of the world.

After the First World War, the desire for resettlement from European countries intensified, but in the United States, its own mass unemployment began, and there began to restrict the admission of immigrants; with the onset of the world economic crisis of 1929-1933, emigration from Europe almost completely stopped due to the difficult economic situation in overseas countries.

The settling of overseas countries by Europeans was accompanied by brutal violence against indigenous people, their extermination or displacement from

convenient and habitable places to worse lands. Thus, the peoples who inhabited North America and Australia before the arrival of Europeans were almost completely destroyed. Their remains are driven into desert areas.

As a result of European colonization and extermination of the indigenous population, the descendants of European settlers now constitute the overwhelming majority of the population of North America, Australia, New Zealand, and some countries of South America.

Another type of mass migration was the forced migration of blacks from Africa to America, which took place in the form of the slave trade. This began after the capture of the colonies in America by the Europeans, when the colonialists needed labor for the plantations. The slave trade took the broadest scope in the 18th century, when the business was almost entirely monopolized by the British. In the south of the United States, in the West Indies and in some countries of South America, blacks and mulattos (descended from mixing blacks with Europeans) make up a significant part, and in some places the majority of the population.

Races and nations. Races are called groups of people united by a common external physical traits (skin colour, skull shape, height, etc.). Races do not represent any social unity: peoples belonging to the same race, often speak different languages, differ from each other in social order, in the level and makeup of culture. Moreover, along with the development of communication between people, with the development

of migratory movements, the races have largely mixed, and at present there are no “pure” races anywhere.

The stable community of people is formed not by races, but by nations. The classic definition of the concept of a nation was given by Comrade Stalin in his work “Marxism and the National Question”: “A nation is a historically established stable community of people, which arose on the basis of a common language, territory, economic life and mental makeup, manifested in a community of culture.”

Nations were formed from people of different races and tribes: “The present Italian nation was formed from Romans, Germans, Etruscans, Greeks, Arabs, etc. The French nation was formed from Gauls, Romans, Britons, Germans, etc. The same must be said about the British, Germans and others, formed in a nation of people of different races and tribes.

So, a nation is not a racial or tribal, but a historically formed community of people “(Stalin).

The formation of nations is based on the development of economic ties between people occupying a more or less vast territory (in contrast to races, which began to lose their certainty with the development of ties). In a feudal society, when economic ties were still weak, when people lived only by local interests, nations did not exist. “The process of the elimination of feudalism and the development of capitalism is at the same time the process of forming people into a nation” (Stalin).

As can be seen from the above, one of the characteristics of a nation is a common language. Since language is the most important means of human

communication, it is clear that there can be no national unity without a common language. Every nation has a common language. If in a sufficiently developed country significant parts of the population speak different languages, then this is a sure sign of multinationality. On the other hand, there are languages spoken by not one, but several nations. So, the majority of residents of the USA, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand speaks English. But in all other respects - in terms of territory with its inherent geographic features, in economy, culture, the English-speaking residents of these countries differ from the British and are separate nations.

In the capitalist countries, both racial and national differences are widely used by the ruling classes for the purpose of racial and national oppression, in order to propagate 18 wars of conquest. For this, false anti-scientific “theories” are created about the superiority of some races or nations over others. By declaring the “coloured” population of the colonial countries people of the lowest class, incapable of independent development, the imperialists thereby seek to justify their aggressive policy, cruelty and violence committed in the subject countries. The German fascists declared the Germans a “superior” race, called upon to rule over the “inferior”. To achieve this goal, all means of violence, deceit and deceit were recommended. The Slavs were declared an “inferior” race to be enslaved or destroyed. Under such slogans, the German fascists waged their predatory wars, in which in the end they were defeated by the Soviet people. In this historic victory, the Soviet people, and above all the great

Russian people, revealed a decisive moral and political superiority over the German fascist invaders.

The racist fanaticism in the USA, that is, in the country which the bourgeois press praises in every way as an example of “democracy”, has been brought to the extreme. Among the foundations on which the edifice of American capitalism is built are facts such as the systematic extermination of Indians, as the inhuman exploitation of black slaves. And after the “liberation” of the slaves, the American bourgeoisie tried, in the words of Lenin, “... to do everything possible and impossible for the most shameless and despicable oppression of blacks.” In the United States, immigrants from Asian countries, as well as Mexicans, Slavs, Italians, are in an unequal position in relation to “100% Americans”.

Incitement of racial, national, and religious hatred among peoples (according to the principle of “divide and rule”) is constantly used by the imperialists both in domestic and foreign policy. Especially widely used and are using this technique by the British colonialists in the countries under their control, and above all in the multimillion and multinational India.

The exact opposite of the policy of racial and national oppression pursued in the capitalist countries is the Leninist-Stalinist national policy, which realized the complete equality of citizens of the Soviet Union, regardless of their nationality or race, and enshrined this equality in the Stalin Constitution. The elimination of class contradictions made every Soviet nation incomparably more united than any bourgeois nation. International hostility inherent in bourgeois society was

replaced in Soviet society by the close friendship of peoples. In all these *socialist nations are fundamentally different from bourgeois nations*. The development of nations in the countries of people's democracies follows the same path.

THE ROLE OF THE GEOGRAPHIC ENVIRONMENT OF SIMPLY POPULATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIETY

The question of what driving forces determine the development of society is of paramount importance for economic geography, since the correct answer to it provides the key to understanding the reasons for the development and location of production.

Bourgeois geographers, as a rule, consider the geographic environment or one or another of its elements (for example, climate) to be the main force determining the development of human society. Marxist-Leninist science, which provides the only correct explanation of the driving forces of the development of society, solves this issue differently: "The geographic environment, undoubtedly, is one of the constant and necessary conditions for the development of society and it, of course, affects the development of society—it speeds up or slows down development of society. But its influence is not a decisive influence, since the changes and development of society occur incomparably faster than the changes and development of the geographical environment" (Stalin).

Population growth, one or another population density cannot serve as the main reason for social development. “Of course, population growth has an impact on the development of society, facilitates or slows down the development of society, but it cannot be the main force in the development of society, and its influence on the development of society cannot be a determining influence, since population growth in itself does not provide a key for explanations of why a given social system is being replaced by such and such a new system, and not by some other...

If population growth were the determining force of social development, a higher population density would necessarily have to give rise to a correspondingly higher type of social system. In reality, however, this is not observed” (Stalin).

The force that determines the nature of the social system, the transition of society from one system to another, is the method of obtaining the means of living, the method of producing material goods.

One side of the mode of production—*is the productive forces of society, that is, the tools of production and people who work with these tools and possess one or another production experience and skills for labor. The other side is those social relations in which people enter with each other in the production process, in other words—production relations.*

In capitalist society, the main type of production relations is the exploitation by the capitalists, who own the means of production, of hired workers—proletarians who are forced to sell their labor. In a socialist society, where the means of production are public property,

production relations are relations of cooperation between people of equal rights, free from exploitation. Hence, it is clear that the main issue of production relations is the question of who owns the means of production (land, mineral wealth, instruments of production, means of transport, etc.). And this question, in turn, is inseparable from the question of who owns political power. Where the means of production are in the hands of the capitalists, there also political power belongs to them (although it can be expressed in various forms of the state system).

On the contrary, in a socialist society, power belongs to the working people, and the state leadership (dictatorship) belongs to the working class as the advanced class of society, and this leadership is carried out in the interests of all working people.

If the development of society is determined by the method of production of material goods, then it is obvious that this, in the final analysis, also determines the location of production. The geographic environment also plays an important, but not decisive role in this, firstly, because the same elements of the geographic environment (say, coal, oil, water energy) have completely different meanings under different social systems, and secondly, because human society itself changes the geographic environment. The capitalist mode of production is characterized by a predatory and uneven use of natural resources, in the interests not of the national economy, but of a handful of capitalists

who care only about their profits.¹ The socialist mode of production is characterized by the planned and rational use of natural resources that meets the interests of the national economy.

Socialist society transforms the geographic environment, proceeding from deeply thought out, far ahead calculated plans. The most striking example of this is Stalin's plan for the transformation of nature, which is being carried out today. The planting of field-protective forest belts, the development of grass-field crop rotations, the construction of super-powerful hydroelectric power plants, the construction of canals, irrigation and watering of many millions of hectares of dry land—all this transforms the geographical environment in order to further strengthen the power of our country, the prosperity of its economy and culture, and the improvement of the well-being of the people. "Not a single capitalist country has carried out, and cannot carry out such truly titanic work. Only the Soviet system, which is the most vital, the most advanced social system, is capable of such tasks (*Pravda*).

¹ American capitalists are eagerly pouncing on oil fields and do not want to spend money on the construction of large hydroelectric power plants. Oil production is generating large profits quickly; the construction of large hydroelectric power plants, requiring very large expenditures, can give full effect only with a comprehensive solution of a number of economic problems, which is accessible only to the planned economy.

EUROPE

COUNTRIES OF THE PEOPLE'S DEMOCRACY

**(Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania,
Bulgaria and Albania)**

GENERAL REVIEW

Small countries of Central and South-Eastern Europe in the past. Before World War II, the small countries of Central and Southeastern Europe were more or less dependent on the imperialist powers. Most of these countries were economically backward, and they were all too weak to pursue independent policies. This allowed the imperialists to subordinate them to their influence, to exploit their resources. Very indicative in this respect was the position of the Danube, a great shipping route, vital for the countries adjacent to it: England and France, located far from the Danube, however, secured dominance over the Danube shipping.

For their own purposes, the imperialists kindled contradictions that existed between the smallest countries. A particularly large role was played by national contradictions associated with the fact that in

many places in Central and Southeastern Europe there was a complex national patchwork. So, Hungary was at enmity with Romania due to the fact that after the First World War Transylvania was given to Romania—an area in which, along with the Romanians, many Hungarians (Magyars) live. Much controversy was associated with Macedonia, a mountainous region that lies at the intersection of the settlement of three nations - Serbs, Bulgarians and Greeks; each country ranked the Macedonians among its “tribesmen” and sought to conquer Macedonia (in fact, the Macedonians are a special Slavic people). Many countries were also weakened by internal national contradictions; so, the Polish authorities oppressed the Ukrainians and Belarusians.

For domination over the small countries of Central and Southeastern Europe, there was an intense struggle between the imperialist powers - England, France, Italy, Germany. England has long “patronized” Greece; Greece, located on the outskirts of the Suez Canal and the Black Sea straits, with its ramified coastline and many islands, is of interest to England primarily as an important maritime position.

Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Romania and Poland were influenced by French imperialism. Italy subordinated to its influence, and then directly captured Albania.

Before the Second World War, fascist Germany began to push back other imperialist powers. In various ways, it subjugated Austria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Greece, one after another. But among the popular masses of countries

that fell under the fascist yoke, a movement of resistance to the invaders arose. The victories of the Soviet Army played a decisive role in the liberation of all these countries from German fascism.

The path of development of the countries of people's democracy. After the liberation of the small countries of Central and Southeastern Europe, in those of them where the American-British imperialists could not prevent the people from deciding their own destiny, the people created new, democratic governments. The emergence of the countries of people's democracies became possible due to the fact that Soviet troops not only liberated these countries from fascist tyranny, but also prevented their occupation by the American-British imperialists, as a result of which the peoples of these countries were given the opportunity to develop freely.

In these countries, the people's democratic government, "... relying on the support of the masses, managed to carry out in the shortest possible time such progressive democratic transformations that bourgeois democracy is no longer capable of. The agrarian reform transferred the land into the hands of the peasants and led to the elimination of the landlord class. The nationalization of large-scale industry and banks, the confiscation of the property of traitors who collaborated with the Germans radically undermined the position of monopoly capital in these countries and liberated the masses from imperialist bondage. Together with this, the foundation of state public property was laid, a new type of state was created—*the people's republic*, where power belongs to the people, large industry, transport and banks belong to the state and the leading force is

the block of working classes of the population, headed by the working class” (Zhdanov). As a result, the peoples of these countries not only got rid of the clutches of imperialism, but also moved on to building socialism.

The regime of people’s democracy is fundamentally different from the regime of bourgeois democracy. “While bourgeois democracy is the dictatorship of the capitalists, the people’s democracy performs the functions of the dictatorship of the proletariat in the interests of the vast majority of working people...” (Dimitrov). The countries of people’s democracies are moving towards socialism mainly along the path traversed by the USSR—through socialist industrialisation and collectivization, through class struggle and the elimination of exploiting classes, “... the Soviet regime and the people’s democratic regime are two forms of the same power—the power of the workers class in alliance with the working people of town and country. Both of these regimes are two forms of the proletarian dictatorship” (Dimitrov).

The economy of the countries of people’s democracies includes different structures. The leading role in it is played by socialist way of life, the basis of which is the state, i.e. the public ownership of such important economic levers as industry, transport, banks; this includes the monopoly of foreign trade. Along with this, there is a small-scale commodity system, which includes, first of all, many small-peasant farms. Finally, there is also a private capitalist treasure, in which the kulak “farms of the countryside play the greatest role; along with them, small private

enterprises, mainly in retail trade, have survived. The capitalist elements do not give up their positions without a fight: they use all means to profit from exploitation of the poor, they are trying to penetrate the bodies of local self-government and administration, into cooperatives, etc. The former landowners and capitalists, who have lost their power, did not stop the struggle. These forces of reaction, fighting for the return of the old order, find support from the American-British imperialists. Consequently, the road of the people's democracies to socialism leads through an irreconcilable class struggle against the capitalist elements, through their suppression and elimination.

Since agriculture occupies a very large place in all countries of people's democracies, it is clear that the restriction and ousting of the kulaks is one of the most important tasks of the countries of people's democracies. From this point of view, the creation of cooperative labor farms and machine-tractor stations, paving the way for the nationalization of the land and the collectivization of agriculture,¹ is of particular

¹ By joining a labor cooperative, peasants transfer their land to it. In the distribution of income, the main part of the net income is distributed according to workdays, but a certain part is distributed according to the amount of land handed over to the cooperative as payment for land. In the summer of 1949, collective farms arose in Romania, in which, by the decision of the participants themselves, this unearned income (payment for land) was cancelled and the distribution of income was made only according to workdays. There are such farms in some other countries. But even in those cooperative farms where the payment for the land is still retained,

importance. Comrade Dimitrov said about the prospects for this in Bulgaria: "... by gradually involving the poorest and middle peasants in working cooperative-agricultural farms, increasing the number of MTS, prohibiting the lease of land, restricting and prohibiting the purchase and sale of land, we will thereby create conditions when in practice the question of the nationalization of the land will be resolved, and all the land will be transferred to the eternal use of the working peasants." This is the way for other countries of people's democracies.

Also of great importance are state farms, organized from part of the former landowners' estates.

The countries of people's democracies, following the great experience of Soviet planning, went over to planned economic development. This became possible thanks to the transfer of the decisive means of production and banks to public ownership.

In contrast to the previous situation, when the resources of these countries were largely plundered by the imperialists, and these countries themselves remained backward, now the resources of the people's democracies serve to develop their own economies and strengthen their independence. The central place in the national economic plans of the countries of people's democracies is occupied by industrialisation, which serves to build the material basis of socialism.

it decreases, while the income distributed according to workdays grows.

Particular attention is paid to energy and heavy industry—metallurgy, machine building, chemical industry—that is, those industries on which the development of both industry itself and agriculture and transport is based.

The task of socialist industrialisation is inseparably linked to the task of overcoming the uneven distribution of productive forces, inherited by the countries of people's democracies from the past. In most of these countries, individual, relatively more developed, areas opposed areas of the disadvantaged, which were in a state of extreme backwardness. Therefore, along with the further development of those regions that used to have significant industry, there is intensive construction in the most lagging regions (as for example, in Slovakia, in the eastern regions of Poland).

In all countries of people's democracies, industrial production has far exceeded the pre-war level. Unemployment has disappeared. The well-being of workers is increasing. Changed attitude to work, socialist emulation was widespread everywhere. Economic construction is inextricably linked with cultural construction. Introduced universal compulsory primary education. Secondary and higher education, which used to be the lot of a few "chosen ones" has become accessible to ordinary people. The cadres of a new, popular intelligentsia. The purpose of science is changing: from caste, subordinate to the interests of the landlords. and capitalists, she became a popular cause serving the construction of socialism.

The powerful support from the Soviet Union is a solid foundation for strengthening the independence

and economic advancement of the countries of people's democracies. Together with the Soviet Union, these countries are fighting for peace, democracy and independence, "... against all attempts on the part of the United States and Britain to reverse their development and drag them back into the imperialist yoke" (Zhdanov). The great experience of Soviet socialist construction makes it easier for the countries of people's democracies to build socialism. Close cooperation with the Soviet Union, as well as with other countries of the democratic camp, is a necessary condition for successful development for each of the countries of people's democracy.

The new nature of economic ties. The countries of people's democracies and the Soviet Union are successfully developing mutual economic ties. These connections are being built on a new basis—on the basis of equality of large and small countries in the democratic camp and their mutual cooperation. Soviet Union supplies countries people's democracy with various raw materials, industrial equipment provides technical and organisational assistance to them construction. During the years of severe crop failures, the supply of Soviet bread saved millions of people in these countries from hunger. In his It is the turn of the People's Democracies to increase their exports to the USSR thanks to lucrative trade and credit agreements concluded with the Soviet Union. Equal communication between the countries of people's democracies themselves are growing and are not limited only to trade ties, although the latter have very important due

to significant differences in the nature farms and as part of the export products of individual countries. Technical and economic cooperation between the countries is developing, an example of which is the Council for Economic Cooperation of Czechoslovakia and Poland, which has developed a plan for the joint construction of a number of industrial enterprises and a large power plant by these countries, which will provide energy both countries; the task is to coordinate the production plans of both countries in order to make the best use of them resources. Czechoslovakia received a lease area in the Polish port Szczecin and will use the river. Bed for communication with the Baltic by the sea. Joint construction of the Odra-Danube canal is being planned. This type of cooperation also develops between other countries. One of the most important objects of such cooperation is the Danube, whose international position is fundamentally changed: by the decision of the Danube Conference in 1948, despite the harassment of the United States, England and France, the management of the Danube shipping is recognized as a matter of the Danube states only. Danubian people's democracies develop plans reconstruction of the Danube waterway.

To implement broader economic cooperation between the countries of people's democracy and the USSR, at the beginning of 1949, the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance was created from representatives of the USSR, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland: Romania, Czechoslovakia; it soon included Albania, and in September 1950 the German Democratic Republic. The tasks of the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance are

the exchange of economic experience, the provision of technical assistance to each other, mutual assistance with raw materials, food, machinery, etc.

All this means the creation of a new system of international division of labor, impossible between capitalist countries with their relations of inequality and the exploitation of the weak by the strong.

Political system. State power in the countries of people's democracies serves as an instrument for building a socialist society, suppressing the exploiting classes, and strengthening the defense against encroachments by the imperialists. The constitutions of the countries of people's democracies were built under the influence of the great Stalinist Constitution.

All countries of people's democracies are people's republics. The supreme power in all republics belongs to representative bodies¹, which are formed through free elections (general, direct, equal, with secret ballot), excluding any pressure on voters. In contrast to the bourgeois countries, where a minority of the population often votes, in the countries of people's democracies an overwhelming majority participates in elections, with a high activity of the masses of the population.

The representative bodies consist of one chamber. They are not only concentrate the entirety of legislative power, but and ensure the implementation of the

¹ Their name: in Bulgaria and Albania—National Assembly; in Romania—the Grand National Assembly; in Czechoslovakia, the National Assembly; in Hungary— the National Assembly; in Poland, Seim.

adopted laws. They elect the head of state; the head is either one person—the president (Chekhvakii), or (in most countries)—the board (presidium). The government (the council of ministers, headed by Prime Minister) receives powers from a representative body and is responsible to him. For particularly responsible political decisions, the constitutions of the countries of people's democracies provide for the possibility of a referendum (nationwide poll). Local government bodies are elected people's councils. The constitutions of people's democracies grant workers such rights that cannot be found in capitalist countries, including the right to work, social security, education. In all these countries, great attention to raising and restructuring public education, creating new scientific and technical personnel and intelligentsia from workers and peasants.

The constitutions of the countries of people's democracies ensure the full equality of citizens regardless of nationality or race. In these countries, the most complex national contradictions that could not be resolved under capitalism have been successfully resolved. This is especially important for countries with a complex national composition (for example, for Romania). National minorities received the opportunity to study in their native language, received their own stamp, etc.

The leading role in the political life of the people's countries democracies are played by the communist parties of these countries. Exactly thanks to the leadership of the communist parties, the victories of the working people were achieved in the struggle against fascism and in the consolidation of people's democracy.

Communists occupy key posts in the government. Besides the communists, in some of the countries people's democracy in the government is attended by representatives other democratic parties belonging to the national (or domestic) front.

The historical merit of the communist parties of the People's Democracies is that they carried out the unification forces of the working class: this happened through the merger of the communist parties with the social democratic parties, purged of reactionary elements, into united parties of the working class, standing on the positions of Marxism-Leninism.

POLAND

Poland, a Slavic state that existed for many centuries, at the end of the 18th century. lost her independence: she was divided between Germany, Russia and Austria. Only thanks to the Great October Socialist Revolution was it possible restore the Polish state. But the imperialist powers—France, England, USA —managed to subjugate Poland its influence. With their support, Poland, led by was a reactionary military clique, it was possible to capture vast regions with a predominant Ukrainian and Belarusian population—Western Ukraine, Western Belarus, Vilenshina. Poles made up slightly more than half of the total population states, 1/3 were Ukrainians and Belarusians; in addition, there were over 3 million Jews and 1 million Germans. Ukrainians and Belarusians lived in conditions of national oppression; the reactionary Polish authorities persecuted their mother tongue and national culture. They were in a depressed state and Jews.

On September 1, 1939, Poland was attacked by Nazi Germany. The Polish army was defeated, German troops occupied most of the country, and the state power virtually ceased to exist. Then the Soviet government ordered the Soviet Army to cross the border and take under protection the life and property of the population of Western Ukraine and Western Belarus. After the Soviet Army completed this task, the People's Assemblies of these regions decided to establish Soviet power in Western Ukraine and Western Belarus. Western Ukraine was reunited with the Ukrainian SSR and Western Belarus - with the Byelorussian SSR. Vilnius (the

ancient capital of Lithuania) with the adjacent territory was transferred by the Soviet government to Lithuania. The liberation of Poland from the German fascist invaders was accomplished by the Soviet Army (during the period from July 1944 to March 1945). The liberated Poland became a republic with a people's democratic system.

As a result of the defeat of Germany, the territory of Poland expanded in the west and north at the expense of the original Polish lands captured by the Germans in ancient times.

At the Berlin Conference of the Three Powers, an agreement was reached on the western border of Poland.

The geographical position of the new Poland is much more advantageous the position of the former Poland: the former Poland had a way out to the Baltic Sea only by a narrow "Polish corridor", and the mouth of the Vistula—the main Polish river—did not belong to Poland; within the new borders Poland has a wide access to the sea, including the mouths of the Vistula and the Odra (Oder). Before more than 1/3 of the length of the Polish border was the border with imperialist Germany, covering Poland, as it were ticks. Now the longest stretch of Polish borders falls on the border with the Soviet Union, in second place the longest is the border with Czechoslovakia, the third is the sea the border and on the fourth—the border with the German Democratic Republic. Of all the People's Democracies, Poland has the longest border with the Soviet Union.

The territory of Poland is 312 thousand sq. km, population 25 million. In terms of area, as well as

population, Poland ranks first among the European countries of people's democracy. Capital—*Warsaw*.

Poland is administratively divided into 17 voivodships.

Natural Conditions

Poland is predominantly a flat country. Only in the south, on the very border with Czechoslovakia, there are high mountains—the Carpathians, reaching individual peaks of 2500 m, and the Sudetes, reaching 1600 m. In both the Carpathians and the Sudetes, there are convenient passes through which railways and highways are laid, connecting Poland with Czechoslovakia. Especially important for the connection between Poland and Czechoslovakia is the wide passage between the Carpathians and the Sudetes, formed by the valley of the upper Oder.

To the north of the Carpathians, there are flat heights that give southern Poland the character of a hilly country. The northern part of these hills consists of the remains of ancient destroyed mountains (a continuation of the same mountains of central Germany), their highest point Lysa Gur reaches 611 m. The hills are cut by the valleys of the Vistula and Sanaa rivers.

Further to the north, the hills gradually turn into a low-lying plain, which occupies more than half of the entire country. The Polish plain in the east imperceptibly merges with the East European, and in the west—with the North German lowlands.

Near the Baltic Sea, among the lowlands, there are hilly plateaus of moraine origin with many lakes (the Masurian and Pomeranian Uplands).

The rivers of Poland belong to the Baltic Sea basin. The most important river is the Vistula (1125 km long), flowing from the Carpathian Mountains. Its largest tributaries: Bug with Narev and San—on the right side; part of the border with the USSR runs along the Bug and San. In the west of Poland belongs to the r. Warta (tributary of the Odra). The Odra belongs to Poland for the most part of its current, and in part forms the border between Poland and Germany.

The main rivers of the Polish plain are deep enough for navigation and are convenient for canals (tributaries of different systems are close to each other). But the level of the rivers is very variable, depending on the spring melting of snow and on the rains. To create a good shipping network, a lot of work is needed to regulate rivers and establish canals. The rivers of Carpathian Poland form a significant source of water energy.

The climate of Poland is moderate, transitional from the mild climate of Western Europe to the continental climate of the USSR. In Warsaw, the average January temperature is 3-4° below zero, the average July is about +19°. There are frequent thaws during the winter. Vistula near Warsaw freezes on average for 2% of the month, but there are years when no lasting freeze-up occurs at all. In late summer and autumn there are heavy rains, often causing floods. Poland's agriculture suffers more often from excess rain than from lack of it.

The soils are mostly podzolic. The alluvial soils in the Vistula valley are distinguished by their comparative fertility. Large areas of fertile land (degraded chernozems) are found in the southern regions of the country.

The forest resources of Poland are significant (more than 1/5 of the territory is covered with forest), but they suffered greatly from the predatory extermination by the German fascist invaders. Conifers predominate, and pine takes the first place. In People's Democratic Poland, extensive reforestation work is underway.

Poland possesses powerful energy resources. Coal is of decisive importance. The largest coal deposit is located in southwestern Poland; it is the Silesian-Dombrowski Basin, one of the largest coal basins in Europe. The Walbrzych basin (in the Sudetenland) is of great importance. In western Poland there are significant deposits of brown coal. There is oil and natural gas at the foot of the Carpathians; in addition, Poland has significant reserves of peat. All this, together with the water energy of the Carpathian region, makes Poland one of the most energy-rich countries in foreign Europe.

There is little iron ore in Poland, and its quality is mostly low. Among other metals, there are large reserves of zinc and lead ores, mainly in Upper Silesia. There is nickel. In terms of salt reserves, Poland occupies one of the first places in the world.

Population

In contrast to the multinational former Poland, modern Poland is a nationally homogeneous state. Poles, who are among the oldest Slavic peoples, make up the vast majority of the population.

The German fascist invaders ravaged and drenched Poland with blood, turned it into a country of gallows, prisons and concentration camps. Many thousands of Polish patriots were executed. Masses of Poles were sent to forced labor in Germany and in the countries subject to it. Polish national culture was being eradicated. The Jews, deprived of all human rights, were driven into concentration camps and exterminated almost without exception.

The concentration camp in Majdanek (near Lublin) was a real “death factory”: people from all over Europe were brought here in masses for destruction. The Germans almost completely destroyed Warsaw.

The Polish government had to take vigorous measures to return the forcibly deported Poles to their homeland. Over 4 million Poles were resettled to the reunified lands of the western regions; most of the Germans who remained in these areas were deported to Germany.

Following the liberation of Poland, the revival of the country’s economic and cultural life began. But this is not a restoration of the old: a new, socialist Poland is being built on the ruins of the fragile “old” Poland.

The Polish people have long created a rich culture, provided many glorious figures in science and art. At the same time, in the former Poland, the educational level

of the masses of the population was low. In People's Democratic Poland, science, education, and art became the property of the people. There is a liberation of science and education from the reactionary currents that prevailed in the recent past, from the influence of the church (it should be noted that Poland belonged to the number of countries where the positions of the Catholic Church were especially strong).

The most important centres of higher education and science in Poland are *Warsaw, Krakow, Poznan, Wroclaw*.

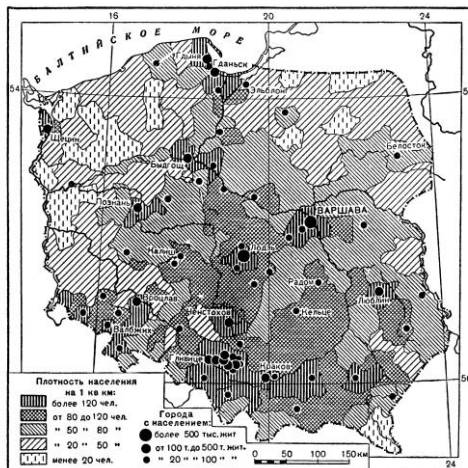
Features of the development of Poland

In former Poland, although there was significant industry, it did not determine the country's economic appearance: the decisive role was played by agriculture, which had a backward character.

Poland was a country of large landowners' landownership and peasant land shortages. The technical weakness and poverty of the land-poor peasantry, crushed by taxes and all kinds of extortions, hindered the development of agriculture. Many peasant farms did not have horses, let alone cars. Polish industry, although it possessed significant opportunities, was in a difficult situation and worked with constant underload. The poverty of the masses hindered the development of the internal market, and in the external market for Polish industry it was difficult to compete with the industries of the strong imperialist powers. A significant part of Polish industry was in the hands of

foreign capital. In People's Democratic Poland, fundamental reforms have been carried out.

1. Agrarian reform that eliminated landlord ownership. The masses of landless and landless peasants are endowed at the expense of lands taken from the landowners, or lands left over from former German owners; due to the large size landlord estates and, especially, in view of the liquidation of the German landownership Poland had more land reserves for distribution among the needy than any from other countries of people's democracy. Crucial to further development of agriculture and for its transition to the socialist path, the movement of small and medium peasants to form agricultural production cooperatives, supported by the government and the United Workers' Party. A network of machine and tractor stations has been created.



1. Плотность населения Польши.

1. Population density of Poland

2. (The nationalisation of industry, transport and banks was carried out. Foreign trade became a monopoly of the state. The majority of domestic trade passed into the hands of the state and cooperative organizations.)

3. Introduced planning of the national economy. A three-year plan for the restoration of the national economy (for 1947-1949) has been implemented ahead of schedule, and a six-year plan for the development of the national economy (for 1950-1955) is being implemented, the main task of which is to build the foundations of socialism in Poland.

Poland's transition to socialism is taking place in an acute class struggle. The severity of this struggle is determined by the following factors: 1) the reactionary landowners and the military clique were strong in old Poland, stronger than in some other countries that had passed over to the people's democratic regime; 2) Polish capitalists and the landlords were closely associated with foreign imperialists; 3) the imperialist powers viewed post-Versailles Poland primarily as a springboard against the Soviet Union; this point of view still largely determines the adventurous policy of support for the bankrupt Polish reaction that the American-British imperialists are pursuing. This front of internal and external reaction is opposed by the invincible force of the new Poland, based on the growing solidarity of the workers and peasants, on the powerful support of the Soviet Union, on the commonwealth with the countries of people's democracies.)

The leading role in the construction of a new Poland is played by the United Workers' Party, formed in 1948 by the merger of the Polish Workers' Party (Communists) with the Polish Socialist Party on the basis of Marxist-Leninist teachings. This union, which ended the split in the Polish workers' movement, strengthened the forces of the working class—the leading class in the struggle for the triumph of socialism in Poland.

Overview of the Economy

Industry. Coal mining, which is the main branch of the mining industry in Poland, occupies an exceptional place in the supply of fuel to the country and provides a large amount of coal for export. Production in 1938 (within the old boundaries) was 38 million tons. In 1955, according to a six-year plan, 100 million tons of coal will be mined. Most of the coal is mined in the *Silesian-D6browski Basin*, while the *Walbrzych Basin* gives a smaller amount.

The Silesian-D6browski Basin is also home to the most powerful power plant cluster. From here, power lines were laid to other areas. According to the national economic plan, new power stations and transmission lines have been built and are being built; the production of electricity in 1949 was already twice the pre-war level, and by 1955, according to the plan, it would have doubled even more.

The return of the western lands to Poland is favorable for the development of its heavy industry. The Silesian-D6browski Coal and Metallurgical Region, which is a single production unit, now belongs entirely

to Poland. Most of the Polish metallurgy, both ferrous and non-ferrous, is concentrated here; in addition, there are metallurgical plants in the region of the city of Kielce and near Szczecin. The difficulty for the Polish metallurgy is the insignificant reserves of iron ore; ore comes from the USSR and from Sweden. Smelting of steel in 1949 was 2.3 million tons, in 1955, according to the plan, 4.6 million tons. Machine building in former Poland was weak, with the exception of a few industries, such as steam locomotive building and carriage building. The national economic plan pays special attention to the development of metallurgy, machine building, and the chemical industry. A large new metallurgical plant is under construction (near Krakow), all equipment for which is supplied by the Soviet Union. The production of machine tools, tractors, and automobiles is growing rapidly. Metalworking and machine-building plants are located in the Silesian-D6browski region, in Warsaw, Poznan, Wroclaw. In the port cities of Gdansk, Szczecin, Świnouj6cie and Gdynia, there are shipyards.

The textile industry (cotton, woolen, linen) has long occupied an extremely important place among the branches of Polish industry. Its largest centre is Lodz with its suburbs, but, in addition, it is located in many places: in the Warsaw region, in the Sudeten region, in Chestatee.

Finally, the food industry (including sugar) and woodworking, based on the significant forest resources of Poland, are of great importance.

In 1952, the total output of Polish industry was almost three times the pre-war level. According to the

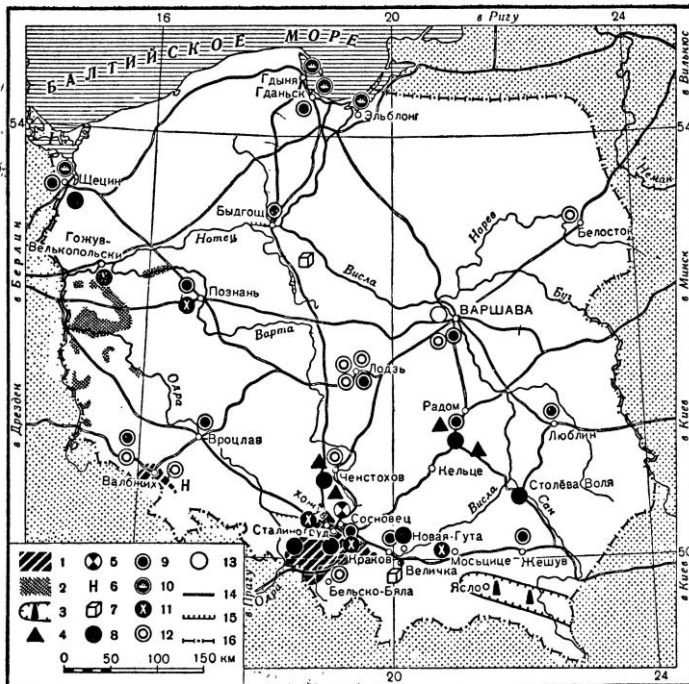
six-year plan, industrial output in 1955 should be four times higher than the pre-war level. The fulfillment of the six-year plan will transform Poland into a country with a powerful and versatile industry.

Agriculture. The first time after the liberation of Poland, its agriculture was in a state of ruin. In the western regions, most of the land was empty, a lot of land was abandoned in the rest of Poland. Back in 1946, there were 10.5 million hectares of cultivated land, with almost 6 million hectares of neglected land. But already in 1948, the bulk of the western lands was cultivated by new owners—Polish farmers, and the total area of cultivated land reached almost 15 million hectares. Under the six-year plan, agriculture will receive 50-60 thousand tractors and a lot of cars. Further development of production cooperatives is envisaged on a voluntary basis; they become the main lever for raising agricultural production. State estates also acquired great importance.

The main crops are rye and potatoes. In the collection of rye and potatoes, Poland occupies the second or third place in the world (after the USSR, approximately along with Germany). In addition, wheat is sown (more in the southwest and southeast of the country), oats, barley, sugar beets, and flax.

There were not enough cattle in former Poland, and the quality of was not high (with the exception of the best landlord households). During the war, the livestock population fell sharply (for example, only 1/3 of cattle remained). Now the livestock is being restored and measures are being taken to improve the breeds.

As a result of the successful recovery and development of agriculture, Poland has already exceeded the pre-war level of food consumption per capita.



2. Промышленность Польши.

Добыча: 1 — каменного угля, 2 — бурого угля, 3 — нефти и газа, 4 — железной руды, 5 — цинка и свинца 6 — никеля, 7 — поваренной соли; 8 — чёрная металлургия; 9 — машиностроение и металлообработка; 10 — судостроение; 11 — химическая промышленность; 12 — текстильная промышленность; 13 — разнообразная промышленность; 14 — железные дороги; 15 — каналы; 16 — государственные границы.

2. Industry of Poland.

Extraction: 1—coal, 2—brown coal, 3—oil and gas, 4—iron ore, 5—zinc and lead in—nickel, 7—table salt; 8—ferrous metallurgy; 9—mechanical engineering and metalworking; 10—shipbuilding; and—chemical industry; 12—textile industry; 13—diversified industry; 14—jelly roads; 15—channels; 16—state borders.

Transport and foreign trade. Within the old borders, Poland had one seaport—Gdynia, built by the Polish government as a replacement for Gdansk (Danzig), cut off from Poland by the political border. Within the new borders, Poland received first-class ports of Gdansk and Szczecin (Stettin), moreover, connected with the hinterland regions of Poland with the help of the navigable rivers Vistula and Odra. The Odra is connected by a canal with the Silesian-Dólbrowski coal basin and is of great importance for the export of Polish coal. A canal is being built from the same basin to the Vistula. The Bydgoszcz Canal connects the Vistula system with the Odra system (which within Germany is connected to the Elbe system), and the Vistula system through the Bug is connected to the Dnieper system of the Soviet Union. Thus, Poland has two waterways connecting its hinterland with the Baltic Sea, and one latitudinal highway connecting the waterways of Poland with the waterways of the USSR and Germany.

But most of the waterways at the time of the creation of People's Democratic Poland were unsuitable for large ships. Now, large-scale work is under way to reconstruct waterways, especially the Upper Vistula and the East-West route (Bug—Middle Vistula—Warta).

The railway network of Poland totals 25 thousand km. In the western part of the country, it is denser than in the eastern. Railway lines connecting the Soviet Union with Western European countries pass through Poland, including lines from Moscow through Warsaw to Berlin, to Prague, to Vienna. Along with them, lines are important; a) from the Silesian-Dombrowski region to

Warsaw; b) from the Silesian-Dombrowski region to Szczecin, Gdansk and Gdynia; c) from Warsaw to the same port cities. The most important railway junctions - Warsaw, Poznan and Katowice—are the main junction of the Silesian-D6browski region, which together represents the largest clot of goods traffic.

In Poland's foreign trade, the first place is occupied by the Soviet Union, which exports cotton, iron, manganese and chrome ores, oil products, cars, tractors, agricultural machines, chemical goods to Poland, and in addition, supplies various industrial equipment on credit. In 1947 and early 1948, when Poland was experiencing food difficulties due to a poor harvest, the Soviet Union supplied Poland with 5 million centners of grain. Poland supplies the Soviet Union with coal, steam locomotives and wagons, non-ferrous and ferrous metals, and textiles. Poland's economic ties with other people's democracies are developing. Poland maintains significant trade with Sweden (receiving iron ore from Sweden, supplying coal to Sweden). People's Democratic Poland has become a major figure in international trade.

Districts

The central region (Warsaw-Lodz), located along the middle course of the Vistula,—is the main nucleus of the Polish state and the main settlement area of the Polish nation. In terms of population density, it is higher than other parts of Poland, with the exception of the Silesian-D6browski coal basin. The two largest cities in Poland are located here—*Warsaw and Lodz*.

Most of the area is dominated by agriculture, with the rye and potato trend typical of Poland. But Warsaw and Lodz with their suburbs are the largest manufacturing clusters in Poland, giving the area extremely important industrial significance.

Warsaw is located on both banks of the Vistula (the main part—on the left bank, on the right—the suburb of Prague) at the intersection of the Vistula by international railways. It is the political and cultural centre of Poland (the Academy of Sciences, the university and many other higher educational and scientific institutions), a major centre of various industries. According to a six-year plan, the automobile industry and high-quality metallurgy are being re-created, electrical engineering and machine building are expanding sharply. Former Warsaw was famous for its artistic and historical monuments, the beauty of its main streets and squares, and at the same time was a city of contrasts typical of the bourgeois capital: its workers' quarters were poor, cramped and uncomfortable. Warsaw, destroyed by the German fascist troops, is literally reborn from the ashes by the creative upsurge of the Polish workers. While restoring the best that was in the former Warsaw, the builders are at the same time creating a new Warsaw - laying new wide highways, building the first metro lines, creating comfortable urban districts in the place of unsightly suburbs. The population of Warsaw in 1939 numbered 1.3 million people, in 1946 only 480 thousand, in 1952 over 800 thousand.

Lodz (over 600 thousand inhabitants) was an extremely uncomfortable, purely industrial city; now,

along with a growing and more versatile than before, industrial significance has become an administrative and major cultural centre; a university and a number of institutes were founded in Lodz.

The southwestern region, which includes Upper and Lower Silesia, is the most important region in Poland for the extraction of coal, for the smelting of iron and steel, for the extraction and smelting of non-ferrous metals (zinc, lead, nickel). Here are also the main chemical plants in Poland, the largest power station complex and a significant part of the machine-building and textile industries.

The industrial core of this region is the Silesian-Dombrowski coal basin, which has no rivals in coal mining up to the Donbass in the east and to the Ruhr in the west. In metallurgy, chemistry, and, especially, in mechanical engineering, it is much weaker than both of these regions. This weakness is partly the result of the general backwardness of the former Poland, which owned the eastern part of the basin, but to a large extent also the result of the specific political and geographical position of the region, as it developed before the Second World War (split into two parts, which broke local production ties, the position of both parts on the junction of the borders of three unfriendly states). Now, having merged together, the Silesian-Dombrowski basin, although it is located on the border, is already with the people's democratic Czechoslovakia, friendly to Poland. This circumstance, in connection with the industrialisation of People's Democratic Poland, creates favorable conditions for the development of the largest coal-metallurgical, machine-

building and chemical complex here, the significance of which goes beyond Poland.

The main industrial centres are Stalinograd and Chorzow. Somewhat away from the coal basin, but close to it, are the ancient cities of Krakow and Czestochowa. Krakow (over 300 thousand inhabitants) - the ancient capital of Poland, an important transport hub, industrial and cultural centre; Krakow University is the oldest Polish university (and one of the oldest in Europe). The largest metallurgical plant in Poland is being built near Krakow, and a new industrial city, Nowa Guta, is growing. To the west of Krakow (near Auschwitz), a powerful power plant has been built, and chemical plants are being built. South-east of Krakow—rock salt mines with a network of extensive underground galleries.

In Lower Silesia, the economy has a mixed agro-industrial character. Agriculture is especially developed along the left bank of the Oder River, which is characterized by fertile soils; wheat and sugar beet crops are widespread here. The most important city of Lower Silesia is Wroclaw (formerly Breslavl), an old Polish city, which later became in German hands the centre of Germanization of this region (over 300 thousand inhabitants). Returned to Poland in a state of extreme destruction, Wroclaw is being restored and becomes one of the largest industrial and cultural centres of new Poland (university). Considerable industry is located in the Sudetenland border; here is the Walbrzych coal basin and nearby is an old nest of the textile industry, which is a group of small towns.

The northwestern region (Poznan and Pomorie) is predominantly agricultural and has a high level of agricultural development. There is also a widespread industry that processes local raw materials - sugar, distillery, and brewing. There are also engineering plants, and shipbuilding in port cities. On the basis of large reserves of brown coal and potash salt (southwest of Bydgoszcz), a large chemical industry is being created.

Large cities: Poznan (over 300 thousand inhabitants)—an important industrial centre and a railway junction on the Warsaw—Berlin line, a university city; Gdansk (Danzig)—a port at the mouth of the Vistula, which forms Poland's main outlet to the Baltic Sea, with large shipyards; Gdynia, north of Gdansk, a commercial and military port; Szczecin - 39th port at the estuary of the Odra, with shipyards, metallurgical and automobile plants.

The northeastern and southeastern regions (Bialystok and Olyntyn voivodships in the northeast, Lublin and Rzeszow in the southeast) inherited from the previous system the most backward agriculture and insignificant industry, almost exclusively small. In People's Democratic Poland, special attention is paid to the development of these regions. According to the six-year plan, the industry of the Bialystok and Lubelskie Voivodships will increase by more than five times. Along with the development of the industries that existed here (Bialystok), the extraction and processing of oil (in the Carpathian region), the forestry and food industries, mechanical engineering is being created anew; a large automobile plant was built in Lublin. Agriculture was

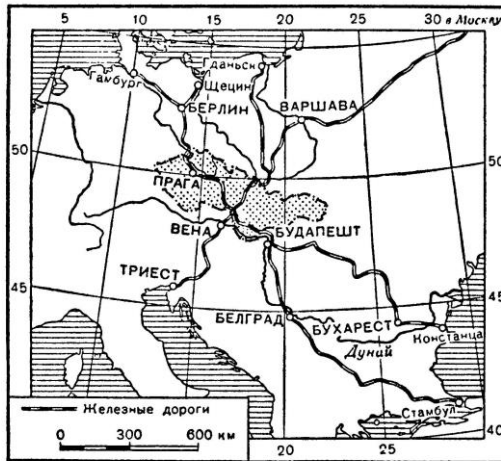
characterized by a sharp predominance of crops of rye and potatoes, only in the southeast, wheat predominated in places. Now the role of animal husbandry and industrial crops (flax, sugar beets) is increasing, and the industrial processing of agricultural products is growing.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

When independent Czechoslovakia was formed (in 1918), it included the following parts of the former Austria-Hungary: Czech Republic, Moravia, Silesia, Slovakia and Transcarpathian Ukraine.

In 1938-1939, Nazi Germany destroyed the independence of the Czechoslovak Republic. At the end of World War II, Czechoslovakia was liberated by the Soviet Army.

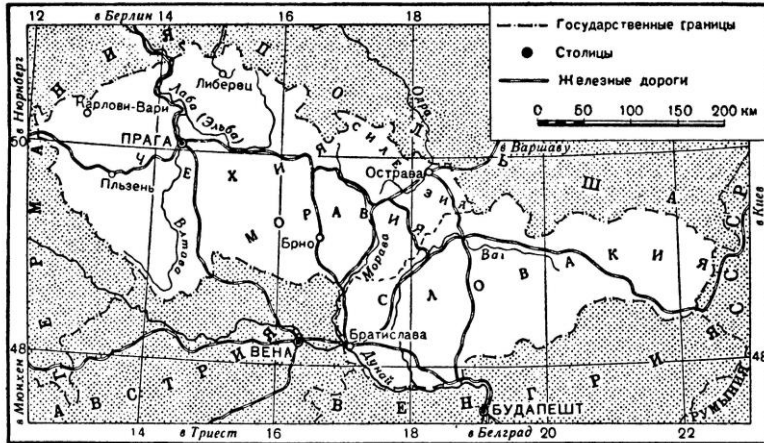
In accordance with the desire shown by the population of Transcarpathian Ukraine, and on the basis of a friendly agreement between the USSR and Czechoslovakia, Transcarpathian Ukraine became part of the Ukrainian SSR (June 29, 1945).



3. Положение Чехословакии.

3. Situation of Czechoslovakia

The area of Czechoslovakia is 128 thousand ke. km, population 12.5 million. The state system is a people's democratic republic of two equal peoples—Czechs and Slovaks. The capital of Czechoslovakia is Prague.



4. Состав Чехословакии.

4. The Composition Of Czechoslovakia.

According to the constitution of Czechoslovakia, in addition to the central state power (the National Assembly, the president and the government), Slovakia has its own national authorities—the Slovak National Council and the Collegium of Plenipotentiaries, which ensure the autonomy of Slovakia within the framework of the Dinopet of the Czechoslovak state. Representatives of Slovaks are on equal terms rights with Czechs are members of the National Assembly and the government of Czechoslovakia.

The main party in Czechoslovakia is the Czechoslovak Communist Party, which has allied itself with the Social Democracy Party on the basis of Marxism-Leninism. She has a majority in the National Assembly and in the government, occupies a leading position in the National Front (association of democratic parties).

Natural conditions

Geographically, Czechoslovakia consists of two main parts: in the west—the Czech massif, in the east—the Carpathian mountainous country, descending to the Middle Danube lowland.

The Czech massif is a low hilly country made of ancient crystalline rocks. The western part—the Czech Republic—is surrounded by mountains: Šumava, the Czech Forest and the Ore Mountains form the Czech border with Germany, the Sudetenland—with Poland; The Bohemian-Moravian Upland separates the Czech Republic from Moravia. Within the Czech Republic, the plateau is inclined to the north and belongs to the basin of the Elbe (in Czech—Laby), which flows into the Baltic Sea; The Laba receives a large tributary of the Vltava.

Moravia, which occupies the eastern part of the Czech Massif, on the other hand, tilts to the south; its main river is the Morava, a tributary of the Danube. From the north, Moravia is adjoined by a small region—Silesia, important in terms of coal wealth; here the river originates. Odra, which flows into the Baltic Sea. The passage from the Morava Valley to the Odra Valley

(Moravian Gate) is an important historical road between the Baltic Sea countries and the Danube countries.

The climate within the Czech massif is moderately continental (in Prague the average temperature in January is -1° , July is 19°); podzolic soils are widespread, but along with them there are significant areas of chernozems and fertile brown soils. In the bowels of the earth there are large reserves of coal and brown coal, small reserves of iron and non-ferrous metals. In the northwest, at the foot of the Ore Mountains, there are many mineral springs; with them, resorts of international fame grew, including Karlovy Vary (Carlsbad). Here is kaolin.

To the east of Moravia and Silesia, the Carpathians begin, which fill most of Slovakia. The Vysokie Tatry massif, reaching 2663 m of Stalin's peak, is famous for the rugged beauty of rocky peaks, attracting tourists and climbers.

The climate is more continent here than in the west; winter is much more severe. Large areas in the mountains are covered with forests and mountain pastures; beech and oak forests, coniferous in the upper zone. The drain of the Carpathian country faces the Danube, which flows along the southern outskirts of Slovakia. In some places, these southern outskirts include areas of the Middle Danube lowland with steppe nature and fertile soils.

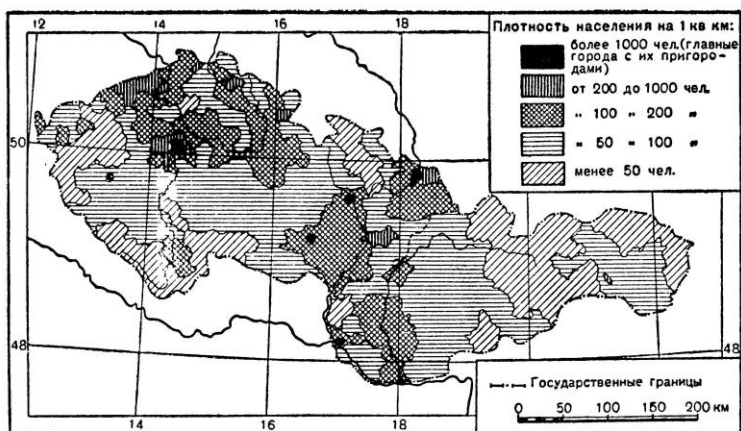
In the Carpathian regions, there are various mineral resources (iron ore, coal, oil, non-ferrous metal ores). The proven reserves are small, but due to the insufficient geological exploration of Slovakia, the estimates of reserves cannot be considered final.

Mountain rivers are rich in energy, especially the Vah (a tributary of the Danube).

Population

Slavic peoples—Czechs and Slovaks—make up the bulk of the population. Of the 12.5 million population of Czechoslovakia, 3.5 million are in Slovakia. Czechs make up the majority in the west: in the Czech Republic, Moravia, Silesia. Slovaks, similar in language to Czechs, make up the majority in Slovakia. The rest of the nationalities are Hungarians (along the border with Hungary) and Ukrainians (in the east of Slovakia). Before World War II, there were more than 3 million Germans who lived mainly in the areas bordering Germany. By the decision of the Berlin Conference, almost all Germans were deported to Germany.

Czechoslovakia is like a Slavic peninsula pushed to the west. Many centuries ago, the Germans managed to seize power over the Czech lands, and the Hungarians over the lands of the Slovaks. But the Czechs and Slovaks fought steadfastly to preserve their national identity and preserved it in spite of the foreign yoke. The Czech people fought especially stubbornly against the German dominance, in whose history there are many heroic episodes of this struggle. Having fallen under the rule of fascist Germany since 1939, the Czechs and Slovaks resisted the invaders by all available means, despite the bloody terror that reached the destruction of entire villages along with all the inhabitants.



5. Плотность населения Чехословакии.

5. The density of the population of Czechoslovakia.

The Czech people have created a high work culture in their country. Throughout its rich history, it has provided many outstanding thinkers, fighters for progressive ideas, and artists. Prague University in 1947 celebrated the six hundredth anniversary of its foundation. In terms of education, Czechoslovakia could compete with the most developed countries. But in Czechoslovakia, as in other capitalist countries, science, education, art were subordinated to the interests of the bourgeoisie. Only with the establishment of the people's democratic system did they begin to shift to serving the interests of the people; access to higher education and scientific activity was opened for workers and peasants; at the same time, opportunities were created for the cultural flourishing of Slovakia, which both under Austro-Hungarian rule (until 1918) and as part of bourgeois Czechoslovakia was a backward

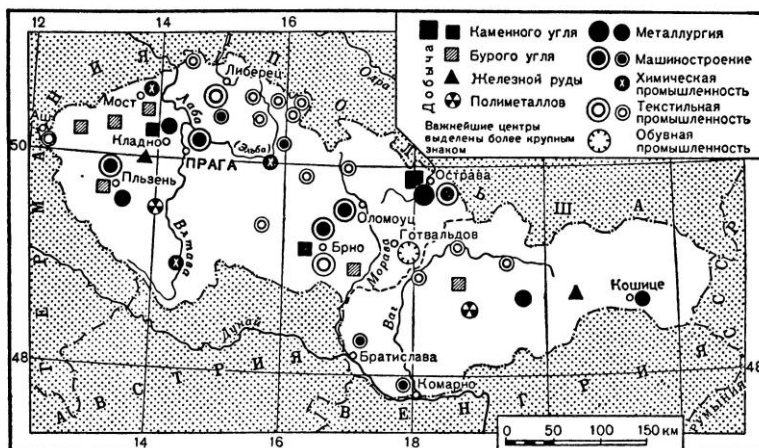
outskirts. Before the victory of people's democracy in Czechoslovakia there were 9 higher educational institutions, now there are 22 of them (of which 7 are in Slovakia).

The main centres of science and education are Prague, one of the most important cultural centres in Europe, Brno, Bratislava. Each of them has a university. In addition, Kielce, Radom and, which is especially characteristic, industrial cities with a predominantly working population—Ostrava, Plzen became large centres of higher education.

Overview of the Economy

Czechoslovakia is a developed industrial and agrarian country. In terms of industrial development, in terms of the density of the railway network, it ranks first among the countries of people's democracies. The industry of Czechoslovakia is distinguished by its versatility: it is developed as a heavy industry—mining (especially coal), metallurgical, mechanical engineering, chemical, and light—textile, glass and porcelain, footwear, woodworking, sugar. Manufactured products make up the bulk of Czechoslovak exports and many of them are widely known abroad. According to the plan for 1953, the extraction of coal will reach 25 million tons, brown coal 38 million tons, steel smelting 4.5 million tons. The production of machines, including electric motors, tractors, trucks, and production machines, is especially growing. This will make it possible to re-equip and expand Czechoslovak industry and mechanize agriculture; in addition, Czechoslovakia

is exporting cars in increasing numbers to other people's democracies, helping them to industrialize. The chemical industry is developing rapidly, including those of its branches that were almost absent in the former Czechoslovakia (the production of synthetic gasoline, synthetic rubber).



6. Промышленность Чехословакии.

6. Industry of Czechoslovakia.

In the development of agriculture according to the five-year plan, cooperative production, based on a network of machine-tractor stations, plays a decisive role. State farms are also important for the transition to socialism; their role is especially significant in the field of animal husbandry and seed production.

A legacy from the previous regime remained a sharp unevenness in the level of development of the west and east of Czechoslovakia. The Czech parts of the country (Czech Republic, Moravia, Silesia) have long been

distinguished by a higher level of development than Slovakia. The Czech bourgeoisie, which dominated the former Czechoslovakia, not only did not smooth out, but even intensified this inequality. Almost all large-scale industry was concentrated in the western regions. They have a much denser and better equipped transport network than in the east. Therefore, among the important tasks carried out according to the national economic plan is large-scale industrial and transport construction in Slovakia. Improving transport links between the Czech regions and Slovakia is also an important task.

Regions

Czech regions.¹ As can be seen from the above, the western regions play a leading role in the industrial development of Czechoslovakia, they are the largest cities and the main cadres of the Czechoslovak working class.

Actually the Czech Republic, which was the core of the Czech state in the Middle Ages, and in modern times has become the core of the Czechoslovak state, occupies the northwestern part of the country,

¹ It should be borne in mind that the Czech part of Czechoslovakia until 1949 was administratively divided into two lands: 1) Czech Republic, 2) Moravia and Silesia. In 1949, both the Czech lands and Slovakia were divided into small regions totalling 19. The new administrative division brings the authorities closer to the masses. The concepts of Czech Republic, Moravia, Silesia now have only historical and geographical, but not administrative, meaning.

representing a quadrangle in shape with hills along the edges.

Prague (about 1 million inhabitants), located in the central part of the Czech Republic, is only 80 km from the German border and 100 km from the Polish border. Prague is an old political and cultural centre of the Czech people, an important transport hub and a centre for a diverse manufacturing industry (in which mechanical engineering and electrical engineering stand out). Picturesquely located in the hilly valley of the navigable Vltava River, rich in historical monuments and cultural and educational institutions, Prague deservedly enjoys the fame of one of the most attractive cities in foreign Europe.

Pilsen (120 thousand inhabitants), located southwest of Prague, near a small coal basin, is an industrial city famous for large machine-building and military plants; Another attraction is the breweries that occupy a separate part of the city.

Along the northern edge of the Czech Republic, along the Sudetenland, there are numerous factory towns and villages with cotton, woolen, linen factories (the main textile centre of Liberec) and glass factories. The main lignite basins are located along the Ore Mountains, along with the metal-working and chemical industries; near the city of Most is the largest chemical plant named after Comrade Stalin (built by the Germans during the Second World War and became Soviet property as a war trophy, it was donated to the peoples of Czechoslovakia). The Labe (Elbe) plain is distinguished by a developed agriculture with crops of

wheat and sugar beets, with intensive livestock raising and food industry (especially sugar refining).

This direction of agriculture is also characteristic of the Morava Valley, which forms the main core of Moravia. The main city of Moravia, Brno (about 300 thousand inhabitants) is a major centre of mechanical engineering and the wool industry. In the town of Gotvaldow (formerly Elin), there are huge shoe factories that belonged to the Czech “shoe king” Bath; now these factories belong to the people, the “shoe king” in exile along with many other enemies of the Czech people.

Czech Silesia, located next to Polish Silesia, concentrates most of the coal mining, coke chemistry and ferrous metallurgy of Czechoslovakia, as well as a significant part of mechanical engineering, especially heavy machinery. For the development of this border area, the establishment of good-neighborly relations between Czechoslovakia and Poland (instead of the former hostile ones), which occurred with the victory of the people’s democratic system in these countries, is extremely favorable. Industrial centre—Ostrava (about 200 thousand inhabitants) on the river. Audre. Under the people’s democratic rule, Ostrava, in addition to growing industrial significance (the largest metallurgical plant in Czechoslovakia was being built), acquired a major cultural and educational significance (the Higher Mining School and many other educational institutions and cultural institutions were created).

Slovakia. Until recently, agriculture and forestry predominated in Slovakia, now industry is taking an increasingly large place. Most of the territory is

occupied by forests and pastures. In the south, where the edge of the Middle Danube lowland enters the territory of Slovakia, wheat, barley, and sometimes sugar beets are sown. In the mountain valleys, rye, oats are sown, potatoes are planted; cattle breeding is developed on mountain pastures. The timber industry and woodworking play an important role. Handicrafts are widespread in the Slovak countryside: peasants spin, weave, sew homespun clothes and embroider them with colourful patterns, make a variety of wooden utensils, beautifully paint pottery. In addition, until recently, the industry of Slovakia was limited to paper and textile mills, and small metallurgical plants. Now in Slovakia, industry is rapidly expanding, partly through the transfer of enterprises from the western regions, partly through new construction (including the construction of chemical and pulp plants, as well as a large metallurgical plant). For this, the rich hydropower and forest resources of Slovakia, as well as its medium-sized, but diverse mineral resources, are used. On the river New power plants have been built and are being built, with them industrial centres are being created just in that part of Slovakia, which was previously distinguished by the greatest backwardness. In 1952, industrial production in Slovakia was almost four and a half times higher than the pre-war level.

The main city of Slovakia is Bratislava (about 200 thousand inhabitants)—an industrial and cultural centre, a port on the Danube. Bratislava is located on the southwestern outskirts of Slovakia, but this outskirts is the most fertile and densely populated part of the country; the main transport arteries of Slovakia

converge here. In Bratislava and its environs, apart from Slovaks, a significant number of Hungarians live. In the east of Slovakia, the city of Kosice stands out, a growing industrial and cultural centre. A metallurgical plant is being built near it, which will produce over a million tons of steel per year; it will become the backbone of the heavy industry in Slovakia. A university was founded in Kosice, the second in Slovakia (after Bratislava).

HUNGARY

Hungary is located along the middle Danube. It shares borders with five states—the Soviet Union, Romania, Yugoslavia, Austria, Czechoslovakia. Area 93 thousand sq. km\population 9.2 million Capital—Budapest.

After the First World War, which led the Austro-Hungarian monarchy to collapse, a revolutionary movement arose in Hungary. The insurgent proletariat seized power and organized the Soviet government. The Hungarian Soviet Republic, which held out in extremely difficult conditions from March 21 to August 1, 1919, was crushed by the forces of the Entente and its vassals with the assistance of the social democratic traitors to the working class. The Hungarian bourgeoisie dealt with the workers and peasants with fierce terror. In the Second World War, Hungary took part on the side of Nazi Germany.

After part of the territory of Hungary was cleared by the Soviet Army from the fascist German-Hungarian troops, the Provisional National Government of Hungary was formed in Debrecen (December 22, 1944). It broke the alliance with Germany and declared war on her. Budapest was taken by the Soviet Army after a month and a half siege and stubborn fighting; Soviet troops captured it completely on February 13, 1945. The National Assembly, elected in November 1945, proclaimed Hungary a republic. Overcoming the fierce resistance of internal and external reactionary forces, the Hungarian people followed the path of democratic transformations leading to socialism. The leading

position in the political life of People's Democratic Hungary is occupied by the Hungarian Workers' Party, which united the Communist and Social Democratic Parties on the initiative of the Communists (the reactionary wing of the latter was excluded).

Natural conditions. In contrast to neighboring Czechoslovakia, Hungary is predominantly a flat country. Within its limits is a large part of the Middle Danube, or Hungarian lowland. The Danube and its tributary the Tisza cross the lowlands from north to south. The climate is continental: hot, dry summers, relatively severe winters; strong winds are frequent. By its nature, the Hungarian lowland is a steppe with fertile soils (chernoziem or chestnut); most of them are plowed up. In places, however, fertile lands alternate with hilly sands; to strengthen and use the sands, acacias, pines, poplars, grapes and fruit trees are planted on them.

The flat and steppe character is most characteristic of eastern Hungary. The western part is hilly and richer in precipitation. The low Central Hungarian mountains rise here. They consist of separate arrays with different names. The most significant of them is the Wakonian Forest (up to 700 m with a little); at its foot there is a large lake Balaton, the picturesque shores of which are famous for their resorts.

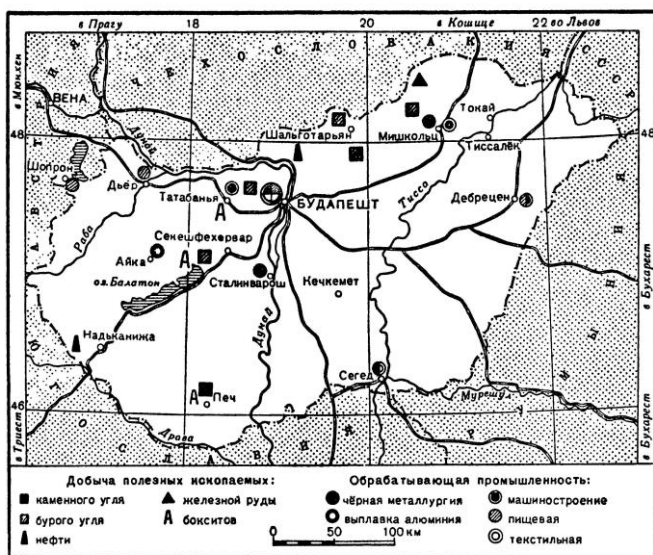
In the extreme north, the Hungarian lowland is bordered by the spurs of the Carpathians, rising to 1000 m.

The main mineral resources of Hungary are located in the regions of the Central Hungarian mountains and the Carpathian region, that is, in the west and north of the country. These include rich deposits of bauxite (ranked among the first in the world), significant deposits of coal (mainly brown), oil and iron ore.

Population. Hungary is nationally homogeneous: almost the entire population is made up of Hungarians (or Magyars). By language, they belong to the Finno-Ugric group of peoples. In the course of their migrations, the ancestors of modern Hungarians mixed with various peoples, and based on the middle Danube, they mixed here with the Slavs—the earlier inhabitants of this region; that is why there are many Slavic roots in the Hungarian language. Over 3 million Hungarians live within the neighboring states of Hungary (most of all in Romania).

Economy. Agriculture employs over half of the population. Until 1945, the dominant class was the large pomegranates; they owned over 40% of the entire land. Main the mass of farmers consisted of land-poor peasants and labourers. The new government has carried out a land reform: 700 thousand. Landless and landless peasants received land at the expense of landlord estates. The agrarian reform eliminated the landowning nobility, which was one of the main pillars of reaction in Hungary. But it did not liquidate the kulaks. The most important Cooperation of the peasantry for joint cultivation of the land, accompanied by the mechanization of agriculture, is important for

the final elimination of the exploiting classes in the Hungarian countryside and for the economic advance of the working peasantry. In 1952, in production cooperatives and state farms were about a third of the total arable area, more than 400 MTS worked. A large work on the arrangement of irrigation of dry lands. Canal is under construction Danube–Tisza (110 km long). An extensive reservoir and a large hydroelectric power plant are being built on the upper Tisza. From here the Main Zatiszky Canal is being laid to the south; he will serve for shipping, and especially for irrigation of the Pashta Hortobágy—until recently the most backward and desolate part of Hungary.



7. Промышленность Венгрии.

7. Industry In Hungary.

By percentage of arable land (60%), Hungary is in the first place among the countries of people's democracy; on the territory occupied by forest (12%)—in last place. Most eastern Hungary is treeless; here the afforestation work carried out by the people's government is of particular importance. Big part of the sown area is occupied by grain crops, among which are dominated by wheat and corn. From other cultures grapes, tobacco, sugar beets, sunflowers are important. Recently, cotton growing and rice sowing. Livestock breeding is of great importance—breeding pigs and cattle, horse breeding, poultry farming.

In terms of industrial development, Hungary is inferior to Czechoslovakia, but surpasses the Balkan countries. The mining industry plays a significant role, including the extraction of coal (in 1951—over 16 million tons), bauxite, and oil. The leading place in the manufacturing industry is occupied by the metalworking and machine-building industries, which rely on significant metallurgy (smelting of iron, steel, aluminum). Steel smelting according to the plan in 1954 will reach 2.2 million tons (against 850 thousand in 1949). Other important industries are food (flour milling, sugar refining, etc.) and textile. Already in 1950, the production of Hungarian industry was more than twice the pre-war level. The largest new building of the five-year plan (for 1950-1954), which is being successfully implemented in Hungary, is the iron and steel works on the Danube (50-60 km south of Budapest); the new industrial city of Stalinvaros (Stalin's city) is growing here.

As an industrial centre, it concentrates most of the country's manufacturing industry and is distinguished by a versatile sectoral composition (the various mechanical engineering with electrical engineering and the food industry, including huge steam mills, stand out especially). As a transport hub, it is not only the main railway junction and river port of Hungary, but is also of great importance for the links between Central and South-Eastern Europe. As a political centre, Budapest concentrates central government bodies, the largest cadres of the working class and the central bodies of the Hungarian Workers' Party. Budapest is no less important as a cultural centre (Academy of Sciences and other scientific institutions, the largest university in Hungary, numerous museums, etc.). In terms of population (1.5 million, including the suburbs), Budapest exceeds the next largest cities in Hungary by more than 10 times. Budapest is beautifully located on both banks of the wide Danube (Pest is the main part of the city, on the flat left bank; Buda is on the heights of the right bank). Among the main decorations of Budapest are its embankments and bridges, rebuilt by the Hungarian people after they were destroyed during the Second World War.

In the former Hungary, there was a sharp contrast between the huge capital city and much of the country, which had a predominantly rural character. In eastern Hungary, which was characterized by the greatest backwardness, many even large cities were essentially overgrown villages—most of their population was engaged in agriculture. In People's Democratic Hungary, this opposition is eliminated. The law on the five-year

plan, along with the general tasks of industrialisation, emphasizes the task of raising the backward regions and industrial development of their centres—Szeged, Debrecen and a number of other cities. New industrial construction, in contrast to the previous one, is located mainly outside of Budapest.



8. Карта Балканского полуострова в 1914 г.

8. Map of the Balkan Peninsula in 1914

In northern Hungary, where coal and iron ore are mined, there are a number of centres of heavy industry; the main one is Migikolc with the largest metallurgical

plants in Hungary. But in the future it will be surpassed by the new metallurgical centre Stalinvaros, the creation of which will play a large role in the transformation of the adjacent regions.



9. Современная карта Балканского полуострова.

9. Modern map of the Balkan Peninsula.

ROMANIA

Romania is located along the lower course of the Danube and on both sides of the Carpathians, in the east it is adjacent to the Black Sea. It shares borders with the Soviet Union, Hungary, Yugoslavia and Bulgaria. Area 238 thousand sq. km; population 16 million. Capital—Bucharest.

Before World War I Romania consisted of Wallachia, Moldavia and Dobrudja. After the war, Romania annexed a number of regions that belonged to Austria-Hungary, including Transylvania and Bukovina. In addition, Romania forcibly seized Bessarabia from the Soviet Union. The Soviet Union did not recognize Romania's rights to Bessarabia. On June 26, 1940, the Soviet government proposed to the Romanian government to return Bessarabia, as well as to transfer to the Soviet Union the Northern Bukovina inhabited by Ukrainians. The Romanian government accepted these legitimate and fair proposals. Bessarabia and Northern Bukovina became part of the USSR.

Before World War II, there was a reactionary dictatorship in Romania, close to fascism. By order of Nazi Germany, Romania entered the war with the Soviet Union.

As a result of the victories of the Soviet Army, which defeated Nazi Germany, Romania was liberated.

On August 24, 1944, after changing the government, Romania surrendered, broke off relations with Germany and entered the war with her. On August 31, Soviet troops entered Bucharest. At the expulsion of the Germans in Romania, a national democratic front was

formed, which united all the progressive forces of the country. In 1945-1947. Romania was a kingdom with a National Democratic Front government. At the end of 1947, the Romanian king abdicated the throne. Romania became a people's republic. The leading role in the political life of the country is played by the Romanian Workers' Party, which united the Communist and Social Democratic Parties on the initiative of the communists (the reactionary wing of the latter was excluded).

Natural conditions. Romania is divided into two parts by a wide arc of the Carpathian Mountains. Between the Danube, its tributary Prut and the outer edge of the Carpathians, there are the old regions of Romania: Wallachia and Moldavia. Most of them are occupied by the Lower Danube lowland, which, closer to the Carpathians, is replaced by hilly hills. Dobrudzha, located between the Danube and the Black Sea, is mainly a low plateau, hilly in places, especially in the north. Inside the Carpathian arc is the Transylvanian plateau, crossed by mountain ranges and indented by river valleys. In the west, the plateau declines and passes into the Middle Danube lowland, the eastern edge of which belongs to Romania. The Carpathians (the southern part of them is called the Transylvanian Alps) reaches 2500 m.

The Black Sea coast is poorly indented. The sea near the coast is shallow. The coast is mostly low, with many lagoons. The northern part of the coast is occupied by the vast Danube Delta.

The Danube for Romania is mainly a border river, but part of its lower course belongs to Romania (on both

banks). On the border of Romania and Yugoslavia, the Danube breaks through between the Carpathians and the Balkan Mountains in gorges, forming the Iron Gate gorge. Below the Danube goes into a wide floodplain, in many places it is accompanied by a labyrinth of branches, swamps, lakes, islands. In the delta, the Danube is divided into three large branches (“gira”); of these, the middle—Sulinsky arm, straightened and deepened, serves for the passage of sea vessels (going up to Braila). The highest water on the lower Danube occurs from April to June, the lowest in September. The lower Danube freezes on average for 40-50 days a year, but winters do occur without freezing. The Danube itself (at the Iron Gates) and its tributaries contain powerful reserves of energy.

The Carpathians and their spurs are wooded. Largest areas valuable forests—in South Bukovina and Transylvania. There is a lot of beech (hence the name Bukovina) and oak in the forests. In general, forests cover about 1/4 of Romania’s area. The nature of the low-lying regions of Romania has a steppe character.

The main mineral resources are concentrated on the hills adjacent to the Carpathian Mountains. Of greatest importance is the oil lying along the southern and eastern foothills of the Carpathians. There are large reserves of natural gas and salt. Less large are the reserves of coal (mainly brown) and various metal ores—iron, manganese, gold, silver, lead, zinc, copper.

Population. In Wallachia, Moldavia and Dobrudja, almost the entire population consists of Romanians. By language, Romanians belong to the Romance group; the

Romanian language developed on the basis of the Latin language brought by the conquerors - the Romans. But it underwent strong Slavic influence and differs from other Romance languages in the abundance of Slavic elements.

In Transylvania, a significant part of the population is formed by national minorities; of these, the most numerous are Hungarians, followed by Germans. In addition, there are gypsies and Jews in Romania. In many parts of Transylvania there is a complex strip of Romanians and Hungarians. This was the source of national contradictions in Romania and enmity between Romania and Hungary until the people's democratic power eliminated national inequality, and with it the "Transylvanian question". In 1952, the Hungarian Autonomous Region was formed in Transylvania.

In former Romania, the percentage of illiterates was very high. Now illiteracy is quickly eliminated and, according to the five-year plan, it should finally disappear. Along with general measures to raise and restructure public education, to create new and re-educate old cadres of scientific and technical intelligentsia, great attention is paid to the cultural upsurge of national minorities.

Bucharest (more correctly Bucuresti), which is the most important political, cultural and industrial centre of the country (more than 1 million inhabitants), stands out sharply among the cities. More than 100 thousand inhabitants include cities: Iasi (the centre of Moldova), Cluj, Timisoara, Ploiesti, Braila.

Economy. Romania was mainly an agricultural country, now it is implementing socialist industrialisation on the basis of a planned economy. Before the land reform of 1945, the majority of the Romanian peasantry were land-poor poor, who were in debt bondage to the state, landlords and kulaks. The technical level of the farm was low. The new government carried out a land reform; the peasantry received about 1.4 million hectares of landlord's land and receives aid from the state with machines, fertilizers, and seeds.

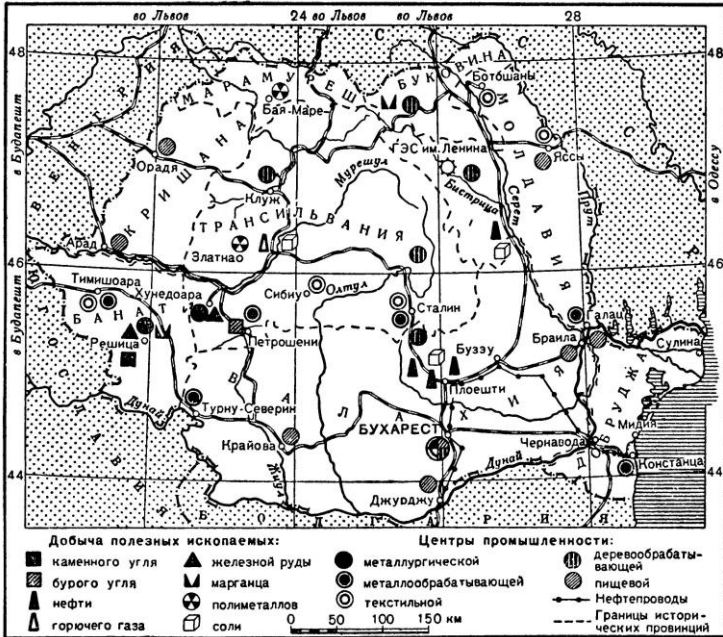
The main crops are wheat and corn. Viticulture and wine-making, tobacco growing, sunflower crops are widespread; in the last years before the Second World War, the sowing of soybeans took a significant place. Cotton crops, previously insignificant, are now expanding. Cattle breeding is of great importance, especially in the Carpathians and Dobrudja.

Romania is the only country in Europe (except for the USSR) with large oil production (over 8 million tons per year; in 1955, according to the plan, production will reach 10 million tons). The centre of the oil region is Ploiesti (oil refineries). In the region of Resita (in the west of the country), coal and iron ore are mined, there are metallurgical and metal-working plants. In the past, the most widespread branches of the manufacturing industry were food, textile and woodworking. Of the branches of mechanical engineering, the most significant are locomotive and car building; of the new industries created by the people's democratic government with the help of the Soviet Union, tractor building in Stalin and equipment for the oil industry

stand out. The main and most diverse manufacturing centre in terms of the composition of industries is Bucharest. Romania, later than other European countries of people's democracies, carried out the nationalization of industry, banks, transport and switched to economic planning. Significant role in this played the fact that Romania until the end of 1947 remained a monarchy; around the king were homegrown reactionaries and Anglo-American saboteurs who sought to overthrow the people's democratic government and tried to prevent progressive transformations. The liquidation of the monarchy, the exposure of the criminal activities of the agents of imperialism and their Romanian accomplices, the brilliant victory of the People's Democratic Front in the elections to the Grand National Assembly (in March 1948) and the adoption of a new constitution (1952) strengthened the people's democratic system and cleared the path for Romanian democracy leading to socialism. Five-year plan is implemented ahead of schedule (for 1951-1955), whose main task is to build the economic base of socialism. The plan places particular emphasis on electrification (with water power and low-grade coal) and the development of heavy industry; of the power plants under construction, the largest (on the Bistritsa River, a tributary of the Seret, 210 thousand kett) bears the name of V. I. Lenin.

Production and use of natural gas are growing strongly. Non-ferrous metallurgy (in the Baia Mare region) is expanding sharply. Smelting of steel, previously insignificant, at the end of the five-year plan will exceed 1 million tons. With regard to agriculture,

the task has been set of its gradual socialist restructuring through the creation of collective farms on the basis of the complete voluntariness of the working peasantry; by the end of the five-year plan, the socialist sector should take a dominant place in agriculture.



10. Промышленность Румынии.

10. Industry in Romania

A plan of field-protective afforestation has been developed and is being implemented in the territory bordering with Bulgaria, as well as in the neighboring Bulgarian territory. Works on land reclamation and

agricultural development of the Danube Delta are underway.

The Danube and the Black Sea are of great importance for Romania's trade relations. In 1949, the construction of a canal from the town of Cernavoda on the Danube to the Black Sea began. The canal will create a straightened outlet of the Danube to the sea, will serve to irrigate the arid Dobrudja, and will contribute to the industrial development of this region. At the end of the five-year plan, construction of the Bucharest-Danube canal will begin. The main ports of Romania are Constanta on the Black Sea (commercial and military port, the exit of the pipeline from the oil region of Ploiesti), Galati and Bratislava—on the Danube. The main export items are oil products (gasoline, kerosene), grain, timber, steam locomotives and wagons.

BULGARIA

Bulgaria is located in the eastern part of the Balkan Peninsula. In the east, it adjoins the Black Sea, in the north it borders with Romania (mostly along the Danube), in the west with Yugoslavia, in the south with Greece and Turkey.

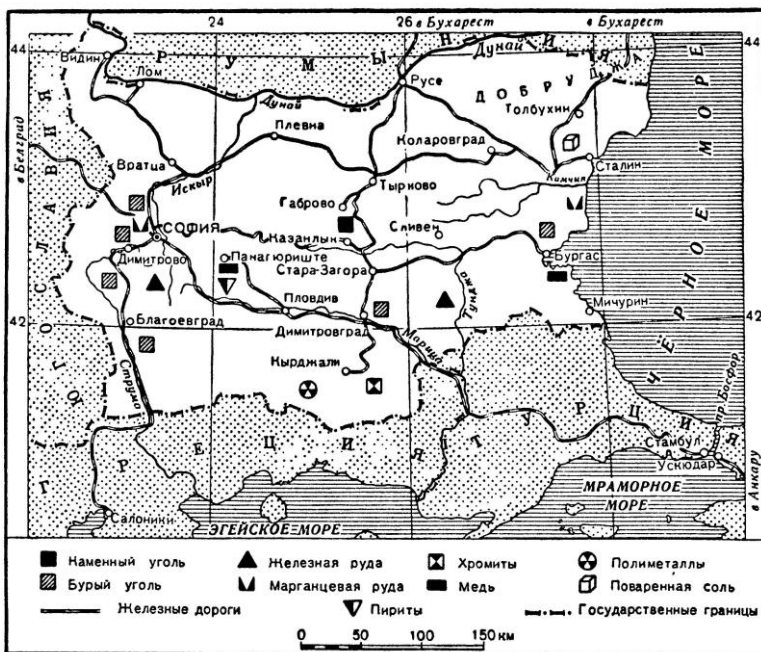
After the First World War, Bulgaria was taken away (and given to Greece) access to the Aegean Sea. The area of Bulgaria is 111 thousand sq. km; population 7.2 million. Capital—Sofia.

Before World War II, Bulgaria was considered a parliamentary monarchy (kingdom); in fact, a fascist dictatorship was established there, acting at the behest of fascist Germany. Bulgaria entered the war on the side of Germany. The Bulgarian people resisted this anti-national policy.

It is significant that the rulers of Bulgaria did not dare to directly declare war on the Soviet Union - it was impossible because of the deep sympathy of the Bulgarian people for the USSR.

At the beginning of September 1944, units of the Soviet Army that defeated the German-Romanian troops reached the Bulgarian border. On September 5, the Soviet Union declared war on monarchist-fascist Bulgaria, which was actually at war with the USSR; but a few days later the Bulgarian people revolted, the power of the German henchmen was overthrown, and Bulgaria declared war on Germany. The Soviet troops that entered the country were greeted with joy by the population.

The government of the Fatherland Front came to power (September 9), which united anti-fascist democratic forces. Bulgaria took a new path—the path of democratic reconstruction of the country, close friendship with the Soviet Union, as well as with other democratic countries. Since 1946 Bulgaria has become a people’s republic.



11. Болгария.

11. Bulgaria.

Natural conditions. The Balkan Mountains (in Bulgarian-Stara Planina), rising up to 2400 m, stretch almost in the middle of Bulgaria, dividing it into two

parts, different in natural conditions. To the north of the Balkan Mountains stretches the Bulgarian Plateau, which descends to the Danube Valley. Here continental climate, steppe vegetation, droughts occur. Crops of wheat and corn are widespread. The northern slopes of the Balkan Mountains are covered with beech and oak forests, the upper zone and the southern (steeper) slopes are almost treeless. There are many passes through the Balkan Mountains; railways have been laid in three places. To the south of the Balkans lies the lowland along the Maritza and Tundzha rivers. The climate here is already close to the Mediterranean; besides grain crops, tobacco growing, cotton growing and silkworm growing are well developed; at the foot of the Balkans in the picturesque Karlovsk and Kazanlak valleys-rose culture (for making rose oil). To the west is the Sofia Basin, which forms an important transport hub, where the routes from the Morava Valley to the Maritsa Valley (Belgrade-Sofia-Istanbul railway) and from the Danube Valley to the Aegean Sea cross. The southwestern part of Bulgaria is occupied by the high Rhodope Mountains with Stalin Peak (2925 m), the highest point of the entire Balkan Peninsula. Here, tobacco is sown in the valleys, there is a lot of forest in the mountains, sheep and goats are grazed in treeless areas. Forests in general occupy about half of Bulgaria, constituting one of its important treasures. The mountainous regions of Bulgaria (especially the Rhodope Mountains) contain large hydropower resources.

Coal (mainly brown) is of the greatest importance among the mineral resources of Bulgaria. There are

various metal ores—copper, zinc-lead, iron, chromium, manganese.

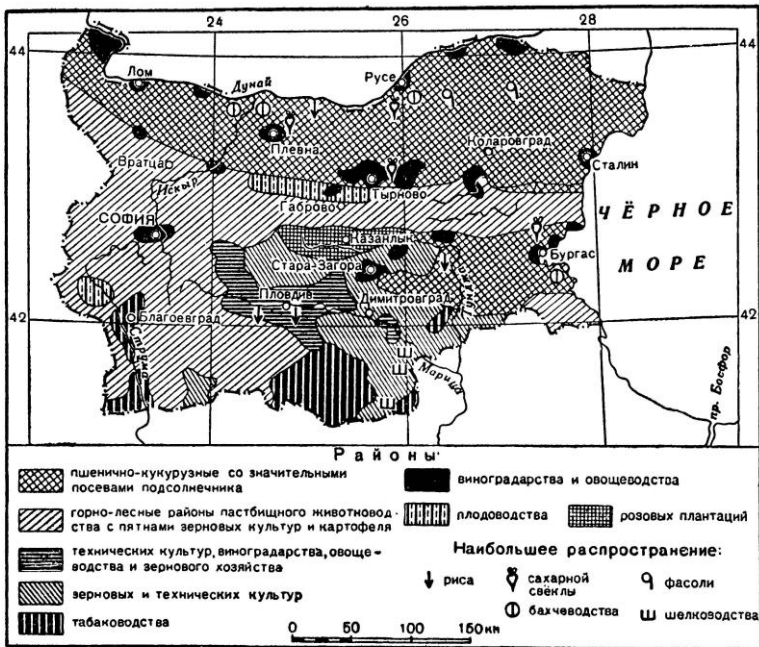
Population. Bulgarians belonging to the South Slavic peoples make up the vast majority of the population; the rest are Macedonians (similar in language to the Bulgarians), Turks, and Gypsies.

Bulgarians, who had been under the Turkish yoke for almost five centuries, managed to defend and develop their language and national culture. The long-standing ties of the Bulgarians with the fraternal Russian people - the liberator of Bulgaria, with the advanced currents of the Russian public were of great importance here. But the economic backwardness of Bulgaria and the reactionary policy of its rulers impeded the development of Bulgarian culture. Only with the emergence of the people's democratic power were conditions created for the real flourishing of the Bulgarian people, as well as of the national minorities of Bulgaria. The people's government carried out compulsory primary education, widely opened access to higher and secondary education for the working and peasant youth. The Bulgarian Academy of Sciences was reorganized. Science and teaching are placed at the service of socialist construction and are training scientific and technical personnel, the need for which is enormous. Cultural ties with the USSR and with the countries of people's democracies are growing stronger.

According to the 1946 census, three quarters of the population lived in rural settlements, and one quarter in cities. Of the cities, Sofia stands out sharply - the most important economic, political and cultural centre of the

country (435 thousand inhabitants), in second place is Plovdiv—the centre of the fertile Maritsa valley (125 thousand inhabitants). Other important cities are Stalin, Burgas (ports on the Black Sea), Ruse (port on the Danube), Dimitrovo (mining centre). In connection with the industrial and cultural development of the People's Democratic Bulgaria, the growth of cities has increased, new cities are emerging; In 1947, the merger of a number of settlements formed the city of Dimitrovgrad (on the Maritsa River, near a large brown coal basin), which became one of the main centres of new industrial construction. Many places in Bulgaria remind of the glory of the Russian troops who liberated Bulgaria in the war of 1877-1878; among them—the city of Plevna (more correctly Pleven), the Shipka pass.

Economy. By the time the Fatherland Front government was formed, Bulgaria was an agrarian country. Unlike other countries of people's democracies, there were no landowners in Bulgaria. Most of the farmers are small peasants who suffered from a lack of land and were exploited by the kulaks. The Bulgarian peasantry has long been famous for their hard work; Bulgarian gardeners are known for their art far beyond the borders of Bulgaria. Nonetheless due to the smallness of farms (moreover, usually fragmented into separate pieces), due to low technology and a lack of fertilizers, the productivity of the land was low. Less than 1/10 of the independent population was employed in industry (against almost 80% of those employed in agriculture). Moreover, the entire economy of Bulgaria was in a state of ruin.



12. Сельское хозяйство Болгарии.
 12. Agriculture in Bulgaria.

With the establishment of the people's democratic power, vigorous economic construction began, rapidly changing the face of the country. An agrarian reform has been carried out: landless and land-poor peasants have been endowed with land by seizing surplus land from larger owners. Even more important the organization of labor cooperative farms and machine-tractor stations, which is becoming more widespread (by the beginning of 1953, cooperatives united over 53% of all peasant farms, 140 MTS worked).

A two-year plan for the restoration and development of the national economy (for 1947-1948) was carried out and a five-year plan (for 1949-1953) is being fulfilled ahead of schedule, the main political and economic task of which is to build the foundations of socialism through the industrialisation and electrification of the country.

In agriculture, the main place is occupied by grain crops (over 80% of the total sown area); wheat and corn are sown most of all; in the valley of the Maritsa and along the Danube they also sow rice. But in the Bulgarian export the first place is occupied by tobacco, the culture of which is especially developed in the southern part of the country; Bulgarian tobacco is renowned for its high quality. Gardening, melon growing, viticulture are of great importance.

In southern Bulgaria, in the basins of the Maritsa and Struma rivers, cotton growing has been rapidly developing. In northern Bulgaria, agriculture is mainly grain oriented, in southern Bulgaria it is distinguished by a great variety and a significant role of industrial crops. Livestock raising is mostly of secondary importance in agriculture, poultry farming is widespread.

In view of the aridity of a significant part of the country, it is very important to create field-protective forest plantations, which began on a planned basis in 1949, as well as the construction of reservoirs and irrigation canals.

Coal mining, which is the main branch of the mining industry in Bulgaria, produced over 7 million tons in 1952. The mining centre is Dimitrovo (formerly Pernik), southwest of Sofia, but along with it, production is growing in the Maritsa coal basin, near Dimitrovgrad.

During the implementation of the five-year plan, several large power plants (fueled by coal and water energy) have been built, and a number of new ones are under construction. The main manufacturing industries are textiles, food and tobacco. But the extraction and processing of metal ore is growing rapidly, metallurgy, mechanical engineering, and the chemical industry are almost anew. A large cement plant and a chemical plant were built in Dimitrovgrad; the latter, along with Dimitrovo, becomes the centre of heavy industry. Socialist emulation and shock work took on a wide scale among the working people of Bulgaria.

ALBANIA

Albania is a mountainous country in the west of the Balkan Peninsula, between Yugoslavia, Greece and the Adriatic Sea. Area 28 thousand sq. km; population 1.2 million. Until 1912, Albania belonged to Turkey, in 1912 it separated into a state that actually became a toy in the hands of the imperialist states. After World War I, she became dependent on Italy and in 1939 it was captured by Italy. Under Turkish and Italian rule, Albania was a backward and poor country. The landowners had the best lands, the peasantry lived in poverty and lack of rights.

The Italo-fascist occupation caused enormous damage to Albania, the Albanian people courageously resisted the invaders and drove them out even before the end of the Second World War. The decisive role in this was played by the victories of the Soviet Army, which crushed the strength of the fascist powers. After their liberation, the Albanian people first began to freely build their economy and political order. In January 1946 g. The Constituent Assembly, elected by the Albanian people, proclaimed Albania a People's Republic. Leading role in political life Albania is played by the Communist Party (since 1948—the Party of Labor), which arose in the struggle for liberation of Albania, rallying the progressive forces of the Albanian people. One of the first steps of the people's democratic power was the land reform, which destroyed landlord landownership, endowed landless and landless peasants.

The main place in the agriculture of Albania is occupied by cattle-breeding—sheep, goats, cattle. In the valleys and coastal lowlands, livestock raising is combined with agriculture; sow most of all corn and wheat. Sowings of rice and industrial crops—cotton, tobacco, and sugar beets – are developing. Of the fruit crops, olives and citrus fruits are of great importance.



13. Албания.

13. Albania

The bowels of Albania are rich in minerals, including oil, copper, chromite, asphalt. Oil production is of the greatest importance. In accordance with the five-year plan for the development of the national economy, which is being implemented in Albania, industrial construction and the development of agriculture are taking place through its mechanization and the development of production cooperation. Built: a cotton plant named after Stalin, a sugar factory, a large hydroelectric power station named after Lenin. Dozens of new industrial enterprises are under construction. The equipment for them is supplied by the Soviet Union. The USSR supplies Albania with tractors. Swamps are drained and drylands are irrigated. This led to a significant expansion of the cultivated area. The first railways were built.

Along with the construction of the material basis of socialism, extensive construction has been launched in the field of public education and culture. The number of primary schools in comparison with pre-war time by the end of 1951 increased more than threefold.

Three institutes were opened—agricultural, pedagogical and polytechnic, while earlier in Albania there was not a single higher educational institution. Hundreds of Albanian students study in higher educational institutions of the Soviet Union and countries of people's democracies.

The capital of Albania, Tirana, becomes a major industrial and cultural centre under the people's democratic rule. The main seaport is Durrës (Durazzo).

Unlike other people's democracies, Albania is in a hostile environment. Armed provocations of the

Yugoslav and Greek fascists, carrying out the will of the American-British warmongers, do not stop on its borders. Spies and saboteurs are constantly being sent to the country. However, the Albanian people, vigilantly and courageously guarding their country, invariably paralyze the criminal intrigues of their enemies. Relying on the powerful support of the Soviet Union, he confidently moves along the path of building socialism.

GERMANY

Defeated in World War II as a result of decisive victories of the Soviet Army, Germany is occupied by the troops of four powers—the Soviet Union, Great Britain, the United States and France—and, accordingly, is divided into four zones of occupation.

At the Berlin (Potsdam) conference of the three powers (USSR, USA and Great Britain), an agreement was reached on the eastern borders of Germany: the city of Königsberg (now Kaliningrad) with the adjacent area (northern part of East Prussia) was transferred to the Soviet Union; Poland was returned to its ancestral lands.

The territory of Germany is 357 thousand square meters. km; population of about 70 million. The capital is Berlin.

According to an agreement between the governments of the USSR, Great Britain, the USA and the interim government of France, “the supreme power of Germany during the period of its fulfillment of the basic requirements of unconditional surrender will be exercised by the Soviet, British, American and French commanders, each in its own zone, in accordance with the instructions of their respective governments, and also jointly on issues affecting Germany as a whole.” For this purpose, an allied Control Council was created.

At the same time, it was established at the Berlin Conference that Germany should be considered as a single economic whole. It was envisaged the formation of a number of central all-German economic departments (offices), which were supposed to provide

joint management of the most important economic measures of all-German importance and prepare the administrative apparatus of the future German government.

In order to prevent the possibility of new aggression from Germany and to enable the German people to restore their independence and state unity in the future, it was decided to carry out the democratization and demilitarization of Germany.

The reactionary and aggressive policies of the United States and Great Britain thwarted the implementation of these decisions in the western zones, led to the actual liquidation of the allied Control Council and to the split of Germany. A separate puppet "West German State" was created in the three western zones; according to the plan of its creators, it should become a bridgehead against the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracies¹.

In contrast, in the eastern (Soviet) zone of occupation, decisive measures were taken to eradicate fascism and militarism, and broad democratic reforms were carried out. This made it possible for the German people to take the path of democratic development. With the participation of the entire German people, an all-German democratic constitution was drawn up. On October 7, 1949, the proclamation of the German Democratic Republic took place in the capital of

¹ It is characteristic that the provincial and low-industrial city of Bonn (away from the working class) was chosen as the "capital" of this puppet state.

Germany, Berlin, expressing the will of the overwhelming majority of the German people. Comrade Stalin described the significance of this event in the following way: “The formation of the German Democratic Peaceful Republic is a turning point in the history of Europe. There can be no doubt that the existence of a peace-loving democratic Germany along with the existence of a peace-loving Soviet Union excludes the possibility of new wars in Europe, puts an end to bloodshed in Europe and makes the enslavement of European countries by world imperialists impossible.”

Natural conditions

Geographical location, borders. Germany is located in the central part of Europe. In the north, it is adjacent to the Baltic and North Seas.

Germany has 9 neighbours along its land borders, more than any other state in Europe. In the east, it borders on the people’s democratic countries Poland and Czechoslovakia. The border with Poland passes along the plain, for the most part following the river. Oder (Oder) and along the Oder tributary of the Western Neisse. The border with Czechoslovakia passes through mountains of medium height, which have convenient passages. In the west, open borders prevail without any natural boundaries (with the exception of the part of the border with France along the Rhine). The southern borders (with Austria and Switzerland), on the contrary, almost entirely go along natural boundaries (along the Alps, Lake Constance and the Rhine).

Surface. The surface of Germany generally slopes from the Alps to the North and Baltic Seas.

Northern Germany. The northern part of Germany is occupied by the North German Plain. The lowland is widest (up to 300 km) in the east; it narrows to the west. Its surface is rather monotonous. The lowest is the western part, adjacent to the North Sea. The coastal strip (the so-called “marches”), formed by marine sediments, is fertile; dams protect it from sea invasion. A strip of the Frisian Islands stretches in front of the coast; these are the remains of a dune bank that used to be here. The tiny island of Helgoland stands out as a strategically important point in the system of German naval fortresses in the North Sea. Behind the strip of marches, there are more elevated sandy plains (guesthouses).

A low hilly plateau with many lakes rises along the coast of the Baltic Sea, retreating from it.

In ancient times, the lowland was heavily swampy and covered with dense forests, but now little remains of the original landscape. Agricultural area occupies 2/3 of the entire territory, forests—over 1/5.

Central Germany. To the south of the North German Plain, the Middle German Mountains rise. They consist of ridges and massifs of medium height (rarely where more than 1000 m); separated by wide, shallow basins. The most significant mountains: in the west - the Rhine Slate Mountains (uplands along the banks of the Rhine), in the central part - the Thuringian Forest and the Harz

extended into the North German lowland, in the east - the Ore Mountains bordering Czechoslovakia.

Southern Germany. Much of southern Germany is also a mountainous country of medium height. High mountains rise only in the extreme south; these are the Bavarian Alps (up to almost 3000 m), in places covered with melting snow. To the north they pass into the Bavarian Plateau. In the west, the Black Forest rises above the valley of the upper Rhine (up to 1,500 m), in the east, on the border with Czechoslovakia, there is the Bohemian Forest (according to Czech names, it is divided into Šumava and the Czech Forest).

The mountains of Central and Southern Germany (excluding the Alps) did not pose serious obstacles to settlement and economic development; in Central Germany, for example, under the cultural square is almost the same part of the country as in the North German lowlands. But the mountainous relief has determined the essential features of natural resources in various regions. The fertility and mild climate of the valleys give way to more severe climatic conditions at the heights.

Rivers. The Rhine, the largest river in Germany, is almost 3 times smaller in length (1,326 km) than the Volga, and 6 times smaller in basin area; its origins are in Switzerland, its mouth is in the Netherlands. The most important tributaries of the Rhine are Main, Moselle, Neckar. Other important rivers: Elbe (1150 km), Weser, Oder (flowing along the border with Poland), Danube (upstream). The Rhine has a stable

regime due to its alpine sources, which carry a mass of water at the end of summer. On the contrary, the rivers of East Germany are characterized by variable levels - they overflow strongly in spring and become shallow in late summer. But their navigational properties are improved by setting and sluicing. The estuaries of the Elbe and Weser are accessible to sea vessels (the seaport of Hamburg on the Elbe is 100 km from the sea). The tributaries of the Danube flowing from the Alps are rich in water energy.

The valleys of the Rhine and Elbe, cutting through the mountainous regions of Germany, were of great historical importance as a path of trade and colonization. The Rhine was of particular historical importance as it forms a convenient road from the Alps to the North Sea; the continuation of the Rhine route to the south bifurcates: one road leads from the Rhine to the Saone Valley (through the passage between the Vosges and Jura, in France) and further along the Saone and Rhone to the Mediterranean Sea; another road leads through the Alps (Saint Gotthard Pass) to northern Italy.

Mineral resources and hydropower. Germany is rich in coal. The main basin—the Ruhr—in West Germany, along the river. Ruhr (right tributary of the Rhine). It contains over three quarters of Germany's coal reserves and produces good coking coal. The proximity to the Rhine is beneficial for transport links of the Ruhr basin. Another important basin is the Saar Basin in southwestern Germany. Brown coal is of great importance. It is shallow and mostly mined by open cut; yielding to coal in terms of calorific value, brown coal is

cheaper. The main deposits of brown coal are located in East Germany. Hydropower is the main form of energy in southern Germany. There is oil in West Germany. In general, coal makes up the majority of Germany's energy resources; it also plays an important role as a raw material for the chemical industry. During the Second World War, coal was used to produce significant amount of liquid fuel.

Germany is provided with metal ores much less than coal. There are several small iron ore basins and one significant copper deposit. Of the nonmetallic minerals, Germany is extremely rich in allium salts; their main deposits are in Central Germany, between the Elbe and the Weser. There are deposits of common salt in various places. (Placement of minerals see fig. 14.)

Climate, soil, vegetation. Northwest Germany has a maritime climate similar to that of the neighboring Netherlands. This area is especially convenient for meadow growing. The south-west (especially the Rhine valley), with an equally mild winter, is distinguished by a hotter and sunnier summer, which makes it possible to grow grapes, tobacco, and southern fruit trees in the valleys. To the east, the influence of the ocean decreases. The mountainous regions of Central and Southern Germany, which lie above 600 m, have a humid and cool climate. It is an area of meadows and forests.

The podzolic soils prevailing in Germany are not fertile in terms of their natural properties; many marsh and sandy soils. The most fertile soils of loess origin are found near the northern edge of the Central German

Mountains. The Rhine and Danube valleys, as well as the “marches” of the northwest coast, are distinguished by their fertility. And in areas with low natural fertility, good yields are obtained with careful processing and widespread use of chemical fertilizers.

Forests occupy more than 1/4 of the entire area. In East Germany, coniferous forests predominate; there are many planted pine forests on the sands here. Beech and oak predominate in the lowlands of West Germany. Mountain forests are composed of fir, spruce, mountain pine and beech.

Population

In terms of ethnic composition, the population of modern Germany is homogeneous: almost the entire population consists of Germans. The national unity of Germany is an indisputable fact that has developed historically, and the attempts of the American-British imperialists to dismember Germany are reactionary in nature.

There are local differences between Germans, but these are differences within the same nation. The Low German dialects common in the northern regions of Germany differ from the High German dialects (spoken, for example, by the Bavarians). By religion, North Germans are mostly Protestants, South Germans are mostly Catholics.

Germans who lived in areas returned to Poland as and the Germans who lived in Czechoslovakia were almost completely resettled to Germany by the decision of the Berlin Conference. In total, including those

Germans who fled from these territories even before the eviction, there are over 10 million immigrants within the borders of modern Germany, about half of whom are in the Eastern Zone. Here the settlers are settling down firmly: some of them received land plots, others - various jobs. Many new settlements have been built for the settlers. In contrast, the occupying authorities in the western zones treat the settlers as temporary: many of them live in a camp order.

In addition to the Germans, in East Germany, along the upper course of the river Spree, there is a small / Slavic people—Lusatians (or Lusatian Serbs). It is the remainder of the indigenous Slavic population that occupied in the past the interfluvium of the Elbe (Laba) and the Oder (Odra). The Germans, who seized these lands in the XII-XIII centuries, exterminated and oppressed the Slavs with terrible cruelty, eradicated their culture. In the German Democratic Republic, the Lusatians, on the other hand, are assisted in the development of Lusatian culture; Lusatian schools and teachers' institute have been established; a newspaper is published in Lusatian language.

The spirit of militarism and chauvinism has long been prevalent among the ruling classes of Prussia¹. This tone was especially strongly set by the Prussian noblemen-landowners ("Junkers"), leading from the "knight-dogs" (Marx's expression), who in the Middle Ages seized the

¹ Precisely because Prussia played a major role in the development of German militarism, it was liquidated by the decision of the USSR, the USA, Great Britain and France in 1947.

Slavic lands east of the Elbe and whom Alexander Nevsky defeated in 1242. The German fascists incited the most savage chauvinism among the Germans, declaring the Germans a “superior race” called upon to rule over the “inferior” ones. In fascist Germany, only Germans “pure by blood” were recognized as full-fledged citizens. In fact, the Germans (like the British and the French) were formed from different races and tribes, therefore, they cannot represent a “pure race”. The absurd fabrications about the superiority of the Germans over other peoples served the fascists to divert the masses from the class struggle and to propagate wars of conquest. Eliminating the ‘poisonous legacy of this propaganda is one of the tasks of re-educating the German people on a democratic basis. But such re-education is carried out only in the eastern zone, where the press, education, art are rebuilt to serve the peaceful development of the German economy and culture. It is clear that in the western zones, where the occupiers, themselves infected with chauvinism, are trying to drag the German people into a new military adventure, as such re-education is out of the question.

The class composition of the population at the time of the second World War II developed in this way. Industrial the proletariat numbered 11.5 million. Together with the workers transport and trade, domestic workers and small employees, there were 24 million hired workers (73% of the working population). By the degree of proletarianisation of the population Germany was inferior to England, but significantly superior to France. Accordingly, the petty bourgeoisie (mainly the peasantry) occupied a larger place than in England, but less than in France. The command position

was occupied a small handful of magnates of finance capital and landowners. Among them were many fascists who got rich during Hitler's dictatorship. Union of financial magnates who headed powerful monopolies and the Prussian noble military was the main driving force behind German imperialism and fascism. In modern Germany there is no single class structure: the reactionary and aggressive policy of the occupiers of the western zones is aimed at preserving the foundations of the former class system of Germany; in contrast, the progressive and peaceful policy pursued in East Germany by the Soviet occupation authorities, and then by the government of the German Democratic Republic, is aimed at the radical democratization and demilitarization of the German people; this has already led to serious shifts of a progressive nature in the class system of East Germany, which is discussed in more detail below.

The density of the population of Germany is 195 people per square kilometre. Thus, Germany belongs to the number of densely populated countries, although it is inferior in this to Great Britain and even more Belgium and the Netherlands.

By the time of World War II, cities were home to 67% of all population. The largest urban centres are, first, Berlin (which in 1939 totaled 4.3 million inhabitants, and in 1950 - 3.3 million) and, secondly, the industrial region of the Ruhr, the main core of which is a group of almost closed industrial cities led by with Essen, whose total population exceeds 3 million. Major cities are Hamburg, Cologne, Munich, Leipzig, Dresden, Frankfurt am Main, Dusseldorf.

A distinctive feature of Germany is the large number of historical regional centres. This is a legacy of the past fragmentation of Germany, when each of the German states had its own capital. Some of these regional capitals during the development of German capitalism grew into large cities (Munich, Dresden), some, on the contrary, became small provincial centres (for example, Weimar). The accelerated growth of Berlin, which placed it far ahead of all regional centres, was a clear expression of the national unification of Germany.

Features of the Development of Germany

Germany, later than England and France, embarked on the path of development of capitalism. The remnants of feudalism were more stable in it. The abolition of the serf system in the German countryside dragged on until the middle of the 19th century, but even after that the landlord nobility retained their lands and their political influence, survivals of peasant dependence on the landowners were preserved.

In 1871, the political reunification of Germany was completed—the German Empire was created.

The abolition of serfdom and the reunification of Germany largely cleared the way for the development of German capitalism. A strong impetus to this was also given by the victory of Germany over France in the war of 1870-1871, defeating France, Germany took from her Alsace and northeastern Lorraine (with rich deposits of iron ore) and took from it a large monetary contribution (5 billion francs).

Since that time, Germany has quickly moved to the forefront of industrialised countries. Railway construction is making great strides, the coal industry, metallurgy, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, and chemistry are developing. Germany is building a military and merchant fleet and is becoming a strong maritime power. Monopolies are growing rapidly.

In the 80s, Germany began colonial conquests. She captured vast territories in Africa (Cameroon, Togo, South-West Africa, Tanganyiku), part of New Guinea, Qingdao on the coast of China, many small islands in the Pacific Ocean.

At the beginning of the XX century. Germany is the second industrialised country in the world after the United States and the most aggressive imperialist power. The German imperialists strove for new conquests and intensively armed themselves both on land and at sea.

The First World War, of which Germany was the main culprit, ended in its defeat. The Great October Socialist Revolution had a tremendous revolutionary impact on German soldiers and workers. The imperial power was overthrown (November 1918). There was a revolution, but it was a bourgeois revolution. The social democratic leaders with the reactionary militarists strengthened the power of the bourgeoisie.

Under the Treaty of Versailles (1919), Germany lost a significant part of its territory. Part of the lands taken from it earlier was returned to Poland. Alsace and Lorraine were returned to France. Germany lost all colonies, which were given to England, France, Belgium and Japan under the mandate of the League of Nations.

In addition, under the Versailles Treaty, Germany was obliged to compensate the Allies for the damage caused by the war. Germany was forbidden to have an army of more than 100 thousand people and to introduce military service. Military production was subject to restrictions, it was completely forbidden to build military aircraft and submarines; in the Rhine border zone it was forbidden to keep troops and build fortifications.

However, the roots of German militarism were not destroyed. The General Staff, the basis of the military organization, has been preserved. The capitalist monopolies not only were not destroyed, but achieved even greater strength than before: by combining several large companies, new huge associations were formed (Steel Trust, Chemical Trust). The industrialists succeeded, through intensified exploitation of the working class, in re-equipping and expanding industry. The victorious powers themselves, especially the United States, provided Germany with large loans, provided substantial assistance in this; supporting the German bourgeoisie with loans, they strengthened German capitalism (which the rise of the revolutionary movement threatened to collapse) and pushed Germany into war against the USSR.

Large industrialists and bankers played a huge role in the restoration of the German military machine and in the preparation of a new war: they bypassed the terms of the Versailles Treaty in every possible way—they retained military-industrial cadres, took measures to ensure that machine-building and chemical plants could quickly switch to military production, under the

guise of “civil Aviation developed the designs of military aircraft, created military-industrial branches abroad (in Sweden, Switzerland). Having expanded and renewed the production apparatus of industry, the German bourgeoisie was unable, however, to develop exports sufficiently, nor to ensure sufficient sales of goods on the domestic market. Industry all the time worked with great underload, mass unemployment did not stop.

With the very first blows of the world crisis, German industry began to rapidly collapse. The number of unemployed in 1932 reached 8 million. The situation of the workers deteriorated sharply. The class struggle has intensified. The Communist Party in the elections to the Reichstag in November 1932 collected 6 million votes. A revolutionary crisis was brewing. Then the German bourgeoisie called the fascists to power in order to smash the workers’ organizations with their help and strengthen their rule.

Since 1933, a fascist dictatorship of *the most reactionary and predatory type* was established in Germany, which threw all the country’s human and material resources into organizing wars of conquest for the sake of enslaving and plundering other peoples.

The war started by the German fascists led Germany to disaster (as mentioned above). In the decisions of the Crimean Conference of the leaders of the three powers - the USSR, the United States of America and Great Britain - the will of the allied powers regarding the future of Germany is expressed as follows:

“It is our unyielding goal to destroy German militarism and Nazism and to create a guarantee that Germany will never again be able to disrupt the peace

of the world. We are determined to disarm and disband all German armed forces, to destroy once and for all the German General Staff, which has repeatedly contributed to the revival of German militarism, to withdraw or destroy all German military equipment, to liquidate or take control of all German industry that could be used for military production; to subject all criminals of war to just and swift punishment and to recover damages in kind for the destruction caused by the Germans; to wipe out the Nazi Party, Nazi laws, organizations and institutions ... It is not our goal to destroy the German people. Only when Nazism and militarism are eradicated will there be hope for a dignified existence for the German people and a place for them in the community of nations.”

These principles were further developed in the decisions of the Berlin (or Potsdam) conference. At the Berlin Conference, decisions were made on the complete destruction of Germany's war industry and on a general restructuring of the German economy. Monopolistic associations are subject to destruction. In organizing the German economy, the main attention should be paid to the development of agriculture and peaceful industry.

However, the decisions of the Crimean and Berlin conferences were implemented only in the Soviet zone of occupation. It has carried out radical reforms destroying the very foundations of reaction and militarism: agrarian reform, which abolished large-scale landownership, abolished monopolies, democratized administration; the remnants of fascism are resolutely eradicated. Most of the industry has been nationalized;

the nationalized (people's) enterprises took a leading place in the restoration and development of industry. Planning of the national economy has been introduced. Thanks to the restructuring of German economic and political life on a democratic basis in the zone of Soviet occupation, the restoration and development of production intended for peaceful purposes is successfully taking place. Unemployment has been eliminated. All this caused the growth of the democratic forces of the German people, led by the working class. In 1946, an important event in the history of the German workers' movement took place in East Germany: the German Communist Party and the majority of the German Social Democratic Party, loyal to the working class, united in the Socialist Unified Party of Germany] this union, which took place on the basis of Marxist-Leninist teachings, strengthened the position of the German workers class.

East Germany became the base of a broad popular movement that led to the proclamation of the German Democratic Republic.

The formation of the German Democratic Republic is of great importance for the future path of Germany. It caused an intensification of the struggle of the German people for the restoration of the unity of the country, for the transformation of the whole of Germany into a peace-loving democratic state, for the conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany and the removal of the occupation regime from her. The parties fighting for these areas have united in the national front of democratic Germany. The formation of the German Democratic Republic signifies the failure of the

attempts of the American and British imperialists to revive aggressive Germany and make it an instrument of their criminal plans.

A clear expression of the peace-loving and disinterested policy of the Soviet Union towards Germany was the generous decision of the Soviet government to reduce reparations (damages) from Germany.

German fascist invaders inflicted colossal damage Soviet country. The Soviet government demanded that Germany pay reparations in the amount of \$10 billion, which is less than 1/10 of the direct damage caused by the invaders. This amount was to be paid not only at the expense of the eastern zone, but partially also at the expense of the western zones. East Germany fulfilled their obligations, while the occupiers of Western zones thwarted the payment of reparations to the Soviet Union. In 1950, the Soviet government at the request of the German government the democratic republic agreed to reduce the remaining the amount of reparations (6342 million dollars) doubled. Moreover, it transferred 23 enterprises to the ownership of the German people, which earlier passed into the account of reparations in Soviet ownership. By these magnanimous acts, the Soviet government eased the task of developing the national economy of the German Democratic Republic.

Relying on the assistance of the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracies, reflecting the intrigues of foreign and domestic reaction, the German Democratic Republic has achieved major successes in the development of the economy and culture, in the construction of a democratic state. The two-year plan

(1949-1950) was fulfilled ahead of schedule and the five-year plan for the development of the national The well-being of workers is increased. In the fall of 1950, the German Democratic Republic was admitted to the Council economic mutual assistance as an equal member.

In the western zones, the policy of the occupation authorities runs counter to the decisions of the Crimean and Berlin conferences: reactionary elements find patronage there, the military industry and armed forces are being restored, monopolies are preserved, landlord ownership is not affected. Having created a puppet “West German State”, the invaders of the western zones, led by the American imperialists, split Germany and thwarted the conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany.

In an effort to subordinate the heavy industry of Western Europe to its military-conquest goals, the United States is organizing the unification of the coal and metallurgical industries of West Germany, France, the Benelux countries (Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg) and Italy. (The project for this unification is called the “Schumann Plan,” after the French minister who only carried out the will of the American imperialists in this matter.)

All these actions are aimed at turning West Germany into a military base of American-British imperialism and lead to the dismemberment of Germany. At the same time, this creates the basis for the restoration of German militarism. In West Germany, the military-industrial magnates, reactionary generals and all those forces that plunged Germany into two world wars and

which are striving for revenge, for a new aggressive war, are reviving again.

Aware of the danger of the situation in Germany, the government of the German Democratic Republic appealed to the governments of the USSR, the USA, Great Britain and France with a request to accelerate the conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany. At the same time, it pointed out that a peace treaty is necessary for the creation of a single, independent, democratic and peace-loving state, to eliminate the danger of a revival of German militarism and to ensure the possibility of the peaceful development of the German state. The Soviet government supported this appeal and for its part turned to the governments of the USA, Great Britain and France with a proposal to immediately discuss the question of a peace treaty with Germany. At the same time, it proposed its draft of the basic provisions of the peace treaty concerning the restoration of the state unity of Germany, the provision of democratic rights to the German people, the development of Germany's peaceful economy without restrictions, etc. These proposals, which gave new proof of the peaceful and generous policy of the Soviet state, evoked in everything the world, deep sympathy from all true supporters of peace.

Overview of the Economy

Industry

The general nature of the industry. Before the Second World War, Germany was a highly developed

industrial country, which, however, retained great importance in agriculture.

In terms of industrial production, it ranked among capitalist countries second place, producing over 10% world industrial products.

The leading place in German industry was occupied by the industry of means of production—coal and brown coal mining, metallurgy, metal processing, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, chemistry; but in the hands of the fascists, these branches represented not so much the industry of means of production as the industry of means of destruction. Various branches of light industry were also developed: textile, sewing, paper, food. The leading industries were dominated by large enterprises of a high technical level.

The domination of the capitalist monopolies reached its highest degree in Germany. The “Paint Industry Company” (“Farbenindustri”), which united most of the German chemical industry, the “Steel Trust”, the metallurgical and military-industrial firm Krupp belonged to the largest industrial associations of the capitalist world. Of these, the Krupp firm, founded in 1812, played a particularly important role in the development of German militarism.

As can be seen from the above, after the Second World War, industry in East Germany and in the western zones has taken completely different paths. In the western zones, the war industry is preserved, the former masters are often restored, becoming an instrument of American-British imperialism, the peaceful industry is in decline. In East Germany, the war industry has been liquidated, the peaceful industry

is developing according to plan, with the leading place being occupied by the people's (nationalized) enterprises. A new attitude towards labor is being created: the workers recognize themselves as owners of enterprises, and labor competition is developing.

Fuel and energy base. Over 90% of all energy in the German economy comes from hard coal and brown coal. The extraction of coal in 1938 amounted to 186 million tons, in 1950 - 130 million tons. About 80% of the total German production comes from the Ruhr swimming pool. From here a significant amount of coal and coke is exported. Lignite mining provides Germany with low-grade, but cheap fuel. Most of the German power plants operate on brown coal. While almost all of the coal mining is in the western zones (Ruhr, Saar), most of the brown coal mining is in East Germany; in 1950 the extraction of brown coal in East Germany exceeded 130 million tons, according to the plan for 1955 it should give 225 million tons of oil in 1950, produced over 1 million tons (in West Germany). Hydropower is used in southern Germany.

Metal industry and mechanical engineering. In 1938, 22 million tons of steel were obtained, in 1950 15 million tons, more than 70% from the Ruhr. Due to the fact that East Germany (within its modern borders) used to have a very weak metallurgy, one of the main tasks carried out by the German Democratic Republic in the field of industry is the expansion of the old and the construction of new metallurgical plants. Smelting of steel in East Germany in 1950 yielded 1 million tons, and according to the plan for 1955, it will increase to 3 million tons. A new metallurgical plant "Ost" is being

built on the Oder (near the city of Furstenberg); part of it has already been launched. Ore comes from the USSR, coal from Poland.

The German engineering industry produces a wide variety of machines and equipment—from machines for the mining and metallurgical industries to fine instruments for precision mechanics. The electro-technical industry is especially developed. The most important regions and centres of mechanical engineering are: Ruhr—heavy engineering and especially the production of heavy weapons; in Berlin—a variety of mechanical engineering, and especially electrical engineering; in Saxony and Thuringia—textile machinery, printing machines (Leipzig) and various tools and devices. Shipbuilding—in Hamburg, Kiel and other port cities.

Chemical industry. The raw material base of the German industry is potash salts and coal, bituminous and brown. Coking by-products are of great importance. The most important branches of the German chemical industry are the production of paints, nitrogen (from the air), nitrogen and potash fertilizers, synthetic gasoline, synthetic rubber, and artificial fiber.

The main regions of the chemical industry are: 1) the Rhine-Westphalian, where it is based on coal and brown coal; 2) Rhine southwestern Germany, centres—Ludwigshafen and Frankfurt am Main, 3) East Germany (based on brown coal and potash salts), centres of Merseburg and Berlin.

Light industry. Among the branches of light industry, the textile industry (cotton, woolen, artificial silk, and

linen) ranks first. The most important textile region is the Saxon-Thuringian region (in East Germany). A number of large textile centres are located in the Rhine-Westphalian region. In addition, significant foci of textile production are scattered over many areas. Leipzig and Berlin are especially famous for printing.

Agriculture

Socio-historical conditions for the development of agriculture. The development of agriculture in West and East Germany followed different paths.

Eastern Germany has long been an agrarian region with large-scale farming based on serf labor. With the abolition of serfdom, the landowners tried to seize as much of the peasant land as possible. After the abolition of serfdom, the landlords gradually adapted to capitalist economic management, and the dependence of the peasantry on the landowners remained. Lenin called this type of capitalist agrarian development the Prussian path of development. He says about him: "... medieval landownership relations are not liquidated immediately, but slowly adapt to capitalism, which for a long time retains semi-feudal features. Prussian landowners' landownership was not destroyed by the bourgeois revolution, but survived and became the basis of the "Junker" economy, capitalist at the core, but not without a certain dependence of the rural population..." The landowning nobility (Junkers) is one of the main strongholds of reaction and militarism in Germany.

Therefore, the agrarian reform carried out in East Germany is so important: it eliminated the landlords land ownership in those parts of Germany where it was most strong. Landlord estates with an area of more than 100 hectares were confiscated, as well as all land holdings of the fascist and war criminals. Over 2.4 million hectares of this fund together with all buildings, inventory and livestock distributed between landless and land-poor peasants, agricultural workers and settlers. At the same time, cooperation of small farms, an association of peasant mutual assistance has been created, which provides labor farms assistance in the introduction of machine cultivation of the land, to improve livestock for the purchase of artificial fertilizers. There are many car rental stations. State estates also play an important role in agriculture in the eastern zone. Agricultural productivity in Eastern Germany is increasing, and at the same time the well-being of the working peasant farms is consolidating. The latter all the more it is important that the owners of the kulak type still keep in their hands a significant part of the land, a large number of agricultural machinery and livestock; the unification and economic strengthening of the working peasants mobilizes them to fight the kulaks. In other parts of Germany, land tenure is very variegated. Along with the landlord farms, there are farms of the kulak type (especially they play a big role in Bavaria); the majority of farmers own small plots, which are often scattered in separate scraps (parcels). This land-poor semi-proletariat cannot fee his farm and must seek non-agricultural earnings; for manufacturers, such “owners” are a source of cheap labor strength.

Small and small farms of this type are especially characteristic of the southwestern (Rhine) regions. In the South In Germany, small farmers widely use cows as draft animals. In the western zones, landlord economies are preserved and nothing is done to help small peasants.

Direction of agriculture. The predominant role in German agriculture belongs to animal husbandry (breeding of cattle and pigs), although this predominance is not as pronounced as in England. Intensive livestock raising is most developed in northwestern Germany, near the North Sea. Alpine-type dairy farming is developed on mountain pastures in Bavaria.

In the cultivation of northeastern Germany, crops are dominated by less whimsical soil and climate - rye, oats, potatoes. Wheat is sown mainly in Central Germany and in the valleys of southern Germany. The most important industrial crop is sugar beet.

In southwestern Germany, along the valleys of the Rhine and its tributaries, viticulture, tobacco growing, and gardening are widespread.

Transport

The development of German transport was influenced by the following conditions: 1) the central position in Europe, due to which important international routes pass through Germany; 2) remoteness of most of the territory from the sea and the predominance of land borders over sea ones; 3) high development of the

mining industry with the remoteness of the main coal basins from the sea and their isolation from the main sources of ore.

If these conditions are taken into account, it will be clear that the construction of railways and inland waterways had in the development of the German economy. In terms of the volume of railway traffic, as well as the volume of traffic on inland waterways, Germany ranked first among the countries of Western Europe. The main railway junctions are Berlin, Leipzig, Hamburg, Cologne, a huge transport junction is the Ruhr district. The Rhine ranks first among the rivers of Western Europe in terms of cargo turnover. The policy of dismembering Germany, pursued by the occupiers of the western zones, led to an almost complete rupture of transport links between the west and east of Germany.

The overwhelming part of the sea trade between Germany and abroad passed through the ports of the North Sea—Hamburg and Bremen. At present, due to the dominance of the Anglo-American occupiers and due to the separation from East Germany, their cargo turnover has fallen. As a result of the defeat, Germany lost its entire military and almost the entire merchant fleet.

The Kiel Canal (98 km), which shortens the route between the North and Baltic Seas, was built by the German government primarily for strategic purposes (to transport the navy and cargo by the shortest route, bypassing the straits in the wrong hands). It is also of great importance for international shipping, being the main outlet from the Baltic Sea to the Atlantic.

Preparing for war, the Nazis launched an intensive construction of straight and wide highways—motorways,

adapted for especially fast driving and for mass traffic. The purpose of these roads is mainly strategic: they were designed for the transfer of armies to the borders.

Regions

The regional division of modern Germany is complicated by the division of the country into two parts; this split should be considered temporary, since the unity of Germany must be restored on the basis of its democratization and demilitarization. Nevertheless, at the present time it is necessary to reckon with the sharp line that lies between East Germany, where the government of the German Democratic Republic functions and where a policy of genuine democratic reconstruction and demilitarization is being pursued, and the western zones, where imperialist occupiers rule and where a reactionary policy directed to the transformation of West Germany into a springboard for American-British imperialism.

Regions of East Germany

The zone included five lands¹: Mecklenburg, Brandenburg, Saxony-Anhalt, Saxony, Thuringia and, in

¹ In 1952, the territory of the German Democratic Republic was administratively divided into 14 regions (excluding Berlin). The new division promotes the involvement of the working population in the work of government bodies.

addition, Berlin, the capital of Germany. The central organs of the German Democratic Republic are located in Berlin: the People's Chamber, elected through democratic elections, the president and the government of the republic. The Soviet government handed over to the government of the German Democratic Republic the administrative functions that had previously belonged to the Soviet Military Administration. Instead of the Soviet Military Administration,

Soviet Control Commission; its task is to monitor the implementation of the Potsdam and other joint decisions of the four powers in relation to Germany. The leading role in the political life of the eastern zone is played by the Socialist United Party Germany (SED).

Economically, the eastern zone should be divided into two regions: the North-East, which includes Mecklenburg and Brandenburg with Berlin, and the Saxon-Thuringian (or Middle East), which includes the other three lands.

North-East region. For a long time this part of Germany was, as it were, removed from the most important centres of economic life in Western Europe. It lagged behind in development from the West German (Rhine) regions. Here until the middle of the XIX century. extensive agriculture prevailed. Only with the abolition of serfdom and with the development of railway communication, the development of this region accelerated. Landowners began to practice livestock raising with grass sowing, designed for the market, industrial processing of agricultural products developed. Now this region is following a new path of development—without landlords, with a predominance

of working peasant farms, uniting for mutual assistance and successfully increasing their productivity. In Mecklenburg, where landlordism was especially strong, many settlers were settled on the former landlord lands, new villages were built, and industrial construction was developed. Agriculture in northeastern Germany is of a mixed nature (grain farming, potatoes, cattle breeding, pig breeding). It is Germany's main rye and potato production region.

Berlin, the capital of Germany and its largest economic centre, stands out sharply among the cities of the region.

Berlin is located on the small river Spree; on the western outskirts of the city, the Spree flows into the Havel, a tributary of the Elbe. The Spree and Havel are deepened, sluiced and supplemented with canals. This makes Berlin a major river port. As a railway junction, Berlin occupies a dominant position in East Germany. A number of international lines run through it.

Berlin was originally the small capital of one of the minor German states (Brandenburg). But from Brandenburg, the knitting of the Prussian kingdom began, which in 1871 stood at the head of the German Empire. The rise of Prussia and then the formation of the German Empire put forward the importance of Berlin. The capital of the empire became a huge administrative centre, a major transport hub, banking and industrial centre with a wide specialization. The main industries are mechanical engineering and electrical engineering. Berlin was one of the largest centres of the military industry in Germany (tanks, aircraft, artillery, small arms, shells).

On the other hand, in Berlin many workers are employed in consumer goods industries, especially in the garment industry. There are many small businesses in these industries. By its political appearance, Berlin, on the one hand, was the focus of the military and the financial bourgeoisie (in the western zones of Berlin, occupied by the Americans, the British and the French, these reactionary forces have not been eliminated even now), on the other, it was and remains the largest workers' centre. Front Fascist coup Berlin in the elections to the Reichstag invariably gave a high percentage of the votes of the Communist Party (even in the elections 1933, already taking place during the Nazi terror, Berlin gave the Communist Party over 30% of all votes cast). Berlin the workers were the initiators of the formation of the SED.

After the surrender of Nazi Germany by the decision of the four powers—the USSR, the USA, Great Britain and France—Berlin was made the seat of the allied Control Council. In this regard, Berlin, taken by the Soviet Army on May 2, 1945 and included in the Soviet occupation, was divided into 4 sectors: the Soviet sector occupies the eastern part of Berlin (8 urban districts out of 20), the American sector occupies the southwestern part (7 districts), British—western (3 arrondissements) and French—northwest part (2 arrondissements).

Subsequently, the aggressive policy of the Western powers led to the termination of the activities of the Control Council, and then to the split of Berlin. In the eastern sector, there is a democratic Berlin magistrate, formed by the workers of all sectors, and in the three

western sectors, the occupation authorities arbitrarily formed a separate reactionary magistrate.

The Berlin suburb of Potsdam used to be the suburban residence of the Prussian kings. Here in 1945 a conference of the leaders of the three powers (USSR, USA, Great Britain) took place.

In the southern part of Brandenburg there is the Lower Lauzitsky brown coal basin, which provides large production and feeds a number of power plants. In the east of Brandenburg is the largest new building of the German Democratic Republic—the metallurgical plant Ost.

Saxon-Thuringian (Middle East) region. Geographically, this region belongs to the zone of the Central German Mountains (Ore Mountains, Thuringian Forest), covering the adjacent foothill part of the North German Lowland, known in Germany for its fertility. Both in terms of its natural conditions and the nature of the economy, this region presents a picture of great diversity.

In the south (Saxony and Thuringia) is the main textile region of Germany. It is one of the oldest industrial areas in Germany, with a long industrial population. Textile Centre - Chemnitz. In Chemnitz and in many cities around it, there is a huge number of spinning, weaving, knitting and textile machinery factories.

Leipzig is an important transport hub, commercial and industrial centre; Leipzig is especially famous for printing and international fairs that take place there every year; Leipzig University is one of the oldest German universities; Dresden - in the past the capital of

Saxony, is famous for museums and antiquities (badly destroyed).

Thuringia has many small industrial centres with a variety of industries that require highly skilled labor (for example, in Jena—the production of optical instruments). Weimar is known in the history of literature and music for the activities of great poets and composers: Goethe, Schiller, Bach and Liszt.

In the northern part of the region Saxony-Anhalt Halle—, developed agriculture is combined with a diverse industry. It is the main sugar beet and wheat region in Germany; pig breeding is highly developed (on the waste of sugar production).

The leading place in the industry is occupied by the development of minerals (brown coal, potassium salts and sodium chloride) and the chemical industry based on it. Here is the main region of Germany for the production of chemical fertilizers, gasoline from coal. The centre of the chemical industry in Magdeburg (nearby the Leinawerke plants, which before the defeat of Germany were among the world's largest chemical plants). Nearby, the main city of Saxony-Anhalt Halle, is a major transport hub, a centre of various industries. The sulphurous copper ore of Mansfeld (eastern foothills of the Harz) is home to significant non-ferrous metallurgy and the production of sulfuric acid. Magdeburg (on the Elbe) is the centre of the sugar industry and the production of agricultural machinery. Power plants operate on brown coal.

Regions of West Germany

Northwest Region (British Zone). Distinctive the peculiarity of this area is its important transport significance. For Germany, this is the “gateway” to ocean shipping, which here it penetrates deep into the land with the mouths of the Elbe, Weser and Ems. Up the rivers into the interior of the mainland, river navigation penetrates. The Kiel Canal, which cuts across the foundation of Jutland, is of international importance. To the ports of the North Sea—Hamburg and Bremen¹—railways converge from all over the country.

Hamburg and Bremen until the Second World War concentrated almost all German long-distance shipping. Both of these ports are large industrial centres, especially Hamburg, the second largest city in Germany by population, one of the largest working centres in Germany.

The development of industry in them was caused, firstly, by the needs of the shipping itself (shipbuilding, the manufacture of ship machines, equipment) and, secondly, the supply of foreign raw materials, which were partially processed immediately (this is how, for example, flour milling, rubber production, distillation of oil, chemical industry). Now the industry of these cities is in decline.

¹ Bremen is separated from the British zone as a separate sector of the American occupation. The supply of the American occupation forces goes through it.

The main naval bases of Germany were located in the North-West region: Kiel, Cuxhaven Wilhelmshaven. Away from the coast, a large industrial centre and transport hub— Hanover.

Outside port and industrial cities, the dominant role the farm owns livestock (pig and cattle breeding).

Rhine-Westphalian (Ruhr) region (British zone). The Rhine-Westphalian region is the main coal-mining, metallurgical and military-industrial region of Germany, the centre of German monopoly organizations of heavy and especially military industries, and the largest region of the industrial proletariat.

The industrial core of the Rhine-Westphalian region is the Ruhr basin; on its coal the metallurgical industry grew here. Most of the iron ore for her comes from abroad, mainly from Sweden and France. The needs of the Ruhr mining industry caused the development of heavy engineering. During both world wars, the Ruhr produced a huge amount of weapons, especially heavy ones (artillery, armor). There are also many chemical plants here, which are also of great military importance.

The Ruhr Basin is located on the right bank of the Rhine, downstream of the Ruhr. In an area of 60 km from east to west and 20-30 km from north to south industrial cities close each other with a friend without noticeable interruptions. The main ones are Essen with huge factories owned by Krupp, Duisburg, Dortmund, to the south—Dusseldorf. The Ruhr's transport links follow the Rhine (with access to the sea in the Netherlands), along the Dortmund—Elk Canal (with access to the North

Sea within Germany) and by rail; the Ruhr railway network is of exceptional density. Main transport hub of the Ruhr Basin—Duisburg—Port at the confluence of the Ruhr into the Rhine. The Ruhr cargo turnover reaches huge size; he sends coal, coke, iron, steel, machines, chemical fertilizers, receives ore, scrap iron, timber, cement, food cargo.

The rest of the Rhine-Westphalian region is characterized by less continuous industrialisation and more diversified industry.

In the valley of the Wuppertal River, south of the Ruhr, the city of Wuppertal is a large textile centre (cotton, silk, woolen and half-woolen fabrics, ribbons, braid, etc.). Nearby there are several centres of the small metal industry; the most important of them is Solingen, famous for the manufacture of knives, tools, all kinds of iron trifles: hooks, needles, etc. Production here developed from medieval craft; along with factory production, the distribution of work to the house was preserved.

On the left side of the Rhine is one of the oldest cities in the Rhine, an important railway junction and river port of Cologne. There is a large machine-building and chemical industry here. Near Cologne brown coal mining and large power plants.

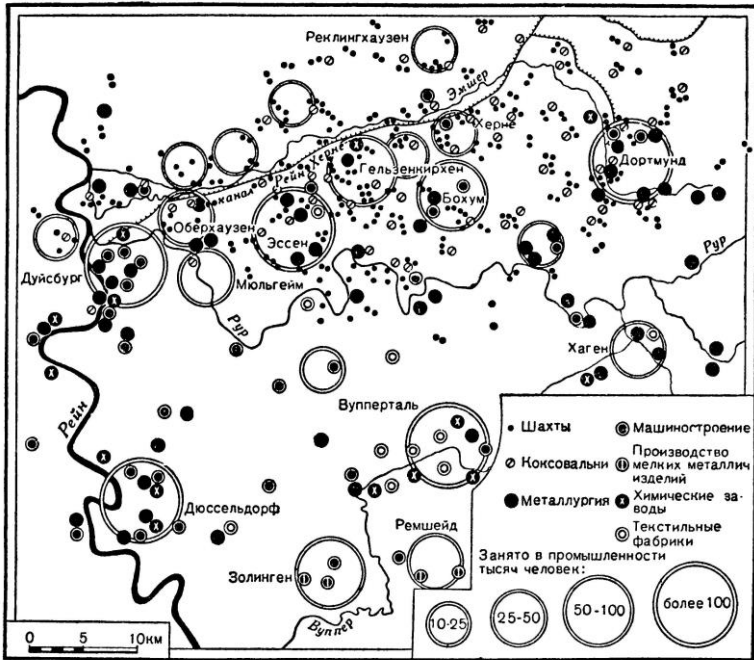
The question of the fate of the Ruhr is one of the main questions of the disarmament of Germany and the transfer of her economy to a peaceful path. The Soviet government has repeatedly stated that the Ruhr, with its huge industry, which is of exceptional military and general economic importance, cannot be controlled by any one or two powers, and proposed, based on the

decisions of the Berlin (Potsdam) Conference, to establish four-sided allied control over the Ruhr (that is, joint control by the USSR, USA, England and France). The former rulers of the Ruhr, who were the mainstay of the fascist regime and its military-conquest policy, must be eliminated, the Ruhr industry must be transferred under the control of the democratic organizations of the German people. In doing so, the Ruhr must be regarded as an integral part of the whole of Germany.

Instead, the United States and England, in violation of the Potsdam Agreement, established such "international control" over the Ruhr (without participation of the Soviet Union, but with the participation of Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg), which serves only as a cover for the management of the American monopolies and actually separates the Ruhr from the rest of Germany. The Ruhr military industry is being rebuilt. All this clearly shows the desire of the American and British imperialists to use the Ruhr in their aggressive purposes and at the same time contributes to the revival the military-industrial core of German imperialism.

Southwest region. (Part in the American, part in the French zones of occupation.) For the development of this region, its position on the Rhine trade route was of great importance, facilitating the accumulation of population, the introduction of industrial skills, facilitating the supply of raw materials and the sale of products. Valleys The Rhine and its tributaries (Main, Moselle, Neckar) are favorable for agriculture (warm

climate, fertile soils). However, acute shortage of land pushed part of the rural population into industry.



17. Рурский бассейн.

Кружками показаны главные индустриальные центры (масштаб по числу рабочих). Данные до второй мировой войны.

17. Ruhr Basin.

The circles show the main industrial centres (scale by the number of workers). Data before World War II.

The industry is diverse here. She almost entirely worked on imported raw materials and semi-finished products (there are almost no local raw materials). Its common feature is the production of valuable items, not

requiring bulky raw materials. The main industries are mechanical engineering, which was extremely versatile (including the production of automobiles, electrical engineering), the chemical industry (paints) and the textile industry. Main industrial centres: Frankfurt am Main is an important transport hub, Mannheim with Ludwigshafen (double city on both banks of the Rhine) Schümersdamm trades scattered in villages and small towns, such as watchmaking in the Black Forest.

In agriculture, intensive industries are distinguished: viticulture, winemaking, fruit growing, gardening, tobacco growing.

The Saar region differs sharply from the rest of the southwest. It is a coal and metallurgical region that ranks second in Germany for coal mining and for the production of iron and steel. Industry grew out of the local coal of Lorraine iron ore. Industrial centre—

The French occupation authorities in the Saarland unilaterally separated the Saarland from the rest of Germany by the customs border and included it in the French customs border.

Bavaria (American zone). Most of Bavaria is a comparatively backward agricultural region. Dairy cattle breeding prevails on mountain pastures. Agriculture is most developed in the Danube and Main valleys. The Bavarian countryside is dominated by kulak-type owners (“grossbauers”).

Industry is less developed than in the southwest. She also works mostly with imported raw materials. The main industrial centre of northern Bavaria—Nuremberg In southern Bavaria—Munich (the main city of Bavaria), a major centre of motor building and brewing. The

industry in Bavaria uses energy from power plants installed on the Alpine rivers.

CAPITALIST COUNTRIES

UNITED KINGDOM

Composition and dimensions. The British Isles are located off the northwestern coast of Europe (between 61 and 50° N); they consist of two large islands—Great Britain and Ireland—and many small ones (Orkney, Shetland, Hebrides, etc.). The island of Great Britain, with nearby small islands and the northeastern part of Ireland, forms the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (usually instead of this official name, they simply say Great Britain). The United Kingdom consists of the following parts.

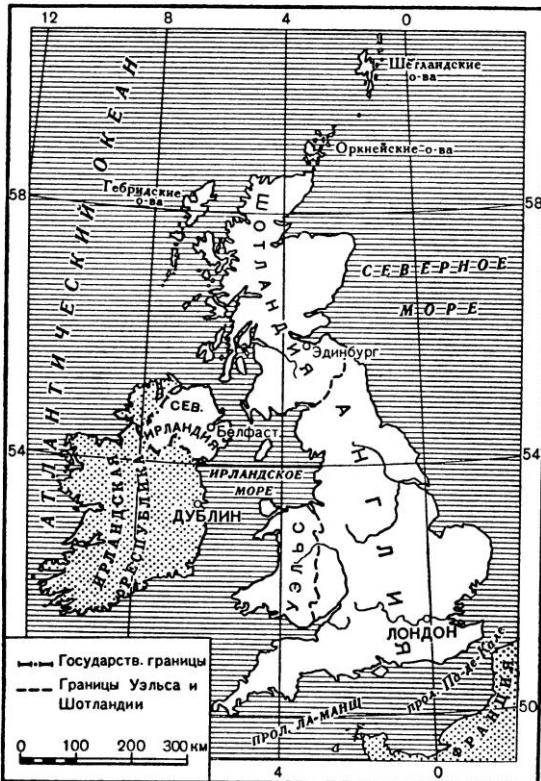
1) England (southern and middle parts of the island of Great Britain) is the main part of the entire state. Here is the capital of Great Britain - London. Very often the name “England” is used to refer to the whole of Great Britain. 2) Wales (mountainous peninsula in the west). The indigenous population of Wales (Celts) retains some national identity; but politically Wales forms one whole with England and enjoys no self-government.

2) Wales (mountainous peninsula in the west). The indigenous population of Wales (Celts) retains some national identity; but politically Wales forms one whole with England and enjoys no self-government.

3) Scotland (northern part of the island). The indigenous population, as in Wales, is the Celts. In the past, Scotland was an independent state. Scotland still

retains some remnants of autonomy. The historic capital of Edinburgh.

4) Northern Ireland, inhabited by Irish (indigenous people) and settlers from England and Scotland, is part of the United Kingdom as an autonomous region with a special parliament. The main city is Belfast.



18. Состав Великобритании.

18. Composition of Great Britain.

The area of the entire United Kingdom is 244 thousand square meters. km; population 50 million. The political system is a parliamentary kingdom.

Great Britain dominates the British Empire, the largest colonial power in the world (see below).

Natural conditions

Geographical position. Great Britain is separated from the European mainland by the North Sea and the English Channel, the narrowest part of which is called the Pas-de-Calais. Southeast England is close to the mainland (Pas-de-Calais is only 33 km wide at its narrowest point). It is directed towards the developed capitalist countries of Europe - France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, Denmark. The west coast of Great Britain is washed by the Atlantic Ocean and the Irish Sea (separating the islands of Great Britain and Ireland). It is facing America on the other side of the ocean.

The North Sea with the English Channel is the arena of the most intensive maritime trade of Western European countries. It is like a huge gateway to ocean shipping; for a number of European countries, the North Sea serves as the only outlet to the ocean. In addition, the most important inland waterways of Western Europe: the Rhine, Elbe, Seine, Scheldt, leave the North Sea and the English Channel. Thus, the UK is in an extremely favorable position for the development of maritime trade both with European countries and with overseas countries.

Features of the geographical location of England were not always beneficial for its development. Until the Europeans knew America, while the Mediterranean was the main area of European trade, the British Isles were the European edge, pushed into the watery desert of the Atlantic Ocean.

A more favorable situation began to take shape for England in the 12th-15th centuries. due to the general revival of economic life on the shores of the North and Baltic Seas. At this time, the area of the English Channel and the North Sea becomes a meeting place for merchant ships sailing from different parts of Europe—from Venice and Genoa, from the port cities of the Baltic Sea, from the interior regions of Europe along the Rhine, Seine and Elbe. London is being promoted as one of the major shopping centres of the time. But the geographical position of England became especially advantageous only since the geographical discoveries of the late 15th and 16th centuries, which marked the beginning of the colonial conquests of Europeans in America and India and led to the movement of the main routes of international trade from the inland seas—the Mediterranean and Baltic—to the Atlantic Ocean. England found itself in a junction of sea routes leading from Europe to America and India.

The insular position gave Great Britain another important advantage - defense against attack. Located close enough to the countries of the continent to take an active part in their economic and political life, Great Britain at the same time enjoyed a certain isolation. She could participate in wars that devastated mainland countries without risking devastating her territory. For almost 9 centuries, no war was fought on the territory of Great Britain. It is clear that this was a big plus for the

commercial and industrial development of the UK. In the era of imperialism, the growth of military technology is gradually taking away this advantage from Great Britain. Already in the First World War, Great Britain, despite the strength of its fleet, suffered severely from the actions of German submarines. The position of Great Britain does not provide any protection from an attack by the air forces.

And the economic benefits of England's geography are now not as brilliant as they used to be. With the development of the United States, and then with the economic growth of the Soviet Union, the importance of new ocean routes (the routes through the Pacific Ocean, the Northern Sea Route), in relation to which England no longer occupies a central position, came to the fore.

Yet Britain's position now retains major economic and strategic benefits, albeit not as exceptional as it once was.

Surface, rivers, coastline. The British Isles used to be one with the mainland. They separated from him due to the sinking of the land. The separation took place in an era when man already existed. The very structure of the seabed indicates the connection of the British Isles with the mainland: the islands rise on the continental platform, which is, as it were, an underwater continuation of the continent. The sea is shallow around the islands. In the North Sea, the Dogger Bank Shoal, famous for its fish wealth, has a depth of no more than 20 meters over a vast area. If the sea level dropped by 50 m, then land would protrude from the water throughout the southern part of the North Sea, and the British Isles would be connected to the mainland.

Southeast England has a lowland surface similar to that of northern France. The lowland is composed of young loose rocks. In some places it is crossed by gently rising ridges of chalk hills. Here flows the River Thames (332 km) \ the Thames basin (otherwise the London Basin) occupies a central position in southeast England.

The north and west of Great Britain are mountainous. It is dominated by mountain ranges of relatively low altitude (rarely more than 1000). These include in Scotland: the Scottish Highlands (Ben Nevis summit 1343 m—the highest point in Great Britain) and the lower South Scottish Highlands; they are separated by a depression—the Mid-Scotland lowland. Along northern England, almost in the middle of it, are the Pennines. To the west rise the Wales Cornwall Mountains. In general, the mountains do not pose great difficulties for internal transport. They are low and dissected by wide valleys.

The rivers of Great Britain are short, but full-flowing (due to heavy rains), have a calm flow, do not freeze. The sources of the rivers of the western and eastern slopes begin close to each other; the watersheds between them are low, making it easy to connect different systems with canals. Thus, the interior of the island was easily connected with the sea, and the distance from the sea is insignificant everywhere: there are no points in Great Britain that are more than 120 km from the sea.

The coastline of Great Britain is extremely indented. With the sinking of the land, separating the British Isles from the mainland, the marginal uplands formed peninsulas pushed out into the sea (Cornwell, Wales),

and islands accompanying the mountainous western coast in abundance. On the contrary, the coastal ends of the lowlands were below sea level, and along them the sea penetrated deeply into the land. Thus, the lower parts of the river valleys formed bays, into which the rivers themselves flow into widened funnel-shaped mouths (the so-called estuaries). The most important river estuaries and bays: on the east coast of Great Britain—the Thames estuary, Humber, Firth of Forth, on the west coast—Bristol Bay, the mouths of the Mersey and Clyde.

Sea tides, penetrating bays and river estuaries, greatly raise the water level in them (for example, in London, the difference between the water level at high tide and low tide reaches 6 m, in Bristol Bay it reaches even 12 m) \ thanks to this, during high tide, even small rivers in the lower current become accessible to sea vessels. London, lying on the Thames, 64 km from the sea, is a seaport. The abundance of convenient, ice-free harbours and the deep penetration of the sea inland have created advantages for the development of maritime development in addition to the benefits of the UK's geographical position.

Mineral resources and hydropower. A huge advantage of English industry at the beginning of its development was the combination in the same areas of rich deposits of high-quality coal with large deposits of iron ores. But with the development of the metallurgical industry, the demand for iron grew, and the best deposits were depleted. England still has large reserves of ore, but low quality ores prevail. British

industrialists have long found it profitable to import part of the required ore from abroad.

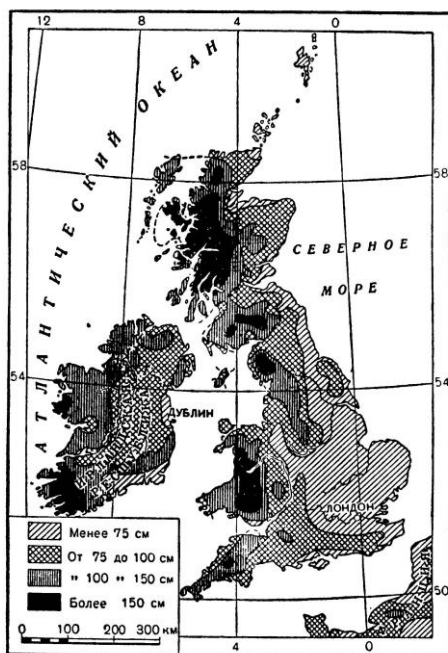
Coal is the main and almost the only energy base for British industry. In addition, it is used in large quantities for heating homes. Finally, coal is an important item in the British export. The total reserves of coal are estimated at 180 billion tons. This is immeasurably less than that of the USA and the USSR. But British coal reserves are concentrated in a relatively small area (Great Britain ranks first in coal reserves per unit surface). Coal pools are located very conveniently in terms of transport: by the sea itself or close to it. Most of the coal is of high quality. In many places, the seams come directly to the surface, which at first greatly facilitated and cheapened their development; but at the present time the upper layers have already been worked out, and it is necessary to dig deeper (the average depth of the mines is now 300-350 m, but there are mines with a depth of 900 m). See Figure 23 for the location of the coal basins.

There is very little oil in Great Britain (during the Second World War, small deposits were discovered and their development began). At the beginning of the industrial development of Great Britain, the propulsion power of rivers played a significant role, but with the current scale of energy consumption, its importance in England is small.

There are few non-ferrous metals in England; in the past, the Cornwell Peninsula was famous for its tin mines, now their production is negligible. Other minerals are table salt and kaolin (raw materials for the ceramic industry).

Climate. The UK's climate is influenced by winds blowing from the Atlantic Ocean. This is a typical maritime climate characterized by frequent rains, large clouds, continuous fogs, strong winds; due to the proximity of the Gulf Stream, winters are extremely mild, frosts are an exception, snow rarely falls and does not last long (except in mountainous regions); summer is cool, sunless, rainy.

These features are especially typical for the west coast.



20. Годовые осадки Британских островов.

20. Annual precipitation of the British Isles.

On the west coast of Scotland, the average January temperature is about +4°, the average July temperature is over +14°. The annual rainfall is over 100 cm, in the mountains—more than 200 cm. The prevailing weather here is strong winds, in autumn and winter they often turn into storms, low-hanging clouds, persistent heavy rains. The eastern part of Great Britain is sheltered from the ocean winds by hills, so there is a little less rain in the east, more often sunny days. In western Scotland, out of seven days a week, an average of five rainy days, in southeastern England only three. But even here the sun is not enough. The famous London fogs sometimes envelop the capital of Great Britain all day long, especially in autumn and winter, forcing to keep the light on during the day. Sometimes the fogs get so thick that traffic stops. On the sea approaches to London, thick fogs sometimes hinder the movement of ships, despite the huge number of beacons and signal lights showing the way.

Soils, vegetation, fauna. Soils are most fertile in the lowlands of southeast England and central Scotland; but this is the result not so much of natural properties as of agronomic culture. In north-western England, low-fertile podzolic soils prevail, and in the mountains there are very poor stony soils and peat bogs.

The UK climate is especially favorable for the growth of succulent grasses. The growing season lasts almost all year round.

Bright green meadows are the hallmark of the English lowlands. The upland areas are covered with sandy or swampy voids with heather thickets. Into

cloudy and the windy weather that prevails in the Highlands of Scotland and Wales, these wastelands present a monotonous and gloomy landscape. There were many forests in the UK in ancient times. They have been almost completely wiped out, and currently only 5% of the UK is considered to be forest.

In the low-lying areas, no untouched natural landscape has survived at all; it was replaced by cultural lands (meadows, arable lands, vegetable gardens, parks, orchards) and cities, which in industrial areas stretch for tens of kilometres, merging with each other. On the contrary, the mountainous wastelands are mostly untouched (see Fig. 21). Wastelands are used only as pastures for sheep, and even then not everywhere.

The seas surrounding the UK (especially the North Sea) are very rich in fish. Herring, cod, flounder are found in abundance.

Population

National composition. The population of England was formed from a mixture of several nationalities. During the Roman era, the British Isles were inhabited by Celts. Later (in the 6th-7th centuries) southern England was invaded by Germanic tribes - the Angles and Saxons. The Celts were partly driven into the mountainous areas, partly mixed with the aliens. In the VIII-X centuries. Danes raided eastern England, and in 1066 the Normans conquered England. (These were immigrants from Scandinavia, who settled in the northwest of France and became heavily French; along

with the Normans, many immigrants from different regions of France participated in the conquest of England.) The Normans, having conquered England, for a long time differed in language and customs from the defeated Anglo-Saxons. Only a few centuries later they switched to English, that is, to the language of the Anglo-Saxons, which, however, included many words from the Old French language brought by the Normans. Since then, England has not seen new aliens.

The bulk of the population—the British—is distinguished by great national homogeneity. The Celts of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have retained their national characteristics. However, very few non-English speaking Celts remain.

The program of the British Communist Party contains a demand to end the violent dismemberment of Ireland and ensure its national unity, as well as “fully recognize the national demands of the Scottish and Welsh Yards and meet them in accordance with the wishes of these peoples.”

Population density. Cities. Great Britain is one of the most densely populated countries in the world; the average population density in the United Kingdom is more than 200 people and 1 sq. km (and in England itself—about 300 people). In no other trance is there such a preponderance of the city over the countryside, as in the cities of England the whole population lives). In London (more than a million people live with the suburbs, about the same, with a split of Belgium. The large cities of the industrial regions of central and western England are especially densely concentrated;

here. “3 cities—Birmingham, Liverpool and Manchester—each have Lyon residents.

Emigration. The development of British capitalism was accompanied by mass emigration from England and especially from Ireland. In the XIX century, the proletarianisation of the population proceeded at such a pace that even during periods of industrial growth there were still many people who did not have a constant income. At first, it was mainly farmers and artisans who were driven off the land who were deported, who lost their jobs due to the replacement of manual labor with machines. Then, when the flourishing of English industry ended, unemployment became forcing skilled industrial workers to emigrate. On the other hand, the colonies also attracted representatives of the English wealthy bourgeoisie, who were sent there for profit or in order to “make a career” in the administrative service.

The massive emigration of the British contributed to the widespread spread of the English language and English political and cultural influence outside England. English is the dominant language in the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand.

After the First World War, due to the rise in unemployment, the urge to emigrate increased. But the possibility of emigration has dwindled. The United States and Canada began to restrict the admission of immigrants, as their work issue became aggravated.

The class composition of the population. The data on the class composition of English society and on how the British people’s income is distributed between workers and capitalists reveal sharp class inequalities.

Workers and employees make up almost 90% of the entire working population; small owners working without hired labor, 6 percent; capitalists,

exploiting other people's labor, 4%. This group of capitalists not only exploits the working people of England itself, but also collects tribute from colonial and semi-colonial countries; 55% of the total national income falls into its hands. Among the capitalists there is a large group of rentier, that is, a part of the bourgeoisie that is not engaged in any kind of labor and receives interest on capital.

Only 45% of the national income falls into the hands of the working people, who make up 96% of the total population. Moreover, within the group of workers itself, there are sharp differences between highly paid employees and the privileged working class, on the one hand, and the rank and file mass of workers, on the other sides.

The situation of the working class. During the heyday of English capitalism, the bourgeoisie could, without prejudice to its own pockets, allocate a certain share of its super-profits to better pay the top of the working class. In this way, an obedient "labor aristocracy" was created, helping the bourgeoisie to control and suppress the labor movement. But the calamities of the ordinary working masses were not destroyed. The overall share of the working class in the distribution of the national income did not increase, but decreased.

In the largest centres of Great Britain, which concentrate colossal wealth, there are hideous slums

with filthy, fetid nooks and crannies, with crumbling shacks, where an incredibly crowded population lives.

These slums are a living indictment against British capitalism and against capitalism in general. The slums of Glasgow (Scotland's main industrial centre) are described by government commissioners who surveyed them: "It is difficult to describe the conditions in which people live in the houses we surveyed. All these houses are not habitable. Many houses are surrounded by the walls of other houses and are thus deprived of light and air. Dampness is felt everywhere, walls and ceilings are saturated with moisture. There are almost no sanitary facilities anywhere. Destruction is everywhere. The walls and ceilings are rotted, there are huge holes in the walls, the plaster is crumbling. One cold, damp room can accommodate 8 people. I have seen enough of the most terrible poverty both here and on the continent, but after visiting the slums of Glasgow, it seems to me that in no civilised country can you find such a centre of crime, poverty and disease that would equal Glasgow. No one seems to care about cleaning up this hotbed of crime, filth and epidemics in the centre of the kingdom's second city. The workers' quarters seem to form a different world in comparison with the quarters inhabited by the big bourgeoisie. Mortality in workers' neighbourhoods, especially children, is much higher than the average for the whole of England.

Features of the development of England

The power of England is in the past. England can be called the birthplace of capitalism. In a bitter

struggle, England in turn broke a number of her rivals—Spain, the Netherlands, France, secured supremacy at sea, captured vast and rich colonies—almost a quarter of the world.

The British bourgeoisie created a system of oppression and exploitation of the colonial peoples of many millions on an unrivaled scale.

England created a large factory industry earlier than all other countries. Many of the most important technical inventions that created a real revolution in industrial production were made in England in the second half of the 18th century. and at the beginning of the XIX century. England was the first to create a powerful heavy industry, taking advantage of the combination of coal and iron on its territory. In England in 1825 the first railway train was launched. For a long time England was a world factory, the first industrial country in the world.

Until the end of the XIX century. The British navy, without rivals, dominated the seas, and the British merchant fleet not only transported the products of the British industry all over the world and brought the raw materials it needed from everywhere, but also served the trade of other countries and was a world carrier.

By concentrating colossal wealth in her hands, England became the world banker; loans that the British bourgeoisie gave to foreign countries, capital invested her to foreign enterprises, not only brought huge profits, but also subordinated the weak and backward countries to the influence of England.

Slowdown in development and weakening of power. Since the end of the XIX century, the dominance of England has faltered. The pace of its industrial development is slowing down more and more. At the same time, new industrial countries—Germany and the USA—are coming forward; they overtake England in industrial production. The share of England in world industrial production is declining. (Back in 1870, England accounted for about half of the world's total in coal mining, iron smelting and cotton processing; in 1900 its share was close to 1/4, and in 1938 it was 1/5 in coal production, about 1/10 in pig iron smelting and cotton processing.)

Most importantly, British industry began to lose its technical superiority. For over 100 years of the existence of the English factory industry, many enterprises that were once the last word in technology have become obsolete. During the time of England's industrial supremacy, the British manufacturers were accustomed to the fact that their goods were in great demand; they could not particularly care about the organization of sales, about adjusting to demand. And when hard times came, the British industrial and commercial apparatus turned out to be little prepared for the struggle, inflexible.

The raw materials resources of England, with the scale that the industrial development of the advanced countries has assumed, have become insufficient. The best reserves of iron ore began to dwindle. In modern industry, resources are of great importance, which in England were not at all or were few: oil, hydropower, non-ferrous metals.

England's domination of the sea remained, but it was no longer as indisputable as before. In the XX century. the USA, Germany, and Japan became the first-class maritime powers. England now had to abandon its previous rule—to have a navy no weaker than the fleets of any two states put together.

After the First World War, England's financial strength also wavered. American capital began to penetrate into many countries where English capital used to dominate (for example, in the countries of South America and even in Canada, although the latter is the British dominion).

In the British Empire itself, the rule of England was not as strong as it was in the past. In the British dominions, especially in Canada and Australia, significant industry has grown. They have created their own interests, which often run counter to the interests of England. The national liberation movements of the colonial peoples intensified.

In the first period of the Second World War, the massive raids by German aviation on the industrial centres of England (especially violent in the fall of 1940), although they could not paralyze British industry, did damage it. After the German attack on the Soviet Union, the diversion of German forces to the Soviet front saved Britain from the threat of a German invasion; the raids on England almost ceased, which saved England from great destruction. Nevertheless, the British government in every possible way delayed the opening of a second front against Germany, striving to weaken the Soviet Union. But the victories of the Soviet

Army thwarted the implementation of these insidious plans.

Characteristics of modern England. From the above, it is clear that the economy of England is extremely complex. In no other country is there such a preponderance of industry over agriculture as in England: almost half of its population is employed in industry and only 5% in agriculture; England exports manufactured goods, while in food she lives primarily on purchased goods. In this sense, the UK is often referred to as an industrial country. But this is not enough. Great value in the British economy are sea trade and shipping, the export of capital and especially the exploitation of the colonies. By the time of the Second World War, England provided 9-10% of world industrial production, yielding in terms of industrial output to the United States, the Soviet Union and Germany. At the same time, its colonial possessions concentrate almost three-fourths of the world's population (or about three-quarters of the population of all colonial possessions in the world). It is quite obvious that the importance of England in the world economy and world politics as a colonial power is greater than its industrial importance. Lenin at one time defined British imperialism as "colonial imperialism."

The Second World War, which caused major damage to British finances, trade relations, the navy and further strengthened the economic position of the United States, led to a further weakening of British power. During the war, "England found herself in military-economic dependence on American food and

manufactured goods, and after the war ended, Britain's financial and economic dependence on the United States" (Zhdanov).

Among the imperialist powers, Great Britain no longer occupies the dominant position that it once occupied, but follows the lead of the richer and stronger American imperialism. At the same time, the growth of national liberation movements in the colonies undermines the colonial power of England.

Political system. The head of state is the king who occupies the throne by inheritance. However, it is justly said about him that he "reigns, but does not rule." Legislative power is the parliament, which consists of two chambers: the House of Commons (lower house), elected by the people, and the House of Lords (upper house), which is based on the nobility, occupying seats in the house by inheritance. Of these, the House of Commons is more important. The House of Lords (whose rights were severely curtailed at the beginning of the 20th century) is now essentially an advisory body; it can slow down the passage of a law that has passed through the House of Commons, but it cannot finally reject it. The executive branch is the government, that is, the cabinet of ministers headed by the prime minister. The prime minister is appointed by the king, entrusting him with the composition of the cabinet; but at the same time the king cannot choose: the leader (leader) of the party that has the majority in the House of Commons must be the prime minister. The government is held accountable to parliament; if the House of Commons voted to vote no confidence in the government, it must

resign. In practice, however, the government that concentrates the leading head of the majority party has the ability to command the House of Commons and carry out through it what was decided in a narrow circle of party leaders. In this situation, the debate and voting in parliament degenerated into a formality. In turn, the government depends on the big capitalists, in whose hands are the main levers of the country's economic life. Thus, the form and content of the English state system are in sharp contradiction with each other.

1. For three centuries (since the English Revolution of the 17th century), the political system of England has been developing without revolutionary upheavals, that is, not by radically breaking the old and building a new one, but by compromising between the old and the new. For the ruling classes in England, this course of affairs was very advantageous, since it allowed them to maintain a dominant position with all changes and prevent the masses from solving basic political issues. That is why the British political system in the eyes of the liberal bourgeoisie, not only in England, but also in many other countries, served as a model. And from this the course of development results in a multitude of vestiges of antiquity, which is very characteristic of the state system of England and for its external design. In fact, one of these survivals is the king, who has long since lost real power. The "appointment" of the prime minister by the king, as we have seen, is only a formality. The content of the "throne speeches" the king in parliament is determined by the prime minister. The king's approval of laws that have passed through parliament is also a formality—he has no power not to

approve them. However, one should not think that the preservation of the powerless king is deprived of political meaning. The British bourgeoisie needs the king to cloud the class consciousness of the masses, to maintain nationalism and “loyal” patriotism among the people. The King is portrayed and glorified as the personification of the “unity” of the British nation and all the peoples that make up the British Empire, as a symbol of the stability of “old England”. The glorification of “old England” is also served by various features of antiquity, preserved in the ritual design of state power (for example, judges and lawyers in the performance of their duties must certainly be in medieval gowns and wigs).

2. The proletariat in England has long constituted the bulk of the population. However, having created an obedient labor aristocracy, the ruling bourgeoisie of England was able, in opposition to the revolutionary labor movement, to create a movement of a compromising, reformist character aimed at deceiving the working masses. The trade unions (trade unions) and the so-called Labor (“workers”) party have this character.

3. The British bourgeoisie, which has accumulated a wealth of experience in ruling over a long period of its domination, has enormous financial resources for organizing election campaigns, various means of processing “public opinion” (through the press, radio, cinema, etc.). The working masses do not possess such means. Therefore, it is not surprising that parliamentary elections produce results that do not meet the interests of the masses of voters.

In recent years, the two main bourgeois parties have been competing in elections—the Conservatives, which unite most of the landowners and the big bourgeoisie, and the Labourites, which have already been mentioned above. Even if the Labor Party wins, this does not change the essence of the matter. In 1945, the Labor government came to power in England, formed by the leaders of the same “labor aristocracy”, which was mentioned above. It nationalized some branches of the British economy (including the coal and metallurgical industries and the main banks), but this partial nationalization in its essence was not a blow to rotten British capitalism, but an attempt to save it with partial “repairs”.

Those industries that were in a particularly difficult situation were nationalized—they demanded huge funds for re-equipment, in fact, did not bring income. Meanwhile, the former owners of “nationalised” enterprises are paid income at the expense of the state; At the expense of the state, the production is also re-equipped. For the most part, the former owners have remained at the head of the “nationalised” enterprises. Thus, this capitalist “nationalisation” has benefited the capitalists.

In its foreign policy, the Labor government, together with the reactionary US government, pursued an aggressive policy directed against the Soviet Union and the people’s democracies, against the liberation movements of the colonial peoples and posing the threat of a new world war. At the end of 1951, the Labourites were defeated in the elections.

Conservatives came to power; the essence of the British government's policy did not change from this.

4. However, along with the weakening of British imperialism, the foundations of the rule of the British bourgeoisie are undermined, and the class struggle is unleashed. In the Labor Party, the left wing is strengthening, which does not agree with the reactionary policies of the right leaders. The Communist Party (which emerged in 1920) is gaining more and more prestige among the working masses. And the unleashing of the class struggle in England itself, as well as the upsurge of the liberation struggle in the colonies, promises serious dangers for the bourgeoisie, which dominates in a country where the majority of the population is the proletariat, and holds in subjection a huge empire with many millions of half-slaves.

In 1951, the British Communist Party published its program entitled Britain's Road to Socialism. The program says: "Only with the establishment of socialism will Britain be able to finally solve its problems and guarantee its people a good life, lasting peace and a steadily increasing standard of living." To achieve this goal, Britain needs to transform its system into the system of people's democracy, to destroy the power of the big capitalists through the socialist nationalization of large-scale industry, banks, large landed property, etc., to introduce a planned economy; it is necessary to "transform the existing imperialist empire based on inequality into a strong, free, equal association of peoples by granting the colonies national independence." It is necessary to end Britain's subordination to American imperialism, to withdraw

from aggressive alliances, to unite with the Soviet Union and other peace-loving countries in the struggle for peace. This program is an important factor in rallying the British working class, like most of the entire British people, in the struggle for socialism and peace.

Overview of the Economy

Industry

General characteristics. A characteristic feature of British industry is its bias towards the production of high-quality expensive products. With a lack of its own raw material base, with an abundance of skilled labor, with high production costs, it becomes unprofitable to produce semi-finished products or cheap mass-produced products. In this, England is undeniably superior to the more standardized and technically equipped industry in the United States. But British industry retains significant advantages in industries requiring experience and skilled labour—in the production of sophisticated machinery, valuable factory and transport equipment, and high-quality fabrics.

England imports large quantities of semi-finished and less valuable products (for example, while exporting huge quantities of textile products, England at the same time imports many cheap fabrics).

The composition of British industry distinguishes between the old industries that developed in the era of the industrial revolution and new industries that

developed in the 20th century, especially after the First World War.

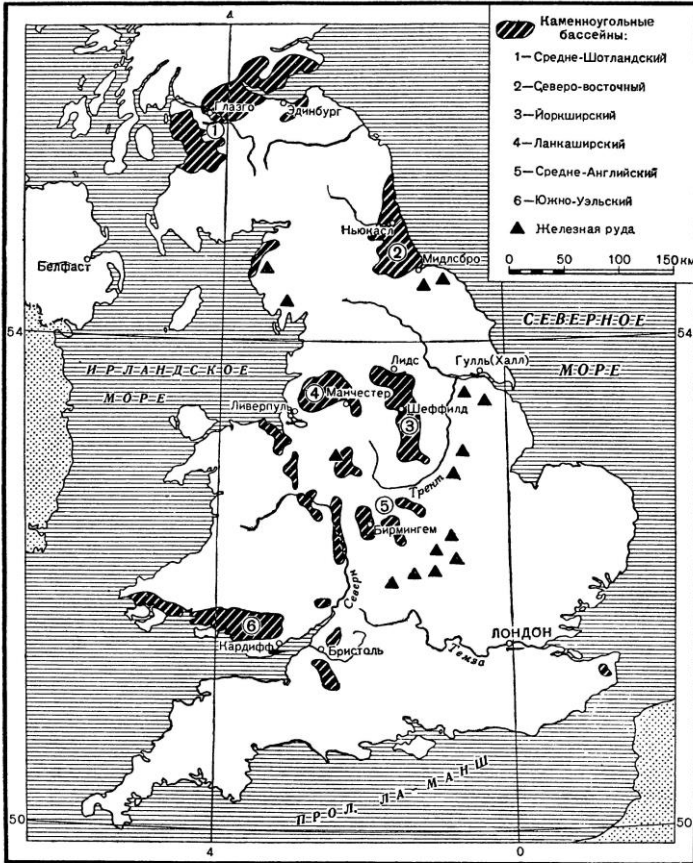
Old export industries. The main branches of British industry are its old export branches: the textile industry, coal mining, metallurgy, the production of steam engines, textile machinery, shipbuilding, steam locomotive building. These are the same industries that at one time formed the basis of the world domination of British industry.

The disadvantages of the old branches of British industry are the scatteredness of enterprises, their irrational placement, and the obsolete equipment. There are many small mines in the coal industry. In the mechanisation of coal mining, England lags behind the United States. The small size of enterprises increases the cost of administration and the organization of sales, complicates the mechanisation and rationalisation of production. All this creates high production costs, and it is more and more difficult for English coal to find a break-even market. The extraction of coal in 1913 was 292 million tons, in 1950—220 million tons.

A similar situation in metallurgy: inconvenient location of enterprises, poor development of industrial combination, low productivity of the domain (of course, in comparison with advanced technology). Although after the First World War, some measures were taken to reorganize the old industries, but this did not lead to a serious renewal of the old industries, this requires a radical restructuring of these industries.

The capitalist “nationalisation” of the coal and metallurgical industries, carried out after the Second

World War, also did not get these industries out of difficulties; on the contrary, huge payments to the former owners place a heavy burden on the budgets of these industries, making them difficult to reorganise.

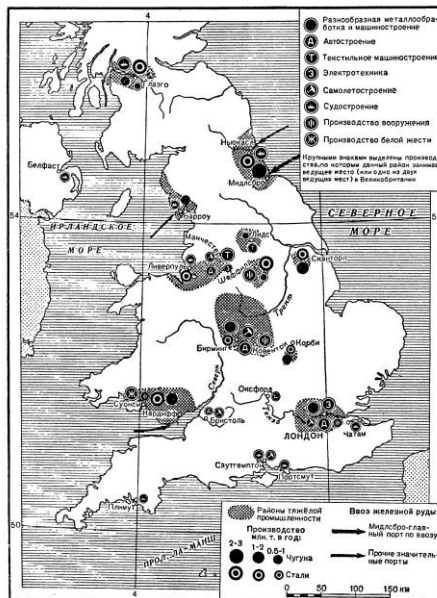


23. Каменноугольные и железорудные бассейны Великобритании.

23. Coal and iron ore basins of Great Britain.

British metallurgical production is characterized by a strong preponderance of steel smelting (about 16 million tons per year) over pig iron smelting (9-10 million tons). This overweight is due to the use of a large amount of scrap iron for steel smelting.

The most important branch of the textile industry is cotton, in second place is woolen, followed by jute and silk. The cotton industry used to provide a huge export of fabrics. After the First World War, in connection with the development of the cotton industry in a number of countries (including colonial ones) that had previously served as markets for English textiles, the export of fabrics from England fell sharply.



24. Металлопромышленность Великобритании.

24. Metal industry in Great Britain.

The old industries developed during the dominance of steam power; they were located at the coal basins, which gave this energy.

New industries. In a more favorable position in comparison with the old export industries are the later emerging industries: electrical engineering, the chemical industry, the production of artificial silk, the automotive and aviation industries. These industries are at a high technical level; they widely use industrial combination.

Initially, they worked mainly for the domestic market, but later some of them (especially electrical engineering, chemistry) took a prominent place in British exports. In their location, they are not as closely related as the old industries associated with coal. Although partly new industries overlapped on the old industrial regions of central and western England, many new businesses sprang up in the London area.

Agriculture

The importance of agriculture in England. In none of the most important capitalist countries agriculture has been reduced to such an insignificant place as in England. Agriculture usually provides less than half of food consumption.

The plowed area is about 1/4 throughout the UK. A much larger area is occupied by meadows. During the war of 1914-1918, and even more during the Second World War, due to the reduction in imports, it was

necessary to take urgent measures to expand the cultivated area.

Agricultural development is hampered by the existing conditions of land tenure and land use. Most of the land belongs to large landowners—landlords. Landlords themselves usually do not manage their farms, but lease the land. Land ownership for them is a source of income, a necessary component of “social status” and a means of entertainment: a significant part of the land is allotted by the lords for parks or heathlands—reserves for hunting. There are no wild animals in England for a long time, with the exception of hunting reserves, and hunting is not a commercial, but purely sporting character.

The main group of farmers is tenant-farmers, leasing plots ranging from 20 to 120 hectares and running a farm with hired workers. Thus, the agricultural proletariat in England is quite numerous.

Agriculture specialisation. British agriculture specialized in highly productive meat and dairy farming (cattle breeding, pig breeding, poultry farming). It supplies cities with valuable, high-quality products designed for a wealthy consumer - fresh meat, beaten poultry, cream, cheese. Almost half of all the cultivated area is occupied by forage grasses and root crops (clover, forage turnip, forage beets). Nevertheless, large quantities of meat and dairy products are imported (from Denmark, New Zealand, Ireland, Argentina). Fruit and vegetable farming is of great importance: gardening and horticulture, especially the

production of various early vegetables (cucumbers, tomatoes, young potatoes, asparagus).

In the western and northern regions of Great Britain, most of the area is occupied by sheep breeding on natural pastures (breeds are bred that give a lot of meat and relatively little wool; England is far from having enough wool).

Of the grain crops in England, oats are the most common, less whimsical to climatic conditions. Only in eastern England is wheat planting of major importance.

Fishing. The seas surrounding the UK are one of the world's premier fishing areas; the annual catch exceeds 1 million tons of fish (most of all herring and cod). The extensive Dogger Bank (in the North Sea) is of particular importance for fishing.

Transport

Domination of the sea has always been one of the main foundations of British power. This follows from the insular position of Great Britain, from the scattered nature of its possessions, from the nature of the British economy, which required a huge supply of food and raw materials, the dispatch of industrial goods and coal abroad. It should also be noted that the British merchant fleet up to the Second World War served not only most of the cargo turnover of the British Empire, but also a very significant share of the cargo turnover of many other countries. The British merchant fleet has 18 million tons (22% of the world's tonnage). During the war, the US fleet has grown greatly, so now England is

at sea much inferior to the United States. Britain's irrecoverable loss of her naval primacy deals a heavy blow to British imperialism.

The most important British ports are London (first in terms of import), Liverpool (first in terms of export), Hull, Manchester, Southampton, Glasgow, Newcastle, Bristol, Cardiff. Dover is of great importance for passenger connections to the mainland. Important military ports are Portsmouth, Plymouth, Chatham.

In the internal cargo turnover, the bulk of goods is carried by railways (in terms of the density of the railway network, England is in second place in the world after Belgium), in the second place is sea transportation by cabotage, in the third place is transportation by inland waterways. England has a dense network of canals and flooded rivers. But most of this network was created a long time ago, channels and gateways are outdated, their throughput is small and not the same in different areas. The Manchester Sea Canal, built at the end of the XIX century; thanks to him, Manchester, located in the interior of the country, became a major seaport.

Foreign Trade and Export of Capital

As an industrial country with an insufficient raw material and food base, England must import a huge amount of raw materials and foodstuffs (cotton, wool, rubber, oil, various ores, timber, bread, butter, meat, tea, sugar, fruits, etc.). If England were cut off from the foreign market for a long time, the population would be doomed to starvation, and industry to almost

complete inaction. On the other hand, the main branches of British industry export a very significant part of their products (textiles, metal products and machinery, chemical products, coal); they cannot develop without foreign sales. From this it is clear how important the importance of foreign trade is for Great Britain, how strong its dependence on the foreign market is.

A feature of British foreign trade is the strong excess of imports over exports. This depends on the following reasons:

1. Receiving huge incomes from the colonies and semi-colonies, the British bourgeoisie could “live widely”, buy expensive goods abroad, without hesitation in payments.

The total amount of British capital invested abroad reached 3.7 billion pounds by the beginning of the Second World War. More than half of this amount was deposited in the countries of the British Empire, most of all in Australia, India, Canada, South Africa. Of the non-British countries, most of the British capital was in the countries of South America (Argentina and Brazil), China and Iran. British capital owns huge sources of raw materials not only in the British Empire, but also in many other countries. Oil companies with British capital extract oil in Venezuela, Iraq and other countries. In the hands of British capital the largest production of rubber (in Malacca), wool (in Australia, New Zealand, South Africa), tin (in Malacca), etc.

Great Britain received 200 million pounds sterling annually from its foreign investments before the Second

World War. In addition, about 100 million pounds sterling of income was received from the transport of foreign goods on British ships. With these revenues, Great Britain used to cover most of its shortfall in foreign trade.

2. Between the two world wars, British industry began to experience serious export difficulties. The lag between export and import increased so much that it was already difficult to cover the difference.

As a result of the Second World War, the financial position of Great Britain deteriorated significantly. The export during the war years was * insignificant and after the war it is restored with great difficulties. Many foreign investments had to be spent on the purchase of various materials and on the conduct of the war. Great Britain has accumulated large military debts. The USA, which increased its industry and its navy during the war, became for Great Britain an even more dangerous rival in trade and shipping than it was before. At the same time, England's reactionary foreign policy is costly: the British government spends huge sums of money on the maintenance of armed forces abroad, the main purpose of which is to suppress democratic movements. The British government received a large loan from the United States (\$3750 million) and quickly spent it to cover its many "gaps". In turn, this loan, provided to England on difficult conditions for her, and then Britain's subordination to the "Marshall Plan", significantly increase the economic and political dependence of British imperialism on US imperialism.

This, however, does not in any way eliminate the contradictions between Britain and the United States.

On the contrary, the invasion of American goods and capital into the countries of the British Empire, the seizure of the richest oil reserves in the Middle East by the American monopolies, like many other actions detrimental to British interests, aggravate Anglo-American contradictions.

Regions

South East England (London district)

General characteristics. South East England is the historical core of Great Britain. This is the commercial and agricultural “old England”, which has become the centre of the greatest colonial power.

The peculiarity of the geographical position of southeast England is its close connection with the mainland. The Thames estuary is located just 250 km from the Scheldt and Rhine estuaries, and the chalk cliffs of the English coast (near Dover) are visible from the French coast in clear weather. Relatively fertile soils and ease of intercourse contributed to the accumulation of a dense agricultural population here. England’s earliest links with mainland Europe were established through the Pas-de-Calais and the southern North Sea.

The industrial revolution, which shifted the centre of gravity of the English economy to the regions of coal and iron, was reflected in two ways in the historical development of “old England”. She created a population retreat to the new industrial areas of northwest England. During the XIX century. population growth in

southeast England, excluding London and its immediate surroundings, was dramatically slower than in the industrial regions of the northwest. With the accelerated growth of British capitalism that began with the Industrial Revolution, London's commercial, financial and political importance is increasing.

The port of London gathers goods from all over the world and distributes them not only throughout England itself, but also across the countries of the European continent. London banks collect capital from the colonies and semi-colonial vassals of England; London becomes the world's financial centre, the capital of a gigantic colonial empire.

In terms of population, London becomes the first city in the world. London retained this primacy until the beginning of the 20th century. From the second decade of the XX century. New York came out on top. In 1938, the population of London proper was 4.1 million, with the suburbs, within the "Greater London", 8.7 million. In 1948, London proper—3.3 million, "Greater London"—8,2 million.

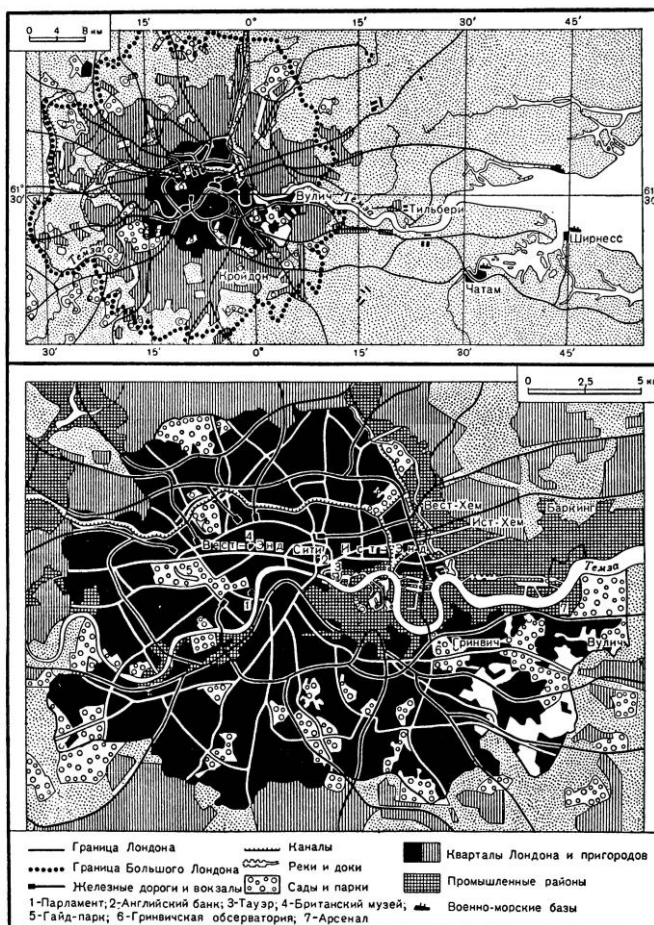
The industry of southeast England before the First World War was limited to the service of sea and rail transport and the large population of London itself (food, shoe, clothing industry). In the period between the two world wars, the industrial importance of the London area grew. Large automobile, electrical, aviation, and chemical factories arose in the London area. However, even now London remains not so much an industrial centre as a financial, trade, transport and administrative centre.

Port of London. London is located on the Thames estuary, which opens a sea route into the southeast of England; it is England's closest sea gateway to the continent. The commercial core of London—the City—arose at the end of the estuary, where it was still deep enough for the passage of ships, but where it was already narrow enough and convenient for building a bridge. At the London Bridge, a junction was formed of sea transport deeply penetrating the country, river navigation on the Thames and land roads that crossed the river along the bridge.

The port of London in terms of its turnover is one of the largest ports in the world (along with New York). More than 1/3 of England's trade turnover passes through it. London imports more than it exports; in terms of export, London is inferior to Liverpool, which serves the main industrial and export region of England.

The modern Port of London stretches 40 km down from London Bridge. With the increase in the tonnage of sea-going vessels, the depth of the Thames at the London Bridge became insufficient for sea-going ships (its minimum at low tide is 2.7 m, maximum at high tide is 8-9 m). For large vessels, it was necessary to build docks in the lower, deeper part of the estuary and to build closed pools that retain a high water level at low tide (docks). The mooring line of London Wharfs is 54 km. Nevertheless, a large part of the unloading of ships is carried out using auxiliary barges. The port of London is characterised by the absence of a general plan in its structures. Access roads to the port are cramped, and traffic along them is so dense that cars can hardly move to warehouses and marinas. The first impression of the

port's work is randomness. Only the vast experience of the port personnel can avoid confusion and delays in cargo operations.



25. Лондон.
25. London.

International political significance of London. During the heyday of British capitalism, London effectively directed the international politics of much of the world. And now London plays a big role as a political centre, where the foreign policy is “made” not only of England itself, but also of many countries connected with it. International conferences have been convened in London many times. On the other hand, London played a prominent role in the past as an international centre for revolutionary emigration. K. Marx lived in London from 1849 until the end of his life (1883), who led the international labor movement from here. The First International is founded in London. The congresses of the RSDLP took place here: II (partially), III and V (1903, 1905, 1907).

Geography of London. In the centre of the city—the City] is the citadel of the commercial and financial might of the English bourgeoisie. Banks, stock exchanges, boards of shipping companies are located here. In the City, deals of world importance are concluded, from here the upper circles of the English bourgeoisie manage their capital. The City has almost no permanent population. In the morning, a human stream rushes here from all parts of London and from its suburbs. At the end of the work, the City becomes empty, less than ten thousand people remain in it at night, almost exclusively security.

West of the City—Westminster, the political centre of London, containing government offices, parliament, ministries, and the highest judicial institutions. Westminster is adjacent to the bourgeois quarters of the West End. There are luxurious mansions of financial magnates and aristocracy, small mansions (cottages) of the smaller bourgeoisie. Here are the main cultural institutions of London—museums,

libraries, clubs, theatres. The decoration of the western quarters is the vast parks for which London is famous. The largest of them is Hyde Park. The workers' quarters, including the gloomy slums of London, are located mainly in the east, near the port. The overcrowding of the population here reaches incredible proportions. Especially "famous" for its slums is the East End, a working-class area that adjoins the City to the east.

The population of London proper, within its official city limits, has long been declining; apartments in London are expensive, and living in the city centre for middle-class people is no longer "affordable". The densest network of railroads, underground and bus lines allows London employees to settle in 30-40 kilometres from the centre. But the density of traffic on the main streets reaches extreme limits, despite the presence of underground roads carrying millions of passengers per day.

During the Second World War, German bombing raids in London caused significant damage. Recovery is extremely slowly, and the housing needs of London workers and employees sharply escalated. One of the main reasons for this is private ownership of land: land owners are asking for huge sums for the right to develop the affected neighbourhoods.

The south of eastern England is a continuous suburb of London. London has pushed its suburbs so far and has so dominated the whole of southeast England that it is not easy to pinpoint exactly where London ends. Even the most remote southeast cities from London are actually its appendages. Dover and Southampton serve as London's out-ports for fast passenger connections. Chatham at the Thames Estuary and Portsmouth on the English Channel are military ports that guard the approaches to London. Fishing ports in eastern and

southern England supply London with fresh fish. Among other cities in southeast England, Oxford and Cambridge stand out—ancient cities famous for their universities. Oxford and Cambridge Universities, founded in the 12th century, are the main centres of English higher education. Teaching (especially in Oxford) is imbued with conservative-aristocratic traditions and nationalism.

Agriculture has retained greater importance in southern and eastern England than in the rest of England. The plain between the lower Thames and the Humber is the driest and sunniest part of the British Isles. Grain farming (wheat, barley) is of great importance here. But the main specialisation of agriculture is the supply of fresh meat and dairy products, vegetables, fruits and flowers to the capital. Even the distant Channel Islands are busy with greenhouses and vegetable gardens supplying new potatoes, tomatoes and flowers to London.

South West England

The southwestern protrusion of England, which ends in the Cornwall Peninsula, is located separately. The influence of London here is no longer as strong as in the southeast, the population is much less frequent. Bristol (located near the Bay of Bristol) is a significant port and industrial centre. Plymouth is located on the shores of the English Channel—one of the most important military ports in England.

North and West England

North and West England is a land of coal, metal and textiles. Here are the world's oldest large factory areas. They are located near the coal basins. There is no such universal centre as London is in the south.

Metalworking areas of Birmingham and Sheffield.

Birmingham is located in the Central English Plain, south of the Pennines. Sheffield is located on the eastern edge of the Pennine. Both of these cities are the oldest centres of English metallurgy and metalworking. Smelting iron from local ores on charcoal began in them since ancient times. During the industrialisation of England, Birmingham and Sheffield played a leading role in the creation of English heavy industry.

Both Birmingham and Sheffield are overgrown with industrial suburbs. Each became the centre of a whole area of various metal industries. The industry of Birmingham and its environs is especially diverse. Here you can find all production processes—from steel smelting to the manufacture of the finest products. A huge number of guns, revolvers, various machines, carriages, cars, bicycles, electrical apparatus, scientific instruments, bronze items and all kinds of small iron goods: locks, knives, nails, pins, fishhooks, feathers are produced here. There are many aircraft factories in the vicinity of Birmingham (especially in Coventry). Along with the newest large factories in Birmingham there are many small old businesses.

Sheffield is a city of steel. He specialised in the production of quality steel and steel products: heavy

weapons, armor, railway wheels and axles, looms, etc. Sheffield and Birmingham are the main centres for the production of weapons in England. They are home to the factories of Vickers, one of the world's largest military manufacturing firms.

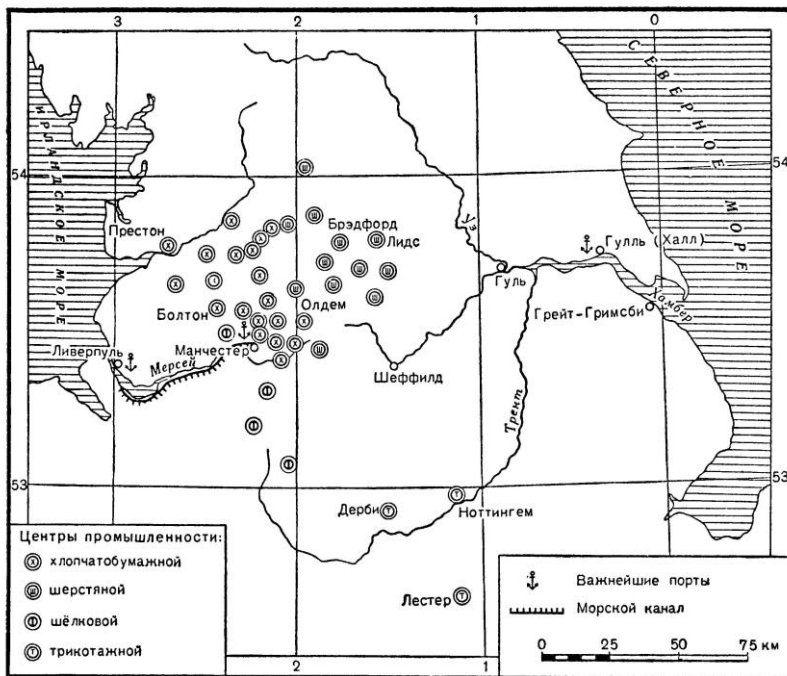
The area of Birmingham is known as the Black Country. At one time, for the first time, he showed in all its ugliness a picture of a capitalist mining region, completely devoid of greenery, littered with coal and slag, eternally shrouded in smoke, with barracks factory buildings and with ugly shacks inhabited by working people.

Coal and metallurgical region of South Wales. The wide Wales Peninsula, pushed to the west, is a rather rugged mountainous country. Most of it is sparsely populated. But along the southern edge of the mountainous country, off the coast of Bristol Bay, there is a large industrial area. The main wealth of this region is high-grade coal, which has a high calorific value and gives very little ash when burned; The "Cardiff" coal grade is world-renowned as a fuel for steam engines. Coal seams come to the surface in many places. The proximity of the deposit to the sea facilitates the transport of coal. Coal was exported in large quantities from here abroad, but since the Second World War, the export of coal has dropped. The main coal port is Cardiff.

The South Wales iron ore industry used to use local iron ore; with its depletion, metallurgy switched to imported ore and concentrated on the coast itself; her specialty is the production of steel, from which tin

(tinned with tin) is also made here, which goes to tanks, cans, etc.

The textile districts of Lancashire and Yorkshire.
On both sides of the Pennine Mountains are England's two main textile districts: Lancashire Cotton District on the west side and Yorkshire Wool District on the east.



26. Текстильная промышленность Ланкаширского и Йоркширского районов.

26. Textile industry in Lancashire and Yorkshire regions.

There is a close connection between both areas. The Pennine Mountains separating them are low and cut by valleys, along which not only railways are drawn, but also canals connecting the rivers of the eastern and western slopes. In both areas, the textile industry is combined with the mining of coal and with the production of machinery for the textile industry, as well as with the electrical, chemical and military industries, especially in Lancashire during the Second World War. In both areas, huge accumulations of the industrial population were formed. But the Lancashire region is ahead of Yorkshire in terms of industrial importance, in terms of industrial diversity, in the development of foreign trade, in terms of the size of cities.

The Pennines region has long been an area of sheep breeding and rural hand-woven wool; the local population developed skills for spinning and weaving. The impetus for the development of cotton production was given by the appearance of Indian calicoes in England; large the demand for them sparked the birth of the British cotton industry. Liverpool, which had longstanding trade ties with America, became a supplier of cotton for Lancashire. Motive power for enterprises were originally provided by rivers flowing from the slopes of the Pennines. With the invention of the steam engine and with the transition of industry to coal fuel began using the coalfields of Lancashire and Yorkshire. Finally, the moisture in the air, especially in Lancashire, gave the yarn the necessary elasticity.

The cotton industry was a new industry for England industry Its development gave impetus to inventions in the mechanization of spinning and weaving. Inventions

made in Lancashire cotton industry, made a complete revolution in the technique of all textile production.

The main centres of Lancashire are Liverpool and Manchester. Liverpool is located at the confluence of the Irish Sea. Mersey, Manchester—45 km east of it. They are connected by five double-track railway lines and a canal accessible to sea vessels.

Liverpool is the main port of western England. In terms of export, it ranks first in the UK, in terms of import—second after London. Liverpool's main trade ties are with America, West Africa, and partly with Australia and India. Liverpool imports—cotton, wool, non-ferrous metals, oil; export—fabrics, yarns, textile machinery, electrical and chemical products. Liverpool is one of the world's most important ports both in terms of turnover and equipment.

Manchester is located in the heart of the Lancashire Industrial Region. Around him is a whole constellation of industrial cities; each specialized in certain types of yarns and fabrics. Many enterprises are engaged in ancillary industries: finishing and dyeing fabrics, production of dyes, etc. Textile machinery factories not only serve the British industry, but also send a large number of machines abroad.

Factories and plants are located mainly in the suburbs of Manchester. In Manchester itself there are trade enterprises, offices and warehouses. Thanks to the canal, Manchester has become a significant port.

In the Yorkshire Woolen District, the main industrial centres are Bradford and Leeds. Yorkshire's main port is Gull, located on the banks of the Humber.

Coal, metallurgical and shipbuilding region of northern England. This area is located along the north-east coast of England. Along the coastline stretches a coal basin, one of the most powerful in England.

The centre of the coal region of Newcastle, located at the mouth of the river. Newcastle is the main coal port on the east coast of England and one of the largest shipbuilding centres. Outwardly, it is a city completely black from coal soot and dust.

To the south is Middlesbrough, a large metallurgical centre; nearby there are deposits of iron ore, but a lot of foreign ore of higher quality than the local one is also brought here. Newcastle and Middlesbrough have a large chemical industry.

Scotland

The main industrial and agricultural region of Scotland is the Lowlands of Scotland. On the river Clyde is located Glasgow—the largest industrial centre of Scotland (1.1 million inhabitants). The Glasgow area is an old coal and steel industry.

Glasgow is the UK's most important shipbuilding centre. On the lower reaches of the Clyde, shipyards stretch for many kilometres. Many of the largest ships in the British merchant and navy were built here. In addition to the coal, metallurgical and shipbuilding industries, there are many textile, chemical and glass industries in the Glasgow area.

Glasgow is one of the largest work centres in the UK. Its working-class quarters are notorious: they are

not worse and dirtier, even among the slums of East London.

On the eastern edge of the Lowlands, near the Firth of Forth, there is Edinburgh, the national centre of Scotland (formerly its capital). Edinburgh has a university, the Scottish Supreme Court, printing houses, and museums.

Highlands of Scotland. The Scottish Highlands, which occupy most of Scotland, is a sparsely populated, backward region. The natural conditions are rather harsh; fertile soils are found only in valleys and on the coast. The main branch of the economy is cattle breeding, but it is not developing either. An insignificant part of the area is under processing. The main crop is oats. On the coast, the population lives by fishing.

The South Scottish Highlands are lower and smaller in area than the North Highlands. Moreover, it is located on the routes connecting England with Central Scotland. The population is higher than in the north. In the mountains - sheep breeding, in the lowlands - cattle farms and fields of barley and wheat. Towns are small; their main industry is the production of woolen fabrics.

The coast of Scotland and the surrounding islands are richly closed bays and bays. It is home to a number of British naval bases (including the important Scapa Flow base in the Orkney Islands).

BRITISH EMPIRE

Dimensions and meaning. The British Empire is spread over all parts of the world and in all belts of the earth - from the Arctic to the Antarctic. According to official figures, the area of the British Empire (including Great Britain) 33 million sq. km\population over 560 million people, that is, almost 1/4 of the entire territory and the entire population of the globe. In addition, part of the uninhabited areas of Antarctica is considered to belong to the UK.

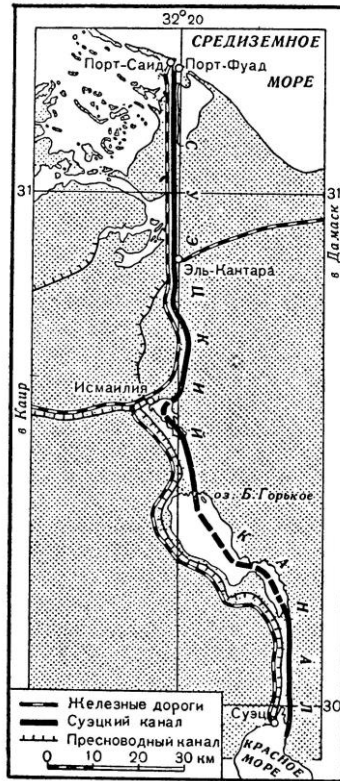
The official name of the British Empire, which has come into use lately, is the British Commonwealth of Nations. The purpose of this “democratic” name is to mask the imperialist essence of British colonial rule.

Great Britain itself occupies in the British Empire only 1/135 by area and 1/11 by population.

Possession of a colonial empire is the main strength Great Britain. Within the British Empire are diversified resources. So, British possessions give 2/3 world gold production, about 9/10 of world nickel production, almost 2/3 manganese, 30 to 40% tin, copper, zinc, lead, half world production of rubber and wool (world production taken without the USSR). There are, however, resources that the British the empire is not sufficiently secured. This is the situation with oil (within the British Empire, about 3% of the world oil production). English capital compensates for this deficiency those that develop oil fields in countries not included in the British Empire—in Venezuela, in Iraq, in Indonesia. British possessions represent a large market sales for English manufactured goods. They also house

most of the capital exported from England. Finally, possessions located around the world, among which there are many strategically important points, allow England control most of the most important sea routes.

Composition of the British Empire. The British Empire is made up of countries at different levels of development and varying degrees of dependence on Great Britain. The most developed parts of the British Empire have long since achieved self-government. These are the dominions: Canada, the Australian Union, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa. The predominant population of the first three are from Great Britain.



28. Суэцкий канал.

28. The Suez canal.

Each dominion has the usual organs of a bourgeois-democratic state system—parliament, ministries. Dominions can have diplomatic representatives in other states, conclude treaties. They are members of the United Nations. But they cannot be considered independent. They are bound with England by agreements on mutual customs privileges; large British

capital is invested in their economy. After the Second World War, the influence of the United States in the British dominions increased.

The main base of British colonial power has long been India, accounting for over 70% the population of the entire British Empire. Under the pressure of the liberation movement that erupted in India after second world war, British the government was forced to go for concessions: in India two dominions formed: India (Indian Union) and Pakistan (see. on this in the chapter on India). This did not satisfy the Indian masses demanding full independence, while the British government is trying in every possible way, under the guise of concessions, to preserve dominant positions in India. In 1948, the dominion also became Ceylon.

In addition to the dominions, the British Empire includes many colonies and protectorates. Colonies, for example, include all British possessions in America, except Canada (Jamaica, Trinidad, British Guiana, etc.), as well as many possessions in other parts of the world, including such small but strategically important possessions such as Gibraltar. Malta, Aden, Hong Kong. Protectorates differ from the colonies proper in that in them a certain semblance of power is retained by the local kings or princelings. In fact, they are left with some income and honor, but in essence they are in complete subordination to the British officials assigned to them. This is the position, for example, of some British possessions in Africa and Arabia. By preserving their honorable position for the local rulers, the imperialists thereby attract them and the local nobility

surrounding them to their side, make them their accomplices in the oppression of the masses.

Finally, the British Empire has wards (former mandate) territories. These are the former German possessions, transferred after the First World War to Great Britain itself or its dominions. Such are, for example, Tanganyika—in Africa (guardianship of Great Britain), the former Germanic New Guinea (guardianship of the Australian Union). Their position is not much different from that of the colonies.

Geography of the British Empire. The main possessions of the British Empire are concentrated in the basins of the Atlantic and Indian oceans. The power of Great Britain was born in the Atlantic part and the beginning of its colonial expansion was laid. In the eastern part of the Atlantic Ocean is the metropolis itself, on the opposite side of the ocean—Canada and the West Indian colonies, the oldest possessions of England; on the African coast—Nigeria, the Gold Coast and other colonies, as well as the Union of South Africa, facing both the Atlantic and Indian oceans.

The main sea routes of the British Empire diverge from the metropolis: the route to India and Australia through the Mediterranean Sea and the Suez Canal, the route to South Africa and around it to the Indian Ocean, the transatlantic routes to Canada and the West Indies.

The bulk of the British colonial possessions lies along the shores of the Indian Ocean. It is the lifeblood of England's colonial empire. The Indian Ocean is almost entirely surrounded by British possessions. In the west, in Africa, there is a chain of English possessions and

countries dependent on England—from Egypt to the Union of South Africa (including Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Kenya, Tanganyika, Northern and Southern Rhodesia), in the east—the Australian Union facing the Indian the ocean with its western part, in the north—India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Malay possessions. The latter are located on the border of the Indian and Pacific Oceans.



29. Гибралтар.

29. Gibraltar.

The entrances to the Indian Ocean and the routes through it are guarded by a chain of naval bases; the main ones are: from the Mediterranean Sea—Aden, from the South Atlantic Ocean—the Simonstown base (near Cape Town), from the Pacific Ocean—Singapore.

The connecting link between the Atlantic and Indian parts of the empire is the path: Strait of Gibraltar—Mediterranean Sea—Suez Canal—Red Sea. Here passes main highway of imperial relations (Great Britain—India

with further ramifications). The Suez Canal also carries out almost all shipping traffic of Europe with the countries of South and East Asia, Australia and East Africa. The Suez Canal is 160 km long. In 1949, through the canal transported 69 million tons of cargo, more than half of which is oil from Iran and Arabia. The strategic importance of this connecting section great imperial path huge. He is guarded chain of naval bases: at the western entrance to the Mediterranean Sea—Gibraltar, in the middle - an island Malta, in the east—the fortified island of Cyprus, Alexandria and Port Said (in Egypt), Aden (at the exit to the Indian Ocean).



30. Сингапур.

30. Singapore



31. Аден.

31. Aden.

Another route to the Indian Ocean is around Africa. The most important strategic importance here is the Union of South Africa.

In the Pacific Ocean, England's positions are relatively stronger in its southwestern part, that is, near the border with the Indian Ocean. Here are New Zealand, the Australian Union with the eastern part of New Guinea, the Malay possessions with a naval base in Singapore (in the Strait of Malacca), Hong Kong (off the coast of South China). In America, the Pacific Ocean is adjacent to the small islands belonging to England, scattered across the Pacific Ocean, especially in its

southern part. In general, however, England's position in the Pacific is weaker than in the Atlantic and Indian Oceans.

IRELAND

The island of Ireland is politically divided into two parts: 1) Northern Ireland, part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland; area of 14 thousand sq. km, population 1.3 million; main city—Belfast, 2) Republic of Ireland (Irish name—Eire)} area 69 thousand square meters. km, population 3 million. The state system is a republic. The capital is Dublin. The Irish, who make up the main population of Ireland, belong to the Celtic group. As a result of England's centuries of subjugation, most Irish people speak English; nevertheless, they represent a separate nation. The Irish government is seeking to restore the national language of the Irish.

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Natural conditions. The entire middle part of the island is a low-lying plain; on the northern and southern outskirts, low mountain ranges rise, separated by wide

valleys. The climate of Ireland, like that of the west coast of Great Britain, is typically oceanic, humid, sunless, more favorable for grassland and grassland than crops. The rivers of Ireland are small but deep; the main river Shannon flows through a chain of lakes, and a large power plant is built on it. Ireland is not rich in fossils. There are only large reserves of peat.

Republic of Ireland (Eire). The development of Ireland for many centuries was stifled by the oppression of England. The British government suppressed the Irish national liberation movement, but under the influence of the revolutionary movement that swept Ireland by the end of the First World War, it was forced to make concessions and grant most of Ireland the rights of dominion (in 1921). In 1937 Ireland declared itself an independent republic. During the Second World War, Ireland did not oppose the fascist aggressors, maintained friendly relations with them, and at the same time took an unfriendly position towards the Soviet Union.

The consequence of the colonial oppression that gravitated over Ireland is its economic backwardness. Beginning in 1845-1846, when the crop failure caused a terrible famine, there was a massive emigration from Ireland, most of all to the United States. In 60 years, the population has almost halved.

The backbone of the Irish economy is animal husbandry. Livestock and livestock products (pork, poultry, dairy products, eggs) account for 2/3 of all exports from Ireland. The vast majority of Irish exports go to England. Farming in the background (main crops:

potatoes, oats and fodder roots). The area under the meadows more than under arable land; his bread is in short supply.

In Ireland, small-property poor farms predominate, usually not making ends meet; from this unsecured mass, a small but strong group of kulak masters stands out.

The most developed branch of the Irish industry is the food industry (brewing, butter-making, cheese-making, flour-grinding, bacon production, etc.). The main industrial centres and seaports of Ireland are Dublin (490 thousand inhabitants) and Cork.

Northern Ireland, which remained part of the United Kingdom, has long been the base of English rule in Ireland. Here in the middle of the 17th century, a massive confiscation of Irish lands was carried out, and British military colonists were settled there. The bourgeoisie of Northern Ireland is closely connected with the British bourgeoisie. But the bulk of the working people are Irish. Industry is more significant here than in the rest of Ireland. Belfast (440 thousand inhabitants) is a major centre of shipbuilding and linen industry. Agriculture (oats, potatoes, flax) and animal husbandry are well developed.

FRANCE

France is located in the west of the European mainland. She owns the island of Corsica on the Mediterranean Sea. The area of France is 551 thousand square meters km / population—41 million. The capital is Paris. The political system is a bourgeois republic.

Since the bourgeois revolution of 1789-1794. France is administratively divided into departments. But in geographical literature, more often, than the name of the departments, the names of the former provinces are used, into which the country was divided before the revolution. Many of these historical provinces have retained their characteristic features in the economy, in everyday life, in dialect population, in the nature of buildings; this explains the persistence of the old names. The most important historical provinces: Provence and Langdock (in south), Gascony (southwest), Brittany, Normandy (northwest), Burgundy (Saone Valley), Champagne (east of Paris), Lorraine (on northeast) and Alsace (along the Rhine).

Natural conditions

Geographical location, borders. France has two fronts of sea borders. One front (in the northwest and west) it faces the Atlantic Ocean, the other (in the south) - to the Mediterranean Sea. Of the Western European states, only Spain, France's southern neighbor, is in a similar position. But Spain is far removed from the most important centres of the

European economy; France, on the other hand, adjoins a number of countries on a wide front: Belgium, Germany, Switzerland and Italy; only a narrow strait separates it from England.

The Pyrenees, dividing France and Spain, represent an inaccessible mountain border, especially in the central part.

The borders with Italy and Switzerland run along the western Alps and Jura. The Alps are higher than the Pyrenees, but more convenient for intercourse; the passes between France and Italy are relatively low and accessible. The most important railroad crossing the Alps on the Franco-Italian border is the Mont Cenis Tunnel. The border with Germany partly runs along the Rhine, but along the entire northeastern border (with Belgium, Luxembourg, partly with Germany) there is no natural border. The lowlands of northern France merge with the lowlands of western Belgium, which in turn merges into the lowlands of the Netherlands and northern Germany. This is an open road for both peaceful relations and military clashes. The total length of the borders of France is 5300 km, of which 3100 km fall on the sea borders. The Atlantic Ocean off the coast of France forms the English Channel and the wide Bay of Biscay. France's connection with the two seas contributed to its early economic development. Since ancient times, trade routes have run through the territory of France, connecting the Mediterranean countries with the countries adjacent to the North Sea and the English Channel.

Surface. Rivers. The surface of France is divided approximately equally between lowlands and highlands. The location and structure of the mountains are such that they do not create great inconveniences for either agriculture or transport. As we have seen, high mountains are on the outskirts: the Pyrenees in the southwest, the Alps in the southeast. The highest point of the Alps—Mont Blanc (4810 m)—is located in France on the border with Italy.

The mountains of the interior regions of France are ancient massifs, strongly eroded and smoothed. This is the Massif Central, which occupies a vast area in the south-central parts of the country. Geologically, it is the oldest skeleton in France. Its surface is a wavy plateau. In the southeast, the Massif Central rises rather steeply over the Mediterranean coast and the Rhone Valley (the elevated edge of the massif bears the name of the Cévennes), to the north and west it descends gently. In the central part of the massif, there are groups of extinct volcanoes (Cantal and Mont-Dor), reaching almost 1900 m. Another group ancient mountains—in the northeast. These are the Vosges (up to 1420 l “) and the low Ardennes, lying for the most part within Belgium.

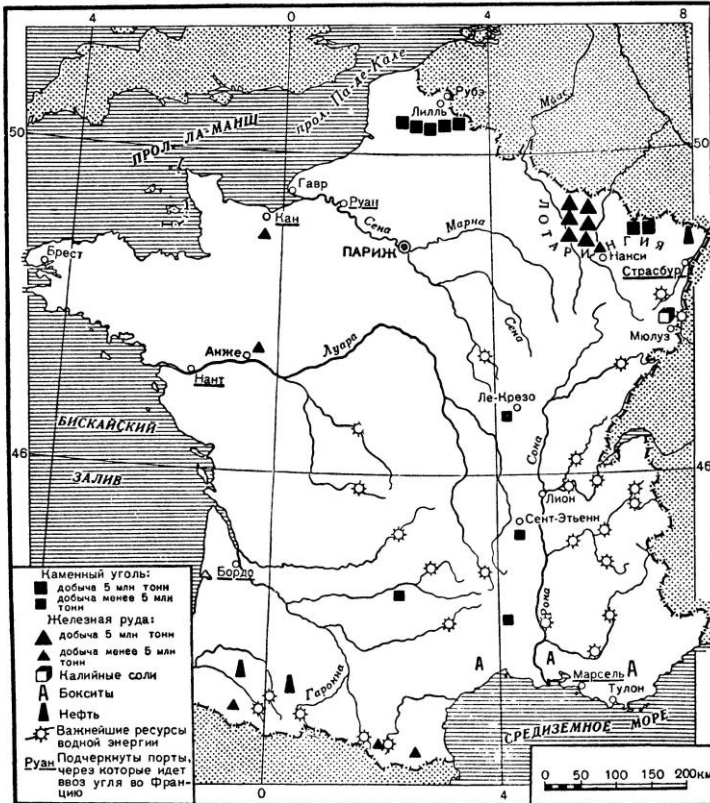
Eastern France is dominated by mountainous terrain, leaving no room for wide lowlands. Between the Massif Central and the Alps lies the narrow lowland of the Rhone-Saone, overlooking the Mediterranean Sea. France owns the western part of the Upper Rhine Valley, which forms a passage between the French Vosges and the German Black Forest.

Most of France's river network belongs to the Atlantic Ocean basin. The main watershed is the Central Massif. Many rivers originate on it, which then diverge to the north and west. The English Channel flows Seine (770 km long); its main tributaries are the Marne and the Oise. The Loire (1000 km long) and the Garonne with the Dordogne flow into the Bay of Biscay, forming a common estuary called the Gironde. A number of important rivers in the north are partly owned by France; such are Scheldt, Meuse (French. Mesa), Losel and Rhine (left bank). Only one large river flows into the Mediterranean Sea - the Rhone with a tributary of the Sona (the length of the Rhone is 760 km). The upper reaches and tributaries of the rivers are close fit together; it was not difficult to connect them with channels. The rivers of northern France are most convenient for navigation, primarily the Seine. The southern rivers have drawbacks: the Loire and Garonne often overflow widely (after heavy rains on the Massif Central), but in summer they become very shallow; The Rhone, which feeds on alpine glaciers, is deep, but has a steep dip. The estuaries of the Seine, Loire and Garonne are important for maritime traffic.

The river valleys are of great importance as land roads linking parts of France. Especially important is the significance of the Rhone-Sona valley, which runs into a narrow corridor between the Massif Central and the Alps: it allows access deep into France from the Mediterranean Sea and is connected convenient passages with the Seine and Rhine valleys leading to English Channel and the North Sea. These are the

historical routes of trade colonization and military movements.

Mineral resources and hydropower. France is rich in iron and poor in coal. The main coal basin is located in the north, near the Belgian border; it represents an extension of the Belgian coalfield. Coal seams quite deep and do not differ in power. Few good coking coal. Oil reserves in France are negligible. Mountain rivers flowing from the Alps, from the Pyrenees and from the Massif Central, form large reserves of water energy.



32. Ископаемые богатства и водная энергия Франции.

32. Fossil wealth and water energy of France.

In terms of iron ore reserves, France ranks third among the capitalist countries in the world (after the United States and Brazil). The reserves of the metal contained in the ore are over 3 billion tons. The main iron ore basin is in the northeast, in Lorraine. The metal content in Lorraine ores is low. But the ores in Lorraine lie conveniently for development: shallow, almost

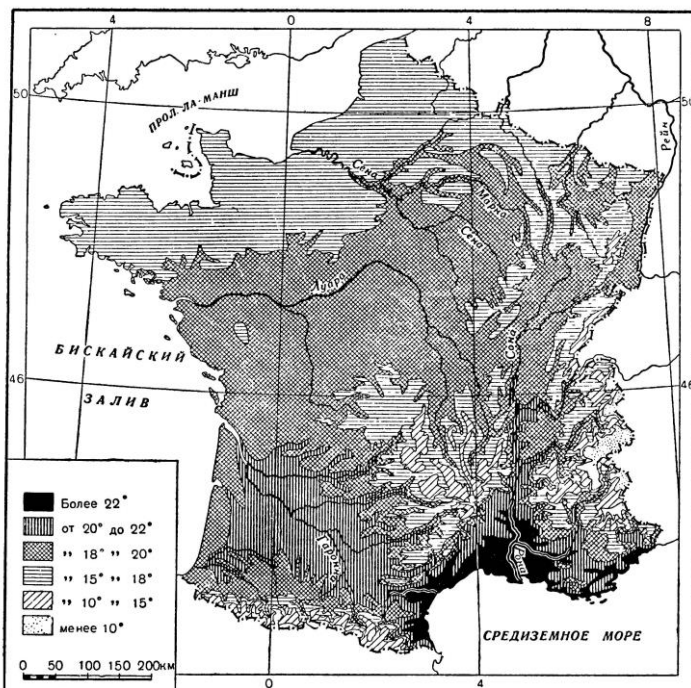
horizontally, without abrupt displacements and interruptions.

Among other minerals, France has large reserves of bauxite (from which aluminum is extracted) and potassium salts (used for fertilization). Bauxite deposits, very powerful and of high quality, are located in the south - in Provence, potassium salts—in Alsace.

Climate, soil, vegetation. France is distinguished by a wide variety of climatic conditions. Western France has a maritime climate. Brittany is characterized by a particularly mild and humid climate with a large number of cloudy days and strong winds. The average summer temperature in western Brittany is 16°, the average winter temperature is 7°; climatic conditions here are reminiscent of southwestern England. As you move eastward, the difference in winter and summer temperatures increases; here the climate is already approaching the temperate continental, more often cold, windless days in winter and sunny, hot weather in summer.

The central massif is distinguished by a somewhat more severe climate; in its upper zone, winter is snowy with cold winds.

The Mediterranean coast, closed from the north by the Alps and Massif Central, is in an area of the subtropical Mediterranean climate. Here summers are hot and dry; the prevailing winds are from the south; average summer temperature 22°; warm winters (8°) with significant precipitation; but sometimes there are sudden sharp drops in temperature; they are brought by mistral—a cold wind blowing from the Massif Central.



33. Температура июля на земной поверхности во Франции.

33. July temperature on the earth's surface in France.

Most of France's soils are highly fertile, especially in the Paris Basin area. But there are areas where poor soils prevail. These include: most of the Massif Central, high-mountainous areas of the Alps and Pyrenees, Brittany (where significant areas are occupied by rocky uplands with wastelands located on them), sandy lowlands off the coast of the Bay of Biscay (Landa).

Parts of France vary greatly in terms of vegetation and agricultural conditions. Mediterranean coast—an

area of grapes, olive trees, mulberries, oranges; the grapes come north to the southeastern part of the Paris Basin (Champagne region). The northwest, especially Brittany, is reminiscent of England in the nature of the vegetation: on the hills—moorlands, many swamps; on comfortable lands—meadows with succulent grasses or arable land surrounded by hedges. The north and northeast are already approaching Central Europe in terms of agricultural conditions.

Forests cover 20% of the total area of France—much more than in England, but less than in Germany. On the plains convenient for agriculture, large forests have long been cleared, but groves and groups of trees are found almost everywhere; deciduous species predominate—oak, beech, hornbeam, ash; along the river valleys—willows and poplar. Natural forests are most preserved in the mountainous regions of eastern France: in the Vosges, in the Jura, in the Alps; here, along with deciduous species, a large place is occupied by spruce and fir; in the forests of the Mediterranean strip - chestnut and cork oak. A significant part of the forest area is made up of planted forests. Particularly large plantations are made in the sandy wastelands (lands) of southwestern France; there are large tracts of pine forest (seaside pine), but in recent years, forest fires have caused enormous devastation.

Population

Ethnic composition.

The French, who make up the bulk of the population, belong to the language of the Romance group of European peoples¹.

France's national minorities are located in the outlying areas. Bretons live in western Brittany (about 1 million), the descendants of the ancient Celts, who still retain their language, similar to that of the Celts in Wales (in England). In the extreme southwest, in the Pyrenees mountains, live the Basques, the descendants of the ancient Iberian people who once inhabited southwestern France. The population of Corsica (about 300 thousand) speaks the Corsican dialect of the Italian language. In the far north, near the Belgian border, there is a group of Flemings who speak the Flemish language, which is close to the Dutch language. Most of the population of Alsace and north-eastern Lorraine speaks the Alsatian dialect of German.

Weak population growth. Immigration. The natural increase in the population of France has long been negligible. In the last years before the Second World War, the growth stopped altogether. This is an

¹ The Romance group includes peoples whose language developed on the basis of the Latin language. Among the Romanesque peoples, in addition to the French, include the Spaniards, Italians, Portuguese, southern Belgians (Walloons), Romanians.

extremely troubling question for France; the proportion of France in the population of Europe is continuously decreasing. In 1800 France (within its present-day borders) was the first country in Europe in terms of population (excluding Russia). In the XX century, it came down to fourth place (after Germany, Great Britain and Italy).

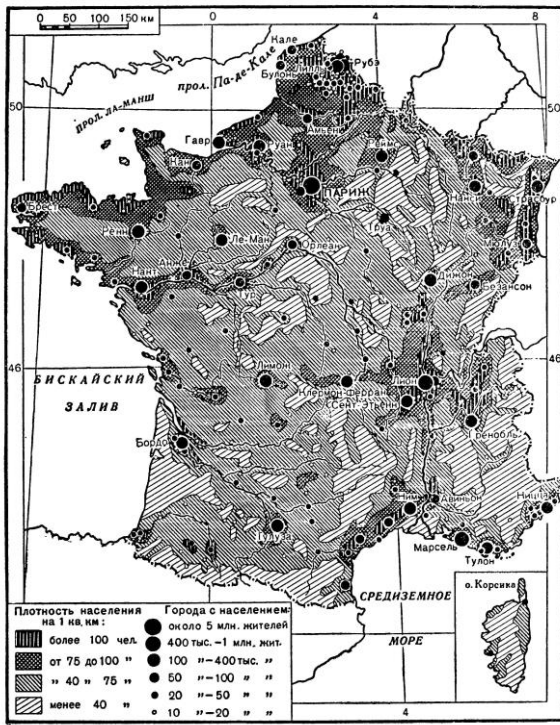
The situation would be even worse if not for the influx of foreigners; there are over 2 million of them in France, not counting those foreigners who have taken French citizenship.

After the First World War, the work to rebuild the destroyed areas required a large number of additional labor, which the war-bled France could not provide. These additional working hands were provided by immigration (most of all from Italy and Poland). Mass labor immigration played a huge role in the restoration of the French economy; the influx of labor into France went almost nonstop until 1932, when the crisis stopped it and caused a return ebb. During the Second World War, the population of France decreased by about 1 million people: from the excess of mortality over the birth rate among the civilian population, from losses in the war and in German captivity.

Population density. Cities. The average population density is 75 people per 1 sq. km, i.e., almost 3 times less than in Great Britain. In industrial areas, the population density in some places exceeds 300 people per 1 sq. km \ but such clusters of industrial cities, as, for example, in English Lancashire, in France are not. A

little more than half of the country's total population lives in cities.

Among the cities of France, Paris is the first in terms of both population and importance (with the suburbs of about 5 million inhabitants). The cities next to Paris in size are Marseille (636 thousand), Lyon, Toulouse, Bordeaux.



34. Плотность населения Франции.

34. The population density of France.

Features of the development of France

Weak industrial development in France before the First World War. At the beginning of the XX century. France was an agrarian-industrial country with a slowed down industrial development in comparison with the advanced capitalist countries. The production of consumer goods predominated in industry; especially the textile industry and the production of luxury goods based on manual labor. France exported silk and cotton fabrics, dresses, perfumes, jewelry to the foreign market, and wines, cheeses, fruits from agricultural products. Machine production was insufficient; France imported textile machines, steam locomotives, engines, agricultural machines.

Among the reasons that hindered the industrial development of France, it should be noted:

1. The backwardness of French agriculture and the predominance in the French countryside of the poor land-poor peasantry, which was a poor buyer of industrial products; this retarded the development of the internal market for industry, at the same time the attachment of the mass of the peasantry to the land impeded the creation of the proletarian cadres needed for large-scale industry.

2. Poor coal—a significant part of the fuel for the industry had to be brought from abroad.

3. Defeat in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871, which led to the loss of important areas—Alsace and part of Lorraine—and strengthened Germany at the expense of France.

4. The outflow of a significant part of French capital abroad. The French bourgeoisie found it more profitable to export part of its capital abroad than to invest in French industry. Most often this was done in the form of loans given to other states. France was an international money lender.

France after the first world war. Under the Versailles Treaty, France regained Alsace and Lorraine. In Lorraine, France received not only half of the Lorraine iron ore basin, but also large metallurgical plants. In Alsace, France received rich deposits of potash salts and significant industries (textiles and mechanical engineering). The Saar coal mines temporarily passed to France. France received the largest share of German reparations.

Work on the restoration of destroyed areas was of great importance for the development of French industry. This work, which was carried out in an intense manner from 1919 to 1926, created a huge demand for building materials, for industrial and transport equipment for chemical fertilizers. Industry in the devastated areas had to be built almost anew. New large factories were built in place of small, obsolete enterprises. Thus, the technical equipment of French industry has been largely renewed. As a result, the importance of industry in the economy of France increased. The industrial population is almost on a par with the agricultural population. Still agriculture retains greater importance in France not only in comparison with England, but also in comparison with Germany.

Modern France. Despite the aforementioned favorable conditions for France after the First World War, France entered the Second World War weakened and unprepared both economically and militarily. The main reason for this is the reactionary policy of the French big bourgeoisie, the leading part of which directly betrayed the national interests of their country. In the years preceding the Second World War, the ruling circles of France directed all their energy not to the economic and military strengthening of the country, but to the oppression of the French working class, which they feared more than German fascism. This also explains the speed with which the ruling circles of the French bourgeoisie capitulated to Nazi Germany. Many of the largest French industrialists, after surrendering, began to work for the Germans.

France, like other European countries, was liberated from fascist occupation thanks to the victories of the Soviet Army, which defeated the main German fascist forces in the east. After liberation during 1945-1946, thanks to the efforts of the French workers and the leadership of the ministries of industry and labor, headed by the communists, significant successes were achieved in restoring the economy of France. Some industries have reached pre-war production levels. During the same time, some sectors of the economy were nationalized (coal mining, large power plants, the main enterprises of sea transport). At this, however, nationalization stopped, and the course of economic recovery slowed down. The French government, from which the communists were expelled, began to turn more and more towards a reactionary course. The main

reason for this turn is the pressure of American imperialism, which supports the reactionary forces of France in their struggle against democracy and tries to use the weakening of France to subordinate it to its goals.

France submitted to the “Marshall Plan” and joined the aggressive US-British bloc. The French economy has been brought under the control of American monopolies. Submitting to the American warmongers, France is increasing its armed forces, spending unbearable means. For the French working class, the reactionary offensive brought a sharp drop in wages.

The specificity of modern France is that there are essentially two France: France is a rotten, weakened imperialist power, trying to escape from the final collapse of groveling before American imperialism and the sale of the national independence of the French people, and France is democratic, faithful to the best traditions of the French working class and representing a serious strength in ranks of the democratic anti-imperialist camp.

Political system. France, like England, is one of the countries with a long-standing dominance of the big bourgeoisie. But, unlike England, France from the end of the XVIII century. experienced a series of deep revolutionary upheavals. French Revolution 1789-1794 not only laid the foundations of bourgeois democracy in France, but had worldwide significance. The Paris Commune of 1871 was the world’s first experience of the dictatorship of the proletariat. The political system of France has repeatedly broken down. The working

class is richer in experience of revolutionary struggle than in England.

Another essential feature of France that distinguishes it from England is the presence of significant strata of the population occupying an intermediate position between the big bourgeoisie and the proletariat; it is primarily the mass of small peasants.

In connection with the specified features of political life (repeated changes in political regimes, the significant role of fluctuating intermediate layers), France did not develop the same system of few stable parties as in England. Bourgeois parties in France are numerous, some of them differ little from each other, they often change their political colour and names. Thus, the catastrophe of France in the Second World War, which exposed the betrayal and mediocrity of the ruling parties, forced a number of parties to reorganize, new parties arose. Only the Communist Party (which emerged in 1920) emerged from the trials of the Second World War, which raised its authority and strengthened organizationally. Today it is the most massive party in France. It is waging an energetic struggle for the unity of the working class and for the improvement of its position, for the democratization of France, for its economic restoration, for the development of ties with the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracies, against submission to the interests of American imperialism, which is fatal for France.

According to the constitution of the French Republic, adopted in 1946, parliament consists of two chambers—the National Assembly and the Council of the

Republic. The National Assembly, elected by the people through direct elections, is the legislative body. The Council of the Republic, elected according to a complex two-degree system, has a consultative character. Both chambers jointly elect the president of the republic (for 7 years). The President appoints the Chairman of the Council of Ministers, who forms the council itself, but approved by the National Assembly (through a “vote of confidence”). The 1946 Constitution was more democratic in form than the previous one (for example, women were granted electoral rights - they did not have them before). But the essence of the political system lies not in constitutional forms, but in what classes own the main levers of power (large industry, banks, etc.). On the example of France, one can clearly trace the contradiction between relatively democratic forms and the reactionary content of the political system, a contradiction that is very characteristic of the states of bourgeois democracy. Thus, in the elections to the National Assembly (in 1946), the Communist Party held there are more deputies than any party; despite this, in the summer of 1947, under US pressure, the communists were removed from the government. Thereafter, the democratic provisions of the constitution began to be violated at every step. And in 1951 the electoral law underwent a reactionary change directed against the Communist Party; Despite this, in the 1951 elections, the French Communist Party held over 100 deputies to the National Assembly (according to the number of votes cast for it, the Communist Party, under the previous electoral law, would have held about 170 deputies).

Overview of the Economy

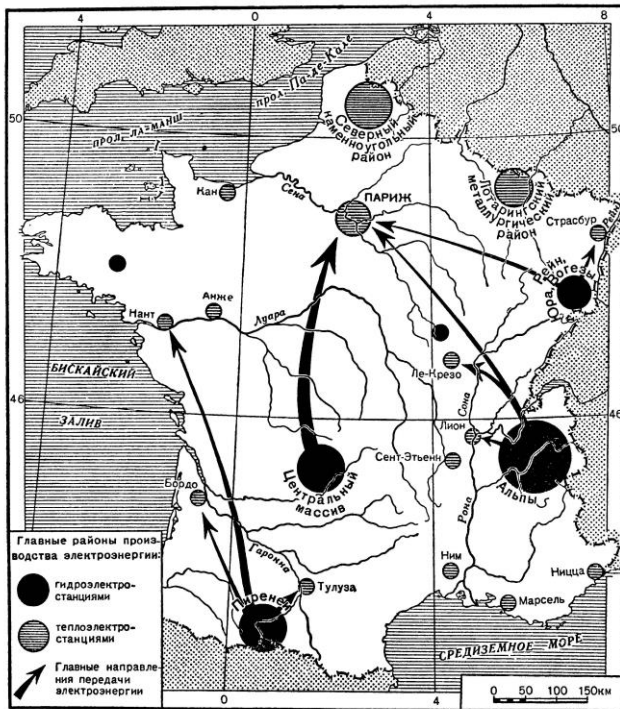
Industry

By the type of economy, France is an industrial-agrarian country. In terms of industrial production, it occupied the fourth place among the capitalist powers until the Second World War. After the war, France's submission to the US-imposed "Marshall Plan" inflicted severe damage on French industry; much of the industry passed into the hands of the Americans.

Energy base. The weak point of the French industry is the lack of fuel. Mining on average about 50 million tons of coal per year, France imports about 20 million tons of coal and coke from abroad. In addition, France imports a lot of oil and petroleum products. In the southern part of the country, the lack of fuel is partly offset by water power; the industry here uses electricity from stations built on mountain rivers. In terms of total energy consumption per capita, France is twice as low as England, but more than twice as large as Italy.

Old industries. In French industry, as in English, there are differences between branches that have long occupied a leading position in industry, and branches, the importance of which has greatly advanced in recent years. The former include: the textile (especially silk) industry, the production of clothing, toilet accessories and luxury goods. Before the First World War, these industries provided the bulk of French exports. But after the war, their importance began to decline. The silk

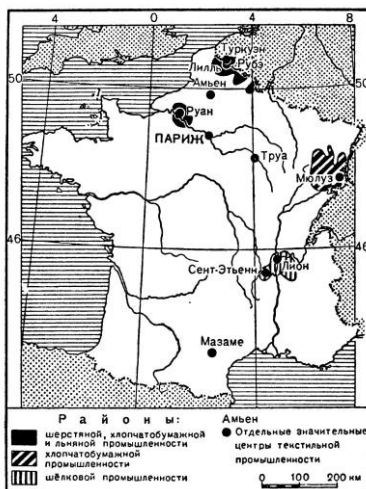
industry was undermined by the production of artificial silk and a decrease in demand for expensive silk fabrics. Marketing luxury and fashion items became increasingly difficult. The main regions of the textile industry are the Northern Region with the city of Lille (wool and cotton industry), Alsace with the city of Mulhouse (mainly the cotton industry), and the city of Lyon with the surrounding area (silk, both natural and artificial). Fashion production in Paris.



35. Производство электроэнергии во Франции.

35. Electricity production in France.

New industries. Industries that emerged after the First World War: metallurgy, machinery, New industries. Industries that emerged after the First World War: metallurgy, machinery construction, including auto construction and aircraft construction, chemical industry, production of artificial silks. But thanks to the work on the restoration of destroyed areas, as well as military-strategic work, metal products in the post-war years found good sales. But with the end of restoration work and with the onset the economic crisis, it has decreased. During Second World War, the French metal industry fell sharply. After the war, the United States slowed down its recovery, seeking to turn France into a sales market for its industry. In 1929, France produced almost 10 million tons of steel, in 1950, 8.6 million tons.



36. Размещение текстильной промышленности во Франции.

36. Placement of the textile industry in France.

The Lorraine iron ore basin not only supplies almost all of the French metallurgy with ore, but also exports a large amount of ore (to Belgium and Germany). Lorraine, on the other hand, provides about 3/4 of the French ferrous metal production.

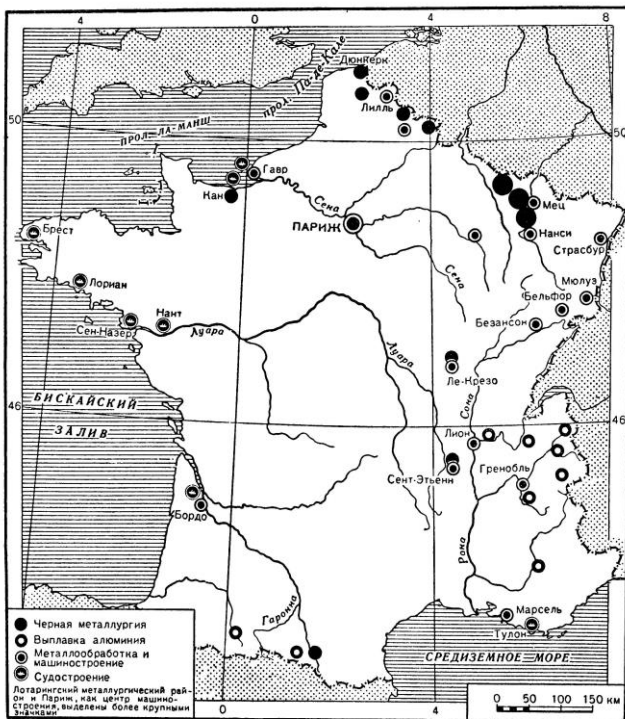
The second most important metallurgical region is the Northern, which uses local coal, scrap and Lorraine ore; the machine-building industry is also developed there. Large centres of mechanical engineering and military industry are Paris and Lyon. The largest role in the war industry is played by the Schneider concern, which unites many enterprises in the heavy industry; its central factories are in Le Creusot.

France occupies one of the first places in the world for the extraction of bauxite; some of the bauxite is processed into aluminum in France itself, and some goes abroad.

Agriculture

Socio-historical conditions for the development of agriculture. The bourgeois French revolution of 1789-1794 did away with feudal land tenure. This is one of the most important differences between the French village and the German and English. However, a significant part of the landowners' land did not go to the peasants, but was bought up by the wealthy bourgeoisie, which started a capitalist economy on the acquired land. Small-proprietary the peasantry, which constituted the bulk of the farmers, suffered from heavy taxes and did not have the means to raise their economy. It became more and more entangled in land

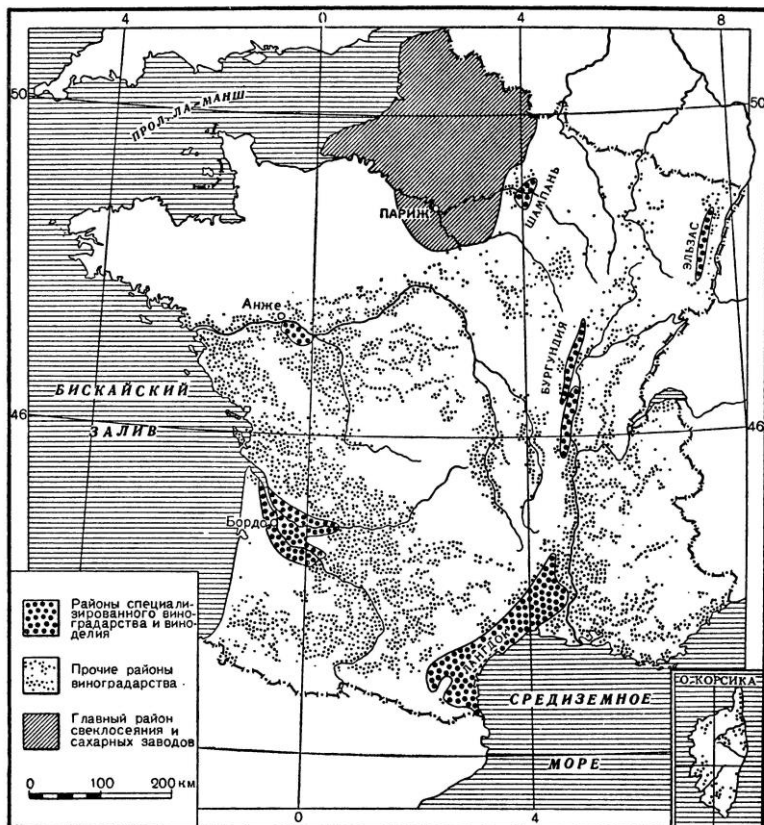
debts, fell into bondage to banks. Over time the stratification has intensified. A small group of large owners own the best land, agricultural machinery, makes extensive use of hired labor—in a word, runs a purely capital dietary enterprise. A significant kulak layer stands out from the rest of the mass. The bulk of the farmers are the smallest owners or leaseholders, leading a backward economy, never making ends meet.



37. Metalloпромышленность Франции.

37. Metal industry in France.

Large, highly equipped farms are the hallmark of northern France. The greatest backwardness and predominance of small-scale farming is characterized by the southwest.



38. Распространение винограда и сахарной свёклы во Франции.

38. Distribution of grapes and sugar beets in France.

Direction of agriculture. Agriculture in France covers an extremely diverse industry: grain farming (the main crop is wheat, in addition, they sow oats, rye, corn), viticulture, meat and dairy cattle breeding with forage crops, sugar beet production, as well as fruit growing, horticulture (including production of early vegetables), floriculture. France ranks first in the world in winemaking. The main areas of viticulture are the Mediterranean coast (especially Langdoek), the vicinity of Bordeaux (in the southwest), Burgundy, Champagne, Alsace. Wheat is widespread almost everywhere, but it reaches its greatest distribution in the lowlands, along the Seine, Loire and Garonne.

Agriculture in France has long been experiencing a severe crisis. In the production of bread, France cannot compete with countries with larger, mechanized agriculture. On the other hand, the demand for expensive wines, which France is famous for, has dropped. The total area of cultivated land has greatly decreased over the past half century.

Transport and external economic relations

The French merchant fleet in 1939 numbered about 1,300 ships (with a total tonnage of about 3 million tons). Among them, the large passenger ships stood out; before World War II, the role of the French fleet in world passenger shipping was more significant than in freight shipping. During the Second World War, the French fleet suffered heavy losses; by 1951 it had slightly surpassed the pre-war tonnage, but a good half

of it consisted of vessels of deteriorated quality due to wear, damage, etc.

France has several large ports on the Atlantic coast, but none of them is equal to the world's largest ports in terms of turnover. The main trading ports are Le Havre (the most important port for France's ties with the Atlantic countries), Rouen, Dunkirk, Nantes, Bordeaux. French naval bases on the Atlantic Ocean—Brest and Cherbourg, Cherbourg, in addition, is an important passenger port for crossing the ocean. Calais and Boulogne are passenger ports for connections with England. Almost all sea trade on the Mediterranean coast is concentrated in Marseille, the largest port in France. Toulon is France's main naval base in the Mediterranean.

Most of the domestic traffic is served by rail. All major railway lines cross in Paris. The network of motorways is very developed in France. Road transport ranks second in domestic transport.

France has a large network of inland waterways; almost all major rivers are connected by canals. But the carrying capacity of most rivers and canals is insignificant; many canals were built a long time ago and are outdated. Of the French rivers, the Seine stands out in terms of cargo turnover.

In terms of foreign trade turnover, France ranked fourth in the world before the Second World War. Like England, France mainly imports raw materials and foodstuffs and exports manufactured goods. But the importation of food for France in ordinary years is less important than for England. But the materials needed for industry occupy an even greater place in French

imports than in England, due to the need for France to import coal (except for goods such as oil, cotton, wool, non-ferrous metals, rubber, etc., which are imported and England). France exports fabrics, cars, chemical products, various luxury items, wine, and from raw materials - iron ore and bauxite (which is a lot by weight, but little in value).

Before the Second World War, France, like England, experienced great difficulties with the sale of its goods on the foreign market, and its export was much less than its import. The difference was covered by income from French capital invested abroad and income from foreign visitors, who usually happened to be a lot in Paris and French resorts. After the war, the shortfall in exports versus imports increased sharply, and incomes from foreign capital (many of which were lost) and from newcomers became much smaller. France has gone into debt to the United States, and the latter take advantage of France's difficulties to impose their goods and their policies on it.

Regions

The specialisation of regions in France is less pronounced than in England. There are comparatively few compact purely industrial areas with clearly defined borders in France. In most cases, industry is closely intertwined with agriculture. There are many separate industrial centres that are scattered among the agricultural regions.

But the main differences are still quite clear: the north and east of France are distinguished by a much

higher level of industrialisation than the west and south. In the north there is an important mining and textile region, as well as Paris, which forms with the suburbs a powerful region for a varied manufacturing industry; in the east, the metallurgical region of Lorraine and the textile region of Alsace; in the southeast—the Lyons region of the silk and metal industry.

The most backward agrarian regions of France are in the southwest and in the Massif Central region.

Northern industrial region

General characteristics. Northern, or Parisian, district—the most important part of France. Geographically, it roughly coincides with the Paris Basin, that is, it covers the lowlands of northern France. Geographic prerequisites for the development of this region: its favorable geographical position, favorable conditions for agriculture and the availability of coal.

In terms of transport, the Paris region occupies a dominant position in France. In the northwest, it adjoins the English Channel, Pas-de-Calais and the North Sea, that is, to an area of intense navigation; here the European continent comes closest to England. In the north, the Paris Basin merges with the Belgian lowlands, which opens the way to the North German Lowlands. From the Paris Basin, routes are open to the rest of France: to the southwest—to the lowlands of the Garonne, to the southeast—to the Rhone—Saone valley and the Mediterranean Sea, to the east—to the Rhine valley. The Seine is a very convenient waterway to the

English Channel; with its branched tributaries, it approaches the basins of the Scheldt, Meuse, Rhine, Rhone, Loire. Not occupying a central position in France, the Paris Basin is the hub of all of its most important communications.

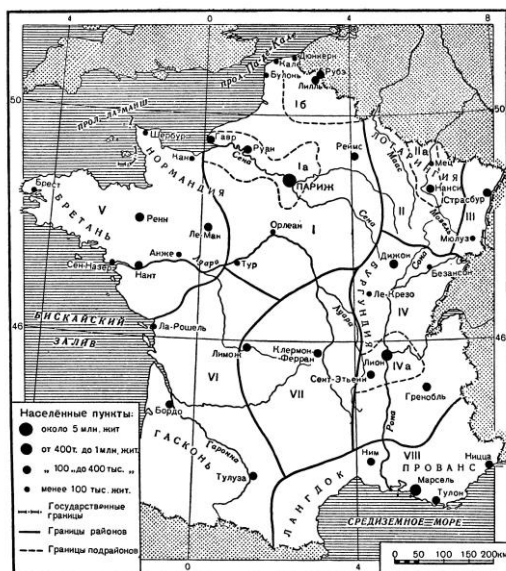
The soils of the Paris Basin are among the best in France. In the northern part of the northern industrial region, on the border with Belgium, there is a north French coal basin.

The Northern region is mainly industrial. But the industry does not completely fill the territory of the region. It is located in two strips: one in the far north, near the Belgian border, connected with the North French coal basin; the other, in the central part of the district, gravitates towards the Seine valley. This is Paris itself, its suburbs and the port cities of Rouen and Le Havre, through which Paris is merged with the sea. The rest of the Northern Region is dominated by agriculture, which is characterized by the highest intensity and high yield in France. Here is the main sugar beet and wheat region of France. Meat and dairy cattle breeding is developed. In the east of the region, in Champagne, there is wine growing and winemaking (making champagne). In the vicinity of Paris - horticulture and gardening, supplying the capital with vegetables and flowers.

The centre of the Northern Region is Paris, the capital of France, one of the most important capitals of the capitalist world.

Paris is the old city. There are few other cities that have the same significance in the history of capitalist society as Paris.

The value of Paris. The significance of Paris for France is extremely versatile. It is the historical capital of France, which concentrates all the central authorities of the French bourgeoisie. Parisian banks are the mainstay of her financial power; as a banking and exchange centre, Paris before World War II was second only to New York and London.



39. Экономические районы и города Франции.

I — Северный район; внутри его выделены: 1а — Паризский индустриальный район; 1б — Северный горноводострой и текстильный район. II — Лотарингия; внутри выделен: 11а — Лотарингский металлургический район. III — Эльзас. IV — Лионский район; внутри его выделен IVа — индустриальный район Лион — Сент-Этьенн. V — Северо-западный район. VI — Юго-западный район. VII — Район Центральной массы. VIII — Средиземноморье.

39. Economic regions and cities of France. I - Northern region; inside it are highlighted: 1a - Paris industrial region; 16— Northern Mining and Textile Region. II—Lorraine; highlighted inside: On - Lorraine metallurgical region. III—Alsace. IV—Lyons district; within it, Gua is allocated - the industrial region of Lyon—Saint-Etienne. V—Northwest region. VI—Southwest region. VII—Massif Central Region. VIII—Mediterranean.

As a transport hub, Paris has no rivals in France. The railway lines of international importance, stars, diverge from Paris in all directions: to Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Germany, Belgium; line to Boulogne and Calais leads to a short crossing to England, the line to Cherbourg and Le Havre—to the starting points of transatlantic shipping. Thanks to the Seine and the canals, Paris is a major river port, centre inland navigation of France.

Paris is the largest manufacturing centre in France. In the city itself, there are old branches of industry with a predominance of small handicraft production. On the outskirts and suburbs—large enterprises that have arisen in modern times: automobile, engine-building, aviation, chemical, etc. The “Red Ring” of the workers’ suburbs of Paris is the stronghold of the French Communist Party.

All the most important and interesting in the field of French science and French art in all its forms is concentrated in Paris; there are many interesting museums and ancient monuments. Paris is an international entertainment centre for wealthy foreigners coming from various countries.

Paris is not only the political and cultural centre of the French bourgeoisie. In the capitalist world there is no other capital with such glorious revolutionary traditions as Paris. Paris was the centre and main driving force of the bourgeois revolution of 1789-1794. The revolution of 1848 also began in Paris, signalling a number of revolutionary movements in Europe. In Paris, the working class first realized the experience of creating a proletarian dictatorship (Paris Commune of

1871). The narrow streets of the Parisian suburbs have repeatedly been the site of fierce barricade battles.

Geography of Paris. Paris, like London, has long outgrown its official city line: the city line runs along a ring of fortifications that girdled Paris until 1922, when they were demolished. Here the population of Paris is stable (2.8 million).

The ancient centre of Paris - the Isle of Sitho—now presents itself as a museum of ancient monuments; here is the famous Notre Dame Cathedral. On the right side of the Seine is the Louvre Museum with a wonderful collection of paintings and other works of art, on the left is the Latin Quarter, the district of higher educational institutions and students.

The bourgeois quarters of Paris are its western part, adjacent to the Bois de Boulogne. Streets of exceptional width, landscaping and luxury of buildings run here. Paris has been repeatedly repopulated. Since the 60s of the XIX century. many old quarters were demolished, wide avenues and boulevards were laid in place of narrow, tangled back streets. In addition to convenience for movement and aesthetic goals, they also had political goals in mind: on wide, straight avenues open to full-length artillery fire, it is more difficult to conduct barricade battles. But even to this day, Paris is characterized by a combination of wide main streets lined with luxurious buildings, with gray side streets and back streets, reminiscent of a remote province. They are home to working artisans and numerous small employees.

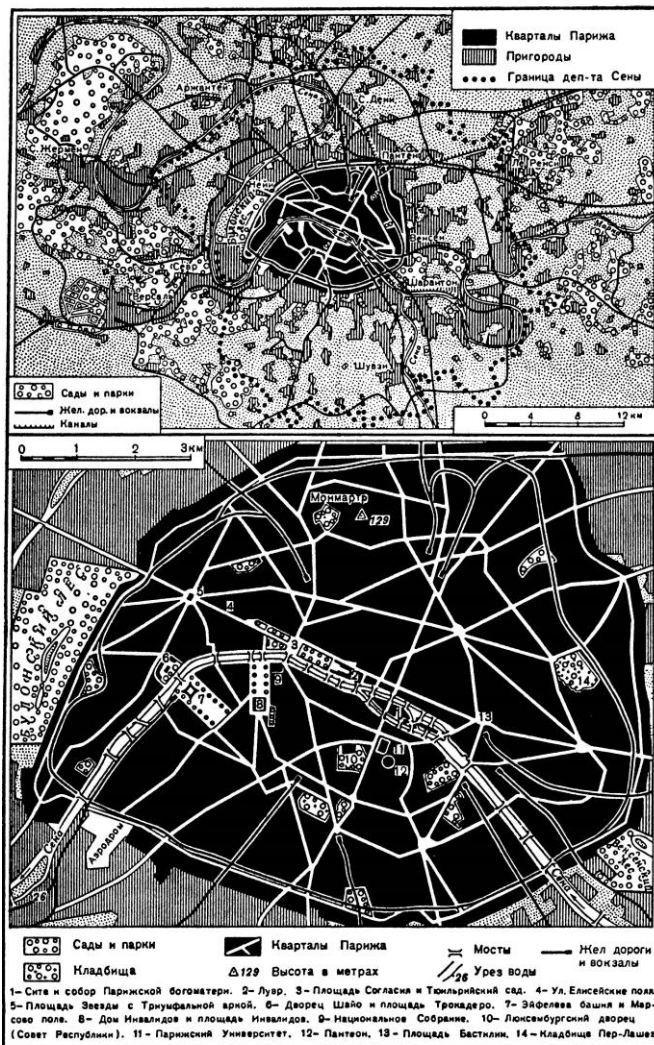
In the Père Lachaise cemetery, located among the workers' quarters, is the "wall of the Communards"; here the revolutionaries of the Paris Commune were shot.

The main factories and proletarian quarters are in the suburbs, behind the line of the former fortifications. According to the old tradition, they are administratively considered separate cities, although in fact they have long been forming one whole with Paris. They surround Paris almost in a circle.

Not far from Paris is Versailles—in the past the residence of the French kings, famous for the magnificence of its palaces and gardens. During the Paris Commune, Versailles was the centre of the counter-revolutionary forces that organized a massacre of the Communards. Versailles has been the place of signing of historic international treaties many times, including the Versailles treaties (1919), which ended the First World War.

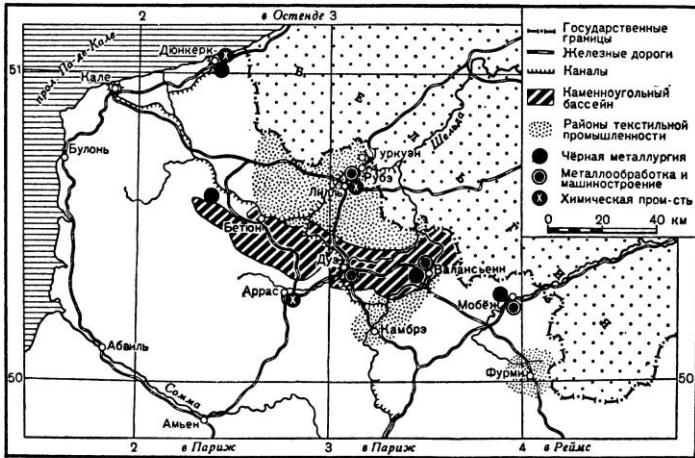
Le Havre and Rouen. The port cities of Rouen and Le Havre are in close connection with Paris. Rouen is located on the lower Seine. Sea vessels reach him. He receives from abroad and sends coal and oil to Paris. Rouen is an important centre of the textile industry.

Le Havre, located at the mouth of the Seine, is an important ocean port. Most of the French trade with North and South America passes through it (the import of cotton from the USA, oil from Venezuela, coffee from Brazil); coal and timber are imported from European countries. In Le Havre, there are artillery factories, refineries processing imported oil.



40. Схематический план Парижа.

40. Schematic plan of Paris.



41. Северный горнозаводский и текстильный район Франции.

41. Northern and textile district of Fania

Northern mining and textile region. A metallurgical region (the second in France after Lorraine), which consumes imported ore and scrap metal and produces steel, rails, steam locomotives, and machinery, has grown near the border with Belgium near the coal basin. The chemical industry is developed.

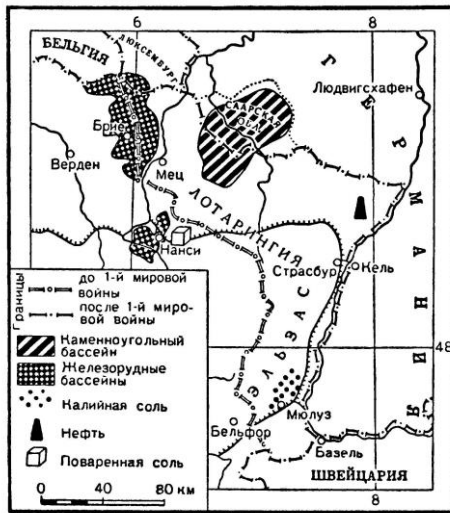
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The main textile region of France is located nearby. Its centres are Lille and the Roubaix and Tourcoing located next to it. Most of the French wool and textile

machinery industries are concentrated here. The area is connected to the sea through the port of Dunkirk.

Industrial areas of the east

Alsace and Lorraine, which are often viewed as one entity due to their shared historical fates, represent geographically and economically two disparate regions. The main iron ore and metallurgical region of France is located in Lorraine. Alsace is an area of developed agriculture and various industries, primarily textile.



42. Горнозаводские районы Эльзаса и Лотарингии. Раздел до и после первой мировой войны.

42. Mining regions of Alsace and Lorraine. Section before and after the first world war.

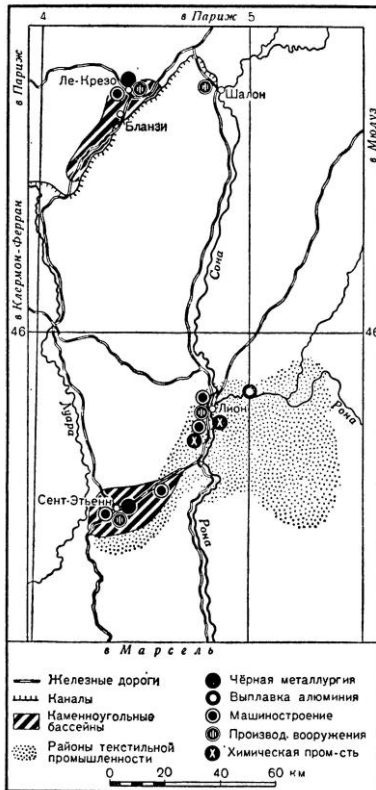
Lorraine. The surface of the iron ore region is a low plateau cut by river valleys. On the slopes of the valleys, iron ore deposits come out; development is carried out mainly by galleries, which cut from the valleys into the plateau, sometimes 5-6 km in length. Blast furnaces and factories are located along the rivers. Lorraine receives coal and coke from the Northern coal basin, from Germany and Belgium. In addition to the metal industry, the chemical industry is developed in Lorraine. Lorraine does not have such large industrial cities as in the mining regions of England or Germany. This is due to the fact that the extraction of iron ore requires a relatively small number of workers, and complex mechanical engineering, which requires a lot of labor, is underdeveloped in Lorraine. Most of the Lorraine metal is sent for processing in other parts of France or abroad.

The main centres of Lorraine are Nancy and Metz. Verdun on the r. The Maase is a fortress that withstood the onslaught of German troops in the First World War.

Alsace. Alsace covers the Rhine Valley and the eastern slope of the Vosges. Fertile soils prevail. The climate is mild and warm. Agriculture is developed here: the main crops are grapes, wheat, tobacco, hops; cattle breeding is widespread. The extraction of potash salts is of great importance. The southern part of Alsace is the main region in France for the bladed paper industry in all its forms: spinning, weaving, and textile printing. The centre of the cotton industry is Mulhouse, here is also the textile machinery and chemical industry (processing of potassium salts).

The largest city in Alsace, Strasbourg, is a railway junction and port on the Rhine (the final point to which large ships go up the Rhine).

Lyons industrial area. The Rhone-Saone valley has long been one of the most developed agricultural and industrial regions in France.



43. Лионский промышленный район Франции.

43. Lyons industrial region of France.

For the development of the region, its transport position was of particular importance: paths from the basins of the Seine, Loire, Rhine and from the Swiss Alps converge to the Rhone-Saone valley. At the confluence of the Rhone with the Sona, all these paths converge into one narrow corridor that runs between the Massif Central and the Alps and leads to the Mediterranean Sea.

For agriculture, fertile soils and a warm climate are favorable; here is one of the main areas of viticulture and winemaking in France.

Lyon is the third city in France in terms of population, the ancient centre of the silk industry, which is world famous. The silk industry covers a vast area. In the Alpine valleys there are small silk spinning mills that deliver yarn to Lyon. Hydroelectric power plants on mountain rivers provide energy to industrial enterprises. An artificial silk industry also developed in Lyon. Recently, it has replaced the old natural silk industry. In addition, the chemical industry (dyes for fabrics, photochemistry) and the automobile industry are well developed. Lyon is an important work centre; in the history of the labor movement, he is especially famous for the uprisings of the weavers in the 1830s.

The Lyons industrial area belongs to the city of Saint Etienne, located on the eastern edge of the Massif Central, next to a small coal basin. In Saint Etienne - coal mining, silk industry (associated with Lyons), production of weapons, bicycles, car parts. Both Lyon and Saint-Etienne are important centres of the military industry.

With small coal and iron ore basins located in the east of the Massif Central, a number of other industrial cities have grown. The most important of them is Le Creusot, the centre of Schneider's military factories (production of guns, armor, tanks, etc.).

Agricultural regions of the West and South

Northwestern agricultural region. This includes the Brittany and Cotentin peninsulas. On the heights that occupy a significant part of this region, the soils are poor and stony; there are a lot of marshes here. A humid and mild climate is more favorable for grassland and animal husbandry than for agriculture. Early vegetables and berries are grown on the northern coast of Brittany.

Brittany has many small fishing ports and fish canning factories on the rocky, heavily indented coastline. Located at the mouth of the Loire, Nantes is an important commercial and industrial port. Cherbourg and Brest are the main military ports on the Atlantic coast of France. Cherbourg is an important passenger port for relations with America.

Agrarian regions of the southwest and the Central massif. These are the most typical regions of small-peasant backward economy in France with a systematically decreasing population. The southwestern region covers the lowlands of the Garonne and the northern slope of the western Pyrenees. Grain farming (wheat, corn) prevails. The soil in the Garonne Valley is fertile, but yields are below average (for France). The valley of the lower Garonne stands out as one of the

main wine-growing and wine-growing regions of France. Centre - Bordeaux, located in the lower Garonne, the only major port in the southwest. The second major city in this area is Toulouse (on the upper Garonne)—a market for agricultural products and an important centre of the military industry (gunpowder factory, artillery shell factory). In the Pyrenees, there are small electrometallurgical plants (using hydropower and local ore).

The region of the Massif Central is mainly a poor cattle-breeding area; of cereal crops, rye prevails in many places, which is less demanding on soil and climate. Only in places in the valleys is more intensive agriculture and cattle raising developed; some areas of the Massif Central are famous for cheese making.

Mediterranean. The Mediterranean strip of France is a region of viticulture and subtropical fruit growing. Farming here requires artificial irrigation. The western part of the Mediterranean—Langdock—is a specially wine-growing region, which gives about half of all wine produced in France; cheap wines are produced here, which are marketed in France itself. To the east, in Provence, the culture is more diverse: along with grapes, the culture of olives, southern fruits, and early vegetables is important here. The most sheltered part of the Mediterranean from northern winds is the extreme east, adjacent to Italy. This is the so-called “Cote d’Azur” (otherwise—the French Riviera). The warm and sunny climate, the abundance of vegetation (mainly fathoms) and the beauty of the mountainous coastline have made the French Riviera widely known as

a resort area. The main spa centre is Nice. The only important commercial port and industrial centre of the French Mediterranean, Marseille is the second most populous city after Paris. Marseille serves for France's relations with its North African colonies and other Mediterranean countries, with the Black Sea ports of the USSR, as well as for communication with India and the Far East.

Of great importance is the extraction of bauxite (in Provence) and the smelting of aluminum at electro-aluminum plants in the Alps.

Located east of Marseille, Toulon is a naval port and the main base of the French fleet in the Mediterranean.

Colonial possessions of France

Colonial possessions of France cover 11.5 million square meters. km (more than 20 times more than France itself) with 54 million inhabitants.

According to the 1946 constitution, France, together with all its possessions, forms the French Union. The concept of "colony" does not appear at all in the constitution of the French Union. However, a change in name does not mean a change in management; the latter retains the character of imperialist colonial oppression.

Most of the French possessions are in Africa; the most important of them: in the north—Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, in the west—French West Africa, uniting a number of colonies, and French Equatorial Africa; in the southeast—the island of Madagascar. The most important possession in Asia is French Indochina; here,

after the formation of the democratic republic of Vietnam, only the western parts of the former colony (Cambodia and Laos) remained under French rule, but they too are fighting for independence. In other parts of the world, the French colonies are less significant: in South America—French Guiana, in the West Indies and North America—several small islands (including Guadeloupe and Martinique), in the Pacific Ocean—the islands of New Caledonia, Tahiti and many small islands:

Resettlement movement from France to the colony is insignificant. Among the French possessions, there are no developed countries such as the English dominions.

Of the greatest economic importance are the North African possessions, primarily Algeria. (They are also of great strategic importance: here are a number of military ports, the most important of which is Bizerte (in Tunisia).

The most important part of French West Africa is Senegal with the commercial and military port of Dakar.

NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND)

The Netherlands, or Holland, is located between Germany, Belgium and the North Sea. Like neighboring Belgium, it is a small country with an extremely dense population. Area 34 thousand sq. km; population 10 million. Government—parliamentary kingdom. The seat of government is The Hague, but the largest city of Amsterdam is considered the national capital.

Natural conditions. Geographically, the Netherlands is a junction of important waterways. With the estuaries of the Rhine, Meuse and Scheldt, the Netherlands serves as the shortest access to the sea for Rhine Germany, partly for Belgium and northeastern France. The sea and rivers played a huge role in the development of the economy of the Netherlands: using their position at the outlet to the sea of important trading rivers for shipping and sea trade, the Dutch at the same time were forced to incessantly fight the destructive power of water and reclaim land from it.

The very word “Netherlands” means a low country. Most of the western Netherlands lies below sea level and therefore needs protection from invasion by the sea. The destructive force of the sea is very great here, especially when stormy winds blow from the northwest: they catch up masses of water in the southern corner of the North Sea, then the tide hits the Dutch shores with special force. In the XIV century. the sea broke into the interior of the country, merged with the previously existing lake and formed the vast Zuider-Ze Bay. More than once the sea invaded the estuaries and flooded fields and villages.

To combat the sea, dams had to be built. The Dutch coast is now protected by huge dams lined with stone; they reach 100 m in width with a height of up to 15 m. River estuaries are blocked by sluices that open at low tide and lock at high tide. The lower reaches of the rivers are also protected by dams to prevent spills. Enormous drainage works were carried out by means of canals and pumping out of standing water with pumps. So from the XVI century. was conquered from the sea and turned into fertile polders about 4 thousand square meters. km, 1/3 of the entire area of the country. After the First World War, part of the Zuider-See Bay was drained.

The entire western part of the Netherlands is crossed by many canals. They pass above the level of the polders; on their banks—many wind turbines, driving pumps to pump out water; this is a matter of constant concern, as rainwater has nowhere to drain from the polders below the river level.

The climate of the Netherlands is maritime and humid. On average, there are up to 300 cloudy days per year, of which 200 are rainy days. As in England, the vegetation is characterized by lush, green meadows. But, unlike England, the Netherlands has almost no uncultivated wastelands.

Mineral resources of the Netherlands—significant reserves of coal (in the extreme south), small reserves of oil, peat.

Population. Almost the entire population is Dutch; Dutch is close to German.

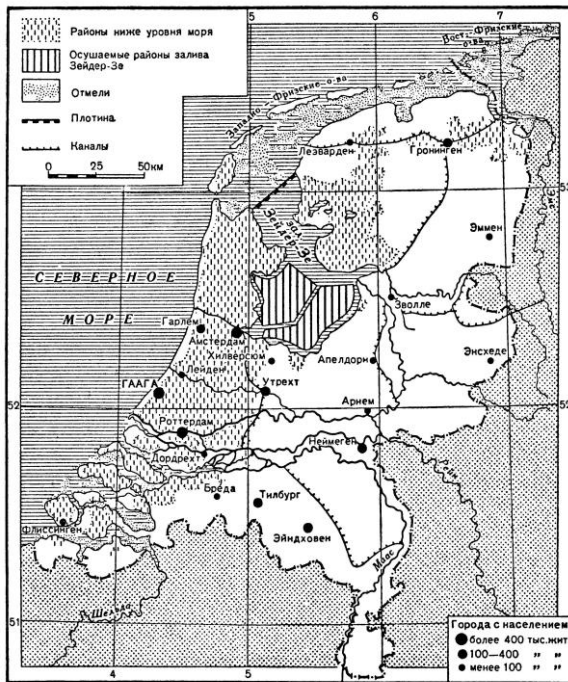
The population density is high (about 300 people per sq. Km). The density is especially high in the western part of the Netherlands, which is distinguished by fertile soils and concentrating the transport, trade and industrial life of the country. There are three largest cities in the Netherlands: Amsterdam (800 thousand inhabitants), Rotterdam (620 thousand) and The Hague (500 thousand). Amsterdam is a port on the Zuider See bay, connected by a channel directly to the sea. The city is built on stilts and crossed by numerous canals (“Venice of the North”). Rotterdam, located on one of the branches of the Rhine, is one of the world’s largest ports. It serves not only the Netherlands, but also other Rhine countries.

Economy. The Netherlands is a maritime trading country with a highly developed agriculture and industry that processes agricultural raw materials. In terms of the size of the merchant marine fleet (3 million tons), the Netherlands ranks fifth among foreign countries, only slightly behind France in this respect.

The Dutch capitalists derive huge profits from the rubber and sugarcane plantations and from the extraction of oil and tin, which constitute the main wealth of the Dutch colonies. But Dutch capital itself is not entirely independent: it is strongly influenced by British capital; in fact, British capital played a decisive role in the rubber plantations and the mining industry of the Dutch colonies. Recently, American capital has been infiltrating Dutch possessions.

The Netherlands played a much larger role in the past than it does now. In the XVII century. it was the

first maritime power in the world. The Netherlands occupied a leading place in Europe in the development of capitalism. Amsterdam was an international trading and exchange centre. In their colonies the Dutch merchants acted as merciless oppressors and predators. Population, turned into slavery, was imposed with the obligatory supply of valuable products for export to Europe; when the products obtained by hard labor were brought in and counted, then, depending on the state of prices, the “surpluses” were destroyed (in order to keep prices at a high level).



44. Нидерланды.
44. Netherlands.

The Anglo-Dutch trade rivalry ended in England's victory. Many lands discovered by Dutch sailors were then captured by England (Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand). England also captured South Africa, colonised by the Dutch. Modern Netherlands is an imperialist country with a high development of capitalism; but they occupy a secondary place among the imperialist countries and are themselves under the influence of American-British imperialism.

Agriculture in the Netherlands specialized in meat and dairy farming; a lot of butter and cheese are produced. Half of the total area of the country is occupied by meadows and crops of forage crops; horticulture, horticulture and floriculture are highly developed (cultivation of tulips is especially widespread). Herring is caught in coastal waters. The Netherlands exports from agricultural products cheese, butter, condensed milk, eggs, poultry, bacon, vegetables, flowers. Their own bread and feed for livestock is far from sufficient.

The main branches of industry are food flavours (production of sugar, chocolate, margarine, tobacco products, etc.), textiles, and shipbuilding. Coal and oil are mined.

Colonies. The most important part of the Dutch colonial possessions was Indonesia (or Netherlands India}, which covered most of the Malay Archipelago and the western part of the island of New Guinea; in terms of population (76 million) and economic resources, it is one of the richest regions in the world. Especially important is the densely populated island

Java In early 1942, the Netherlands India was invaded by Japan. After the surrender of Japan, the Indonesians put forward a demand for independence and formed a republican government (for the further fate of the Indonesian republic, see the chapter “Countries of Southeast Asia”). The Netherlands owns part of Guiana in South America and several small islands in the Caribbean Sea, including Curacao and Aruba, which have built large refineries that process oil from neighboring Venezuela.

BELGIUM

Belgium is located between the Netherlands, Germany, France and the North Sea. In the southeast, the dwarf state of Luxembourg is adjacent to Belgium. The area of “Belgium is 30.5 thousand square kilometres. The population is 8.5 million. The state system is a parliamentary kingdom. The capital is Brussels.”

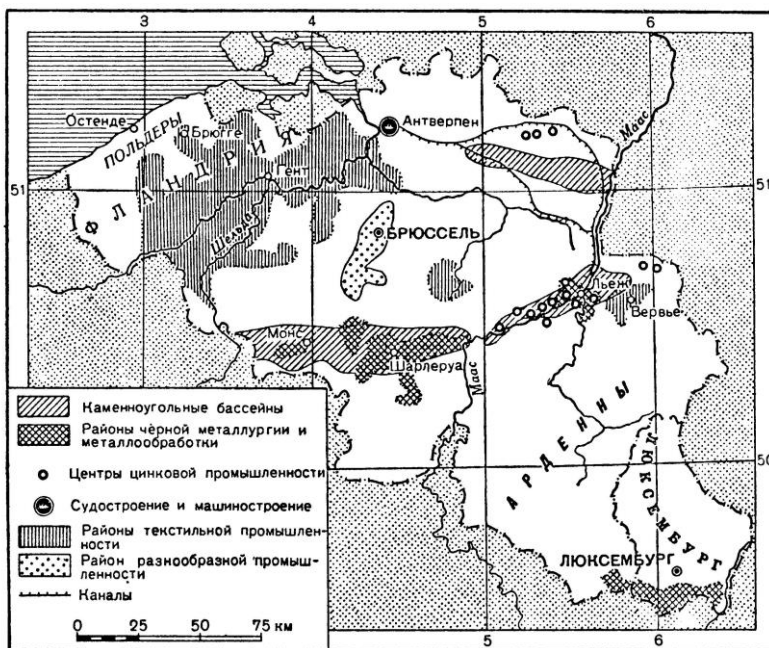
Natural conditions. Belgium lies at the crossroads of important roads in northwestern Europe. The Belgian Lowland connects the North German Lowland with the Paris Basin. This open passage between France and Central Europe has repeatedly been the scene of important historical battles (suffice it to recall the Battle of Waterloo in 1815, the battles of the German invasion of France through Belgium in 1914 and 1940).

Belgium also lies on one of the shortest roads between England and the countries of Central Europe.

The Scheldt (the main river in Belgium) and its tributaries are short but full-flowing rivers; they can be easily connected by canals with adjacent river basins (Seine, Meuse, Rhine). In the lower reaches of the Scheldt, it is accessible to ships. But the Scheldt's out to sea is in the hands of the Netherlands. The sea coast of Belgium itself is straight, sandy, inconvenient for navigation.

Three quarters of the Belgian territory is slightly hilly or completely flat lowland (Flanders Lowland in the west). Only in the southeast rises the low Ardennes massif with poor soils and a relatively harsh climate.

This is the least populated part of Belgium. At the foot of the Ardennes, along the river. The Meuse and its tributary the Sambre, the Belgian coal basin stretches.



45. Размещение промышленности Бельгии и Люксембурга.

45. Placement of industry in Belgium and Luxembourg.

Near the sea, as in the Netherlands, there are fertile polders, crossed by canals and protected by dams; but their area is much smaller than in the Netherlands.

Belgium's coal reserves are estimated at 11 billion tons. Significant iron ore deposits are in neighboring Luxembourg.

In the natural conditions of Belgium, there is a lot in common with the Netherlands (favorable geographical position, the predominance of low-lying relief, the need to fight the sea in the western part of the country, the maritime climate). But there are also important differences. The main ones are: 1) greater wealth in coal and the proximity of the iron ore basins of Luxembourg and Lorraine; 2) the less close connection of Belgium with the sea and the greater role of continental connections.

Population. In terms of ethnic composition, the population of Belgium is heterogeneous. The northern part of the country (approximately to the latitude of Brussels) is inhabited by Flemings, who are close in language to the Dutch. The south of the country is inhabited by Walloons who speak a dialect of French. The average population density is 280 people per 1 sq. km.

The most important cities: Brussels, located in the central part of the country, is the capital, a large industrial centre, a railway junction, the most important cultural centre of Belgium (900 thousand inhabitants); Antwerp is a seaport on the lower Scheldt (400 thousand inhabitants with suburbs).

Economy. Belgium is a developed industrial country. In contrast to the Netherlands, it has a powerful heavy industry—metallurgy, mechanical engineering, coal industry. Belgium annually produces about 4 million tons of pig iron and the same amount of steel (and together with Luxembourg—over 6 million tons of both); iron ore

is imported from Luxembourg and France. Nonferrous metallurgy (smelting of zinc, copper, lead), glass, chemical and textile industries are of great importance. The main industrial centres are Brussels (textiles, Brussels lace knitting, mechanical engineering), Antwerp (shipbuilding and mechanical engineering), Ghent (textiles) and Liege (metallurgy, mechanical engineering, weapons production). In the coal-mining areas of Mons and Charleroi, there are many small mining towns and villages.

Agriculture is distinguished by a high level of agricultural culture, but occupies a secondary place in the economy of the country. Belgium's grain is insufficient for half of its consumption.

Like the Netherlands, Belgium benefits from its transit position. Antwerp on the lower Scheldt ranks among the largest European ports. But Belgium's own fleet is much smaller than the Dutch. The railway network is the densest in Europe. Significant Belgian capital is invested in foreign enterprises.

Belgium owns colonies in Africa: the Belgian Congo and the Rwanda-Urundi trust region (the former German colony). Their total area is 2,400 thousand square meters. km \ population 14 million. The Belgian Congo is extremely rich in minerals.

Little Belgium, like the Netherlands, is one of the most developed capitalist countries and a fully imperialist country, but of a secondary order, under the influence of stronger imperialist countries.

SWITZERLAND

Switzerland is located in Central Europe between Germany, France and Italy. In terms of area (41 thousand sq. Km) Switzerland is slightly larger than Belgium and the Netherlands, in terms of population (4.6 million people) it is approximately half of each of these countries. The state structure is a bourgeois federal republic; it consists of 22 cantons.

Under formal democracy, Switzerland is in fact dominated by the reactionary big bourgeoisie, and the autonomy of the cantons has long been a fiction. The capital is Bern.

Surface. Rivers. Switzerland is a mountainous country. Geographically, it is divided into three areas.

1. The southeastern part of Switzerland, covering more than half of the entire country, is occupied by the Swiss Alps.

Switzerland owns the most powerful part of the Alps. Many massifs and peaks rise above 4000 m / main peaks: Monte Rosa (on the Italian border) 4640 g, Finsteraarhorn, Jungfrau. There are many vast glaciers and snow fields (the Aletsch glacier stretches for more than 20 km). Deep river valleys cut through the Alps, giving access to the interior of the mountainous country. Main rivers: Rhine with Aara and Reis, Rona, Ticino (Po tributary). All of them originate from the slopes of the Saint Gotthard Massif, in the central part of the Alps. This makes Saint Gotthard a natural junction of paths that cross the Swiss Alps. The route from the Rhine countries to northern Italy passes

through the Saint-Gotthard Pass, which connects the Reis and Ticino valleys.

2. From the northwest, the Alps are adjoined by the Swiss plateau. Its average height is 500 m above sea level, the surface is hilly. The soils in the valleys are formed by the sediments of mountain rivers. This is the most livable part of Switzerland. There are many lakes in the foothills and on the plateaus. The main ones are: Geneva (border with France), Constance (border with Germany), Zurich.

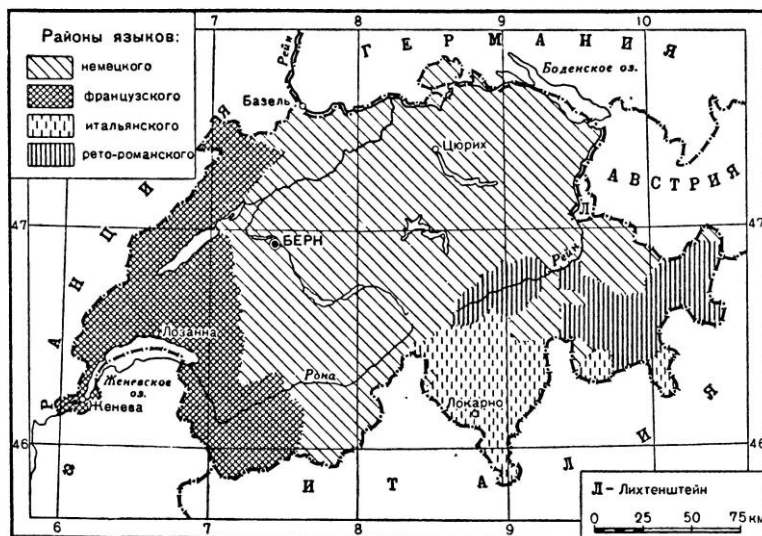
3. In the northwest, along the border with France, the Jura rises—a series of calcareous ridges with an average height of 800 m. Climate and vegetation. In Switzerland, one can observe climate transitions from an almost Mediterranean climate to a glacier region climate.

The mildest and warmest climate is in the valleys of the southern slope of the Alps protected from the north and on the shores of Lake Geneva. Olives, grapes, mulberries grow here. On the Swiss plateau—a temperate climate, the average July temperature is +18°, the average January –2°

There is a lot of precipitation in Switzerland, especially on the ridges open to the Atlantic Ocean (200 cm per year). But many of the inner valleys of the Swiss Alps, sheltered from the winds, have a dry and sunny climate.

Agriculture is concentrated in the lower zone, up to about 900 m above sea level. Deciduous trees prevail here—oak and beech. Above, up to 1700-1800 m, the area of forests is first mixed, and then exclusively coniferous (spruce, fir, pine, larch). Even higher, up to

2600 m, and in some places up to 3000 m, there is an area of alpine meadows, covered in summer with bright green grasses. Above, the grasses gradually disappear and an area of snow, ice and bare rocks begins.



46. Районы распространения различных языков в Швейцарии.

46. Areas of distribution of different languages in Switzerland.

Majestic snow peaks, visible from afar in clear weather, bright green alpine meadows and forests, mountain lakes with transparent water and picturesque shores—all this has made Switzerland famous as one of the most beautiful mountainous countries in the world. The mild climate of the lake coasts, as well as the harsh but healthy climate of the high mountain valleys, are

favorable for climatic treatment. Many well-known resorts, including Davos.

Switzerland's mineral resources are negligible. Switzerland is rich in energy resources in water energy, which is provided by its many mountain rivers.

Population. By language, the population of Switzerland is divided by three main groups. Most of the Swiss (72%) speak German (more precisely, in the Swiss dialect of German language); 20% in French (in the west) and 6% in Italian (in the south); about 1% speak Reto-Romance.

Most of the population lives on the plateau. All the most important cities are located here: Zurich (336 thousand inhabitants), Basel (162 thousand), Bern (130 thousand), Geneva (124 thousand), Lausanne.

Many foreigners live permanently in Switzerland. Until 1917, many Russian émigré revolutionaries lived here. Lenin lived and worked in Geneva, Bern and Zurich.

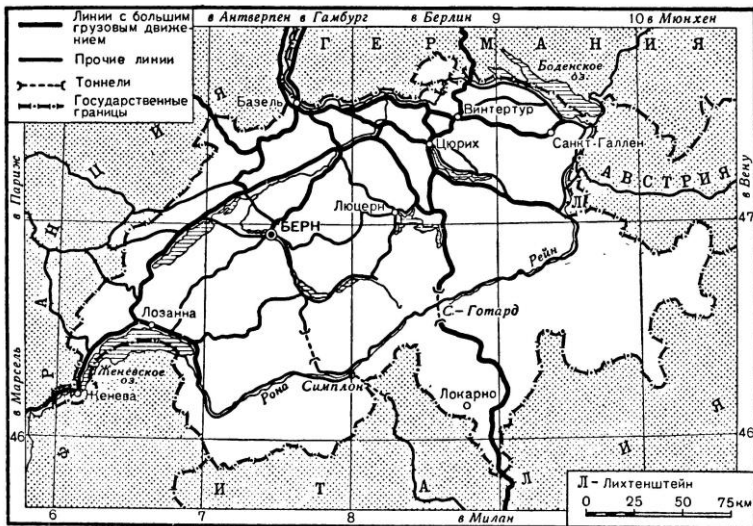
Overview of the Economy

Features of the development of Switzerland. Switzerland has almost no resources of its own for industrial development. The conditions for agriculture are also not very favorable: the regions of the Alps and Jura are not convenient for agriculture. The mountainous terrain makes communication difficult. Switzerland has no own access to the sea. But at the same time, Switzerland's geographical position gives it significant advantages: Switzerland is located at the

crossroads of important European roads. The path through the Saint-Gotthard Pass as early as the 13th century. was a link in the great trade route that went from the North Sea and from the countries of Central Europe to Northern Italy, to the Mediterranean Sea. The international trade movement through Switzerland and the associated benefits¹ contributed to the development of industry in the Swiss Highlands. The textile industry and the manufacture of watches have especially developed, both in the form of small-scale production, scattered in villages and small towns and associated with agriculture. The large factory industry in Switzerland did not develop for a long time.

The development of railway communication was of great importance for Switzerland. Railway construction in Switzerland met with great difficulties. In 1882 the Saint-Gotthard Tunnel (15 km long) was opened, along which the railway from Germany to Italy passed; in 1906 the Simplon Tunnel was opened, which is still the longest tunnel in the world (20 km); the Paris-Milan railway passed along it. A total of 300 km of tunnels and 70 km of railway bridges have been laid in Switzerland. At present, Switzerland is second only to Belgium in terms of the density of the railway network.

¹ The highlanders, who owned the approaches to Saint-Gotthard, earned on the trade movement, charging merchants for passage fees, hiring to guard trade caravans. These shared benefits helped to rally the highlanders. To defend their rule over the St. Gotthard road, the three cantons located on this road entered into an alliance (late 13th century). This union of three “forest” cantons became the nucleus of the Swiss federation.



47. Транспортные связи Швейцарии.

47. Transport links in Switzerland

At the same time, incomes from tourists and patients visiting Switzerland increased; Switzerland is becoming an international resort centre on a global scale. Huge funds are invested in the resort and sanatorium business: hotels, sanatoriums are being built, roads for tourism are being built. The sums that foreigners left in Switzerland every year are an important source of capital accumulation for the Swiss bourgeoisie.

The development of relations with the outside world and the increased accumulation of capital created the basis for the industrialisation of Switzerland. Since the end of the XIX century. Swiss industry is growing rapidly

and changes his face; large-scale factory production is developing and new industries are being promoted: mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, chemistry. The use of hydropower is growing.

During the First World War, Switzerland experienced difficulties in obtaining coal from abroad; this gave impetus to the construction of power plants on “white coal”; During the war, Swiss industrialists profited heavily from military orders, which they carried out for both belligerents.

Switzerland, like Belgium and the Netherlands, is a country of highly developed capitalism. Unlike the first two, it has no colonies; but by exporting capital it also participates in the imperialist exploitation of backward countries. As Lenin pointed out, “... the Swiss bourgeoisie has long been linked by a thousand threads with imperialist interests.”

Industry. Industry is predominant in the Swiss economy: 45% of the working population is employed in it, 21% in agriculture. Manufactured products, including machinery, account for the bulk of Swiss exports. Lacking a raw material base, the industry specialized in the production of valuable products that absorb possibly less raw materials and requiring skilled labor. The old branches of the Swiss industry are silk, cotton, ready-to-wear, watchmaking. In some of them, there are still many small businesses scattered throughout the villages (for example, in the manufacture of watches). New industries—mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, the aluminum industry, the chemical industry—have divorced from the very beginning in the form of large-scale factory production.

The main industrial centres are Zurich (mechanical engineering, steam locomotive building, electrical engineering) and Basel (textiles, chemistry).

Agriculture. The specialty of Swiss agriculture is dairy farming. About half of the entire territory of Switzerland is occupied by meadows, pastures and forage crops. Irrigation of mountain meadows; water is led through wooden channels. Milk is used to produce cheese, butter, condensed milk, and it is also used to make chocolate. Cheese and condensed milk are exported, but their butter is already in short supply.

Small and medium-sized farming prevails in Switzerland (farms with more than 15 hectares of land can be considered large in Switzerland). During the development of Swiss capitalism, the importance of the kulaks increased. Most smallholders are so burdened with land debts that they are owners in name only.

External links. Switzerland's economic dependence on the outside world is extremely high. Switzerland imports almost all the raw materials for industry; the main branches of Swiss industry export 60-70% of their production abroad. Resort business income depends on the influx of wealthy visitors from abroad. Swiss capital is invested in overseas businesses and loans.

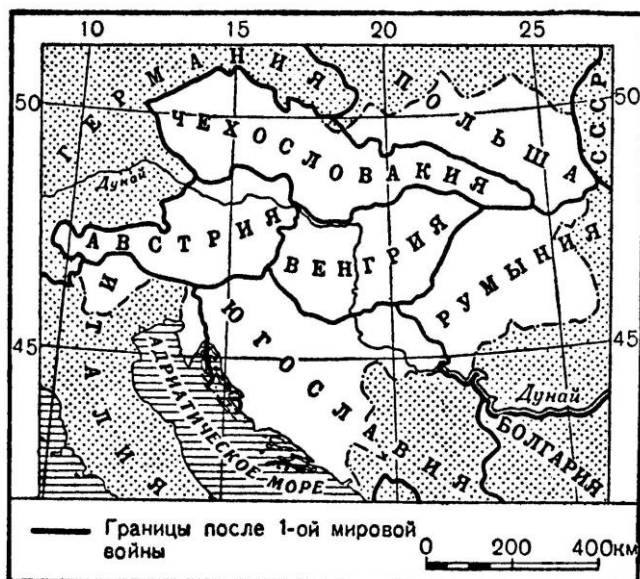
AUSTRIA

Before World War I, most of the Danube Basin was part of Austria-Hungary, a vast and extremely multinational state. Having suffered defeat in the war, Austria-Hungary disintegrated in 1918: Austria, Hungary and Czechoslovakia became independent states (the rest of the Austro-Hungarian possessions were given to Poland, Romania, Yugoslavia and Italy).

Austria occupies 84 thousand square meters. km. Population 7 million, the majority are Austrian Germans; On the border with Yugoslavia, there is a significant group of Slovenes (Korushka region). The political system is a bourgeois republic. The capital is Vienna.

In 1938, Austria was captured and annexed by Nazi Germany; Austria was liberated thanks to the victories of the Soviet Army; Vienna was taken by the Soviet Army on April 13, 1945. Most of Austria is occupied by American, British and French troops, a smaller part—in the east—by the Soviet Army. The occupation authorities of the western zones supported the reactionary strata of the Austrian bourgeoisie and began to suppress the movements of the working people aimed at the democratic renewal of Austria. They strive to turn Austria into an imperialist outpost against the people's democracies and the Soviet Union. To this end, they are disrupting the restoration of Austria's independence, contrary to the agreement concluded on this issue between the USSR, the USA, Britain and France. The working people of Austria are fighting

against this disastrous policy; this struggle is led by the Austrian Communist Party.



48. Распад Австро-Венгрии.

48. Collapse of Austria-Hungary

Natural conditions. By its geographical position and by the nature of its nature, Austria reminds many of Switzerland. It is a mountainous alpine country located at the crossroads of important intra-European roads, but itself is landlocked.

Three quarters of the country is occupied by the Eastern Alps; they are lower than the Swiss Alps, glaciation is less widespread here, many forests and meadows, and in the valleys there are many lands

suitable for cultivation. The mountainous region of Tyrol is famous for its scenic beauty. In the vicinity of the Danube, the mountains give way to hilly plains. It is the most fertile part of Austria and an important hub for international traffic: the Danube waterway crosses here with railways from the North Sea to the Balkan countries and from Eastern Europe to the Mediterranean. Vienna is located in this junction—the main industrial, financial and political centre of Austria (1.5 million inhabitants, almost 1/4 population countries).

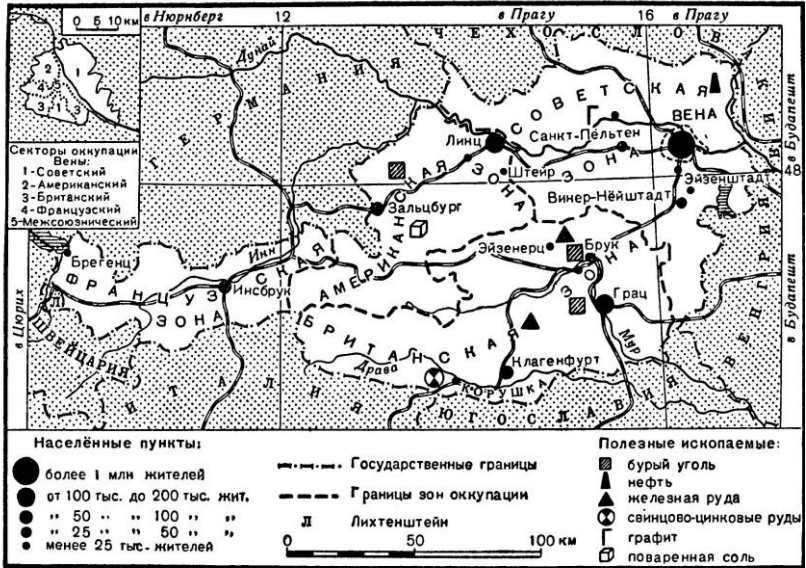
The mineral wealth of Austria is significant. Most important reserves of high-quality iron ore (near Eisenerts), oil (in the northeast) and magnesite. The main source of energy is mountain rivers. Forests cover more than 1/3 of the country's total area.

Economy. Austria is an industrial-agrarian country, approaching in its level to countries such as Switzerland or Belgium. Industry in Austria is diverse: mechanical engineering (mainly fine), electrical engineering, textiles, woodworking. The industrial centres, except Vienna—**Dornbirn, 1&t&ar**—are all in the east. The most important centre of the western mountainous part of Austria is Innsbruck (in Tyrol).

Agriculture does not cover food needs. In the Danube region, agriculture is widespread (they sow rye, oats, wheat, sugar beets); prevails in the mountains dairy farming.

The occupiers of the western zones, subjecting Austria to their aggressive goals and plundering its

resources, led the economy of these zones to decline, and the population to starvation.



49. Австрия. Зоны оккупации, города и полезные ископаемые.

49. Austria. Occupation zones, cities and minerals.

ITALY

Italy occupies a central position among the Mediterranean countries. Its territory consists of three parts: 1) the mainland, including the low-lying valley of the river. Po and the Alpine mountains bordering it; 2) the Apennine Peninsula, located between the Adriatic and Tyrrhenian Seas; 3) islands—Sicily, Sardinia and a number of smaller ones. Italy's land borders run along the Alps; Italy borders: in the northwest—with France, in the north—with Switzerland and Austria, in the northeast—with Yugoslavia. The area of Italy is 302 thousand square meters. km; population 48 million. The state system is a bourgeois republic. The capital is Rome.

Defeated in World War II, Italy suffered territorial losses. Most of the Julian Caribbean, inhabited mainly by Slavs, went to Yugoslavia. The city of Trieste with the adjacent coast also departed from Italy, allocated to the “Free Territory of Trieste”, which was to become independent. However, the USA and Great Britain thwarted the organization of the Free Territory, left their troops in Trieste and dispose of there at their own discretion. On the Franco-Italian border, small changes have been made in favor of France. In addition, Italy handed over the Sporades Islands (off the coast of Asia Minor) to Greece and renounced its rights to all colonies in Africa.

Natural conditions

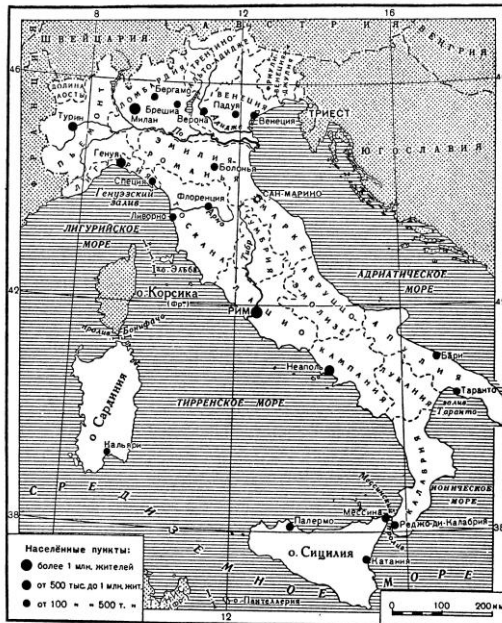
Geographical location. The Apennine Peninsula and Sicily divide the Mediterranean Sea almost in half and approach the North African coast; the width of the sea between Sicily and Tunisia is only 140 km. The extension to the sea forces the southern parts of Italy to make extensive use of sea relations, but the remoteness from the developed industrial regions of Europe is unfavorable for the development of maritime trade. Northern Italy, on the contrary, is in an advantageous position both for maritime relations (through the Ligurian and Adriatic seas) and for connections with the continental countries of Europe. Continental communications, however, are hampered by the Alps, but these difficulties were overcome already in antiquity and all the more easily overcome since the railways crossed the Alps in many places.

On the other hand, the Ligurian and Adriatic Seas represent the offshoots of the Mediterranean Sea with which it comes closest to the countries of Central Europe. That is why these seas have long been important not only for North Italian, but also for international European trade.

The Italian fascists argued that Italy's central position in the Mediterranean determines its vocation and the right to rule over it (the fascists even called the Mediterranean "our sea"). To confirm this, they referred to the power of ancient Rome. However, just on the example of Italy, one can clearly see that neither geographical advantages in themselves, nor the memories of the power of distant ancestors do not

ensure a dominant position in the imperialist world, if there is not sufficient strength behind it. And fascist Italy did not have this.

Northern Italy. The mainland of Italy (Northern, or Upper, Italy) is very different in natural conditions from the Apennine Peninsula and the islands. Here is the wide Lombard lowland, irrigated by the river. Along with numerous tributaries; in the west it passes into the hilly plain of Piedmont (which means foothills). The Alps and Apennines border the lowland from the north, west and south, in the east it is adjacent to the Adriatic Sea.



50. Италия. Области и города.

50. Italy. Regions and cities.

In the distant past, there was a gulf of the Adriatic Sea in the place of the lowland. The lowland is formed by the uplift of land and the sediment of rivers flowing down from the surrounding mountains. The surface of the lowland is flat and the soil is fertile. Po is the main river in Italy (652 km long). Flowing through the lowland with a very slight slope, Po obstructs its course with its own sediments; in some places the river bed lies above the surrounding plain, so that the population has to protect themselves from floods with dams. On the Adriatic coast there are swamps and lagoons. The navigable value of Po is small. The Alpine tributaries of the Po form powerful sources of water energy.

The Alps border the North Italian Plain in an arc that extends from the Ligurian coast in the west to the Adriatic coast in the east; they reach their highest height in the northwest.

The mountains bordering the North Italian Plain on three sides separate it from the Atlantic Ocean, as well as from the main basin of the Mediterranean Sea. Therefore, the climate of Northern Italy is closer to the Central European than to the Mediterranean. Winter is relatively cold, summer is hot. In Turin, for example, the average January temperature is 0° , the average July is $+23^{\circ}$. The climate is much milder in the valleys of the Alpine foothills protected from the north. There are a number of lakes (Lago Maggiore, Como, Garda) with exceptionally picturesque shores and rich vegetation. The climate is even warmer on the Ligurian coast, closed from the north by two rows of mountains (the Alps and the Ligurian Apennines) and open to the Mediterranean Sea; in Genoa, the average January

temperature is $+7.5^{\circ}$, the average July is $+24^{\circ}$. This is the Italian Riviera, similar to the French "Cote d'Azur".

Apennine peninsula and islands. The Apennine Peninsula has an elongated shape resembling a boot; its length is over 800 km, width is 150-200 km. The peninsula is mountainous. The Apennine Mountains run along its entire length, forming an arc; the northern end of the arc joins in the area of the Ligurian coast with the Alps, its southern end - in Sicily. The Apennines are composed of a series of parallel ridges of medium height, separated by easy passages. The widest and most inaccessible part of the Apennines is the Abruzzo (in the middle part of the peninsula), which rises to almost 3 thousand meters. Between the Apennines and the Tyrrhenian Sea there are hilly plains with individual elevations. The mountainous terrain also prevails on the islands. Sicily is separated by a narrow (3 km) Strait of Messina from the Apennine Peninsula.

The areas of Italy adjacent to the Tyrrhenian Sea are rich in volcanoes and are prone to strong earthquakes.

Most of the volcanoes have gone out; the main ones in operation are Vesuvius near the Gulf of Naples, Etna in Sicily and Stromboli in the Aeolian Islands (north of Sicily). Fertile volcanic soils cover the plains of Campania. Because of the fertility of the soil, villages and vineyards are molded along the very slopes of Vesuvius; eruptions destroy them from time to time, but each time they are restored again. One of the most powerful eruptions of Vesuvius was in 79 AD.; it buried the cities of Pompey and Herculaneum under lava and ash. The excavations of Pompeii have provided rich

material for the study of ancient Roman life. Earthquakes are even more destructive. In 1908, an earthquake almost completely destroyed the city of Messina in Sicily.

On the narrow Apennine peninsula, large rivers could not form. The most significant Tiber and Arno flow into the Tyrrhenian Sea. Their shipping value is negligible.

The climate of the Apennine Peninsula and the islands is purely Mediterranean.

There are few forests in Italy. Most of all they are preserved in the mountains (chestnuts, beeches, pines, spruces); thickets of evergreen shrubs typical of Mediterranean nature in general are widespread.

Conditions for agriculture and industry. The natural conditions of Italy are favorable for a variety of agricultural sectors. In Northern Italy, they do well: wheat, corn, rice, sugar beets, grapes, mulberries. In the Alps there are mountain pastures. The soil and climatic conditions of southern Italy are favorable for viticulture and subtropical fruit growing.

Italy is poor in the most important minerals—coal, iron ore and especially oil. The reserves of bauxite, zinc, lead and mercury are more significant. Italy is rich in marble (in Tuscany) and gray (in Sicily). An important source of energy is the Italian mountain rivers; most of them are in Northern Italy. A significant drawback of Italian rivers as sources of energy is the sharp variability of their strength at different times of the year (this is especially true for the rivers flowing from the Apennines).

Population

Italians make up the vast majority of the population. Only in the regions that went to Italy from Austria-Hungary after the First World War, there are significant groups of national minorities: in southern Tyrol—Austrian Germans, along the border with Yugoslavia—Slovenes.

Poverty and lack of land in the Italian countryside, starting from the 1880s, constantly pushed the masses of peasants and agricultural workers abroad forever or for temporary work. Before World War I, the bulk of emigrants went to the United States, Argentina, Brazil, and from European countries to France. After the war, the overseas emigration of Italians fell (the United States began to restrict the influx of foreigners). There are about 10 million Italians abroad.

The average population density is about 160 people per square kilometer. On the North Italian Plain and on the Ligurian coast, the density exceeds 200 people per sq. km, in the mountainous regions of southern and central Italy and in Sardinia it drops to 40-50 people.

Italy has more large cities than France, 5 cities have over 500 thousand inhabitants (in France only 2): Rome 1.3 million, Milan 1.2 million, Naples 930 thousand, Genoa 660 thousand, Turin 700 thousand. But in Italy there is no such general centre; like Paris. Rome is a historical, administrative and ecclesiastical centre; the main industrial centres are Milan, Turin, Genoa. Apart from Rome, Milan, Florence, Bologna and Venice are of outstanding importance as historical cities with remarkable antiquities and artistic treasures.

Features of the Economic Development of Italy

The political reunification of Italy took place almost simultaneously with the formation of the German Empire: in 1880 the Kingdom of Italy was formed, but without Rome, which was part of the Papal States (the state of the Pope), and without the Venetian region, which was under Austrian rule. The Venetian region was annexed in 1866, and in 1870 Italian troops occupied Rome, and the Papal region was incorporated into Italy, despite the Pope's protest¹. But the economic development of Italy and after that proceeded slowly. It was hampered, on the one hand, by the strongest remnants of feudalism, the poverty of the peasantry, and on the other, by the almost complete absence of coal and iron. While a united Germany was rapidly becoming an advanced industrial country, Italy remained a backward agrarian country. Only Northern Italy stood out for its more significant industry, a dense railway network, and a relatively developed agriculture.

Despite the economic weakness of Italy, the Italian bourgeoisie was drawn to the strongest imperialist predators and sought to seize the colonies. She drew Italy into the First World War on the basis of rich war booty². The war was fought by Italy unsuccessfully; a significant part of Italian territory was occupied by

¹ In 1929, the fascist government, in order to win the church over to its side, recognized the Vatican as a papal "state" and paid a large compensation sum. This settled the conflict.

² Italy's performance on the side of the Entente was preceded by a long bargaining with both warring parties: who will give more for participation in the war.

Austrian troops. However, in view of the general defeat of Germany and Austria, Italy was among the winners and received significant cuts at the expense of the Austrian lands. The war led to the enrichment of the big bourgeoisie, profiting from the intensified work of the war industry, and sharply worsened the position of the working class and the peasantry. This caused an upsurge in the revolutionary movement (1919-1921) following the end of the war. The workers seized factories, the peasants seized the landowners' lands. But the revolutionary movement lacked organization and solid leadership. Fascist squads made up of officers, the petty bourgeoisie, and the kulaks were moved against the revolutionary workers and peasants.

The fascists promised to provide land-poor peasants with land, introduce a high progressive tax on capitalists, abolish the tax on peasants who cultivate the land with their own labor, etc. With such promises, the fascists managed to attract the peasants and the most backward part of the workers. In 1922, the fascists, led by Mussolini, undertook a "campaign against Rome," and the government surrendered power to them without resistance. The king was abandoned for the form, but a fascist dictatorship was established.

Since the First World War, the Italian economy has undergone changes of the same nature as in France: industry has moved to a more prominent place than it was before the war. The impetus for this was given by the war itself, which demanded intense work by industry, the construction of new factories, and the re-equipment of old ones. The big bourgeoisie profited greatly from this.

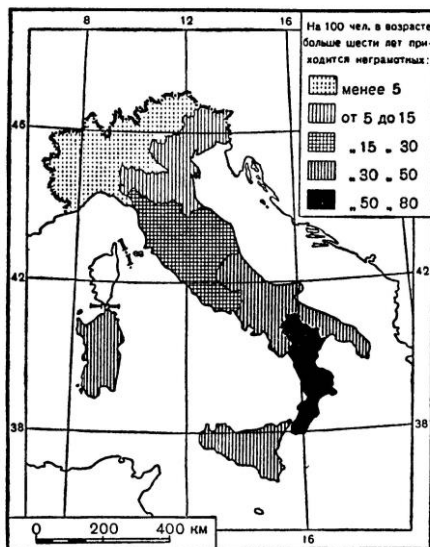
In the development of Italian industry between the two world wars, the following conditions played a major role: 1) the brutal exploitation of the working class; wage level in fascist Italy it was extremely low, the workers were completely deprived of rights; this gave the Italian manufacturers the opportunity to produce goods relatively cheaply, despite the need to import coal, oil, and almost all industrial raw materials from abroad; 2) the widespread use of water energy, which is especially rich in Northern Italy; this partially offset the lack of mineral fuel; 3) intensified work of industry for military purposes.

Industries such as automobile, aviation. The percentage of illiterates among the Italian population over the age of 6. The map shows a dramatic difference between relatively developed north and backward south, *naya*, production of artificial silk. The growth of industry was accompanied by its concentration in the hands monopolistic associations. So, automobile Fiat company (“Italian car factory, Turin”) gave about 80% of the total production of cars in Italy.

Industries such as the automotive, aviation *naya*, production of artificial silk. The growth of industry was accompanied by its concentration in the hands of monopoly associations. Thus, the car company Fiat (“Italian car factory, Turin”) gave about 80% of the total production of cars in Italy.

The flip side of the matter was the extreme impoverishment of the working class and the depletion of the national economy by the exorbitant growth of armaments. The high level of development of some

industries (especially those related to weapons) was opposed by the great backwardness of the mass of small-peasant farms, which play a very important role in the agriculture of Italy.



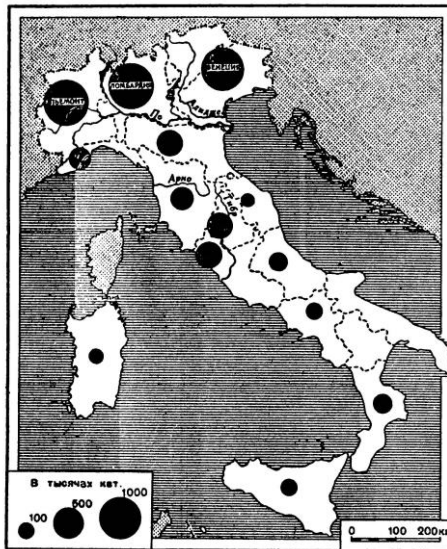
51. Процент неграмотных среди населения Италии в возрасте свыше 6 лет. Карта показывает резкое различие между сравнительно развитым севером и отсталым югом.

51. Percentage of illiterates among the Italian population over 6 years old. The map shows a sharp difference between the comparatively developed north and the backward south.

Moreover, in terms of industrial development, Italy has far from reached the level of the most developed capitalist countries. In terms of steel production, it was on a par with little Luxembourg and was inferior to Belgium. In mechanical engineering, it was not only far

behind Germany and England, but significantly inferior to France.

On the whole, the economic base of fascist Italy was far from matching its imperialist claims. Having captured Abyssinia in 1936 and Albania in 1939, Italy entered the Second World War after the defeat of France by Germany, counting on easy prey and an early end to the war. Instead, she received a protracted and difficult war, a series of severe defeats, and as a result –the collapse of Italian fascism and surrender; the economy of Italy has come to extreme exhaustion.



52. Мощность электростанций по провинциям Италии. Северная Италия резко выделяется по электрификации.

52. Power of power plants in the provinces of Italy. Northern Italy stands out sharply for electrification.

Italy's transition from a fascist dictatorship to a republican system has not yet brought it to democratization. Reactionary the forces of the landlords and capitalists, which gave birth to Italian fascism in the past, have survived. Supported by American imperialists, they have a decisive influence on politics governments and lead Italy, contrary to its national interests, to submission to American imperialism. However, the democratic forces in Italy are great. Led by the communists they are fighting for the democratization of Italy against attempts to revive fascism and give the Italian people into bondage to the American capital. The growing influence of the Italian Communist Party is evidenced by the enormous growth in the number of its members—from 6 thousand in 1943 to almost 2.6 million at the beginning of 1951.

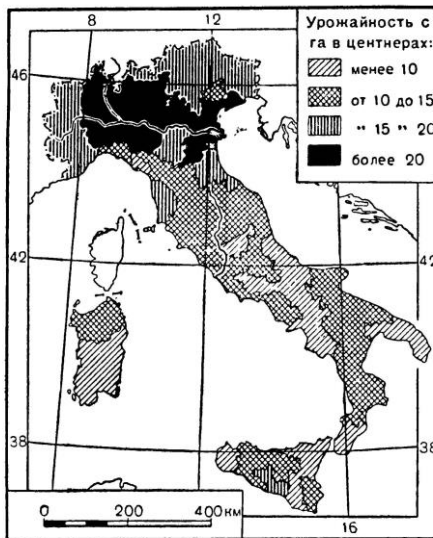
Overview of the Economy

By the type of economy, Italy, like neighboring France, is an industrial-agrarian country. But in terms of industrial development, it is inferior to France; for example, the consumption of energy and metal per capita in Italy is significantly lower than in France.

Industry. Despite the widespread use of water energy, Italy did not free itself from the need to import in significant quantities coal, oil, etc. petroleum products. Water energy covers 40% of the total energy and fuel consumption in Italy, 55% is covered by imported coal and oil, 5%—local coal. Moreover, in

terms of the consumption of all energy resources, taken together, per capita, Italy is behind many countries.

The industry of Italy from the Second World War came out weakened, and the subordination of Italy to the interests of the United States hinders its restoration and development, especially in relation to heavy industry. At the same time, the United States is using, for the purposes of economic and political pressure on Italy, the difficulties it experiences with the purchase of the fuel and various raw materials it needs.



53. Урожайность пшеницы на 1 га.

53. Wheat yield per 1 ha

Light industry occupies an important place in the Italian industry, primarily textile—cotton, silk (both natural and artificial silk). Of these, only the natural

silk industry is provided with local raw materials, and even more: Italy exports a significant amount of raw silk. However, the importance of natural silk is declining due to the growth of the artificial silk industry.

The metallurgical industry in Italy, with a very weak iron ore and coal base, produces much more steel (from imported and its own scrap) than pig iron. In 1950, 2.3 million tons of steel were smelted and only 0.6 million tons of pig iron. Another feature of Italian metallurgy is that high-quality steel produced by electric melting plays a significant role in steelmaking. Of the non-ferrous metallurgy industries, the smelting of aluminum (again based on cheap electricity), zinc and lead is distinguished. In mechanical engineering, an outstanding place is occupied by transport engineering (autobuilding, steam locomotives and carriages), with less development of industrial engineering.

Agriculture. The cultivated area (fields, vineyards, orchards and vegetable gardens) occupies about 16 million hectares, that is, half of the entire territory.

The predominant part of the land belongs to the large landowners-capitalists and landowners-nobles. However, large capitalist farms, using machines and artificial fertilizers, are combined with a huge number of small poor farms. Many of them are conducted on plots of land rented from landowners for a share of the harvest. Small owners are also very numerous in Italy; mostly these are the poor, crushed by debts, forced to earn extra money as a day-laborer or lease plots of land from landlords. There are many and completely landless labourers working for landlords or for tenants;

for the most part they only find work for part of the year, during the summer months.

Agriculture in Italy is distinguished by a wide variety of cultures. Wheat is in the first place among grain crops, in the second—corn. The most important grain region is the North Italian Plain. Rice is also sown here on irrigated land. Viticulture, olive culture and subtropical fruit growing are of great importance. Fruits, vegetables, wine constitute an important item of Italian export. Grapes are ubiquitous, olives are found on the peninsula and in Sicily. Italy ranks second in wine production after France (differing from France in lower quality of wine), in olive oil production - second after Spain. The culture of orange and lemon trees is widespread in southern Italy. Sericulture is well developed in Northern Italy (Italy is in third place after China and Japan in the production of raw silk). The crops of sugar beet and hemp are also widespread there.

In Italy, several crops are often cultivated simultaneously on the same plot. For example, grapes are planted between fruit trees, vegetables and grains are planted between rows of grapes. Most of the vineyards and olive orchards are mixed with other crops. Since this depletion of the soil is mostly not replenished with sufficient fertilizers, this leads to a decrease in yield.

Cattle breeding is poorly developed. Cattle and pigs are half as many as in France. Only Northern Italy stands out for its comparatively developed dairy farming and cheese making. Goats and sheep are grazed on the scarce mountain pastures of the Apennines.

International trade. Italy's commercial relations are mainly by sea; the total tonnage of the Italian merchant fleet is about 3 million tons.

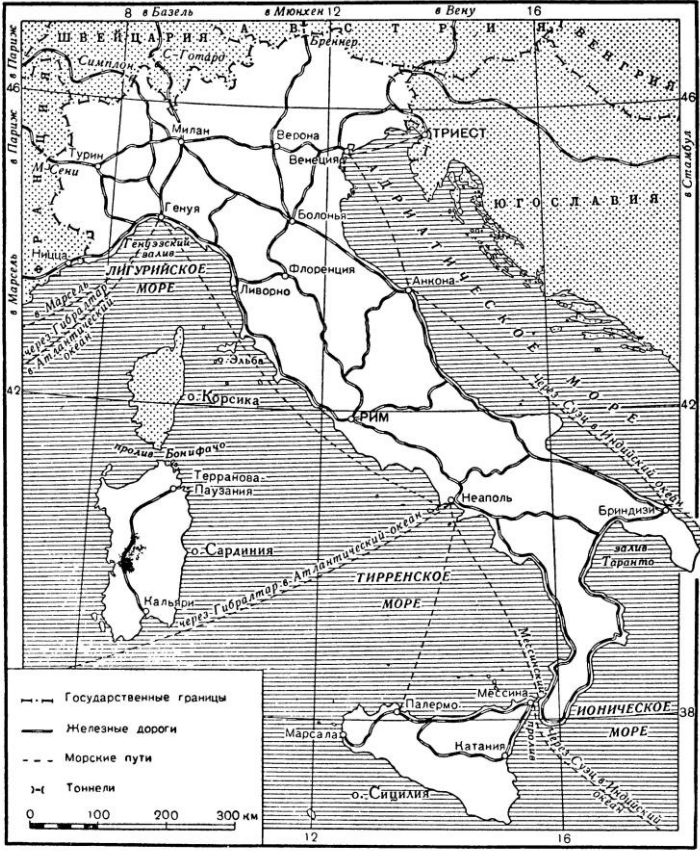
Italy imports mainly fuel (coal, oil products) and raw materials (metals, cotton, timber). The export consists of textiles, silk, cars, fruits, cheese—valuable goods and mostly of little weight. In this regard, imports by weight are 5-6 times greater than exports, and ships arriving at Italian ports with cargo leave them almost empty. Large revenues are provided by the service of tourists who are attracted to Italy by the beauty of nature, historical monuments and artistic treasures. After the Second World War, these incomes fell sharply.

Districts

Northern Italy. Northern Italy differs sharply from the rest of the country in its higher level of development. The development of Northern Italy was facilitated by the following geographic conditions: 1) the proximity of developed countries to the European continent, which has long favored the development of economic and cultural ties; 2) an advantageous position for sea relations (the proximity of the Ligurian and Adriatic seas); 3) the fertility of the North Italian plain; 4) wealth of water energy.

The overwhelming part of the metalworking, textile industry and production is concentrated in Northern Italy artificial silk. The main military factories were also located here. The largest industrial centres are Milan, Turin, Genoa. The same picture of the preponderance of Northern Italy in agriculture: 2/3 of all tractors used

in agriculture are located in Northern Italy; only in North In Italy, chemical fertilizers. The yield is 2-3 times higher than in the southern Italy.



54. Транспортные связи Италии.

54. Transport links of Italy.

The composition of agricultural crops is diverse: wheat, corn, rice, grapes, mulberries, sugar beets, garden crops. Artificial irrigation is widely used. In the east, in the boggy coastal areas, drainage works have been carried out. In the alpine valleys, dairy cattle breeding and cheese making are developed. The coast of the Ligurian Sea is the most important resort area in Italy and at the same time a gardening area.

Northern Italy occupies a predominant position in Italy's foreign relations. A number of railway lines have been laid across the Alps, linking Italy with neighboring countries. The most important of them are: to France—along the coast (railway Genoa—Nice—Lyon), through the Mont Cenis tunnel (Turin—Lyon) and through the Simplon tunnel (Milan—Lonzanna—Paris); to Switzerland and Germany—through the St. Gotthard Tunnel (Milan—Basel—Frankfurt, with further branches) and through the Brenner Pass (Verona—Munich, 27 tunnels on the way); to Austria (Venice—Vienna).

Genoa is the most important port in Italy, rivalling Marseille in terms of turnover. Venice is a significant port on the Adriatic Sea. Naval bases in Northern Italy: Spina on the Ligurian Sea, Venice on the Adriatic.

Many cities in Northern Italy are famous for their historical sites and valuable art collections. Milan has a medieval cathedral of remarkable architecture. Bologna is the oldest university in Europe. There are many interesting monuments of their former power in Genoa and Venice. Venice by its position is one of the most distinctive cities in the world. It is located in the middle of a lagoon on low-lying swampy islands reinforced with piles. More than 150 canals cross the city in all

directions. City communication takes place by boats (gondolas), and along the Grand Canal, which divides the city into two parts, and on small steamships. The shallow lagoon, which is constantly covered with sand, is inconvenient for modern navigation; special passages have been deepened for sea vessels, which must be constantly maintained.

Southern Italy. The Apennine Peninsula and the islands represent an agricultural region dominated by wheat, viticulture and southern fruit growing. There are many dry, marginal lands requiring irrigation. Land cultivation is backward. The most primitive tools are used - ploughs, hoes. The most significant industrial and port city is Naples, located in one of the most fertile regions of the Apennine Peninsula, on the shores of the Gulf of Naples. The Gulf of Naples, with the island of Capri opposite it, is one of the most picturesque places on the Italian coast.

Rome on the river Tiber is the political capital of Italy and the capital of the Catholic Church, the richest and most reactionary church organization in the world.

The papal "state" of the Vatican includes the huge Vatican Palace and Peter's Cathedral. The total area of the "state" is 44 hectares, the population is 1000 people; but this dwarf state concentrates the headquarters of a huge church army, scattered almost all over the world, it is a hotbed of reaction and intrigue against the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracies.

Rome is one of the most remarkable cities in the world for its historical monuments and artistic treasures. Monuments of ancient Rome (Forum,

Colosseum, etc.) are in ruins. Papal Rome is especially rich in artistic monuments. The enormous wealth concentrated in the hands of the popes attracted the best masters of architecture, painting and sculpture to their service. During the Renaissance, the brilliant artists Michel-Angelo and Raphael worked on the decoration of the Vatican.

Florence is also of outstanding artistic and historical importance. Arno in a picturesque valley covered with gardens and vineyards.

There are large cities in Sicily: Palermo, Catania, Messina; all three are seaports. Naval bases in southern Italy - Naples, Taranto (near the Gulf of Taranto).

YUGOSLAVIA

Yugoslavia occupies the central and northwestern parts of the Balkan Peninsula (going beyond the peninsula in the northwest). It borders with Austria, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Greece, Albania, Italy; in the west it is adjacent to the Adriatic Sea. Area 255 thousand sq. km / population 16 million. Capital—Belgrade.

In the spring of 1941, Yugoslavia was captured by German and Italian troops. But the Yugoslav people raised a stubborn partisan war against the invaders.

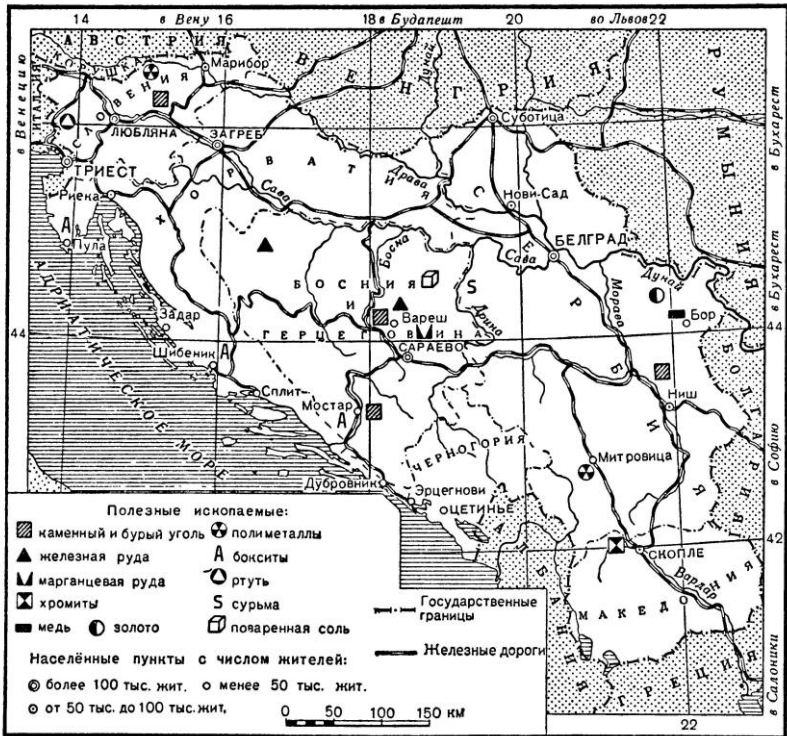
The decisive factor in the liberation of Yugoslavia was the victorious Soviet Army, which defeated Hitlerite Germany and its allies. A significant part of Yugoslavia was cleared of the occupiers by the Soviet Army. Belgrade was liberated on October 20, 1944 by Soviet troops together with the Yugoslav People's Liberation Army.

Under a peace treaty with Italy (1947), Yugoslavia received most of the Julian Krajni, inhabited mainly by Slovenes and Croats, but given to Italy after the First World War.

According to its state structure, the former Yugoslavia was considered a parliamentary kingdom. However, in fact, a reactionary dictatorship close to fascism prevailed.

In the course of the anti-fascist liberation struggle, a new government was formed. The Constituent Assembly, elected in November 1945, proclaimed Yugoslavia as the Federal People's Republic of six

people's republics (Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia, Montenegro),



55. Югославия.

55. Yugoslavia.

However, the development of the people's democratic system that arose in Yugoslavia was thwarted by Tito's fascist clique, which took power in the country. This clique liquidated the people's

democratic system in the country and established a terrorist fascist regime.

It incites enmity between the peoples inhabiting Yugoslavia, subjecting national minorities to severe persecution.

Under these conditions, the name “Federal People’s Republic” is a false sign behind which the lawlessness of the working people and national oppression are hidden.

As an instrument of American-British imperialism, Tito’s fascist clique deprived Yugoslavia of independence and made it a place of conspiracies and preparations for war against the Soviet Union and the countries of people’s democracies. This traitorous policy has been condemned by the Communist Parties of other countries.

“The Communist Party of Yugoslavia in its current composition, having fallen into the hands of enemies of the people, murderers and spies, has lost the right to be called the Communist Party and is only an apparatus carrying out the espionage tasks of the Tito clique ...” (from the resolution of the Information Bureau of the Communist Parties, 1949) ... But the forces of Yugoslavia loyal to communism are fighting for the revival of the revolutionary, genuinely communist party of Yugoslavia. The resolution of the Information Bureau of the Communist Parties expressed confidence that “... the working people of Yugoslavia under the leadership of the working class will be able to restore the historical gains of people’s democracy, obtained at the cost of heavy sacrifices and the heroic struggle of the peoples of Yugoslavia, and will follow the path of building socialism.”

Natural conditions. In physical and geographical terms, Yugoslavia consists of the following parts: 1) in the west—a narrow strip of the Adriatic coast (Dalmatia) with many coastal islands; 2) Dinaric mountains, separating the coast from the rest of Yugoslavia; 3) in the east—Serbian and Macedonian mountains, cut by the valleys of the Morava and Vardara rivers. These valleys lead the way from the middle Danube to the Aegean Sea; 4) in the north - lowland along the Danube, Drava, Sava and Tisse rivers, which forms part of the Middle Danube lowland.

In general, 3/4 of Yugoslavia is occupied by mountains. The Dinaric mountains create the greatest inconvenience for transport and agriculture; they consist of ridges and plateaus that generally extend parallel to the sea coast, have almost no transverse valleys and convenient passes and therefore make communication difficult the interior regions of Yugoslavia with the Adriatic Sea. The mountains are composed of limestone and are characterized by a wide distribution of karst phenomena (this name itself comes from the Karst highlands, located in the north-west of Yugoslavia); over these mountains are dry and infertile. The most fertile regions of the country are the Morava valley and the Danube lowland. The Danube and its tributaries Sava, Drava and Tissa are navigable from the rivers of Yugoslavia.

The climate of the Adriatic coast is Mediterranean, inside the country's climate is more continental, close to the Central European one.

Yugoslavia is rich in forest. The composition of the forests is very diverse—from evergreen trees and shrubs

of the Mediterranean type on the coast to coniferous forests of spruce and fir in the mountains. Hardwoods prevail—oaks and beeches. Mineral resources of Yugoslavia are very diverse: copper, lead, chromium, iron ores, bauxite, mercury; there is brown coal, but little bituminous coal. Lots of water energy.

Population. The main peoples of Yugoslavia are Serbs (39% of the total population), Croats (32%), Slovenes (8%) and Macedonians. They belong to the South Slavs. Serbs and Croats have a common language, but the culture and the economic order have their own peculiarities, which have developed as a result of centuries of existence as part of different states. In addition, Albanians form a significant group near the Albanian border. There are many Hungarians in the north of Yugoslavia.

Three quarters of the population lives in rural settlements, only one quarter in cities. Belgrade and Zagreb stand out among the larger cities. Belgrade (388 thousand inhabitants), located at the confluence of the Sava with the Danube, is the main city of Serbia and the capital of all Yugoslavia.

Zagreb (on Sava) is the main city of Croatia (290 thousand inhabitants). The capital of Slovenia is Ljubljana (121 thousand inhabitants), Bosnia and Herzegovina—Sarajevo (118 thousand inhabitants), Macedonia—*Škole*, Montenegro—Cetinje.

Economy. Basically Yugoslavia is a backward agricultural country.

In the degree of development of the territory, there is a sharp contrast between the plain areas (prevailing in the north-east of the country), where the main tracts of arable land are concentrated, and mountainous areas (in the north-west and south-west), where natural pastures, forests and many unused lands. The contrast is especially great between northern Serbia, which includes a section of the Danube plain and the lower reaches of the Morava, and Montenegro, which is entirely located in the Dinaric Mountains: in the first, from 50 to 80% of the entire territory is plowed, in the second—less than 5%.

The main crops are wheat and corn; many fruit (especially plum) orchards and vineyards. Tobacco is sown in many places. In the Danube plain there are sugar beet crops and sugar factories in the same place. Livestock raising is widespread everywhere. Agricultural products (corn, wheat, fruits) make up the bulk of Yugoslavia's exports.

Forestry provides good timber for construction. The mining industry is of considerable importance: mining of copper (Bor mines in northeastern Serbia), bauxite (in Dalmatia), chromium (in Macedonia, near Skopje), iron ore (in Bosnia), mercury (in Slovenia), coal, zinc, lead. In Bosnia, where iron ore and coal are located close to each other, there is a medium-sized metallurgy (centre Vares).

In the northwestern regions, Croatia and Slovenia, there is a significant manufacturing industry: woodworking, food, textile.

The combination of a variety of ore resources, water energy, forests and various agricultural raw materials

creates favorable opportunities for industrial development. However the treacherous policy of the ruling clique undermined all the conditions for the development of the country's national economy, killed the creative spirit and initiative among the people, turned the country into a semi-colony of American-British imperialism, giving it over to plunder most valuable resources. This led to the decline of the economy and to a deterioration in the material situation of the working people.

Railway lines of international importance run through Yugoslavia—from Central Europe through Belgrade to Istanbul and Thessaloniki.

On the Adriatic Sea, Yugoslavia has several ports: the main ones are: Rijeka (Fiume), Ploče (Pola), Split.

GREECE

Greece occupies the southern part of the Balkan Peninsula and islands of the seas surrounding Greece: Ionian in the west, Crete in the south, most of the Aegean islands in the east. The Peloponnese peninsula is connected to the main massif of the Balkan Peninsula by a narrow Isthmus of Corinth (crossed Corinth Canal). Area 133 thousand sq. km / population 7.8 million (about 90% –Greeks, the rest–Macedonians, Bulgarians, Albanians, Turks, Jews). The capital is Athens.

According to its state structure, Greece before the Second World War was considered a parliamentary kingdom. In fact, it was dominated by a military dictatorship close to fascism. At the same time, Greece was dependent on England. The British imperialists were attracted to Greece primarily by its strategically important position at the crossroads of the Mediterranean sea routes, on the approaches to the Dardanelles.

In the spring of 1941, German and Italian troops captured Greece. Partisan war broke out in Greece; the Greek People's Liberation Army was formed; it caused many difficulties to the invaders and liberated a significant part of the Greek territory. At the same time, fascist elements from the ruling circles collaborated with the occupiers.

In the final liberation of Greece, the decisive role was played by the victories of the Soviet Army in the Balkans, which forced the German invaders to purge the country. British troops entered Greece. A government was established, mainly representing the old

reactionary forces. Instead of eradicating fascism and establishing a democratic order, it began by terror to crack down on supporters of the national liberation front, which unites the democratic forces of Greece. The actual masters of the country were the American-British imperialists, who were striving to use Greece as a springboard against the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracies.

Natural conditions. Mountain ranges cross Greece in all sorts of directions. They split the country into many distinct geographic regions. Mountain surface stony; the predominant vegetation is sparse shrubs and skinny grasses that burn out in summer. Living conditions are more favorable in intermontane depressions, and especially in valleys adjacent to the sea. There are more such convenient lands in the east, the west coast is steeper and wilder. The climate of Greece is purely Mediterranean, with the exception of the highlands.

The connection with the sea is of exceptional importance for Greece. The sea penetrates deeply into the land, separating the peninsulas (Peloponnese in the south, Chalcedonian in the northeast). It serves for internal communications and opens up convenient paths for external communications. Continuous chains of islands link the Greek coast with the Asia Minor; this greatly facilitated the development of navigation in the early days, when the means of navigation were primitive and did not allow going far into the open sea: the navigator could cross the Aegean Sea, going from island to island, never losing sight of the land.

Of the mineral resources in Greece there are nickel, bauxite, chrome ore, some silver, zinc and lead, and iron ore. There is almost no coal.

Economy. Household. More than half of the Greek population is employed in agriculture. Agriculture specializes in labour-intensive crops: tobacco, olives, grapes. They provide the main export products (tobacco and tobacco products, small dried grapes - cinnamon, olive oil), sow wheat, but their own bread in Greece is far from short. The main industrial crop is cotton. Under processing—less than 1/5 of the territory; goats and sheep are kept on lean pastures. A significant part of agricultural products goes to the market in processed or semi-processed form. The development of the food industry is associated with this.

A characteristic feature of the Greek economy is its bias towards navigation and sea trade. This is due to the poverty of the soil, close connection with the sea (rugged coastline, many islands), a favorable position on important trade ways. The Greek Navy is a prominent figure in international shipping. The main port of Greece, Piraeus, is one of the largest ports in the Mediterranean; are important also Thessaloniki (access to the sea not only for northern Greece, but also for the southern part of Yugoslavia).

Thus, Greece, on the one hand, is an agrarian country with significant industrial processing of agricultural raw materials, on the other, a maritime trading country.

In connection with this structure of the economy in Greece, urban life is more developed than in

Yugoslavia. Three cities have over 200 thousand inhabitants - Athens (400 thousand inhabitants), Piraeus and Thessaloniki. Athens, formerly the most important cultural and political centre ancient Greece, remarkable monuments of their brilliant past.

SPAIN

Spain occupies most of the Iberian Peninsula, which forms the extreme southwestern tip of Europe. It shares borders with France and Portugal. The area of Spain, including the Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean Sea and the Canary Islands in the Atlantic Ocean, 503 thousand sq. km; population 28 million. Capital—Madrid. In 1936-1939, Spain is a democratic republic with a popular front government. In 1939, power was seized counter-revolutionary rebels who established a fascist dictatorship.

Natural conditions

Position and surface. By geographical location and by the nature of natural conditions, the Iberian Peninsula is a transition from Europe to Africa: the Strait of Gibraltar, separating it from Africa, it is not difficult for crossing (in the narrowest place only 14 km). Communication with European countries, on the contrary, is hampered by the inaccessible Pyrenees mountains, which form the border between Spain and France.

The Iberian Peninsula is surrounded by the sea on 7/8 of its borders (in the southeast—the Mediterranean Sea, in the west—the Atlantic Ocean, in the north—the Bay of Biscay). But the shape of the peninsula is massive, the shores are weakly dissected, the interior regions are separated from the sea by mountains rising along the outskirts. Due to most of the peninsula has a

weak connection with the sea and is characterized by an arid continental climate.

The island of the Iberian Peninsula is the Central Plateau, or Mezeta, with an average height of 700-900 m above sea level. This is an ancient massif resembling in its structure the Massif Central of France. Along the edges it is bordered by hills: in the north—the Pyrenees and Cantabrian mountains, in the south—the Andalusian mountains (continuation of the Moroccan mountains, rising on the other side of the Strait of Gibraltar). The border of the hills gives Mezete a closed character. The Pyrenees reach 3400 m and have small glaciers. They block the entire isthmus with parallel circuits connecting the Iberian Peninsula with the mainland. The transverse valleys that cut into them usually end in rounded dead ends with steep slopes; there are few convenient passes. Until 1917, not a single iron the road did not cross the Pyrenees. The Spanish slope of the Pyrenees is dry, bare and lifeless. The highest part of the Andalusian mountains is the Sierra Mountains, “which, as the name itself shows, has snow-capped peaks (up to 3480 m).

The central plateau is divided in the middle by the Castilian mountains, consisting of several ridges (Sierra de Guadarrama, Sierra de Gredos). To the north of the Castile mountains lies Old Castile, to the south—New Castile.

There are no large lowlands on the Iberian Peninsula. In the northeast, between the Pyrenees and Meseta, the river valley cuts in. Ebro, which forms the closed Aragonese lowland. In the south, between the Andalusian mountains and the Mezeta, there is the

Andalusian lowland (along the Guadalquivir River), open to the ocean. In the West (in Portugal) a hilly plain adjoins the sea. On the Mediterranean coast, the lowland is bounded by a narrow strip. In the north and north-west, the mountains adjoin the very coast.

Climate and vegetation. In the Central Plateau and in the Aragonese Lowlands, summers are very hot, winters are relatively cool, with harsh winds and variable temperatures; there are even snowstorms on the plateau. There is little rainfall (an average of 30-35 cm per year), they fall unevenly, often in the form of short, stormy showers that do not have time to wet the dried soil; most of the precipitation falls in winter. The natural landscape of Mezeta is a dry steppe with bunches of rare hard grasses and dwarf bushes. In the summer, the greens burn out and become covered with gray dust. Cultivated land (wheat and barley fields, vineyards, olive orchards in sheltered valleys) occupy only about one-third of the total area. Especially desolate is the La Mancha Plain in New Castile, described by Cervantes in *Don Quixote*. There is a saying: "A lark crossing Castile must carry food with it." A completely different nature on the northern and especially the northwest coast. Here is a mild and humid climate, rich fresh vegetation—chestnut forests, beech and oak, lush meadows.

Andalusia and the Mediterranean coast have the hottest climate (average January temperature in Malaga is +13°, July 4-27°). On irrigated lands, wheat, grapes, olives, mulberries, oranges, sugarcane, and in some places even a date palm are cultivated. The rich

greenery of these artificial oases is in stark contrast to the surrounding semi-desert. “Dry” farming is also used (sowing crops under rain and soil moisture).

Rivers. The main rivers of the Iberian Peninsula are Duero, Tajo, Guadiana, Guadalquivir (all four flow into the Atlantic Ocean) and the Ebro (flow into the Mediterranean Sea). Except for the Guadalquivir, which feeds on the snows of the Sierra Nevada, the river full-flowing only during the winter rains, in summer they become sharply shallow. According to a local saying, they “flow two months, and ten months on vacation.” Only Guadalquivir is accessible for large shipping (small sea vessels rise to Seville).

There are many rapids and rapids in the upper parts of the rivers and when descending from the mountains into the coastal plains. Thanks to this, Spain is rich in water energy.

Fossils. The Iberian Peninsula is rich in minerals.

Even in antiquity, it was famous for its ore content. The main riches are iron, silver-lead and zinc ores, copper, mercury, tungsten, potassium salts; there is also coal (reserves of about 9 billion tons). All this, together with significant reserves of hydropower, creates a sufficient basis for industrial development. The most important deposits of coal and iron are in the Cantabrian mountains (in the far north), non-ferrous metals in the Sierra Morena mountains (southwestern outskirts of the Mezeta) and the Sierra Nevada (in the far south).

Features of development of Spain

Spain is one of the countries that played an important historical role and fell into a secondary position. In the XV-XVI centuries. Spain, like its neighboring Portugal, was a powerful maritime power. Located at the outlet from the Mediterranean Sea to the Atlantic Ocean, Spain and Portugal were in an equally convenient position for trade relations with the countries of the Mediterranean Sea and with the Atlantic countries of Europe and Africa. This prepared the experience of Spanish and Portuguese sailors for long-distance expeditions.

In the XV and XVI centuries. the Spaniards and the Portuguese showed outstanding energy in the search for new sea routes, in the seizure and plunder of colonies. Columbus's expedition organised by the Spaniards (Columbus himself was a Genoese) reached America in 1492; In 1498 the Portuguese expedition of Vasco da Gama reached India by sea around Africa. The Spanish expedition led by the Portuguese Magellan passed to India around the tip of South America and thus made the first round the world voyage (1519-1522).

Spain and Portugal took over huge colonies. The Portuguese settled in India and Africa, the Spaniards in Central America; They divided South America: the western part went to the Spaniards, the east—to the Portuguese (modern Brazil). In the occupied countries, the aliens forced the indigenous population to work in hard labor in mines and plantations, dooming the conquered peoples to poverty and extinction.

The influx of wealth from the colonies did not lead to the economic upsurge of Spain, but, on the contrary, to its decline. This is due to the peculiarities of social development of the Pyrenees countries. Two forces,

closely related to each other, dominated then in Spanish and Portuguese society—the feudal nobility and the church, which had a huge impact on public life. In no country has there been such a dominance of priests and monks as in Spain, nowhere did the religious persecution of “infidels” (Muslims, Jews) and “heretics” reach such cruel fanaticism (the famous Inquisition). In no other country has there been such an abundance of loitering nobles who prided themselves on their “honor”, who spent their money on luxury and amusements, despised work and did not know how to manage.

The feudal noblemen knew how to conquer and plunder, but they did not know how to use the loot with benefit. The easily acquired wealth was spent on new wars, on the royal court, on handouts to the nobility, on the church. The industry did not develop. The tide of gold and silver has raised the prices of basic necessities; the productive strata of the population—peasants, artisans—suffered from this. But the power of the feudal lords increased, and the church grew richer: about half of all income went into her hands.

Ultimately, the colonial wealth itself drifted out of the Pyrenees; Spanish government due to exorbitant military spending entangled in debt. In the maritime trade, Spain met with strong rivals—the Netherlands¹, England, France. The naval power of Spain was undermined by the defeat of its fleet (the so-called “Invincible Armada”), moved against England (1588). English and French corsairs fought off Spanish ships carrying silver from America.

¹ The Netherlands was in the XVI century. under the rule of Spain, but at the end of the XVI century. freed themselves after a bitter struggle.

At the beginning of the XIX century. (in 1810-1825) the American colonies of Spain revolted and separated. Only the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico remained in Spain.

In 1898, the United States struck a new blow: Spain, defeated in the Spanish-American War, lost the remnants of its possessions in America and the Philippine Islands in Asia.

At the beginning of 1936, the Popular Front won the elections to the Spanish Parliament, uniting the masses of the working people in their struggle against the reactionary forces. The government of the Popular Front that came to power abolished feudal duties, began to endow the peasants with land, and established democratic freedoms.

Then the reactionary military clique, having enlisted the support of German and Italian fascism, raised a counter-revolutionary mutiny. For almost three years the Spanish people heroically fought against the rebels and interventionists, defending their right to a free life, to economic and cultural revival. The struggle was unequal, since the rebels were systematically supplied with weapons from Germany and Italy, received from support by military units and the fleet; the governments of England and France patronised this under the guise of “non-intervention”. At the beginning of 1939, the fascists managed to seize power. They brutally dealt with the freedom fighters, cancelled the progressive measures of the Popular Front, and restored the enslaving duties of the peasantry. However, the resistance of the Spanish people to the fascist dictatorship has not been broken: it is growing both in

Spain itself and abroad, where many fighters of the Popular Front were forced to emigrate.

In World War II, fascist Spain, without formally declaring war, actually took part in it on the side of Germany. The United Nations Organisation condemned Spanish fascism and decided on some measures to restore the democratic system in Spain. However, the governments of the United States and Great Britain, who hypocritically participated in these decisions, subsequently thwarted their implementation. More and more, they began to support fascist Spain and strengthen their political, military and economic ties with it. The shameful support for the bloody fascist regime in Spain clearly exposes the true intentions of the American and British governments, which advocate “democracy” but in fact are imposing fascism.

Population

Spain includes a number of historical provinces that have preserved their national and cultural characteristics. The core of the Spanish state is Castile, which occupies the central part of Spain. Madrid—the main city of Castile and the capital of Spain (over 1 million inhabitants), is located at the crossroads of the Iberian Peninsula.

Basques (about 700 thousand), Catalans (over 5 million) and Galician (2.5 million) differ from the Castilians in language and culture. The Basques are descendants of the ancient population of the Iberian Peninsula. The Basque Country adjoins the Bay of Biscay and the French border. The most important city is

Bilbao. Catalonia is adjacent to the Mediterranean and the French border. Barcelona is the main city of Catalonia with over a million inhabitants and is the first industrial and commercial city in all of Spain. Galicia is located in the northwest, near Portugal. Galician is the dialect of Portuguese.

Other provinces are important: Asturias (in the north) with Oviedo, Andalusia (in the south) with Seville, Valencia (in the east) with Valencia. Some cities of Spain, which are now of secondary importance, in the past played an important role and preserved interesting ancient monuments. Among them are Cordoba and Granada, former centres of Arab culture in Spain; Toledo is the ancient capital of Spain, now a provincial city with an extraordinary, even for Spain, abundance of churches and monasteries. The population is more dense in the coastal regions than in the Castilian plateau. With the exception of Madrid, major cities are located on or near the sea.

Under the pressure of want and unemployment, tens of thousands of people moved from Spain annually (most of all to South America). Almost half of the population is illiterate. School teaching in Spain has been heavily influenced by the Catholic Church for centuries. The Spanish language, with local characteristics, dominates the former Spanish colonies of South and Central America.

Overview of the Economy

Agriculture. The consequences of the feudal-landlord and church oppression, which for centuries suppressed the development of Spain, are economic backwardness, poverty of the working masses.

Back in the 18th century, one contemporary called the Spanish peasantry “the poorest, most miserable and downtrodden estate.” The same can be said about modern Spain.

Most of the land belongs to landlord magnates and monasteries. Half of the agricultural population is farm labourers who work for a pittance, living in primitive, almost bestial conditions of existence. The next largest group—about one-fourth of the total agricultural population—is the land-poor; for the most part, these are tenants who rent plots of land, for which they either work out by personal labor on the landlord’s land (corvee), or give the landlord a share of the harvest (sharecropping), or pay in money. Contracts with tenants are so vague that they provide the landlord with the widest possibilities of arbitrariness: he can drive out the tenant, raise the rent, put an intermediary tenant on his neck. Agricultural implements are the most antediluvian; There are few draft animals, and even fewer agricultural machinery.

Due to the dry climate, agriculture in most of Spain requires artificial irrigation; but it is not sufficiently developed: the peasants and tenants are unable to undertake large-scale irrigation works, and the landowners, receiving good incomes from the

exploitation of tenants and farm labourers even without the cost of irrigation, do not care about it.

Agriculture is the source of subsistence for the majority of the population and provides 2/3 of the export. The cultivated area is less than 40% of the total area; 10% under the forest, over half of the entire country is poor natural pastures and inconvenient mountainous areas. The system of field cultivation is backward, with three fields prevailing. In terms of wheat yield, Spain ranks last place among European countries.

The branches of agriculture that work for export are olive culture and the production of olive oil, foreign wine growing and winemaking, horticulture producing oranges, lemons, and almonds. The main areas for export crops are the Mediterranean coast and the Andalusian lowlands. Here, for irrigation, they arrange reservoirs with the help of dams, from where water flows through irrigation canals to gardens and fields. Irrigated land is carefully cultivated by hand and produces good yields.

Grain farming and livestock breeding serve the domestic market and do not fully cover its needs. The main breads are wheat and barley. Previously, Spain was famous for its wool supplier. In the spring, a huge number of sheep migrated from the flat winter pastures to the mountains, to summer pastures, and returned back in the fall. "Sheep roads", with wide swaths of land provided for grazing and flood of the moving herds, crossed Spain in various directions. With the development of powerful sheep-breeding areas in

overseas countries, the importance of Spanish wool in the markets fell.

The main sheep-raising and grain-growing region is the Central Highlands, which is also the most backward agricultural region in Spain. Villages are rare here. They consist of low clay houses, but almost everyone has a cathedral. There are many old noble castles.

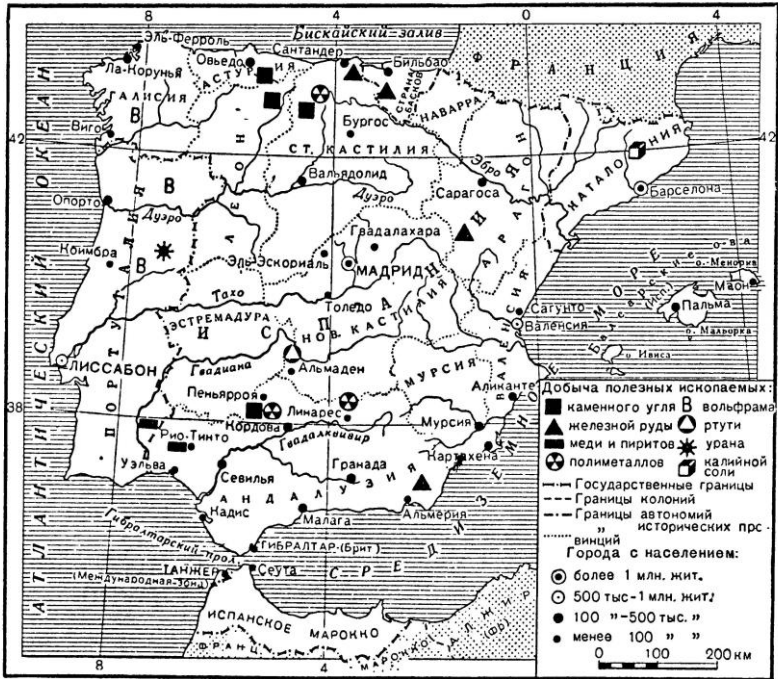
Agriculture in the wetter northwest has a special character. Cattle are raised here, corn and sugar beets are sown; horticulture is well developed—there are many apple orchards.

There are few draft animals in Spain. For transportation and riding are mules and donkeys, less often horses.

Of the forest species, the cork oak is of particular value; a significant amount of cork is exported. In the economy of coastal areas, fishing is of great importance (sardines and tuna are caught).

Industry. The First World War gave impetus to the development of Spanish industry, but there were no decisive shifts towards industrialisation. Possessing large and diverse enough resources to create heavy industry, Spain exports a significant part of its “mineral raw materials abroad in unprocessed or semi-processed form, and imports most of the machinery and metal products from abroad. Moreover, a large share of Spanish industry is in the hands of foreign capital. In recent years, more and more American capital has taken commanding positions in Spanish industry.

The leading industries are mining, textiles. Coal is mined (about 10 million tons per year), iron, lead, copper, zinc, mercury, potassium salt.



57. Испания и Португалия.

57. Spain and Portugal.

The main regions of the mining industry are Asturias with the centre of Oviedo (coal mining, ferrous metallurgy), the Basque Country with the centre of Bilbao (the most important region for the extraction of

iron ore and ferrous metallurgy) and Andalusia (mining of non-ferrous metals and non-ferrous metallurgy).

The textile industry is concentrated in Catalonia, especially Barcelona. In addition, Barcelona has a significant electrical, aircraft, shipbuilding and automotive industries. Industry in Catalonia is powered by hydropower plants in the Pyrenees. Madrid, inferior in industrial importance to Barcelona, concentrates a variety of industries (including chemical, electrical and mechanical industries).

The American imperialists are striving to strengthen the war industry in Spain. For this purpose, they transferred a number of military factories from West Germany to Spain.

Transport and foreign trade. Foreign trade in Spain is almost exclusively by sea. A significant part of the domestic trade also goes by sea (cabotage). The main ports are Barcelona and Valencia on the Mediterranean Sea, Bilbao on the Bay of Biscay, Cadiz on the Atlantic Ocean. The main military ports are Cartagena, El Ferrol, Mahon (on the island of Menorca).

Service by railways is rather weak: the total length of tracks is 17 thousand km; the length of railways per unit area is much less than even in Yugoslavia. The railways were built haphazardly. Many important points have no direct connection between them; some lines are not loaded. The most important railway junction is Madrid.

In connection with the ongoing transformation of Spain into a strategic foothold of American imperialism, the Americans took over the air traffic of Spain, and are

building air and naval bases in Spain and in its possessions (including on the island of Menorca).

Spain exports mainly food products—fruits (especially oranges), vegetables, olive oil, wine. Another significant export item is ores and metals.

Colonies. Spain owns colonies only in Africa. These include; Spanish Morocco (near the Strait of Gibraltar), Spanish Sahara and Spanish Guinea, with adjacent islands. Of these, Morocco is the most important. The total area of the Spanish colonies is 334 thousand square meters. km / population over 1 million people.

Gibraltar

Near the southern tip of the Iberian Peninsula is Gibraltar—a naval base and fortress of England, guarding the western gateway to the Mediterranean. Gibraltar is one of the most important strongholds of British naval power. Port structures, fortifications, warehouses for coal, oil, weapons—all this is molded on a narrow rocky promontory and in underground rooms carved into the rocks. Gibraltar Square only 5 sq. km. The rocks of Gibraltar and the opposite coast of Africa in ancient times were called “Pillars of Hercules”; they have long been considered the edge inhabited world.

PORTUGAL

Portugal is located on the western coast of the Iberian Peninsula, occupying 1/6 of its territory. Area 92 thousand sq. km; population 8.5 million. The state system is a fascist dictatorship (formally a republic). Capital—Lisbon.

Most of the Portuguese territory is hilly plains and low mountains. They are crossed by the rivers Duero, Tajo and Guadiana (all in the lower reaches). At the mouth of the Tajo is Lisbon (700 thousand inhabitants), at the mouth of the Duero—Oporto, the second most important city.

Portugal is a backward agricultural country. More than half of the Portuguese population is illiterate. In the distribution of landed property there are sharp contrasts between the huge latifundia of the magnates and the dwarf plots of the peasant poor; from Portugal—a constant attraction of emigrants, most of all to Brazil (a former colony of Portugal). The main export sectors of the economy are viticulture and winemaking, olive culture and olive oil production, and fruit orchard. The fishing and canning industry (sardines) and the extraction of cork (from the bark of the cork oak, which grows in abundance in Portugal) are important. His bread is in short supply. Industry is even less developed than in Spain; in the first place is the textile industry.

Lisbon is the last major port in Europe on the routes to South America and West Africa; ocean-going ships enter it for passengers and mail.

For more than two hundred years, Portugal has been dependent on England. It is connected with England by debt dependence.

Portugal retained (with the support of England) more significant remnants of its colonial power than Spain. The main Portuguese colonies in Africa: Angola, Mozambique, Portuguese Guinea, Cape Verde Islands. The Azores and Madeira Islands, which belong to Portugal, are considered part of the metropolis and are governed as Portuguese provinces. In Asia, Portugal has a few minor scraps (in India, Indonesia, southern China). The total area of the colonies is 2.1 million square metres. km; population 11 million.

DENMARK

Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Iceland are usually called Scandinavian countries, although Denmark and Iceland are outside the Scandinavian Peninsula. These countries have much in common in historical destinies, in language, in economic development and in political order.

Denmark is located at the exit from the Baltic Sea to the North. It occupies almost the entire Jutland peninsula and the group of islands to the east of it; the most important of them - Zeeland - is separated from Sweden only by a narrow strait (the smallest width 4 km). The Faroe Islands (in the Atlantic Ocean) and the island of Bornholm (in the Baltic Sea) belong to Denmark. On land, Denmark shares a border with Germany. The area of Denmark is 43 thousand square meters. km / population is 4 million people. State system is a parliamentary kingdom. The capital is Copenhagen.

Natural conditions. Denmark is an entirely low-lying country with a humid and mild maritime climate. The average January temperature is about 0°, the average July is 16°. The soils of eastern Denmark are loamy; thanks to good processing and abundant fertilization, they give a good harvest. In the west, the soils are poor, sandy, and there are many swamps. The natural conditions of Denmark are more favorable for animal husbandry than for agriculture. Denmark is poor in minerals.

Economy. Denmark is a developed agrarian-industrial country with a great development of maritime shipping and sea trade. The Danish economy developed under the strong influence of English capital and the needs of the English market. Denmark is a kind of “meat and dairy farm” in England, supplying it with butter, pork, milk, eggs. Danish products serve the table of mainly wealthy consumers—they are more expensive than Argentine and New Zealand ones.

Livestock production in Denmark is highly productive. Poultry farming is highly developed. Agriculture is adapted to the needs of animal husbandry. Most of the sown area is occupied by fodder crops - grasses, root crops (fodder beets, turnips), oats, and barley. Waste from oil production (skimmed milk and whey) is used to feed pigs. However, Denmark needs a lot of feed from abroad.

The dominant role in agricultural production belongs to the owners, who conduct a highly commodity economy with hired labor and extensive use of machinery and chemical fertilizers. They dominate agricultural cooperation, which is widespread in Denmark (organized supply of fodder, fertilizers, machinery, quality control and product standardization, marketing organization). The cooperation is funded by banks.

For a long time, bourgeois scholars held Denmark as an example of the “prosperity” of small and medium peasant farming. In reality, Danish agriculture, as Lenin showed, is purely capitalist, with a pronounced class stratification. After the First World War, the process of

class stratification in the Danish countryside was further intensified in connection with an acute marketing crisis that ruined many low-income peasants. The proletariat makes up more than half of the entire amateur population.

The main branches of the Danish industry are food processing, processing local and imported raw materials, the production of agricultural machinery and tools, and shipbuilding.

The geographical position of Denmark has determined the great importance of maritime relations for its economy. The proximity of the Danish islands to the Scandinavian Peninsula made it possible to establish a railway connection with Sweden using ferries.

The life centre of Denmark is its eastern half, namely the islands and the east coast of Jutland. This is an area of intensive agriculture, which concentrates all the most important industrial and port centres. The dominant position is occupied by Copenhagen (on the island of Zealand), 900 thousand inhabitants (with suburbs), a port of international importance, an important industrial and cultural centre.

Colony of Denmark Greenland, off the coast of North America, is the largest island in the world, with a population of only 18 thousand people (Eskimos).

ICELAND

Iceland, located approximately 1000 km off the coast of Europe, is a mountainous island with a subpolar climate. There are many active volcanoes and geysers. Huge areas are occupied by glaciers. Area 103 thousand sq. km; the population is only 137 thousand people (descendants of immigrants from Norway). The main sources of livelihood are fishing and sheep breeding. The political system is a bourgeois republic. The capital is Reykjavik.

Before World War II, Iceland was politically connected with Denmark: it was considered a kingdom in union with Denmark (common king). During the Second World War, the Anglo-American armed forces occupied Iceland. Iceland broke the union with Denmark and decided to establish a republican system. During the war, the United States established naval and air bases in Iceland. At the end of the war, the United States retained these bases for aggressive purposes and in 1951 landed its troops in Iceland, despite the protests of the Icelandic people.

NORWAY

Norway occupies the western part of the Scandinavian Peninsula, facing the Atlantic Ocean; Norway adjoins the North Sea and Skagerrak at its southern end, and the Arctic Ocean at its northern end. Between the extreme points—over 1700 km. Within Norway is the northernmost point of mainland Europe—North Cape (on the coastal island) 72° 12 'N. sh. Area 323 thousand sq. km; population 3.2 million. Norway is a parliamentary kingdom. The capital is Oslo.

Natural conditions. Almost all of Norway is occupied by the Scandinavian mountains. The harsh, almost barren massifs have moved close to the Atlantic Ocean. They abruptly drop off to the coast, leaving only narrow sections of coastal lowlands. Only in the south, where the Skagerrak juts into the land in a narrow bay, the mountains retreat somewhat from the coast. Scandinavian mountains of ancient origin; they are composed of crystalline schists, granites and gneisses. The mountains are strongly levelled by the action of waters and glaciers. They now represent plateaus and flat-topped massifs without sharply protruding ridges (fields). The most extensive and highest massifs are in southwestern Norway (the highest point is Galdhøpiggen about 2500 m). There are powerful glaciers here.

The shores of Norway are entirely indented with narrow, long and winding bays—fiords, with steep rocky shores. The combination of the sea, rocks, glaciers (sometimes going down to the sea itself) gives the Norwegian shores an exceptional beauty. The sea coast

has many islands, islets and just rocks protruding from the sea (skerries). Between them is a labyrinth of straits and channels, protected from the ocean surf. The largest islands are Lofoten. There are many fish in the coastal waters—cod, herring, mackerel.

The climate of Norway is maritime, influenced by the warm North Atlantic current (continuation of the Gulf Stream). The sea off the coast of Norway does not freeze even in the far north. There is a lot of precipitation. On the coast, winters are mild, summers are cool and humid. In Bergen, the average January +1°, July +15°. The climate is harsh in the mountains.

The mountain slopes are covered with forest (pine, fir, birch, aspen). Forests cover about 1/4 of the entire territory. Most of the country is barren rocks, arctic tundra and snow. Convenient for cultivation of land is limited to the coast and valleys of the main rivers.

Many deep and stormy rivers flow down from the mountains. In terms of hydropower reserves, Norway ranks first in Western Europe (about 12 million hp). Of the minerals, deposits of sulfur pyrite, iron, copper, nickel are important.

Population. Almost the entire population is Norwegians, related in origin and language to Danes and Swedes. In addition to Norwegians, there are few Sami (Lapps) living in the far north of Norway.

Most of Norway is extremely sparsely populated. Almost the entire population is concentrated in the coastal strip, especially in the south, in the Oslo region. A little more than a quarter of the total population lives in cities. Only two cities have over 100 thousand

inhabitants: Oslo (430 thousand) and Bergen (106 thousand). Before the First World War, there was a significant emigration from Norway to the United States.

Economy. Norway's economy is mixed. Industry, shipping and marine industries occupy the leading place. The Norwegian Navy maintains Norway's foreign relations and makes large sums of money from the transport of foreign cargo and passengers. Industry and marine industries provide the main export products. Agricultural products go to the domestic market, far from covering its grain needs.

No mainland European country has an economy as closely tied to the sea as Norway. For a narrow inhabited strip, pressed to the sea by barren highlands, shipping is almost the only way to communicate with the outside world, land connections with the mainland are insignificant. "Since ancient times, the poverty of nature has forced the Scandinavians to look for a source of livelihood in sea crafts.

The ancient Scandinavians—the Normans—were at one time the most active navigators of the northern seas. They were engaged in sea trade, plundered, raided the European coast, sometimes seized territories and established their states (for example, Normandy in northwestern France); the Normans swam across the Atlantic Ocean, reached Iceland, Greenland, Newfoundland and the shores of North America (500 years earlier than Columbus's voyage).

Norway has a large merchant fleet (5.5 million /p, the third largest among capitalist countries). The main seaports of Norway-Bergen, Oslo, Trondheim Stavanger / the port of Narvik is connected by an electric railway with Sweden and serves for the export of Swedish iron ore.

Norway has a large merchant fleet (5.5 million, third among the capitalist countries). The main seaports of Norway are Bergen, Oslo, Trondheim, Stavanger; the port of Narvik is connected to Sweden by an electric railway and serves for the export of Swedish iron ore.

In terms of the size of the fish catch, Norway is in one of the first places in the world (over 1 million tons per year, about the same as in England). The most important fishing ports are Tromsø and Hammerfest in the north, Stavanger in the south. Norway provides half of the world's whale slaughter and blubber production; the main area for whaling is Antarctic waters.

The main energy base of the Norwegian industry is "white coal", which is converted into electricity.

The main industries in Norway are export-oriented. These include: the timber and paper industry, the metal industry (aluminum production, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering), the production of nitrogen from air and nitrogen fertilizers, and fish canning. But raw materials and semi-finished products (wood pulp, timber, aluminum) take up much more space in the Norwegian export than finished products. This shows that industrial development in Norway (like Sweden) is limited.

Most of the industry is concentrated in the south of the country. The main centres are Oslo, Kristiansand, Stavanger, Bergen.

Agricultural area covers less than 4% of the entire territory. Small peasant farming prevails. Only a small part of the peasantry is engaged exclusively in agriculture; the majority connects rural farm with other trades.

During the Second World War, Norway's stretched coastline, abundant with sheltered anchorages, acquired great strategic importance. Fascist Germany, having seized Norway in April-May 1940, organised bases on its coast for the operation of German submarines and surface forces in the northern part of the Atlantic. Norway was liberated only at the very end of the war (early May 1945), with the exception of the far north, previously liberated by the Soviet Army.

Spitsbergen. Norway owns the Arctic archipelago Svalbard (aka Svalbard) between 80° 48' and 76° 28' N. sh. Area 65 thousand sq. km, in 1939 there were 2200 inhabitants.

The influence of a warm current (a branch of the Gulf Stream) significantly softens the severity of the Arctic climate on Svalbard. During 3-4 summer months, the average temperature is above 0°. In the western part of Spitsbergen, there are coal mines. The main developments are carried out by the Soviet enterprise "Arktikugol".

Since the XII century. Russian industrialists visited Spitsbergen (in Russian Grumant). The first scientific expedition to Spitsbergen was carried out in 1764-1766. Chichagov, designed by Lomonosov.

SWEDEN

Sweden occupies the eastern part of the Scandinavian Peninsula, facing the Baltic Sea. On land it borders on Norway and Finland. Area 449 thousand sq. km; population 7 million. State system—parliamentary kingdom. Capital—Stockholm.

Natural conditions. The eastern slope of the Scandinavian Mountains belonging to Sweden is a sloping plateau that slopes down to the Baltic Sea. The most elevated northwestern part of Sweden is the Norland Plateau (up to 2000-2100 m). Many swift and rapids flow down from the Norland Highlands; they form powerful sources of water energy. The climate of northern Sweden is continental (the Scandinavian mountains are fenced off from the influence of the Gulf Stream), winters are harsh. The Gulf of Bothnia freezes on average for 4 months. Permanent snow and ice begin at an altitude of 1000-1500 m.

Middle Sweden is a lowland with a huge number of lakes (the largest are Venern, Vettern and Mälaren). The climate is milder than northern Sweden; in Stockholm, the average January temperature is -3° , July $+16^{\circ}$.

Southern Sweden, jutting out at an acute angle between the Baltic Sea and the Kattegat, consists of low plateaus and coastal lowlands. It is open from the

Atlantic Ocean and has a mild and humid climate. The lowlands of central and southern Sweden are the most favorable for agriculture in terms of soil and climate.

On the Baltic Sea, Sweden owns the islands of Gotland and Öland.

Sweden is exceptionally rich in forest. More than half of the entire territory is covered with forests. The main woodlands are in northern Sweden; they consist mainly of conifers (pine, fir); most of all deciduous species are birch. In central and southern Sweden there are mixed forests (a lot of oak), in the extreme south beech grows.

Of the mineral resources, Sweden is rich in iron.

Swedish iron ores are among the best in the world in terms of high metal content (on average 63% pure metal in the ore). The reliable reserves of pure iron are estimated at 1400 million tons. The most powerful deposits are in northern Sweden, in the Kiruna and Gällivare regions; there is iron in central Sweden as well.

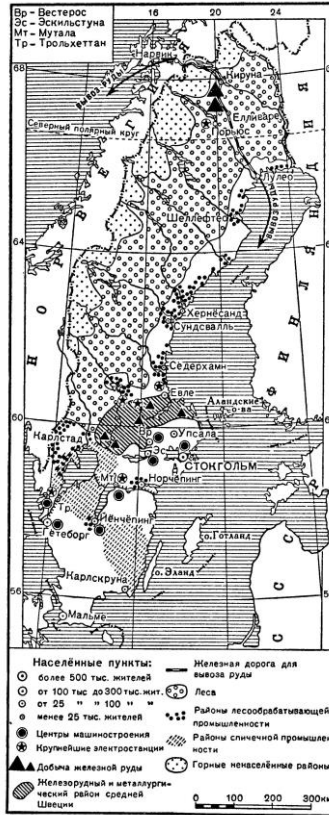
Other mineral resources are insignificant. The main source of energy is deep rapids rivers.

Population. Almost the entire population is Swedes, in the far north, like in Norway, there are a few Sami (Lapps).

The population density is on average 16 people per 1 sq. Km. There are sharp differences between individual regions: in southern and central Sweden, more than 30 people per 1 sq. km, in the northern forest area there are less than 3 people per 1 sq. km, in the northwestern high-mountainous regions, significant areas are

completely uninhabited. Only 3 cities have more than 100 thousand inhabitants: Stockholm (over 700 thousand), Gothenburg (337 thousand) and Malmö (181 thousand). All major cities are located in southern and central Sweden.

Economy. The basis of the Swedish economy is formed, on the one hand, by forestry and the timber industry, on the other, by the extraction of iron ore and the metal industry based on it.



58. Промышленность Швеции.

58. Industry in Sweden

The branches based on forestry and on the development of iron ore account for over 50% of all industrial production and about 80% of all exports. Thus, Sweden is an industrial country. But the weak side of Swedish industry is lack of coal and relatively little development of metallurgy. Most of the mined ore is exported unprocessed abroad.

Steel is produced about 1 million tons; it goes mainly to the production of valuable machines and apparatus (electric motors, telephone equipment, ball bearings, separators, weapons). Almost half of the Swedish export is made up of raw materials and semi-processed products—iron ore, timber, timber, cellulose, etc., 2/5—manufactured products.

Most of the iron ore is mined in northern Sweden. From here she goes abroad; an electric railway was built to transport the ore, connecting the mining areas with the Swedish port of Luleå and the Norwegian port of Narvik. In central Sweden, the ore is used by the local metallurgy; it is an old metal-working area. The main centres of mechanical engineering are Stockholm and Gothenburg.

Timber processing factories and timber yards are concentrated mainly in the coastal zone of northern Sweden, partly in the lakeside region of the middle part of the country.

The export industries are dominated by monopolies with extensive foreign connections. The military-industrial firms had links with the German military industry.

Agriculture has a livestock bias. Sweden is exporting livestock products, there is not enough of its own bread. The sown area is less than 1/10 of the entire territory.

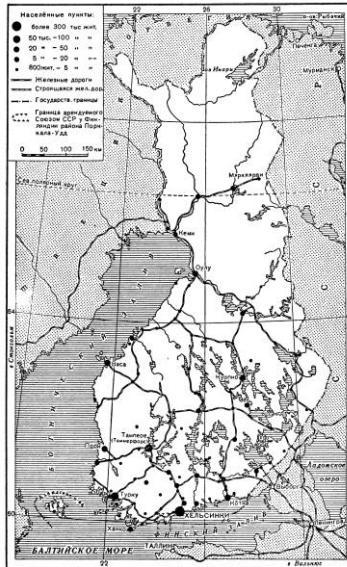
The rail network is dense in southern and central Sweden, much less often in the northern forested area. The main lines converge to the three most important ports - Stockholm, Gothenburg and Malmö. Gothenburg is the main centre of ocean trade; it is located at the exit to the Kattegat of the Götha Canal, which crosses

all of central Sweden from Kattegat to the Baltic Sea, passing through Lakes Venern and Vättern. A railway ferry has been established with Denmark from southern Sweden. Sweden has a significant merchant fleet, but it is much inferior to the Norwegian one.

FINLAND

Finland borders the Soviet Union for a long distance. In the northwest it borders on Norway and Sweden. Most of the western and southern border runs by the sea, the Botnian and the Gulfs of Finland. Finland owns the Åland Islands, located opposite the entrance to the Gulf of Finland. According to the agreement between the

USSR and Finland, concluded in 1940, Finland has no right to strengthen them. The territory of Finland lies between 60 and 70 ° N. sh. (1100 km from north to south); a quarter of the territory lies beyond the Arctic Circle. The area of Finland is 337 thousand sq. km. Population 4 million. The capital is Helsinki (Helsingfors).



59. Города и железные дороги Финляндии.

59. Cities and railways in Finland.

Before the Great October Socialist Revolution, Finland was part of the Russian Empire as an autonomous Grand Duchy of Finland. As a result of the Great October Socialist Revolution, which proclaimed the right of peoples to self-determination, Finland emerged as a special state.

In early 1918, the insurgent proletariat formed the revolutionary government of Finland. However, it was

overthrown with the help of a German corps landed in Finland. Power was seized by the most reactionary handful of landowners and capitalists. The revolutionary movement was suppressed by brutal terror. The reactionary government, which became a tool of the imperialist powers, took a hostile position towards the Soviet Union. Outrageous provocations of the Finnish military took place on the Soviet-Finnish border, which was only 32 km from Leningrad. In response to the attacks from Finland, the Soviet government was forced to order the Soviet Army to start military operations to ensure state security (November 1939).

As a result of the successful military actions of the Soviet Army and as a result of the peaceful policy of the Soviet government on March 12, 1940, a peace treaty was concluded. A reasonable and just relocation of the Soviet-Finnish border was achieved, which strengthened the security of Leningrad and Murmansk.

By its just and moderate demands on the defeated Finland, the Soviet government clearly showed that in its actions it was striving only to ensure the security of the Soviet borders. Nevertheless, after the attack of Nazi Germany on the USSR, the Finnish government, acting on German orders, entered the war against the Soviet Union. Reckless wars against the USSR cost Finland huge losses and led to the extreme depletion of the economy.

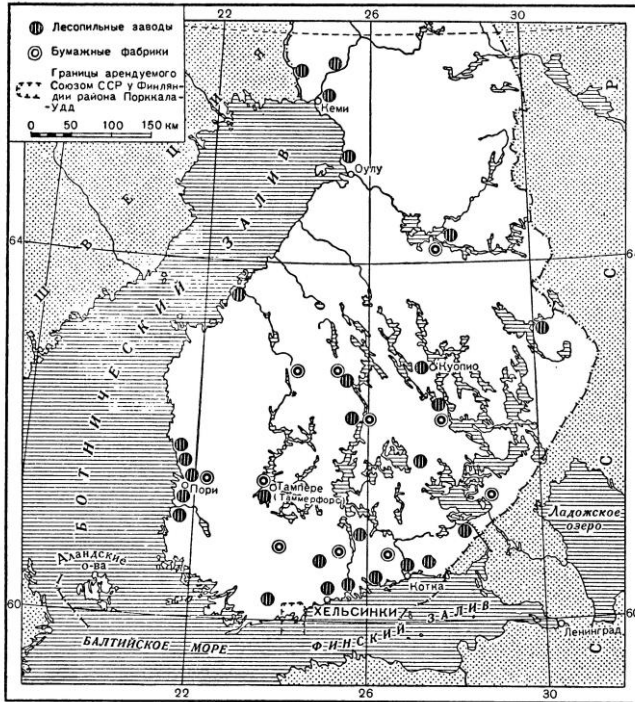
In September 1944, the Finnish government, given the hopeless position of Germany, withdrew from the war and severed relations with Germany. Finland returned to the Soviet Union the Petsamo region (Pechenga, voluntarily ceded to Finland by the Soviet

state under the peace treaties of 1920 and 1940, and pledged to lease the territory and water space in the Porkkala-Udd area to the Soviet Union to create a Soviet naval base (Fig. 59) Finland pledged to immediately dissolve all organizations of the fascist type and other organizations conducting propaganda hostile to the Soviet Union, and to prevent their existence in the future.

However, the Finnish government does not fulfill these conditions well. The Finnish ruling circles are connected with the American-British imperialists, who are striving to turn Finland again into a bridgehead against the USSR. This disastrous for Finland politics is being rebuffed by Finnish democracy, which is supported by all the peace-loving peoples of the world.

Natural conditions. Geologically Finland connected with the Scandinavian Peninsula, together with which it forms the so-called Fenno-Scandinavian shield. The country is mainly composed of ancient rocks, covered only with thin a layer of soil. The modern relief of the country is a consequence of the destructive work of the glacier. The mountains are glacier-smoothed and low. The highest heights are in the north: the Manselke ridge 600-700 m, only in the extreme northwest, near the border with Norway, there are peaks over 1000 m. The central part is a lake plateau with an average height of 200-300 m seas. However, the combination of rocky hills and depressions filled with lakes or marshes creates a highly rugged surface reminiscent of a mountainous country. The shores of the Gulf of Finland and the southern part of the Gulf of Bothnia are heavily

indented and surrounded by islands, surface and underwater rocks (skerries).



60. Лесопильная и бумажная промышленность Финляндии.
60. Sawmill and paper industry in Finland.

Finland is called the country of a thousand lakes, in fact there are about 35 thousand of them. The largest of them is Lake Saimaa. The rivers are short, but full of water, with frequent rapids and waterfalls. On the river Vuokse—the drain of Lake Saimaa into Lake Ladoga—the Imatra waterfall.

Finland's climate is rather harsh; but in the southwest it is considerably softened by the influence of the Baltic Sea, and in the north by the influence of the Varents Sea. The average temperature of the coldest month (February) is from -4° in the Aland Islands to -15° in the northwest, the average July is from $+17^{\circ}$ in the south to $+10^{\circ}$ in the north. The lakes are freed from ice in the first half of May in the southern part and only in June in the north. Snow cover lasts 100-150 days in southwestern Finland, up to 250 days in the extreme northwest. Abundant rains at the end of summer and frequent spring and autumn frosts are unfavorable for agriculture.

The soils are poor and infertile. Huge areas are occupied by swamps and stone. The main wealth of Finland is the forest, which covers 60% of the country's total area. Coniferous forest (pine, spruce) prevails, in the south - mixed forest, and in the north-forest-tundra, turning into mountain tundra on the hills.

Mineral resources of Finland - iron, copper ore. They are poorly developed. There is a lot of peat and valuable building stone—granite and marble.

Population. Finns, or Suomi, make up about 90% of the population, with the rest being mostly Swedes. In the past, the Swedes dominated, Swedish was the official language of Finland (this is reflected now in the double names of Finnish cities). The Swedish bourgeoisie and intelligentsia are still an influential part of society, especially in cities. The Sami (Lapps) live in the northern tundra.

The bulk of the population lives in the south, especially on the coast. Here are the largest cities:

Helsinki (Helsingfors), 328 thousand inhabitants,—the capital and an important port (mainly for import), Turku (Abo) and Kotka (export ports), Tampere (Tammerfors)—the centre of the textile industry.

Economy. The basis of the Finnish economy is forestry industry and dairy farming. In none of the European countries is the economy so dependent on forests as in Finland. On the basis of forest resources, with cheap water energy and convenient sea transport for the export of timber, a large wood processing industry (sawmilling, plywood, paper and pulp) has developed in Finland, which operates mainly for export (about 85% of all exports of Finland).

Other branches of industry (metalworking, textile) are of purely local importance and far from covering Finland's needs for industrial products. The driving force of water energy is widely used; the most powerful hydroelectric power station at the Imatra waterfall.

The nature of Finland is not very favorable for agriculture. His bread is far from short. The basis of agriculture is dairy farming. The milk is processed into butter and cheese. Livestock products account for about 10% of the export. Marketable products are provided mainly farms of kulaks and landlords. In their hands there is a cooperative that plays an important role in Finnish animal husbandry. The overwhelming majority of the rural population is poor: land-poor owners who cannot feed themselves on their own plot, small tenants (torpari), labourers, day labourers.

In terms of economic importance, individual parts of Finland differ sharply. In southern and especially in

southwestern Finland, agriculture is most developed and a variety of manufacturing industries (with a predominance of timber processing) are concentrated. Developed sea and rail transport. Central Finland is a timber industry region. The rail network is less frequent than in the south. Wood rafting—along rivers and lakes. Northern Finland is a sparsely populated region with hunting, fishing, and reindeer husbandry.

ASIA

COUNTRIES OF PEOPLE'S DEMOCRACY

CHINA

China is one of the largest countries in the world. In terms of population—483 million—China is in first place in the world, in terms of area—9.6 million square meters. km—it is second only to the Soviet Union (more than two times)¹

The state system is a people's republic. The capital is Beijing.

Natural conditions

Geographical location, borders. In the east, China adjoins the Pacific Ocean, in the west it includes vast expanses of Central Asia, reaching the Pamirs. The extreme northern border of China—r. Amur, separating Northeast China (Manchuria) from the USSR (northern point 53 ° N lat.); southern tip—Hainan Island (18° N).

The western part of China is a purely continental country. About half of China's entire territory lies more than 1000 km from the sea. From the Pamirs to the Zhili Gulf, 5700 km. Moreover, high mountains fence off Western China from the ocean. The border between the USSR and China runs in this part along the high mountains - the Pamir, Tien Shan, Altai], but between the mountains there are passages convenient for

¹ Yielding in total area to Canada, China, however, surpasses it in land area (in Canada, a significant area is occupied by lakes) and even more surpasses it in terms of the size of a territory suitable for habitation.

communication. On the border between China and India, the highest mountains in the world rise - the Himalayas and the Karakorum. The border with the Mongolian People's Republic runs along the Gobi Desert. Thus, most of China's land borders are not very favorable for communication. The borders of Northeast China with the Soviet Union and Korea and the border of South China with Vietnam are more convenient for relations.

The total length of China's land borders exceeds 17 thousand km. Of China's neighbours, the Soviet Union and the Mongolian People's Republic have the greatest length of common borders with it. The Soviet-Chinese border consists of two large sections, separated by the Mongolian People's Republic.

China's maritime boundaries (including coastline bends) exceed 7,000 km. The Pacific Ocean forms seas off the coast of China: South China, East China and Yellow] Shandune and Liaodong peninsulas separate the Zhili and Liaodong bays in the Yellow Sea. China owns two large islands - Taiwan (Formosa) and Hainan - and many small coastal islands.

Despite the remoteness of most of the territory from the sea, China is one of the largest maritime powers in the world. This can be seen from the enormous extent of its maritime borders, from the fact that maritime navigation penetrates far inland along the river. Yangtzipzyanu, as well as from the fact that the most dense population is concentrated in coastal or sea-connected areas.

Surface, rivers. Western China consists of huge highlands and elevated plains, bordered by high mountains. The highest part of China is the grand Tibetan Plateau, which has an average height of 4 km. To the north of it lie high plains of lower height (about 1000 m) \ in relation to the high mountains bordering or crossing them (Altyn-Tag, Pamir, Tien Shan, Altai), they have the character of depressions. Most of Western China has no ocean drain.

Eastern China is a mountainous country that slopes down from the highlands of Central Asia to the sea. Mountains of medium height (up to 2000-2500 m) predominate; closer to the sea they give way to hilly plains and lowlands. The three great rivers of China—the Yellow River (Yellow River), Yangtzejiang (Blue) and Xijiang—make their way among the mountains, in places cutting ridges in narrow gorges, in places bypassing them in large bends. These rivers, especially the greatest of them Yangtzejiang, are of great importance in the Chinese economy as a route of communication, as a source of irrigation and fertility. On their lower course there are lowlands covered with fertile alluvial soil.

Physico-geographically, Eastern China is divided into three regions, each of which gravitates towards one of the three main river basins; Northern China basically corresponds to the Yellow River Basin, Central China to the Yangtzejiang Basin, and South China to the Xijiang Basin.

North China is very different in nature from the other two regions. The physical and geographical boundary separating North China from Middle China is the Qinling Ridge (continuation of Kuen Lun), which

forms a watershed between the Yangtzijiang and the Yellow River.

The western part of North China is mountainous. Here is the loess plateau, an area of the “yellow land” famous for its rhodium fertility. Loess is a brownish-yellow clay, extremely loose and porous. It is easily blown away by the wind and the rains wash away

there are deep ravines in it. The Yellow River, cutting into the thickness of the loess, laid gorges with sheer walls in it. Washed-out loess in huge quantities is carried away by river water, giving it a muddy yellow colour; hence the name of the Yellow River itself (Yellow river) and the Yellow Sea. Loess farming requires significant moisture. Meanwhile, the loess plateau, bordered by mountains in the south and east, belongs to the arid regions of China; in drought, the vegetation here burns out, takes on a brown, lifeless appearance.

Between the loess plateau and the Zhili Bay of the Yellow Sea, the Chinese Lowland stretches. Here the Yellow River and other rivers deposit huge masses of loess silt brought from the mountains. But, depositing silt along the banks and on its own bed, the Yellow River rises its channel above the surrounding lowland. In this situation, the flooding of the river threatens disaster: the river can break through into the surrounding lowlands and immediately flood huge areas.

More than once, the floods of the Yellow River ended with the riotous river making a new path for itself to the sea and leaving the old channel. Until the middle of the XIX century. The Yellow River flowed directly into the

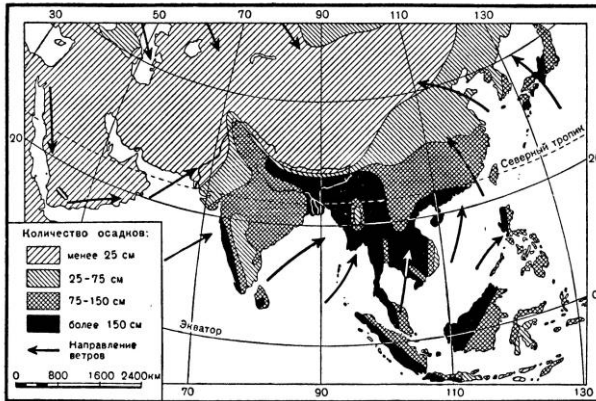
Yellow Sea, south of the Shandong Peninsula. In 1852, she rushed to the north and made her way to the Zhili Bay, 500 km from the former mouth. To imagine the enormous size of this wandering, it is enough to imagine the lower course of the Don passing 500 km to the west and flowing into the Black Sea in place of the Dnieper.

Other rivers of the North China Lowland also wander, especially the river. Huaihe, characterized by the extreme inconsistency of the regime. To protect against spills, rivers have to be fenced off with dams. But the Yellow River often breaks through them and causes terrible destruction. For this she was nicknamed “the grief of China”, “the incorrigible river.” The ruling classes of China have repeatedly used the destructive power of the river to punish the “disobedient”; Chinese historians tell of cases when emperors and mandarins (officials) opened dams and drowned hundreds of thousands of residents.

Rough spills, instead of fertilizing the soil with silt, can, on the contrary, worsen it - apply coarse sand or wash off a layer of fertile soil and reveal subsoil sands. That is why in the North China Lowland, along with fertile alluvial soils, there are also barren sands; there are many swamps here.

Olin Yangtzyjiang—the greatest river in China both in length (5200 km) and in terms of basin area (1800 thousand sq. km) and in economic importance. Yangtzejiang is the main artery of China’s internal relations; its lower course is the gateway to maritime navigation. Sea-going vessels go up Yangpzyjiang with good water to Hankou (about 1000 km from the ocean), river steamers rise 2850 km from the mouth. The valley of the great river is one of the best areas in China for

farming. Its lower reaches is an alluvial lowland, crossed by many channels and channels. Along the upper stream there is the so-called Red Basin - a hilly plain among the mountains, covered with fertile red soil formed from destroyed red sandstone.



61. Муссонный климат юго-восточной Азии.
Направление ветров и распределение осадков летом.

61. Monsoon climate of South-East Asia. Wind direction and precipitation distribution in summer.

The Yangtzejiang is calmer than the Yellow River, but the level of this river is also variable: in dry weather it becomes very shallow, during the rainy season it swells and threatens to flood, so it also has to be contained by dams.

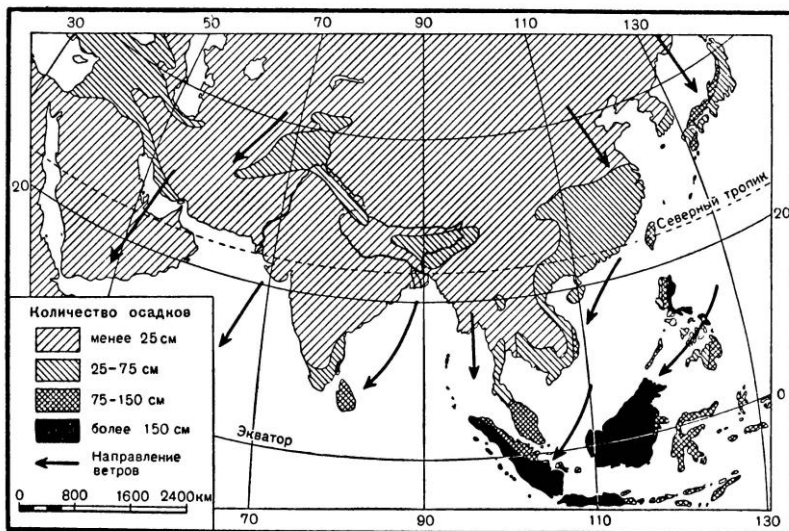
Southern China is almost entirely mountainous country. Low mountain ranges are separated by valleys convenient for agriculture. Higher and wilder mountains are in the west, near Tibet; these are the Sichuan Alps, reaching an altitude of 5-6 km.

The lowlands along the lower course of the Xijiang have a meaning for southern China similar to that which the lower Yangtze valley has for Central China. But Xijiang is much smaller than Yangtzejiang (1,300 km long). Its shipping capabilities are much more limited; smaller compared to the Yangtze Valley and the fertile expanse of the Xijiang Valley.

The northeastern part of China is Manchuria (according to the modern name—Dongbei, that is, the Northeast). Its main core is the Manchurian Lowland, adjacent to the Liaodong Bay in the south, and surrounded by mountains on three sides.

Climate and vegetation. Eastern China is located in an area of monsoon climate with periodically changing wind directions (in summer from the ocean to the mainland, in winter—back), with abundant summer rainfall and dry winters. In winter, China is influenced by cold and dry winds blowing from the interior of the Asian mainland; therefore winters in China are relatively severe, and the difference in temperature between winter and summer, despite the proximity of the sea is very great.

In Tianjin (at 39° N lat.) The average temperature in January is -4° , in July $+26^{\circ}$, the amplitude of fluctuations is 30° . In Lisbon, at about the same latitude, the difference in temperature of the same months is only 12° , there is not even a trace of frost. Zhili Bay freezes over a large area offshore in winter.



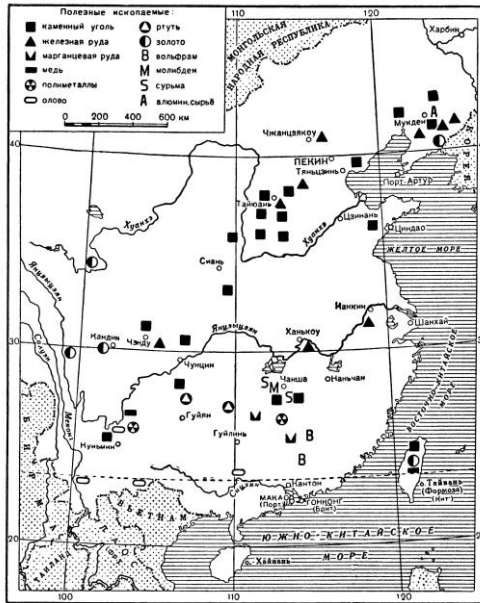
62. Муссонный климат юго-восточной Азии.
 Направление ветров и распределение осадков зимой.

62. Monsoon climate of South-East Asia. Wind direction and distribution of precipitation in winter.

South of the Qinling Ridge, winters are much milder and not as dry as in the north. The climate here is favorable for a variety of subtropical crops—mulberry, tea bush, rice, orange tree. But even in Canton, located just under the tropic, light frosts occur (with an average January temperature of $+12^{\circ}$).

Rainfall in China is most often in the form of heavy downpours, so that most of the water rolls down before it can be absorbed into the soil. At the same time, the amount of precipitation fluctuates sharply from year to year. It happens that the summer monsoon is late or, conversely, begins and ends earlier than usual. From

such instability, there are two kinds of disasters—droughts and floods. Some areas are periodically affected by severe droughts; the drought of 1920 claimed several million lives.



63. Полезные ископаемые Восточного Китая.
63. Minerals of East China.

Irrigation conditions are greatly aggravated by the fact that forests have been almost completely destroyed in most of China; rainwater does not linger on bare slopes and rushes into rivers in stormy streams, swelling them; treeless areas are particularly affected by drought and flooding. Northern China is especially poor in forest; here every piece of wood is valuable.

In this regard, the extensive afforestation undertaken by the people's democratic government is of particular importance.

There are more forests in southern China; due to moisture and warmth, the forest grows faster here. In Central and South China, bamboo plantations are widespread; bamboo is used for various purposes: for buildings, for the manufacture of furniture, for plumbing; young shoots are used for food.

Western China has a sharply continental climate: summers are hot and dry, winters are severe, with little snow. It is dominated by dry steppes and deserts with farming oases on irrigated lands.

Fossil resources and water energy. The subsoil of China has not yet been sufficiently explored, and the estimates of fossil wealth are not very reliable. However, it is undeniable that China is rich in diverse minerals, especially coal. Large reserves of coal are located in North, Central and South China, in Manchuria. According to the available data, the total amount of coal reserves is estimated at about 1,000 billion, t. There is oil in Northwest China. A powerful source of energy is the rivers of China; their inconvenience for operation is the extreme variability of the level, as mentioned above. There are also large reserves of iron ore; in some places they are successfully combined with coal basins and contain good quality ore. Of other metals, China is rich in tin, lead, zinc, manganese, antimony, tungsten.

Even China's well-known resources are sufficient for diversified industrial development. There is no doubt

that a systematic study of China's natural resources will open up many new sources of raw materials and energy.

Population

National composition. 90% of the total population is Chinese. Non-Chinese peoples inhabit mainly the outskirts of China - Xinjiang (Uighurs, related to Uzbeks, Kazakhs, Mongols, Dungans - Chinese Muslims - and a number of other nationalities), Tibet (Tibetans), Inner Mongolia (Mongols), the southwestern provinces of China, bordering Indochina and Burma; in Manchuria, near the border with Korea, in addition to the Chinese, Koreans live.

Population density. Cities. The resettlement of China's nearly half a billion population is markedly uneven. In the fertile lowlands of eastern China, the population is incredibly crowded. In the lower valley of the Yangtzejiang, the population density per 1 sq. km of cultivated area of about 1000 people (the density of developed industrial regions of England). In some places, the population lives even on water.

But densely populated areas cover only a small part of China - the main river valleys and the sea coast. The mountainous regions, even in Eastern China, are relatively sparsely inhabited, while the western regions (Xinjiang, Tibet) have an insignificant density. Separate inhabited river valleys and oases are located there among vast deserted spaces.

The largest cities are located near the sea coast or along the main rivers: Shanghai (the most important

port and industrial centre), Nanjing, Hankou, which together with Hanyang and Wuchang forms the triple city of Wuhan] Canton, Beijing, Tianjin, Chongqing, Qingdao, Dalny. Only Mukden, the largest city in Manchuria, is some exception.

Features of China's development

China's semi-colonial past. For a long time, China was a weak and backward semi-colonial country that served as a prey for strong imperialist states. Beginning with England, which attacked China because of the profits of the British opium traders (the Opium War of 1839-1842), the imperialist states tore off pieces of China's territory, divided it into "spheres of influence", imposed onerous treaties on it and ruthlessly exploited the Chinese people ... The subjects of the imperialist states who lived in China enjoyed the rights of extraterritoriality, that is, they did not obey the Chinese laws and the Chinese administration. In all the most important trade and industrial centres of China—Shanghai, Hankou, Canton, Tianjin, and others—foreigners had at their disposal special quarters (so-called settlements or concessions) with a foreign administration; on the territory of the settlements were concentrated banks, factories, trade enterprises, warehouses owned by foreigners.

The working masses of China were subjected to multilateral exploitation by foreign capitalists, local landowners, merchants, usurers, and officials. Repeatedly the Chinese people have risen to fight for their liberation. The Great October Socialist Revolution

had a tremendous influence on the course of the national liberation struggle in China: the October Revolution and the victory of socialism in the USSR shattered the rule of imperialism in the colonial and dependent countries, armed the oppressed peoples with practical experience and the theory of revolutionary struggle.

During 1937-1945. China was waging a national liberation struggle with Japan, which threatened it with complete enslavement. This struggle sparked a powerful upsurge in the democratic forces of the Chinese people. However, the unification of national forces was

thwarted by the policy of the reactionary landlords and capitalists, that is, those classes that, together with foreign capitalists, exploited the Chinese people and hindered their free development. They determined the policy of the Kuomintang (the ruling party), directing it not so much towards the fight against Japanese aggression as towards the fight against the Chinese Communist Party, which led the national liberation movement. Many people from these circles went directly to the side of the Japanese invaders.

Liberation of China. China is a state of people's democracy. With the defeat of German and Japanese imperialism, carried out mainly by the Soviet Union and accompanied by the growth of democratic forces throughout the world, the decisive stage of the liberation struggle of the Chinese people began.

By the time of Japan's defeat, there were actually two powers in China: 1) the power of the Kuomintang government, representing the interests of a handful of

landlords and financiers; 2) people's democratic power (extended to the northwestern provinces and part of Manchuria), which fought under the leadership of the Communist Party for the democratic reconstruction of China. The ruling elite of the Kuomintang, which has long been closely associated with foreign imperialists, at the end of the war became a direct agent of the United States, hoping to use Japan's defeat to assert its dominance in China. Hoping for the support of the United States, the Kuomintang rejected the proposal of the Chinese Communist Party and other democratic organizations to peacefully resolve the issues of rebuilding China and launched an offensive against the democratic regions, moving a huge army equipped with American equipment. However, the People's Liberation Army, based on the progressive forces of China, despite the numerical and technical superiority of the Kuomintang troops, inflicted a number of crushing defeats on them, destroyed their main forces, and by the end of 1949 liberated a large part of China. In the process of the liberation struggle, a united popular front of workers, peasants, democratic intelligentsia, and petty bourgeoisie was formed. The leading force of the Popular Front is the Chinese Communist Party, which has won enormous prestige and popularity among the masses through its struggle for the democratization and independence of China. In 1951, it had about 6 million members.

The long-term struggle of the Chinese people ended with the proclamation of the People's Republic of China (October 1, 1949). The Central People's Government, headed by experienced freedom fighters for the Chinese

people, has been established. China became a state of the dictatorship of the people's democracy, led by and -- uniting_ all the democratic classes and all the people of China. The overwhelming majority of the population received all TkiTitchestgie rights. But the reactionary elements—feudal landowners and representatives of bureaucratic capital— are deprived of political rights by law for the time that will be necessary for their re-education. Any activity directed against people's democracy is suppressed and severely punished.

In liberated China, radical democratic reforms have been or are being carried out, including land reform, which is of great importance for China, the nationalization of large-scale industry and banks; abolished all the privileges of the imperialists in China. A great deal of work is being done to improve the living conditions of workers and peasants, to raise public education and health care. The need for all this is extremely great, since poverty of the majority of the population, combined with difficult living conditions and a lack of medical care, with a high percentage of illiterates (especially in the countryside), remained a legacy from the past.

The multimillion-dollar Chinese people, who in ancient times created one of the most remarkable cultures that human history knows, for a long time oppressed by the oppression of foreign and local exploiters, have now risen and are building a people's democratic order, opening up a wide field for the flourishing of its creative powers and for all-round use. richest resources of China. Through the people's

democratic dictatorship, China is moving towards socialism.

Having inherited the economy of China from the previous regime in a state of ruin, the people's power was able to restore it in a short time. By the beginning of 1953, the period of restoration of the Chinese national economy was basically over. In 1953, the implementation of the first five-year plan for building the national economy of China began.

In its foreign policy, the People's Republic of China is marching along with all the peace-loving and freedom-loving countries and peoples, and above all with the Soviet Union. Together with them, it fights against imperialist aggression and defends lasting peace throughout the world.

By the beginning of 1951, Tibet, which the American and British imperialists were trying to tear away from China, and the island of Taiwan, seized by the US armed forces, which had committed open aggression against the People's Republic of China, remained unreleased from all over China. In May 1951, an agreement was reached between the Central People's Government of China and the local government of Tibet, according to which the Tibetan people returned to the great family of peoples of the People's Republic of China. The government of the People's Republic of China is determined to complete the liberation of all Chinese territories.

Agriculture

General characteristics. Agriculture is the livelihood of the majority of China's population. Agricultural products form the main food base for almost half a billion people, they supply raw materials to Chinese industry, and they also provide the bulk of all Chinese exports. It is important to note that this load falls on almost one agriculture: cattle breeding in China (as well as in Japan) is underdeveloped. Moreover, agriculture covers only a small part of the entire territory. In fertile lowlands with comfortable conditions every patch is used for irrigation, but in mountainous areas only a small portion of the area is cultivated. To reclaim vacant land requires large organizational costs irrigation, land reclamation of less convenient lands, road construction, purchase of tools and draft animals. Low-power peasants did not have either the capital or the technical means for this: the state and the ruling classes did not care about this. Only after the establishment of the people's democratic authorities in China began systematic work to expand the cultivated area, as well as to develop animal husbandry. Land tenure and land reform. Before land reform in China, at least half of the cultivated land (moreover, of better quality) belonged to landowners. If we take into account the land of the kulaks, it turns out that the exploiting classes, which constituted no more than 10% of the agricultural population, owned 70-80% of the cultivated land.

In the main agricultural regions of China, characterized by extreme land cramping and careful

cultivation of every piece of land, the owner of a plot of 5-10 hectares could exploit

several peasant families, leasing land to them in small plots. The rent was paid for the most part in kind in the form of a certain percentage of income derived from the land. At the same time, for dry land, the landlord took from the tenant 50-60% of his income, and for the best irrigated land - 70-80, sometimes even 90%. For non-payment of rent, the landowner could plant the tenant to prison, torture him; a faulty payer could even be taken into slavery; there were often cases of children being sold for the debts of their fathers.

Land reform was first carried out in Manchuria and North China, and then was extended to other areas. Landowners' rights to land have been cancelled, as have all debts that peasants had before the land reform. Landowners' lands, as well as lands belonging to monasteries and various organizations, together with implements were transferred to peasant unions for distribution among landless and landless peasants and labourers. At the same time, the administration provides assistance to the poorest peasants to develop the land plots they received. Many state farms have been created.

Implementation of land reform is of great importance for China, not only economic, but also political. It strengthened the alliance of the working class and the peasantry and rallied the peasant masses even more around the Chinese Communist Party - the initiator and a reform leader; it roused the peasant masses to fight against the remnants of the reactionary Kuomintang regime. A further stage in the restructuring

of agriculture is the organization of peasant production cooperatives, which has already begun, for joint cultivation of the land.

Irrigation and flood protection. The organization of artificial irrigation is of great importance for China's agriculture. By means of artificial irrigation, it is necessary to make up for the lack and irregularity of monsoon rains, since rice is the main food crop in China, it gives a good harvest only with abundant and regular irrigation. Artificial irrigation is especially important in Central and South China, where rice is the predominant crop. In Northern China rain-fed (dry land) agriculture prevails.

But the excess of water in the lowlands of China is no less dangerous than the lack: floods constantly threaten to turn cultivated lands into swamps, fill them with sand and permanently destroy soil fertility. A dense network of irrigation canals and protective dams covers the lowlands of China. These structures, created with the most primitive technical means, are a gigantic monument to the centuries-old labor of Chinese peasants; some structures have been in existence for over 2000 years. The Grand Canal (from Hangzhou to Beijing) represents the longest canal in the world (1300 km)¹. Nevertheless, agriculture suffers greatly from the lack of irrigation facilities. Moreover, many protective dams and irrigation structures were destroyed or

¹ Previously, the Grand Canal served for inland navigation. Then it was launched, only in some parts of it small vessels go.

launched during the Japanese occupation and in the last years of the Kuomintang rule. The People's Democratic Authority has launched enormous work to transform the rivers of China: new protective dams, reservoirs, and irrigation canals are being restored and built. First of all, the rivers Huaihe and Yellowhe, which caused the most serious disasters to the people, are being tamed and transformed. These works, like afforestation works, have become truly people's construction projects, and millions of workers are taking part in them.

Land cultivation. Even in ancient times, Chinese peasants achieved a high level of art in cultivating the land. However, in the future, the ever-increasing exploitation to which the peasantry was initially subjected only to local landowners, state authorities, usurers, and then also from foreign capitalists, slowed down the progress of agriculture. The peasant continued to work with the same implements as his ancestors. Working cattle were available only on landlord and kulak farms. Fertilizer was in short supply; meanwhile, in many regions of China, the soil does not know rest: two or even three crops a year are harvested from it, which requires abundant fertilization. Extreme land scarcity constrained the economic initiative, scientific and agricultural assistance was absent.

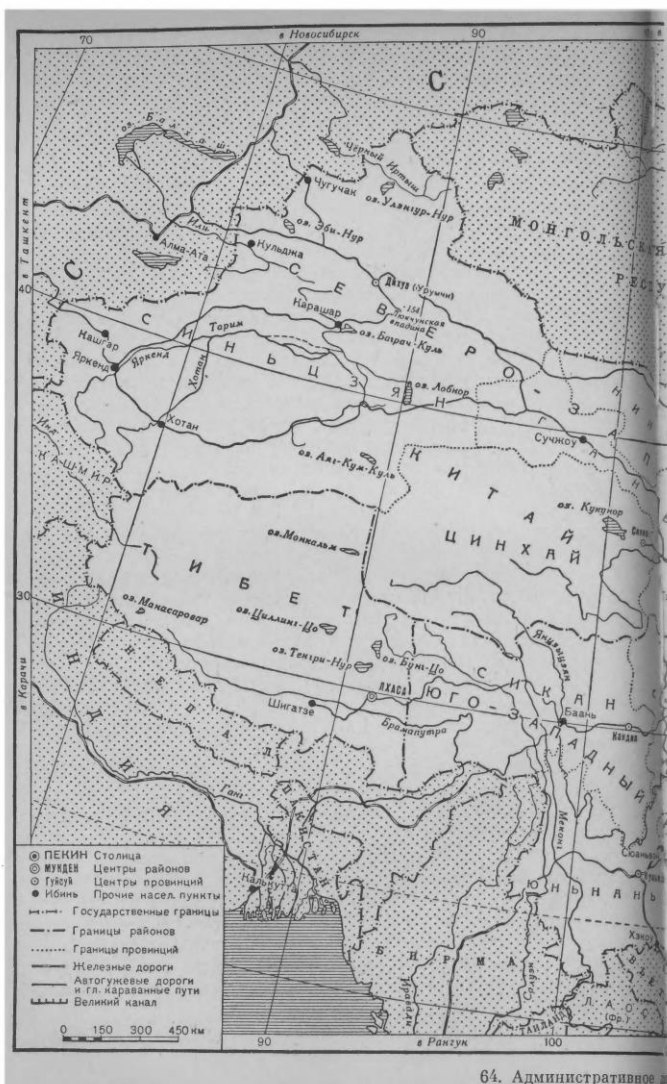
In such a situation, the Chinese peasant had to spend a huge amount of personal physical labour.

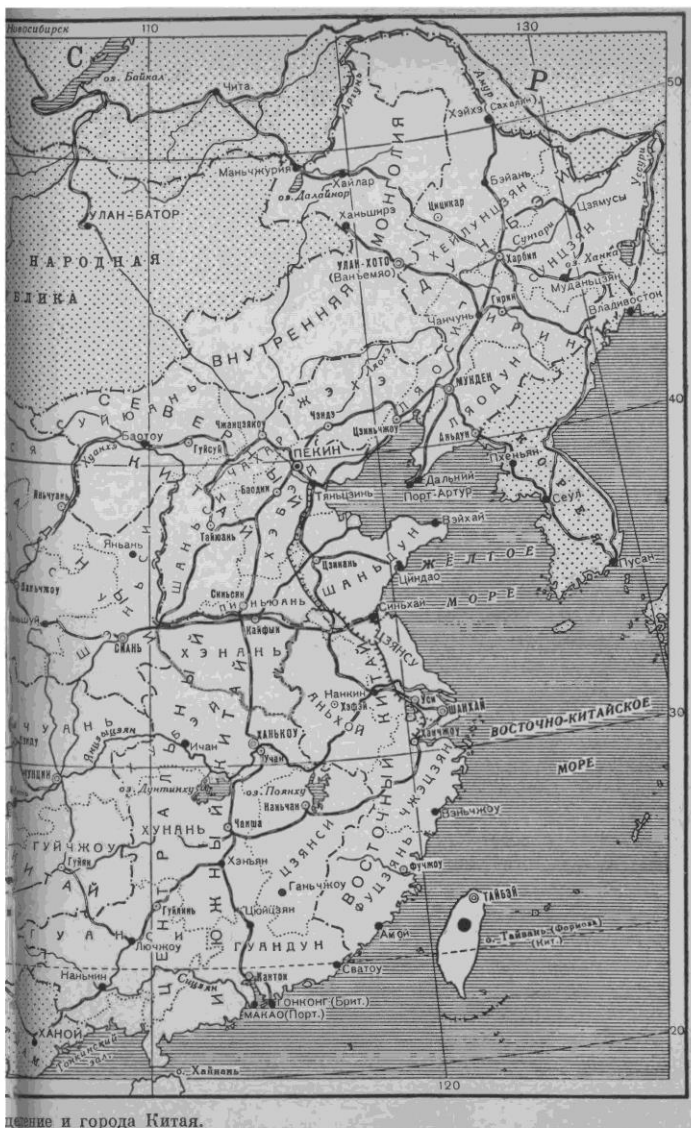
He carves his plot with beds, like vegetable gardens, looks after each plant separately (a bed crop, especially widespread in Central and South China). He tries to take two and three crops from one field. In a word, the

Chinese peasant is forced, through painstaking laborious processing, to squeeze out as much food as possible from an insignificant piece of land. But in relation to the labor expended, he received little. A huge amount of labor was expended on overcoming the technical backwardness and irrationality of the fragmented economy.

This shows how enormously important the restructuring of agriculture, begun by the people's democratic government, is for China. Agrarian reform and the organization of peasant production cooperatives are combined with broad measures to restore and build irrigation facilities, to improve agricultural implements, to develop animal husbandry, to increase fertilizer production, to expand the cultivated area, and to provide scientific and agronomic assistance to the peasantry.

In all this, the Soviet Union is providing enormous assistance to China. In the fields of China, cultivated with the most primitive implements, Soviet agricultural machines appear. Under the new conditions, China, with its many millions of hardworking and skilled farmers, is getting the opportunity to become a colossal producer of various agricultural products.





Branches of agriculture. The main food crops in China are rice, millet, wheat and kaoliang. China, along with India, is the world's largest rice producer; on average, 450-500 million centners of rice are harvested per year (about 1/3 world production). Rice is especially common in South and Central China. Rice is harvested from irrigated land twice a year, after which you can still have time to harvest vegetables or wheat. Rice is harvested from non-irrigated land only once a year, and of the worst quality.

Wheat, millet and kaoliang (a variety of sorghum) are common in Northern and partly in Central China and in Manchuria. Beans, sweet potatoes and various vegetables are of great importance in the diet of the population.

China plays an important role in the world economy as a producer of oilseeds (beans, groundnuts, rapeseed, sesame seeds, or sesame seeds); since the Chinese generally do not consume milk and butter, the role of vegetable fats in nutrition is especially great. In the first place are soybeans, which are widespread in Manchuria and North China.

China is the birthplace of tea. Chinese tea almost until the end of the 19th century. dominated the world market. From the end of the century, the British organized large plantation production of tea in Ceylon and India with factory processing of tea leaves. Small producers of Chinese tea could not withstand the competition, especially since England had the most powerful trading apparatus in the world. However, China still ranks first in the world in tea collection.

In many places, tobacco crops are common.

Cotton has been cultivated in China since ancient times. In terms of cotton picking, China ranks second among foreign countries (after the United States). The main cotton growing regions are in the northern plain and in the Yangtze valley. The fiber is processed by the cotton industry in China.

Sericulture is one of the oldest branches of the Chinese economy. When China entered into trade relations with Europe, it became the main supplier of silk for European countries. China ranks first in the world in the production of raw silk, but it is inferior to Japan in terms of export. The main areas of silkworm breeding are the Yangtzijiang Delta and the lower Xijiang (near Canton). Most of Chinese silk is processed in China itself.

Pig and poultry breeding are of the greatest importance in animal husbandry.

Industry

China's industrial development sharply does not match its wealth in labor, energy resources and raw materials: with almost a quarter of the world's population, large reserves of coal and hydropower, and various ore resources, China had a weak industry. It is one of the most difficult legacies of China's semi-colonial past. In this regard, one of the main tasks set by the people's democratic government is the development of industry, including the industry of means of production, which was almost non-existent in former China.

The total number of industrial workers is about 3 million; in addition, about 12 million are employed in the handicraft industry (the total number of workers - urban and rural - is about 50 million). The wages were among the lowest in the world. The working day in factories lasted 10-12 hours, there are even more small enterprises. Female and child labor was widely exploited. In liberated China, all these conditions typical for a semi-colonial country are a thing of the past. Large enterprises were nationalized, workers became their masters. Working conditions and material conditions of workers are improving. Labor productivity is growing, labor competition is developing.

Of the mining industries in the first place is coal mining, the largest in Manchuria. The largest extraction of iron ore is also located there, as well as metallurgy. In southern China, the mining of tin, tungsten and antimony is important. Oil is produced in Northwest China.

The most important branch of the Chinese manufacturing industry is cotton. More than half of the entire cotton industry is concentrated in Shanghai and its environs; other textile centres are Qingdao, Tianjin, Wuhan.

The silk industry is of great importance; large silk spinning mills - in the regions of Shanghai and Canton. Domestic production of silk fabrics is widely developed, scattered throughout the villages.

Many enterprises are engaged in the primary processing of agricultural products; the oil industry (bean oil), tobacco, flour-grinding industry, processing of tea and eggs for export are distinguished.

The Chinese handicraft, many centuries ago, reached great perfection in the production of porcelain, silk fabrics, furniture, and all kinds of household items; a number of important inventions (compass, gunpowder) were first made by the Chinese. Many branches of the old handicraft industry were undermined by the onslaught of foreign manufactured goods. Nevertheless, handicrafts are still of great importance in the Chinese economy. The craft mainly supplies the Chinese village with clothing, shoes, agricultural tools, furniture, kitchen utensils, etc.

Some handicraft industries are export-oriented, such as fans, carpets, rugs, lace, embroidery, straw hats, porcelain, lacquerware and other products.

Transport

During the period of the imperialist powers' domination in China, almost all of its foreign trade went by sea, and all the main directions of internal relations were directed to the seaports. With the liberation of China, the nature of its external and internal ties changes. The one-sided gravitation towards the sea, caused by the imperialists' dominance in China's foreign economic ties, is ending, and internal interregional ties and ties with the Soviet Union are strengthening. At the same time, China was able to take advantage of its huge coastline, rich in convenient harbours, and become a strong maritime power.

Among the seaports of China, the main ones are: Shanghai, Tianjin, Qingdao, Hankou and Canton. Manchuria's sea trade proceeds mainly through Dalny.

Coastal shipping (cabotage) and shipping along rivers and canals are of great importance for domestic traffic; inland navigation of the largest scale occurs along the Yangtzejiang (up to Hankou). There is a widespread communication on old-style wooden ships—"junks".

At the time of the victory of the people's democratic system, there were few railways in China: there were about 26 thousand km of tracks for the whole of China, of which almost half were in Manchuria.

Due to the weak development of mechanized transport, the lack of draft and pack animals and the extreme cheapness of human power, the transportation of goods and passengers by people—heavy carriers and "rickshaws" carrying passengers and luggage on two-wheeled carts, has become widespread. The transport proletariat of China is an army of many millions. Porters for long-distance shipment of goods were especially widely used in the mountainous South China. Tea from South China to Tibet was delivered by caravans of porters, each carrying up to 90 kg. It is clear that with the general restructuring of China's life, this archaic mode of transport is becoming a thing of the past, along with other features of the backward semi-colonial China. The construction of modern means of transport is being replaced. Along with the restoration of the railways damaged during the war, new lines are being built.

Regions

In the past, as the main division of China, the division into China itself (or Eastern China), as the

dominant part of the Chinese state, concentrating the main mass of the Chinese nation, and into the possessions of China—Manchuria, Inner Mongolia, Xinjiang, Tibet, was adopted. This opposition, which reflected the inequality in the position of individual parts of China, disappeared with the establishment of the people's democratic government. The People's Democratic Power introduced a new administrative division of the People's Republic of China. At the same time, Eastern China is divided into a number of regions. Areas with a predominantly non-Chinese population—Inner Mongolia, Xinjiang, Tibet—received autonomy.

For the economic geography of former China, with its general backwardness was characterized by a sharp unevenness in the level development of certain areas. This was expressed not only in the contrasts between the deserted western regions and the more livable eastern regions. Within themselves In the eastern regions, the most important economic centres were concentrated in a few places that especially attracted the imperialists. These places should include primarily the lower reaches Yangtzejiang, where the largest commercial and industrial centre of China - Shanghai; his enterprises were either directly in the hands of foreigners, or in the hands of those Chinese capitalists who were closely associated with foreigners. Since the Japanese occupation of Manchuria, the occupiers have created there for military purposes, a significant mining and military industry. Both Shanghai and the industrial centres of Manchuria are like islands that stood out against the general background of extreme economic backwardness. Concerning, setting the task of general

improvement and restructuring of China's economy, people's democratic government pays great attention the rise of backward regions.

Dongbei (Northeast China)

Dongbei (still called Manchuria) in the north and east borders on the territory of the USSR, in the south-east—with Korea, in the south it borders on the Yellow Sea. The area of Manchuria is 887 thousand sq. km / population 41 million.

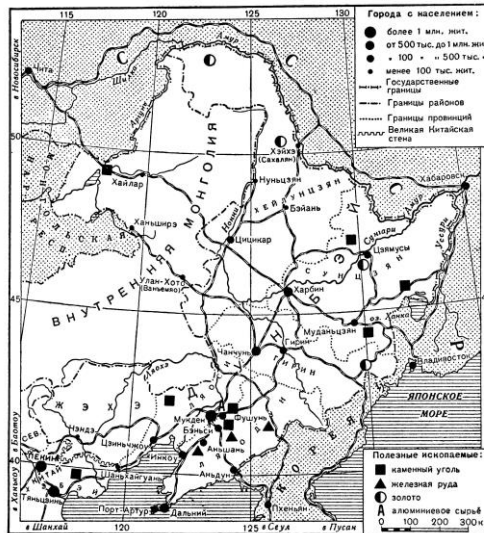
Having seized Manchuria, the Japanese imperialists formed in 1932 the fake Manchurian state (Manchukuo), which, in addition to Manchuria, included the eastern part of Inner Mongolia.

Under the cover of the “independence” of Manchuria, the Japanese imperialists ordered it. They created in Manchuria a military industrial base and a springboard for the war against the USSR and China. They deployed there the extraction of strategic raw materials, built military factories, as well as communications and military airfields. Reinforced concrete fortifications were built along the border with the Soviet Union, and the Japanese army in Manchuria consisted of selected units.

On the eastern border of Manchuria, near Lake Khasan, the Japanese military made a “test” of the invasion of Soviet soil in the summer of 1938 and suffered a crushing defeat. In August 1945, the Soviet Army liberated Manchuria from the Japanese invaders. The Japanese reinforced concrete fortifications were

crushed and overcome with lightning speed by the Soviet Army.

The fall of the Japanese government in Manchuria was accompanied by the rise of the democratic movement. After the withdrawal of Soviet troops in Manchuria, organs of people's power began to emerge and the Manchu United Democratic Army was formed. Manchuria was the first of the large parts of China to be fully integrated into the people's democratic system of liberated China.



65. Дунбэй (Северо-Восточный Китай) и Внутренняя Монголия.

65. Dongbei (North-East China) and Inner Mongolia.

Natural conditions. Dongbei consists of a large plain, surrounded on three sides by mountains of medium height, and on the fourth (in the south)

adjacent to the sea. The hilly Liaodong Peninsula juts out into the Yellow Sea, separating the Korean and Liaodong bays.

The border with the USSR runs almost entirely along the large navigable rivers—Argun, Amur and Ussuri. The river flows along the border with Korea. Yalu. Of the rivers crossing the Dongbei, the largest is the Sungari (a tributary of the Amur).

The climate of Dongbei is characterized by harsh winters, when winds blow from the depths of the Asian mainland, and hot summers with rather heavy rainfall, depending on the summer monsoons. Rivers freeze for 4-5 months. Dongbei's natural resources are diverse. The vast central plain is convenient for farming. In the mountainous regions of the north and east there are vast forests.

Deforestation was carried out in a predatory manner, especially under Japanese rule, so that in many places the forests were severely thinned. But the remaining forests are of significant importance not only for Dongbei, but also for the rest of China, which is poor in forest. There are large mineral wealth - reserves of coal, iron ore, oil shale, aluminum raw materials, magnesite, gold, salt. The rivers of Manchuria are rich in water energy.

Population. About 90% of the population of Dongbei is Chinese; in addition, there are Koreans and in a smaller number - Manchus, Mongols, Russians. The population is concentrated mainly on the plain, especially in its southern part. The northern part of

Dongbei; mountains and forests are almost deserted here, settlements appear only in the Amur valley.

The main cities are Mukden, Dalny, Harbin, Changchun.

Economy. Dongbei is an agricultural country with a developed processing of agricultural raw materials, with a significant mining and metalworking industry and (in comparison with other regions of China) with a developed transport network. Due to the presence of heavy industry, Dongbei played an important role in the process of industrialisation in China, which began with the establishment of the people's democratic government.

The most important culture of Dongbei is soybeans, products made from them (butter, milk, cottage cheese, seasonings) occupy an important place in the nutrition of the population; beans, bean oil and oilcakes are the main export items. The crops of gaolyan and millet are also very common. Gaoliang (a variety of sorghum that is drought tolerant) serves the Manchu peasant for a wide variety of purposes. Its grains are used as food for people and pets; the stems, reaching 3 m in height, are used for making mats, hedges and for fuel. Among other crops, corn, wheat, rice, cotton, flax, sugar beets, and various garden vegetables are essential. Animal husbandry is of secondary importance, although more than in eastern China.

Industry is concentrated mainly in the southern part of Dongbei, most of all in the Mukden region, which is distinguished by the mining and metallurgical industries. Mukden is the largest city in Dongbei (1.5 million

inhabitants), the most important railway junction and the centre of various industries. In Fushun, near Mukden, there are large coal mines; most of the coal is mined in the open pit. In Anshan and Benxi there are iron mines and metallurgical plants. Far, located in the extreme south, is the centre of the oil industry (soybean oil), which plays an important role in the manufacturing industry of Dongbei.

At the intersection of the main Dongbei railways with the navigable river. Songhua is located in Harbin, a large industrial and trade centre. Dongbei is better served by railways than other parts of China. The main lines are the Sino-Eastern Railway, which crosses its northern part, and the South Manchurian Railway, which runs from the Chinese Eastern Railway to the Dalny, was built by the tsarist government shortly before the Russo-Japanese war. Until 1935, the Chinese Eastern Railway belonged to the USSR and was under joint Soviet-Chinese control. But after the capture of Manchuria by Japan, the atrocities of the Japanese invaders disrupted the normal operation of the road and created constant conflicts. Striving to consolidate peace and wanting to eliminate the cause for conflicts with the Japanese-Manchu authorities, the Soviet government agreed to sell the Chinese Eastern Railway.

According to the agreement concluded in 1945 between the USSR and China, the Chinese-Eastern and South-Manchurian railways, united under the name "Chinese Changchun railways. are recognized as the common property of the USSR and China and came under their joint management. After the victory of the people's democracy in China, the Soviet government,

loyal to the policy of disinterested assistance to the Chinese people building a new life, agreed to transfer to the People's Republic of China all its rights to the KChR with all property belonging to the road free of charge. By the end of 1952, the transfer was completed, and the road became the full property of the People's Republic of China.

Port Arthur is a naval base, and Dalny is a commercial port, located on the southern tip of the Liaodong Peninsula (called the Kwantung Peninsula), near the ice-free sea. These ports were built by the Russians and captured by Japan as a result of the Russo-Japanese War. According to the Soviet-Chinese agreement of 1945, Port Arthur is used jointly by China and the USSR as a naval base, its defense is entrusted by the Chinese government to the USSR government. By agreement between the Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China, Soviet troops will be withdrawn from Port Arthur after the conclusion of peace treaties between the People's Republic of China and Japan and the USSR and Japan.

North China

This area is adjacent to Dongbei from the south. Its eastern part includes the mountainous Shandong Peninsula and the North China Plain, while the western part is located in the loess plateau area. The Yellow River, to the basin of which most of northern China belongs, does not have the same significance for its region as Yangtzejiang has for Central China or Xijiang for South China. Shipping is possible only in places, and

even then for small vessels, it does not serve as an outlet to the sea for Northern China.

The conditions for agriculture in the west and east of North China are different. In the area of the loess plateau, agriculture suffers from a lack of irrigation. Transport is extremely difficult. In other places, ravines have so furrowed the entire surface that only separate terraces and bizarre projections, reminiscent of towers and bastions, remain of the former plain. In some places, the population lives in caves carved into the walls of the ravines. The soft soil is easily destroyed by hooves and wheels: deep ruts are formed and the roads gradually sink, turning into ditches. In dry weather, the roads are covered with a thick layer of dust. After the rains, they turn into a mess, in which the wheels get stuck.

In the North China Lowland, the main danger is floods, breakthroughs of safety dams, and instability of river channels. When there are heavy rains in the mountains, a good harvest is expected on the loess plateau, and floods are feared in the lower reaches of the Yellow River. The population density here is much higher than on the loess plateau, on average about 200 people per 1 sq. km.

The main crops in Northern China are wheat, millet, gaoliang, corn, cotton, tobacco, soybeans and groundnuts.

Northern China is rich in coal and has significant deposits of iron ores. The main coal mines are the Kailan mines (in Kaiping). Shanxi Province has long been famous for its artisanal iron industry. The manufacturing industry—mainly cotton—is concentrated in Tianjin. The

handicraft industry has retained great importance; it works not only for the local market but also for the sales in Inner Mongolia and the western provinces. Tianjin (access to the sea for Northern China) is the main port of Northern China (1.9 million inhabitants).

Beijing (over 2 million inhabitants) is the capital of China, the largest centre of higher education, one of the most ancient cities in the world (founded over 3000 years ago). Beijing is rich in wonderful examples of Chinese national architecture and various monuments of ancient Chinese culture. In the centre of the city, Red Square is a place for parades and demonstrations during revolutionary holidays. From Beijing, railways and dirt roads diverge in all directions. The largest industrial enterprise is a metallurgical plant located near the city; the rest of Beijing's industry consisted almost exclusively of small enterprises. Peking art products are famous. Now the capital of the People's Republic of China is turning into an industrial centre

The Great Wall of China, built in antiquity to defend against the attacks of nomads from the north, runs through North China. It stretches from the Liaodong Bay to the west. Its length is 2,400 km, and with branches it is much more. Its western part has been destroyed in many places.

Inner Mongolia

In the west, Inner Mongolia adjoins Manchuria, autonomous national region bordering the Mongolian the people's republic and the Soviet Union. The population is rare. The majority of the population are Mongols and

Chinese; besides, on there are Russians in the north. Southwestern Inner Mongolia / adjoining the Mongolian People's Republic, has a plateau character; it is occupied by dry steppes and semi-deserts, which are the outskirts of the Gobi. The east and north are mountainous (the Big Khingan ridge with its spurs). In the north in the mountains taiga forests, in the valleys there are tall and dense grasses.

The basis of the economy of Inner Mongolia is nomadic herding; sheep, goats, cattle, horses, camels are raised. Hunting for fur-bearing animals is essential. Farming is mainly done by the Chinese in the southeast and the Russians in the north of Inner Mongolia. Brown coal is extracted from mineral resources; developments are near Changchong Railway. The main city of Inner Mongolia is Udin Llanao.

Eastern China, Central China and Sichuan

All these three areas are cut by the river valley. Yangtzejiang. Possessing favorable conditions for agriculture and being the most important transport artery, the Yangtzijiang Valley, along with the valleys of its large tributaries, is distinguished by a dense population and concentrates the largest cities.

All three regions are prominent in China's agricultural production. The main food crop of the Yangtzejiang Basin is rice, which covers almost half of the total cultivated area. Sericulture, tea business,

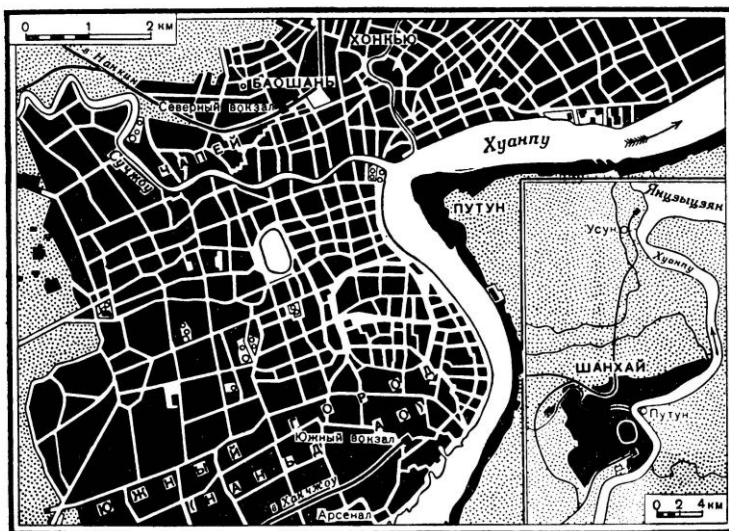
cotton growing, and the cultivation of oilseeds (rapeseed, sesame) are of great importance.

The peculiarity of East China is its coastal position and its great elongation along the sea, which makes it important in China's maritime relations and in China's defense from the Pacific Ocean; the latter circumstance acquires special significance in view of the seizure by the American imperialists of the island of Taiwan, which belongs to China, and in view of the American intervention in Korea.

The largest city in the Eastern region, as well as in the whole of China, Shanghai (about 5 million inhabitants) is located on the Yangtzejiang branch, 20 km from the main river and 70 km from the sea. The Shanghai port serves as an outlet to the sea for the Yangtze River Basin.

In Shanghai 700 thousand industrial workers are concentrated. It is the largest centre of the manufacturing industry in China, primarily cotton. In terms of the size of cotton production, it occupies one of the first places in the world.

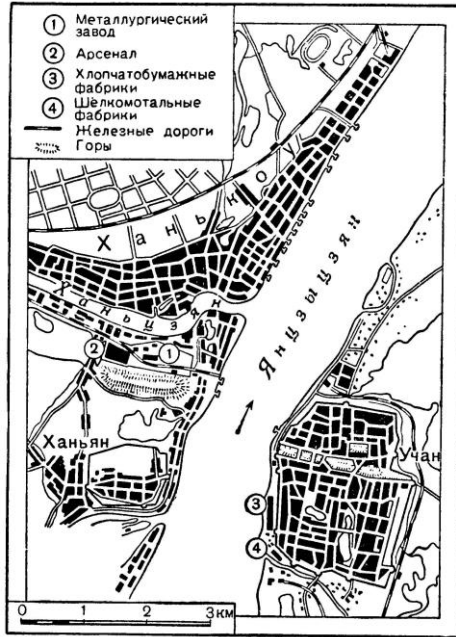
In the former semi-colonial China, Shanghai was the main stronghold of international imperialism: the largest foreign banks, industrial and commercial enterprises were located here. In the Shanghai port, one could always see foreign ships of all kinds of flags. Shanghai was a city of blatant contrasts. Foreign neighbourhoods stood out sharply for wealth and accomplishment amid the poverty and filth of much of the city. The loading and unloading of ocean-going ships in the Shanghai port was carried out by cool-loaders without any mechanization.



66. Схематический план Шанхая.

66. Schematic plan of Shanghai

After the liberation of Shanghai by the People's Liberation Army (May 28, 1949), Shanghai factories became an important part of the state (nationalised) industry of People's Democratic China. The port of Shanghai no longer serves for the exploitation of China by the imperialists, but for ties with those countries that want to trade with China on the basis of equality. The working conditions of Shanghai workers have been improved, and housing construction is developing.



67. Схематический план Уханя.

67. Schematic plan of Wuhan.

Nanjing (“Southern Capital”), on the Yangtzijiang River (in the lower reaches), in ancient times was the capital of China, then gave way to Beijing (“Northern Capital”). From 1928, Nanjing again became the capital of China, but from the end of 1937 to 1945 it was occupied by the Japanese. In 1949, Beijing again became the capital of China by the decision of the people’s democratic government.

The geographic centre of the Yangtze River Basin is Hankog /, or more precisely, the triple city of Wuhan (Wuchang, Hankou, Hanyang), with 1.2 million

inhabitants. It is a large commercial and industrial centre, but far behind Shanghai. In Hanyang, there is an iron, rail and arms factory associated with the iron mines and coal mines located in the vicinity of Wuhan. In addition, Wuhan has several cotton and silk factories and many small handicraft enterprises.

Higher up the Yangtzejiang, in Sichuan province, lies one of the most fertile and densely populated agricultural regions in China, the Red Basin. There are a variety of fossil resources, including coal and iron ore deposits. The seat of the Chinese government was transferred to the city of Chongqing (over 1 million inhabitants) during the Japanese occupation of Nanjing. Some factories in Shanghai and Wuhan were transferred to Chongqing and Chengdu.

South China

The Xijiang Estuary is the first gateway to China that is encountered on the sea route from Europe. Back in the middle of the XVI century. the Portuguese captured a piece of land at the entrance to Xijiang and founded the colony of Macau. At the beginning of the XIX century. the British led through Canton to the main trade with China; here a conflict arose over the illegal importation of opium by the British, which led to the "Opium War" of 1839-1842. Hong Kong, captured by Britain as a result of this war, became the base for British penetration into China. Back at the end of the 19th century. Canton was called the first industrial city China. But since then, Shanghai has far overtaken Canton as an industrial centre. Canton's commercial

importance was undermined by Hong Kong, where England established a first-class port. Nevertheless, Canton is now an industrial and commercial centre of the South China; it has about 1.2 million inhabitants. Larger enterprises are silk factories. But handicraft production is especially developed. Canton is a cramped city, with narrow, crooked streets and floating neighbourhoods that house boats and rafts.

In terms of agricultural development and population density in South China, the coastal province of Guangdong, which includes the lower reaches of the Xijiang, stands out. Re-seeding is more common here than in other parts of China. Rice as a staple food crop is even more important than in Central China. The area around Canton is specialized in sericulture. The culture of tobacco, sugar cane, tea, tangerines, lemons is developed.

Yunnan Province (on the border with Vietnam) stands out for its mineral wealth. The extraction of tin is of great importance.

The island of Taiwan (36 thousand sq. Km, 6.5 million inhabitants) is located 140 km from the mainland. In 1895 he was captured by Japan. In 1945, under the terms of surrender, Japan pledged to return it to China. International agreements were concluded on the same. In violation of these agreements, the United States took over Taiwan and turned it into its military base.

The population of Taiwan is almost exclusively Chinese. Taiwan has a variety of mineral wealth (including coal and gold) and large forests located in the mountainous eastern part of the island; a valuable

camphor tree grows in the forests, from which camphor is extracted. The main agricultural crops are rice and sugar cane.

Xinjiang

Most of the Central Asian regions of China are united into a huge area - Northwest China. As part of North-West China, according to the size of the territory, according to the national composition of the population (in which the majority are non-Chinese peoples), according to the administrative position, the province of Xinjiang is distinguished, which received autonomy of the democratic people.

Xinjiang borders on the Central Asian republics of the Soviet Union, the Mongolian People's Republic and India. Area 1640 thousand sq. km\population is approximately 5 million.

Xinjiang consists of two large depressions separated by the Tian Shan. In the south, between Tibet, Pamir and Tien Shan, lies the Kashgar depression, irrigated by the river. Tarim, which flows into the Lop Nor swamp lake. In the north, between the Tien Shan and Altai, there is Dzungaria, a wide passage—the “Dzungar Gate” - leads to neighboring Kazakhstan.

The position of Dzungaria is record-breaking in distance from any ocean (the greatest distance to the ocean is 2500 km).

Xinjiang's climate is sharply continental and dry. Most of the country is dry steppes and deserts, the entire central part of Kashgaria is occupied by the sandy

Taklamakan desert. Irrigated oases are located at the foot of the mountains. In these oases - a dense agricultural population engaged in arable farming, cotton growing, gardening, and silkworm breeding. In larger oases there are trading cities: in Kashgaria, **K & tsar** Yarkend in Dzungaria, the administrative centre of Xinjiang **Dphua (Urumqi), КутОжкг, Їtruџас**. Crafts have long been widespread in them (production of carpets, felt, leather goods). In the steppes - nomadic cattle breeding (sheep, cattle, horses, camels). At the northern and southern foothills of the Tien Shan, following chains of oases, caravan routes connecting Central Asia with China have been laid since ancient times. From Yarkand there is a pack trail to India through the highest passes in the world (up to 5600 m). The People's Democratic Authority has launched the construction of irrigation structures, industrial enterprises, roads.

The developing economic ties between Xinjiang and the USSR are helping to boost Xinjiang's economy. Highways connected Xinjiang with Eastern China and the Soviet Union. A variety of mineral resources (coal, oil, gold, non-ferrous metals) are being studied and developed. Two Soviet-Chinese joint-stock companies were created—one for the extraction of oil and gas, the other for the extraction of non-ferrous metals in Xinjiang. Power plants and large industrial enterprises appeared.

The population of Xinjiang is distinguished by its ethnic diversity. Uyghurs, related to Uzbeks, prevail in Kashgaria, sedentary agricultural people; in Dzungaria

live sedentary Dungans (Chinese Muslims) and Taranches (Uighur settlers from Kashgar); Kazakhs and Mongols roam the steppes. The Chinese make up about 12% of the total population.

Tibet

Tibet is a national autonomous region of China, located on a plateau of enormous height and colossal extent (up to 1300 km from north to south and up to 2000 km from east to west). From the south and west, the highlands are limited by the highest mountains in the world—the Himalayas and Karakorum, from the north—by the Kuen-Lun mountains. From the outskirts of the highland originate the greatest rivers of southeast Asia—the Yangtzejiang, Yellow River, Mekong, Bramaputra, Indus. But most of Tibet has no runoff into the ocean. The climate is severe, with severe frosts, with sharp contrasts between day and night temperatures.

The population (Tibetans) is about 4 million. The main source of livelihood is cattle breeding. Yaks (humpbacked long-haired bulls), goats, and sheep are bred. Agriculture is practiced only in deeper river valleys.

Domestic crafts are widespread—spinning and weaving of woolen fabrics and dressing of items related to the Buddhist cult—figurines, jewelry, candles, etc.

The dominant power in Tibet is the highest Buddhist clergy led by the Dalai Lama, subordinate to the Central Government of China. There are many monasteries in the country, especially in the vicinity of Lhasa, the

capital of the Dalai Lama; believe that in Tibet there are at least 300 thousand monks (lamas).

The British and American imperialists tried to tear Tibet away from People's Democratic China and subordinate it to their influence. However, they did not succeed. In May 1951, an agreement was reached between the Central People's Government of China and the local government of Tibet on the peaceful liberation of Tibet and on the foundations of the political structure of Tibet as a national autonomous region of China. Tibet has remained an integral part of China.

MONGOLIAN PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC

The Mongolian People's Republic (MPR) occupies the northern part of Central Asia, borders the USSR and China. Area—over 1,500 thousand square meters. yal, population of about 1 million people (Mongols). The capital is Ulan Bator.

Natural conditions. Most of the territory is an undulating plateau with an average height of 1000-1500 m; in the west, the plateau is crossed by high mountain ranges—Khangai and Mongolian Altai (its southeastern continuation—Gobi Altai); their individual peaks exceed 4000 m.

The climate of Mongolia is sharply continental, arid, with short summers and cold winters with little snow. Frosts continue until early June and resume from the 20th of August. The northern part of Mongolia is richer in precipitation and vegetation than the southern and eastern. In the north, there are significant areas of coniferous forest (from larch, cedar, spruce and pine); forest-steppe and steppe with relatively rich grass cover prevail. The slopes of the Khangai are also covered with forests and valuable pastures; from here originate the Selenga, flowing to Baikal, and a number of its tributaries. The further to the south and east, the drier the climate, the poorer vegetation, more and more often there are lifeless areas covered with pebbles. This is the Gobi. Where there is grass, it grows in bunches, without forming a closed cover. But there are not so many completely barren places in the Gobi. Many pastures have been spoiled by excessive or premature

grazing and are improved with proper nomadic farming. There is little drinking water in the Gobi; the first condition for the development of the Gobi is the organization of water supply.

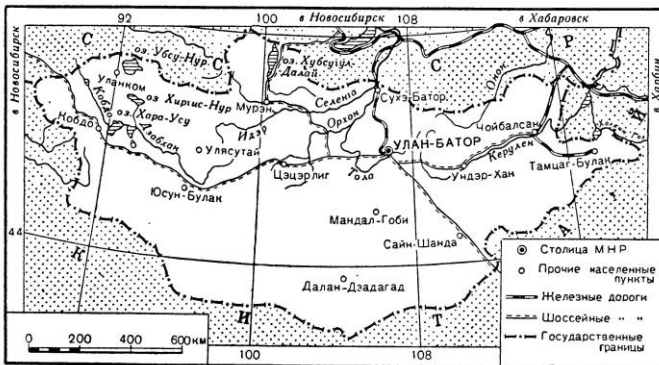
Mongolia has a variety of mineral resources—coal, gold, copper, semi-precious stones, a lot of salt.

The formation of the people's republic. In the past, Outer Mongolia (as the Mongolian People's Republic was formerly called) was a backward colony of the Chinese Empire. Her economy was based exclusively on backward nomadic cattle breeding. "The laboring mass of pastoralists (arats) was subjected to multilateral exploitation, which fettered the country's economic development. The arats were enmeshed in various duties in favor of the feudal lords and monasteries; most were in unpaid debt bondage with the usurers. A distinctive feature of Mongolia (like Tibet) was the exceptional abundance of Buddhist monasteries. Monasteries owned huge herds, traded and usurious business. The Chinese power in Outer Mongolia was actually weak.

The Great October Socialist Revolution gave impetus to the development of the national liberation movement in Outer Mongolia. In the struggle against the Chinese troops and the bands of the Russian White Guards (who invaded Mongolia after they were driven out of the Soviet land by the Red Army), the Mongolian People's Revolutionary Party (founded in 1920) and the People's Revolutionary Army were formed. Support from the Soviet Union, help from the Soviet Army made it possible for the Mongolian people to expel the invaders from the borders of the country and establish people's democratic power. In 1924 Mongolia became a people's republic. The

supreme power belongs to the Great People's Khural (Congress of People's Representatives).

On August 14, 1945, the Chinese government, citing the desire for independence repeatedly expressed by the people of Outer Mongolia, stated that "if the plebiscite of the people of Outer Mongolia confirms this desire, the Chinese government will recognize the independence of Outer Mongolia within its existing borders." The plebiscite took place on October 20, 1945; The Mongolian people unanimously confirmed their desire for independence. The Chinese government recognized the independence of the MPR.



68. Монгольская народная республика.

68. Mongolian People's Republic.

Features of development. The Mongolian Republic is a people's revolutionary republic; it is a republic of working people (arats-cattle breeders, workers and intelligentsia), which abolished imperialist and feudal oppression, ensured a non-capitalist path of

development for the country and is successfully moving towards socialism.

In the MPR, all types of serfdom and obligations, which were established by feudal lords and monasteries, were abolished. The land has been declared a public property. The privileges of the feudal lords were cancelled, their livestock was confiscated. Trade and industrial cooperation is developing, while private initiative is preserved, a large-scale industry has been laid to process local raw materials. The five-year plan for the development of the national economy and culture (for 1948-1952) is being successfully implemented. Medical services for the population have been improved, and great success has been achieved in the field of cultural and educational work. Since 1947, compulsory literacy training has been introduced. A state university was opened in Ulan Bator. A national cadre of qualified specialists is growing in all areas of the economy and culture. All these successes have been achieved thanks to the enormous disinterested assistance to the Mongolian people from the Soviet Union.

Economy. The basis of the national economy of the republic is nomadic cattle breeding (sheep, cattle, horses, camels, goats are raised). Livestock and livestock products (skins, wool) form the basis of export from Mongolia.

Colonial oppression and feudal exploitation in the past did not make it possible for cattle breeding to break out of centuries of backwardness. It completely depended on those food resources that nature itself

provides, and suffered severely from their instability. In summer, droughts, dry winds, harmful to grasses, in winter, snow drifts or icy ice, which prevented the cattle from getting food, caused a massive loss of livestock if cattle breeders did not have time to migrate to more prosperous places in time (in Mongolia, on average, about 20 days were almost complete lack of food). Veterinary care was almost non-existent, and epizootics caused enormous damage.

To get cattle breeding out of this backwardness, it took a lot of work. The government of the People's Republic took measures to develop hay making in order to create the necessary reserves for the period of lack of fodder. Shelters were built for livestock during the harsh winter cold. Wells were dug in the southern (driest) regions of the Mongolian Republic. Improved veterinary care. Production associations of arats have been created and continue to be created.

Agriculture is making significant progress. Almost everywhere it requires watering. Frost-resistant and early maturing crops are suitable for cultivation. Recently, the area under arable farming and gardening has expanded significantly. Of the breads used to be sown mainly barley, as it withstands frost better; recently, wheat crops have begun to spread. The main crop production is provided by state farms equipped with machines. Hunting is of great importance, especially for a fur-bearing animal (marmot, tree, fox).

Before the revolution, Mongolia did not have a large industry. Now, with the assistance and technical assistance of the USSR, the industry for processing livestock raw materials is developing. An industrial

plant was built in Ulan Bator for the manufacture of cloth, felt, leather and sheepskin; with him the power plant. There is also a meat factory, a mechanical plant, an auto repair shop, a state printing house, a brick factory, etc. The mining industry is developing, including the mining of coal and gold.

In local transportation, a large role is played by cart and pack transport on camels and bulls. Transport is developing rapidly. The main highways lead from Ulaanbaatar to the borders of the USSR and from Ulan Bator / Kalgan (to China). In 1949, a railway was opened connecting Ulan Bator with the territory of the Soviet Union.

The bulk of Mongolia's foreign trade is with the USSR. Textiles, petroleum products, flour, agricultural machinery, automobiles and equipment for new buildings come from the USSR. Live cattle, wool, skins, and furs are sent from Mongolia to the USSR.

On March 12, 1936, the USSR and the Mongolian People's Republic signed a protocol on mutual assistance in the event of an attack on one of these countries. In the summer of 1939, the Soviet-Mongolian troops gave a crushing rebuff to the Japanese troops who were trying to invade the Mongolian People's Republic. In August 1945, the troops of the Mongolian People's Republic took part, together with the Soviet troops, in the liberation of Manchuria from the Japanese invaders.

On February 27, 1946, an agreement of friendship and mutual assistance was signed between the Soviet Union and the Mongolian People's Republic, valid for 10

years, and an agreement on economic and cultural cooperation was also signed.

KOREA

Korea (in Korean Chiosen—"Country of morning freshness") is a people's democratic republic, occupying the peninsula of the same name and the adjacent part of the mainland. The Korean Peninsula separates the Japanese and Yellow Seas; The Korea Strait separates it from Japan. On land, Korea borders China and, for a short distance, the Soviet Union. Almost the entire border runs along rivers, including the largest river in Korea—Amnok (better known as Yalujiang). The area of Korea is 221 thousand square meters. km; population 30 million, almost exclusively Koreans.

From 1910 to 1945 Korea was a Japanese colony. North Korea was liberated by Soviet troops, South Korea was occupied by American troops. The border between the Soviet and American zones is set at 38° N. sh. By agreement Foreign Ministers of the USSR, the USA and England, concluded in December 1945, Korea should become an independent democratic state, and for this, first of all, a Provisional Korean Democratic Government should be created. But the American occupation authorities, contrary to this agreement, led the line to enslave South Korea and turn it into a strategic bridgehead for the United States. Having picked up a group of traitors to the Korean people, they created an obedient imagine a puppet "government" of South Korea.

In contrast to the imperialist policy pursued by the Americans in South Korea, in North Korea at first the Provisional People's Committee was formed and reforms were carried out, preparing the country for the creation

of a democratic government. North Korea led the nationwide struggle for unity and democratization of the whole country. In August 1948, elections to the Supreme People's Assembly were held throughout Korea. About the nationwide enthusiasm with which these elections were held is evidenced by the fact that in South Korea, despite the terror from the American authorities, 77.5% took part in the elections voters (in North Korea, participation was universal); at the vast majority of South Korean delegates, having overcome difficulties and dangers caused by the authorities (several was killed on the way, several dozen were arrested), arrived in Pyongyang, where the first session of the Supreme People's collections of Korea. This session adopted the Korean Constitution People's Democratic Republic and formed a single national government of Korea, which included representatives of various democratic parties.

The government of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea appealed to the United States and the Soviet Union with a request for the simultaneous withdrawal of American and Soviet troops from the country. The Soviet government agreed and by the end of 1948 had completed the evacuation of Soviet troops from Korea, showing in practice respect for the independence of the Korean people.

In the summer of 1950, troops of the puppet South Korean "government", instigated by the United States, invaded North Korea. When they were defeated by the Korean People's Army, the US launched a military intervention against the Korean people; at the same time they occupied the island of Taiwan belonging to

China. Thus, the United States committed a clear aggression against both Korea and China. At the same time, the United States illegally, without the participation of representatives of the USSR and the People's Republic of China, passed through the United Nations Security Council a decision on the provision of assistance by the members of the United Nations to the South Korean "government", that is, about their participation in an aggressive war started by the United States. The brutal imperialist war that the United States is waging against the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, the aggression against the People's Republic of China, expressed in the capture of Taiwan, the threat to the security of China from the invaders who invaded Korea, the raids of the American air forces on Chinese territory - all this caused widespread popular movement to help the brotherly Korean people. Chinese volunteers are fighting in the ranks of the heroic Korean People's Army for the freedom and independence of not only Korea, but also China.

The American imperialists and their henchmen are waging their shameful war against the Korean people inhumanly cruel: they are completely destroying large cities, exterminating civilians; without achieving this goal, they used such a vile means as bacteriological weapons, dropping infected insects from aircraft. But the Korean people are not broken. "With their heroic struggle against the American interventionists, the Korean people won the sympathy of the peace-loving peoples of the whole world. Korea has become the banner of the liberation movement for the oppressed and dependent countries "(N. A. Bulganin, report on the

33rd anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution).

Natural conditions. Korea is mountainous, especially in the areas adjacent to the Sea of Japan, where the mountains come close to the coast; despite the relatively low altitude (only in a few points above 2000 m), the mountains are steep, crowned with peaked ridges, and gorges. Korea faces the Yellow Sea with rolling lowlands; there are many fertile lands here. Korea has a monsoon climate. Despite the relatively southerly position of the country (between 34 and 43° N) and its protrusion into the sea, the climate of Korea is closer to the continental than to the oceanic type. This is especially true of North Korea, which is more remote from the ocean and more mountainous. In winter, cold, dry winds blow from inland, and winters are harsh in North Korea. The south, which is less mountainous and more extended into the sea, has a milder climate, reminiscent of the subtropical climate of southern Japan.

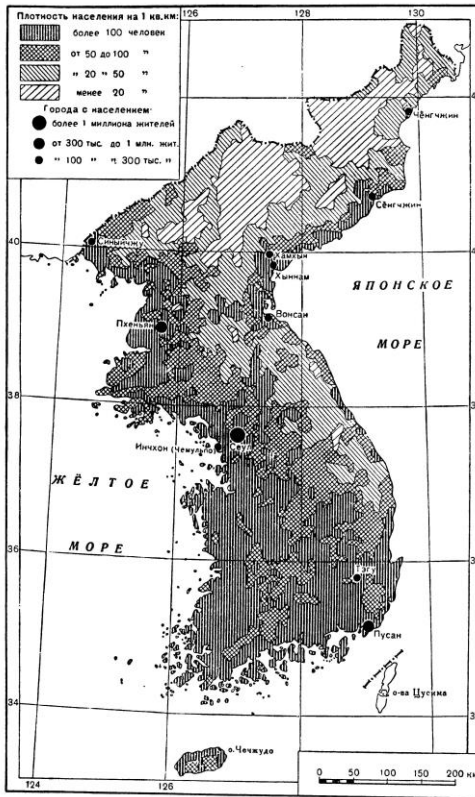
Korea is distinguished by a wide variety of natural resources. "It combines wild, rocky mountains with turbulent streams rushing their waters in formidable gorges, and fertile plains with green fields and flowering gardens; severe, impenetrable taiga with tall slender cedars and larch trees and lush groves of noble chestnuts, white acacias, pistachio trees and evergreen subtropical plants; dry cold continental winds that doom North Korea to severe frosts, and warm humid oceanic monsoons that bring real tropical downpours to the

country, blowing rivers and devastating fields and human settlements.

The natural wealth of the country is also varied and great. In its depths the richest deposits of all kinds of minerals are hidden; mountain rivers rushing through rapids and waterfalls contain huge reserves of hydropower. The fertile soil of the plains and the warm, humid climate give abundant harvests of valuable southern crops, and the sea waters washing the country abound in fish and all kinds of marine animals and plants. Rarely does any of the other, equally small in area, countries have such a variety and richness of natural conditions “(V. Zaychikov, Korea).

Population and economy. About 2/3 of Korea's population is engaged in agriculture, mainly farming; cattle breeding is of purely subsidiary importance. The main crops are rice, which plays an extremely important role in the life of the country, then barley, millet, soybeans, cotton; sericulture is widespread. But only about $x / 4$ of the entire area of Korea is cultivated. In the lowlands, as in China, every patch is cultivated, and the population density is very high, but the mountainous regions are very rarely inhabited and almost not affected by cultivation. Under Japanese rule most of the land belonged to Japanese and local landowners, while farmers were forced to rent land from them on bonded terms, giving the owner from 1/2 to 3/4 of the harvest. It is interesting that the Japanese authorities, which took away the best land from the Korean peasants, at the same time did nothing to expand the cultivated area in the mountainous regions, for which

there are opportunities. The tools used by the Korean peasant are primitive, but thanks to their vast labor experience and love to work, the land is cultivated skillfully and carefully.



69. Плотность населения Кореи.

69. The population density of Korea.

Industry in Korea under the Japanese government developed one-sidedly. In an effort to expand their

military-industrial base, the Japanese authorities organized in Korea the development of minerals (iron ore, gold, copper, zinc-lead, aluminum, tungsten ore, magnesite), built many different plants, including metallurgical and chemical ones. At the same time, there was almost no mechanical engineering, and the production of consumer goods was insufficient. The resources drawn from Korea went to the war economy of the Japanese imperialists.

There are significant differences in the nature of the economy between South and North Korea. In the south - the main agricultural densely populated regions of the country, most of the food industry. North Korea is more mountainous, less convenient, with the exception of the coast, for agriculture, but here are the main hydropower, mineral and forest resources of the country; the main enterprises of the heavy industry are also located here.

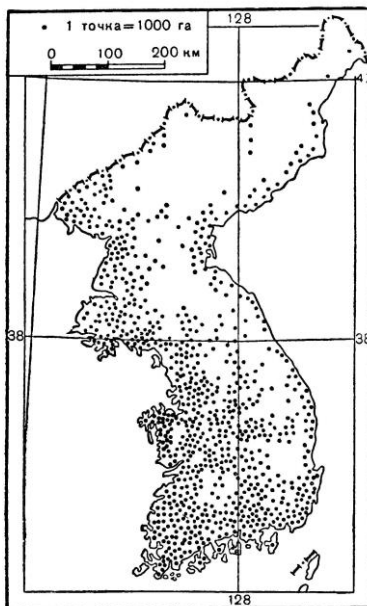
The course of development of North and South Korea after the collapse of Japanese rule is radically different. A radical agrarian reform has been carried out in North Korea. Lands of Japanese and Korean landowners confiscated and distributed free of charge between the working people who are most in need of land. Technical assistance is provided to low-power farms. For example, irrigation of fields with a water wheel powered by human feet is replaced by pumping water with electric motors. Large-scale industry, transport, banks were nationalized. Planning in progress National economy. A lot of work has been done in the cultural and educational area. The Japanese authorities deliberately kept the Korean people in the dark. The

Korean language was banned from teaching in schools. Many millions of Koreans were illiterate. There was one small university in all of Korea (in Seoul), accessible almost exclusively to the Japanese. The teaching served to glorify Japanese rule. Now in North Korea, the Korean language has been restored in schools, illiteracy is rapidly eradicated, and the school network is growing and a number of universities and research institutions were created, including the university and the Academy of Sciences. There is a rise in the national Korean culture in its various manifestations. The Soviet Union is rendering enormous assistance to the economic and cultural development of democratic Korea.

In the south, the Japanese colonial regime was replaced by the American colonial regime. The industry passed into American hands. The peasantry languishes from land shortages, feudal duties, taxes and all kinds of extortions. A lot of people do not have a job or a piece of bread. The insurrectionary movement does not stop.

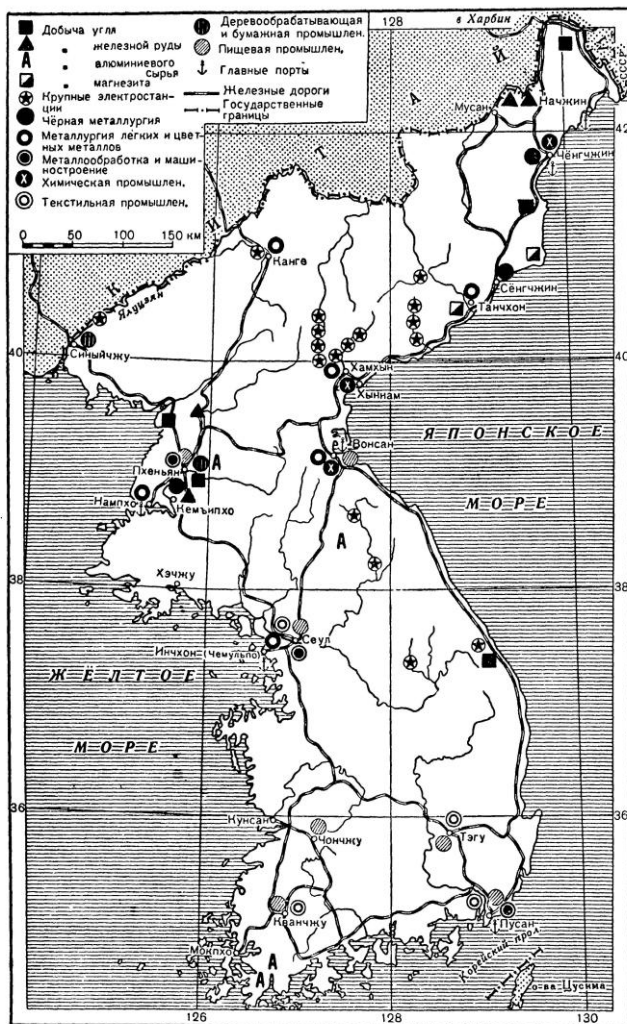
The largest city in North Korea is Lyaenyang (over 400 thousand inhabitants). Chinnampo (Nampo) serves as its port. Pyongyang with Chinnampo and surroundings points forms the main hub of ferrous and nonferrous metallurgy (coal is mined nearby and iron ore). After the expulsion of the Japanese, Pyongyang became the organizing centre of the struggle for democratization of Korea. Here in 1948 the proclamation of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea took place and its government was formed. Pyongyang has become a major cultural centre (Academy sciences, university, polytechnic, agricultural and medical institutes). The

American interventionists attacked Pyongyang with particular fury and inflicted terrible destruction on it. Several significant port cities are located in northeastern Korea: Wonsan, Heungnam, which together with the neighboring city of Hamhung forms a large industrial hub, Chongjin, Najin.



70. Посевы риса в Корее.

70. The rice crops in Korea.



71. Промышленность Кореи.

71. Industry of Korea.

In South Korea there is Seoul (about 1 million inhabitants), which was the capital of Korea before the capture of Korea by the Japanese, an ancient centre of Korean culture. An important transport hub. Diverse industry.

The port for Seoul is Incheon (Chemulpo) on the Yellow Sea, 40 km from Seoul (220 thousand inhabitants); Chemulpo is known in the history of the Russian-Japanese war of 1904-1905. the heroic death of the cruiser Varyag, which was fighting against the overwhelming forces of the Japanese fleet. Busan (Fuzan) (326 thousand inhabitants)—on the coast of the Korea Strait, the point of the shortest communication with Japan (220 km to Shimonoseki); in Japanese hands it served as a naval base, which, together with the bases of Japan itself, controlled the Korean Strait. In American hands, Busan serves as the main base of intervention in Korea.

VIETNAM

The Democratic Republic of Vietnam¹ occupies the eastern part of the Indochina Peninsula, formerly part of French Indochina. It was formed as a result of the liberation movement that unfolded during the Second World War, when Indochina was occupied by Japan. In August 1945, this movement developed into a revolution that overthrew the imperialist rule of both Japan and France. The independence of the Republic of Vietnam was proclaimed on September 2, 1945. The French government, supported by the American and British imperialists, tried to crush the young republic by armed force and create a puppet state in its place under its control. But the people of Vietnam, led by the Communist Party, thwarted this plan with their heroic struggle and strengthened the republic's independence.

Vietnam included three regions: Tonkin, Annam and Cochin. According to the constitution of Vietnam, they were named: Northern Region, Central Region, South Region. The total area is about 350 thousand square meters. km / population of 22 million people, the majority annamits. The supreme power belongs to the national parliament, elected on the basis of universal suffrage. The head of state is a president elected by parliament. The leading political party is the Vietnamese Communist Party, which leads the national front. Capital - Hanoi.

¹ Vietnam - "Country of the South" (southern in relation to China).

Most of the territory of Vietnam is mountainous. But in the south, in the delta of the river. Mekong, is a vast fertile lowland. Significant lowland is also in the north, in the lower reaches of the river. Red (Song-Koi). In addition, small low-lying areas are found along the entire east coast. Climate Vietnam is tropical, monsoon. About 1/3 of the territory is covered with tropical forests, among which bamboo forests are of great value. Vietnam is rich in minerals - high quality coal, tin, zinc, tungsten, iron, manganese. Lots of water energy.

Under French rule, Vietnam was a backward agricultural country. Many of the best lands were captured by the French, who established large plantations (especially in Cochin, in the fertile lowlands of the Mekong). Part of the land was left to local landowners. Most of the indigenous people either owned insignificant tracts of land or rented land on the basis of enslaving leases from large landowners. The most important crop is rice, the main food item and the main export item from Vietnam. They also sow corn. Rubber plantations provide a significant export of rubber. The mining industry has a great future; In addition to those minerals that were mined under the French government (coal, zinc, tin, tungsten), Vietnam has a variety of resources that are still poorly understood.

Despite the hardships of the long war of independence, the democratic government of Vietnam has made and continues to make important changes. The lands of the former "Emperor Annam"¹ and the

¹ Under the rule of France, Annam, formally considered an empire, had an "emperor" who, of course, had no real power.

landowners who deserted to the French imperialists were nationalized. Landless and landless peasants are provided with land, land rent has been reduced, and assistance is provided to the peasantry to expand the sown area, arrange irrigation, and raise yields. The enterprises of the military industry have been nationalized, and measures are being taken to expand industrial production. Great successes have been achieved in the field of education: the network of schools has been expanded, and the percentage of illiterates has been sharply reduced.

The largest population density is distinguished by the Northern region, especially the lowland of the river. Song-Koi (Red), one of the granaries of the country. The most important mining developments are located here. The main city of the Northern Region - Hanoi - is the capital of Vietnam. There is a railway from Hanoi to China. Another railway goes from Hanoi to the south, to the Central and Southern regions. The main port of the Northern Region is Haiphong. The main granary of Vietnam is the Southern Region, which provides an excess of rice both for the densely populated Northern Region, which lacks its own rice, and for export. Saigon is the main city and port of the Southern Region.

CAPITALIST COUNTRIES

JAPAN

Composition and dimensions. The group of Japanese islands, on which Japan is located, separates the Sea of Japan from the Pacific Ocean; it consists of 4 large islands (Honshu, or Hondo, Hokkaido, Shikoku and Kyushu) and many smaller ones.

The Korea Strait (divided by the double island of Tsushima) separates the island of Kyushu from Korea, the closest part of the Asian mainland to the Japanese islands; La Perouse Strait (43 km) separates Hokkaido Island from Sakhalin Island (USSR). The area of Japan is 382 thousand square metres. km] population - 83 million.

As a result of the defeat of Japan in World War II, it lost all of its colonies, mandate territories, occupied countries, the total population of which reached about 400 million in 1942 (i.e., during the greatest spread of Japanese conquests). Modern Japan has returned mainly to the borders in which it was until the 70s of the XIX century, that is, before the start of its territorial conquests.

Since the fall of 1945, Japan has been occupied by the US armed forces. Two bodies of international control have been created in charge of Japanese affairs: the Far Eastern Commission (in Washington) and the Allied Council for Japan (in Tokyo), consisting of representatives of the USSR, the USA, Great Britain and China.

The Far Eastern Commission, in addition to the powers represented in the Union Council, also includes representatives of France, the Netherlands, the Philippines, India, the Australian Union, Canada and New Zealand. Its task is to establish a common political line in relation to Japan and control the implementation of this line by the commander-in-chief of the American occupation forces. However, the American occupation authorities, disregarding either these international bodies or the Japanese people, are pursuing a policy of subjugating Japan and turning it into an instrument of their aggressive plans against the USSR and China.

The capital of Japan is Tokyo.

Coastline, surface. The coastline of the Japanese Islands is distinguished by an abundance of bays, peninsulas and coastal 244 islets. There are many convenient bays. Especially convenient for navigation is the Inland Sea of Japan (between the islands of Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu), sheltered from ocean storms. The Pacific Ocean off the coast of Japan is extremely deep; on the parallel of Tokyo, 200 km from the coast, there are already depths of 8500 m.

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The surface of the Japanese Islands is mountainous. Low-lying areas, mostly located near the sea coast, occupy no more than a third of the entire area of the islands.

There are many volcanoes in Japan. There are especially many of them in the central part of the island of Honshu; to the west of Tokyo, the Fuji-san volcano (Fujiyama) rises—the highest point in Japan (3776 m).

But the most terrible in Japan are not volcanic eruptions, but earthquakes. They are especially dangerous in the oceanic lowlands located close to the deep depressions of the ocean floor. Displacements of the seabed during earthquakes often cause huge waves that hit the coast with destructive force. The most destructive earthquake of recent times was in 1923.

Climate and vegetation. The climate of Japan depends on several factors: on the island position of the country, on the influence of the monsoons, on the sea currents passing off the coast of Japan, and, in addition, on the great length of the Japanese archipelago from north to south (from 46 to 31° N); there the climatic zones change from moderately cold to subtropical, and the southern part of Kyushu is already a transition to the tropical zone.

The contrasts of the climate of southern and northern Japan are further enhanced by the influence of sea currents. Southern Japan is heated by the warm Kuro-Sivo Current, while northeastern Japan is influenced by the cold Oya-Sivo Current, which flows from the north along the eastern shores.

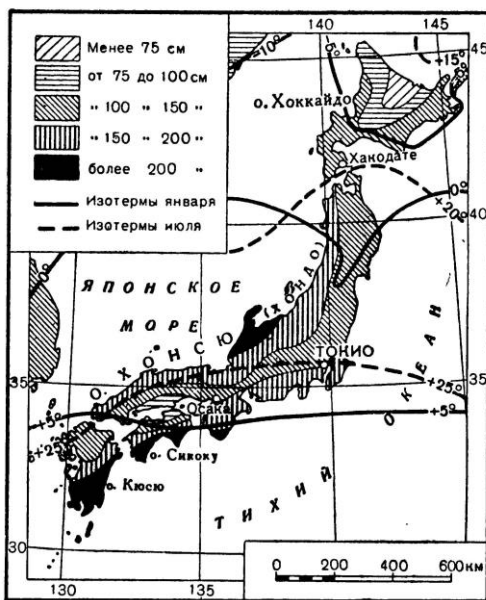
Monsoons bring heavy rainfall to Japan. The western coast receives the main precipitation from the winter (northwestern) monsoon passing over the Sea of Japan (they fall in the form rain or snow); the summer (southeastern) monsoon blowing from the ocean brings abundant warm rain to the east coast. In Japan, from 100 to 300 cm of annual precipitation falls, only in the north of Hokkaido—less. The winter monsoon brings cold from the Asian mainland, albeit softened by the influence of the Sea of Japan; consequently, winter in Japan is relatively harsh, while the summer is hot. January temperature ranges from $+7^{\circ}$ in the south up to -6° in the north, July temperature is from $+27^{\circ}$ to $+17^{\circ}$. In Tokyo, which occupies a central position in Japan, the temperature in July is $+25^{\circ}$, January is $+3^{\circ}$, and annual precipitation is 160 cm. The way the features of the maritime climate (high humidity) are combined in Japan with features of continentality (strong contrasts between winter and summer temperatures).

Like other countries with a monsoon climate, Japan is prone to severe hurricanes—typhoons. Typhoons are especially dangerous in 72. Climate of the Japanese Islands (annual precipitation, isotherms of July and January). the autumn monsoon change is in October.

The coastal waters of Japan are very rich in fish. Due to the combination of warm and cold currents, a wide variety of fish species from both warm and cold waters can be found here.

The vegetation of the Japanese islands is extremely rich and varied. Over half of the total area of Japan is

covered with forest. Here you can find both humid tropical and subtropical forests with evergreen trees, and coniferous forests in the mountains, and deciduous forests of the temperate zone in the north. The main forests are preserved in the mountains. The most valuable are the coniferous timber forests of middle and northern Honshu. Most of the forests belong to the landlords, the state and the imperial family.



72. Климат Японских островов (годовые осадки, изотермы июля и января).

72. Climate of the Japanese Islands (annual precipitation, isotherms of July and January).

Rivers. Japan's rivers are short, but fast and full of water, and therefore they are powerful sources of

hydropower. Water energy reserves are over 8 million litres. From the fact that rivers flow in different directions—some to the Pacific Ocean, others to the Sea of Japan—is of great benefit: on different slopes, the periods of flood of rivers do not coincide, so when there is little water in some rivers, others, on the contrary, give a maximum of water energy. But the importance of rivers as waterways is negligible.

Fossil wealth. Japan is poor in coal: total reserves are estimated at about 7 billion tons, and industrial reserves are even less (1.5 billion). The main coal basins are in Kyushu and Hokkaido. Low quality coal. Oil reserves are insignificant. Due to the scarcity of coal and oil, rivers are especially important as a source of energy. Japan is not rich in metals. Iron is especially low. More significant reserves of copper (found in combination with gold); there is zinc and silver.

Population

The average population density in the Japanese islands is 217 people per ke. km. The “overpopulation” of Japan was one of the favorite arguments of the Japanese military in favor of new conquests. In fact, there is no need to talk about overpopulation.

In Hokkaido, for example, the density is less than 50 people per sq. km. On the three southern islands, where the average density is especially high, there are vast mountain-forest areas, where there is almost no permanent population. Residents are crowded in river valleys, in coastal and lakeside lowlands—in a word, in

those areas where you can sow rice or fish. All major cities of the country are confined to these lowlands. On the southern islands, human dwellings are rarely found above 1000 m above sea level, and in Hokkaido - above 500 m.

In an extremely acute form in Japan, a contradiction is manifested, typical for many capitalist countries: the peasant poor are struggling in the grip of land hunger, but they have no opportunity to develop vacant lands (firstly, they do not belong to the peasants, and, secondly, their development requires funds that the poor do not have).

All major cities in Japan are located in the southern half of the island of Honshu: Tokyo - in the depths of Tokyo Bay, with 5.4 million inhabitants, Yokohama—a port for the capital (about 1 million inhabitants), Osaka—the largest industrial centre of Japan (about 2 million inhabitants). Nagoya is a large industrial centre (1 million), Kyoto is the former capital of Japan (1.1 million), Kobe is the largest Japanese port.

Features of the development of Japan

A combination of developed capitalism and feudal backwardness. Japanese capitalism, which quickly passed all stages of development from a backward and weak feudal country to one of the most aggressive imperialist powers, represents a peculiar combination of the most advanced forms of finance capital with the most backward remnants of feudalism. Of the major imperialist powers, such contrasts are encountered in

Italy, but in Japan they are expressed immeasurably more sharply.

Until the middle of XIX century, Japan was a backward and closed feudal country. Trade with other countries was negligible. Feudal power, seeking to preserve the existing order, obstructed relations with foreigners.

Despite this, on the basis of domestic trade and usury in Japan, merchant capital developed, and large savings were concentrated in the hands of individual merchant firms. There were rudiments of the manufacturing industry. But Japan's artificial isolation hindered its development. This isolation came to an end in 1853 when a US military squadron approached Tokyo Bay and forced Japanese rule to open two ports for Japanese-American trade. The Europeans came for the Americans. Foreigners have imposed a series of unequal treaties similar to those that enveloped China at the same time.

Trade with foreigners strengthened the role of the commercial bourgeoisie. 15 years after Japan was open to European-American capital, its bourgeoisie, united with the lower nobility, made a revolution (1868). But this bourgeois revolution remained half-hearted, incomplete. The new order was based on an alliance between the bourgeoisie and the feudal nobility. The nobles retained their vast land holdings. The peasant revolution, which threatened to fundamentally break the old order, was suppressed by the joint forces of the nobility and the bourgeoisie. The feudal exploitation of the peasantry was not abolished; capitalist exploitation was added to it. This interweaving of strong remnants of feudalism with capitalist forms of exploitation remains characteristic of modern Japan as well.

On the one hand, Japanese capitalism has the features of developed capitalism: powerful industrial enterprises with a high level of technology, high development of electrification, powerful monopolies, the rule of a handful of financiers.

On the other hand, Japanese capitalism is distinguished by strong remnants of pre-capitalist forms of exploitation, moreover, not only in agriculture, where the remnants of feudalism are especially strong, but also in industry: buying children from parents to work in factories is widespread, and debt bondage is a frequent occurrence. Cheap female and child labor is cruelly exploited. The exceptional cheapness of labor is the main resource on which the development of Japanese industry is based, the main “trump card” of Japanese capitalism in the struggle for markets.

The aggressiveness of Japanese imperialism and its downfall. Until the 70s of the XIX century. the territory of Japan was limited to the Japanese islands. In the 70s, Japan captured several groups of small islands, including the Ryukyu and Kuril islands (the latter had previously belonged to Russia). In the hands of the Japanese, a total of a chain of islands was found, stretching for more than 4000 km along the Asian continent and separating a number of inland seas from the open ocean (Okhotsk, Japanese, East China and Yellow). When Japan became a strong maritime power, this gave it the ability to control most of the approaches to the Asian mainland from the Pacific Ocean. Japan began its larger conquests at the end of the 19th century In 1894-1895, attacking China, she took away

from him the islands of Taiwan (Formosa) and Pescadores.

In 1905, as a result of the war with Russia, Japan seized the southern half of Sakhalin and part of the Liaodong Peninsula with Port Arthur and Dalny (which had been leased from Russia since 1898). In fact, Korea was also captured at the same time (it was officially annexed later - in 1910).

As a result of the First World War, Japan received the German islands in the Pacific Ocean, lying north of the equator. The German concession of Qingdao captured during the war had to be formally returned to China under pressure from the United States, but in fact Japan firmly took root there.

In addition to direct seizures, Japan took advantage of the distraction of the forces of other great powers by the war and strengthened its economic position in China. She founded large textile factories in Shanghai and Qingdao. The development of Manchuria by Japanese capital intensified. The export of Japanese goods to Asian markets increased sharply.

The Japanese intervention in Siberia (1918-1922) ended in complete failure, accompanied by cruel reprisals against workers and peasants, savage destruction and plunder. The victories of the Red Army forced Japan to clear the territory of the Soviet Union.

In 1931, Japan launched an extensive offensive against China. She captured all of Manchuria and the eastern part of Inner Mongolia and created a fictitious state of Manchukuo from the occupied territories. In 1937, Japan attacked China again and captured a

significant part of its territory. The goal of the Japanese imperialists was the final subjugation of all of China.

In 1938, Japan attacked the Soviet country in the area of Lake Khasan, near Vladivostok; in 1939 she made an attempt to invade the Soviet Union from the side of the Mongolian People's Republic; both times the Japanese invaders suffered a crushing defeat from the Soviet Army.

On December 7, 1941, Japan began military operations against the United States, England and the Netherlands. Taking advantage of the surprise of its attack, Japan in a short time seized the British possessions—Hong Kong, Malaya, almost all of Burma, the possessions of the United States—the Philippine Islands and Guam, the Netherlands India. In the North Pacific, Japanese armed forces temporarily captured the western Aleutian Islands.

From the middle of 1942, the Japanese offensive was stopped. Subsequently, the American and British armed forces launched a counteroffensive. The entry of the Soviet Union into the war against Japan dealt a decisive blow: on September 2, 1945, Japan's unconditional surrender was signed. Japan lost all its conquests. The Soviet Union reclaimed southern Sakhalin, captured by Japan in 1905, and the Kuril Islands. Comrade Stalin noted the importance of the transition of southern Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands to the Soviet Union in the following way: "... from now on they will serve not as a means of separating the Soviet Union from the ocean and as a base for a Japanese attack on our Far East, but as a means of direct communication between the Soviet Union and the ocean

and the base defense of our country from Japanese aggression”.

The comparatively weak economic base of Japanese imperialism. To characterize Japanese imperialism (in the form in which it took shape by the time of the Second World War), the discrepancy between its military strength and comparative weakness of the economic base. In terms of the strength of its navy and land army, as well as the size and wealth of the occupied territories, Japan was before the Second World War an imperialist power of the first rank.

Japanese industry has made great strides since the First World War. In particular, the industries that are most closely connected with the preparation for war have developed. Nevertheless, in terms of industrial development, Japan was far behind the United States, Germany, England, especially in the industry of means of production. One of the most vulnerable spots of Japanese imperialism was the sharp dependence of industry on foreign raw materials and on foreign sales markets. The leading branches of Japanese industry worked mainly on imported raw materials. On the other hand, the capacity of the Japanese domestic market is insignificant. The cheapness of labour and the low standard of living of the working class, which were the main strength of Japanese imperialism in the struggle for markets, were at the same time the source of its weakness. The impoverished countryside, like the city's working class, is a poor market for Japanese industry.

The Japanese imperialists saw a way out of the contradictions that were eating away at Japan in new colonial conquests and in the intensified exploitation of

Japanese workers and peasants. This rampant aggressive policy ultimately led to the downfall of Japan.

Japan after the second world war. The above shows how important the task of demilitarizing and democratizing Japan is. This is important both from the point of view of general security, and from the point of view of the fate of the Japanese people themselves, brought to a catastrophe by the previous regime. The need to transform Japan into a democratic peace-loving state was recognized by several international agreements concluded during the Second World War and after it. However, the policies of the American occupation authorities in control of Japan flagrantly violate these agreements. It runs counter to the interests of peace and security and the interests of the Japanese people. It is aimed at restoring the war industry and the armed forces of Japan, at reviving its monopolies, at strengthening the positions of reactionary elements and at suppressing democratic movements. The goals of this policy are similar to those of the American policy pursued in West Germany:

- 1) the transformation of Japan into an American bridgehead and the use of the Japanese military against the USSR and the people's democratic countries - Korea and China. The American intervention in Korea relies on Japan as a military-strategic base;

- 2) the transformation of Japan into an American semi-colony, into a market for American goods and capital. The Americans removed from Japan the equipment of those enterprises that can compete with the American industry, while in others enterprises that

are “not dangerous” in this respect are pouring in American capital. For its introduction into the Japanese economy, American capital uses Japanese monopolies, which for their part, they are “ready for all services,” just to preserve at least part of their former power.

These aggressive goals are served by a separate “peace treaty” illegally concluded in 1951 with Japan by the United States and the states obedient to them without the participation of the USSR and the People’s Republic of China.

As a result of this policy, production in Japan is at a low level, despite the ongoing recovery of the Japanese war industry. For workers in Japan, this policy brings a huge drop in real wages, massive unemployment, tax increases and, as a result, extreme poverty. Against the background of this disastrous policy of the American occupiers for the Japanese people, J. V. Stalin’s magnanimous and encouraging message to the Japanese people (December 31, 1951) sounded with particular force. In his message, J. V. Stalin spoke of the deep sympathy of the peoples of the Soviet Union with the Japanese people in trouble due to foreign occupation, and wished “... the entire Japanese people and their intelligentsia complete victory of the democratic forces of Japan, revitalization and growth of economic life country, flourishing of national culture, science, art and success in the struggle to preserve peace.” These words penetrated deeply into the minds of the Japanese people, giving them hope for a better future.

Political system. Before its collapse, Japan, although it had a semblance of bourgeois parliamentarism, was actually an unlimited monarchy.

The emperor (“heir to the sun goddess”) enjoyed broad constitutional rights that allowed him to act almost independently of parliament. The decisive influence on government policy was exercised by the financiers at the head of the largest monopolies, large landowners and the highest military clique, closely associated with the ruling classes; the military command was a large and independent political force.

In 1946, a new constitution was adopted, fabricated at the behest of the American occupation authorities. Under the new constitution, the rights of parliament are expanded, but the emperor is preserved. Parliament consists of two chambers - the Chamber of Deputies and the Chamber of Councillors. The task of the latter is “to correct possible excesses of the lower house”, i.e. to protect the existing order from truly democratic innovations; Accordingly, the system of elections to the House of Councillors ensures its purely reactionary composition. Elections to the Chamber of Deputies are formally more democratic (universal, direct), but in reality the elections are being held in an atmosphere of military and police terror directed against democratic parties. In fact, Japan is governed not by constitutional norms, but by the dictates of the American occupation authorities.

In Japan, there are two influential, long-established bourgeois parties—the Liberal Democratic Party and the Simple Democratic Party. Both parties are quite reactionary, although as a result of the collapse of Japanese imperialism, they were forced to reform and “repaint” somewhat. Essentially, there is as little difference between them as there is between the

Democratic and Republican parties in the United States. The Japanese Socialist Party, like the right-wing socialists of other countries, is an agent of the bourgeoisie.

The defeat of imperialist Japan brought to life the democratic forces of the Japanese people. The Japanese Communist Party, founded illegally in 1922 and working underground, came out of the underground in 1945 and is now leading the revolutionary struggle of the Japanese workers to create a democratic, peace-loving Japan, to ensure its independence, to improve the material conditions of the working class and peasantry, for the establishment of close cooperation with the People's Republic of China, the USSR and other peace-loving countries. She is fighting for the creation of a united national liberation democratic front for all working people in Japan.

The large shifts in the political life of Japan are also evidenced by the scope of the trade union movement, which before the war in Japan was very weak, but now has embraced most of the workers and employees; the growth of the peasant movement and the closest cooperation of workers' and peasants' organizations testify to the same.

Overview of the Economy

Agriculture. Land tenure and land use. About 60% of the agricultural area is cultivated by peasant owners. The rest of the land, owned by landowners, leased on enslaving terms. It is important to note that enslaving rent during the development of Japanese capitalism not

only did not decrease, but became more and more widespread. Landowners in Japan do not run their own households; tenants often, in turn, transfer land, breaking it up into small plots; then a multi-storey superstructure is obtained, and the tenant peasant is forced to feed numerous parasites, giving them over 50% of his harvest. The oppression of the Japanese peasantry, its technical and material helplessness determine stagnation in agriculture.

Landowners with small land holdings are characteristic of Japan. In Japanese conditions, the owner of 3 hectares of irrigated land is often already a landowner, and the owner of 10 hectares is already a large landowner. Indeed, in the absence of livestock and agricultural machinery, the processing of 3 hectares of rice fields for a single peasant farm is an unbearable thing. The exception is Hokkaido, where about 2/3 of the farms have draft animals, where there are agricultural implements, ploughs, etc., where there are many kulak farms that exploit hired workers. The Japanese farmer en masse is a poor man, working by hand with the most miserable implements on dwarf plots of land. The so-called bed culture of the land (like truck farming) is widespread, requiring a huge expenditure of labor. Only in the northern and eastern parts of Hokkaido there is an extensive, in some places even sub-seed-bearing farming.

Livestock raising. The peculiar side of Japanese agriculture is the negligible amount of livestock. Horse breeding in Japan was developed for military purposes; as draft animals, horses are used only by a part of the peasants, mainly in Hokkaido. There are almost no draft

animals on the rest of the islands. The Japanese do not know dairy food and consume very little meat.

Before the Second World War, silkworm breeding was of particular importance in Japan. Japan was the world's largest exporter of raw silk. Almost all of the silk exported went to the United States. During the war, the export of silk from Japan stopped, most of the mulberry trees were cut down and the land was occupied by food crops. The production of raw silk before the war was 42 thousand tons per year, in 1948 only 5.4 thousand tons. In the United States artificial silk almost replaced imported natural silk. This ruined a lot of Japanese silkworm farmers.

Agriculture. Only 6 million hectares are under cultivation, 16% of the total area of the Japanese Islands. Agriculture is widespread almost exclusively in the coastal lowlands, river valleys and lake basins. Huge mountain-forest areas are almost never used for agriculture. The main food crop is rice. Under the rice is busy over 3 million hectares of sown area. In rice harvesting, Japan is second only to India and China. Despite high yields, the country is constantly in need of imported rice. Rice is sown mainly on irrigated land, other grain breads give good harvests on dry land (under rain and soil moisture), but dry (dry) agriculture plays a secondary role, despite the fact that the country has enough land suitable for this. Causes—lack of draft animals and agricultural implements. Under barley and wheat—about 1.5 million hectares.

Among other agricultural products of the country, the most important are sweet potatoes, potatoes, radish

(one of the main food items of the Japanese peasant), turnip and various legumes, in particular soybeans. Fibrous plants are scarcely cultivated in Japan, not even cotton, which the Japanese textile industry needs so much. Tea is cultivated in the southern half of Japan.

Fishing. Lack of livestock products somewhat offset by the country's huge fish wealth. Before the Second World War, Japan was the first country in the world in terms of fish catch (it produced 2.5-3 million tons of fish annually—more than the USA and Great Britain combined). The most important fishing ports: on the southern coast of Hokkaido—Hakodate (centre of Japanese fishing in the northern seas); at the southwestern tip of Honshu—Shimonoseki. There are hundreds of fishing villages along the shores of the Inland Sea of Japan.

Industry. The Japanese industry is not sufficiently provided with its own coal; in 1951, coal production amounted to 43 million tons. Oil production provides only a small part of the oil products consumed in Japan. But in the use of hydropower and in the production of electricity, Japan is in one of the first places in the world. The largest hydroelectric power plants with a high-voltage transmission network are located in the central region of Honshu; from here energy is transferred to industrial centres.

Metallurgy, metalworking, mechanical engineering, and the chemical industry worked hard for military needs; steel production in 1943 was 8 million tons, in 1951 it reached 6.3 million tons.

The textile industry has long occupied a leading place in Japanese industry, but before the Second World War it was pushed into the background by the military industry. The cotton industry is especially developed, operating on imported cotton; it provides a large export of fabrics, but much less than before the war.

The Japanese production of artificial silk, which reached very large sizes before the war, also suffered greatly. This is the only important branch of Japanese industry, fully supplied with its own raw materials (wood pulp).

After the American intervention in Korea began, the restoration of the Japanese military industry proceeded at an accelerated pace to serve the troops of the interventionists.

Transport and foreign trade. The Japanese merchant fleet in total tonnage ranked third in the world before World War II. As a result of the war and surrender, it decreased (2 million tons in 1951 against 5.6 million tons in 1939). In terms of rail service, Japan lags behind Great Britain and Germany. The lack of railways is partly offset by the tremendous development of coastal shipping by sea, for which Japan is more convenient than even Great Britain. There are few cars in Japan.

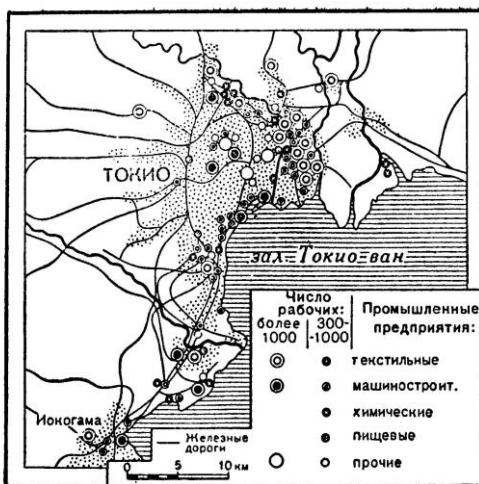
The main place in Japanese imports is taken by raw materials for the textile industry (cotton from the USA and India, wool from Australia). Import of oil and oil products, metal ore and metals also takes a large place.

The most important items of Japanese export are textile goods, mainly cotton fabrics and fabrics made of artificial silk.

After the Second World War, the United States took over most of Japan's foreign trade.

Regions

Honshu Island. The island of Honshu, equal in area (230 thousand sq. Km) to the island of Great Britain, is the main core of Japan. More than 3/4 of the total population of Japan lives on it. Honshu is home to some of Japan's most important manufacturing industries. These are: 1) Tokyo area with centres in Tokyo and Yokohama, 2) Osaka area with centres in Osaka, Kobe and Kyoto, 3) Nagoya area.



74. Промышленный район Токио.

74. Industrial area of Tokyo.

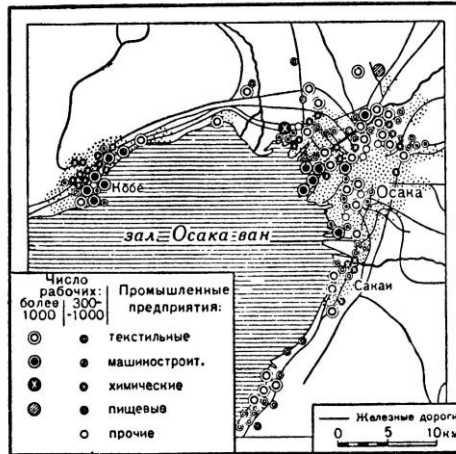
In all three regions, the first branch of the factory industry was the cotton industry. Only in the XX

century. mechanical engineering, shipbuilding and chemical industry. Harbor for Tokyo District serves Yokohama, which is at the same time a major centre of heavy industry. At the entrance to Tokyo Bay is a naval base Yokosuka.

The most important port of the Osaka region is Kobe, which has turned into a large industrial centre. Modern factory industry predominates in Osaka and Kobe, but the third big city, Kyoto, the old centre of handicraft spinning and weaving, is still a nest of small industries. Shimonoseki is the terminal point of the Honshu Island railway network, connected by rail ferries with Korea and two underwater tunnels with Kyushu Island, a fishing port.

The rest of Honshu is dominated by agriculture. Rice is the most important food crop everywhere. The central highland region of Honshu is distinguished by sharp contrasts between cultivated basins and the almost deserted, undeveloped highlands. Numerous power plants, 75 each. Osaka industrial area. built on mountain rivers, transmit energy to neighboring industrial areas. Sericulture, for which the area was especially famous, has been in deep decline since the Second World War.

Kyushu island. The most important mining and metallurgical region of Japan is located in the north of Kyushu. A centre grew here on local and imported coal and imported iron ore, ferrous metallurgy—lwata. Close to Yavata, near the Shimonoseki Strait, is a row of thought and port cities, closely related to each other. Of these, Mozi is Japan's most important coal port.



75. Промышленный район Осакки.

75. Osaka Industrial Area.

In the rest of the island of Kyushu, the cities of Sasebo and Nagasaki (naval bases used by the Americans in the war against Korea) stand out among the purely agricultural regions.

Hokkaido island. Hokkaido (Japanese for Northern Country) differs in its economy from other parts of Japan. The Japanese colonized it relatively recently (from the 70s of the 19th century), almost exterminating the indigenous population (Ainu). In contrast to the rest of Japan, middle peasant and kulak farms with the hiring of farm labourers and rather widespread use of draft animals are of great importance here. The main crops are rice, oats, legumes and potatoes. In less populated areas of eastern Hokkaido, slash-and-slash agriculture is still used. Hakodate

(south) is Japan's largest fishing port and the most important city in Hokkaido. There are many fish canning factories.

Hokkaido's important raw material resources are large forests and coal deposits. In forested areas, factories for the production of paper pulp were established. Muroran (a port in the south) has a significant metallurgical industry.

Occupying the second place among the Japanese islands in terms of area (73 thousand square kilometres, slightly smaller than the island of Ireland), Hokkaido sharply differs from the other three islands in its low population density.

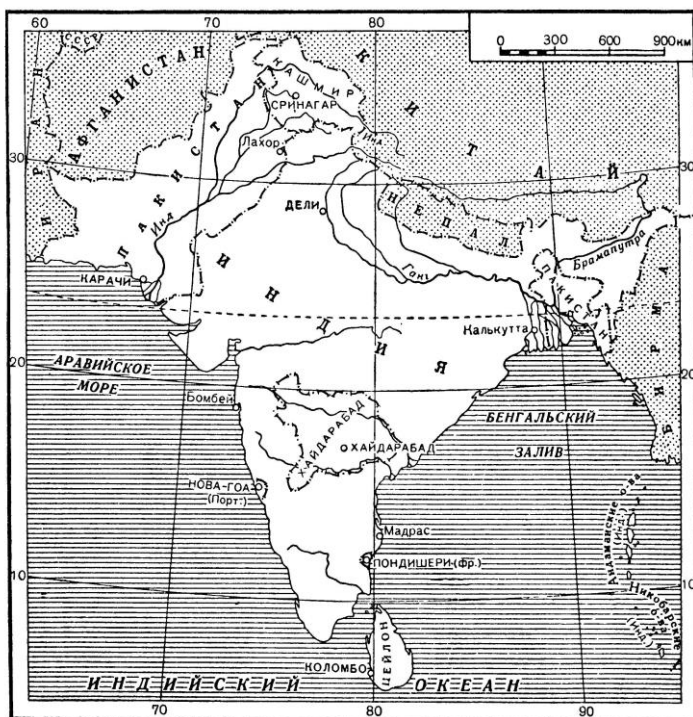
INDIA, PAKISTAN, CEYLON

India, the second most populous country in the world, is located in southern Asia, occupying its central part.

Until 1947 India was a British colony. According to the system of government, it was divided into two parts: most of it was controlled directly by the British authorities with the viceroy at the head; it was divided into provinces (the most important of them: Assam, Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, United Provinces, Punjab, Bombay, Madras). The smaller part was made up of native states with local princes (rajas and maharajas) and British officials assigned to them, who controlled the actions of the princes. The number of such principalities exceeded 500; some of them are large (Hyderabad, Mysore, Travancourt, Kashmir), but most are small, having negligible economic and political weight. Preserving these feudal survivals, the British government won over the Indian feudal nobility and made them its ally against the masses.

Under the influence of the liberation movement, which intensified after the Second World War, the British government promised to “transfer power to the Indians” in 1948, but in 1947 it divided India into two dominions differing in religion: the Indian Union, or India itself (with a predominance the main Hindu religion), and Pakistan (with a predominance of Islam); The territory of Pakistan consists of two separate parts: most of it is located in the northwest, adjacent to Afghanistan, Iran and the Arabian Sea, a smaller part in the northeast, with access to the Bay of Bengal. The

purpose of this fragmentation of India—to sow discord in it and, as far as possible, keep it subordinate to the British, since the previous forms of domination over India have become impossible for the British government. At the same time, the British tried to transfer power to those bourgeois and feudal elements in India who are inclined to collusion with British imperialism, despite the aspirations of the masses.



76. Индия, Пакистан и Цейлон.

76. India, Pakistan and Ceylon.

The area of India is 3.2 million square meters. km; population 357 million. Since 1950 India is a bourgeois republic. Despite the proclamation of the republic, India remained part of the British Empire. Its administrative division has essentially changed little. Large feudal principalities have been preserved (some of them have been yened into the unions of principalities), small ones annexed to the provinces. Provinces and principalities were called “states”. The capital is Delhi (the former administrative centre of all India). The area of Pakistan is 943 thousand square metres. km; population 76 million. Capital—Karachi.

In India there are several small possessions of Portugal and France; they are located in separate patches on or near the sea coast. These are remnants of the larger holdings that Portugal and France once held in India. The most significant of the Portuguese possessions is Goa, of the French—Pondicherry.

The island of Ceylon, located near the southeastern coast of Hindustan, is not administratively part of India; until 1948 it was a separate colony, and from the beginning of 1948 it became a dominion. The area of Ceylon is 66 thousand square meters. km; population 7 million. Capital—Colombo.

Natural conditions

Geographical location and composition. Geographically, India and Pakistan¹ consist of the following parts: 1) in the north—the great mountain belt separating India and Pakistan from the central part of the Asian continent; 2) the Indo-Gangetic lowland located at its foot; 3) the Indian subcontinent, extended by a triangle into the Indian Ocean and separating the Bay of Bengal from the Arabian Sea; most of it is occupied by the low Deccan plane.

India lies between 8 and 37° N. sh. The tropic crosses it approximately in the middle: to the north of it lies the mainland, to the south—the peninsular. The greatest length from north to south (from the foot of the Pamirs to Cape Comorin) is 3200 km.

India and Pakistan share borders with Iran, Afghanistan, China (including Tibet) and Burma. On the border of India with China, there are two states dependent on England—Nepal and Bhutan. India and Pakistan are separated from the USSR by a narrow strip of Afghan territory.

In the aggressive plans of Anglo-American imperialism directed against the Soviet Union, the northern regions of India and Pakistan are assigned the role of one of the bridgeheads created against the southern borders of the USSR.

¹ In view of the historically established commonality of the main issues of geography and economics of India and Pakistan, further description is carried out mainly in the former framework of India.

India's external relations almost entirely go through its maritime borders. The Indian Maritime Border is the central link in the British "cordon" of the Indian Ocean.

Surface, rivers. Northern mountain belt. The mountain barrier bordering India and Pakistan from the north consists of two unequal parts, diverging at an angle from the Pamir mountain knot. The eastern part is longer and more powerful. It is formed by the highest mountain systems of the earth - the Himalayas and the Karakorum. These are folded mountains of the Alpine type, but much more powerful than the Alps. The Himalayas stretch from northwest to southeast for 2,400 km with an average width of 300 km. The main ridge of the Himalayas rises as a steep jagged wall, almost entirely covered with snow and glaciers. Here are the greatest peaks in the world: Everest (local name Chomolungma) on the border of Nepal and Tibet reaches 8882 m / in Karakorum just below Godwin Osten (8611 m). The passes pass at an altitude of 4500-6000 m.

Fencing off India from Central Asia, the Himalayas serve as an important climatic division between the tropical monsoon region of which India belongs and the continental arid region of Central Asia. Thanks to the Himalayas, the harsh influence of the winds blowing from the interior of the continent in winter affects the climate of India much less than that of China, which does not have such protection.

The western part of the mountain barrier consists of the Hindu Kush and less high mountains bordering the Iranian plateau from the east. There are a number of

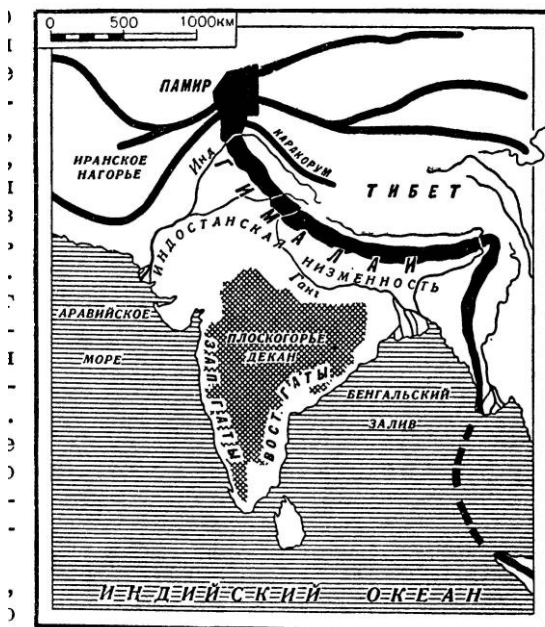
accessible mountain passes linking Pakistan with Afghanistan (Bolan Pass and Khyber Pass).

The Indo-Gangetic (Hindustan) lowland is divided into two parts. In the east—the Bengal lowland along the valleys of the Ganges and Bramaputra, which flow into the Bay of Bengal with a common delta. In the west - the Indus lowland / between them—a low watershed.

All three main rivers of India and Pakistan, as well as their most important tributaries, originate in the Himalayas. They filled the lowland with their sediments and with each flood they lay but outside layers of fertile silt. The most abundant of the rivers is the Ganges, in length yielding to the Indus and Bramaputra (Indus 3200 km, Brahmaputra 2900 km, Ganges 2700 km}. Water The Ganges and its tributaries feed a dense network irrigation canals. The great significance of the Ganges has and for shipping. Its valley is the most fertile and densely populated part of India. The enormous economic significance of the Ganges has made it has long been an object of veneration, the “sacred river” of the Hindus.

Hindustan. The Deccan, which occupies most of the Indian subcontinent, is an ancient highland, composed of gneisses and granites. Its northwestern part is covered with basaltic lavas: this cover originated from the ancient outpouring of volcanic rocks along cracks in the earth’s crust. The average height of the Deccan is only 600-800 m, but along the edges of it there are elevations—the Western Ghats and Eastern Ghats. The Western Ghats are higher (up to 2700 m in the south). They retard some of the precipitation brought in by the

summer monsoons; on the slopes of the Western Ghats, descending to the sea, dense tropical forests; the interior of the Deccan is drier, and savannah vegetation prevails. The rivers of the Deccan (Narbada, Godavari) are shallow, rapids.



77. Схема рельефа Индии.
77. Relief scheme of India.

The predominant soils are red earth; in the northwest, fertile dark soil formed from destroyed lava (it is called “cotton black soil”, as it is especially favorable for cotton growing).

Ceylon is connected with Hindustan by a chain of small islands and shoals (“Adam’s Bridge”). A mountain

range rises inside the island (up to 2500 litres); the coast of Ceylon is low.

Climate and vegetation. The contrasts of climate and vegetation in India are extremely sharp. The summer monsoon blows in India from the southwest. That is why the greatest amount of precipitation is received by the mountain slopes facing the southwest. The place of Cherrapunji in the north-east of India, in the foothills of the Himalayas, is known as one of the most abundant places in the world with rain (up to 1200 cm of annual precipitation, 6 times more than on the Black Sea coast in Batumi).

On the slopes of the Himalayas—a change of all vegetation belts. At the very foot there are swampy tropical thickets (jungle) with an unhealthy climate (malaria). In the foothills up to 1200 m there are dense tropical forests with giant trees intertwined with lianas, with bamboos reaching 30 m in height. Above, there are subtropical forests with evergreen trees, then deciduous forests with deciduous leaves, coniferous forests and, finally, alpine meadows, rising to the border of snow, which lies at an altitude of 4500-5000 m.

The slopes of the Western Ghats, most of Ceylon, receive a lot of rain and dense forests. The Bengal Lowland (over 100 cm) is also quite rich in precipitation. There is much less precipitation on the Deccan plateau, which is closed from the Gatami Sea.

Western Pakistan (Indus basin) is a sharply arid region: the influence of monsoons is already ending here, and the climate is approaching the arid continental climate of the neighboring Iranian

highlands. The role of artificial irrigation is especially important here; conditions for him are most favorable in the Punjab (“Pyatirechye”), where the Indus receives several significant tributaries (the main one is the Sutlej). To the east of the Indus lies the sandy Thar Desert. (For climate maps, see Figures 61 and 63.)

The southwest monsoon blows in India from June to October. During this time, an average of 90% of the annual precipitation falls. The monsoon starts suddenly. A long period of drought and clear skies gives way to violent downpours (“monsoon explosions”). Same suddenly the monsoon may end. When the monsoon break is prolonged, crops are threatened with death. There are years when the monsoon generally brings precipitation several times less than usual (for example, in the upper part of the Gangetic lowland, fluctuations in annual precipitation from 17 to 154 cm are noted). This instability is less dangerous for arid regions like the Punjab, where agriculture is mainly based not on rain, but on artificial irrigation. It is most dangerous for areas with an average rainfall; but wetter areas (Bengal) are not immune from disasters.

Stormy showers cause other damage—they take away part of the soil layer from the fields.

The change of monsoons is accompanied by strong storms—typhoons, which sometimes reach a terrible force off the eastern shores of India. Typhoons are most dangerous in October.

Fossil resources and energy resources. India itself has large energy resources. In various places of the Deccan plateau there are deposits of coal, the most

important in the northeastern edge of the Deccan. In northern India, there are oil fields (reserves are small).

Northern India is very rich in water energy. The disadvantage of Indian rivers is the variability of their level; the Deccan rivers are shallow during the winter; Himalayan rivers flood violently during melting mountain snows and during monsoon rains.

In the bowels of the Deccan there are large ore resources (iron, manganese, gold). The reserves of pure iron contained in the ore are estimated at 2 billion tonnes (fifth in the world). Thus, India has a combination of coal, iron and manganese—a favorable condition for the development of metallurgy.

Pakistan is poorer in minerals. There are small reserves of coal, oil, iron ore; the main source of energy is mountain rivers.

Population

Religious differences are essential; the majority of the population (66%) by religion is Hindu, 25% are Muslims, who make up the majority in the northwest and in some places in the northeast of the country (including Bengal). In addition, the population is divided into closed castes. In cities and more developed regions, caste disunity is withering away, but in the backward rural areas it still remains in force. Some castes are considered impure, “untouchable”, members of higher castes do not have the right to communicate with them.

Throughout the British domination of India, these diverse differences were used by the British to incite

hatred among the population of India (according to the principle of “divide and rule”). The continuation of this policy is the division of India into two dominions on the basis of religious principles, which has neither national nor economic justification. At the same time, in the process of the anti-imperialist national liberation struggle among the working people of India and Pakistan, the consciousness of the common class interests and goals of the struggle is developing.

According to the 1941 census, only 12% of India’s population can read and write. The peasantry is almost universally illiterate.

The standard of living of the broad masses is extremely low. Most workers and peasants are systematically malnourished. Overcrowding and unsanitary living conditions lead to enormous mortality. Child mortality is especially high. The usual peasant dwelling is a cramped hut in one room with a clay floor and a thatched roof; the whole installation is a stove, the smoke from which often goes out the door, clay pots, a bed. The whole family lives in such a hut-room, sometimes with distant relatives. In India, 5-6 million die annually from epidemics. Millions die in the systematic years of hunger visiting India. In 1943, with a reduced harvest, 3.5 million people died, 5 million became beggars.

Accommodation of the population. Cities. The average population density in India is over 110 people, Pakistan is 80 people per 1 sq. km. Its fluctuations are very great. The most densely populated areas are the Ganges Valley and the coast of Hindustan, i.e., areas

with the most favorable irrigation conditions and an advantageous transport position. The Deccan plateau is less commonly inhabited. The most rare is the population in the northwest regions not covered by artificial irrigation, and in the mountainous regions of northern India (Fig. 78).

Only 14% of the total population lives in cities. More all major cities are concentrated in the Ganges valley.

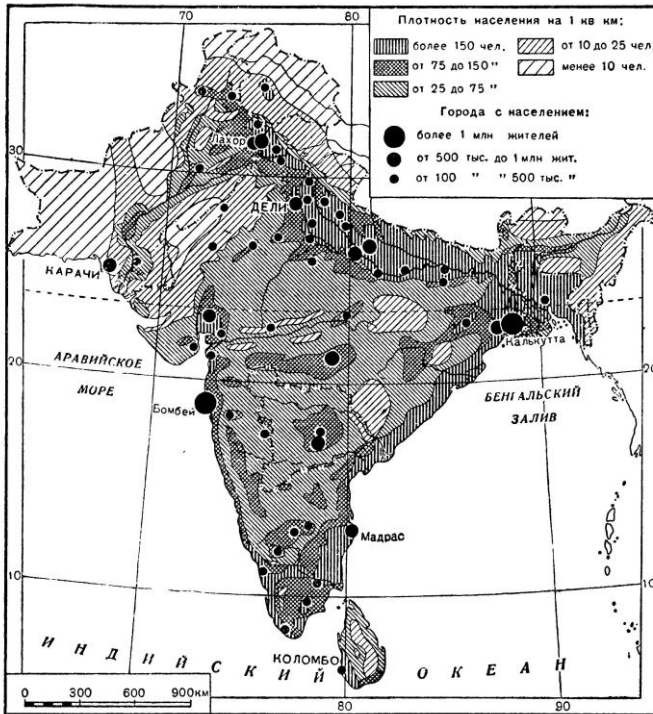
In the Ganges delta, on one of its branches, there is Calcutta—the largest city in India (together with its suburbs it has over 2 million inhabitants). Kolkata is the centre of the jute industry in India and the main port of the Bay of Bengal (export of jute, jute products, tea), which rivals Bombay in terms of its turnover; until 1911 Calcutta was the capital of British India. In the interior of the country, on the Ganges and its tributaries, there are a number of large cities. Among them Benares is the “sacred city” of the Hindus, famous for its palaces and temples.

The capital of India—Delhi (522 thousand inhabitants) - is located at the watershed between the Ganges and Indus valleys. Delhi occupies a central position in northern India and pulls together its most important railway lines. In the old town there are wonderful monuments of ancient architecture.

Bombay is located on the western coast of Hindustan on a coastal island—the second city in India in terms of population (1.5 million inhabitants), the most important cotton centre and the main port

India for the export of cotton (near Bombay—the most important cotton-growing regions of India). North of Bombay—Ahmedabad—the second cotton centre in

India. Madras (777 thousand inhabitants) is located on the eastern coast of Hindustan—a significant industrial and commercial centre (however, much inferior to Bombay and Calcutta).



78. Плотность населения Индии, Пакистана и Цейлона.

78. Population density of India, Pakistan and Ceylon

The capital of Pakistan—Karachi—is located near the mouth of the Indus, a port for exporting cotton from Punjab. Other important cities of Pakistan: Lahore—a railway junction of great strategic importance,

Peshawar—an important strategic and trade point on the way to Afghanistan.

The capital of Ceylon is Colombo (a large export of tea and rubber), an important stopping point on the routes from the Suez Canal to Indonesia, China, Australia.

Features of the development of India

India is one of the comparatively developed colonial countries. It has a significant national bourgeoisie and a fairly large industrial proletariat. The total number of people employed in industry is about 16 million; of these, the actual factory proletariat is about 2 million, the rest is small industry and handicrafts. The main cadres of the industrial proletariat are concentrated in several large centres—in Bombay, Calcutta, Ahmedabad, Jamshedpur; this increases their importance. At the head of the Indian bourgeoisie are large-scale capitalists who own various industrial enterprises, plantations, and banks.

But India's development is limited by a narrow framework. Among the industries developed are mainly the textile and mining industries. Mechanical engineering is insignificant. The Indian economy is based on backward agriculture. With its diverse industrial resources, India remains a colonial agrarian country that supplies raw materials and foodstuffs, a country of impoverished peasants, exploited by landowners, usurers, state power and British capital.

This is the result of the long domination of Great Britain, which exploits India and hinders its free development.

India's transformation into two dominions does not in any way mean its exit from colonial dependence and transition to free development. First, British capital, although it suffered losses during the Second World War, still retains a strong position in the Indian economy. Secondly, the capitalists, princes, landowners of both India and Pakistan are closely associated with the British capitalists. Many large enterprises in India have mixed Anglo-Indian capital, or, if they are owned only by Indian capitalists, they have close ties with British firms. The political side of these ties is extremely important: Indian capitalists would be happy to push back the British and take their place in the exploitation of the Indian people, but they do not feel strong enough for this and are afraid to be left "face to face" with the Indian workers and peasants who are seeking liberation from all kinds of exploitation. That is why they prefer compromises with the British imperialists. To this it must be added that since the Second World War the penetration of American capital into India has increased.

The example of India clearly shows that the problem of the liberation of a colonial country is not only a problem of foreign policy (liberation from the imperialists' power), but also of domestic policy (liberation from native exploiters). One from the other is inseparable.

The workers and peasants of India are responding with strikes and uprisings to the policy of collusion with

the imperialists pursued by the big bourgeoisie and landlords. At the head of the struggle for the true liberation of India and for a democratic solution to the national question is the Indian Communist Party, which is the vanguard of the Indian working class. She is working hard to rally the democratic forces of India into a broad anti-imperialist popular front with a program that includes demands for the complete separation of India and Pakistan from the British Empire, the confiscation of landlords' lands without redemption, the nationalization of banks, large industry, and all enterprises of foreign capital. On the national question, the Indian Communist Party stands for the creation of a free voluntary democratic union of national associations with the right of each nation to self-determination.

With the division of India into two dominions, more and more significant industrial centres went to India (the Indian Union). Here are the main forces of the Indian industrial and financial bourgeoisie, as well as the main cadres of the industrial proletariat. Pakistan, being much smaller than India in area and population, is at the same time more economically backward.

Overview of agriculture

Agriculture

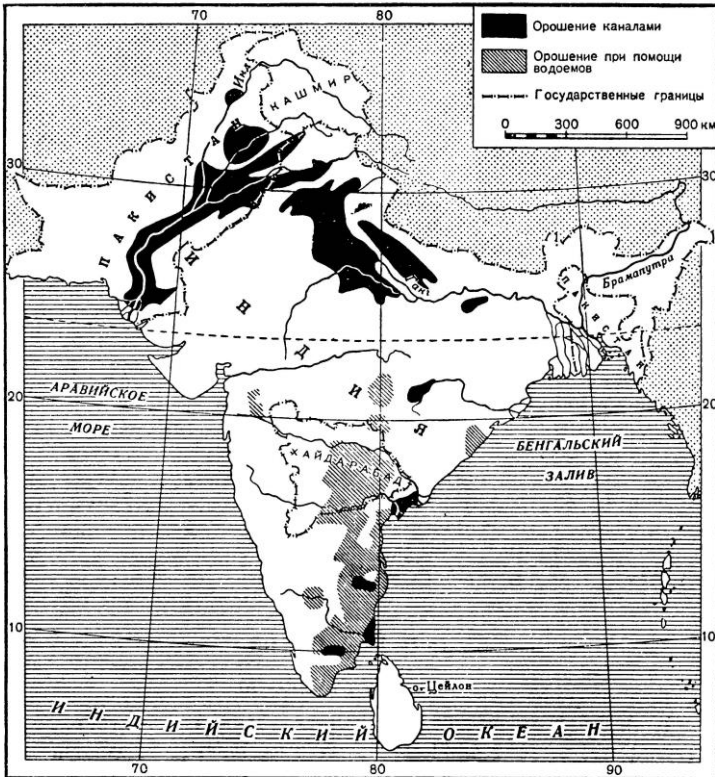
Land tenure and land use. There are two main types of land tenure and land use in India. One type - the land is owned by landowners ("zemindari"); they lease the land too small to tenants for a share of the harvest (Zeindari system). Another type—peasants ("raiyats"),

work on their own land, for which they pay not rent to the landowner, but a tax to the government (raiotvari system). In both cases, the economy is small, in tiny plots, located mostly interlaced. Farmer-tenant often receives land not from the landlord himself, but from an intermediary, a tenant-capitalist, who profits from the re-lease of land. In general, the tenant gives from 50 to 75% of its gross crop. Both tenants and raiots are brutally exploited by village traders and usurers. Usury is a terrible evil in the Indian countryside. Most of the peasantry is constantly in debt. In areas of landowner ownership, the landlord himself is often the usurer. Failure to pay debts leads to bondage and even slavery. India has about 5-6 million “servants”, that is, debt slaves. The lands of the peasants-raiots are transferred in large numbers to the usurers for debts.

In some regions of India, a large plantation economy is developed (tea plantations are especially important). Plantations are large capitalist enterprises with financial support from banks and all kinds of privileges from the government. The overwhelming majority of them belong to the British capitalists. The plantation workforce is contracted coolies recruited from the poorest population.

Lack of irrigation. Much of the agricultural area in India and Pakistan needs artificial irrigation even for summer crops. In the arid northwest region agriculture is almost impossible without artificial irrigation. In other areas, it is needed as a supplement to rainfall and as insurance against droughts. For repeated sowing in

the winter months, artificial irrigation is necessary almost everywhere.



79. Орошаемые земли в Индии и Пакистане.

79. Irrigated land in India and Pakistan.

Irrigated land is 20 million hectares—less than 20% of the total cultivated area in India and Pakistan. Most of the irrigated land is in the northwest (in Pakistan); here along the river. The Indus and its tributaries have created powerful dams and a dense network of canals.

A dense network of irrigation canals also covers the upper part the Ganges Valley (in India). But the bulk of the Indian peasantry suffers from a lack of irrigation facilities.

Technical backwardness of agriculture. There are more draft animals in India than in China. But the cattle are of poor quality, degenerated due to lack of pasture and lack of food; especially the cattle become thinner and weaker during the long winter drought. Due to religious prejudices, Hindus do not kill or eat cattle; old and exhausted livestock is only a burden on the farm.

Fertilizer is in short supply. In most areas, the soil is depleting. The exception is flooded riverside areas, the fertility of which is renewed by river silt.

The farming technique is poor. Agricultural implements of handicraft production are outdated and relatively expensive. For weak draft animals, heavy ploughs of modern design are beyond the power. There are almost no machines and tractors on the peasant farm; when the economy is fragmented, their use is also unprofitable.

Average yields in India are extremely low. Rice, for example, is harvested only 14-15 quintals per hectare against 32-35 quintals harvested in Japan.

Main cultures. The main grain crop of India and Pakistan is rice. Rice crops are especially common in areas rich in rainfall: in the lower valley of the Ganges, on the coasts of Hindustan. Average harvest in India 320 million centners per year, in Pakistan 120 million centners (in total, about 1/3 of the world collection).

Wheat is almost three times less sown than rice; it is sown in drier areas—in the irrigated lands of the northwest (Punjab), in the upper Ganges valley and on the Deccan plateau. Wheat in India is a winter crop. It is usually sown by the end of summer rains and harvested before they resume.

Millet works well without watering in areas with little rainfall. Therefore, millet is the main bread of the interior of the Deccan.

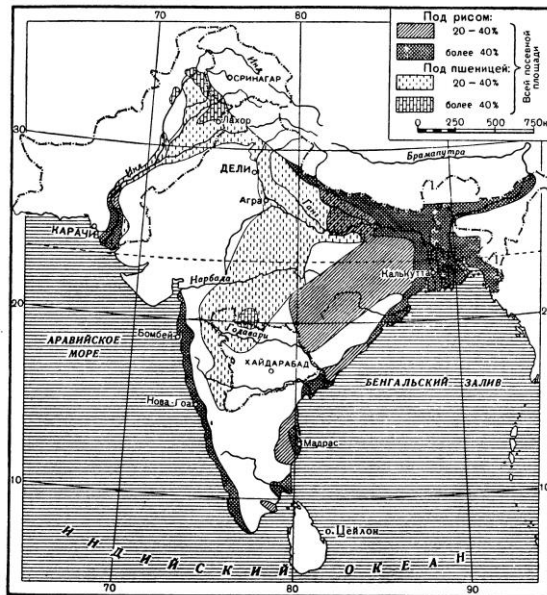
India, together with Ceylon, gives annually about 4 million tons of tea and are its largest exporters. In India, tea plantations are concentrated in Assam and partly in Bengal. In terms of the area covered by sugar cane, India ranks first in the world. But, in contrast to the tea business, set up on a large scale, using modern technology, sugar production is carried out in a backward way.

Sugar cane yields are low and the processing methods are primitive; brown sugar is produced.

Textile crops—cotton and jute—are of great importance in the Indian economy. The main region of cotton growing is the Deccan, especially its northwestern part with fertile chernozem soils. Low-grade short staple cotton is grown here. Long staple cotton is grown in the irrigated land of the Punjab (Pakistan).

Jute¹ is grown in the lower reaches of the Ganges and Brahmaputra.

It is home to the world's largest jute production area; the main part of it after the division of India belongs to Pakistan. Jute fiber is partly processed in factories Calcutta, partly goes to England, the USA and other countries.



80. Размещение посевов риса и пшеницы в Индии и Пакистане.

80. Placement of rice and wheat crops in India and Pakistan.

¹ Jute provides fiber that is used for the manufacture of sack-cloths, sacks, ropes, as well as thinner products - carpets, furniture fabrics, etc.

The culture of oil plants is of great importance: peanuts, flax (for seed), rape, sesame (sesame). Flaxseed, oil, oilcakes are exported in large quantities.

In Ceylon, the most important are tea and rubber plantations, which work for export.

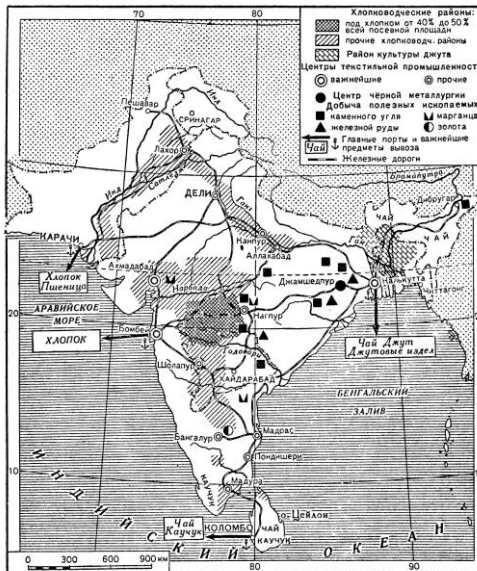
Industry

Before the British conquest, the economy of India was based on the close connection of agriculture with handicrafts, which from time immemorial reached a high level of development. Hand spinning and weaving were especially developed. Indian artisans also achieved great art in the manufacture of steel and weapons, in the production of art products from gold, copper, and ivory. Indian products were highly prized in medieval Europe.

The subjugation of India was accompanied by the destruction of the old craft industry. By flooding India with cheap factory-made fabrics, British capital undermined local spinning and weaving. Millions of Indian weavers have lost their jobs. Large industrial centres, famous for the beauty and durability of their fabrics, were abandoned. Nevertheless, hand weaving still plays a significant role in supplying the peasantry with fabrics.

The poverty of the Indian countryside and the abundance of cheap labor, which has no other application, to a certain extent allow manual production to compete with factory production. But this is no longer the old King's Indian craft, but work for a capitalist buyer.

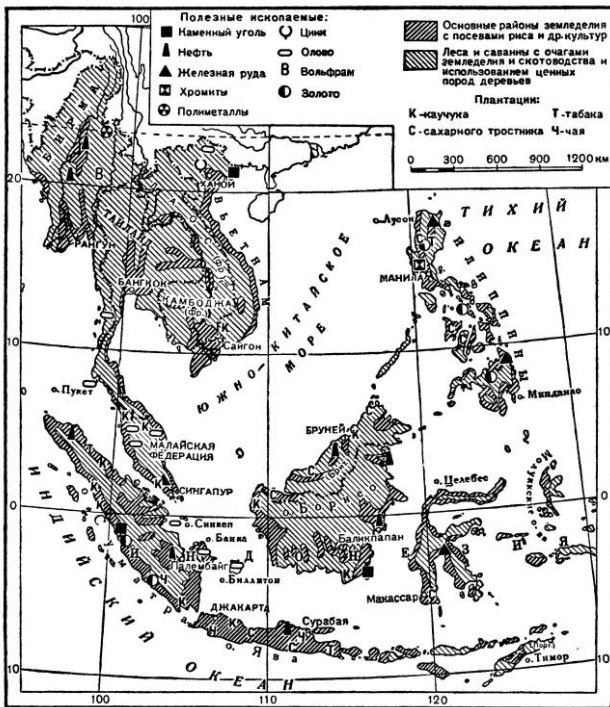
The textile industry—cotton and jute—ranks first in the Indian factory industry. Cotton fabrics are mainly produced in rough grades. The development of the cotton industry in India is due to the extremely cheap labor and the demand for cheap fabrics from the multimillion population. The jute industry accounts for over half of the world’s jute industry and operates primarily for export. The most important centres of the cotton industry are Bombay and Ahmedabad. The jute industry is in the Calcutta area. The food industry plays an important role (rice cleaning, tea processing, sugar and butter industry).



81. Размещение технических культур и важнейших отраслей промышленности в Индии, Пакистане и на Цейлоне.

81. Placement of industrial crops and major industries in India, Pakistan and Ceylon.

In the mining industry in the first place—coal mining (38 million tons in 1950). Iron and manganese ore, oil, gold, lead, salt are mined. Steel smelting in 1950 1.4 million tons. Mining industry area—northwest of Calcutta. Here is the main coal basin, and to the south is the mining of iron ore and the metallurgical centre of Jamshedpur. In Pakistan, the mining industry is negligible, there is almost no metallurgy.



82. Страны юго-восточной Азии.

82. Countries of South-East Asia.

The partition of India disrupted her economic ties. Three-quarters of raw jute production is in Pakistan, and almost all jute factories are in India. The best cotton is in Pakistan, and the cotton industry is almost entirely in India. Political overlap makes transport connections difficult. So Assam, exporting tea through Calcutta, is cut off from it by the territory of Pakistan.

COUNTRIES OF SOUTH EAST ASIA

(INDOCHINA AND INDONESIA)

Geographical location and natural conditions. The Indochina peninsula, which forms the southeastern protrusion of the Asian continent, separates from itself a narrow and long Malacca peninsula, stretching to the south like an arm. This is the southern tip of the Asian mainland, but not the end of Asia: beyond the Strait of Malacca (70-80 km wide) begins Indonesia (ie, “Insular India”), otherwise the Malay Archipelago, is the most dissected part of the globe, the world’s largest cluster of large and small archipelagos.

This grandiose world of islands with a labyrinth of straits and inland seas connects two parts of the world—Asia and Australia (hence the sometimes used name Australasia)—and separates two oceans—the Pacific and Indian. This includes the islands: Greater Sunda (Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Celebes), Lesser Sunda, Moluccan and Philippine.

Most of both Indochina and Indonesia are mountainous, Indochina differs from the other two peninsulas of South Asia by the ruggedness of its relief, especially sharp in the northern part of the peninsula; mountain ranges stretch here from north to south, between them are deep valleys, along which the rivers Song-Koi (Red), Mekong, Menam, Saluen, Ayeyarwaddy flow. To the south, the mountain ranges descend and diverge, the river valleys expand and turn into vast lowlands with alluvial soil, in places swampy and easily

flooded. They are especially suitable for rice cultivation.

The surface of the islands of Indonesia is a combination of mountain ranges and coastal lowlands. The most powerful massifs are in Borneo (up to 4175 m in height). There are many volcanoes on the islands, both extinct and active. The highly fertile soils of Java and other islands were formed on volcanic rocks.

Indochina and the northern part of the Philippines lie in a tropical monsoon climate. Almost all of Indonesia is in an equatorial climate zone, uniformly hot and generally very humid. But the influence of the monsoons also penetrates here, creating contrasts of dry and wet periods unusual for the equatorial zone and causing irregular precipitation, dangerous for agriculture; however, it does not come to such catastrophic droughts as in India. The numerous rivers that swell during monsoon rains provide powerful sources of irrigation and energy. Both Indochina and Indonesia, with the exception of the highlands, are dominated by rich tropical vegetation. There are many valuable tree species in the forests. Large areas are occupied by jungle with an unhealthy malarial climate.

The mineral resources of Indochina and Indonesia are very significant. The main ones are: tin, oil, coal, iron ore, gold.

Political map and population. Southeast Asia is one of the largest and richest colonial regions in the world in terms of its resources. By the time of World War II, all of it, with the exception of the semi-independent state of Siam, was divided between Great Britain

(Burma, Malaya, northwestern Borneo), the Netherlands (Netherlands India), France (French Indochina) and the United States (Philippines). At the same time, in the Dutch possessions, the English capitalists ruled along with the Dutch. Portugal, which was the first of the European powers to establish itself in Indonesia and then was ousted from there by the Netherlands, retained an insignificant remnant of its former possessions - part of the island of Timor.

The total population of the countries under consideration is over 160 million people, that is, slightly less than in the whole of Africa. The population is of very mixed origin, formed under the strong cultural influence of the peoples of India and China. Most of the population of Indonesia is made up of the peoples of the Malay group. The main peoples of Indochina are the Annamites (who make up the bulk of the population of Vietnam), the Thai (or Siamese), Burmese, Malays (in the Malay Federation); in addition, Chinese and Indians live in significant numbers.

During World War II, Indonesia and almost all of Indochina were captured by Japan. The liberation from the Japanese yoke (1945) was accompanied by an upsurge of national revolutionary movements. In Indochina, the Annamites formed the Democratic Republic of Vietnam, which is described in the section on People's Democracies. The peoples of other parts of the former French Indochina—Laos and Cambodia—are fighting for their independence in a united front with the people of Vietnam.

A democratic Indonesian republic arose in the Netherlands India. The Dutch government, having agreed with the traitors of the Indonesian people, formally recognized the independence of the Indonesian republic. In fact, however, the Dutch government seeks to maintain its rule over Indonesia, using local bourgeois-nationalist circles as its agents. But the popular masses of Indonesia, led by the Indonesian Communist Party, continue their heroic struggle for genuine independence. This confirms the words of Comrade Zhdanov, spoken by him back in 1947: "Attempts to suppress the national liberation movement by military force are now meeting the ever-increasing armed resistance of the peoples of the colonies, leading to protracted colonial wars (Holland - Indonesia, France - Vietnam)." In 1934, the United States promised the Philippines to grant independence; in 1946, this was formally done, but in fact, the dependence of the Philippines on the United States remained

The liberation movement has swept Malaya and Burma. Burma in early 1948 was proclaimed an independent republic. England, forced to recognize the independence of Burma, however, managed to bind it with a treaty, according to which British military, financial and economic control over Burma was retained. By interfering in the affairs of "independent" Burma, England incites internal strife in it and achieves its dismemberment. Both in Burma and in Malaya, the attempts of the British imperialists to preserve their domination run up against the growing resistance of the popular masses, who have risen to fight for their liberation.

Thus, Indochina and Indonesia belong to those sectors of the colonial world where the domination of the imperialists has already been severely undermined, although it has not yet been completely eliminated.

At the same time, these countries are the arena of sharp contradictions between the imperialist powers. The USA, helping the Netherlands, England, France to suppress the liberation movements in their possessions, at the same time taking into their own hands many of the resources of these possessions, pushing back the former owners; especially increased the penetration of American capital into the Dutch possessions to the detriment of not only the Netherlands, but also Great Britain.

The importance of Indochina and Indonesia is determined, firstly, by the enormous and diverse resources of these countries and, secondly, by their geographical position on the important sea routes connecting the Indian and Pacific Oceans.

Economy. The main regions of Indonesia and Indochina are typical examples of a colonial economy specialized in the production of valuable agricultural products or fossil raw materials with a negligible development of the manufacturing industry. On the lands seized from the natives, European capitalists organized large plantations with extensive use of forced labor at the expense of both the local population and the workers recruited in China and India. Such plantations supply the bulk of export products. Along with large plantations, multimillion peasants work on meager land plots (for example, in Java, the average

size of a peasant farm is 1 hectare, and the average size of a plantation is 550 hectares); they are enslaved by planters, merchants and usurers, crushed by taxes and various duties. In the world economy, Indochina and Indonesia play an important role as producers of rubber (90% of world production of natural rubber), tin (over 60% of world production), oil, cane sugar, coconuts, rice, tea, coffee, palm oils.

Rubber plantations are concentrated mainly in the Federation of Malay and Indonesia (Sumatra and Java). The Philippines and Indonesia have the world's largest plantings of coconut, producing copra (the kernel of a coconut from which coconut oil is obtained). Large sugar plantations in the Philippines and Java. In Java, there are plantations of coffee, tea, tobacco, and cinchona.

Rice is the main food crop of all described countries. Burma is the world's first rice exporter. The world's largest tin mining area is in Malacca and Indonesia (the small islands of Banka and Billiton between Sumatra and Borneo). Most of the tin is smelted in Singapore and goes from here to Europe or the USA. Large oil production in Borneo and Sumatra, smaller - in Java and Burma. Although these countries are not among the world's largest oil producers, the importance of the Indonesian oil industry is increasing. It may be that there is not a single large oil-bearing region around for a long distance.

In terms of the degree of economic development and population density, individual parts of Indochina and Indonesia differ sharply from each other. Along with densely populated areas providing world-class products,

vast areas are covered primeval forests and have a rare population living in the most primitive agriculture or gathering wild fruits. Of the regions of the first type, Java and southern Malacca stand out.

Java, with a population of about 50 million, has an exceptionally high population density (almost 400 people per square kilometre), produces a huge and most diverse export product, and has relations with the most distant markets; the main ports—Jakarta (Batavia) and Surabaya, Yogyakarta, the centre of the national liberation movement, is located in a poor peasant region, where farmers did not have their own land at all, they rented it on an enslaving basis from local princes.

The Malay Federation consists of the Malay Union (protectorate) i-Koloshsh Strwife-Sotlmopts (Straits Settlements). Despite its small size, it is one of the most important possessions in England. Rubber and tin mining Malaya ranks first in the world; in addition, high quality iron ore is mined here. Singapore, located on the most important route from the Indian Ocean to the Far Eastern countries, is one of the main trade ports in Asia and an important naval base for England on the eve of the Pacific Ocean (“Gibraltar of the East”).

The state of Thailand (or Siam) occupies the middle part of Indochina and the northern part of Malacca, connected to the main massif of Indochina by the Kraisthmus. Area 518 thousand sq. km, population 18 million, capital and main port - Bangkok.

IRAN

The territory of Iran is a massive irregular quadrangle. Its northern side is adjacent to the territory of the USSR and the Caspian Sea, the southern side is adjacent to the Arabian Sea and the Persian Gulf, the eastern side is adjacent to Pakistan and Afghanistan, and the western side is adjacent to Turkey and Iraq. Area 1.6 million sq. km; population - about 17 million. The capital is Tehran. The political system (formally) is a parliamentary monarchy. Reactionary feudal lords, acting under the dictation of the Anglo-American imperialists, exert a strong influence on government policy.

Before the Great October Socialist Revolution in Iran, the imperialist interests of England and tsarist Russia clashed. In 1907, both sides agreed to divide Iran into zones of British and Russian influence with a “no man’s” layer between them.

The Great October Socialist Revolution freed Iran from imperialist pressure from the north. The Soviet government annulled the imperialist agreement on the division of Iran into zones of influence, abandoned the Iranian debt to Russia, transferred to Iran the Julfa-Tabriz railway built by the tsarist government, as well as other concession enterprises, that is, in fact, it recognized Iran’s right to independence and free development ... The more strongly British imperialism clings to Iran. For him, this is one of the main oil bases, an approach to India, a place of intrigues directed against the Soviet Union. After World War II, the influence of American imperialism in Iran increased.

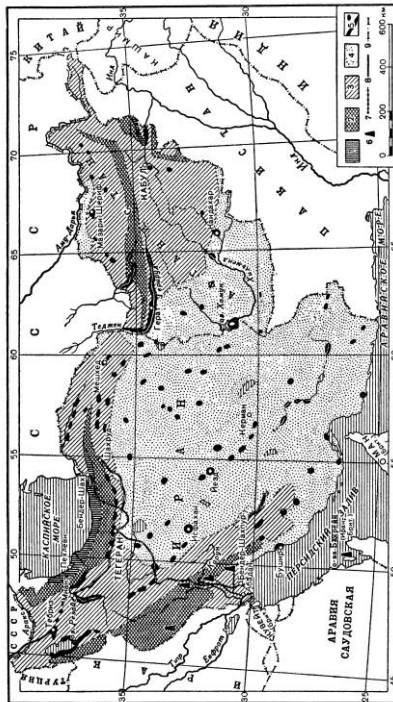
The Americans are seeking oil concessions in Iran. They are deploying in Iran the construction of airfields and military roads. In connection with the general aggressiveness and anti-Soviet direction of American policy, these intrigues cannot be viewed otherwise than as a threat to the security of the southern borders of the USSR. At the same time, the growing American influence undermines the position of British imperialism in Iran. But this predatory and aggressive policy of the imperialists is meeting with increasing resistance from the Iranian masses.

Natural conditions. Most of the vast Iranian highlands are located within Iran. Along the edges, the plateau is bounded by high mountain ranges. In the north, along the coast of the Caspian Sea, the Elburz ridge runs] its main peak—the extinct volcano Demavend - reaches 5654 m. Along the coast itself there is a narrow low-lying strip (lies below ocean level). In the northwest rises the Armenian Highlands, partly owned by Iran; here lies the large lake Rezaye, or Urmia. In the southwest and south, a series of parallel ridges separates inland Iran from the Mesopotamian lowland and from the sea. In the Persian Gulf region, Iran owns part of the Mesopotamian Lowland; here the river flows. Karun is the only navigable river in Iran. Most of Iran's territory has no drainage into the ocean.

Iran's climate is continental, dry, with sultry summers and cool, windy winters. In Tehran, the average temperature in July is +29°, in January +1°, precipitation per year falls 25 cm. Most precipitation

falls in the mountains—in the north and west. Mountains here

covered with forest and meadows. The rivers and streams flowing from them feed the oases located at the foot. Inland regions of Iran—dry steppes and sandy deserts; vast areas are occupied by salt marshes.



83. Иран и Афганистан.
 1 — субтропические районы с богатой растительностью; 2 — горно-лесные районы; 3 — горно-степенные районы; 4 — полупустыни и пустыни; 5 — земледелие на орошаемых землях; 6 — месторождения; 7 — трубопроводы; 8 — железные дороги; 9 — государственные границы.

83. Iran and Afghanistan.

1—subtropical areas with rich vegetation; 2—mountain-forest areas; 3—mountain-steppe regions; 4—desert semi-deserts; 5—agriculture on irrigated land; 6—oil production; 7—oil pipeline; 8—railways; 9—state

The Caspian low-lying zone differs in natural conditions from the rest of Iran. It has a hot and humid climate, favorable for a variety of subtropical crops, but unhealthy (coastal lagoons and swamps are breeding grounds for malaria).

Population. Slightly more than half of the total population are Persians. The rest consists of Azerbaijanis, Kurds, Arabs and a number of other ethnic groups. Approximately 1/5 of the population are nomads.

Average population density—And people per 1 sq. km. The Caspian and western regions are more densely populated. In central Iran, vast areas are deserted.

The largest cities are Tehran (capital, 540 thousand inhabitants), Tabriz or Tabriz (214 thousand inhabitants), the main city of Iranian Azerbaijan, an important trade centre, connected by rail with the USSR (to Julfa); Isfahan, Mashhad.

Economy. Oil production (in 1950, 32 million tons, fourth in the world) occupies a special place in the economy and political life of Iran. Oil pools are found in many places. The main developments are in the west of the country, north of the Persian Gulf. From here, an oil pipeline was laid to the port of Abadan, where a large oil refinery is located. Oil products account for over 80% of all exports from Iran. Until 1951, the oil industry belonged to British capital (Anglo-Iranian oil company) and represented a kind of isolated “island” in the Iranian economy, the basis of which is backward

agriculture, cattle breeding and a significant handicraft industry with an emerging factory industry.

A movement arose among the masses of Iran for the nationalization of the oil industry and for the elimination of all kinds of enslaving agreements with the imperialists. In the spring of 1951, the Iranian government announced the nationalization of the oil industry.

The cultivated area makes up an insignificant part of the entire territory. With the exception of the Caspian region rich in precipitation and high mountain valleys, agriculture almost everywhere requires artificial irrigation. Cultural lands are located in oases, mainly at the foot of the mountains, with streams flowing from the mountains. Irrigation facilities are primitive and insufficient. Moreover, most of them are in the hands of the landowners, and the water supply is one of the means of exploiting the peasantry.

The overwhelming majority of farmers are small sharecroppers who are heavily dependent on the landlords. They pay for land, for water, and many also pay for housing, for inventory, for seeds. Agricultural technique is poor.

The main consumer crops are wheat, barley, and millet. Market crops are cotton, fruits, opium poppy, tobacco and rice (sown mainly in the Caspian lowland). Nomadic sheep breeding is of great importance. Wool is processed by the local industry, mainly small-scale, and partly exported. Fruits and cotton are also exported.

In addition to oil, Iran has significant, but still poorly explored and almost undeveloped reserves of coal and various metal ores.

The total number of people employed in industry is about 350 thousand people, mainly handicraftsmen and artisans. The most developed production of carpets. The finest varieties of Persian carpets with artistic designs are highly regarded abroad.

In the period preceding the Second World War, the government sought to develop the national industry. A number of textile and match factories, sugar, cement, soap and other factories have been built. This industry is concentrated mainly in Tehran and its environs. A significant textile industry is in Isfahan. The products of Iranian industry are far from covering the domestic demand for industrial products, despite the fact that this demand is small due to the extreme poverty of the people. The recent flooding of the Iranian market with American goods is undermining the local industry.

There are few railways in Iran. In 1938, a through railway was opened from the Caspian Sea to the Persian Gulf (via Tehran). A number of new roads are being built.

The main ports are: on the Persian Gulf—Abadan (oil port) and Bender Shahpur (the southern end of the Trans-Iranian railway), on the Caspian Sea—Pekhevt, and Bender Shahs (the northern end of the Trans-Iranian railway).

AFGHANISTAN

The territory of Afghanistan is located between the Central Asian republics of the Soviet Union, Pakistan, Iran and China. The area is about 650 thousand square meters. km; the number of the population, according to various sources, from 7 to 12 million; the last figure is accepted in Afghanistan itself, but it is also fortunate, since there are no censuses in Afghanistan. The capital is Kabul. The political system is a monarchy with a faint semblance of parliamentarism, but in fact an unlimited monarchy with a strong influence of reactionary feudal lords, whose policies are directed by the Anglo-American imperialists.

Before the Great October Socialist Revolution, Afghanistan was in the position of a “buffer” country between British India and Tsarist Russia. In fact, he was in power British imperialism. The British imperialists needed Afghanistan above all as a difficult-to-reach barrier separating India from tsarist Russia. They guarded him isolation. A backward country, sandwiched between two imperialist powers, was doomed to an economic stagnation.

During the First World War and especially after the Great October Revolution in Afghanistan, the national liberation movement intensified. Of extremely favorable significance for Afghanistan was the fact that instead of Tsarist Russia, which reluctantly yielded Afghanistan to the British imperialists, the Soviet Union arose, friendly to the Afghan people and recognizing their right to independence and independent development. After a short Anglo-Afghan war in 1919,

England recognized the independence of Afghanistan. However, Afghanistan is far from completely free of imperialist oppression. The British imperialists, relying on part of the Afghan feudal lords and merchants, retained significant influence in it. After the Second World War, the influence of American imperialism is growing here, striving (in addition to the goals of exploitation) to turn Afghanistan into a bridgehead against the USSR.

Natural conditions. Afghanistan is a mountainous country with a dry, sharply continental climate. Most of its territory is occupied by the Hindu Kush (Hindu Kush) mountain system, which begins at the southern foothills of the Pamirs and extends across the whole of Afghanistan in the direction from north-east to south-west. The Hindu Kush is a harsh and inaccessible mountainous country, especially near the Pamirs, where the passes lie at an altitude of about 5000 m. The surface of the mountains is rocky, only in the river valleys there are areas of soils suitable for agriculture (mountain gray soils); the most important is the river valley. Kabul (tributary of the Indus). The settlements are located at a high altitude (Kabul—at an altitude of 1760 m).

Due to the dry climate, the snow line runs very high, there are no powerful glaciers. Only in the east, along the border with Pakistan, there are real mountain forests. For the most part, the mountains are either treeless or covered with sparse juniper bushes. The Jalalabad Valley stands out sharply by the nature of the landscape, along the lower course of the river. Kabul,

near the border with Pakistan. Located relatively low (600-800 m) and accessible to winds from the Indian Ocean, this valley stands out among the harsh rocky mountains with rich southern vegetation (“Afghan subtropics”).

The northern slopes of the Hindu Kush pass into the foothills and hilly plains, closely resembling in nature adjacent areas of the Central Asian Soviet republics. This is Afghan Turkestan. The border between the USSR and Afghanistan for a long distance is the river. Amu-Darya (in the upper reaches carrying name Pyanj). In the foothills of northern Afghanistan, there are the main tracts of land suitable for cultivation (gray soils developed on loess rocks). In the winter half of the year, a relatively large amount of precipitation falls here, the summer is sultry and dry. This is the only region of Afghanistan where agriculture without irrigation (rain-fed) is widely practiced. But along the course of the Amu Darya, where the foothills are already turning into a plain, agriculture needs watering.

A completely different nature of nature in southwestern Afghanistan, located on the other side of the Hindu Kush. This is a part of the Iranian Highlands, similar in structure and nature of the landscape to the adjacent regions of Iran; there are almost barren deserts and semi-deserts here. Farming is possible only with artificial irrigation. Oases of irrigated land are located in the foothills, along the river valleys flowing from the depths of the mountainous country. The main rivers are Gerirud (ending under the name Tejena in the Turkmen SSR) and Hilmand (about 1000 km in length), which flows into salt marsh lakes (“hamuns”).

In the absence of powerful glaciers in the Hindu Kush, the rivers depend on precipitation, especially snow falling in the mountains in winter. The level of the rivers is highly variable. This creates instability of irrigated agriculture in riverine oases.

The fossil wealth of Afghanistan is diverse but little explored; deposits of coal, oil, iron ore, gold and various precious stones are known.

Population. The population of Afghanistan consists of many nationalities. Actually Afghans (Pathans) inhabit the southern half of the country, they are divided into many tribes. In northern Afghanistan, the majority of the population is made up of the same peoples that inhabit the adjacent republics of the Soviet Union - Tajiks, Uzbeks, Turkmens. About one-third of the total population are nomads. The vast majority of the population is illiterate. Significant cities are Kabul (the capital, a trade centre, has a small factory-type industry), Herat (an important trade centre on the routes from the USSR and Iran), Kandahar, and Mazar-Sheriff.

Economy. Afghanistan is an agricultural and pastoralist country, even more backward than Iran; fossil wealth is poorly explored and almost never exploited; large-scale industry - only the beginnings; transport in a large part of the country is still of a primitive character.

Agriculture. The entire sown area is about 1.2 million hectares, of which about half is irrigated land. In

desert areas, groundwater is extracted by laying underground tunnels to collect water and bring it to the surface. The latter method is especially labor intensive. To irrigate small plots of land, it is often necessary to dig 2-3 km of drainage tunnel.

The farming technique is backward. However, the Afghans have been using the plow for a long time; Afghan ploughs are distinguished by a variety of designs, in relation to local features of the soil and relief.

Wheat is the most widespread crop in Afghanistan; cotton crops are widespread in northern Afghanistan. In many areas, the population is constantly suffering from a lack of bread. There are frequent crop failures associated with a lack of water for irrigation.

Cattle breeding, especially sheep breeding, is of great importance in the economy of Afghanistan. In the south, the dominant form of economy is nomadic cattle breeding.

In northern Afghanistan, agriculture and semi-nomadic herding are often combined. Having sowed grain, farmers go with their whole families with their herds to summer pastures in the mountains, leaving the old people to guard the crops; they return to harvesting bread and spend the winter in their villages.

Wool and astrakhan fur (skins of lambs of astrakhan sheep) are the main items of export from Afghanistan. Manual processing of wool (dressing of cloth, felt, carpets) is the main branch of industry. In addition, there are several textile and ginneries, and a sugar factory. There is a state military plant in Kabul.

The usual modes of travel are horse and camel caravans. There are highways (road construction has

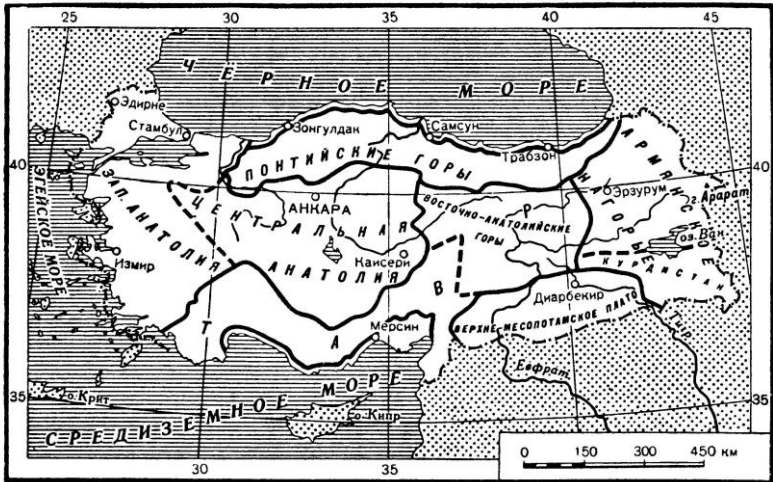
been developing recently). There are no railways at all. The Americans are forcing Afghanistan to spend money on the construction of strategic roads and airfields, exporting the most valuable raw materials from Afghanistan, supplying in exchange old weapons and various stale goods. The economy of Afghanistan is falling into decay due to the management of the American imperialists.

TURKEY

In terms of its territory, modern Turkey is only a small part of the old Ottoman Empire, which at the time of its greatest power (in the 16th century) covered all of southeastern Europe, southwestern Asia and northern Africa. Modern Turkey lies almost entirely in Asia. Only the southeastern corner of the Balkan Peninsula with Istanbul remained from Turkey's European possessions. Turkey borders in Europe with Bulgaria and Greece, in Asia—with the USSR, Iran, Iraq and Syria. Area 768 thousand sq. km, population 19 million (including European Turkey accounts for 24 thousand sq. km and 1.2 million inhabitants). State system (formally)—republic; in fact, a reactionary clique is in power, dependent on US-British imperialism.

Natural conditions.

Surface. The core of modern Turkey is the peninsula of Asia Minor, or Anatolia, pushed towards the Balkan Peninsula and separated from it by the straits (Bosphorus and Dardanelles) and the Sea of Marmara. Most of the peninsula is occupied by the Central Anatolian plateau sloping from east to west (800-1200 m). From the north and south, the plateau is bordered by mountain ranges - the Pontine Mountains in the north and the Taurus in the south; they descend steeply to the coast, leaving a narrow coastal strip. In the west, the Central Anatolian Plateau turns into a highly rugged mountainous country descending to the sea (Western Anatolia).



84. Турция. Географическое деление.

84. Turkey. The geographical division.

The deeply incised bays of the western coast and the adjacent valleys provide access to the interior of Asia Minor.

To the east, the Central Anatolian plateau passes into the high plateaus of Armenia and Kurdistan.

Here, between numerous ridges crossing the highlands, there are high-altitude plains with an average height of 1500-1800 m, on one of them there is a large salty lake Van. There are many extinct volcanoes with snowy peaks; Ararat (on the border with Iran and near the border with the Armenian SSR) rises to 5156 m. The largest rivers of Western Asia—the Tigris and the Euphrates - originate in the mountains of Armenia.

Climate. Turkey is located between 36° and $42^{\circ} 10'$ 'N. sh., that is, in the latitudes of Spain. Like the Spanish Mezete, Central Anatolia is isolated from the climatic influences of the surrounding seas. The climate of the plateau is characterized by hot and dry summers, with sharp contrasts of day and night, severe winters (snow lasts for a long time), and a large number of sunny days. The annual rainfall is low (23 cm in Ankara), with the greatest rainfall in spring. Forestless upland steppe prevails with bunches of tough herbs; in the driest places it turns into a saline semi-desert with numerous salt lakes. In the Armenian Highlands, winters are even more severe: in Erzurum, the average January temperature is -9° , frosts above 30° occur.

The coasts of the Mediterranean and Marmara seas belong to the Mediterranean climate region. The eastern part of the Black Sea coast, bordering the USSR, is similar in its humid climate and rich vegetation to the Batumi region.

Vegetation, soils, fossils. The coastal slopes of the outskirts of Anatolia are covered with forests. In the forests of Western Anatolia there is a lot of wallow oak, which is valued for the tannin contained in the cups of its acorns (walone). Most of Turkey is treeless. In ancient times there were more forests; forests were being exterminated by predators, and grazing of livestock interfered with the restoration of vegetation. The soil from the deforested mountain slopes is easily washed away into the valleys, and rocks are exposed. In Anatolia, there are many such bare hills and rocky steppes that are difficult to develop. On the other hand, fertile alluvial soils prevail in the valleys; rivers

and temporary streams carry the washed away soil of the slopes there.

The fossil wealth of Turkey has been little studied. There are significant reserves of coal, chrome ore, copper and polymetallic ores, iron ores are found in many places.

Population

Modern Turkey is much more homogeneous in ethnic composition than the old Ottoman Empire. Over 80% of the total population is Turkish. Of other nationalities, the most numerous

Kurds (in the mountains of eastern Turkey), Laz, which are a branch of the Georgians (in the eastern part of the Black Sea coast), Arabs, Armenians¹ and Greeks.

The average population density is 25 people per sq. km. The population is densest in the western and northern coastal regions. There are few large cities in Turkey. The former capital - Istanbul - before the war had over 1 million inhabitants, and now 840 thousand.

¹ Georgians and Armenians are the original inhabitants of the eastern regions of modern Turkey. They created a high culture here, which was destroyed by the conquering Turks. Most of the Georgians and Armenians were either exterminated or driven out by the conquerors. Back at the beginning of the XX century. Armenians constituted a significant part of the population of Turkish Armenia and Cilicia (in the southeast of Asia Minor); during the First World War, many Armenians were massacred by the Turks or fled abroad.

Istanbul (in ancient times Byzantium, then Constantinople) is one of the famous historical cities. In the Middle Ages, Constantinople was the capital of the Eastern Roman (or Byzantine) Empire; taken by the Turks in 1453, it became the capital of the Ottoman Empire. The advantageous geographical position of Istanbul has put it forward as a world trade port. As a capital and as an international trade centre, Istanbul attracted the most diverse population in terms of ethnic composition - Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Jews, etc.

After World War I, the new Turkish government moved the capital from this multinational city on the outskirts of present-day Turkey to Ankara, a purely Turkish city deep in Anatolia. Istanbul's trade importance has dropped dramatically since the First World War.

The panorama of Istanbul, located on the hills along the shores of the Bosphorus and the Golden Horn, is exceptionally picturesque. But the city itself is not comfortable.

The new capital Ankara (228 thousand inhabitants) is an old Turkish city on the ancient caravan routes, the former centre of the wool-weaving handicraft industry. In the old part of the city there are narrow dark streets; the new part is modeled after European cities.

Izmir, otherwise Smyrna (200 thousand inhabitants), serves as an outlet to the sea for the most developed agricultural regions of Turkey.

Features of Turkey's development

Turkey before the First World War was a backward agrarian country with the strongest remnants of feudalism, which was in semi-colonial dependence on the imperialist powers. There was a huge debt over Turkey. It was enmeshed in unequal treaties that subordinated it to foreign capital.

In Turkey, the interests of all the strongest powers in Europe crossed. Since the end of the XIX century, German imperialism began to show particular activity in Turkey. He sought to make Turkey the base of his influence in the Middle East and to threaten British rule in India itself. Turkey's submission to German influence was a threat to Russia as well. Before the First World War, German officers trained the Turkish army. In this war, Turkey sided with Germany. As a result of the war, which Turkey led on several fronts at once, its economy was completely upset. The winners disposed of Turkey as having lost meaning, an exhausted country. In Asia, Mesopotamia (Iraq), Syria, Palestine, Arabian possessions (Hijaz) were taken from her; Hijaz (later united with Nejd) stood out into an independent state. In addition, Izmir (the most important city in Asia Minor), along with the adjacent the area was given to Greece. Greece was given European Turkey, with the exception of Istanbul. Straits declared open to ships of all nations and placed under the control of an international commission (with the supremacy of England). The straits zone is demilitarized (it is forbidden to build fortifications for 30 km on both sides). Reparations imposed on Turkey, Turkish finance placed under the control of the allies.

Unexpectedly for the victors, the country exhausted by the war responded to these humiliating conditions with an explosion of a national movement. In 1920, a national government was established in Ankara; it defeated the Greek troops that occupied Izmir (the Greek-Turkish war of 1921-1922). As a result, Turkey achieved the return of Izmir and a part of European Turkey, given to Greece, the abolition of the special rights of foreigners (later, in 1936, Turkey achieved the restoration of full sovereignty over the straits zone).

Turkey's success was facilitated by the friendly position of the Soviet Union, which, despite the aggressive policy of the imperialists, in fact recognized the right of the Turkish people to independence.

Turkey became a republic. The government has carried out some reforms. The Soviet Union then provided Turkey with a large loan in the form of industrial equipment and provided technical assistance to Turkish construction.

However, the reforms carried out by the Turkish government were half-hearted and did not improve the social order. The landowners retained their land, and the peasants their poverty and dependence. The arbitrariness of the authorities for which the Ottoman Empire was so "famous" also remained. In the ruling circles, over time, reactionary forces began to gain the upper hand.

The old ties of the Turkish military circles and the bourgeoisie with the German imperialists have been preserved. During the Second World War, these ties were revealed: Turkey remained formally neutral, but in fact helped Nazi Germany a lot (in particular,

supplied it with various strategic materials, including chromium) and took an unfriendly position towards the USSR. Only at the very end of the war, when Germany was already defeated, Turkey formally declared war on her. Since that time, the influence of the American and British imperialists has increased in Turkey, who use Turkey for intrigues against the Soviet Union and the countries of the people's democracies.

Overview of the economy

Agriculture. Agriculture employs 65% of the Turkish population. Almost all exports are agricultural products.

Most of the land is not very suitable for agriculture (dry rocky highlands). But less than half of the suitable land is cultivated. 65% of all cultivated land belongs to landlords and kulaks, who make up only 5% of the rural population. In western and southern Anatolia, there are large landlord farms that use tractors and agricultural machines. But most of the landed estates leased, and they are small, backward farming. The vast majority of farmers work with primitive implements. The plow is plowed with a shallow wooden plow with an iron tip. Many tenants have neither their own draft animals nor equipment at all; they are forced to use landlord implements and livestock, giving most of the harvest for this.

The land is poorly fertilized and gives low yields. Field cultivation systems on ordinary farms are extremely backward - two-field, only sometimes three-field and four-field. On the Anatolian plateau, irrigation is the first condition for the development of new lands.

But irrigation is carried out by local forces, there are few engineering irrigation structures.

In the direction of agriculture, coastal regions and upland regions differ sharply. In the coastal regions, the leading place is occupied by the production of valuable commercial crops - tobacco, olives, figs (wine berries), cotton (especially on the southern coast), fruit trees, grapes. Of these, tobacco is of the greatest importance for export; Turkish tobacco is renowned for its quality. Sericulture is located in the Bursa region. Thanks to the warm and humid winter, breads (wheat, barley) are sown in autumn, develop in winter and ripen in spring. Central Anatolia, Armenia, Kurdistan are areas of pasture cattle breeding. Sheep and goats are bred, including Angora (or Ankara) goats, known for their long silky white hair, which is used for the manufacture of especially valuable fabrics, shawls, etc. the herds have to roam. In summer, cattle climb to mountain pastures, in winter they descend into valleys. The cultivated land is scattered in oases in the valleys. Breads are sown - wheat, barley, rye. Crops are spring, under spring rains.

Industry. Modern Turkey inherited from the Ottoman Empire an extremely weak industry; there were almost no large enterprises at all, handicraftsmen and artisans predominated. In modern Turkey, industry has grown significantly. Nevertheless, even now Turkey is by no means strong industrially; by way of comparison, it can be indicated that it is much inferior to Spain, which, in turn, is not at all a developed industrial country. The weakness of Turkey's heavy industry is especially characteristic.

In the mining industry, the most important is the extraction of coal (about 4 million tons per year), concentrated mainly in the Zonguldak region, and the extraction of chrome ore. In addition, iron, copper, lead and zinc ores are mined.

Among the branches of the manufacturing industry, the food industry (sugar, tobacco, etc.) and the industry are of leading importance. A small metallurgical and metal-working plant and a number of military plants were built.

Carpet production (mainly handicraft) is of great importance. Turkish carpets are famous abroad. The city of Bursa has a significant silk-winding and silk-weaving industry.

Transport and foreign trade. The Turkish Empire was a classic off-road country. Since then, new railways and highways have been built. Yet many areas of Turkey are still poorly served by modern vehicles.

The total length of the railway network is only 8 thousand km. Carriage by carts and packs (camels, mules, donkeys) plays an important role.

The main ports are Istanbul (Turkey's first import port) and Izmir (first export port).

Turkey exports tobacco (over $x / 4$ of the total export), raisins, wine berries, nuts, olive oil, cattle, wool, cotton, walone (tanning agent), chrome ore; imports textiles, metal products, machinery, petroleum products.

COUNTRIES OF SOUTH-WEST ASIA

In the south-west of Asia there is a group of countries inhabited mainly by Muslim Arabs and having much in common in nature, economy and political position. It covers about 3.7 million square meters. km; total population (very approximately) 20 million.

Natural conditions. The huge peninsula of Arabia, with which Asia ends in the southwest, is by its nature very similar to the deserts and semi-deserts of northern Africa, from which it is separated by the narrow Red Sea. The surface is a rocky plateau with elevations along the edges. The climate is dry and hot. Among the vast semi-deserts and deserts in which the Bedouin Arabs roam with their herds, there are oases with plantings of date palms and fruit trees, with crops of wheat, millet, and barley.

Yemen ("Happy Arabia"), which occupies the most elevated and best irrigated part of the peninsula, stands out for more favorable conditions for agriculture in the southwest. The desert nature continues to the north of the Arabian Peninsula (Syrian Desert). More favorable conditions here stand out, firstly, a strip in the west, stretching along the Mediterranean coast, and, secondly, the Mesopotamian lowland in the east. The coast of the Mediterranean Sea and the hills located nearby receive a significant amount of rainfall and have a lot of fertile land. There are rivers for irrigation and energy; the most significant of them is the Jordan River, which flows into the Dead Sea. The latter is remarkable for two features: its surface lies 394 m below sea level (the deepest depression of the earth's land); its water is so saturated with salts that the existence of plants and animals in it is

impossible. But these salts are valuable chemical raw materials (potash is mined).

The Mesopotamian lowland is located along the course of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers (hence the name Mesopotamia, which means interfluvium), merging in the lower reaches into one river - the Shatt al-Arab. The lowland soil, formed by river sediments, is fertile. The climate is dry, but the irrigation possibilities are very significant due to the large rivers.

The most important mineral resource in Southwest Asia is oil. Its large deposits are located on the Arabian Peninsula (the most important ones are on the coast of the Persian Gulf), in the northern part of the Mesopotamian Lowland and on the Bahrain Islands (in the Persian Gulf). Explored oil reserves in southwestern Asia account for one-third of the oil reserves of the capitalist countries; geologically, this area is still poorly studied, and here one can expect large new oil finds.

Imperialism in Southwest Asia. Before the First World War, the most populated areas of Southwest Asia belonged to Turkey. During the war, England made extensive use of the national movements of the Arab peoples, inciting them against Turkey and promising the creation of an independent Arab state. However, at the end of the war, the Arabs were deceived: England and France, having suppressed the resistance of the Arabs, divided among themselves the most important economically and strategically territories as mandated countries. England received a mandate for Iraq (Mesopotamia), Palestine and Transjordan, France - for Syria and Lebanon. Subsequently, under the pressure of the national movement in the subordinate countries of

England and France, they had to abandon their mandates, but this by no means led to the true independence of these countries. In 1945, under the influence of England, the “League of Arab Countries” was formed - an alliance that included the Arab states of southwestern Asia and Egypt. England counted on using this alliance to strengthen its dominance in these countries. After the Second World War, the penetration of American imperialism into Southwest Asia intensified. The imperialists’ interest in these countries is mainly determined by two circumstances.

1. Their wealth in oil. From this point of view, not only those countries where oil is produced are important, but also those through which oil pipelines pass, through which oil is supplied to seaports.

2. The strategic importance of the countries of Southwest Asia. It is determined primarily by their proximity to the great sea route connecting Europe with the countries of the Indian and Pacific Oceans. Hence the importance for England of the naval base Aden (near the entrance to the Red Sea). Palestine and Transjordan are regarded by England as the eastern approach to the Suez Canal.

The Persian Gulf is very important as an approach from the sea to Iran, Iraq, and the oil regions of the Arabian Peninsula. In addition, the northern Arab countries represent, as it were, a land “bridge” on the routes from Western Europe to Iran and India. The meaning of this “bridge” was at the end of the 19th century. appraised by the German imperialists who undertook the construction of the Baghdad railway, which was supposed to connect Germany with the coast

of the Persian Gulf. British air route to India passes through Palestine, Transjordan, Iraq; through Syria and Iraq - French air route to Indochina. Finally, although the countries under consideration do not have a common border with the Soviet Union, the distance separating Iraq from the Transcaucasian Union Socialist Republics is not very large (the shortest distance in a straight line is over 200 km); the northern Arab countries are viewed by the British and American imperialists as a rear foothold against the southern borders of the USSR.

It should be noted that the British and American imperialists, jointly suppressing the national liberation movements of the peoples of Southwestern Asia, jointly building aggressive plans against the USSR, at the same time have serious contradictions here; Among these contradictions, the struggle of the British and American monopolies for the seizure of the richest oil resources of Southwest Asia plays a special role. British monopolies used to dominate the oil industry in the Middle East, and the invasion of American monopolies is causing them significant damage. And this invasion is accompanied by an increase in the military and political influence of the United States in the Middle East, where British imperialism used to be “the master of the situation.”

General overview of the political situation and economy. Most of the countries of Southwest Asia are semi-colonial countries. When dealing with a strong anti-imperialist movement of the peoples of these countries, the imperialists are forced to resort here to

disguised forms of subordination, recognizing on paper the “independence” of countries, but in reality - entangling them with enslaving treaties that make this independence a fiction. In doing so, the imperialists make extensive use of the tried and tested method - they attract the ruling elite of local society to their side and oppose them to the masses. But in the peoples of southwestern Asia, a movement for independence, for peace and democracy is growing.

Southwest Asia's economy is backward. The production and export of oil (in total, 53 million tons were produced in 1950), the only branch of the economy of very great importance, belongs to foreigners. The main occupation of the population is pastoralism, which in many places retains a nomadic or semi-nomadic character; small cattle, camels, horses are bred. The cultivated land is scattered with oases.

A wider spread of agriculture is distinguished by the Mediterranean coast (Israel, Lebanon), Yemen and Iraq with its large irrigation resources. Large feudal land ownership prevails. But farming on land latifundia is small-scale, on the basis of enslaving lease. The enslaving dependence of the peasantry is intensified by the fact that the feudal lords also dominate the irrigation facilities, which are of great importance in the economy of the countries we have listed. The cattle-breeding tribes of the Arabian Peninsula have preserved remnants of the tribal system.

The manufacturing industry in Southwest Asia is negligible. For the most part, it is limited to artisanal processing of local raw materials. The few larger enterprises are usually in the hands of foreigners.

In the distribution of the population, there are sharp contrasts from almost deserted deserts to densely populated areas, which include, first of all, the strip adjacent to the Mediterranean Sea. The population of the river valleys of Iraq and highland Yemen is relatively dense.

Brief overview of selected countries. Most of the Arabian Peninsula is occupied by the state of Arabia Saudi (area 1.6 million sq. Km; population estimated 6 million). Arabia Saudi consists of two main parts—Najd, which occupies the inland regions of the peninsula and has access to the Persian Gulf, and Hejaz, adjacent to the Red Sea. The state system is a feudal monarchy with a strong influence of the Muslim clergy. The capital of Riyadh (in Najd) is located on the caravan and motor road that crosses Arabia from the Red Sea to the Persian Gulf. In the Hejaz there are Mecca (the main city of the Hejaz) and Medina—the holy cities of Muslims, connected, according to legend, with the life and work of Mahomet. The income from the pilgrims who flock here from various Muslim countries occupies the largest place in the economic life of these cities. Jeddah—the main port of the Hejaz, serving Meiku. On the coast of the Persian Gulf—large oil fields in American hands (mining in 1950 yielded 27 million tons). From here, the Americans laid an oil pipeline to the Mediterranean coast. The American oil concession in Arabia covers a huge area. Along with the seizure of oil wealth, American imperialism subjugates Arabia to Saudi Arabia politically.

In the south of Arabia, facing the Red Sea, the state of Yemen is located (an area of 62 thousand square kilometres, the population is estimated to be 3.5 million). According to the state system, Yemen is a theocratic monarchy (state and church power are united in one person, bearing the title of imam). The capital is Sana'a, the port is Hodeidah. Yemen is famous for its coffee; although in terms of collection it is far inferior to many "coffee" countries, but the Yemeni mocha coffee is considered the best in the world.

Near Yemen, on the shores of the Indian Ocean, the British naval and air base Aden, together with the fortified island of Perim (in the Bab el-Mandeb Strait), guards the entrance to the Red Sea.

The rest of Arabia is occupied by the Arab principalities (with sultans or sheikhs at the head), which are under British protectorate. The most significant of these is Oman (or Muscat), at the eastern end of the peninsula. The protectorate of Kuwait, on the shores of the Persian Gulf, between Saudi Arabia and Iraq, has recently attracted attention by the rich oil fields discovered on its territory (in 1950, production reached 17 million tons).

To the north of the Arabian Peninsula are located: Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Transjordan and Palestine with the state of Israel that separated from it in 1948.

Iraq ranks first among these countries in terms of area (302 thousand sq. Km) and population (about 5 million). Its core is the Mesopotamian Lowland. At the mouth of the Shatt al-Arab, Iraq has access to the Persian Gulf. According to the state system, Iraq is

formally a parliamentary kingdom. In fact, he is completely dependent on England. In the northern part of Iraq (in the Kirkuk region) there are oil fields (over 6 million tons of oil were produced in 1950). They are owned by the Iraqi Oil Company with predominantly British capital, but with the participation of American and French capital. An oil pipeline has been laid from the fields to the Mediterranean Sea (with branches to Haifa in Palestine and Tripoli in Lebanon). In agriculture, which employs most of the Iraqi population, the date palm stands out: in terms of the number of trees (30 million), the collection and export of dates, Iraq is in first place in the world. The capital of Iraq is Baghdad (about 300 thousand inhabitants) on the river. Tigre is an old trading city, formerly in the VIII-X centuries. the centre of the flourishing of Arab culture. Located on the railway from Turkey to the Persian Gulf, a junction of road and air routes. Basra seaport on Shatt al-Arab. On the territory of Iraq, wonderful monuments of the cultures of the ancient East have been preserved.

Transjordan is a semi-desert pastoralist country (area 90 thousand square kilometres / population 300 thousand), has even more fictitious independence than Iraq. The country is occupied by British troops. A British naval base is being built in the port of Aqaba (Transjordan's outlet to the Red Sea). The "king" of Transjordan is a puppet in the hands of England. The capital of Transjordan is Amman. An English company develops the Dead Sea salts.

Palestine is located on the Mediterranean coast and has a narrow outlet to the Gulf of Aqab in the Red Sea. After the First World War, the British government

promised to create a “national home for the Jewish people” in Palestine and organized the immigration of Jews to Palestine from various countries. True to its divide and conquer policy, the British authorities fomented strife between Arabs and Jews, leaving Palestine as a hotbed of unrest. With this in mind, the United Nations decided to divide Palestine into two independent states - Arab and Jewish, and the city of Jerusalem and its environs, inhabited almost equally by Arabs and Jews, to be separated into a special administrative unit managed by the United Nations. However, the United States and Britain thwarted the implementation of this decision.

Then the Jews independently organized the state of Israel (1 million inhabitants), with a bourgeois-republican system. Undertaken on instigation

Britain’s intervention by Arab states against Israel did not achieve its goal. The US seeks to subordinate Israel to its influence, relying on the Ro-American part of the Jewish bourgeoisie; this provokes a protest among the masses of Israel. The capital of Israel is Tel Aviv. The citrus culture is especially developed in Israel; oranges are the main export item.

Syria and Lebanon, which were under the mandate of France and received formal independence in 1941, are bourgeois republics. The area of Syria is 188 thousand square meters. km / population—about a million; the capital Damascus (260 thousand inhabitants) - one of the ancient centres of Arab culture Lebanon occupies a small strip along the Mediterranean coast; area is only 9 thousand square meters. km / population 1 million; the capital and main port is Beirut

(230 thousand inhabitants), serving, in addition to Lebanon, also southern Syria and Damascus. The weakening of France's position in Syria and Lebanon was accompanied by an intensification of the British and American imperialists in these countries. The Americans brought an oil pipeline from Arabia to the Lebanese coast.

AMERICA

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA (USA)

The United States of America (abbreviated USA) is located in the southern half of North America, between 25 and 49° N. sh.

In terms of space, the United States is one of the largest states in the world. Territory of the United States 7839 thousand sq. km, not counting the separately located Alaska (1519 thousand sq. km). This is much more than the entire capitalist Europe, but almost 3 times less than the territory of the USSR. It stretches 4500 km from east to west, 2700 km from north to south. The population of the USA exceeds 150 million people (the fourth largest in the world after China, India and the USSR).

The USA is a bourgeois republic, consists of 48 states. The capital is Washington, which forms a special district that does not belong to any state.

Natural conditions

Borders, coastline. Stretching from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific, the United States borders the British dominion of Canada in the north, and Mexico in the south; the rest of the US southern front abuts the Gulf of Mexico in the Caribbean Sea. The most significant natural border borders are the Great Lakes on the border with Canada and the Rio Grande del Norte

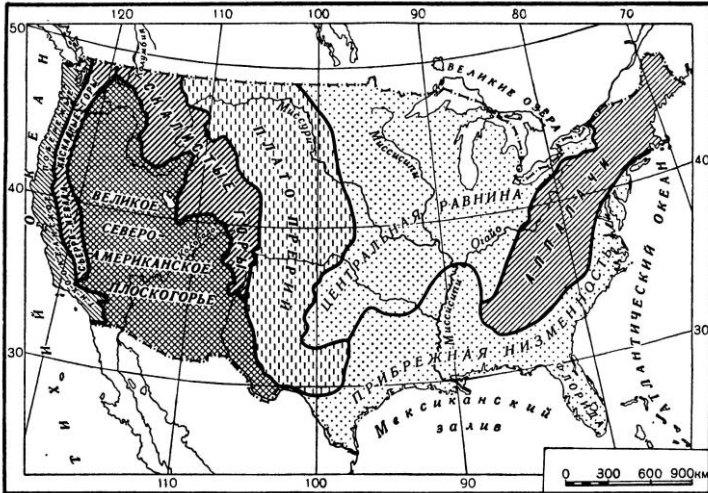
("Great Northern River") on the border with Mexico. The western part of the border with Canada follows a conditional straight line (49° N).

Borders, coastline. Stretching from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific, the United States borders the British dominion of Canada in the north, and Mexico in the south; the rest of the US southern front abuts the Gulf of Mexico in the Caribbean Sea.

The most significant natural border borders are the Great Lakes on the border with Canada and the Rio Grande del Norte ("Great Northern River") on the border with Mexico. The western part of the border with Canada follows a conventional straight line (49° N).

By its configuration, the United States is a massive, weakly dissected quadrangle. There is only one very prominent peninsula—Florida. There are no sea bays jutting deep into the land. But the Atlantic coast is notable for its considerable indentedness and opens up many bays and bays convenient for navigation (the most important are the Chesapeake Bay, Massachusetts Bay, the Hudson River mouth, the Delaware River mouth). The coast of the Gulf of Mexico is not very convenient for navigation due to shallow water the coastal sea, due to the numerous swamps on the coast itself; the mouth of the Mississippi, the main river in the United States, is of the greatest importance for shipping. The Pacific coast is weakly indented and steep; convenient bays open only in three places: Puget Sound Bay, near the border with Canada (one of the world's best natural

harbours), the mouth of the river. Columbia and San Francisco Bay.



85. Схема рельефа США.

85. Map of the US relief.

Surface. The surface of the United States can be reduced to a very simple scheme: in the east—the Appalachian mountain system and a narrow strip of the Atlantic Lowland, in the west—the Cordillera mountain system, between them—the huge Central Plain (Mississippi River basin).

The Appalachians are an ancient mountain system, heavily destroyed and flattened, without sharply protruding peaks. They stretch for almost 2.5 thousand km along the Atlantic coast. The width of the Appalachians is 200-300 km, the height is insignificant:

the highest part—the Allegheny Mountains—reaches over 2000 m, the average height is 800 m. The Appalachians are close to the coast in the north and retreat more from it in the middle and southern parts; here, between the Appalachians and the ocean, there is a coastal lowland that rises in ledges to the foothills of the Appalachians. With its enormous length and considerable width, the Appalachians, despite their low height, for a long time constituted a significant difficulty for the advancement of European colonization inland.

The Cordillera mountain system, which crosses the west of the North American mainland in its entire length, is widely distributed within the United States (up to 1500 km wide). Powerful mountain ranges diverge far from each other. Eastern branch of the Cordillera—Rocky Mountains, western—Cascade Mountains and Sierra Nevada (up to 4540 m, highest point in the USA); between them is the Great North American Plateau, with an average height of 1000 m. Above the very coast of the Pacific Ocean, the low Coastal Cordilleras (or the Seaside Mountains) rise. The area of the Cordillera (“mountain states”) and the Pacific coast is called the “Far West” by Americans.



86. Профиль рельефа по 40° с. ш. в США.

86. Profile of the relief at 40 ° N. sh. in USA.

The greatest river in the United States is the Mississippi, with tributaries of the Ohio, Missouri, Arkansas. The length of the Mississippi, counting for its source r. Missouri, 7330 km (the longest river in the world), basin area 3275 thousand square meters. km (half the size of the Amazon). The Mississippi itself is navigable almost all the way. Western tributaries headed with Missouri, flowing through areas poor in rainfall, relatively shallow. The tributaries flowing from the Appalachians, especially Ohio, are much more deep. Mississippi endures in the sea annually up to 400 million tons of land, pushing a grand delta. A significant part of the Mississippi Lowland is also filled with Mississippi sediments. Every Mississippi spring wide spills. To protect it from floods, its lower course is fenced off by ramparts, but the river often breaks through these fences.

There are many short but deep rivers on the Atlantic coast; when descending from the Appalachians, many of them form waterfalls.

The main rivers of the Pacific slope are Columbia and Colorado. They cut into the mountainous country of

the Cordillera with deep canyons, that is, gigantic gorges. The Grand Canyon of Colorado is an exceptional natural phenomenon. Its steep walls reach 1800 meters above the river level. This is a more serious obstacle to railways than mountain ranges. These rivers are navigable only in the lower reaches, but as a source of energy and irrigation they are of great importance.

Much of the Great North American Plateau forms a closed basin, poor in water flows. The Great Salt Lake is located here.

Mineral wealth. The territory of the United States is extremely rich in minerals. Coal reserves are estimated at 3200 billion tons, which is more than half of the reserves of the entire capitalist world.

The main areas of occurrence are the Appalachian, which extends over a vast area along the western edge of the Appalachian system, and the Central, located southwest of Lake Michigan, on both sides of the Mississippi. Huge reserves of coal, but of inferior quality, are found in the Rocky Mountains.

Oil reserves are large, but not in the same way as coal reserves. Oil is found in three main areas: 1) the old oil region of northern Appalachia (Pennsylvania), now of secondary importance; 2) South Central, north of the Gulf of Mexico and west of the Mississippi (Texas and Oklahoma); 3) Californian, in the extreme west, near Los Angeles. In the same areas, there are large deposits of natural gas.

US iron ore wealth is 18% known reserves of iron in capitalist countries (the amount of pure iron in the ore is determined at almost 5 billion tons). Iron is

concentrated mainly in two regions: 1) near Lake Verkhniy—the world’s largest region for the extraction of iron ore; 2) at the southern end of the Appalachians, near Birmingham. The ores of the northern region are richer in metal content; moreover, they go directly to the surface, while in the south the ore lies quite deep.

The USA has great wealth in non-ferrous metals—especially copper, lead, zinc; less large, but still significant are the reserves of precious metals (especially silver). Non-ferrous and precious metals are found mainly in the west. But there are important “gaps” in the composition of the metal ore wealth of the United States: no or little tin, manganese, nickel.

Of the nonmetallic minerals, phosphorite deposits in Florida are of great importance.

Climate. With regard to the climatic conditions of the Old World, the northern part of the United States should be in the southern temperate zone, and the southern part in the tropical zone. The northern border of the United States corresponds in latitude to the line Paris - Vienna - Stalingrad, to the southern border - the northern part of the Sahara, the Ganges valley in India. New York lies at the latitude of Naples. But the climate of the United States is much colder than the climate of the latitudes of Europe and Africa. New York City’s annual average is $+11^{\circ}$, 5° less than Naples. The straits and coastal waters of the Great Lakes freeze on average for 4 months.

The comparative severity of the US climate has a number of reasons. Cold winds blowing from the Arctic Ocean have a strong influence. They spread freely

throughout the United States, since the main mountain ranges run from north to south and do not provide any protection from the northerly winds. In addition, the northeastern United States is cooled by the cold Labrador Current flowing out of the Arctic Ocean.

US territory is open not only to cold northerly winds, but also to hot winds blowing from the Gulf of Mexico. Hence the unusually sharp jumps in temperature that occur when the winds change. There have been cases when in Florida orange trees died from frost. Destructive hurricanes are not uncommon in the United States, most often coming from the south; they are capable of overturning a train, demolishing large houses. The vast area of the United States has a wide variety of climates and vegetation. The east is generally much richer in precipitation than the west. The southeastern coast has a humid subtropical climate, which allows the cultivation of citrus fruits. To the west, precipitation decreases. The driest region in the United States is the Great Highlands, which is characterized by extreme temperature extremes. On the contrary, the Pacific coast is distinguished by a mild and even climate; there is a lot of rainfall in the northern part of the coast; to the south - the climate of dry subtropics, where agriculture requires artificial irrigation.

Soils, vegetation, fauna. To the east of the Mississippi, podzolic soils prevail. The Mississippi Valley has fertile alluvial soils. Further to the west, in a zone of insufficient moisture, a belt of chernozems extends from north to south, passing closer to the Rocky Mountains into a belt of chestnut soils. It is an area of

the great North American prairies that occupy the vast expanse between the Rocky Mountains and the Mississippi. The Great North American Plateau is dominated by stone and sand. This is an area of dry steppes and semi-deserts with scarce grasses and bushes; near the Mexican border—the Gila desert, where giant cacti are found. In the northwestern corner of the United States, which is rich in rainfall, is a vast area of valuable coniferous forests. In the southern part of the Pacific coast—evergreen shrubs of the Mediterranean type.

The forests of the USA are distinguished by a wide variety of species; there are many local valuable species that are not found in forests Europe. On the Pacific slopes of the Sierra Nevada, the famous sequoia (aka wellingtonia) grows, some of which have several millennia of life and reach 120–150 m in height with 15 m in diameter at the base (now redwood there are already few left, giant copies are on the account and are under protection). Forest resources in the United States were exterminated in a predatory manner. Yet forests still occupy 25% of the entire territory, and in terms of forested area, the USA is second only to the USSR and Canada.

Currently, the most important forestry areas are: 1) the Northwest Pacific region (the giant Oregon pine is of particular value here); 2) the southeastern region adjacent to the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic Ocean, with extensive pine forests; 3) the Great Lakes region, the forests of which have already become very thin.

It is interesting to note that, in contrast to the diversity and richness of American forests, crops in North

America were comparatively poor before the arrival of Europeans. Most of the cultivated plants - wheat, rye, oats, barley, buckwheat, peas, rice—were imported from the Old World, while America enriched the Old World from the most important crops—corn, potatoes, tobacco (not counting some tropical crops characteristic only of South and Central America). America is even poorer in native domestic animals: horses, cows, sheep, chickens were brought to America by Europeans, America gave Europe only turkey.

Population

Immigration and “Americanisation”. The vast majority of the modern US population is created by immigration from European countries. It began in the first half of the 17th century. Immigration reached its greatest rise in the first decade of the 20th century, when an average of about 900 thousand immigrants arrived per year.

With the depletion of free land funds, with a slowdown in industrial development, with an increase in its own unemployment, mass immigration becomes an undesirable phenomenon for the American bourgeoisie. After the First World War, the admission of immigrants was severely restricted; This applies only to the poor looking for work.

Initially, the number of immigrants was sharply dominated by the British and Irish, then the Germans and immigrants from the Scandinavian countries joined them. But since the end of the XIX century. the bulk of the migrants come from southern and eastern Europe (Italy, the Balkan countries, Austria-Hungary, Russia). In

the 70s, when there was intensive railway construction on the Pacific coast and there was a great need for labourers, a few Chinese and Japanese arrived there, after the need for labor was over, they were no longer allowed in the United States.

In general, European Americans (“whites”) make up about 90% of the total population; including representatives of all kinds of European nations. But the base is English and English is the dominant language.

American capitalism thoroughly “digests” this entire multi-tribal mass: the “Americanization” of a newcomer is a prerequisite for his success; without assimilating the concepts and customs familiar to the average American man in the street, it is difficult to punch the way. A huge role in this matter is played by school, print, cinema, instilling admiration for the American social system with its power of capital and the cult of money.

Blacks and Indians. One of the most disgusting features of the US social system is racial oppression, the main victims of which are blacks and Indians.

Blacks are descendants of African blacks who were brought as slaves to North America. There are 14 million of them. Most of them live in the southeastern states, that is, in the area of the former slave economy. Actually Negroes are in a semi-slave position here. They are forced to rent land from landlords on enslaving terms, from a share of the harvest. But even in the cities of the North, where there are many Negro workers, their position is humiliated. They receive less wages than whites. They are only admitted to heavy and low-paid work. Contempt for a negro is one of the must-

have concepts for a 100% man in the street. Blacks are assigned special carriages, special seats in theatres; marriages between whites and blacks are almost impossible - it is a public scandal.

In relation to blacks, much more often and with impunity than in relation to whites, the so-called “lynching” is used, that is, wild mob lynching. In the South, there is a special organization, the Ku Klux Klan, dealing with terror against blacks.

The Indians—the indigenous population of North America—were systematically exterminated throughout the entire process of colonizing the United States. There are only 330 thousand of them left. For the Indians, so-called reservations have been set aside, that is, isolated spaces in desert regions, leaving them only with special permission.

Population density and major cities. The average population density in the United States is 19 people per square kilometer. km. The most dense population is in the northeastern states. To the west, the density decreases, the lowest density is in the mountain states (1-2 persons per sq. Km); toward the Pacific coast, the density increases again, but far from reaching the density of the Northeast.

56% of the population lives in cities. During the period of the rapid development of American capitalism, gigantic cities grew with extraordinary speed. New York, with more than 7.8 million in the official city limits and more than 12 million in the suburbs, is the largest city in the world. The second largest population is Chicago (3.6 million, with the

suburbs 5.5 million); third—Philadelphia (over 2 million), followed by Los Angeles (about 2 million) and Detroit (1.8 million). US cities do not have the same old neighbourhoods as most major European cities; their streets are straightforward. In almost every big city in the “ceremonial” quarters there are separate buildings of several tens of floors (“skyscrapers”), built “for show”. But a much larger place in every big city is occupied by neighbourhoods that show the “wrong side” of the American life, - quarters of disgusting slums, where the poor live in inhuman conditions.

Features of the development of the United States

Development of the United States in the 19th century. The United States emerged from the colonies of resettlement in England, which won their independence as a result of the liberation war of 1776-1783. Initially, the territory of the United States covered only a strip along the coast of the Atlantic Ocean. Subsequently, the United States expanded its territory to the Pacific Ocean. This movement in the west took place in continuous wars with the Indians, who were exterminated or driven into the mountains and deserts. A huge territory in the southwest was taken away from Mexico as a result of the war.

Colonization of the vast US territory was accompanied by a constant influx of new settlers from European countries. During the XIX century. US economic development has made great strides. From a country with an economy that retained its colonial

features, the United States turned into the first industrial power in the world.

The following are the main reasons for the rapid rise of the United States.

1. The leading regions of the United States did not know feudalism and serfdom. The leading regions are the North of the USA. Even before the formation of the independent United States, the development of trade, industry, and capitalist agriculture began here. The bulk of the colonists who moved here from England originally consisted of the petty bourgeoisie—merchants, artisans, farmers. There was no landlord tenure or feudal oppression, which hindered the development of agriculture in European countries.

The development of the South of the United States followed a completely different path. Here the English nobles dominated among the colonists. They started tobacco and later cotton plantations. Labor for the plantations was brought in by slave traders who brought blacks from Africa. The slave plantation economy became the backbone of the South's economy.

After the formation of the independent United States, industry and trade in the capitalist North developed rapidly. The South, which stubbornly adhered to slavery, lagged behind. The contradictions between the advanced capitalist North and the backward slaveholding South, which intensified as the North grew stronger, led to the war between the North and the South (1861-1865), in which the capitalist North prevailed. Slavery was abolished; this did not eliminate the enslaving exploitation of blacks, their unequal position. But the bourgeoisie of the North achieved its goal: it received freedom of action, eliminated the main obstacles to the development of capitalism.

2. The development of agriculture in the United States relied on a huge amount of free land. During the war between the North and the South, a law was issued on the free distribution of land to colonists for settlement and cultivation. This contributed to the rapid settlement of areas west of the Mississippi. Colonization West, accompanied by the influx of new masses of immigrants from Europe, expanded the market for the industrial North.

3. With the development of railway communication, with the progress of industrial technology, more and more sources of raw materials and energy for industry were discovered. The combination of a wide variety of resources created a powerful base for industrial development. In such important resources as coal, iron ore, oil, cotton, the United States not only surpasses any imperialist country, but even the British Empire as a whole.

4. A significant advantage of the United States over Western Europe, fragmented into many states, was the unity of the state organization over a vast territory.

Since the end of the XIX century. there is a rapid concentration of capital among a handful of millionaires and billionaires. Gigantic monopolies are being created. They are becoming a decisive force in the US economy and politics. At the same time, the US begins colonial conquests outside the North American mainland. Having defeated Spain in 1898, they captured the Philippine Islands and Puerto Rico. Cuba, because of which the war began, formally became independent, but in fact fell under US control. In the same year, Hawaii, at that time a small state dependent on the United States, was annexed.

The end of “prosperity”. The First World War further strengthened the United States. US industry worked hard for the war and at the same time seized markets, taking advantage of the fact that the strongest European powers sharply weakened their exports. During the war, the United States provided huge loans to the Allies. After the war, the United States developed the export of capital, becoming, along with England, one of the world’s creditors. The share of the USA in the world economy has increased in comparison with the pre-war level. But the rapid rise of American capitalism is a thing of the past. In a number of important sectors of the economy, growth has almost stopped, the rapid expansion of the domestic market has stopped, which was associated with the colonization of free lands and the growth of wealthy farming; the best lands were dismantled even before the end of the 19th century. The power of the monopolies increased, the contrasts between wealth and poverty increased, and the former exit for the poor—resettlement to vacant lands—was closed. The same turning point is evidenced by the post-war struggle against immigration, directed by its edge against the poor, bringing only workers’ hands and the desire to work; under modern conditions, this is a “dangerous” element that aggravates the labor question in the country. The transition of the United States to increased export of capital is also indicative: it means that with a slower rate of development of productive forces, the capital of the American bourgeoisie no longer finds full use in the economy of the United States itself (before the war, the

US economy attracted even large investments of foreign capital).

Against the background of the general crisis of capitalism that gripped the capitalist world after the war, the United States stood out for its “prosperity” until 1929. But behind this favorable appearance, deep internal contradictions accumulated.

In May 1929, Comrade Stalin gave the following assessment of the position of American capitalism: “It seems to many now that the general crisis of world capitalism will not affect America. This is, of course, not true. Completely wrong, comrades. The crisis of world capitalism is developing at an accelerated pace, and it cannot but affect American capitalism. “ Indeed, in the autumn of the same year, a severe crisis broke out in the United States, which marked the beginning of the world crisis of the capitalist economy, destroying the legend of the “exclusiveness” of US capitalism. The advanced country of modern capitalism has become advanced in terms of the strength and depth of the crisis. Smelting of pig iron in 1932 was 5 times less than in 1929; production of cars and automobiles fell sharply. The industrial crisis was intertwined with an equally acute crisis in agriculture. The country, which had recently boasted of the rapid development of its productive forces, began to look for a way out in the reduction of production and in the destruction of already produced values. Millions of tons of wheat and corn were used for fuel, millions of pigs were killed, while masses of unemployed were starving.

World War II and the United States' aspiration for world domination. Only in 1937 did the total volume of US production reach the pre-crisis level. But even then, there were about 9 million unemployed. And from the end of 1937 a new crisis began, and in the middle of 1938 there were already more than 13 million unemployed.

Under these conditions, the Second World War “rescued” American capitalists: the supply of American goods abroad increased, and the growth of armaments began in the United States itself. And after the United States entered the war (December 1941), its industrial production grew to unprecedented proportions. The largest monopolies gained from this, which received the lion’s share of government orders; their profits are colossal.

“Of all the capitalist powers, only one capitalist power—the United States—emerged from the war not weakened, but significantly strengthened both economically and militarily. American capitalists profited greatly from the war. At the same time, the American people did not experience the hardships, oppression of occupation, aerial bombardments that accompanied the war, and the human casualties of the United States, which entered the war in fact at the last stage, when the fate of the war had already been decided, turned out to be relatively small. For the United States, the war served primarily as an impetus for the widespread development of industrial production, for a decisive increase in exports (mainly to Europe)” (Zhdanov).

The United States began to strive even more than before to seize sales markets for its industry, to invest its capital abroad. Under the guise of “aid” to countries affected by the war, they are pursuing a policy of enslavement of these countries, a good example of which is the “Marshall Plan” imposed on many Western European countries. This expansion American capital is combined with military and political expansion. The USA is expanding the network of its military bases, interfering in the politics of other countries, and imposing its will on everyone. They frightened them with atomic weapons, which supposedly constituted their secret; meanwhile, the Soviet government informed the international community back in 1947 that this secret no longer existed, and the American imperialists had to admit. All this clearly shows that American imperialism is striving to use the defeat of Germany, Japan, Italy and the weakening of some other capitalist states in order to pave the way for the US world domination.

“But on the path of the US striving for world domination is the USSR with its growing international influence—the bulwark of anti-imperialist and anti-fascist policies, there are countries of the new democracy that have gotten out of the control of Anglo-American imperialism, there are workers of all countries, including the workers of America itself, those who do not want new wars for the rule of their oppressors. Therefore, the new expansionist and reactionary course of the US policy is designed to fight against the USSR, against the countries of new democracies, against the labor movement in all

countries, against the labor movement in the USA, against anti-imperialist liberation forces in all countries “(Zhdanov).

Political system

At the entrance to New York port there is a huge “Statue of Liberty”—a lighthouse in the form of a woman with a torch in her hand raised—an image of false American democracy and freedom. American “democracy” is tirelessly glorified by the bourgeois press of the United States, setting it up as an example to other countries. But nowhere, as in the USA, is the contradiction between the “signboard” of the political system and its true content expressed so sharply (although this contradiction is inherent in bourgeois states in general).

The US government is completely dependent on the largest capitalists, since they control all the most important branches of the country’s economy; they also subjugated the press, education, art. In no other country has the power of wealth and the cult of money reached such limits as in the United States. Lenin wrote about the USA: “... nowhere is the power of capital like that in this country (whoever has been there after 1905, he probably has an idea about it), nowhere is the power of capital, the power of a handful of billionaires over the whole of society is not shown so rudely, with such open bribery, as in America. “ And since Lenin wrote, the power of capital in the United States has increased enormously. Stalin’s words are fully applicable to American “democracy”: “Democracy under capitalism is

a capitalist democrat, a democracy of the exploiting minority, resting on the restriction of the rights of the exploited the majority and directed against this majority”.

The right to vote looks democratic on paper (voting is direct, equal and secret, it is forbidden to deprive of suffrage under the pretext of race). In fact, millions of “coloured” and also poor whites are barred from participating in elections in various ways. One remedy is the requirement in many states for voters to know English and be able to “spell out the constitution correctly.” Many workers are deprived of voting rights by requiring the payment of a significant amount in the form of an electoral tax and through a residency requirement (in many states, only those who have lived in the state for at least 2 years are allowed to vote). In elections (especially in those states where there are many blacks), methods of intimidation and terror are widely used, for which reactionary organizations hire special gangs. Forgery of electoral lists and ballots is also practiced.

The supreme state power in the United States consists of the president, the bicameral congress (parliament), and the supreme court.

The President of the United States has wide powers, much more than the English king or the French president. He is not only the head of state, but also the head of the executive branch: he forms the cabinet of ministers (called department secretaries in the United States) and directs its work. At the same time, the president and ministers are not accountable to Congress. The President also exerts significant influence

on legislation: he can impose a veto on a law that has passed through Congress, and only if both chambers approve the law by a majority of at least 2/3 of votes, he can enter into force besides the president. The president is elected by the population (not by the parliament, as in France) for 4 years. Of all election campaigns, the presidential elections in the United States are given the highest importance, and political parties mobilize all their forces for them.

It should not be concluded from what has been said that the president has the power to pursue an independent policy. Usually, direct proteges of the largest capitalist groups fall into the presidency, and they carry out their will. Even F. Roosevelt, the most democratic of recent presidents, who was elected for the first time in the midst of a severe crisis of the capitalist system in the United States (1932) and who attracted masses of voters by proclaiming a “new course”, did nothing that would contradict the interests of the “sixty families “, that is, a group of the largest monopolists. On the contrary, under him the monopolists were able to use the Second World War to strengthen their power again. Hand in hand with the monopolists are the military, whose influence on US policy has grown dramatically since the Second World War.

Congress, which is the legislature, consists of the House of Representatives and the Senate. The House of Representatives is elected for two years by state in proportion to the number of residents. Each state sends two representatives to the Senate, regardless of the number of residents. Senators are elected for 6 years,

with one third of the senators being re-elected every two years (so that the composition of the Senate changes gradually, not immediately). Each law must be passed by both chambers before being submitted to the president for approval. But the right to approve international treaties belongs only to the Senate (a majority is required, at least 2/3 votes).

The Supreme Court, composed of 9 permanent judges, is a highly protective body against “dangerous innovations”. It can declare any law passed by Congress to be contrary to the US Constitution and thereby invalidate it. This is an additional control over state power imposed by the ruling class.

With the emergence of the independent USA (1776), they took the form of a federation of self-governing states. But since the end of the XIX century. states’ rights are so curtailed in favor of the central government that the United States is effectively a unitary state.

Among the political parties in the United States, two bourgeois parties play a predominant role—the Democrats and the Republicans. There are no fundamental differences between them. The struggle between them, especially in the presidential elections, is the struggle of various groups of monopoly capital for power, for lucrative positions. This “two-party system”, which boiled down to “quarrels in the family circle”, for a long time distracted the masses from the real political struggle. It was possible because the working class of the United States, despite its large numbers, until recently was little active and poorly organised. The main reasons for this: 1. The huge profits of the

capitalists allowed them (as was the case in England) to create an obedient “labor aristocracy” and thereby weaken the labor movement. 2. The capitalists skillfully split the working masses, infecting whites with contempt for blacks, and among whites opposing “100% Americans” of Anglo-Saxon origin to immigrants of Slavic, Italian, Mexican, Jewish origin, as people of supposedly lower culture. 3. Having in their hands various means of propaganda in the form of schools, the press, radio, cinema, and having trained cadres of hired scribblers, the capitalists poison the consciousness of the workers with constant praise of the American order, shameless slander of communism, the Soviet Union, and all supporters of democracy and progress.

The rise of the US Communist Party (1921) clearly showed that profound shifts had begun in US political life. Overcoming the great difficulties that stand in its way, the US Communist Party is working hard to rally the ranks of the working class, consistently fighting against the internal and foreign policy of American imperialism.

A serious blow to the reactionary “two-party system” is the formation of a progressive party after the Second World War. The Progressive Party unites very diverse democratic circles and is not a socialist party. Its progressive meaning lies in its main features in that it opposes the aggressive foreign policy of the United States, hostile to the Soviet Union and supporting reactionary regimes, against racial discrimination, against the persecution of communists, for reducing military spending, in favor of raising the welfare of the poor.

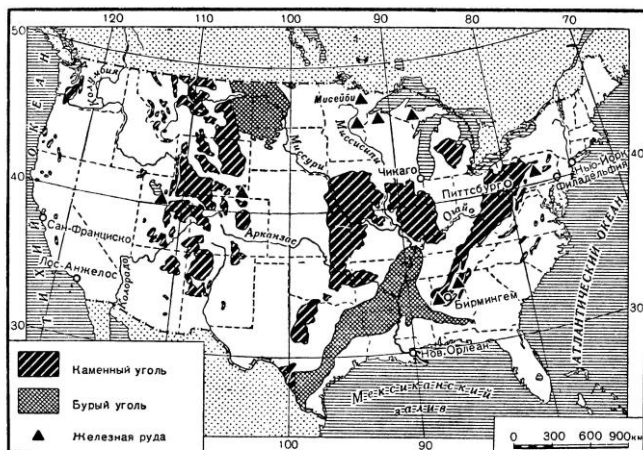
Overview of the Economy

Comrade Stalin defined the United States as the “citadel” of capitalism. In terms of production and the export of goods and capital, the United States far surpasses any capitalist country.

Assessing the United States as the strongest country of capitalism, one must remember that all the contradictions of capitalism - a system condemned to die - are inherent in the United States to the highest degree; these include, first of all, the monstrous oppression of the monopolies, the predatory depletion of resources and the plundering of the working people for the sake of the profits of a handful of capitalists running trusts and “supertrusts” (concerns); these include devastating crises and mass unemployment, which only temporarily ceased with the entry of the United States into the Second World War, but resumed with its end and in 1949 assumed a threatening character, indicating the onset of a new crisis.

Dominance of monopolies. The power of the monopolies is at its highest in the United States. This is a classic country of giant trusts and concerns, handling multi-billion dollar capital. Especially strong are the two financial concerns founded by billionaires Morgan and Rockefeller. Each of them funds a number of powerful trusts, not only American, but also overseas. Morgan and his associates command dozens of industrial companies, including the Steel Trust, which unites the largest metallurgical enterprises, iron mines, coal mines, which have their own railways and a significant

merchant fleet. Rockefeller's Standard-Oil owns most of the oil development in the United States and has expanded its facilities in many oil-rich countries. Huge enterprises for the production of cars - the concerns of Ford and General Motor. General Electric Company (General Electric) - the largest electrotechnical trust of the world. In the chemical industry, DuPont is the leader. The national association / hunters, uniting these and many other companies, is the dominant economic and political force in the country; it is a kind of main headquarters of American imperialism. The monopolies hold the overwhelming majority press and radio, which allows them to process "public opinion", that is, poison the consciousness of Americans with fascist propaganda and slander against the USSR and the People's Democracies.

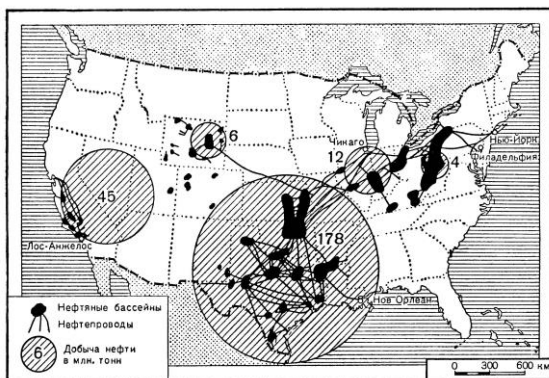


89. Каменноугольные и железорудные бассейны США.

89. Coal and iron ore basins of the USA.

The ratio of industry and agriculture. With the tremendous development of industry, agriculture has remained extremely important in the United States. Industry employs 30% of the independent population, agriculture 19%. In terms of the cost of production, the preponderance of industry is greater (industrial production exceeds agricultural production by about 3 times). In the composition of exports from the United States, along with cars, automobiles and other industrial products, agricultural products, primarily cotton, are of great importance. So the USA by the type of economy, it can be defined as an industrial-agrarian country, but with an increasing prevalence of industry.

Industry composition and location. The structure of the US industry shows a sharp predominance of heavy industry: mining, metallurgy, mechanical engineering, chemistry. But many branches of light industry have also achieved great development—textile, food, woodworking, leather and footwear industries.



90. Добыча нефти по главным бассейнам США в 1947 г.

90. Oil production in the main basins of the United States in 1947

Since the Second World War, the production of weapons has increased dramatically. At the end of the war, the United States not only continues the arms race itself, but also forces the countries dependent on American imperialism to arm and buy American weapons. It is especially characteristic that the United States strives to use atomic energy, which can be of great benefit to mankind, primarily for destruction, not for creation.

An outstanding place is occupied by the fuel and energy industry—mining of coal, oil and gas, electricity production. 49% of total fuel and energy consumption is covered coal, 41%—oil and gas, 10%—water energy. In no major country in the world does oil occupy such an important place in the fuel and energy supply as in the United States. In the production of electricity, 2/3 falls on thermal power plants, 1/3—at hydroelectric power plants; the largest hydroelectric power stations are located on the mountain rivers of the West.

The United States ranks first in the world in the extraction of coal, oil, iron ore, in the smelting of iron and steel, in the extraction and smelting of copper, lead, and zinc. In 1946-1950. the average annual coal production was 536 million tons, oil production was 256 million tons, steel production was 75 million tons.

American capitalists are rapaciously depleting the country's resources with no concern for the future. In the United States, complaints are often heard about the lack of some resources, fears are expressed about their imminent depletion. This is especially true for oil.

Indeed, the place that the United States occupies in world oil production is much higher than the place that

it occupies in the world reserves of this mineral. To keep the production on at such a high level, US oil companies have to drill in huge quantities and to great depths (the deepest wells have reached more than 5 km). But the USA

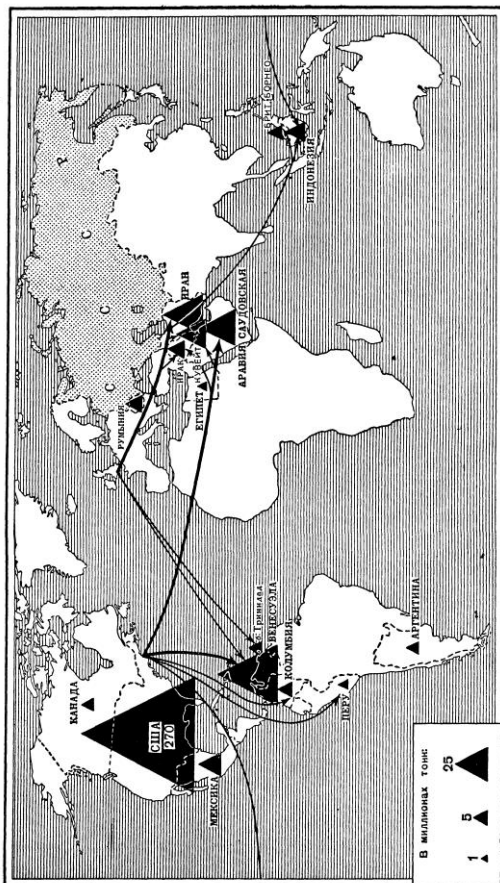
give almost 60% of oil production in the capitalist world and not only are not inclined to limit production, but constantly increase it, proceeding primarily from the strategic importance of oil and from the aggressive policy of American imperialism. When

In such circumstances, the emphasis on insufficient reserves serves the American imperialists to justify the policy of seizing other people's oil wealth, which the oil companies are pursuing USA with government support. American companies produce over 80 million tons of oil abroad (most of all in Venezuela and Saudi Arabia). A similar situation with copper mining: being the world's number one in copper mining, the United States captured the copper deposits in Chile (the largest in the world), a significant part of the copper resources of Canada and the Belgian Congo.

The first mining region in the United States was Pennsylvania, where there is coal, iron ore, and oil. Coal mining then expanded in the neighboring states of Pennsylvania. In general, the Appalachian region provides the bulk of the coal mined. But for the extraction of oil and iron ore, the Appalachian region lost its former importance. Most of all oil now comes from the South-Central region, which lies to the north of the Gulf of Mexico. California ranks second in oil. The main area for iron ore mining is near the Upper Lake

(Miseybi basin); in second place is the area of Birmingham (in the south).

Copper and other non-ferrous metals are mined mainly in the mountainous states.



91. Добыча нефти (1950).
 Указаны страны, дающие 2 млн. т нефти. Стрелки на США и Англии указывают захват нефтяных богатств американскими и английскими компаниями.

91. Oil production (1950).

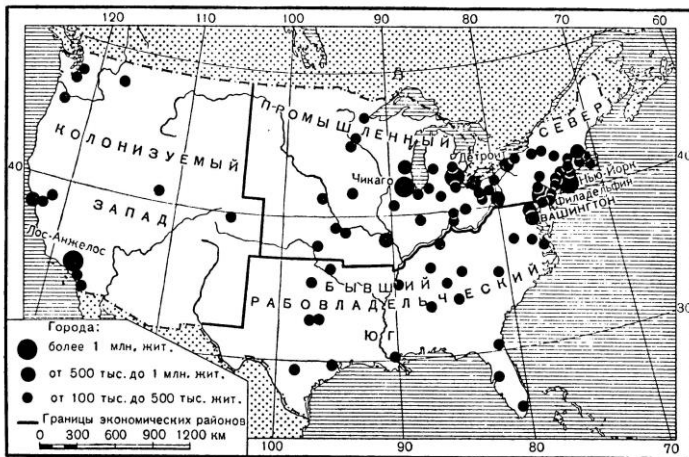
Ferrous metallurgy originally developed in Pennsylvania. But since the centre of iron ore mining moved to the Upper Lake, huge flows of ore (from the northwest to the southeast) and Pennsylvania coal (in the opposite direction) went through the lakes. In this regard, a powerful metal industry was also created on the shores of the Great Lakes (especially near Chicago). Outside of these areas, Birmingham is a significant metallurgical centre, whose factories operate on local ore and local coal.

The location of the manufacturing industry is characterized by pronounced unevenness: 3/4 of industrial production comes from the northeastern states and the Great Lakes region. The most important machine-building plants are concentrated in these areas. They produce a wide variety of machines—cars and steam locomotives, mining machines, electric machines, agricultural machines. The main centre of automotive production is Detroit. During the Second World War aircraft building, shipbuilding and tank building have grown especially strongly. The development of the military industry encompassed not only the leading industrial regions of the North-East and Lakes region, but also the Pacific West and South. Los Angeles became the largest aircraft building centre. But the production of aircraft engines remained in the Great Lakes region and in the Northeast. This points to the relative weakness of the West in mechanical engineering.

The textile industry developed first in the Northeast. But since the end of the XIX century. the textile industry expanded greatly to the south. This shift

to the south occurred due to the fact that in the former slaveholding South wages are lower than in the North, the working day is longer, the working mass is even more deprived of rights.

In the Northeast, where the labor force is more skilled, the production of finer fabrics remained, in the South, the production of coarser varieties developed.



92. Экономические районы и промышленные центры США.

92. Economic regions and industrial centres of the United States.

Agriculture. The United States, with the exception of the South, is characterized by a high degree of development of capitalism in agriculture. This is manifested in the widespread use of hired labor, in the extensive mechanization of production, in the high marketability of the economy, in a sharply defined

specialization of individual agricultural regions. This is also reflected in the sharp property stratification of farmers. The bulk of marketable products are large farmers, running a farm for profit, exploiting hired labour, using machines.

But alongside such capitalist farmers, there is a much larger mass of small farmers who are barely making ends meet and are in unpaid debts to banks and trade organizations. In times of crisis, a very large number of farmers go bankrupt and their land passes for debts into the hands of banks.

In the South, with its cotton and tobacco plantations, bonded sharecropping dominates, retaining a semi-slave character. Agriculture in the South is technically backward compared to the North.

Farms in the United States cover 55% of the entire territory; the processed area is only 27%. A significant part of the territory can be involved in cultivation provided that forests and bushes are cleared, swamps are drained, and irrigated. But the area under the farms after the First World War The war did not expand much, and the number of farms has even decreased since that time.

It is characteristic that the mechanization of agriculture in the United States is combined with the predatory use of land, which has led to the destruction of soil fertility in many parts of the country. This is especially typical for dry steppe regions with extensive farming. The destruction of grass cover and forests by plowing has led to the washing away and blowing of the crushed soil; there are frequent “dusty hurricanes”, from which it becomes dark during the day. American

geographers write about the “desert offensive” in the United States. According to official data, out of 150 million hectares of arable area, 40 million have already become unusable due to the destruction of the soil layer, and another 40 million hectares have been seriously damaged. It is also characteristic that there is no systematic struggle against this scourge. This vividly expresses the opposition between “highly developed capitalism” with its predation, pushed to extreme limits, and the advanced socialist economy of the USSR, which is rapidly implementing a grandiose plan of field protection plantations and other measures that transform nature in the interests of a socialist society.

The predominant sector of US agriculture is animal husbandry. The number of cattle—80 million heads, 60 million pigs, 31 million sheep.

The most common crops are corn and wheat. Corn is mainly used as livestock feed. The main corn region (south of the Great Lakes) is at the same time the main region for beef production.

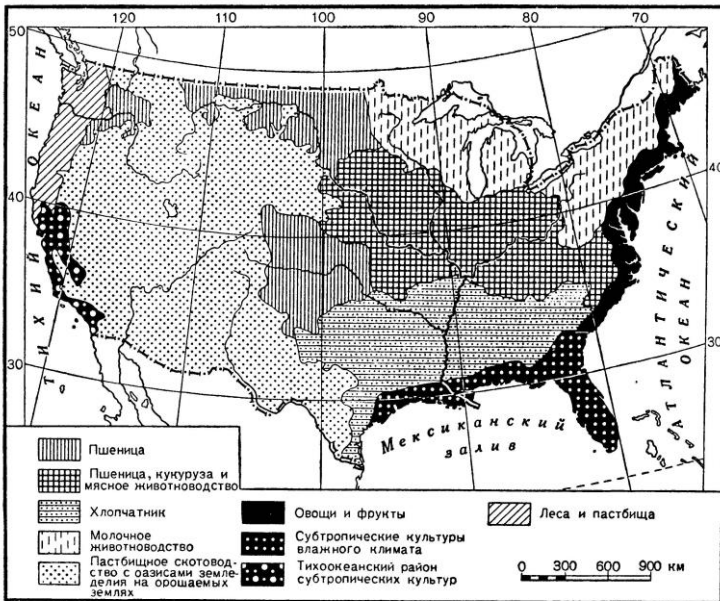
In terms of wheat harvest (an average of 300 million centners per year), the USA is second only to the USSR. The main specially wheat areas lie west of the Mississippi in the prairie region.

Of the industrial crops, cotton is of particular importance (in the South); its collection ranges from 20 to 30-odd million centners per year. The USA is the main supplier of cotton to the world market.

Areas of the most intensive farming are located in the Northeast (dairy farming, truck farming, fruit growing) and in the West, in California (subtropical fruit crops on irrigated lands).

The location of agriculture in the United States is shown on the map (Fig. 92).

Transport. The United States is characterized by a strong development of domestic transport. This is due to both the high marketability of the economy and the distance of the distances separating the producing regions.



93. Размещение сельского хозяйства США.

93. Placement of US Agriculture.

The leading position in transportation is occupied by railway transport. The railway network is 360 thousand km (in all of Western Europe 340 thousand km). Several transcontinental lines cross the United States from

ocean to ocean. The most important of these runs from New York through Chicago to San Francisco. The densest network is in the North-East, the rarest is in the mountainous West.

Shipping on the Great lakes, linking the main iron ore basin with the main coal basins of the United States. But freight traffic along rivers and canals is relatively weak. This is explained by the fierce competition of railway companies. They applied all kinds of means to kill river transport, including the fact that they built railway bridges so that large steamers could not pass under them, they bought land near the quays so that shipping companies have nowhere to build. In this way, the railroad companies secured their transportation monopoly, allowing them to charge high freight charges. The USA is a country with a special development of motoring. The total number of cars in the United States is 45 million, that is, 70% of the world's number.

By the beginning of World War II, the US merchant fleet ranked second in ship tonnage after the British. During the years of the Second World War, the United States built a huge number of standard cargo ships of a simplified type and came out in terms of the size of the merchant fleet (as well as the military) in first place in the world. In 1950, the total tonnage of the US merchant fleet was 26 million tons. Most of the US sea cargo turnover falls on the Atlantic coast, where the largest port of New York and other important ports are located - Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Orleans (on the Gulf of Mexico) ... The main ports on the Pacific Ocean are San Francisco, Los Angeles, Seattle.

Panama Canal. The Panama Canal is of great commercial and strategic importance, providing the shortest connection between the Atlantic and Pacific ports of the United States and shortening the route from the Atlantic ports of the United States to the Far East and Australia.

The construction of the canal began as early as 1881 by an international company (with a predominantly French capital). She went bankrupt with only a fraction of the work done. In 1904, the USA bought this business. Before that, the United States seized the territory of Panama from Colombia, to which it belonged: a “revolution” was staged and the “independence” of Panama was proclaimed; the latter immediately gave the US a strip of land along which the canal passes. In 1914 the canal was finished. The canal is 81 km long; its middle part lies 26 m above sea level.

There is a project to rebuild the canal to bring it to ocean level. This project is caused not so much by commercial necessity (the Panama Canal in its present form allows for an even strong increase in traffic), as by the strategic goals of the United States.

External economic relations. Foreign trade and the export of capital are an important component of the aggression of American imperialism.

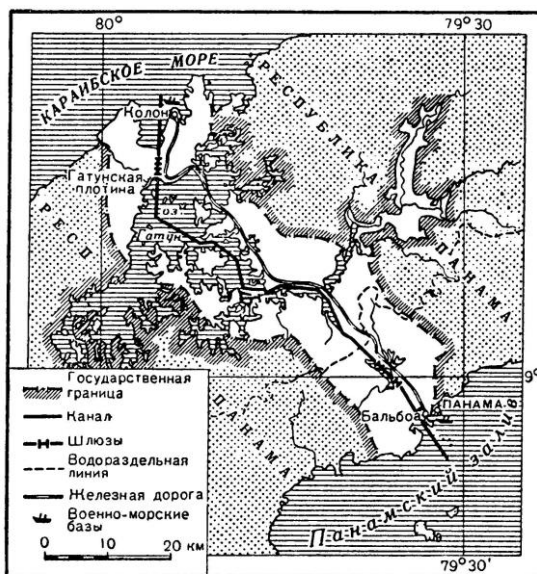
Before the Second World War, the United States in terms of foreign trade turnover contested the first place with Great Britain, greatly inferior to her in imports, but surpassing her in the export of goods (unlike Great Britain, the United States exported more than imported). In terms of the amount of capital invested

abroad, the United States was somewhat inferior to Great Britain.

After the war, the United States launched economic aggression along with military-political aggression. Its central link is the Marshall Plan. Under this “plan” the United States provides subsidies and loans to those countries whose governments have agreed to go into American bondage. For such “help” the United States, firstly, forces these countries to take goods that are profitable for the Americans to sell (quite often they are not those that importing countries really need); at the same time, the United States itself has the full opportunity to choose for itself such goods as it finds necessary, and receive them at a cheap price. Secondly, the United States interferes in the economic life of the “marshalling” of other countries, exerts pressure on their domestic and foreign policies, which is used by the American imperialists to fight against democratic movements, to form aggressive anti-Soviet blocs. Third, the United States is pushing out its competitors, primarily England, from the world market. In this respect, the increased penetration of American capital and goods into the British, French, Dutch, and Belgian colonies is especially indicative. At the same time, American capital seizes important sources of strategic raw materials (for example, uranium ore from the Belgian Congo).

Ultimately, the countries that have accepted American “aid” are being robbed and enslaved. This is especially clear can be seen in the example of West Germany, from where the Americans export a huge amount of goods for nothing, forcing the Germans pay

exorbitant prices for American goods sold under the guise of “aid.” England and France are forced to pay for “aid” with huge losses, which they incur in colonial and other markets. It goes without saying about the political and economic damage inflicted on the “Marshallised” countries by being drawn into the aggressive adventures of American imperialism. It is characteristic that in the United States itself “the plan Marshall “damages the working people and brings profits to the monopolies: the costs of implementing the” plan “are borne by the state, which spends national funds on it, while the profits go to monopolists who receive orders from the state for supplies goods.



94. Панамский канал.

94. Panama Canal.

The economic ties of the United States and with the non-European countries of the capitalist world are being built along the same type of imposition of goods and capital, along the type of gross violation of the sovereignty of other countries.

With regard to economic ties with the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracies, the United States is pursuing a policy of discrimination, in other words, putting all sorts of slingshots against the development of these ties and demanding the same from its vassals. Thus, they are trying to hinder the progressive development of the countries of the democratic camp. This attempt with unsuitable means is detrimental not so much to those against whom it is directed, as to its initiators.

Along with manufactured goods (automobiles, machinery, chemical products, weapons), raw materials, semi-finished goods, food (cotton, oil and oil products, grain, canned meat, tobacco, etc.) occupy an important place in the export of the United States. It is characteristic that in its supplies under the "Marshall Plan" the United States avoids supplying Western European countries with machinery and equipment so necessary for the restoration and development of their industry; on the other hand, the industrial production of these countries is undermined by the increased import of American goods; the goal of such a policy is to hinder the independent development of these countries, to ensure their economic dependence on the United States.

The United States imports raw materials and some types of food products (such as coffee, sugar, fruits of tropical countries). The preponderance of exports over imports after the Second World War reached enormous proportions.

Regions

The economic development of the United States, as we know, for a long time followed two different paths. The North occupied a leading position in the development of industry and capitalist agriculture, in the construction of railways and canals, in the growth of cities. The slave-owning South lagged behind in all these respects.

The colonisation of the West by the United States began later than the colonization of the North and South. Only from the middle of the XIX century. colonization crossed the line formed by the Rocky Mountains, and the settlement of the Far West, that is, the mountainous and Pacific states, began. The most vigorous settlement of the West took place in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, but the West is still distinguished by a weak population density (especially in the mountainous states), a smaller density of the railway network, and an insignificant share of developed lands.

Since the victory of the capitalist North over the slave-owning South (in the war of 1861-1865), the latter has been drawn into the general course of capitalist development in the United States. Since the end of the XIX century. the textile industry is advancing to the

South; in the South, a significant region of heavy industry is being created (Birmingham). A dense rail network linked the South with other parts of the United States. But the historical differences between North and South have not disappeared. Capitalism has not eradicated the remnants of slavery on South. The standard of living of working people (especially blacks) in the South is even lower than in the North. The North retains a leading position in industrial power, as well as in the general development of capitalism. The South also lags sharply behind in cultural terms: the percentage of illiterates here is three times higher than in the North.

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Thus, on the territory of the United States there are three main regions: 1) the industrial North, 2) the former slave-owning South, 3) the colonized West. This division was adopted by Lenin, who studied the development of capitalism in US agriculture.

Indicators	North	South	West
Territory.....	31	30	39
Population.....	56	31	13
Products from the mining industry ...	30	51	19
Products from the processing industry	74	17	9
Agricultural products	51	31	18
Railways	47	36	17

The table on page 320 shows the distribution of US territory, population, mining, manufacturing and agricultural products, and rail network (percentage) among these three areas.

The differences between the main regions of the United States are also sharply emphasized by the map of the location of industrial centres (see Fig. 91).

North

As can be seen from the above table, the North of the United States, occupying less than 1/3 of the territory of the entire country, gives almost 3/4 of the total production of the manufacturing industry and more than half of agricultural products. But over the vast territory of the industrial North, there are significant differences in the economic development. Given these differences, the North should be subdivided into 3 regions: the industrial North-East adjacent to the

Atlantic Ocean, the industrial-agricultural Proizerny region (or the Near West) and the agricultural region of the Midwest.

Industrial North-East. The North-East region includes 6 small states of New England (the most important of which is Massachusetts) and 3 Mid-Atlantic states: New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey. It is the most industrialised region in the industrial North, with the highest urban population. The role of the Northeastern Region is exceptionally great for US foreign relations.

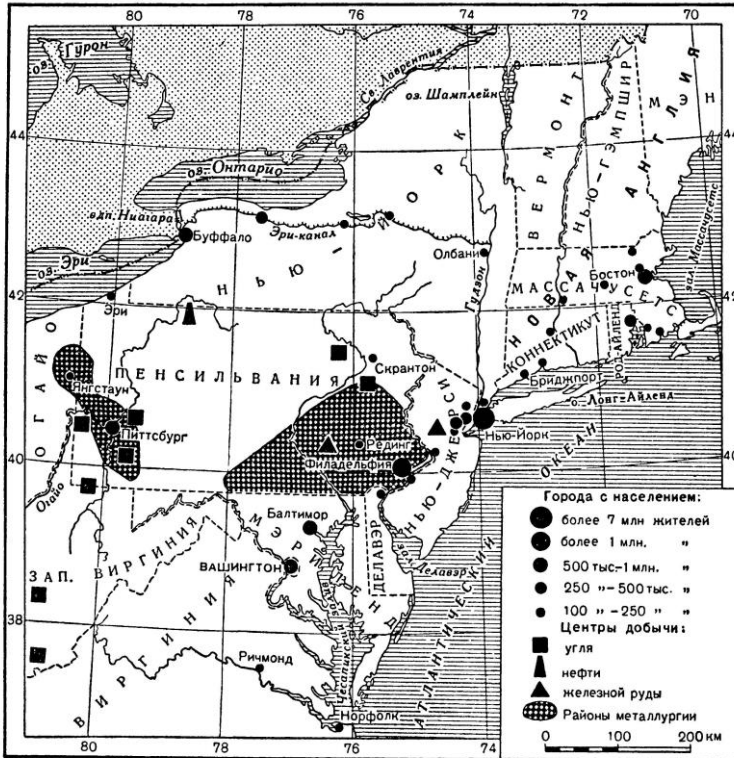
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Even before the formation of the independent United States, cloth, linen, and small metal items were made here; from here to all parts of the country hawkers with all sorts of small goods went. The presence in Pennsylvania of deposits of coal, iron, and oil provided the basis for the development of the heavy industry of the Northeast.

Thus, the industrial development of the North-Eastern region relied on the benefits of the seaside location, on the accumulation of skilled labor and on

the availability of powerful mineral resources. To this it must be added that the constant influx of immigrants, a significant part of whom settled in the North-East, provided more and more new workers for the industry.



95. Северо-Восток США.

95. Northeast USA.

The oldest industrial area in the North East is New England. A variety of light industry is developed here.

The most prominent are the textile industry, the leather and footwear industry, the small metal industry, fine mechanical engineering, and the production of firearms. The most important industrial centre and port of New England is Boston.

The coastline south of New England between New York and Philadelphia is an almost continuous chain of industrial cities.

New York is the largest seaport in the United States. It accounts for half of all imports and almost half of all US exports. The main bulk of immigrants arriving in the United States passes through New York. In terms of commercial and financial importance, New York is superior not only in the United States, but throughout the entire capitalist world. As a political centre, New York is much more important than Washington; Wall Street, the street where the main banks are located, actually directs the policy of the US government. The New York industry is extremely diverse. The industries that are characteristic of a huge city are distinguished, such as the sewing, construction, printing industry. Strongly developed electrical engineering and a variety of fine mechanical engineering. In the suburbs of New York - oil refineries, rubber factories, processing imported rubber, copper smelters, etc.

New York is located at the mouth of the river. Hudson, connecting the Great Lakes with the ocean through the Erie Canal. The densest railroad network converges to New York from all over the United States. The central part of New York is located on the island of Manhattan. To the south, on Long Island, Brooklyn is located (part of New York). There are a number of

suburbs on the mainland. According to the ethnic composition of the population, New York is a real ethnographic museum. There are more visitors here than anywhere else who still keep your language and your habits. New York is said to have more Italians than Rome and more Irish than Dublin. Blacks live in a special quarter.

New York is the city of the notorious American “skyscrapers”. Here is the tallest building in the world - a house with 102 floors, about 400 m in height. The growth of buildings in height, which was the result of the cramped and high cost of land, then turned into a record and a means of advertising. Powerful financial firms are vying to construct buildings of striking size that stand out sharply in the city skyline. Skyscrapers do not cover the entire area of American cities. Groups of skyscrapers or single skyscrapers rise above ordinary buildings of 6-8 floors, “... dull, heavy buildings rise up gloomily and boringly. In every house one can feel arrogant arrogance with its height, with its ugliness, “- this is how M. Gorky described the New York skyscrapers. The parade parts of the city, with their claims of grandeur, are opposed by the slums of the workers’ quarters. Gorky, who gave a scourging characterization of New York in his essay “City of the Yellow Devil”, wrote about the working-class area of the East Side: “I saw a lot of poverty, I know its green, bloodless, bony face ... but the horror of poverty is East—Saida is the darkest thing I know.

In these streets, full of people, like sacks of cereals, children greedily look for rotten vegetables in boxes with garbage standing by the panels and devour them

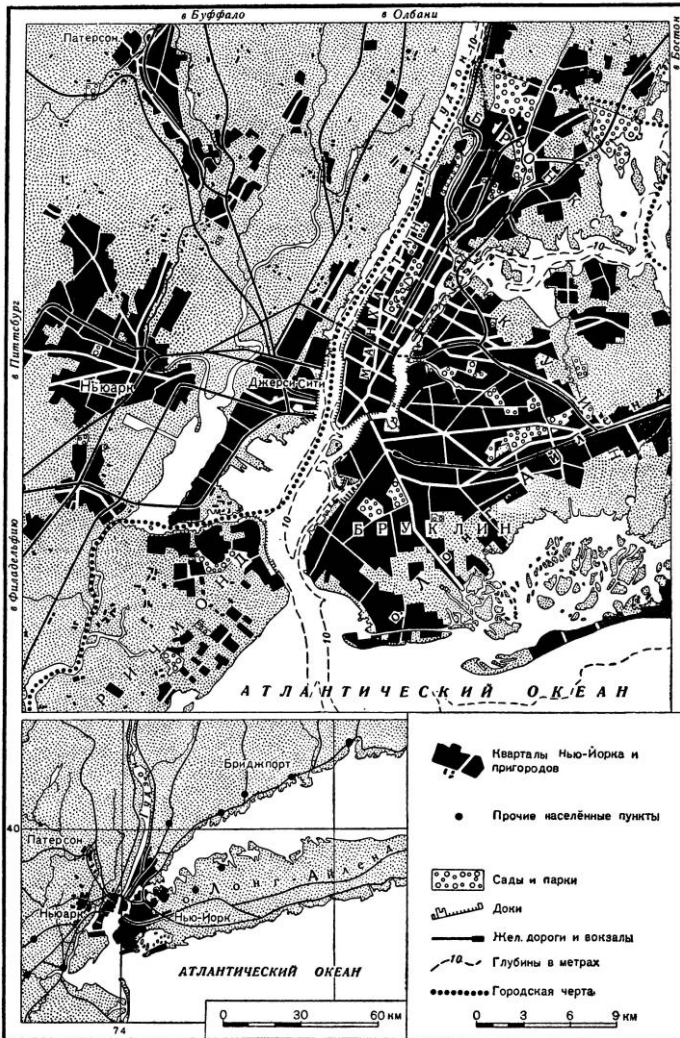
along with mold right there, in the acrid dust and stuffiness.

Philadelphia (central Pennsylvania), located in the lower reaches of the river. Delaware is the third largest city in the United States in terms of population and industrial production. The industrial specialization of Philadelphia and its suburbs is influenced by the connection with the mining areas of Pennsylvania. Here the production of machines for the mining industry, rails, pipes, steam locomotives, carriages, etc. is developed. But along with heavy industry, various light industries serving widespread consumption are of great importance.

Western Pennsylvania represents the main coal and steel industry in the United States. The centre of the mining area is Pittsburgh, at the river. Ohio. The outskirts of Pittsburgh are occupied by coal mines, metallurgical and engineering plants. At Niagara Falls - hydroelectric installations, partly owned by Canada, Part of the United States. They transmit energy within a radius of 150-200 km.

Along with densely populated, purely industrial areas in the Northeast, areas with a predominance of agriculture and even poorly developed forest areas, used mainly for tourism (northern New England), have survived. But on the whole, agriculture fell into a subordinate position. It supplies cities with fresh milk, poultry, vegetables, fruits, that is, it has a suburban character.

Lakeside industrial and agricultural region. This area includes the lakeside states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, and eastern Minnesota.



96. Схематический план Нью-Йорка.

96. Schematic plan of New York.

In terms of its industrial development, this region ranks second after the North-East. But in contrast to the Northeast, agriculture remains of great importance here, and industry also developed in close connection with agriculture: processing of agricultural raw materials (giant slaughterhouses, meat-packing plants, mills, butter factories) and agricultural machinery occupy an important place. But, in addition, the mining industry is of great importance (especially the extraction of iron ore near the Upper Lake), there is large-scale metallurgy, various mechanical engineering, and especially the automotive industry, which provides the overwhelming majority of cars produced in the United States.

The waterway along the Great Lakes is of particular importance for the industrial development of this region. A very large amount of cargo passes through it: from the west—iron ore, timber, grain, from the east—Pennsylvanian coal, industrial products of the North-Eastern region. On the routes of these cargoes, along the coast of the lakes, many industrial settlements arose. The most important of these is Chicago, located at the southern end of Lake Michigan. Chicago is the “capital of the Middle West”, the second US city in terms of population, industrial production, trade turnover and financial importance. As a rail hub, Chicago ranks first in the United States; 32 long-distance lines depart from it, not counting small ones. The particular transport importance of Chicago is due to its position at the southern end of the Great Lakes: many railways that skirted the Great Lakes from the south passed through Chicago. The following branches

are distinguished in the industry of Chicago: 1) meat canning (the famous Chicago slaughterhouses); 2) metallurgical (the largest factories in the suburb of Chicago - Gary); 3) mechanical engineering, especially agricultural, transport and electrical engineering; 4) printing, sewing and other industries caused by the needs of the city itself.

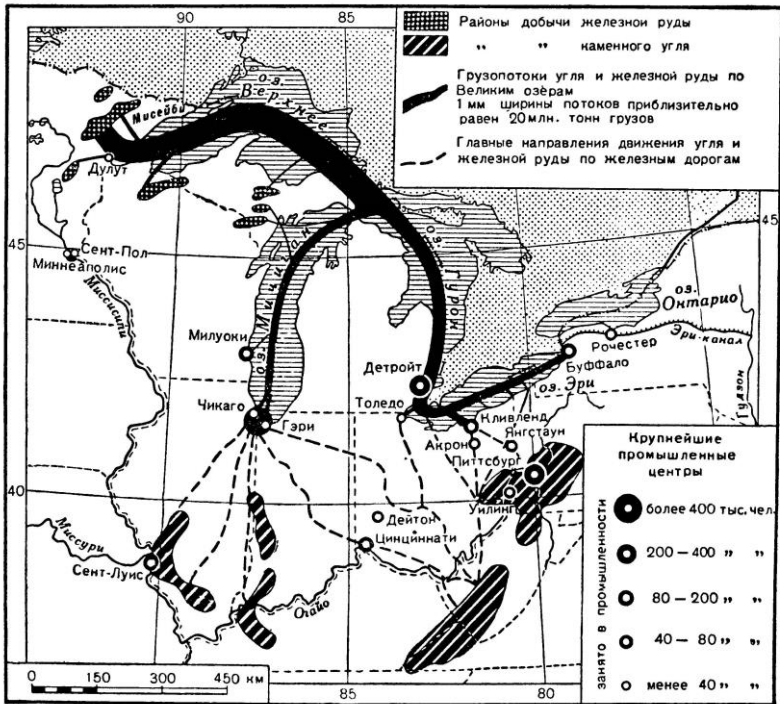
The second city of the USA—Chicago—no less than New York, strikes with the deformities of its reality. In the words of M. Gorky, here “in addition to the bandits of the stock exchange and banks, bandits with revolvers and bombs in their hands are also free to run.” Indeed, Chicago is “famous” for banditry, which has the character of organized enterprises with bribed police and the press.

The second most important industrial centre of the district is Detroit, on the channel from Lake Huron to Lake Erie. Detroit - car centre.

On Lake Erie are located: Cleveland - an important centre of metal and mechanical engineering, and Buffalo (at the beginning of Erikanal, connecting the Great Lakes with New York)—a major centre of metallurgy and food industry. All of these cities are large ports. But the largest port in terms of cargo turnover is Dulut at the western end of Lake Superior. He sends iron ore (from the nearby Misyebi iron ore basin) and wheat (from the regions adjacent to the west), receives coal, cars.

In terms of agricultural use, the territory of the Priozerny region is divided as follows (see Fig. 92): in the extreme north, in the region of Lake Verkhny, significant forests have been preserved; most of the

lakeside strip proper is occupied by dairy cattle breeding, which has reached a particularly high development in the west, in the state of Wisconsin; from the south, the belt of maize and beef cattle breeding adjoins the lakeside strip.



97. Район Великих озёр.

97. The Great Lakes Region.

Agricultural region of the Midwest. This huge region, lying to the west of the Priozernoye region, on the Prairie plateau, stands out among the regions of the

North for its agrarian character and low population density. It is the most important area for wheat, corn and beef production.

The settlement of this area took place later than the settlement of the Priozerne area. Highly commodity agriculture with highly developed mechanization and large farms immediately developed here. Fertile soils (chernozem or chestnut) prevail. But this is an area of frequent droughts, crops are unstable. The destructive effect of droughts is intensified by the predatory soil depletion practiced by farmers (insufficient fertilization, depleting the soil, repetition of the same crops), and due to the lack of systematic work on irrigation and afforestation. From this, the topsoil is easily weathered, sand drifts occur, the fertility of the earth is destroyed. The masses of farmers here were devastated and forced to abandon their farms and fields.

The predominant industry in the Midwest is food (flour and meat). The main industrial centres are all on the eastern outskirts, near the border with the Priozerne region. Double city Minneapolis - Saint Paul (together 780 thousand—over 800 thousand inhabitants), located on the river. Mississippi (at the beginning of shipping)—the largest milling centre in the United States; Kansas City and Omaha, both on the r. Missouri are the centres of slaughterhouses and meat canning factories that compete with the Chicago industry. At the confluence of Missouri and Mississippi, there is a large industrial city of St. Louis (850 thousand inhabitants).

South

From the table above, it can be seen that the South lags far behind in its industrial development not only from the industrial North, but also from the average indicators for the United States as a whole: the South accounts for 30% of the entire US territory, 31% of the total population, but only 17% of production manufacturing industry. The share of the South in the production of mining (51%) and agriculture (31%) is significantly higher. This shows that the South produces mainly agricultural and mineral raw materials with a relatively weak development of the manufacturing industry. But the main thing that distinguishes the South from the rest of the United States, and which largely explains its industrial backwardness, is the presence of remnants of slavery in the social system of the South.

The abolition of slavery changed the form of dependence of black farmers, but did not destroy its essence. In the former slave-owning states of the South, the land remained with the large landowners, and the overwhelming majority of the farmers were small tenant-sharecroppers, poor and enslaved by debt. Of this almost powerless mass, the so-called croppers (literally, "harvest workers") are in the worst position. They do not have their own home, equipment, or working capital. Working on the landlord's land, with the landlord's tools, they, in essence, are in the position of hired workers, receiving wages not in money, but share of the crop. It is believed that the owner receives% of the harvest of cotton and other crops, but in fact this share is much higher. The profitability of

farms is low due to backward farming. Almost all small cotton growers have to resort to loans by the end of winter. Usury is very developed here, and the interest from the borrower is taken the higher, the greater the need for a loan. Since the moneylender is very often the same landowner - the owner of the cropper, it is clear that when calculating with him, the cropper does not have to argue (here they say: "a request from a disgruntled cropper for the final settlement is tantamount to an attempt at suicide through lynching"). It was not for nothing that Lenin called the American South a prison for "liberated" blacks.

The main crop of the South is cotton. The cotton belt occupies the very heart of the South (see Fig. 92). The development of cotton growing in the United States was inextricably linked with slavery, and at present the remnants of slavery are strongest in the cotton farms of the eastern part of the cotton belt, which developed during the slave era. But later cotton growing moved westward, and a powerful new cotton growing area grew in Texas, which in the past had neither cotton nor slavery. Here the technical level is higher, machines are used, while in the old part of the cotton belt they work by hand, in the old testament way.

The second most important commercial crop is tobacco (in the east). In the Atlantic states of the South, the production of early vegetables is developed, which are sent by special trains to the cities of the North. In Florida, the citrus culture of oranges and lemons is also of great importance. Florida attracts many visitors as a winter resort.

In the development of the mining industry, the South has recently become ahead of the North mainly due to the growth of oil production: the main oil state is Texas. West Virginia is home to one of the largest coal mining areas, an extension of the adjacent Pennsylvania Coal Region. In terms of iron ore mining, the South is far behind the North, although it has enormous resources.

Manufacturing industries are: textile (in the east), oil refinery (in the west, in the Gulf of Mexico), metal (Birmingham), shipbuilding (Baltimore on the Chesapeake Bay), woodworking, tobacco. On the river Tennessee is a series of power plants feeding a diverse industry.

The South differs both from the North and even from the West in the weaker development of cities. There is not a single city here that has reached a million inhabitants. The largest city - Baltimore (940 thousand inhabitants) - lies on the very border with the North-East; in type and connections, he belongs rather to the Seyer than to the South. Not far away is Washington, the capital of the United States (880 thousand inhabitants), a city built specifically as an administrative centre and not of great economic importance. Here is the Capitol (the meeting place of the US Congress), the "White House" (the residence of the president) and government offices.

In the very south, New Orleans stands out (at the mouth of the Mississippi) - the main US port on the Gulf of Mexico (567 thousand inhabitants).

Birmingham is the centre of the metal industry in the South; Richmond, a historic nest of the southern aristocracy and capital of the South during the Civil War

of 1861-1865, is now known only for its tobacco factories.

West

Of the three main divisions of the United States, the West (Americans call it the Far West) is the largest in area and the least populated. The mountainous states (the Cordillera region) are particularly poorly populated; here the density is less than 2 people per 1 sq. km. The settlement of the Pacific states (California, Oregon and Washington) is going much faster. While in the mountain states the largest city of Denver has only 320,000 inhabitants, the Pacific states of Los Angeles and San Francisco (with suburbs) have far more than a million inhabitants.

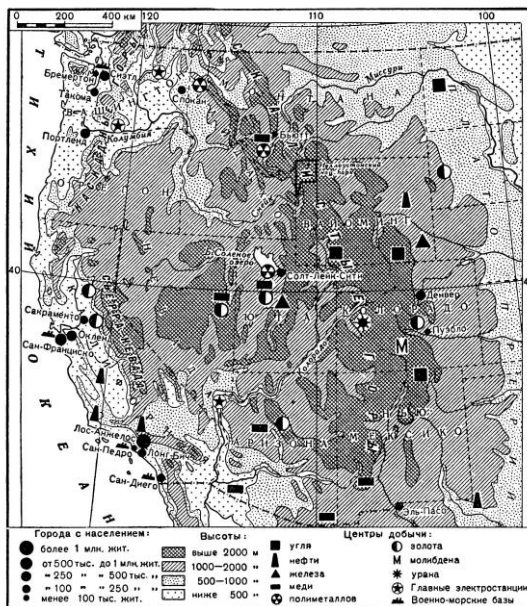
The entire area of the West, with the exception of the northwest corner, is an arid region. The prevailing landscape is dry steppes, semi-deserts, mountain ranges. Farming almost everywhere requires artificial irrigation. The cultivated irrigated lands are located in oases among vast expanses of mountainous wastelands. The most important irrigated area is the California Valley, along the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers, which flow into the San Francisco Ocean.

Fruit growing is developed here, specialized in valuable subtropical crops (citrus fruits). Summer is rainless here. For irrigation, water is collected on mountain slopes in artificial reservoirs from melting snow; from these reservoirs, irrigation has been carried out to all ends of the California Valley. A fruit canning

industry is developed, working for the domestic market and for export.

Another important agricultural area in the West is the Northwest Corner (Columbia Plateau and Puget Sound). This is the main grain region of the West (wheat). Gardening (apples) is also widespread here. The timber industry is of the greatest importance here; Washington State ranks first in timber production.

In the rest of the West, the predominant branch of agriculture is pastoralism. Irrigated land in mountainous states is often used for crops of forage grasses, providing a reserve of food for the winter when grazing ends.



98. Запад США.

98. US West

A lot of land in the West has been withdrawn from general economic use. These are Indian reservations and numerous reserves - national forests and national parks. Of the national parks, the most remarkable is Yellowstone Park with a peculiar and picturesque nature (rocks, rivers flowing in deep canyons and forming waterfalls, geysers, forests with wild animals).

The mining industry is of great importance in the economy of the West. The West accounts for the overwhelming part of all non-ferrous and precious metals mining in the United States. In southern California, near Los Angeles, is an important oil-producing region.

Large power plants built on mountain rivers (Colorado, Columbia) play an important role in the economy of the West.

The manufacturing industry is most developed in the coastal region. During the Second World War, aircraft building and shipbuilding especially increased here. California is at the forefront of industrial development. The most important industrial centre here is Los Angeles, the city of the oil industry, aircraft industry and film factories (in the suburb of Los Angeles—Hollywood); the neighborhood of Los Angeles is extremely favorable for filming; the landscape is diverse (sea, oases of subtropical vegetation, hills and high mountains up to snowy peaks, nearby are areas of sandy desert), the weather is almost entirely sunny.

San Francisco is the most important US port in the Pacific. The port of Seattle in Puget Sound is also of great importance (from here to Japan and to Shanghai are closer than from San Francisco or Los Angeles).

Puget Sound is important as a strategic base for the US Navy in the Pacific Ocean.

US holdings and bases

On the North American mainland, the United States owns Alaska with the Aleutian Islands, a huge but sparsely populated country (1519 thousand sq. Km \ only 128 thousand inhabitants, most Americans, 32 thousand indigenous people - Eskimos, Indians and Aleuts).

Alaska was discovered in 1732 by the Russian expedition of Fedorov and Gvozdev. In 1741 the Alaska coast and the Aleutian Islands were visited by the expedition of Bering and Chirikov. After that, Russian mechanics began to sail here, who laid the foundation for Russian America. A particularly large role in the study and development of Alaska was played by G. PTelikhov, a man of outstanding energy and broad outlook, who founded in 1783 a company to use the fur resources of this region, and A. Baranov, an associate and successor of Shelikhov, who became the ruler of Russian America, who founded its capital - Novo Arkhangelsk (Sitku) on the island of Baranov. Under Baranov, Russian settlements spread to California, Fort Ross was founded near San Francisco. But in 1867 the tsarist government sold Alaska to the United States.

The seas surrounding Alaska are rich in fish and sea animals. Marine fisheries are the most important industry in Alaska. In second place is gold mining. Large reserves of coal and forest resources are poorly developed. Only a tiny fraction of the usable land is used for agriculture. During the Second World War, a

highway was laid through the territory of Canada, connecting Alaska with the West of the United States.

After the Second World War, in connection with the aggressive plans of the United States, Alaska turns into a bridgehead for American imperialism, pushed both to the north and to the west, that is, directed against the northern and eastern territories of the USSR. Air and naval bases are being intensively built in Alaska and the Aleuts.

In Central America, the United States owns the Panama Canal zone with naval bases at both canal exits (see above for the meaning of the canal).

In the central part of the Pacific Ocean, the United States owns the Hawaiian Islands—an important strategic position at the intersection of the routes linking America with Asia; the main city and port of Hawaii is Honolulu; the naval base is Pearl Harbor, near Honolulu. In addition, the United States owns some of the smaller islands in the Pacific, including Guam, located among the Japanese Mariana Islands, and part of the Samoan Islands.

The western Pacific is home to the vast and resource-rich group of the Philippine Islands, owned by the United States, which in 1934 promised full independence to the Philippines. In 1946, the independence of the Philippines was formally granted (the Philippines became a republic), but the US armed forces remain in the Philippines, and the economy of the Philippines is still subordinated to American capital. Thus, only the form of dependence on the United States has changed. The main city and port of the Philippines is Manila.

On the Caribbean Sea, the United States owns the island of Puerto Rico, with several small islands nearby; the main city, port and naval base in Puerto Rico is San Juan.

The United States has vast spheres of influence in Latin America. The influence of the USA on the small states of Central America and the West Indies is especially great.

During World War II, by agreement with Britain, the United States organized its naval and air bases in a number of British possessions in the Atlantic Ocean and the Caribbean Sea, including Newfoundland, Bermuda, Trinidad, and British Guiana. In addition, the United States has established bases in Iceland, in southern Greenland, on the Brazilian coast. After the end of the war, the United States not only does not reduce its expanded network of bases, but persistently strives for its further expansion. They intend to gain a foothold and create bases on the numerous islands of the Pacific Ocean that belonged to Japan (Mariana, Marshall, Karolinsky, Ryukyu, Bonin, etc.), to maintain bases in Iceland, Greenland, etc. They are drawing other capitalist countries into aggressive blocs directed against the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracy, they seek to turn the capitalist countries of Europe, North Africa, and Asian countries, especially those that border the Soviet Union, into their paraphernalia. They tried unsuccessfully to enslave China, but captured the island of Taiwan belonging to China. They fueled the imperialist war in Korea. This adventurous policy of inciting a new world war is

opposed by the invincible camp of democracy and peace led by the Soviet Union, finding more and more allies. The shameful failure of the American policy of enslaving China, as well as the failure of “atomic diplomacy,” are serious warnings to the presumptuous pretenders to world domination.

CANADA

British dominion Canada occupies the northern half of the North American mainland, with the exception of US-owned Alaska. In 1949, Newfoundland was annexed to Canada, which until 1933 was a separate British dominion, and then deprived of the rights of dominion.

The area of Canada is 10 million square meters. km (including 0.6 million sq. km is occupied by inland waters); population 14 million The capital is Ottawa.

Natural conditions. In the north, Canada's possessions go to the Arctic Ocean, where Canada owns the uninhabited Arctic archipelago. The northern coast is highly dissected. The Hudson Bay cuts deep, cutting off the huge Labrador Peninsula. The transport value of Hudson Bay is not great: it is ice-free only 3 months a year. Much more important is the dissection of the eastern coast. Bay of St. Lawrence with the river flowing into it. St. Lawrence opens the way inland, to the Great Lakes. But the mouth of the river. St. Lawrence for 4-6 months a year is blocked by ice. To the south, the Nova Scotia Peninsula extends into the sea. The port of Halifax, located on its coast, is accessible for shipping all year round.

The Pacific coast is riddled with fjords. The Pacific Ocean off the coast of Canada does not freeze.

Eastern Canada is a somewhat elevated plain, which is not very suitable for agriculture in terms of climate and soils. The valley of the river is distinguished by more fertile soils. St. Lawrence. Forming a road from

the Atlantic Ocean to the Great Lakes, this valley was inhabited by Europeans before the rest of Canada.

The far west, as in the United States, is occupied by the Cordillera mountain ranges. To the east of the Cordillera lies a low plateau, a continuation of the US Prairie Plateau.

Canada owns the northern coast of the Great Lakes. There are many deep rivers. The reserves of water energy are large. The huge lakes and rivers of northern Canada are frozen in ice for most of the year.

Of the fossil resources, Canada has huge reserves of coal (1,100 billion tons), but low quality coal predominates; the main reserves are in the west. There are also significant oil reserves. Newfoundland and Labrador are rich in good quality iron ore. There are very large reserves of non-ferrous and precious metals - gold, silver, platinum, nickel, copper, lead, zinc.

The climate of Canada is more influenced by the proximity of the Arctic Ocean than the climate of the United States. This influence is especially unfavorable for eastern Canada, along which the cold Labrador Current runs. In Labrador at latitude 56° , that is, at the latitude of Moscow, the tundra is already beginning. The Labrador current carries huge icebergs far to the south (in 1912, when one of the greatest steamers, the Titanic, collided with the underwater part of such an iceberg).

Less severe climatic conditions in central and western Canada, where the influence of the warmer Pacific Ocean is already affecting. The taiga here goes beyond the Arctic Circle, the tundra retreats to the north; in the south, in central Canada, stretches the

prairies, an extension of the US prairies. The climate here is continental, rather dry, with hot summers and severe winters. As in the United States, the prairie region has fertile soils.

Canada is extremely rich in forest (covers about 1/3 of the entire country). Coniferous forests prevail.

Newfoundland Beach in the Atlantic Ocean is renowned for its fishy wealth.

Population. The first Europeans to establish permanent settlements in Canada, there were French people who settled in the valley R. St. Lawrence. French and English colonists settled on the Atlantic coast. Until 1763, Canada belonged to France. There were constant clashes between the French and English colonists. In 1763 England captured Canada. Canada, like the United States, has attracted mixed immigration from almost all European countries: 50% of the population by origin—immigrants from Great Britain (British, Irish, Scots), 30%—French, settling compact mass river valley. St. Lawrence (province of Quebec) and preserving their language. Most of the rest of the population are Germans, Ukrainians, Scandinavians. Indigenous population - Indians and Eskimos - only 125 thousand people remained from the extermination and oppression by the European colonialists.

Economy. Canada is a developed industrial and agricultural country. Possessing a highly commodity, highly mechanized agriculture, Canada has also developed a strong industry (mining, forestry, paper, engineering, especially automobile). Water

electrification plays a huge role in industry and throughout the Canadian economy. Steel smelting has reached 3 million tons. Oil production has increased in recent years.

The importance of Canada in the world economy can be judged by this example: in terms of the export of goods, it is on a par with France, far superior to Italy. The bulk of the export is provided by raw and semi-processed products of agriculture (wheat, flour, meat, dairy products), forestry (timber, wood pulp), mining (non-ferrous metals) and fishing. The export of finished products (paper, cars) is also significant. In the context of World War II, Canada played a very important role for England in supplying both raw materials and weapons. For the production of aluminum, aircraft, tanks, shipbuilding, Canada gave more than any other of the dominions.

As a British dominion, Canada is also heavily dependent on the United States. The most important branches of Canadian industry are mainly built by American capital. US capital investments in Canada's economy are larger than those of England. Canada is one of the active participants in the aggressive North Atlantic Pact, created to unleash a new war.

Regions. The inhabited strip of Canada is stretched from ocean to ocean with a long narrow ribbon. The limits of this habitable strip can best be traced from the map of the location of the railway network. Outside the areas covered by railways, one can find only individual mining settlements, fur-industrial trading posts, dwellings of Indians and Eskimos who live by hunting, reindeer husbandry and fishing. This is the north of

Canada. The gold rush, which glorified at the end of the 19th century. the river Klondike, long ago subsided with the depletion of gold-bearing placers.

Near the Big Bear Lake, there are major uranium developments, which have gained special importance since the Second World War in connection with the production of atomic bombs. In recent years, northern Canada has become a place of military preparations (airfield equipment, military expeditions and manoeuvres) aimed at creating a bridgehead in northern Canada against the USSR.

The inhabited territory of Canada can be divided into 3 economic regions: 1) the Eastern region, adjacent to the Great Lakes, r. St. Lawrence and the Atlantic Ocean; 2) the Midwest, covering the steppe region of inner Canada; 3) Western, adjacent to the Pacific Ocean.

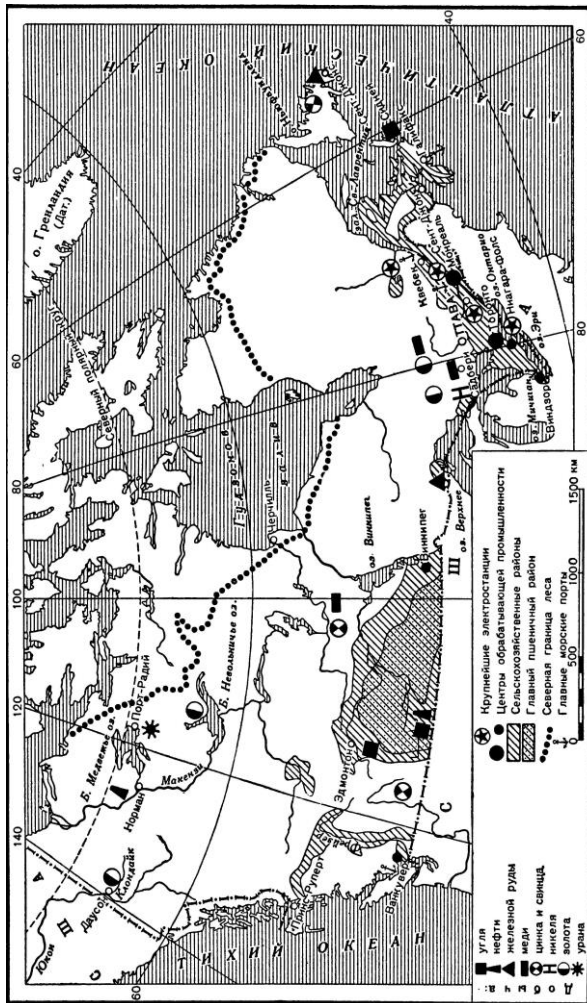
The East Region is Canada's main industrial region. Here are the two largest cities of Canada - Montreal (with suburbs of 1.1 million inhabitants) and Toronto (900 thousand), in addition, Ottawa is the capital, Quebec. Montreal and especially Quebec (formerly the capital of Canada), located in the valley of the river. St. Lawrence, retain the features of French cities. Toronto, located by Lake Ontario, is an industrial Anglo-American city similar to the cities of the United States. For industry the region is especially characterized by the timber and paper industries, which run on hydropower. Large the automotive industry is important (in Toronto) and textile (in Montreal). The eastern region gives large production gold, nickel, asbestos. Agriculture has a

subordinate value; its direction is dairy farming, horticulture and fruit growing.

Newfoundland, annexed to Canada in 1949, is economically backward. Its population (300 thousand) lives mainly by fishing and the timber and paper industry. The huge deposits of iron ore are poorly developed.

The Midwest, which includes the steppe provinces of Manitoba / Saskatchewan and Alberta, is one of the world's wheat regions. He gives on average 80-100 million centners of wheat and exports most of the harvest (in grain or flour). In large farms, tractors and combines are widely used, hired labor is used. At the hub transport points there are huge elevators, where the grain is finally prepared for export (cleaned, sorted and brought into a "standard" form). The main commercial and industrial centre is Winnipeg, one of the world's largest grain trading centres.

Western Canada (province of British Columbia), covering the Cordillera and the Pacific coast, the region of logging and timber export (timber), mining (non-ferrous metals, gold, coal) and fishing. The largest city and port is Vancouver.



99. Канада. Экономическая карта.

99. Canada. Economic map

LATIN AMERICA

Composition, size, political map. Latin America covers all American countries south of the borders of the United States. This includes: 1) the entire continent of South America; 2) Mexico, occupying the southwestern tip of North America; 3) Central America, representing a narrow strip of land that connects North America with South America, and 4) West Indies, that is, the numerous islands of the Caribbean Sea. Mexico, Central America and the West Indies, which occupy an intermediate geographical position between North America (United States) and South America, can be collectively called Middle America (sometimes these countries located in the Caribbean Sea region are called Caribbean America).

The territory of Latin America is 21 million square meters. km; population 160 million.

The very name Latin America came from the fact that these countries were colonized mainly by Latin (or Romanesque) peoples (namely the Spaniards, Portuguese, Italians). Spanish or Portuguese dominates the main countries of Latin America. This is how it differs from the United States and Canada, where English dominates.

The countries of Latin America have much in common in their historical past and in the nature of their economic development. This is a group of countries that are economically backward and dependent on the imperialist states, mainly the USA and Great Britain.

After the discovery of America (1492), almost all of South and Central America was captured by Spain and Portugal. Portugal owned the east of South America (modern Brazil), Spain—almost everything else.

The Spanish and Portuguese possessions were dominated by the feudal nobility, which, together with the church and merchants, robbed the colonies for three centuries. The main source of enrichment for the conquerors was the silver mines in which the enslaved Indians worked. Plantations were another means of enrichment; sugar plantations were of particular importance. Negro slaves were brought from Africa to work for them. Poverty and extinction of Indians and Negroes, general economic stagnation - these were the results of the three-century domination of Spain and Portugal in Latin America.

In the first quarter of the XIX century. a wave of uprisings against Spanish and Portuguese rule swept across Latin America. During 1810-1825. Spain and Portugal lost their American colonies, apart from Cuba and Puerto Rico, which Spain later lost. In place of the former colonies, independent states were formed. But these new states were economically weak and unstable. This facilitated the penetration of foreign capital into them. English capital was the first to take root in Latin America. The British capitalists gave loans to governments in constant need of money, received concessions for the construction of railways, for the development of natural resources, and founded their own banks.

Since the end of the XIX century, the influence of the United States in Latin America began to increase. In 1898, the United States took Puerto Rico from Spain and took control of Cuba, which had formally become a republic. For 1904-1914, built the Panama Canal. The introduction of American capital and US political influence in Latin American countries intensified after the First World War. At the same time, the struggle between US imperialism and British imperialism intensified over sources of raw materials and sales markets, for mastering transport, for political influence. Behind the scenes of the political life of the Latin American republics—the struggle of parties, coups and wars - one can often discern the pressure of the British and American imperialists seeking to put their henchmen in power and seeking lucrative trade agreements or new concessions.

The United States used World War II and the victory over the fascist aggressors (who enjoyed considerable influence in a number of countries, especially in Argentina and Brazil) to further strengthen its economic and political positions in Latin America. They put quite clear pressure on their foreign and domestic policies. Under the banner of the “defense of the western hemisphere,” they seek to take control of the armed forces of these countries and create a military-political bloc of all American states under their hegemony. The governments of the Latin American countries have become an obedient instrument of North American imperialism. “It is no secret to anyone that 20 representatives of twenty Latin American countries now

represent the most united and obedient army of the United States of America in

UN-e “(Stalin). But this policy, which threatens the Latin American countries with final enslavement, is meeting with an ever more decisive rebuff from the masses of Latin America.

The political map of Latin America is as follows. There are 20 republics, of which 10 are in South America. The eastern part of South America is almost entirely occupied by the two largest countries - Brazil and Argentina; between them are small countries - Paraguay (landlocked) and Uruguay. More than half of the western coast is occupied by Chile, whose territory stretches out in a narrow belt along the sea; to the north are: Bolivia (landlocked), Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, Venezuela. Central America has 6 small republics: Panama, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Honduras, Guatemala; all of them are under the complete control of the United States, especially Panama, through which the Panama Canal passes. In the far north is Mexico, bordering the United States. There are three republics in the West Indies: Cuba (the island of the same name), Haiti and the Dominican Republic (on the island of Haiti); all three are under US control.

Colonies occupy a small part of Latin America. The most important of them: in South America, there are three Guiana—British, French and Netherlands; in Central America—the Panama Canal zone (USA), separated from the territory of the Republic of Panama; in the West Indies—Puerto Rico (USA) and Jamaica (British). The small islands of the West Indies are

striped between Great Britain, France, the United States and the Netherlands.

Natural conditions

Coastline, surface, rivers. South America is a massive continent with a slightly indented coastline. In this respect, it resembles Africa. There are absolutely no sea bays that protrude deep into the land and facilitate penetration into the interior of the mainland. The location of the hills is not particularly beneficial for the development of communications.

Along the entire western coast stretches the grandiose mountain system of the Andes, or the Cordillera, rising steeply from the sea and difficult to pass. The middle part of the Andes is especially grand. Here the ridges of the Andes, reaching 6500-7000 m in height, are widely branched; between them lies the Bolivian Highlands with an average height of 4000 m. The highest peak in the Andes is Aconcagua (7040 m). Nowhere else do railways rise to such heights as in the Andes (the highest railroad in the world runs in the Peruvian Andes at 4,880 m, above the summit of Mont Blanc). There are many volcanoes in the Andes, many of them are considered extinct, but many are still acting.

In the east of the South American mainland, a completely different surface structure. There are no sharply protruding mountain ranges here. Vast areas are occupied by relatively low, widely spreading massifs—the Brazilian and Guiana. These are ancient mountains, long ago smoothed by erosion, and now represent highlands with a wavy surface, with an average height

of 600-1000 m (the highest points are 2600-2700 m). The eastern edge of the Brazilian massif is in some places strongly elevated above the coast of the Atlantic Ocean and forms an obstacle on the way from the sea inland; however, it is much more accessible than the Andes.

Between the high mountains of the west and the wide highlands of the east, there are vast lowlands—Amazonian, LaPlatskaya, Orinokskaya, irrigated by powerful rivers. The Amazonian lowland occupies about one-fourth of the entire South America. The Amazon, which irrigates this lowland, is the first river in the world in terms of its basin area (7 million sq. Km) and in terms of high flow. In length (5500 km), it is inferior to Mississippi—Missouri. The main of its tributaries, Madeira, is almost equal in length to the Volga, while others (for example, the Rio Negro) are approximately equal to the Dnieper. In the middle reaches, the Amazon reaches 5 km in width, near the mouth it expands to 20 km, at the very mouth—to 80 km (the full width of the mouth, including the large island located in it, is 300 km). Sea steamers climb the Amazon for 3600 km, almost to the foot of the Andes. On the sources and tributaries of the Amazon, as they descend from the mountains to the lowlands, there are many waterfalls that can provide tremendous motive power. But the real economic importance of the Amazon is negligible; it flows through an almost uninhabited area of rainforest.

To the north, the Amazonian lowland merges with the Orinok lowland, to the south—with the Laplat lowland, located along the course of the Parana and Paraguay rivers. Parana is inferior to the Amazon in

length (3,700 km) and in deep water; but the common mouth of the Parana and Uruguay, called La Plata, serves as an outlet to the sea for the most developed region of South America and is an important transport hub.

In the extreme south of the mainland, between the Andes and the sea, there is a low Patagonian plateau. The narrow, winding Strait of Magellan separates the island of Tierra del Fuego from the mainland. Previously, the Strait of Magellan was an important trade route from the Atlantic to the Pacific. With the opening of the Panama Canal, its importance declined.

Thus, according to the nature of the surface, South America is clearly divided into several huge parts, inside which similar conditions are observed for hundreds and even thousands of kilometres. The picture is different in Central America and the West Indies.

Central America is like a bridge between North America and South America. In some places this “bridge” is 60-70 km wide (Isthmus of Panama), in some places it expands to several hundred kilometres. The mountains are much lower than the South American ones. The whole geographical division is more fragmented than in South America. For several tens of kilometres one can find here a coastal lowland, and low plateaus, and mountain ranges 3-4 km high, and deep intermountain valleys. In the past, Central America formed a barrier to direct communication between the world’s two major oceans. Now the Panama Canal has been laid here, linking the oceans and becoming one of the most important sea roads in the world.

The West Indies, that is, the archipelago of the islands of the Caribbean Sea, is distinguished by an even greater fractional geographical structure. It consists of four large islands that form the Greater Antilles group (Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica and Puerto Rico}, and many small islands (the Lesser Antilles and Bahamas) .The West Indies lie on important sea routes—at the crossroads from the North America and Europe to the Panama Canal; this gives them not only economic, but also important strategic importance.

Much of Mexico is occupied by vast plateaus. The plateau is bordered from the west and east by hills, and in the south it rests against a grandiose row of volcanoes (Orizaba, Popocatepetl, up to 5600 m in height). The average height of the plateau in the south is 2000 m; in the north, it drops and joins the Great North American Plateau.

Southern Mexico, most of Central America and the West Indies are an area of active volcanic forces, also prone to strong earthquakes. In 1902, the eruption of the Mont Pele volcano on the island of Martinique (Lesser Antilles) destroyed the city of Saint-Pierre to the ground and exterminated 28 thousand inhabitants. Guatemala city (capital of the Republic of Guatemala) in the XX century. twice destroyed by earthquakes. But the products of volcanic activity—lava and ash—form the basis of fertile soils that attract people to these dangerous areas.

Climate and vegetation. Latin America is located between 32° N. sh. and 56° S. sh. Most of it lies within the hot belt. Only the south of South America goes beyond it.

Huge spaces are covered with tropical rainforest. Almost entirely covered by them the Amazon lowland, lying in the equatorial strip. Throughout this vast lowland it is always almost equally hot; the average annual temperature here is 25-26°; it hardly fluctuates from month to month. There is a lot of precipitation—200 cm per year and more. Constant heat and humidity have spawned lush tropical vegetation. Clearing the forest requires tremendous efforts: abandoned areas quickly overgrow again, so that in a short time there are no traces of human activity. Hot, the humid climate promotes the spread of malaria, yellow fever and other tropical diseases. The Amazonian forests are rich in rubber trees and species that provide a valuable tree for crafts, but the conditions for the extraction of these riches are very difficult.

Tropical areas, less rich in precipitation, are covered with open woodlands, or savannas (that is, tropical steppes, alternating with copses).

The south of the La Plata lowland, the so-called Pampa, is already a steppe with a moderately dry subtropical climate. It is an area of abundant resources for agriculture and livestock raising.

About south of 40° S sh. Pampa passes into the rocky steppes of Patagonia with a dry and rather harsh climate (strong winds) and poor grass cover.

Deserts occupy less space in South America than in Africa or Australia. Only part of the Pacific coast in northern Chile has a true desert character; this is the Atacama Desert, which, however, is of great economic importance due to the rich deposits of saltpeter and copper.

The change of climatic and vegetation zones in the mountainous regions of the tropics has a special character. Starting from the foot, as you climb the mountains, all vegetation and climatic zones change - from humid tropical forests to treeless mountain meadows and snowy peaks

These belts alternate in this order. The purely tropical climate occupies an area up to 600 m above sea level. Here, the best cultivated plants are cocoa, coconut, bananas, and sugar cane. In the zone from 600 to 1800 m above sea level, the tropical climate is already strongly softened by altitude (average annual temperature is between 18 and 23 °). In this zone coffee, cotton, tobacco, corn are good. Above 1800 m there is a zone of temperate climate. In the forests of this zone, there are oaks, pines, spruces, cypresses. Wheat, corn, barley are sown here, and European fruit trees are planted. Compared to the tropical lowlands, this belt has much healthier climatic conditions for humans. Many mountainous regions of Latin America have fertile volcanic soils. The centres of ancient American culture, which developed before the arrival of Europeans, arose precisely in the mountainous regions of South America and Mexico.

Above 4000 m, the forest is no longer found, agriculture is impossible. This is a zone of high mountain pastures. It is especially common in the Bolivian Highlands (here it is called Pune). The snow line in tropical regions is kept at 5000-5500 m.

Central America is characterized by variegated changes in climatic conditions and vegetation. The rains here are brought by sea winds (trade winds) blowing

from the Atlantic Ocean. Therefore, the slopes facing the Atlantic Ocean are richer in precipitation and vegetation than areas closed from the trade winds.

The dry climate is characterized by the inner parts of the Mexican Highlands, closed from the sea by the hills, the Pacific coast near the border of the United States (California Peninsula). The vegetation cover is characterized by cacti, agaves, and thorny shrubs of the semi-desert. Farming requires artificial irrigation.

Offshore winds, bringing the rains of the West Indies and Central America, at the same time refresh and ventilate the air; areas exposed to trade winds have a much healthier climate than areas with humid stagnant air.

But not only refreshing winds come from the Atlantic Ocean. Often, formidable hurricanes approach there, crushing everything in their path. Such a hurricane can destroy the entire crop over a large area, scatter buildings, pull out all the telegraph poles, etc. This was, for example, in Puerto Rico in September 1928. Therefore, on islands that are especially prone to hurricanes, they try to plant not perennial tree crops rather fast-growing crops that are easier to recover (eg sugar cane).

The natural conditions for agriculture in Latin America are very diverse. A number of important crops, now widespread in other parts of the world, originated from the countries of South and Central America (potatoes, cocoa, corn, tobacco).

On the other hand, many cultures were introduced by Europeans and found favorable conditions for distribution here (wheat, coffee, sugarcane), as well as

domestic animals (cattle, sheep, horses), which the inhabitants of America did not know before the arrival of the Europeans.

Fossil wealth. The mineral wealth of Latin America is very great.

Oil reserves are of world importance. The main deposits lie at the foot of the northern and middle Andes (in Venezuela, Colombia, Bolivia, Peru) and at the foot of the Mexican highlands on the Gulf Coast. Of the metal ore, silver deposits are of world importance (in Mexico, Peru), copper (Chile, Mexico, Peru), tin (Bolivia), iron (Brazil, Cuba, Chile), manganese (Brazil); reserves of high-grade iron ore in Brazil are estimated at 4.6 billion tons (pure iron in ore), which is 17% of the iron ore reserves of foreign countries. Guiana is rich bauxite. There are gold deposits in many places, but are of secondary importance. Colombia has significant platinum reserves. In the deserts of northern Chile - powerful deposits saltpeter. Coal is poor in Latin America. But great water energy reserves; they amount to 66 million litres. from. (about 14% of water resources of foreign countries).

In general, the natural resources of Latin America are quite diverse for diversified economic development, but they are used insufficiently and extremely one-sidedly.

Population

The composition of the population. The Indians, as a result of extermination and cruel oppression by the

conquerors in some Latin American countries, completely disappeared (for example, in the West Indies the Spaniards destroyed the local population in the first century of their domination) or remained in very small numbers. Most of all, Indians have survived in the mountainous countries of the South American West (Bolivia, Peru), in Mexico and Central America. From the mixing of the Indians with the European settlers, a very numerous intermediate group, the mestizo, came about. Indians and mestizos make up over half of the population of Latin America.

The population of European descent is about 25-30% of the total population of Latin America. Some of it are Creoles - the descendants of long-standing immigrants from Europe, some are immigrants of recent times, the last 50-60 years. This resettlement movement played a huge role in the development of Argentina and southeastern Brazil. In these areas, the main mass of "whites" is concentrated. Among European settlers, there are more all immigrants from Spain, Portugal and Italy. Italians are most in Argentina, Uruguay and southeastern Brazil. In southern Brazil, there is a large group of German settlers (about 800 thousand).

Negroes and mulattoes live mainly in the old plantation areas that developed in the colonial era—in northeastern Brazil, on the islands of the West Indies. On some islands (Haiti, Jamaica), they form the majority.

In general terms, the main population groups are located as follows: southeast—"white", northeast—blacks and mulattos, interior regions of South America, west and extreme north (Mexico)—Indians and mestizo.

In some Latin American countries, before the Second World War, significant groups of Japanese were formed, most of all in Brazil (about 200 thousand).

Indians and Negroes are the most humiliated and oppressed mass of the population: in relation to them direct coercion and violence are widely used, reminiscent of the times of slavery.

Class relations. Large landownership predominates in Latin America. Landowners' holdings often reach colossal proportions. The masses of farmers work on the landlord's land in the manner of enslaving lease, sharecropping, and then and outright slavery. Debt slavery, the so-called peonage, is widespread in areas with Indian populations. Peons - landless peasants who receive a piece of land from the landlord, a little money for acquiring them and work off a certain number of days a year for him; they do not come out of debt bondage and in fact become serfs. Against obstinate peons, dissatisfied with their position and wanting to leave the owner, the landowner uses force: the police are at his service.

Thus, in the countries of Latin America, survivals of slavery and serfdom have largely survived. At the same time, class oppression is closely intertwined with racial oppression (landlords and the bourgeoisie are "white", peons are "coloured").

The overwhelming majority of the population is illiterate and culturally backward. Even Argentina and Uruguay—countries with a predominantly "white" population—have 35-40% illiterates; in countries with a

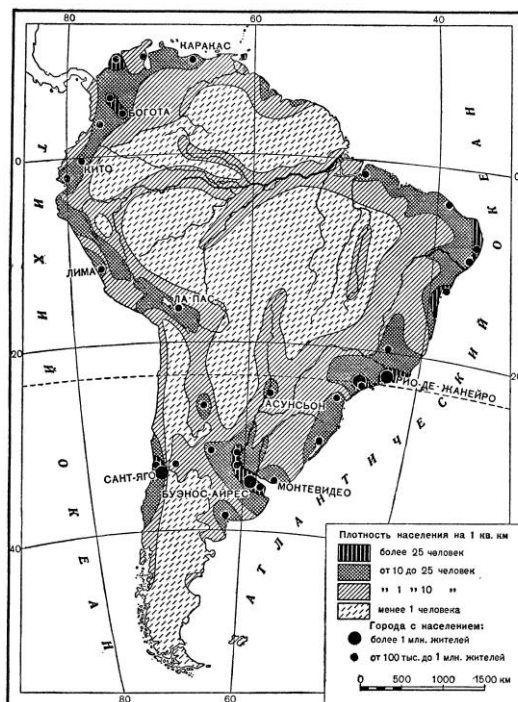
predominance of “coloured” population of illiterates most.

Only the possessing classes—an insignificant minority of the population—participate in official political life. The disenfranchised mass of Indians and Negroes, if drawn to participate in the elections, is only to vote, at the behest of the landlords and the police. Republican institutions are only decorations covering the domination of the landowning oligarchy, or even a direct military dictatorship.

Foreign monopoly capital, which invaded the backward semi-colonial environment, sharply increased its stratification. Alongside the feudal antiquity there are modern powerful banks and trusts; next to the antediluvian technology - highly equipped enterprises; next to the semi-serf peons are the masses of the transport and industrial proletariat. Class contradictions reach enormous sharpness, exploitation has an openly predatory character, the contrasts of wealth and poverty appear naked. This is the basis of the anti-imperialist liberation struggle that is growing in the countries of Latin America. The organizers are the Communist Parties, some of which have to fight underground. An important role in organizing the anti-imperialist front is played by the Confederation of Workers of Latin America, a trade union organization that unites the forces of the working class of Latin American countries.

Population density and major cities. In general, Latin America is poorly populated. The population gravitates either to the coastal regions that concentrate

trade and transport links with the outside world (the islands of the West Indies, the Prilaplat region of Argentina - Uruguay, the southeastern coast of Brazil, central Chile), or to the plateaus with fertile soils and a temperate climate (central Mexico , coffee area south eastern Brazil). The interior regions of the forests and savannas of South America are almost unpopulated: the vast expanses of the Amazon rainforest have less than 1 person per sq. km.



100. Плотность населения Южной Америки.

100. Population density of South America.

The most important cities have also grown on the sea or near the sea. In the first place among them Buenos Aires is the capital and main port of Argentina (3 million inhabitants). In Brazil, two cities stand out: Rio de Janeiro - the capital and port (1.8 million inhabitants), and Sao Paulo - the centre of the main coffee district (1.4 million). In Chile, the capital is Sant Jago (1 million inhabitants), and the main port is Valparaiso. In Mexico, in terms of the number of inhabitants, the capital city of Mexico City (1.7 million inhabitants) stands out sharply, in the West Indies—Havana, the capital of Cuba, the most important port of the entire West Indies (670 thousand inhabitants).

Overview of the Economy

The introduction of foreign capital into the economy of Latin America led to the strong development of individual sectors of the economy. This development proceeded mainly through the production and export of agricultural and mineral raw materials. Large countries specialized in the production of one or two products for export, while other riches remained completely unused. From the proceeds from the export of these products, funds are taken for the import of foreign manufactured goods. Exports cover payments on foreign debts and profits that are siphoned off by foreign capital. To make ends meet, Latin American countries are forced to export as much as possible. Reducing exports immediately jeopardizes the entire economy and threatens bankruptcy. Thus, the countries of Latin

America are highly dependent on the marketing of the products that make up their export specialty.

Cases of particularly sharp agricultural specialization, when the economy of an entire region or even a country is based on the production of one product, is called a monoculture.

Agriculture. For the production of grain crops and livestock products, an agricultural and cattle-breeding region is distinguished, adjacent to the mouth of La Plata within Argentina and Uruguay. From here comes a huge amount of wheat, corn, flaxseed, meat (chilled), wool, hides.

Argentina and Uruguay have about 40 million head of cattle and about 70 million sheep. This is the most powerful economic region in all of Latin America.

Most of the rest of Latin America's agricultural regions supply tropical crops. Of these, coffee ranks first. Latin America gives almost 90% of the world's coffee harvest; Brazil comes first on the second, Colombia. Large place in the world economy Latin America is occupied by the production of cane sugar. The main sugar producer is Cuba, all whose economy is heavily dependent on sugar.

In the countries of Central America and on the island of Jamaica, North American capital developed a large export production of bananas. A number of areas adjacent to the Caribbean Sea have been turned into solid banana plantations. Of the crops that are cultivated in a number of countries, but do not form such a sharply defined specialization, it should be noted

cotton (Brazil, Peru), cocoa (Ecuador, Brazil), tobacco (Cuba).



101. Горная промышленность Латинской Америки.

101. Mining industry in Latin America.

Forests cover huge areas in Latin America (approximately 40% of the total area), but forestry is of secondary importance. At the beginning of the XX century. Amazonian forests were the world's first region for the extraction of rubber (from wild rubber trees). Then the rapid development of rubber plantations began in the English possessions in Malacca and in the Netherlands Indonesia. Plantation production turned out to be cheaper and more convenient than collecting rubber from wild tropical forests. The South American fishery could not stand the competition and fell into decay.

Mining. In the first place is oil production. Across Latin America, it exceeded 100 million tons in 1950. The main producer is Venezuela, followed by Mexico, Colombia, Argentina. In the oil industry, American capital dominates, followed by English. Copper mining (Chile, Mexico, Peru) gives about $\frac{1}{4}$ of world production. Bolivia gives about cotton tin production worldwide. The Netherlands and British Guiana provide large bauxite production. The mining of saltpeter in northern Chile is important. In the extraction of non-ferrous metals, as in the extraction of nitrate, American capital predominates. Huge reserves of iron are poorly developed. The production of manganese increased dramatically during the Second World War.

Latin America is the world's largest supplier of silver (about half of the world's production); most of all, the inexhaustible Mexican deposits give (they have been exploited for 4 centuries). Gold mining is less significant. Colombia provides a significant production of platinum.

During the Second World War, the resources of the Latin American countries played an important role in supplying the United States and England. Especially important were such vital resources for the war as oil, tin, manganese, bauxite.

Manufacturing industry. The industrial development of Latin America falls far short of its natural wealth. Only a few industries that process local raw materials have achieved significant development: the sugar industry in Cuba, the meat, flour and leather industries in Argentina; the oil refinery industry (the largest factories on the island of Curacao near Venezuela); in Brazil and Mexico there is a significant textile industry. There is a small metallurgy in Brazil.

ARGENTINA

Argentina is located in the extreme south of the South American mainland. Almost all of it lies to the south of the tropic (between 22 and 56 ° S lat.). The area of Argentina is 2800 thousand sq. km; population 16 million Argentina is the only major Latin American country that is almost entirely populated by immigrants from Europe. The capital is Buenos Aires.

Grain and livestock farming in Argentina is working on a large scale for the external market. Argentina is one of the. Wheat region of Argentina. world suppliers of wheat, corn, flaxseed, meat, wool, hides.

In terms of the mechanization of agriculture, the density of the railway network, the percentage of the urban population, the size of foreign trade, Argentina is ahead of the rest of Latin America. However, the comparatively high level of development of capitalism is combined with the semi-feudal exploitation of the masses of tenants and sharecroppers.

The main agricultural and pastoralist region of Argentina, which forms its economic core, is Pampa, the southern part of the Laplat lowland, adjacent to La Plata and to the ocean. Its climate is subtropical. In Buenos Aires, the average temperature in January is 4-23 °, in July -4-10 °; however, winds blowing from the southern polar countries sometimes bring severe cold snaps with frost in winter. Rainfall is significant in the east and decreases in the west. The main agricultural region of Argentina is the eastern part of Pampa. This area is located in a semicircle, with the centre in

Buenos Aires, to which a dense network of railways converges.



102. Пшеничный район Аргентины.

102. Wheat region of Argentina.

Buenos Aires is the largest city in the southern hemisphere and a world port. Almost all immigrants from abroad pass through it (as through New York in the USA). In Buenos Aires with the suburbs, almost $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total population of Argentina lives. The capital is home to land magnates and financiers, masses of speculators of large and small scale, numerous bureaucracy; huge personnel are busy serving the needs of the wealthy bourgeoisie.

The industrial significance of Buenos Aires is inferior to its importance as a trade, transport and financial centre. Yet Buenos Aires is the largest labor centre in Latin America. The main cadres of the proletariat are railroad workers, port workers, workers in slaughterhouses, meat-packing and tanneries.

Besides Buenos Aires, important port cities are Bahia Blanca (by the sea), Rosario and Santa Fe (on the Parana river).

BRAZIL

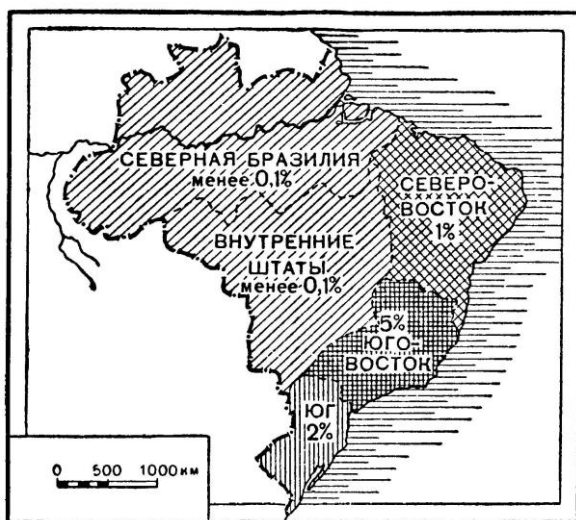
Brazil is the largest country in Latin America in terms of territory and population. Occupies the eastern part of South America, lying almost entirely within the tropical belt. It adjoins the Atlantic Ocean for a huge extent (the length of the coastline is about 8000 km). Area 8500 thousand sq. km \ population 49 million Capital - Rio de Janeiro

Within Brazil lies most of the Amazonian lowland with rainforests covering it. To the south of the Amazonian lowland the Brazilian Highlands rises} it occupies about 3 / a of the whole country. The northern part of the plateau is irrigated by tributaries of the Amazon, the southern - by the Parana with tributaries, the eastern - by the river. San Francisco. , When descending from the plateau, the rivers form rapids and waterfalls; they interfere with shipping, but form huge reserves of water energy.

Most of the plateau has a tropical climate; in the south, it becomes subtropical. The southeastern part of the area in the hills is the most prosperous area for agriculture in Brazil. The Brazilian plateau is rich in mineral wealth. Deposits of iron and manganese are of world importance.

Economically, Brazil is an example of the sharpest contradiction between the diversity of natural resources and the one-sidedness of their use. Brazil has vast areas suitable for agriculture and livestock raising, large fossil resources, powerful sources of water energy. But for the world economy, it remains a coffee country. Coffee

plantations occupy only 3 million hectares (1/260 of all of the territory), but they provide the bulk of Brazilian exports, and the entire course of the Brazilian economy depends on them. The main coffee region, like the Central Argentine agricultural and cattle-breeding region, attracts foreign capital, concentrates significant personnel of the agrarian and industrial proletariat. Most of Brazil belongs to the most backward parts of Latin America. In addition to coffee, cotton has recently taken a significant place in the export. The most widespread crops for local consumption are corn, beans, and cassava.



103. Процент обрабатываемой площади по районам Бразилии.

103. SW. Percentage of cultivated areas by regions of Brazil

During the Second World War, small metallurgical plants and a number of military plants were built in Brazil.

Regions. The overwhelming majority of the population is concentrated in eastern Brazil—on the Atlantic coast and on the adjoining part of the Brazilian Highlands. In the forests and savannahs of inner Brazil, which occupy 2/3 of the entire territory, only about 3 million people live; performance of internal areas is negligible. In eastern Brazil, there are 3 regions—northeastern, southeastern and southern.

The heart of Brazil is the southeastern region, which contains almost all of Brazil's coffee and major cotton plantations. Like Argentine Pampa, this area attracted in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. mass immigration (Italians, Portuguese, Spaniards).

The main coffee area is in the state of São Paulo. There is a lot of "red earth" here, especially suitable for a coffee tree. The climate on the plateau is subtropical. The summer months are rich in rainfall, while the winter is relatively dry. The best climatic conditions for coffee are at an altitude of 500-800 m above sea level. Above 1000 m, frosts are already threatening, harmful to the coffee tree. The centre of the coffee state is the city of São Paulo, located on the way from the coffee region to the sea; in its commercial, financial and industrial importance, it challenges the primacy of Rio de Janeiro. The port for the coffee district is Santos (Santos).

Rio de Janeiro—the capital of Brazil—is located on a closed bay with intricately indented coastlines and numerous islets. The bay is surrounded by mountain ranges covered with rich tropical vegetation, with protruding rocky peaks. The variety of colours and shapes gives the panorama of Rio de Janeiro an exceptional beauty. Rio de Janeiro is the main port for the import of goods to Brazil; many commercial enterprises, banks and factories are concentrated there. However, in the economic life of Brazil, Rio de Janeiro does not have the same exceptional importance as Buenos Aires in Argentina; Santos surpasses him in the export of goods, in other respects São Paulo competes with it.

The north of the island is a backward old colonial region with a Negro-Mulatto and Creole population. The main branches of the economy are the production of cotton, sugar, cocoa, and tobacco. The position of the blacks and mulattos, who make up the main labor force, is de facto slavery. Cities: Recife (Pernambuco) and San Salvador (Bahia).

South of Brazil—an area of grain farming and cattle breeding. According to its natural conditions, the extreme south represents the transition to the subtropical steppes of the Prilaplat region. But in terms of development, this area is far behind the Argentinean Pampa.

AFRICA

Africa is the colonial part of the world. The overwhelming part of it is divided between Great Britain, France and other European powers.

The area of Africa is about 30 million square meters. km (including nearby islands), the greatest extent from north to south 8000 km, from east to west 7500 km. Population over 170 million people (very approximate, as in many countries no census is done).

Natural conditions

Geographical location and outlines. Africa forms the southwestern projection of the Old World mainland. The northern part of Africa, adjacent to the Mediterranean Sea, in terms of its geographical position and natural conditions, is closely connected with southern Europe and Western Asia. The Strait of Gibraltar, which separates Africa from the Iberian Peninsula, is only 14 km wide in its narrowest part. The nature of the western African Mediterranean has much in common with the nature of the Mediterranean coast of Europe.

In the northeast, the belt of great African deserts merges with the deserts of Western Asia, forming a geographically one whole. The Isthmus of Suez (crossed by a canal) forms a direct link between the countries of the Nile and Western Asia; further south, the narrow Red Sea and Bab el-Mandeb Strait.

Thus, the position of North Africa is favorable for communication with the countries of the European and

Asian Mediterranean. Connections with the main massif of Africa are greatly hampered by the great belt of deserts separating the African Mediterranean from the south (Sahara, Libyan and Arabian deserts).

Half of Africa, lying south of the desert belt, is pushed into the open ocean. From the west, Africa is washed by the Atlantic Ocean, which forms a huge, but slightly protruding Gulf of Guinea, from the east - by the Indian Ocean.

In its outlines, Africa, like other southern continents, is a massive block with a slightly dissected coastline. There are few bays convenient for anchorage of ships. Islands reckoned to Africa: in the Indian Ocean—Madagascar (separated from the mainland by the Mozambique Channel), the Mascarene group of islands (Mauritius, Reunion), Socotra and the coastal island of Zanzibar} in the Atlantic Ocean—Madeira, Canary Islands, Cape Verde Islands, island Elena, Ascension and group of islands in the Gulf of Guinea.

Surface, rivers. The surface structure is very uniform. Basically Africa is a huge stretch of plateau with elevated edges. The most elevated are the plateaus of eastern and southern Africa. In the east rises the high Abyssinian highlands with extinct volcanoes and a thick lava cover; the average height of the highlands is 2500-3000 m, some peaks are up to 4620 m. To the south of the Abyssinian highland lies the East African plateau, from the west it is limited by narrow and deep depressions, in which there are huge lakes - Victoria, Tanganyika, Nyasa, etc. From them, Lake Victoria, lying under the equator, is the second

largest freshwater lake in the world (69 thousand sq. km)} of the salt lakes it is almost equal to our Aral Sea. Along the edges of the East African Plateau, the greatest peaks of Africa rise—the extinct volcanoes Kilimanjaro (about 6,000 m), Kenya, Rwenzori, the active volcano Kirunga, etc.

The vast South African plateau is most elevated in the southeast, where the Drakensberg Mountains rise (up to 3660 m), which abruptly drop off to the coast of the Indian Ocean.

The centre, west and north of Africa are generally much lower than the south and east. It is dominated by low plateaus lying 200-500 m above sea level. This is the Congo depression, covering most of the basin of the river of the same name, most of the Sahara, Sudan and the Libyan desert. The volcano Cameroon (4070 m) rises on the Guinean coast. In the far north, the Atlas Mountains rise, which differ in structure from the rest of the mountains in Africa: these are folded mountains, a continuation of the Alpine mountain system of Europe.

Lowlands occupy an insignificant part of Africa, almost all of them stretch along the coast.

In many places, the elevated edges of the African plateaus drop abruptly towards the coast. This surface structure makes it difficult to access from the sea. Uncomfortable for penetrating deep into the continent and rivers of Africa. Africa has huge rivers (Nile, Congo, Niger), but all of them, going down to the sea along the steps of the plateaus, form rapids and waterfalls that interrupt navigation for a long distance. Hence—the

colossal abundance of water energy in Africa (over 1/3 of the reserves of hydropower in all foreign countries).

Since the surface of Africa generally slopes from the southeast to the northwest, its main rivers flow into the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea. The most abounding river in Africa—Congo (length 4600 km)} Congo basin, which occupies the second largest area in the world after the Amazon basin, lies entirely in the equatorial region, which receives heavy rainfall. Breaking through the mountains that separate the Congo Basin from the Guinean coast, the powerful river makes its way through wild gorges, forming many rapids.

The longest river in Africa is the Nile (6500 km), flowing from Lake Victoria, at the very equator. Its main tributary is the Blue Nile, which flows from the Abyssinian Highlands (from Lake Tana). About half of the Nile flows in areas with poor rainfall; downstream the Nile receives no tributaries at all. That is why in terms of basin area and high water flow it is much inferior to Congo. There are 6 large rapids in the middle course of the Nile. When it flows into the Mediterranean Sea, the Nile forms an extensive delta. The water level in the Nile is highly variable; summer rains at the headwaters of the White and Blue Nile cause strong floods; to the lower reaches (in Egypt), the highest rise in water reaches in September. The Nile is of great importance as a source of irrigation and fertility; its floods have brought fertile soil to the Nile Valley, all agriculture in Egypt is built on artificial irrigation, fed by the waters of the Nile.

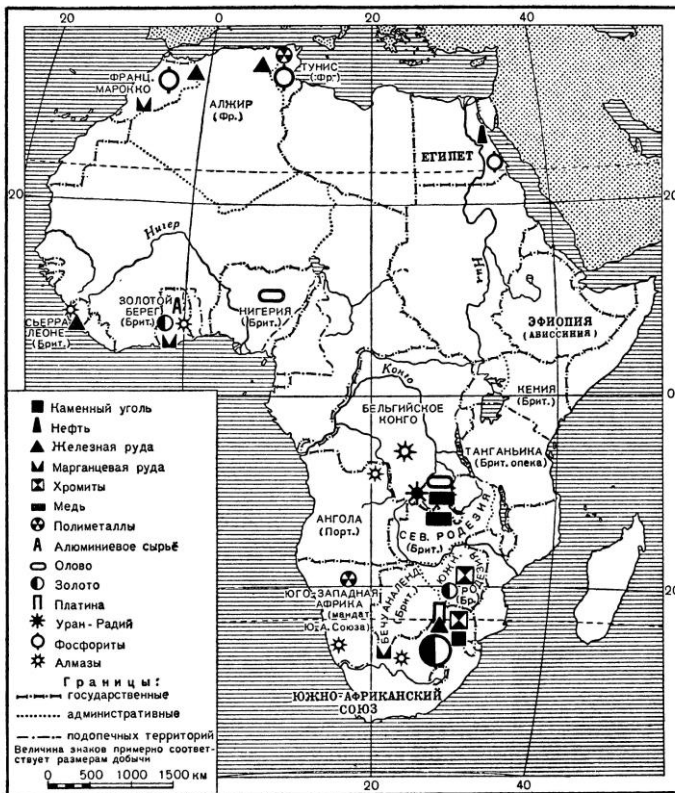
The third great river in Africa is the Niger (about 4200 km long) in West Africa. Niger is deep, but like

other rivers, rapids. Of the remaining rivers flowing into the Atlantic Ocean, the Orange River with the Vaal tributary in South Africa and Senegal in the west are significant. One large river flows into the Indian Ocean—the Zambezi (2600 km), distinguished by an exceptional abundance of waterfalls.

About 1/3 of Africa's territory has no discharge into the ocean. These include internal drainage river basins (for example, the Lake Chad basin in Sudan) and deserts that do not have completely permanent rivers. This is, for example, most of the Sahara; only after showers are temporary streams formed here; the dry valleys, which serve as channels for them, are called wadis here.

Mineral wealth. The bowels of Africa are poorly explored, especially in terms of coal and iron ore reserves. South Africa stands out for the wealth of minerals; here are the world's richest deposits of gold and diamonds, large reserves of coal, iron, copper, chromium, platinum. On the opposite end of Africa, in the French possessions, there are rich deposits of phosphorites and significant reserves of iron ores. Central Africa is rich in copper, diamonds, uranium; on the coast of Guinea, the Gold Coast (manganese, gold) and Nigeria (ol about) stand out for their mountain riches.

In terms of known reserves of coal, Africa surpasses Latin America, and in terms of iron reserves it is much inferior to it. The most successful combination of coal and iron for industry is in the South African Union.

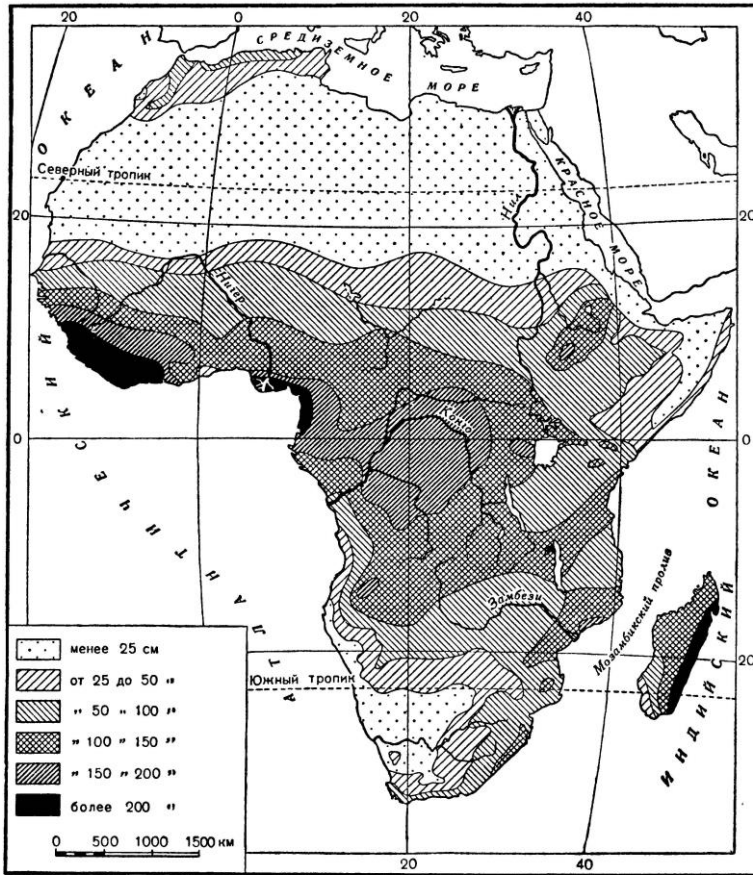


104. Полезные ископаемые Африки.

104. Minerals of Africa.

Climate vegetation, fauna. The equator crosses Africa almost in the middle. The northernmost point of Africa (Cape Blanco) $37^{\circ} 20' N$ sh., the southernmost point (Cape Agulhas) $34^{\circ} 51' S$. sh. Thus, most of the

mainland lies in a tropical climate, and the southern and northern outskirts are in the subtropical region.



105. Распределение годовых осадков в Африке.

105. Distribution of annual precipitation in Africa.

An area of equatorial climate, evenly hot and humid, covers central Africa and the Guinean coast. The foot of Cameroon is one of the wettest places in the world (over 1000 cm of annual precipitation). In the region of the East African Plateau, due to its height, the equatorial climate is less pronounced. The tropical rainforests characteristic of the equatorial strip are common in the Congo basin, on the Guinean coast and on the eastern coast. Africa. But they do not represent such a huge solid mass as in South America. Among the plants in African forests, the oil palm is especially important; a lot of rubber plants.

To the north and south of the rainforest strip, as in South America, there are areas with poorer rainfall, with a pronounced difference between rainy and dry seasons. Rarer tropical forests and steppes with separate groups of trees (savannas) stretch here, branchy baobabs grow singly—trees of enormous thickness (up to 7 mm in diameter), whose age is counted for thousands of years (produce edible fruits and fibrous bark, which goes to coarse tissues).

Almost the entire northern, widest, part of the continent is occupied by a belt of dry steppes, semi-deserts and deserts. The common name for this great desert space is Sahara; the eastern part of it bears special names: the Libyan desert (west of the lower Nile), the Arabian and Nubian desert (between the Nile and the Red Sea). The extreme dryness of North Africa is explained by a number of reasons: first of all, the constant incandescence of a huge continental mass is unfavorable for the thickening of vapors and precipitation (even when the winds blow from the sea),

while the prevailing wind of North Africa is a dry northeastern trade wind blowing from the dry steppes and deserts of the Front Asia.

A significant part of the Sahara is not completely devoid of vegetation and is a semi-desert with rare hard grasses or thorny bushes. In some places, where there is subsoil water close to the surface, oases with date palm groves are located. But the vast expanses of the Sahara represent a completely bare rocky or sandy desert. Sandy hurricanes of the desert (samum) are distinguished by their terrible power; clouds of hot sand, raised by a hurricane, cover springs, destroy caravans, and are carried over great distances; the influence of the hot desert winds reaches southern Europe and Asia Minor.

The heat of the African deserts can be judged by the following data: in Timbuktu (southern Sahara), the average temperature of the hottest month is $+35^{\circ}$, the "coldest" month $+24.4^{\circ}$ (6° more than the average July temperature in Moscow). The nights, however, are extremely cool; in northern Sahara, night frosts are frequent, sometimes it snows.

The climate of the northern slope of the Atlas Mountains is subtropical, Mediterranean type, In the city of Algeria, the average temperature of August is $+25^{\circ}$, January is $+12^{\circ}$, the average annual rainfall is 76 cm. Mountain vegetation—shrubs, forests of evergreen and coniferous trees (there are groves Lebanese cedar). The cultivated plants of the coast are the same as in the European Mediterranean (grapes, olives, fruit trees, wheat, tobacco).

The flora of Africa produced a number of important cultivated plants; these include the coffee tree, date palm, and durro (African sorghum). Since ancient times, the inhabitants of Africa have bred domestic animals—dairy cows, goats, sheep; donkeys, bulls, zebu were used as beasts of burden; later camels came into use in the African deserts.

In the tropical regions of Africa, the tsetse fly brings enormous harm to domestic animals and humans; its bites are often fatal to cattle, horses, and camels. Among humans, tsetse bites spread sleeping sickness.

Africa is exceptionally rich in a variety of large wild animals: the African elephant, rhino, lion, giraffe, hippo, gorilla and chimpanzee (the largest of the monkeys), the ostrich (the largest of the running birds). Previously, hunting provided a lot of valuable products for export (ivory, ostrich feathers). But now the wild fauna is almost exterminated.

Section of Africa

Initial penetration of Europeans into Africa. The emergence of economic and cultural ties between North Africa and southern Europe dates back to the most ancient times.

But the relations of Europeans with African peoples did not penetrate the great desert belt for a long time. In the XV century. the swimming of Europeans along the western coast of Africa are becoming more frequent and moving farther southward. The most active were the Portuguese. After the expedition of Vasco da Gama, circumnavigating Africa, reached India (1498), this sea

route became the usual route from Europe to India. The Portuguese occupied several strongholds on the African coast. In 1652, the Dutch (Dutch settlers / began to be called Boers) settled at the Cape of Good Hope.

When the Europeans - the conquerors of America - needed slaves for plantations, Negro Africa became, in the words of Marx, a reserved field for hunting blacks.

On the African coast, especially along the shores of the Gulf of Guinea, all the trading powers of that time established their trading posts specifically for the slave trade. England and its North American colony, New England, took the leading role in the slave trade. The slave trade built the wealth of Liverpool and Boston. To capture blacks, slave traders entered into a deal with the leaders of coastal black tribes, buying their services for a few bottles of rum, for cheap fabrics or glass trinkets; at the same time, the enmity of the tribes among themselves was widely used. When an expedition arrived on the shores of Africa for a new consignment of live goods, the slave traders handed over to the bribed Negro leaders an order for the delivery of slaves. Ship holds were filled with mined slaves, and already on the way, usually a significant part of the captives died from the unbearable conditions of the move. It is believed that at least 100 thousand blacks were exported from the western coast of Africa during the period of the greatest development of the slave trade (the first half of the 18th century).

The slave trade was carried out by Europeans only in the coastal regions of Africa. In the inner regions of the continent, the Europeans almost did not risk penetrating.

At the beginning of the XIX century. England / Anne occupied Cape land (Cape of Good Hope), colonized by immigrants from the Netherlands (Boers). Part of the Boers then moved north and founded two republics—the Orange Republic and the Transvaal.

At the opposite end of Africa in the first half of the 19th century. the French were based, captured Algeria from Turkey (during the period from 1830 to 1848). In addition to Algeria and South Africa, until the last quarter of the XIX century. in the hands of the Europeans were only scattered parts of the coast. In 1876, Europeans owned only 11% of the entire territory of Africa. Africa remained the only continent not yet divided.

Section of Africa. From the middle of the XIX century. in the main countries of Europe, interest in the study of the African continent is increasing. Numerous travelers and missionaries go to unexplored areas, cross North African deserts in various directions, go deep into Congo forests, explore the region of East African lakes.

Researchers and missionaries were usually followed by representatives of trade and industrial companies. For insignificant gifts to the Negro leaders, they received the rights to develop mineral or forest resources in their possessions. The “treaties” that were concluded at the same time were usually sheer deception: such conditions were inserted into them that would put the country into the power of foreigners. In the future, the newcomers began to dominate the country, forced the population to work for themselves, seized the best lands; in case of disobedience, brutal

reprisals followed. If the tribe showed obstinacy, it was simply destroyed.

During the last twenty years of the XIX century, almost all of Africa was divided. By 1900, Europeans controlled 90% of African territory. The main participants in the division were Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Belgium.

England, seeking domination over the Suez Canal and in need of Egyptian cotton, from 1883 established a de facto protectorate over Egypt (then part of Turkey). She captured a number of territories south of Egypt. British conquests from the other end of Africa quickly advanced to meet these conquests. The Boer republics - Transvaal and Orange - were swept from all sides by English possessions; then came their turn: as a result of the three-year Anglo-Boer war (1899-1902), the stubborn resistance of the Boers was broken, and both republics were annexed to the British possessions. England captured significant territories on the Guinean coast.

France captured Tunisia, most of the Sahara, Sudan and western Africa, took possession of part of the Congo basin. In 1912, France divided Morocco with Spain, capturing its second part.

Germany captured three regions on the west coast (Togo, Cameroon, Southwest Africa) and one on the east (Tanganyika).

Italy captured part of Somalia and a strip of the Red Sea coast (Eritrea); she tried to take possession of Abyssinia, but was defeated by the Abyssinians. In 1912, Italy took Libya from Turkey.

Belgium took most of the Congo basin.

Modern political map of Africa. After the First World War, the German colonies were divided (by mandate) between England (which received the largest part), France (a smaller part) and Belgium (a small region of Rwanda-Urundi, bordering the Belgian Congo).

England, which received, among other acquisitions, Tanganyika, carried out her long-standing plan - she closed the chain of her possessions, cutting through Africa from north to south, from Egypt to the Cape of Good Hope. Egypt, the northern link of this chain, formally gained independence in 1922, but in fact remains under the control of England. To the south of Egypt is the huge Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, which is considered the common possession of England and Egypt—it is clear that Egypt, itself subject to England, does not have power here. Further south follow: Uganda, Kenya, Tanganyika (under guardianship), Zanzibar (a group of coastal islands), Nyasa, Northern and Southern Rhodesia, Bechuanaland, the extreme southern link—the Union of South Africa—dominion formed in 1910 from the old English possessions in South Africa (Cape land, Natal) and the Boer republics (Transvaal and Orange), captured in the Boer War. The capital of the Union is Pretoria, the largest cities are Johannesburg, Cape Town. Cape Town, with the Simonstown naval base located nearby, is an important strategic point. Neighboring Southwest Africa, the territory of the Union of South Africa, illegally annexed by it after the Second World War.

In West Africa, England has a number of colonies that do not form a closed strip, as in the east. The most important of them are Nigeria and the Gold Coast. Of

the English islands located in the waters washing Africa, they are important as strongholds on sea routes: in the Indian Ocean—Socotra and Mauritius, in the Atlantic—the island of St. Helena and Ascension Island.

France, which received after the war most of German Cameroon and part of Togo, dominates the northwestern part of the African continent. French possessions here can be divided into three groups: 1) North African possessions - Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, with the adjoining part of northern Sahara. This is the most important part of the French colonial power in terms of both economic and strategic importance; the North African naval bases of France (Bizerte, Oran), together with the southern French bases, until the defeat of France in 1940, constituted the mainstay of French power in the western Mediterranean. 2) French West Africa, uniting a group of colonies, of which Senegal, Ivory Coast, Dahomey are the most important. An important commercial port and military base here is Dakar. 3) French Equatorial Africa, including a number of colonies and the Trust Territory of Cameroon.

On the eastern coast of France, only a small but strategically important colony of French Somalia (near the Babel-Mandeb Strait) belongs. France also owns the island of Madagascar.

Of the minor states, they have possessions in Africa: Portugal (Angola, Mozambique, Madeira and the Cape Verde Islands), Belgium (Belgian Congo) and Spain (the part of Morocco opposite Spain, the Canary Islands, Spanish Sahara and Spanish Guinea on the Atlantic coast).

Italian possessions before World War II consisted of Libya (in the north), Eritrea (on the Red Sea coast), and Italian Somalia (on the Indian Ocean coast). After the war, Britain and the United States interfere with the legal determination of the fate of the former Italian colonies and seek to establish their rule over them. The former Italian Somalia was taken over by Italy at the end of 1949. At the end of 1951, Libya's independence was proclaimed, but the military bases located in it remain in the hands of the imperialists, which indicates the illusion of this "independence".

The state of Abyssinia (Ethiopia) is a mountainous country with an extremely backward economy. The state system is a monarchy. The capital is Addis Ababa. Captured in 1936 by Italy and liberated during the Second World War, Abyssinia fell under the influence of the United States and England.

The small Negro republic of Liberia, in western Africa, is under US control.

The city of Tangier (in Morocco), strategically important (located at the entrance to the Strait of Gibraltar), according to an agreement between France, Great Britain, Spain and Italy, was allocated as a neutral and demilitarized zone, under the joint control of these four powers. In 1940 Tangier was occupied by Spain. In August 1945, a conference of representatives of the Soviet Union, the United States, Great Britain and France decided to restore international administration in Tangier. The USA and the USSR are invited to participate in the administration.

Population

According to the ethnic composition, the population of Africa is divided into two main parts: in the north, Berber Arabs prevail, in the rest of the blacks. The division between Berber-Arab Africa and Negro Africa runs along the southern outskirts of the Sahara.

North Africa, closely connected with the countries of Western Asia and the European Mediterranean, has been invaded by peoples from neighboring countries since ancient times. Its population and culture are the result of multiple layers and various interbreeding influences. At the end of the VII century. North Africa was conquered by the Arabs. Berbers - the ancient population of Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, Libya, since the Arab conquest have undergone strong Arabization: they mixed with the Arabs and adopted the religion (Islam) and the writing of the Arabs; the spoken language of most Berber peoples is also Arabic or close to it. Berbers live mostly sedentary, engaging in agriculture, crafts, trade, but there are also nomadic Berbers; such are, for example, the Tuareg in western Sahara. Among the Arabs, there are nomadic pastoralists and urban Arabs - traders and artisans.

In places, the Arab-Berber peoples are mixed with the indigenous population of Africa—the Negroes. The result of such a complex combination is, for example, the modern Abyssinians (or Ethiopians).

South of the great desert belt, the predominant population is Negroes. Among African Negroes, two main groups are distinguished by language—Sudanese Negroes, who occupy the areas immediately south of

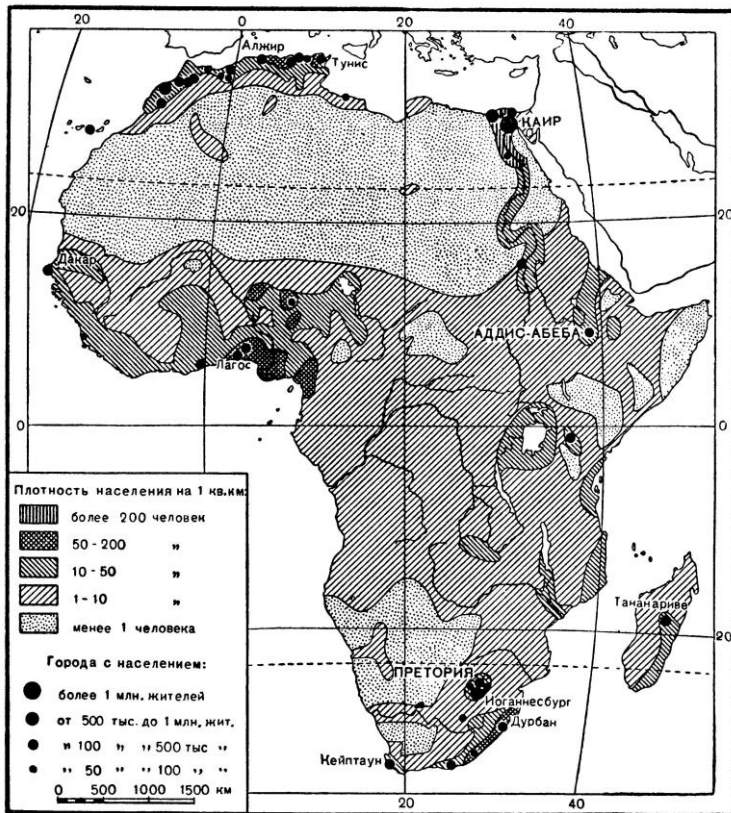
the deserts, and Bantu Negroes, who inhabit southern and central Africa. In the tropical forests of central Africa, dwarf blacks (pygmies) live in separate groups. In the extreme south, there are insignificant remnants of the Bushmen and Hottentots (lighter-skinned than negroes, with a yellow tint), almost exterminated by the Europeans. Bushmen and dwarf blacks are representatives of the most primitive culture; they live by hunting and gathering fruits.

Most of the Negro peoples have achieved a relatively high cultural development (in comparison, for example, with the Australians). Long before the arrival of the Europeans, they learned to work iron (in a primitive way). Among the Negro peoples, hoe farming is widely developed. In the steppe regions, cattle breeding prevails, dairy cattle are raised. Usually pastoralists are also engaged in agriculture to one degree or another (but they do not use livestock as a labor force).

The culture of Western Sudanese blacks reached the highest level. Here, before the arrival of Europeans, monarchies with a primitive feudal system were created. The craft has reached high development. Trade relations and cultural ties extended to a wide range of countries, including the Mediterranean and even India. The influence of Arab culture penetrated here. The ancient Negro state of Benin (on the shores of the Gulf of Guinea, in present-day Nigeria) left remarkable monuments of art (bronze sculpture, ivory carvings).

For several centuries, Negro Africa has been the world market for slave labor. By the time of the partition of Africa, the export of slaves to America had

already been stopped, but the export of slaves from the east coast to the Muslim countries of Asia was still continuing. The largest centre of the export slave trade at the end of the 19th century. was Zanzibar. The extensive internal slave trade has survived. The slaves were owned by Arab merchants, local kings, rich blacks.



106. Плотность населения Африки.

106. Density of the population of Africa.

After the division of the “black continent”, the Europeans fought against the export of blacks; the labor drain was not profitable for the Europeans who took over Africa. The export of blacks was stopped, but the struggle against slavery in Africa itself was much less decisive. The remnants of slavery are still alive, and not only in the most remote regions of Africa, but also in areas completely subordinated to the European administration. In the XX century, many cases of genuine slavery that survived under patronage of white “civilizers”.

In areas where European capitalists organize plantations, where the development of mineral or forest resources is undertaken, the land is simply taken away from the local population. The former owners are left with plots of land that are insufficient for food. This alone forces the negro to go to work for the invader - the white one. But often this is not enough to provide the white master with cheap labor. The methods of coercion used to “train blacks to work” are varied. Often they act by direct violence—they oblige the population to deliver so many kilograms of the desired product, or work so many days a year on plantations, or they are driven to road works; those who evade and “lazy” are caught, subjected to torture. The entire history of the rubber industry in the forests of the Belgian Congo (late XIX–early XX century) is full of atrocities committed because of the profits of the capitalists: those who did not fulfill the lesson on the supply of rubber were chopped off their hands, to exacerbate the “lazy” villages were destroyed and

massacres were carried out. By the end of the “rubber rush”, the population of the Congo had declined by 2-3 times.

In East Africa, the British authorities use more subtle methods of coercion: the local population is subject to an unbearable poll tax; to pay it (and they exact it with the most severe measures), the natives have to go to work with a white planter. Elsewhere, contract recruitment is widespread; the negro who signed the contract (the meaning of which he often does not even know) becomes in fact a slave.

Large plantations with forced labor are not the only form of agricultural organization that the imperialists are planting in Africa. In some places, the lands are reserved for the Negroes, and small-scale farming is conducted on them. But the Negro farmers are forced to cultivate the crops that the capitalists need to export; the farmers themselves are completely dependent on the buyers. Such a system, for example, prevails in cocoa production on the Guinea Coast.

Immigrants from European countries who settled in Africa for permanent residence, there are 4 million people with a small (less than 3% of the total population). They make up a significant stratum among the population only in the extreme south and in the extreme north; in the Union of South Africa, out of a population of 12 million, 2.5 million are Boers and British; in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia, out of 20 million population 1.4 million Europeans. In the colonies of tropical Africa Europeans constitute an insignificant minority, moreover, not permanent, but fluid: these are officials for whom service in the colonies is only a step

to a further career, merchants and owners plantations seeking to cash in on the exploitation of the coloured population in the shortest possible time.

In the Union of South Africa and in the East African British possessions, there are several hundred thousand Indians brought here in the form of recruitment and the conclusion of enslaving contracts to work in mines and plantations. They are, like the Negroes, in an unequal position in relation to the Europeans, they are regarded as an “inferior race”. This provokes the indignation of the Indian populace and creates conflicts between India and the Union of South Africa, where Indians are most common and where racial discrimination is most pronounced.

The extreme backwardness of most African countries, fragmentation into many colonies of different states, weak economic and political ties between individual colonies, the policy of racial discrimination, through which the imperialists try to separate the “white” workers from the “black”—all this seriously complicates the development of the African liberation movement. peoples. Nevertheless, the aggravation of the general crisis of the colonial system that began after the Second World War was also expressed in this sector of the colonial world by the rise of the liberation struggle. At the same time, it is characteristic that along with the increasing unrest and uprisings in individual countries (for example, the uprising in Madagascar in 1947, suppressed by the French authorities with extreme cruelty), the craving for broad associations of oppressed peoples is increasing. An example of this is the Democratic African Union, which

embraced the peoples of French West and Equatorial Africa. Awareness of the commonness of their struggle against the struggle of other colonial peoples is growing in the peoples of Africa, and the exciting truth about the Soviet Union - the hope of the working people of the whole world - is coming to them more and more.

Accommodation of the population. Cities. The average population density in Africa is about 6 people per 1 sq. km, that is, somewhat less than in Latin America taken as a whole. As in South America, vast areas are almost completely unpopulated, but in South America, uninhabited areas are mostly tropical forests, in Africa - deserts. In the Sahara, the average density is not higher than 1 person per 5 sq. km, in fact, the population is grouped in oases scattered among empty spaces. The valley of the lower Nile in Egypt is the most densely populated; in terms of population density (over 500 people per 1 sq. km), it stands alongside such regions as the lower reaches of the Yangtzejiang in China or the Ganges valley in India.

There are few large cities in Africa. Almost all of them are in the extreme south and in the extreme north. Cairo alone has over 1 million inhabitants, Alexandria and Johannesburg over 500 thousand, Cape Town, Durban, Algeria, Oran, Tunisia, Casablanca from 200 to 500 thousand.

Overview of the Economy

Most of Africa is extremely backward: the economy is based on manual labor, machines are almost never used, there is no large-scale industry at all, and there

are few railways. Those industries that serve the needs of the local population are especially backward. Only a few countries stand out for their comparatively higher development. These include primarily the Union of South Africa, then Algeria and Egypt.

The Union of South Africa has a global mining industry, a significant manufacturing industry, and a relatively dense railroad network. But the Negro masses, who make up the majority of the population, live in conditions of extreme economic and cultural backwardness.

Thus, the Union of South Africa occupies an intermediate position between the usual “coloured” colony and dominions such as Canada and Australia.

They are inferior to the South African Union, but Algeria and Egypt stand out from the rest of the countries. In addition to highly specialized and highly commodity agriculture, these countries have the rudiments of industry; the transport network is quite developed.

Agriculture. Most of the African colonies produce products of tropical and subtropical agriculture. Egypt and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan are of global importance in cotton production. In general, Africa produces 4-5 million centners of cotton a year, that is, less than 10% of world production. But Egyptian cotton yields high quality fine fiber and appreciated even in countries that have their own cotton in abundance (for example, in the USA). Especially great is the importance of Egyptian cotton for the British cotton industry. England is also taking measures to develop cotton growing in their East African colonies.

The Gold Coast and Nigeria account for about half of the world's cocoa production; this culture was brought to Africa by Europeans from America. On the contrary, the production of coffee, which is native to Africa, has spread to Latin America on a much larger scale than in Africa; the share of Africa in world coffee production does not even reach 5% (coffee is produced in the countries of eastern Africa). In the North African colonies of France, olive (olive) cultivation, viticulture and winemaking are developed.

On the coast of Guinea, peanut culture and palm oil extraction are of great importance.

Africa does not occupy a large place in the world grain production. Wheat and barley are exported from Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco, and corn from the Union of South Africa. Most countries do not have enough of their own bread (most of all are imported wheat flour and rice). Durro (a type of sorghum) and beans play an important role in the diet of the indigenous population.

Of the livestock products, wool is of export importance, which comes mainly from the Union of South Africa.

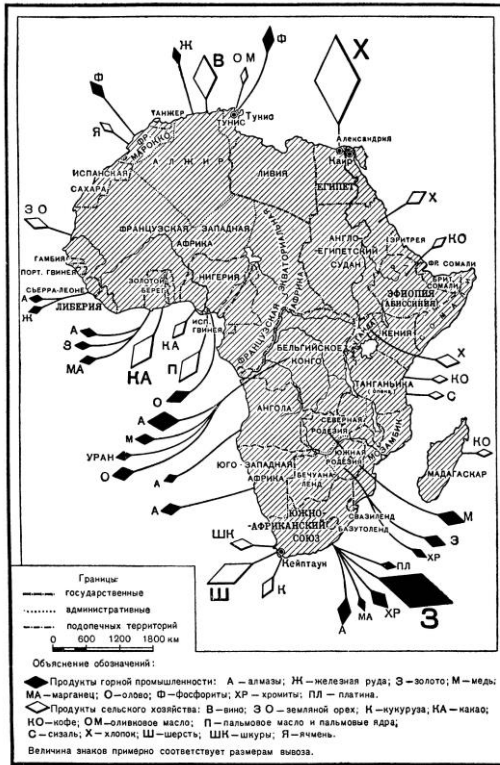
Mining. The Union of South Africa provides the world's largest gold production. Gold mining centre - Johannesburg in the Transvaal. There is also a large-scale mining of diamonds, manganese, chromium and the only large-scale mining of coal in Africa (over 20 million tons per year); part of the coal is used to supply ocean-going steamers calling at South African ports. Manganese, except for the Union of South Africa, is mined in the Gold Coast, diamonds in the Belgian

Congo. Iron ore is mined in significant quantities in Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco and exported to Europe.

Copper (Northern Rhodesia and Belgian Congo) and tin (Nigeria) are mined in significant quantities from non-ferrous metals. Uranium ore is mined in the Belgian Congo. Of the nonmetallic minerals, the mining of phosphorites is of great importance (in Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria).

Transport. Africa's backwardness is evident from the underdevelopment of its railway network; for Africa this is especially significant, since inland water transport plays an insignificant role there. According to the average provision of the territory with railways Africa ranks last among the inhabited parts of the world.

In the deserts and steppes of northern Africa, the predominant mode of travel is on camels, which are used to transport both goods and people. In South Africa, transportation by bulls is common, which are harnessed in several pairs to huge carts. In areas of tropical forests and savannahs, human power (black porters) is widely used.



107. Состав вывоза из стран Африки.

107. The composition of the export from African countries.
 Explanation of symbols: Products of the mining industry: A – diamonds; F – iron ore; З - gold; M - copper; MA – manganese; O – tin; F – phosphorites; XP - chromites; PL - platinum. ^ O ^
 Agricultural products: B – wine; З О - ground nut; K – corn; CA – cocoa; КО – coffee; OM – olive oil; P – palm oil and palm kernels; C - sisal; X – cotton; Ш – шерсть; ШК - skins; I am barley.
 The size of the signs approximately corresponds to the size of the export.

EGYPT

Egypt is a kingdom tied to England by an enslaving treaty of “alliance and friendship”, in fact dependent on England. Area - about 1 million sq. Km, population 20 million. The capital is Cairo.

Natural conditions. The territory of Egypt is located in an almost regular quadrangle in the northeastern corner of Africa, including the Sinai Peninsula, located already within the geographical limits of Asia. In the north, Egypt is adjacent to the Mediterranean Sea, in the east - to the Red Sea; of the two bays that end the Red Sea, the western (Gulf of Suez) is connected to the Mediterranean by the Suez Canal.

In fact, the inhabited area of Egypt is only 35 thousand square meters. km, less than 4% of the entire territory. Almost all of it is enclosed in the Nile Valley, stretched by a narrow ribbon across the whole of Egypt and ending in a triangular extension—the Nile delta. There is an expression: “Egypt is the Nile.” Recurring floods have fertilized the Nile Valley with thick silt deposits every year. The waters of the Nile are a source of irrigation, thanks to which The “green corridor” of the valley forms such a sharp contrast to the surrounding desert.

The climate of Egypt is hot and dry. In Cairo, the average temperature in January is $+12.3^{\circ}$, in August $+28.6^{\circ}$, to the south it is even much hotter (in Aswan the average August is $+33.6^{\circ}$). To the west of the Nile lies the flat Libyan Desert with individual oases located in depressions among the flat plateau; in the oases -

plantings of the date palm. Between the Nile and the Red Sea is the more mountainous and rocky Arabian Desert.

Rem is the more mountainous and rocky Arabian desert.

Economy. The importance of Egypt is mainly determined by two facts: 1) the Suez Canal passes through the territory of Egypt; 2) Egypt is a major supplier of high quality cotton, especially for the British cotton industry. British capital created powerful irrigation facilities here, developed a cotton-ginning industry and turned Egypt into a country of cotton specialization. Irrigation structures in Egypt consist of a dense network of canals (total length of about 25 thousand km), powerful dams and grandiose reservoirs, which are opened in summer, during a lack of water in the Nile. The most extensive of these reservoirs is the Assuan.

Thanks to the warm winter, agricultural work lasts all year round; cultures change seasons. Cotton is a summer culture; in addition to cotton, rice and sugarcane are cultivated in summer; autumn culture—corn—the main bread of the Egyptian peasant (fellah); winter crops - wheat, beans, clover. Crop changes take place in different ways, depending on the demand for cotton. Most often, the same field is sown with cotton every three years, and the rest of the time is used for other crops. or lying under steam. In general, under cotton is approximately 1/3 of the cultivated area (excluding a couple). But in the export, cotton and cottonseed occupy from 70 to 85% in different years.

On the coast of the Red Sea are the only comparatively significant oil fields in Africa; in addition, phosphorites, manganese, and salt are mined.

The manufacturing industry, which is weak in itself, is nevertheless a noticeable size for Africa; the most developed is the ginning industry, followed by the sugar, tobacco, and textile industries. The main industrial and commercial centres are Cairo and Alexandria. Alexandria is the most important port in Egypt.

The people of Egypt are seeking the removal of British troops, an end to British interference in Egyptian affairs and the liberation of Anglo-Egyptian Sudan from British rule. The British imperialists are trying by all means to preserve their domination over Egypt, resorting to executions and other violence and cruelty.

AUSTRALIA

AUSTRALIAN UNION

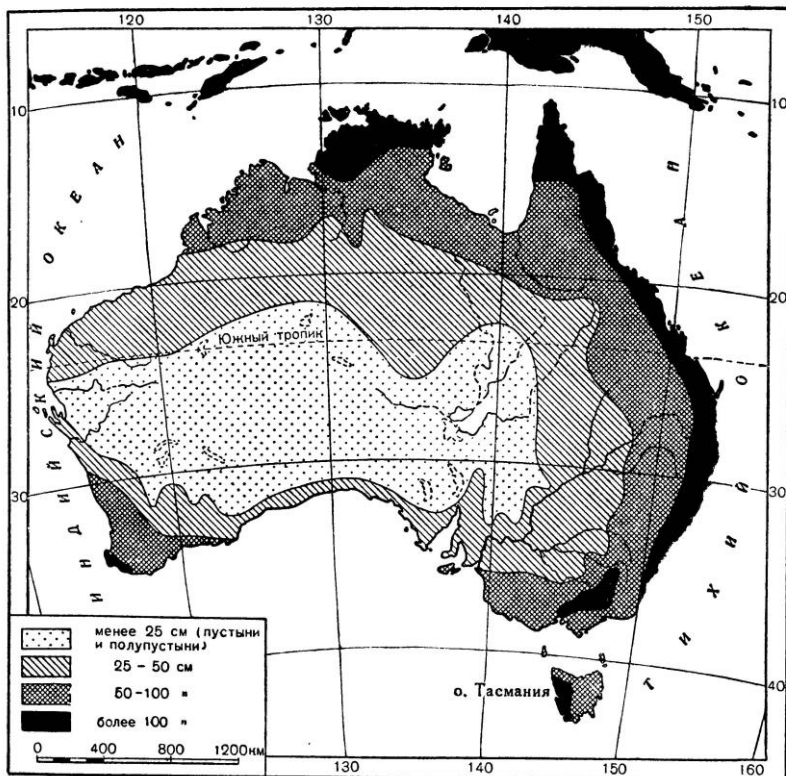
The Commonwealth of Australia is a British dominion. Occupies the entire mainland Australia and the mainland island of Tasmania. It consists of six states: New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia and Tasmania. The Northern Territory, which does not have self-government and is subordinate to the central government of the Union, is in a special position. The area of the Commonwealth of Australia is 7.7 million square meters. km Population 8 million The capital of the Union is a small, purpose-built city of Canberra.

The Australian Union owns the territory of Papua New Guinea; in addition, under his tutelage are the former German colonies in New Guinea and on the Bismarck Islands and the Solomon Islands lying to the east of it. The total area of these territories is 470 thousand square meters. km; population 1 million.

Natural conditions

The isolation of Australia. Geographically, Australia is a very isolated continent. On three sides, it faces the open expanse of the oceans - the Pacific in the east, Indian in the west and south. Only in the north does Australia join the region of archipelagos and inland seas that form a link with southeast Asia.

Australia is one of the most remote regions of the world in relation to Europe; the distance from London to Sydney on the Suez or Panama routes is almost the same. Australia became known to Europeans later than all other inhabited parts of the world.



108. Распределение годовых осадков в Австралии.

108. Distribution of annual precipitation in Australia.

The isolation of Australia has left an imprint of remarkable originality on the nature of its flora and fauna. Here, for example, various breeds of marsupial animals (kangaroos, etc.) are widespread; only in Australia are there mammals that lay eggs (the platypus). On the other hand, many of the species found in other parts of the world are not found in Australia. All types of domestic animals, all the most important cultivated plants were brought to Australia by Europeans.

Australia's isolation and lack of tameable animals also left an imprint on its initial economic development. The local culture, which developed before the arrival of the Europeans, was distinguished by its exceptional primitiveness: the Australians lived by gathering fruits, hunting and fishing; agriculture, animal husbandry and the use of metals were not familiar to them.

Coastline, surface, rivers. Australia, like Africa and South America, is a weakly dissected continent. The Gulf of Carpentaria (in the north) juts out deepest into the land, but its transport value is negligible, since it cuts into an almost unpopulated part of the mainland. To the south lies the large but slightly protruding Great Australian Bight; the shores of both bays, as well as almost the entire western coast, are inconvenient for navigation. The coast of eastern and southeastern Australia is richer in bays. Off the northeastern coast, a significant inconvenience is the Great Barrier Reef, which stretches for 2 thousand km along the coast, making it difficult to access from the ocean. In the area of tropical climate, 3/5—in the area of subtropical

climate. In Melbourne, in the South, the average January temperature is +20°, July 9°. **liks** construct huge barbed wire fences: The Great Rabbit Barrier in Western Australia stretches for 1560 km.

The relief structure of Australia is not difficult. The Australian Cordillera stretch along the east coast, reaching the highest altitude in the south (up to 2200 m). The Cordillera rise rather steeply from the coast and dip gently inland. The middle part of the mainland, west of the Cordillera, is occupied by vast lowlands; the deepest depression (near the salty Lake Eyre) lies 12 m below sea level. Almost the entire western part of the continent is a monotonous low plateau (200-500 m), in places crossed by ridges (up to 1000-1500 m).

Australia is extremely poor in rivers. There is only one vast river basin - r. Murray with tributaries Darling and Murrumbidgee; these rivers flow from the western slopes of the Cordillera and irrigate the Mid Australian Lowlands. There are no permanent rivers in the interior regions of the continent; there are so-called screams—the channels, which are filled with water only after the rains.

Mineral wealth. Australia is rich in coal. Reserves—about 170 billion tons (almost the same as in England); the main deposits in the east, in the states of New South Wales (in the vicinity of Sydney) and Queensland (in the vicinity of Brisbane). There are also large reserves of iron ore (in South Australia and New South Wales). There is gold in many places (the Coolgardie and Kalgoorlie deposits in Western Australia are especially

important). There are significant deposits of polymetallic ores (Broken Hill in New South Wales).

Climate, vegetation, fauna. Australia is the only inhabited continent that lies entirely in the southern hemisphere (the northern tip of Australia is $10^{\circ} 47'S$; the southern tip of Tasmania is $43^{\circ} 39'S$). 2/b Australia lie.

Much of Australia is extremely poor in rainfall. The tropical north receives rainfall from the summer monsoons. On the southeast coast, it rains at all times of the year, but the sea winds are held back by the mountains, and inland precipitation decreases rapidly. Approximately one-third of Australia receives less than 25 cm of annual precipitation, and another $1/3$ — from 25 to 50 cm. Moreover, the rains fall for the most part with stormy, rapidly passing downpours; dry “screams” swell and produce devastating floods. A significant part of precipitation quickly penetrates the permeable soil and accumulates in depth; Because of the abundance of groundwater in many of Australia’s arid regions, artesian well irrigation is possible.

There are few dense forests in Australia. On the northern and northeastern coasts, there are thickets of tropical forests. But the most characteristic for Australia are light, shade-free forests of eucalyptus and acacias, and in dry areas—steppes with thickets of thorny bushes (“scrapers”), sometimes forming impenetrable thickets. Eucalyptus, which grows rapidly and reaches a great height (100 m, in exceptional cases up to 150 m), gives good wood, and eucalyptus oil is extracted from its leaves (for medical and technical purposes). Eucalyptus sucks a lot of moisture from the

soil, which is harmful in Australian conditions; but in other parts of the world, this property of eucalyptus is used by planting it in wetlands.

The fauna of Australia did not give any valuable animals for domestication. Domestic animals introduced by Europeans have found quite suitable living conditions in Australia. Of these, the rabbits that bred incredibly in the Australian steppes became a real disaster; huge lengths of barbed wire are being erected against rabbits: the Great Rabbit Barrier in Western Australia stretches for 1,560 km.



109. Австралийский Союз.

109. Australian Union.

Population

The colonisation of Australia by Europeans began in 1788. The British government chose Australia as a place of exile, and the first batch of settlers consisted of exiles, guards and officers. The economy of the colony could not improve for a long time. Things got better since the time when a stratum of the free population appeared among the colonists - from exiles who had served their sentences, from officers who had served, and then from free immigrants from England. Merino sheep were brought to Australia, and the Australian steppes turned out to be the most suitable for them. On the other hand, sheep breeding was especially convenient for sparsely populated Australia in that it did not require a large number of workers, but required pasture areas, which were abundant. A strong impetus to the settlement of Australia was given by the discovery of gold in 1851, which attracted a lot of gold prospectors, most of whom remained in the country after the depletion of gold mines.

Indigenous Australians were destroyed by the Europeans in every way: they raided them, poisoned the water in the springs. Now native Australians survived only in the desert regions of inner Australia and in the tropical north. There are about 73 thousand of them.

The white population is almost exclusively of British descent; Australia is a much more “English” country by birth than Canada. Emigrants from Asian countries are not allowed to Australia. But the restrictive measures on the admission of immigrants apply to Europeans of non-British descent.

Australia is the most sparsely populated of the continents. The average population density is 1 person per 1 sq. km. In fact, 3/4 of the population is concentrated in the coastal strip of southeastern Australia. On the rest of the mainland, only a small area in the extreme southwest is distinguished by population.

All major cities are seaside: on the southern coast - Melbourne (over 1.2 million inhabitants) and Adelaide (366 thousand), on the east—Sydney (1.4 million) and Brisbane (384 thousand), on the west—Perth, and its port of Fremantle (together 233 thousand).

Overview of the Economy

Like Canada, Australia is a developed country that differs sharply from conventional colonies. Especially the high level of capitalism in agriculture brings Canada and Australia closer. Australian agriculture is distinguished by the wide use of wage labor, strong mechanization, and high marketability; over 40% of all agricultural products go to the external market, the leading industry is wool sheep breeding—sends over 80% of the total wool collection abroad.

In terms of industrial development, Australia ranks well above the usual type of colonies, although it is inferior in this respect to Canada. In Australia, agriculture remains the backbone of the economy. It gives 60% of all the production of the Australian economy. and the vast majority of Australian exports. Apart from agricultural products, only the products of the mining industry take a significant place in the export.

The manufacturing industry works almost exclusively for the domestic market, not fully covering its needs for machines, automobiles, textiles, chemical products and other industrial goods. But during the Second World War, the Australian industry increased significantly, especially in the production of weapons. The Second World War weakened the position of British capital in Australia. The penetration of American capital has increased, especially in Australian industry.

Agriculture. From the very beginning of the free colonization of Australia, the British government embarked on a course of creating a class of large landowners in the new colony (in order to create the support of its power). Huge plots at first were given out completely free of charge to aristocrats and simply money people who came from England, then they began to be sold or leased.

Along with large landowners, a stratum of medium and small farmers was formed. Farmers fought against the dominance of large-scale landholdings; They achieved some restrictions on large landownership, but did not break it. Large-scale farming (mainly cattle breeding) still plays an important role.

Wool sheep breeding occupies a leading place in the Australian economy. Australia ranks first in the world in the collection of wool (400-500 thousand tons per year, over 1/4 of the world harvest). Sheep herd over 100 million heads. The breeding of fine-wooled merino sheep is especially developed in Australia. Sheep breeding is most common in the southeast, but not on the coast itself, but in the mountains and to the west of

them, reaching approximately to the arid zone, receiving less than 25 cm of rainfall per year.

Cattle (14 million heads), on the other hand, are raised mainly on the wet coast of eastern Australia and in the interior of Queensland. In the coastal areas, cattle-breeding-agricultural or purely cattle-breeding farms prevail (30-150 dairy cows per farm); they supply milk to cooperative factories that produce butter, cheese, and condensed milk. A significant amount of dairy products, especially butter, are exported.

Inland Queensland is dominated by large cattle-breeding farms, covering a huge area (there are holdings of 500 thousand to 1 million hectares) and numbering thousands and tens of thousands of cattle. The cattle are sent from here to the slaughterhouses in the coastal cities. Export of meat and dairy products from Australia began at the end of the 19th century, after the appearance of refrigerator steamers (refrigerators).

Inland pastoralism in Australia is under constant threat of drought. Droughts are frequent. Sometimes they last for several years in a row. For water supply, many artesian wells have been drilled and reservoirs have been built. Nevertheless, in severe and prolonged droughts, cattle die in droves.

Agriculture for a long time retained only consumer value. Since the end of the XIX century. the export of wheat from Australia began. Australia is currently one of the world's largest wheat exporters. The main wheat belt is in the southeast of Australia, west of the Cordillera, in a belt that receives 40-100 cm of annual precipitation. The harvest ranges from 30 to 60 million

centners per year; a significant (very fluctuating) part of the collection is exported (grain and flour).

On the tropical northeast coast, Queensland, the sugarcane culture is widespread. Horticulture and viticulture are of great importance in southeastern Australia; Tasmania is famous for its apples. Fresh and dried fruits are exported.

Industry. Gold mining that played a big role in the history of colonization of Australia is not of previous importance. There was a time when Australia gave up to 80% of the world's gold production, now it gives only 3-4%, ranking fourth among the capitalist countries. The main developments are in Western Australia (Coolgardie and Kalgoorlie). The mining of silver and non-ferrous metals is quite important. But in the first place in terms of production value is now coal, which is mined in the east, in the vicinity of Sydney (mining 15 million tons per year). The extraction of iron ore and the production of ferrous metal have significantly increased in recent years.

The main branches of the manufacturing industry are food (flour-grinding, meat, sugar refining, etc.), textile, machine-building (mainly the production of agricultural machinery, steam locomotive construction, and auto-building). During the Second World War, a large military industry was created.

The main industrial centres are Sydney and Melbourne, followed by Brisbane, Adelaide, Perth.

Accommodation of the farm. As we have already seen, most of Australia is still virtually untapped. Southeastern Australia and a small area in the southwestern corner concentrate almost the entire

population and economy. Further inland, extensive livestock breeding penetrates and there are separate mining centres.

The entire centre of the mainland, most of the west and north economically are almost empty regions.

There is only one railway linking the west and east of Australia. The only transcontinental line crossing Australia from north to south is not completed.

The sharp unevenness of the economic development of Australia is explained by a number of reasons. 1. The economy of Australia developed as a colonial economy, as an appendage to the economy of the metropolis, it is closely connected with the external market. As we have seen, all of Australia's largest cities are seaports through which the Australian economy is connected to the outside world. This gravitation of the economy to the "periphery" (ie, to the outskirts) of the mainland, and not to the centre, is a common feature of most colonial and semi-colonial countries (compare with the location of the economy in South America and Africa). 2. This attraction to the sea is sharply enhanced by the natural conditions of the Australian mainland - the dryness of the interior regions, the absence of large navigable rivers that would facilitate penetration into the interior of the country. Most of Australia is one of the most difficult countries in the world to develop. However, it should be noted that the previously existing notion of the complete desolation of inner Australia is increasingly refuted by the latest research. In many areas there is sufficient grass cover for livestock raising, there is groundwater for irrigation using wells. Not only the area under pastures, but also the cultivated area

can be greatly expanded. 3. The development of Australia is hampered by protective measures against immigration (especially Asian).

NEW ZEALAND

In 2000 km southeast of Australia there is a double island New Zealand - the British dominion. Area 268 thousand sq. km (slightly more than Great Britain); population 1.8 million Capital—Wellington.

The western part of the Samoa Islands (a former German colony) is under the tutelage of New Zealand.

New Zealand lies between 34° and 47° S. sh., stretching from northeast to southwest for 1500 km. The Cook Strait divides New Zealand into two islands - North and South. The islands are mountainous, especially the South Island: the New Zealand Alps rise up to 3780 m, their peaks are covered with vast glaciers. The climate is mild and humid. In Wellington (in the middle of New Zealand), the average temperature of the warmest month is +16.6°, the coldest +8.4°. The prevailing winds are from the west. The western coast of the South Island receives over 200 cm of rainfall per year.

Unlike Australia, New Zealand was quite densely populated before the arrival of Europeans, and its indigenous population (Maori) achieved significant cultural development. The Maori gave the British stubborn resistance and only after a series of wars of destruction and uprisings did they submit. Now there are only 82,000 Maori left.

The New Zealand farm is specialized in cattle breeding. Accordingly, the higher humidity of the climate, the direction of cattle breeding is somewhat different than in Australia: in the first place is the production of dairy products (butter, cheese) and meat,

in the second - the production of wool. On average, 80% of all exports go to England, for which New Zealand serves as one of the main “meat and dairy farms”.

The largest cities and seaports in New Zealand are Auckland (263 thousand inhabitants) and Wellington (173 thousand inhabitants), both on the North Island.

CONCLUSION

In 1927, in an interview with the first American workers' delegation, Comrade Stalin said: "... in the course of the further development of the international revolution and international reaction, two world-scale centres will emerge: the socialist centre, pulling together the countries gravitating towards socialism, and the capitalist centre, pulling together the countries gravitating towards capitalism. The struggle between these two camps will decide the fate of capitalism and socialism throughout the world."

This forecast has been fully justified in our time, when the world has sharply divided into two main camps - the imperialist and anti-democratic camp, on the one hand, and the democratic and anti-imperialist camp, on the other. The centre of the imperialist camp is the United States of America ("the citadel of capitalism," as Comrade Stalin calls it), the centre of the democratic camp is the Soviet Union, the country of victorious socialism, confidently moving towards communism.

As can be seen from the economic and geographical survey of foreign countries, most of these countries are currently still part of the capitalist system in one way or another. In the United Nations, the American-British imperialists have an obedient majority. The head of the imperialist camp, the United States, ranks first in the world in terms of industrial production. But it would be a grave mistake to overestimate the strength of capitalism and underestimate the strength of socialism

based on formal digital data. Dialectical materialism teaches to evaluate social forces, first of all, proceeding from the tendency of their development, to look at whether a given social force is progressive, developing, on the rise, or, on the contrary, regressive, obsolete, going down, "... to those strata of society that do not develop anymore, although they currently represent the prevailing force, and those strata that are developing have a future, although they do not currently represent the prevailing force" (Stalin).

In our era—the era of socialist revolutions and the general crisis of capitalism—the socialist system is precisely a developing force that is on the rise, while the capitalist system is an aging force that is going down.

At the beginning of World War II, Germany, together with its vassals, had a great superiority over the Soviet Union in military equipment and had an important advantage in the surprise of her treacherous attack. Nevertheless, the Soviet Union not only withstood the onslaught of the enemy hordes, but also dealt them fatal blows that determined the outcome of the war. This was possible precisely because of the progressiveness of the Soviet system, its superiority over the system of enemy states; and hence follows the moral and political superiority of the Soviet people over the enemy, a high level of Soviet patriotism. As a result, the Second World War led not to the crushing of the Soviet Union, as the fascist aggressors and their British and American associates had hoped, but to an enormous growth in the moral and political authority of the Soviet Union throughout the world, to a new breakthrough of

the imperialist front, to the expansion of the socialist system at the expense of the capitalist one.

Further, it must be borne in mind that the forces of the democratic camp are by no means limited to the Soviet Union, the countries of people's democracies and those colonial and semi-colonial countries that have liberated themselves or are freeing themselves from the imperialist yoke. These forces are steadily growing and becoming more active in those countries where capitalism dominates today. This is evidenced by the growing influence of the Communist Parties in France, Italy and many other countries. This is evidenced by the widespread upsurge of liberation movements among the colonial peoples, which undermines the position of imperialism in the colonies and semi-colonies. This is evidenced by the growing ranks of peace fighters everywhere.

It is from this point of view that we should consider data on the population size, on the size and location of production in the countries of the world. It is indisputable that the countries of the imperialist camp today provide more coal, oil, steel, etc., than the countries of the democratic camp. This preponderance is primarily due to the large size of production in the United States. But US production grew the most during the war; after its end, it decreased and rose again only as a result of the deployment of a war against the Korean people and the transition to an intensified arms race. Behind the production figures in the United States (as in other capitalist countries) is the joyless forced labor of the disenfranchised workers, the labor of compulsion and bitter necessity; behind them lies the

hopeless poverty of the majority of the working people, ineradicable unemployment, and the intensification of the class struggle; behind them is the fierce struggle of the monopolies for the division of profits ripped off the working class, the predatory depletion of labor and natural resources, the decline of bourgeois culture, the uncertainty of the ruling bourgeoisie in the strength of its rule, its fear of the forces of democracy and progress. Behind the multitude of countries, one way or another entering the capitalist system, is the struggle of the oppressed peoples against the oppressors, there are contradictions between the imperialist powers themselves, leading to imperialist wars, making it impossible for strong long-term alliances in the camp of imperialism. These are indicators of the weakness and doom of the capitalist system. It does not at all follow from this that the capitalist system will collapse by itself, surrender without a struggle. At the present time, when the militant forces of imperialism hastily put together aggressive blocs for the war against the Soviet Union and the People's Democracies, when an inhuman imperialist war is going on against the Korean people who want peace and freedom, it is especially important to remember the words of Comrade Stalin, spoken by him in 1934 in conversation with the English writer Wells: "... the classes that have to leave the stage of history are the last to be convinced that their role is over. It is impossible to convince them of this. It seems to them that the cracks in the decayed building of the old order can be repaired, that the crumbling building of the old order can be repaired and saved. Therefore, the dying classes take up arms and by all

means begin to defend their existence as the ruling class.”

While the world of capitalism is experiencing decline and decay, the Soviet Union has successfully accomplished the task set by Comrade Stalin - to heal the wounds inflicted by the enemy on our country in the shortest possible time and restore the pre-war level of development of the national economy in order to significantly surpass in the near future this level, increase the material well-being of the people and further strengthen the military-economic might of the Soviet state.

Despite the colossal destruction carried out on Soviet soil, already in 1948 the output of Soviet industry exceeded the 1940 level by 18° /0, in 1952 the 1940 level was surpassed by 2, 3 times.

Comrade Stalin has outlined a grandiose program for a further rise in Soviet production, the rise necessary to create the material foundations of a communist society: “We need to ensure that our industry can produce annually up to 50 million tons of pig iron, up to 60 million tons of steel, up to 500 million tons of coal. up to 60 million tons of oil. Only under this condition can it be considered that our Motherland will be guaranteed against any accidents. This will take, perhaps, three new five-year plans, if not more. But this work can be done, and we must do it. “ And the Soviet people will do this, because behind the growing production figures in the USSR stands truly free labor, which is a matter of honor and glory for the Soviet people, there is a steady rise in the well-being of the working people, the rise of Soviet science and culture, the high patriotism of the

Soviet people, confident in their future, inspired the prospect of building communism, ready to defend their homeland from any encroachments. While the imperialist powers are directing their forces to prepare for a new world war, the Soviet Union is carrying out an ambitious plan for transforming nature, building the world's greatest hydraulic engineering structures, which are called the great Stalinist construction projects of communism. These are indicators of the strength and progressiveness of the Soviet system, showing the way to the working people of the whole world. The countries of people's democracies follow this path; free from the clutches of imperialism, they independently build the foundations of socialism, enjoying the powerful support of the Soviet Union.

The sharper the contradictions shaking the camp of imperialism, the more the instigators of a new war become entangled in their intrigues, the more obvious the advantages of the socialist system become, the stronger the camp of democracy rallies around the Soviet Union, which is fighting for a lasting peace and for the security of peoples. The strength of this camp is unbreakable.

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I. Tulyakova Proofreaders G. A. Pokrovsky and Kh. Khayretdinova

Signed for printing 7/1U 1953 A01464. Paper 60 x 921 / 1v. Paper
sheets 12 1.2 incl. Printed sheets 24 3.24 incl. Accounting-ed.
sheets 26.16 2.28 incl. Price without binding 3 r. 40 k. Cards 3 r. 65
k. Binding of 75 k. Zak. No. 136.

Printed in the printing house Ш / 29/1 from the matrices of the
First Model Printing House named after A. A. Zhdanov
Soyuzpoligrafprom, Glavizdat of the Ministry of Culture of the
USSR. Moscow, Valovaya, 28.