



**Hirt<sup>s</sup>**

**Amerikakundliches Lesebuch  
für die Oberstufe an Oberschulen**

---

**Ferdinand Hirt in Breslau**

44



EX\*LIBRIS

WOJEWÓDZKIEJ

I MIEJSKIEJ

BIBLIOTEKI

PUBLICZNEJ

IM. EMANUELA SMÓŁKI

W OPOLU

HIRT<sup>s</sup>  
AMERIKAKUNDLICHES  
LESEBUCH

FÜR DIE OBERSTUFE AN OBERSCHULEN

IM AUFTRAGE EINER ARBEITSGEMEINSCHAFT

HERAUSGEGEBEN VON

HEINRICH FISCHER

1 9



4 2

---

FERDINAND HIRT IN Breslau, KÖNIGSPLATZ 1

**Der Kreis der Mitarbeiter:**

**Dr. Heinrich Fischer, Stadtschulrat in Hannover; Dr. Walther Azzalino, Studienrat in Magdeburg; Walter Gerlach, Oberstudiendirektor in Osnabrück; Dr. Gustav Hagemann, Oberstudienrat in Bochum; Dr. Ger d Krause, Studienrat und Universitätslektor in Königsberg; Dr. Alfred Steindamm, Oberstudienrat in Stettin**

Mit 21 Abbildungen

308(43)



4262 5

**ZBIORY ŚLĄSKIE**

---

Copyright 1942 by Ferdinand Mirt in Breslau

Druck: C. A. T. Böhmischo-Mährische Druck- und Verlagsaktiengesellschaft in Prag

Atlas VI Nr 316/71/5

## Contents

Reading Matter	Page	Reading Matter	Page
<b>I. On Climate and Settlement of the U.S.A.</b> .....			5
1. The Settlement of the East and Middle-West .....	5	2. The Settlement of the West	6
		3. Climate and Man .....	8
<b>II. The Melting Pot</b> .....			9
1. Immigration and Population	9	5. The Jews in the United States .....	16
2. The Negro Problem .....	12	6. A Homogeneous American People in the Future? .....	18
3. Harlem .....	15		
4. The Education of Negroes in America .....	16		
<b>III. A Glimpse on American Traits</b> .....			21
1. Puritan Laws and Character	21	3. Two Characteristic American Traits .....	24
2. The Gospel of Manliness and National Activism .....	23	4. The Standardised American Citizen .....	25
<b>IV. The German Element in the U.S.A.</b> .....			26
1. German Exiles fall among Sea Sharks and Land Sharks	26	4. Pennsylvania-Dutch .....	34
2. The Pennsylvania Dutch dot Penn's Land with Red Barns	28	5. German Influence in American Education and Culture	37
3. General Nicholas Herkimer	30	6. German Americans during the World War .....	39
<b>V. On History and Politics of the U.S.A.</b> .....			40
1. The Declaration of Independence .....	40	5. Woodrow Wilson and the Great War .....	48
2. The Constitution .....	43	6. The Almighty Dollar .....	55
3. Lincoln's Gettysburg Address .....	46	7. The Powers of President Franklin D. Roosevelt .....	56
4. Sectional Conflict in the U.S.A. ....	47	8. British Propaganda in the U.S.A. ....	59
		9. The English and the U.S.A.	60

Reading Matter	Page	Reading Matter	Page
<b>VI. On Economic and Social America</b> .....			63
1. Education in the U.S.A. ...	63	8. The Agricultural Crisis in the U.S.A. and its Causes .	81
2. Luther Burbank .....	65	9. The Slump of 1929 in the U.S.A. ....	82
3. Henry Ford .....	69	10. A Survey of the Current Relief situation in Illinois, Winter of 1938 .....	84
4. Corporations and Trusts ...	74	11. A New America? .....	86
5. The American Plutocracy ..	76		
6. Controlling other People's Money .....	78		
7. A Paradox of Rich Land and Poor People .....	80		

## I. On Climate and Settlement of the U. S. A.

### I. The Settlement of the East and Middle West

America in colonial days was a land of farmers. Our forefathers on migrating to America found no great cities with innumerable openings for the industrious and thrifty, no great industries with salaried positions awaiting them. They found only a vast, uncultivated region — the valleys, the plains, the illimitable succession of rolling hills, crowned with primeval forest; and from this they must clear the timbers and delve into the soil for their daily bread. Hence a nation of tillers of the soil. A few ministers and artisans, rulers and merchants, 10 there had to be, but their combined numbers were few compared with the great body of the people, — the farmers.

In New England, however, the soil was not fertile; a farmer could get a living from the soil and perhaps a little more, but he could not thrive and accumulate money, and it was not long before many of the people turned their attention to the sea. They became fishermen and sailors, shipbuilders and merchants. They took cargoes of fish and cattle and the products of the forest and of the soil to the West Indies, to England, and to Spain, and brought in return molasses and the many articles of manufacture that they could not make at home. There were few manufactories, but the people 20 supplied many of their own wants. Nearly every farmer was also a rude mechanic. He and his sons usually made the furniture for the household and many of the implements of the farm as well, while his wife and daughters spun the flax and wove it into a coarse cloth from which the family was clothed.

Passing westward into New York, we find a soil very different from the barren lands of New England. The great valleys of the Hudson and the Mohawk were exceedingly fertile, and in this colony the majority of the people were tillers of the soil.

But New York was by no means wholly agricultural. The second great industry was that of trade, and this was of two kinds — trade with foreign 30 countries and the other colonies and the Indian fur trade. New York City was the center of all maritime commerce and was a formidable rival of Boston and Philadelphia.

In New Jersey the mode of life was somewhat similar to that of New England, from which many of the people had emigrated. This was especially true of East Jersey, while in West Jersey, where the Quakers predominated, the mode of life resembled that of Pennsylvania. The soil, with the exception of the sand regions in some portions of the colony, was fertile, and farming was practically the sole industry. There were few large estates, the great majority of the settlers being small farmers, each with his clearing in the 40 forest; and this, with the fact there were few slaves or indented servants, brought about a social equality unknown in most of the colonies.

The moment we cross the Delaware into Pennsylvania we find a notable change in colonial society. The chief industry was farming; the soil was rich and productive, and the river valleys were laden with waving fields of grain every year, while the broad meadows and mountain slopes were dotted with grazing herds. But there were other occupations in Pennsylvania. Many were engaged in the fur trade and still more in foreign commerce, while the iron industry had its beginning early in the eighteenth century.

Crossing into Maryland and Virginia, we again find a great change in the social atmosphere. Here there was little or no town life; villages were few and insignificant. The planter or great landlord stood at the head of society; 10 the plantation was the center of social and industrial activity, and the sole important product of the plantation was tobacco. The great estates were situated along the river valleys. In the center stood the well-built and well-furnished mansion of the landlord, and around it were clustered the offices, tobacco houses, barns, stables, and negro huts, the whole presenting the appearance of a small village.

As we move farther to the southward we find another marked change. Here, especially in South Carolina, the great staple was rice. The rice planters were men of education and culture, and they comprised the ruling class. Most of them lived in Charleston and spent but a few months of the year 20 in the malarial regions in which the rice was produced.

The small farmers of the South were a respectable class, and of course more numerous than the great planters. They were slave owners on a small scale, and many of them rose by genius, or by thrift and industry, to the upper class, while there was an almost impassable barrier between them and the lower classes, composed of servants and slaves.

*From Henry William Elson: History of the United States of America. — New York 1937.*

## 2. The Settlement of the West

The conquest and the settlement of the "empire" passed through several 30 distinct stages, the nature of which was largely determined by the character of the employment in which the "conquerors" were engaged. The first stage was the trapper and trader; he was followed by the prospector and miner; then came the cattlemen with their picturesque cowboys, and the sheep-herder; finally came the farmer, either on a small or large scale. The Government catered for this last class particularly, and passed the famous Homestead Act (1862) which granted to any citizen or declarant 160 acres of land. The only conditions were that the homesteader must reside on the land for five years and pay certain entry fees.

As was only to be expected, the new territory grew by leaps and bounds. 40 California, once the hunting-ground of the gold-miners, became the home of immense wheat-fields, orange-, lemon-, fig-, and walnut-orchards, and a source of seemingly inexhaustible forests, from which lumber could be cut

at will. The development of the grape industry, with its sister product, opened up a field of endeavour almost as lucrative as the gold-mines. The city of San Francisco, with its beautiful harbour, rapidly developed, particularly after the completion of the railways, into the main gateway to and from the Orient. The mining fever of the "forty-niners" played a large part in the development of Nevada. Rich "strikes" were made in silver and gold, and millions of dollars worth of these precious minerals were taken from the mountains and streams in a comparatively short time. The prospectors met with similar success in Colorado, Idaho, Wyoming, and Montana. Each new discovery was followed by a rush of adventurers, many of the old fields, but thousands of new ones from all quarters of the earth. The Dakotas furnished a different sort of wealth, i. e. wheat-fields. The invention of several mechanical aids to the farmer permitted agriculture on a large scale and enabled the entrepreneurs to manage vast farms, despite the scarcity of labour.



Up the Narrows in Zion Canyon

The disappearance of the frontier was rapid and complete. — Now the Wild West is no more. Congress, recognising the vast natural beauties of parts of the region, has created many national parks, such as the Yellowstone, Yosemite, and Grand Canyon, which will ever remain as mementoes of a vanished civilisation.

*From W. H. Hudson and J. S. Guernsey: The United States. 1922.*

### 3. Climate and Man in the U. S. A.

The influence of climate upon human life in the United States offers a vast field, which is quite beyond the scope and limits of this chapter.

Both the East and the West, by their range of temperatures, the reliefs of the land and the presence of the sea, are more available than the lowland interior. An exception is found among the northern lakes, great and small, and in the forested highlands of the upper lake region. On the Atlantic side are the mountains, glacial lakes and seashores of New England and New York, sought in large part for the cooler temperatures of summer. From New York to the Carolinas are intermediate goals of rest and diversion. 10 Atlantic City, Newport News, Old Point Comfort, Asheville in the Appalachians, and many others, are places of year-long resort, where winter and summer are mild. Here the northerner finds relief from extreme cold in winter and the southerner escapes from tropical heat. Florida is more and more crowded by the hundreds of thousands who seek a complete change from the snows and zero records of the northern states.

The West in turn has more pronounced environments of atmosphere and scenery. We need but name here the tubercular patients who seek the dry air and altitudes of Colorado, New Mexico and Arizona, or the throngs drawn by the frosty nights and unusual natural features of the Yellowstone 20 and other national parks in the northern mountains. California is the western rival of Florida in her attraction of the invalid, the aged, the tourist and the permanent settler, by her varied climate. Here are prevailing sunshine, mild winters, cool summers, the seashore, the high mountains and great forests, perhaps the largest variety of climatic and scenic conditions which any American state affords. More and more, Americans are adjusting their movements to climatic conditions.

The indirect effects of American climates are many and profound. Perhaps nowhere else in the world have such intensive and effective efforts been made to create an artificial climate in homes as in the cold American North. 30 European critics of American overheating are sometimes correct in their conclusions, but they seldom understand what our climate requires in the way of central heat. In the South of the old time, spacious mansions and large and lofty porches were natural evolutions. The home, unless of the rich, in New York or North Dakota, must be small and compact enough for ready heating. The rambling bungalow is suited to the sunshine and warmth and flower gardens of the Pacific coast. After all it must be said, in justice to those who face the extremes of our northern climate, that perhaps nowhere else are so many sleeping-porches, sun rooms and open balconies, in constant summer and winter use. 40

Charles Kingsley, visiting America in 1874, wrote, "One cannot do as much here as at home. One can go faster for a time but one gets exhausted sooner".

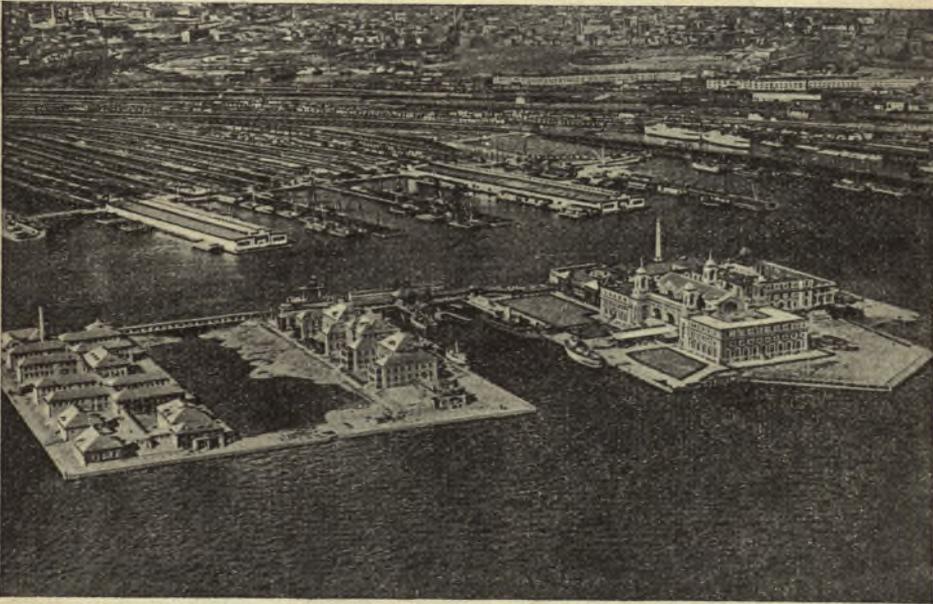
*From Albert Perry Brigham: The United States of America. London 1927.*

## II. The Melting Pot

### I. Immigration and Population

A few centuries ago portions of the populations of various countries swarmed out of the parent hive, driven perhaps by religious or political persecution, and settled in new lands for the purpose of making permanent homes. But they retained their connections with the home land. Of such classes were our thirteen colonies built up.

It was left for the nineteenth century to register a great movement of population for economic reasons, not as groups or colonies, but as individuals or in families, giving up their citizenship and adopting that of the land to which they went. Many of these went to Canada or South America or Australia, but the great majority came to the United States. Were it not for our immigrants of the nineteenth century one can readily imagine that our vast western country would still be a land of Indians and fur traders. Before 1820 no exact immigration records were kept. It is estimated that the yearly average between the close of the Revolution and 1820 was about 6700, or about 250,000 in all. After that date the number rose steadily and in 1842 it passed the hundred thousand mark. In the late forties two events



Ellis Island from the air  
(The receiving station for the immigrants into New York Harbour)

in Europe, the Irish potato famine and a political upheaval in Germany, sent great numbers of emigrants to America. Among the Germans who came were two notable men—Carl Schurz and Franz Sigel. In 1854 our immigrants reached 427,833, a number not again reached before 1872.

The Civil War checked the stream of immigration, but in the following years it rose to greater heights than ever, the Irish and Germans predominating. The banner year of the century was 1882, when 790,000 newcomers from Europe reached our shores. Soon after the war the Scandinavians began coming in increasing numbers. A sturdy, industrious, religious people they were, of a pure Teutonic stock. They settled by tens of thousands in the great agricultural regions about the sources of the Mississippi.

Later began a stream of a different class—Italians, Greeks, Russians, and others from South-eastern Europe. These came in great numbers and by 1896 they made up more than a majority of the immigrants. Of this class the proportion of illiterates was far greater than of the earlier immigrants. After the turn of the century the volume of immigration continued to swell until it had far passed the million-a-year mark. History presents no parallel to this long continued movement of population on a large scale. The American people at first and for many years welcomed the newcomers with open arms; but at length public opinion began to protest against the increasing volume, especially as many of the immigrants were of an undesirable class. In

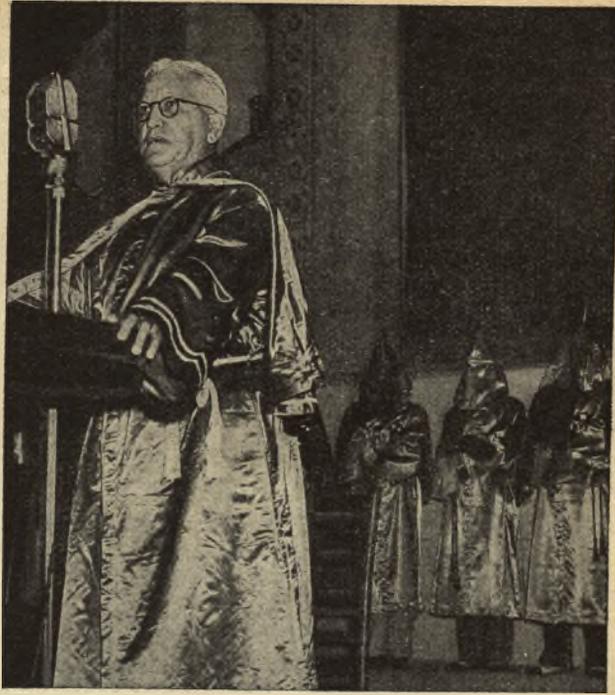
1882 Congress passed a law excluding criminals and persons likely to become public charges. But many years were yet to pass before drastic legislation was enacted greatly curtailing the privileges of foreigners in making their homes in America.

The great majority of Irish immigrants settled in the large cities along the Atlantic seaboard. They became workers in factories, laborers, builders of railroads. The Germans were chiefly farmers. Many of them remained in the eastern cities, but



Hester Street 1900

the majority went west and took up farming lands in the valley of the Ohio and the Mississippi. They were frugal and industrious; they were staunch friends of education and stable government. The English and Welsh settled chiefly in Pennsylvania and other mining states. The comers from Russia and the Mediterranean lands settled mostly in the cities. They became laborers, fruit venders, small store keepers, and especially those of Jewish blood, merchants, bankers, and financiers . . .



Cpt. John Garcia of Jacksonville, Grand Dragon, addresses assembled Klansmen at Miami (Florida)

To prevent an influx of laborers from Europe at a time when our soldiers, released from the army in large numbers after the Great War, were adjusting themselves to industry, an immigration restricting law was passed. It provided that not more than three per cent of the number of aliens in this country from any European country (based on the census of 1910) should be permitted to land during the coming year. The law was later extended to June 30, 1925.

Before the law expired another, still more drastic, was enacted. This law placed the quota from each country at two per cent of its nationals in this country in 1890. One object of the law was to cut down the coming of the racial groups from Southern and Eastern Europe, and this was the sole object in basing the quotas on the census of 1890—before those groups had begun to come in large numbers. This law was to operate until July 1, 1927. After that time the whole number of immigrants should be limited to 150,000 annually, to be apportioned to the several nations in proportion to the racial stock represented by each in our population in 1920. Each country, however, is allowed a minimum of 100 a year, and certain classes, such as relatives of recent immigrants, are admitted in excess of the quotas.

These immigration laws were in some degree the result of the influence of the Ku Klux Klan. This organisation, chartered in 1915 by Georgia, took the old name of the secret order of Reconstruction days. It claimed

to stand for pure Americanism and excluded from its membership Jews, Catholics, negroes, and alien born. It has been severely criticized as narrow and intolerant, but according to its confessed principles it stands for the better enforcement of law, for the continued separation of church and state and for Protestant, gentile, native, white domination of American institutions. While the Klan lays no claim to being a separate political party, it has taken sides in many city and state elections.

It is estimated that at least half of the American people are of foreign birth or descent, that is, are descendants of immigrants as distinguished from the colonists of Revolutionary times; and as a matter of course they have had an immense influence on the social, intellectual, political, and industrial life of the nation. The great majority of the people are of Teutonic or Germanic, often called Nordic, stock—English, German, or Scandinavian. However, the proportion has been somewhat changed, as compared with a century ago, by the influx of Irish and of the Mediterranean and Alpine peoples. Herein lies the one serious question, amounting to a "race problem" with respect to immigration. Can the American people absorb, "assimilate", these non-Teutonic masses and still remain the America of the early days? Or will these masses so modify our ethical life as to leave permanent results on our national characteristics? It was this question that led to the profound changes in our immigration laws in the early nineteen twenties.

*From Henry William Elson: History of the United States of America.*

## 2. The Negro Problem

*I am not, and never have been, in favor of bringing about in any form the social and political equality of the white and black races. There is a physical difference, which forbids them from living together on terms of social and political equality. And, inasmuch as they cannot so live, while they do remain together, there must be a position of superior and inferior, and I, as much as any other man, am in favor of having the superior position assigned to the whites.*  
(President Lincoln)

The political aspect of the Negro problem in the South can be understood only by taking into account the number and distribution of the Negroes in that section.

According to the 1920 census, there were nearly 9000000 Negroes in the Southern states, 27 per cent of the total population. In the South Atlantic States the Negroes are 30,9 per cent of the total; in the East South Central, 28,4 per cent; and in the West South Central, 20,2 per cent. The Negroes constitute nearly a third of the total population in Virginia, North Carolina, and Arkansas and more than a third in Georgia, Louisiana, and Florida. There are 264 counties in the South in which Negroes preponderate. In two states, Mississippi and South Carolina, the blacks outnumber the whites.

Everywhere the attitude toward the Negro reflects the proportion of Negroes in the population. In all the South the Negro population is large enough to be a disturbing factor in politics. Even in states where the Negroes constitute only one fourth of the population, they outnumber the whites in some districts and counties and their aggregate vote would enable them to dominate those states if the white people should divide politically. The white people of the South correctly understand Negro domination to mean



Negro Boys (American voters in the future?)<sup>1)</sup>

the control of any state by a party whose predominant strength is in the solid Negro vote . . . The white Republicans realize as fully as the Democrats the danger of Negro domination of a state or of a political party.

The best lawyers in the several states gave oral and written opinions to the effect that suffrage qualifications could be enacted which would stand the test of courts and have the effect of eliminating a large proportion of Negro voters. Influenced by these legal opinions and the general desire of the best people to remove the racial disorders accompanying every election, the legislators in several of the states set to work to frame restrictive franchise laws, or to provide for such laws by amendments to the state constitutions.

<sup>1)</sup> Compare this picture to that on p. 28 in regard to racial fitness of the boys.

There are six counties in Mississippi in each of which the whites form less than ten per cent of the population.

There are thirty-two counties in the South which have no Negro population, of which twenty-eight are in Texas, two in Oklahoma, one in Arkansas, and one in North Carolina.

The suffrage was restricted by the following requirements for voting:

1. The payment of taxes, i. e., a poll tax or other tax must have been paid.
2. The ownership of property. In Alabama a citizen must own forty acres of land, or personal property to the value of \$ 300. In Georgia a citizen must own forty acres of land or other property to the value of \$ 500. In Louisiana and South Carolina the citizen must own property to the value of \$ 600. Mississippi, North Carolina and Virginia have no property requirements.
3. Ability to read and understand. In Alabama, South Carolina, and Mississippi the citizen must be able to read and understand the Constitution of the United States. In Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia and Oklahoma the citizen must give proof of his ability to read and write.

To come down to the real core of the matter, in South Carolina and Mississippi the Negroes outnumber the whites. Experience has shown that both races cannot govern jointly in those states. The white people believe that they are better able to govern than the Negro, and are determined to do it. They propose to do it by some lawful means and have adopted lawful means of doing it. If every Negro in South Carolina and Mississippi could read and write and understand all of the Constitutions in the world, the white people would not allow them to control their governments, and, in this respect, they are not different from the white people of any other state. If a majority of the people of Massachusetts were Negroes, the whites of that state would no more submit to Negro rule than the people of South Carolina or Mississippi. They would prefer to retain white supremacy by some lawful expedient, but if that did not work they would control it by any expedient that would work. Save by force of arms, no colored race is ever going to govern any state in this Republic. This fact is fundamental to any discussion of the Negro problem.

In several Southern states the Negro vote is still so large that any great division among the white people would result in political disaster such as happened to North Carolina in 1897 when the Negro vote elected Governor Russel and a populist legislature. But in spite of this danger, the white people are able to vote rather independently on national issues, and the fear of Negro control is sufficiently removed to allow the attention of the white people to be concentrated on local conditions and to induce a higher type of white people to take the lead in politics.

*From Jerome Dowd, M. A.: The Negro in American Life. London 1927.*



Harlem from the air

### 3. Harlem

The Negro quarter extends from Eighth Avenue to the Harlem river and from 130th Street to 150th Street. It contains a population of nearly 200000, and is the great Negro capital of the world. "Here in Manhattan", says the 'Survey Graphic', "is not merely the largest Negro community in the world, but the first concentration in history of so many diverse elements of Negro life. It has attracted the African, the West Indian, the Negro American; has brought together the Negro of the North and the Negro of the South; the man from the city and the man from the town and village; the peasant, the student, the business man, the professional man, artist, poet, musician, adventurer and worker, preacher and criminal, exploiter and social outcast".

Harlem is a miniature Negro world. A stranger walking through Lenox Avenue or Seventh Avenue would see only Negro faces. He would see Negro churches, theatres, schools, banks, undertakers, pawn-shops, mercantile establishments, barber shops, beauty parlors, hotels, restaurants, cabarets, pool-rooms, drug stores, news stands, fruit vendors, and even Negro cab drivers, and Negro policemen. Harlem has a rich social life which expresses

itself through its numerous church societies, its lodges, and its women's clubs, and, on the lower levels, through its dance halls, cabarets, pool-rooms, and gambling dens . . .

If in Harlem Negro humanity is found in its lowest depth, it is also found in its highest intellectual and spiritual flights. Here one finds Negro scholars, novelists, poets, painters, sculptors, and musicians, who sense the longings of the mass, and catch glimpses of a new horizon.

*From Jerome Dowd, M. A.: The Negro in American Life. London 1927.*

#### 4. The Education of Negroes in America

The education of Negroes in America must be considered in the light <sup>10</sup> of the peculiar relation which the race bears to the body politic in order to appreciate the progress which has been made in recent years. Seventy years ago approximately 95 per cent of the race was illiterate; today nearly 85 per cent can read and write. Seventy years ago only a few thousand Negroes were enrolled in school; today two and a quarter million are enrolled in the elementary grades, 160000 in high school, and approximately 30000 in institutions of higher learning. The number of Negro teachers has increased during this period from a negligible number to nearly 60000, with a corresponding improvement in their preparation.

Religious denominations and philanthropic agencies have been responsible <sup>20</sup> for most of this educational advancement, although at the present time somewhat less assistance is being received from that source. Recently the public has turned its attention increasingly to the support of the education of Negroes as a matter of public concern. Before the World War there were fewer than a hundred public high schools for Negroes in the states maintaining separate schools for the colored and white races; today there are nearly 2000. At the beginning of the World War publicly supported colleges for Negroes, enrolling less than 100 students, received annually from public funds about a third of a million dollars. Today such colleges enroll approximately 10000 students and receive annually from public funds nearly five <sup>30</sup> million dollars.

*From American Universities and Colleges. 1936 Edition — Washington.*

#### 5. The Jews in the United States

In the time of George Washington, there were about 4000 Jews in this country, most of them were well-to-do traders. In 1783 the United States became the first country to grant them civil equality, and ever since they have enjoyed political equality. Today, there is said, taking the Jew's word for it, to be 14000000 Jews in the world and about 4000000 of them are in

the United States where they control 60 per cent of the vital interests of our country.

Since the World War, their rise, financially and politically, has been so spectacular that loyal Americans have begun to investigate the secret of their success, spurred on by the rumors that the problem before us, the cause of not only the rising feeling of anti-Semitism but World Unrest, is not a religious problem, not an economic problem, not a social problem, but a political problem. This realization reaches beyond the statement of Jews themselves that the Jew has no feeling of patriotism for the country in which he lives.

Economic jealousy may exist to this extent, that the uniform success of the Jew has exposed him to much scrutiny. The finances of the world are in the control of Jews; our economic law is the result of their decisions and their devices; in America, alone, most of the big businesses, the trusts and the banks, the natural resources and the chief agricultural products, especially tobacco, cotton, and sugar, are in the control of Jewish financiers and their agents who are associated, financially, with Jews of Europe. Our thought is moulded by a large and powerful group of Jewish journalists; a large number of our department stores are held by Jewish firms that do business under the cover of Gentile names; Jews are the largest and most numerous landlords of residence property in the country; they are supreme in the theatrical world, where they have the opportunity to mould the thought of young Americans with any type of propaganda they desire to feature; they absolutely control the circulation of publications throughout the country. The Jews, also, control 50 per cent or more of the meat-packing industry; upwards to 60 per cent of the shoe-making industry; the men's and the women's ready-made clothing; the Colorado smelting industry; jewelry; grain; the liquor business, before prohibition; and the loan business. But, in spite of the fact that they have gained this control by means of financial backing of wealthy European Jews, the Americans will not call them to the bar of public judgment so long as their methods are fair and honest. Economic jealousy is not the cause of the rising feeling of anti-Semitism which is sweeping over the United States. The cause of that feeling is far more sinister and a thousand times more dangerous.

In spite of the fact that some of the leaders of Jewry openly confess their lack of loyalty to the countries in which they live, their unpatriotic spirit is not what is meant by the political element of the Jewish Question. That element is more carefully organized and more active among Christian nations. The political element of which I wish to speak belongs to the fact that the Jews form a Nation in the midst of nations, with a supergovernment which is allied to no government, yet has its hand in them all; that this secret government is playing a vast and closely organized game with the world for its table and universal control of the money of the world and the vital resources for its stakes. This government of the Jews is said to have been the source of Bolshevism in Russia, to have been the cause of the collapse of the German

Empire, and to have been the real ruler of both England and America during the World War, and is the cause of the unrest and depression which has followed the signing of the armistice; therefore the Invisible Government of the Jews is the cause of the rising feeling of anti-Semitism, and the cause of world unrest, past and present, although for nearly one hundred and fifty years it has remained discreetly in the background.

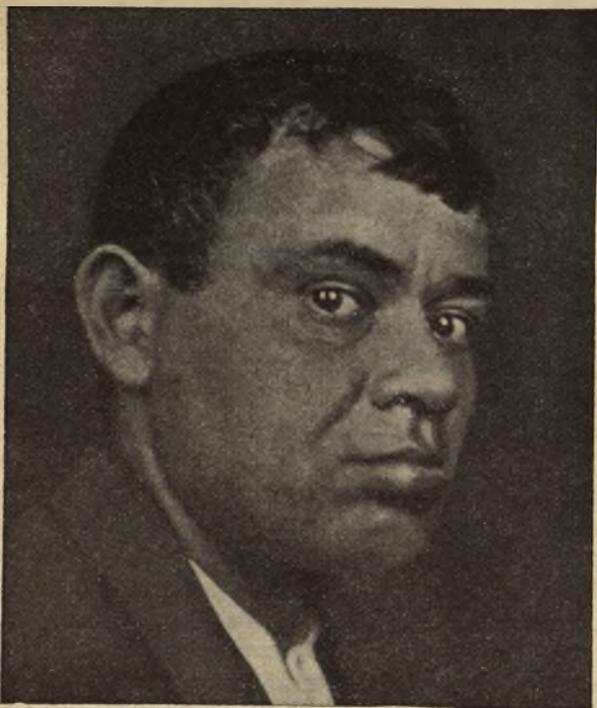
*From Irvin L. Potter: The cause of Anti-Jewism in the United States.  
Boston (Mass).*

## 6. A Homogeneous American People in the Future?

There is every reason to believe that the native stock would have continued to maintain a high rate of increase if there had been no immigration of foreign laborers in the middle of the nineteenth century and that the actual population of the United States could be fully as large as it is now, but would have been almost exclusively native American and Nordic.

The prosperity that followed the war attracted hordes of newcomers who were welcomed by the native Americans to operate factories, build railroads and fill up the waste spaces—"developing the country" it was called.

These new immigrants were no longer exclusively members of the Nordic race as were the earlier ones who came of their own impulse to improve their social conditions. The transportation lines advertised America as a land flowing with milk and honey and the European governments took the opportunity to unload upon careless, wealthy and hospitable America the sweepings of their jails and asylums. The result was that the new immigration, while it still included many strong elements from the north of Europe, contained a large and increasing number of the weak, the broken and



Nigger-Jew of New York

the mentally crippled of all races drawn from the lowest stratum of the Mediterranean basin and the Balkans, together with hordes of the wretched, submerged populations of the Polish Ghettos. Our jails, insane asylums and alms-houses are filled with this human flotsam and the whole tone of American life, social, moral and political has been lowered and vulgarized by them.

With a pathetic and fatuous belief in the efficacy of American institutions and environment to reverse or obliterate immemorial hereditary tendencies, these newcomers were welcomed and given a share in our land and prosperity. The American taxed himself to sanitize and educate these poor helots and as soon as they could speak English, encouraged them to enter into the political life, first of municipalities and then of the nation.

The native Americans are splendid raw material, but have as yet only an imperfectly developed national consciousness. They lack the instinct of self-preservation in a racial sense. Unless such an instinct develops their race will perish, as do all organisms which disregard this primary law of nature. Nature had granted to the Americans of a century ago the greatest opportunity in recorded history to produce in the isolation of a continent a powerful and racially homogeneous people and had provided for the experiment a pure race of one of the most gifted and vigorous stocks on earth, a stock free from the diseases, physical and moral, which have again and again sapped the vigor of the older lands. Our grandfathers threw away this opportunity in the blissful ignorance of national childhood and inexperience.

The result of unlimited immigration is showing plainly in the rapid decline in the birth-rate of native Americans because the poorer classes of Colonial stock, where they still exist, will not bring children into the world to compete in the labor market with the Slovak, the Italian, the Syrian and the Jew. The



La Guardia, Mayor of New York

native American is too proud to mix socially with them and is gradually withdrawing from the scene, abandoning to these aliens the land which he conquered and developed. The man of the old stock is being crowded out of many country districts by these foreigners just as he is to-day being literally driven off the streets of New York City by the swarms of Polish Jews. These immigrants adopt the language of the native American, they wear his clothes, they steal his name and they are beginning to take his women, but they seldom adopt his religion or understand his ideals and while he is being elbowed out of his own home the American looks calmly abroad and urges on others the suicidal ethics which are exterminating his own race. 10

When the test of actual battle comes, it will, of course, be the native American who will do the fighting and suffer the losses. With him will stand the immigrants of Nordic blood, but there will be numbers of these foreigners in the large cities who will prove to be physically unfit for military duty.

As to what the future mixture will be it is evident that in large sections of the country the native American will entirely disappear. He will not intermarry with inferior races and he cannot compete in the sweat shop and in the street trench with the newcomers. Large cities from the days of Rome, Alexandria, and Byzantium have always been gathering points of diverse 20 races, but New York is becoming a *cloaca gentium* which will produce many amazing racial hybrids and some ethnic horrors that will be beyond the powers of future anthropologists to unravel.

One thing is certain: in any such mixture, the surviving traits will be determined by competition between the lowest and most primitive elements and the specialized traits of Nordic man: his stature, his light colored eyes, his fair skin and light colored hair, his straight nose and his splendid fighting and moral qualities, will have little part in the resultant mixture.

The "survival of the fittest" means the survival of the type best adapted to existing conditions of environment, which to-day are the tenement and 30 factory, as in Colonial times they were the clearing of forests, fighting Indians, farming the fields and sailing the Seven Seas. From the point of view of race it were better described as the "survival of the unfit".

*From Madison Grant: The Passing of the Great Race. — New York 1932.*

### III. A Glimpse on American Traits

#### 1. Puritan Laws and Character

During the seventeenth century the combined New England colonies, if we except Rhode Island, formed practically one great Puritan commonwealth. They were under separate governments; but their aims and hopes, their laws, and their past history were, for the most part, the same.

The people as a whole were liberty-loving in the extreme, but the individual was restrained at every step by laws that no free people of to-day would tolerate for an hour. Paternalism in government was the rule in the other 10 colonies and in Europe, but nowhere was it carried to such an extreme as in New England. Here the civil law laid its hand upon the citizen in his business and social relations; it regulated his religious affairs, it dictated his dress, and it even invaded the home circle and directed his family relations. One law forbade the wearing of lace, another of "slashed cloaks other than one slash in each sleeve and another in the back". The length and width of lady's sleeve were solemnly decided by law. It was a penal offense for a man to wear long hair, or to smoke in the street, or for a youth to court a maid without the consent of her parents. A man was not permitted to kiss his wife in public. Captain Kimble, returning from a three-years' ocean voyage, 20 kissed his wife on his own doorstep and spent two hours in the stocks for his "lewd and unseemly behavior".

In the matter of education the Puritans stood in the forefront. Many of the clergy were men of classical education, and through their efforts Harvard College was founded but six years after the great exodus began. Before the middle of the century Massachusetts required every township of fifty families to employ a teacher to educate the young in reading and writing, while every township of one hundred families must maintain a grammar school. The other colonies soon followed with similar requirements.

But the most striking feature in the life of New England is found in its 30 religion. The State was founded on religion, and religion was its life. The entire political, social, and industrial fabric was built on religion. Puritanism was painfully stern and somber; it was founded on the strictest, unmollified Calvinism; it breathed the air of legalism rather than of free grace, and received its inspiration from the Old Testament rather than the New<sup>1</sup>.

The New England farmhouse was scantily furnished. It was solidly built of wood, but, as if inspired by their stern Puritan religion, the builders gave all too little attention to comfort, and the average New England farmhouse would have been scarcely endurable in winter but for the great open wood-

<sup>1</sup> The Puritan conscience was painfully overwrought. Sometimes a child would 40 weep and wall in the fear that it was not one of the elect and would go to hell.



fire about which the family (usually a large one) gathered in the evening and made brooms, shelled nuts, and told stories.

Town life in New England was everything, while in the South the county or the plantation was the geographical unit. The Puritans were not great landholders; they were small farmers. Each had his little clearing surrounded by the dark, merciless forest, with its wild beasts and wild men. But he was loath to dwell far from the town, where he attended church and market, and which became his city of refuge on the approach of hostile Indians. Many farmers lived in the village or very near it. The town was a straggling, rural village with unpaved, shady streets partly covered with 10 stumps of native trees. There were at least three important buildings in the town, always near together—the church, the tavern, and the blockhouse. The church in early Puritan days was built of logs, provided with benches, and never heated. The congregation was summoned by the sound of a horn or a drum, and the people sat in order of social rank and listened to the long sermons. If a man or a boy fell asleep or misbehaved, he received a rap on the head from the rod of the tithingman; while if a woman fell into a doze, she was awakened by the brushing of her face with a rabbit's foot appended to the rod. In early times, when the red man still lurked in the woods, the men went to church armed, and the minister often 20 preached with a musket by his side.

The tavern or ordinary was not only a lodging place for travelers, but also a drinking house, and a place of general gossip for the village and neighborhood. Here the people would gather on special days to take a social glass, to get the latest news, and to discuss politics and religion. The tavern was considered a public necessity, and a town that did not maintain one was subject to fine by the General Court. The principal drinks were rum, small beer, and cider, and these were used freely by men, women, and children. The tavern keeper was a man of great importance—usually a jolly gentleman whose stock of information on all current topics was inexhaustible. He was 30 often the chief man in the town next to the town clerk—member of the town council, land agent, and surveyor. He was required to be a man of good character, and was not permitted to sell strong drink to drunkards.

The blockhouse was strongly built of logs, the second story extending over the first and being provided with portholes so that the occupants could fire directly down on a besieging enemy. In case of an Indian attack the whole population would abandon their homes and rush to the blockhouse, and in this way their lives were often saved. The blockhouse in New England ceased to be of great importance after King Philip's War.

*From Henry William Elson: History of the United States of America. — 40  
The Macmillan Company. — New York.*

## 2. The Gospel of Manliness and National Activism

We are a nation of pioneers; the first colonists to our shores were pioneers, and pioneers selected out from among the descendants of these early pioneers, mingled with others selected afresh from the Old World, pushed westward into the wildness and laid the foundations for new commonwealths. They were men of hope and expectation, of enterprise and energy; for the men of dull content or more dull despair had no part in the great movement into and across the New World. Our country has been populated by pioneers, and therefore it has in it more energy, more enterprise, more expansive  
10 power than any other in the wide world.

You whom I am now addressing stand for the most part but one generation removed from these pioneers. You are typical Americans; for you have done the great, the characteristic, the typical work of our American life. In making homes and carving out careers for yourselves and your children, you have built up this State. Throughout our history the success of the home-maker has been but another name for the upbuilding of the nation. The men who with axe in the forests and pick in the mountains and plow on the prairies pushed to the completion the dominion of our people over the American wilderness have given the definite shape to our nation. They have  
20 shown the qualities of daring, endurance, and far-sightedness, of eager desire for victory and stubborn refusal to accept defeat, which go to make up the essential manliness of the American character. Above all, they have recognized in practical form the fundamental law of success in American life — the law of worthy work, the law of high, resolute endeavor. We have but little room among our people for the timid, the irresolute, and the idle; and it is no less true that there is scant room in the world at large for the nation with mighty thews that dares not to be great . . .

Throughout a large part of our national career our history has been one of expansion, the expansion being of different kinds at different times. This expansion is not a matter of regret, but of pride. It is vain to tell a people as masterful  
30 as ours that the spirit of enterprise is not safe. The true American has never feared to run risks when the price to be won was of sufficient value . . .

We shall make mistakes; and if we let these mistakes frighten us from our work we shall show ourselves weaklings. Half a century ago Minnesota and the two Dacotas were Indian hunting-grounds. We committed plenty of blunders, and now and then worse than blunders, in our dealings with the Indians. But who does not admit at the present day that we were right in wresting from barbarism and adding to civilisation the territory out of which we have made these beautiful States . . .?

40 If you will study our past history as a nation you will see we have made many blunders and have been guilty of many shortcomings, and yet that we have always in the end come out victorious because we have refused to be daunted by blunders and defeats, have recognised them, but have persevered in spite of them. So it must be in future. We gird our loins as a

nation, with the stern purpose to play our part manfully in winning the ultimate triumph; and therefore we turn scornfully aside from the paths of mere ease and idleness, and with unflinching step tread the rough road of endeavor.

*From Theodore Roosevelt. Address in Minnesota. 1901.*

### 3. Two Characteristic American Traits

Contemporary conditions reveal two characteristic American traits: first, an unreflective materialism and, second, an equally unreflective individualism. Each has origins deep in history. Each has developed its own traditions and incorporated them in legislation—particularly the legis-<sup>10</sup>lation relating to the ownership of property and the exploitation of business and industry. America was founded, and throughout her history largely dominated, by men who migrated from other countries to seek their fortunes. It was personal fortune that they sought—exemplifying both materialism and individualism. Many others of our settlers and immigrants sought in America personal liberty and freedom from religious or political oppression, confirming the individualistic trend. Aside from the leaders in these two groups, the remainder, who actually constituted the vast majority of our immigrants of the first three centuries, were largely the victims of circum-<sup>20</sup>stances, whether induced to come by relatives or the scouts for steamship companies, or as indentured servants, colonized convicts, or Negro slaves. The latter, in proportion to their capacity, adopt the mental stereotypes of the fortune seekers and the seekers of liberty. Under the pressure of the developing American tradition, the Jews in varying degrees exchanged rabbinical culture for hard and aggressive profiteering; the Irish, the deferential courtesy of their native land for hard and aggressive political manipulations; the Germans, their *Gemütlichkeit* for the long hours and hard practices of American commerce; the Italians, Greeks, Russians, and Poles, the charm and *savoir vivre* of their native lands for the bitter exploitations of American<sup>30</sup> industry. Though there have been some slight infiltrations of their native cultures in our American system of thought, one is impressed with the ascendancy of American materialism and individualism in their contemporary attitude and behavior.

In essence American materialism is preoccupation with money-making. For the leaders, money-making is a means to investment and to power, and for many the latter becomes a dominating motive. For the great mass of followers, the end product of money-making is the amassing of consumers' goods—competitive display—or the spending of the day's wage or salary among the excitements of commercialized recreations.

One notes the characteristic tendency to name as the leading citizen of any<sup>40</sup> community the person of greatest wealth, rather than the person of highest culture or superior character.

In essence the fundamental difficulty with our social and economic system, of which slums are an inevitable by-product, lies in this misplacement of values—the placing of material gain at the top of the hierarchy of values by the persons who dominate not only our business but also our political institutions. Escape from this predicament can be accomplished only by an assiduous, well-reasoned, educational policy conducted through all the media of instruction, not merely the schools, to make all material possessions universally recognized as instrumental, rather than as ultimate, values. It makes little difference whether for materialism we substitute truth, beauty, goodness, liberty, justice, love, or service as the ultimate end, provided that money-making is made instrumental to one of these ends rather than itself the aim of conduct.

*From James Ford: Slums and Housing. Cambridge, Mass. — Harvard University Press, 1936.*

#### 4. The Standardised American Citizen

“Gentlemen—Believe me, it’s the fellow with four to ten thousand a year, say, and an automobile and a nice little family in a bungalow on the edge of the town, that makes the wheels of progress go round!

That’s the type of fellow that’s ruling America to-day; in fact, it’s the ideal type to which the entire world must tend, if there’s to be decent, well balanced, Christian, go-ahead future for this little old planet! Once in a while I just naturally sit back and size up this Solid American Citizen, with a whale of a lot of satisfaction.

Our Ideal Citizen—I picture him first and foremost as being busier than a bird-dog, not wasting a lot of good time in day-dreaming or going to “sossiety” teas or kicking about things that are none of his business, but putting the zip into some store or profession or art. At night he lights up a good cigar, and climbs into the little old bus, and shoots out home. He mows the lawn, or sneaks in some practice putting, and then he’s ready for dinner. After dinner he tells the kiddies a story, or takes the family to the movies, or plays a few fists of bridge, or reads the evening paper, and a chapter or two of some good lively Western novel if he has a taste for literature; and maybe the folks next door drop in, and they sit and visit about their friends and talk about the topics of the day. Then he goes happily to bed, his conscience clear, having contributed his mite to the prosperity of the city and to his own bank-account.

In politics and religion this same Citizen is the canniest man on earth; and in the arts he invariably has a natural taste which makes him pick out the best, every time. In no country in the world will you find so many reproductions of the Old Masters and of well-known paintings on parlor walls as in these United States. No country has anything like our number of phonographs, with not only records and comic but also the best operas, such as Verdi, rendered by the world’s highest-paid singers.

Finally, but most important, our Standardised Citizen, even if he is a bachelor, is a lover of the Little Ones, a supporter of the hearthstone which is the foundation of our civilisation, first, last, and all the time—and the thing that most distinguishes us from the decayed nations of Europe.

With all modesty I want to stand up here as a representative business man and gently whisper, "here's our kind of folks! Here's the specification of the Standardised American Citizen! Here's the new generation of Americans: fellows with hair on their chests and smiles in their eyes and adding-machines in their offices. We're not doing any boasting, but we like ourselves first-rate; and if you don't like us, look out—better get under cover before the cyclone hits town. So! In my clumsy way I have tried to sketch the Real He-man, the fellow with Zip and bang... The extraordinary, growing, and sane standardisation of stores, streets, hotels, clothes, and newspapers throughout the United States shows how strong and enduring a type is ours".

*From Sinclair Lewis: Babbitt, 1922.*

## IV. The German Element in the U. S. A.

### 1. German Exiles fall among Sea Sharks and Land Sharks

In the whole history of the human race there is no sadder reading than the story of the eighteenth century German immigrants. They were mainly men and women who had tilled the rich soil of the Rhine valley, in the southwestern part of Germany known as the Palatinate. Their fathers and mothers had stood the ravages of the Thirty Years' War, 1618—1648, and in quiet courage had rebuilt their barns and cottages. Now a generation later their fields were as yellow again as the harvest moon with ripening grain. On the low hills, carefully dressed vines bore clusters of purple and pale hued grapes. But this respite was brief indeed!

In 1688, Louis XIV gave orders to his troops to invade this rebuilt Garden of Eden. Soon the dust raised by marching soldiers hung over the highways leading to the Palatinate. The German farmers with their wives and children fled into the forests to escape the merciless thrusts of sword or bayonet. Behind their houses, barns and villages were monstrous torches that filled the air with a pall of smoke.

Following the ravages of foreign invasion, they suffered the horrors of religious persecution at the hands of princes placed over their lives by alien powers. Little wonder that these persecuted people dreamed of a peaceful home in the New World. How their spirits must have been uplifted when they read the words of William Penn who wanted them to "help him with his 'Holy Experiment'". Later came an invitation from Queen Anne herself. Her Golden Book offered them a place in the British colonies where they might enjoy religious and political freedom.

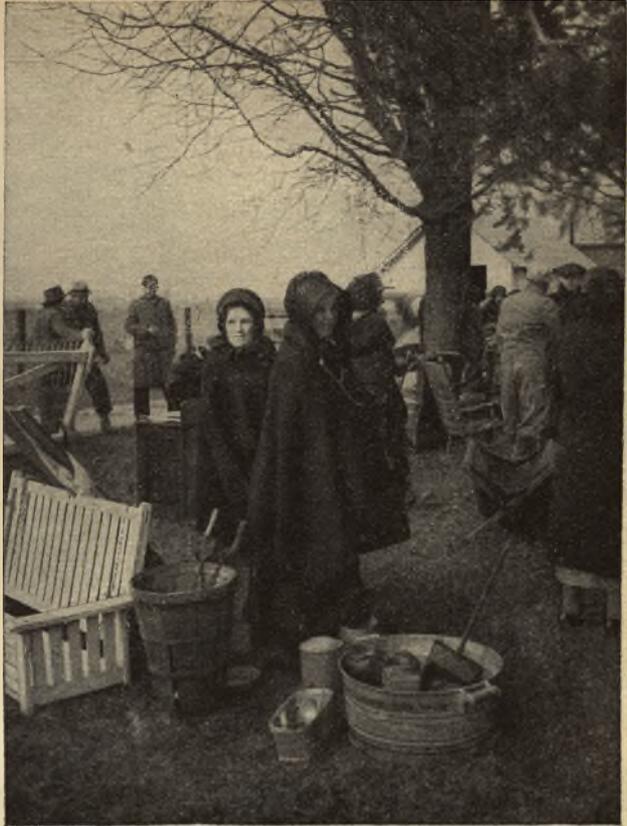
Once the migration had begun, soulless men saw an opportunity to make money out of the misfortunes of these luckless Palatines. Ship-owners sent agents called "Newlanders" among the people to entice them to make the voyage to America. The movement of settlers from the old to the new continent became a "big business" about as heartless and profitable as the slave-trade.

Some of the letters written by these tortured exiles almost writhe before one's eyes. Here are excerpts from the pleas for aid addressed to a minister in Philadelphia in 1732 by three Germans, who had

been set ashore at Martha's Vineyard by the captain of the ship "Love and Unity", instead of at Philadelphia as their contracts called for.

"Captain Lobb, a wicked murderer of souls, thought to starve us, not having provided provisions enough, according to agreement; and thus got possession of our goods; for during the voyage of the last eight weeks, five persons were only allowed one pint of coarse meal per day, and a quart of water to each person. We were twenty-four weeks coming from Rotterdam to Martha's Vineyard. There were at first more than one hundred-fifty persons—more than one hundred perished . . . To keep from starving we had to eat rats and mice. We paid from eight pence to two shillings for a mouse. Four pence for a quart of water . . . In one night several persons miserably perished and were thrown naked overboard; no sand was allowed to be used to sink the bodies, but they floated. Our chests were broken open. The captain constrained us to pay for the whole freight of the dead and the living, as if he had landed us at Philadelphia."

Most of the people who made this hard pilgrimage down the Rhine and across the ocean from Rotterdam were simple, noblespirited yeomen. We have the testimony of several English travelers who marvelled at the pious



Pennsylvania-German Women of Hartzburg (Ohio)



Pennsylvania-German Boys

courage with which these men and women endured storms at sea and the ravage of disease. When the survivors of the perilous voyages felt their ship sail with an unaccustomed smoothness in the untossed waters of an American river, they fell on their knees and thanked God for their safe keeping, trusting that their troubles were over. But instead they found their misfortunes were just beginning.

Such, for example, was the history of the ill-fated Palatines who, landed in New York City in 1710, present the anguishing spectacle of several hundreds of refugees from the Rhine country, plundered and cheated

by real estate speculators. Driven from the prosperous farms they had established in the wilderness at Schoharie, they were forced to throw themselves upon the mercy of the Iroquois Indians. These so-called savages mercifully received the downtrodden Germans and gave them food and shelter through the winter of 1712.

*From The Germans in American Life. — Thomas Nelson and Sons. — New York.*

## 2. The Pennsylvania Dutch dot Penn's Land with Red Barns

To all the persecuted peoples of Europe the name Penn had a pleasing sound. Friend Penn, though a great and powerful man, had allied himself with a religious group that has really tried to live the simple, gentle teachings of Jesus of Nazareth. The Quakers, because of the persecution they themselves had endured, felt a genuine sympathy for the oppressed of their own

and other lands. They opened their arms in hearty welcome to refugees from every quarter of harassed Europe.

Need one be surprised, then, to learn that most of the German *émigrés* came to the forest of Penn? In fact, they came in such large numbers that they absorbed men and women of other nationalities, forcing their German dialect on a large part of Pennsylvania.

With a conservatism not unusual in rural sections, many of them have clung to their old country speech through nine and ten generations. Feelings of hostility toward the British provoked first by the abuse they received while  
10 *en route* to America and on their arrival, and later by the hatreds of the Revolution, made them all the more determined to hold the language in which Luther's Bible had been written. The fact that the English schools established in their midst were conducted by a missionary society of the Church of England probably had much to do with Pennsylvania Dutch determination not to study this new language.

However, from the very first days their English neighbors recognized the sterling characteristics of these colonists. Dr. Benjamin Rush made a careful study of them and in 1789 published the results of his investigation in a book entitled *An Account of the Manners of the German Inhabitants of*  
20 *Pennsylvania*. Most of what he had to say about them was in praise of their excellent qualities. He noted with admiration their conservation of timber.

"The German farmers are great economists of their wood; they burn it only in stoves, in which they consume but a fourth or fifth part of wood commonly burnt in ordinary open fire-places; besides, their horses are saved by means of this economy from that immense labor in hauling wood in the middle of winter, which frequently unfits the horses of their (Scotch) neighbors for the toils of the ensuing spring."

In other departments of agriculture they displayed equal wisdom and proficiency. Dr. Rush's praise of their ability as farmers was given without reservation.

30 "Pennsylvania is indebted to the Germans for the principal part of their knowledge in horticulture . . . A German farm may be distinguished from the farms of other citizens of the state by the superior size of their barns; the plain, but compact form of their houses, the height of their inclosures; the extent of their orchards; the fertility of their fields; the luxuriance of their meadows, and a general appearance of plenty and neatness in everything that belongs to them."

Their temperance and good conduct were so marked that he called particular attention to these virtues.

And so these honest, industrious folk toiled to create in the wilderness of America an Eden comparable to the one they had been forced to leave in  
40 the Rhine valley. It was not long before they had achieved their heart's desire. Eastern Pennsylvania has always been noted for its picturesque farming regions. America's first great poet of nature, *William Cullen Bryant*, was very fond of the rural beauties of the Pennsylvania Dutch town of Bethlehem. *John Grennleaf Whittier*, who celebrated in his poems the charms of rural New England, also expressed in *The Pennsylvania Pilgrim* his appreciation of the beauty created in America by these farmers from the Rhineland.

The desert blossomed round him; wheat fields rolled  
Beneath the warm wind waves of green and gold;  
The planted ear returned its hundredfold.

Great clusters ripened in a warmer sun  
Than that which by the Rhine stream shines upon  
The purpling hillsides with low vines o'errun.

About each rustic porch the humming-bird  
Tried with light bill, that scarce a petal stirred,  
The Old World flowers to virgin soil transferred;

And the first-fruits of pear and apple, bending  
The young boughs down, their gold and russet blending,  
Made glad his heart, familiar odors lending

To the fresh fragrance of the birch and pine,  
Life-everlasting, bay, and eglantine,  
And all the subtle scents the woods combine.

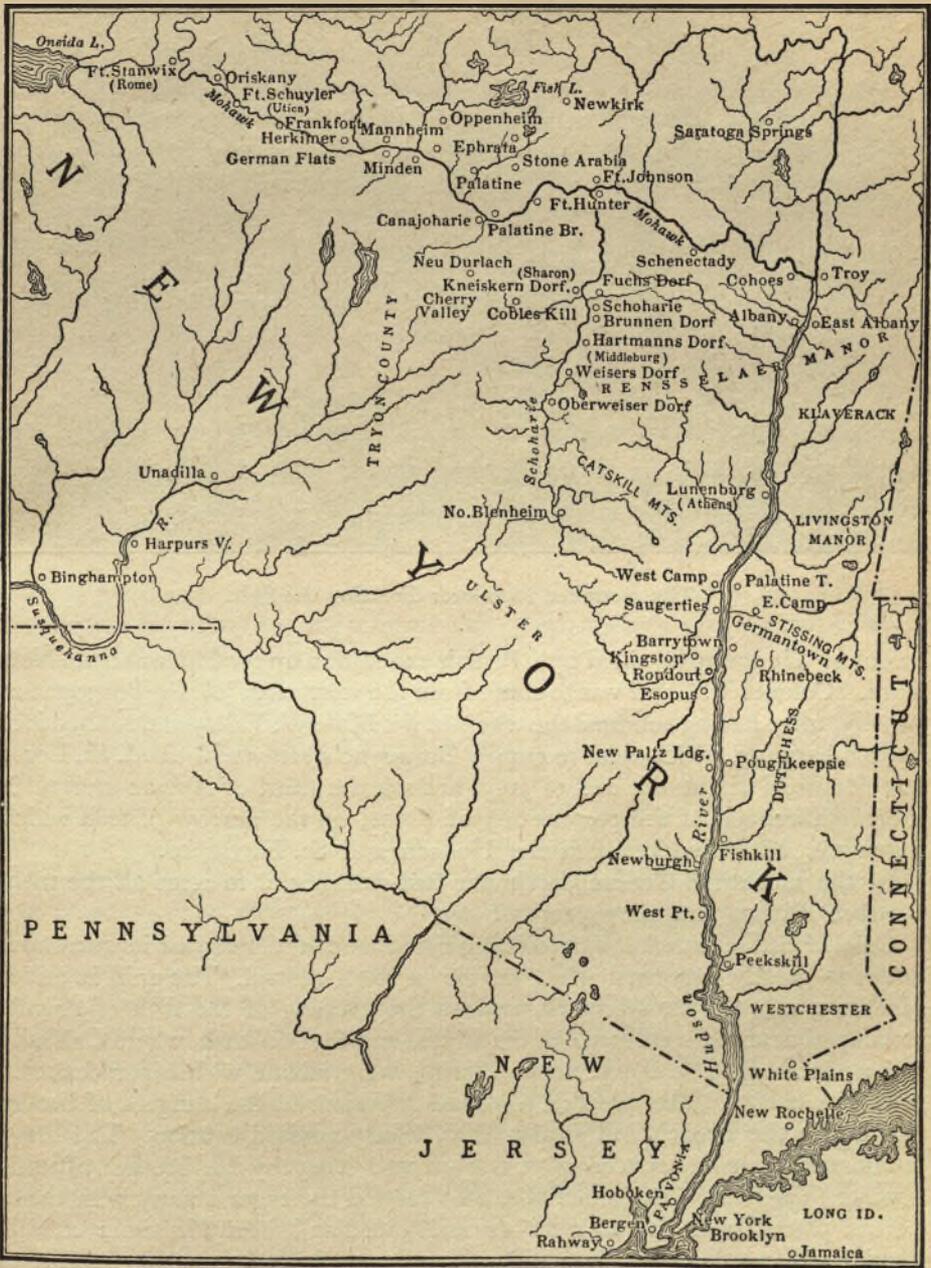
*From The Germans in American Life. — Thomas Nelson and Sons. — New York.*

### 3. General Nicholas Herkimer

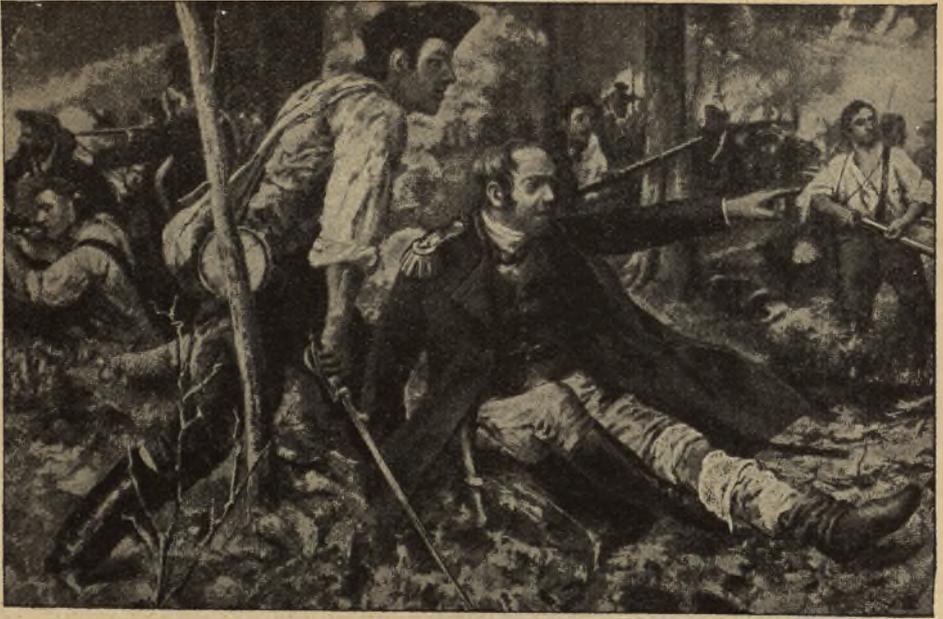
The German settlements in the Mohawk Valley and the Schoharie district suffered more from Indian attacks during the Revolution than any other frontier area. They were outposts of American civilization in the territory of the Six Nations, the most warlike of all the Indian tribes. The Six Nations had for the most part been friendly during the French and Indian War; now the English had succeeded in persuading them that their king across the water was the stronger master, and in consequence they served the English. An additional incentive was the great opportunity for rewards from the British, combined with the certainty of plunder from the colonists. The English at one time placed a price of eight dollars upon every scalp brought in. The rich farms and fat herds of the Mohawk and Schoharie valleys were their legitimate prey, if the Indians chose to join in the war against the American colonies.

The Germans of the Mohawk Valley could not wait until they might receive aid from the New York state government. The Committee of Safety organized four battalions in the summer of 1775. All four of the colonels were Germans, Nicholas Herkimer (Herckheimer), commanding the first battalion, Jakob Klock, the second, Frederick Fischer the third, and Hanjost Herckheimer the fourth. The whole force was put under the command of Nicholas Herkimer, who by pressure and persuasion made the whole district loyal to the American cause.

In the middle of June, 1777, General Burgoyne began his march from Canada. He wished to cut off the New England states from the rest of the



Early German Settlements in New York



The wounded Herkimer directing the fight

colonies. He was to be aided by a British expedition up the Hudson from New York. Colonel St. Leger was to come from the westward, joining Burgoyne at Albany, after having subdued the whole of the Mohawk Valley and robbed it of its rich harvests, which were to supply Burgoyne's army with food. St. Leger left Montreal about the end of July, and on the third of August arrived in the neighborhood of the present city of Rome, on the narrow plateau which forms the watershed between the Hudson and St. Lawrence.

In the meantime General Herkimer had summoned to arms all the men, between sixteen and sixty years of age. 10

Colonel St. Leger, after surrounding Fort Stanwix, demanded its surrender and was greatly surprised when he met a stern refusal. The militia under Herkimer crossed the Mohawk, and on the evening of the fifth of August encamped near the confluence of the Oriska and the Mohawk, where Oriskany is now located. The inexperienced troops were aflame with eager desire to meet the enemy. The general, who had experienced the dangers of border fighting in the French and Indian War, wisely advised caution. The brave commander was denounced as a coward and Tory by his brother officers, Fischer (Visscher), Cox, and Paris, who carried the eager masses with them. "I am placed over you as a father and guardian," said Herkimer calmly, <sup>20</sup> "and I will not lead you into difficulties from which I may not be able to extricate you." But the confusion and dissatisfaction becoming unbearable, Herkimer exclaimed, "If you will have it so, the blood be upon your heads," and yielding, he gave the command to move on.

Colonel St. Leger had received information concerning the approach of General Herkimer and preferred to meet him in the field rather than await him. He detached eighty men, and the entire body of Indians under Joseph Brant, the whole under the command of Johnson, to intercept Herkimer's approach. On the advice of Brant the plan followed was to draw the Americans into an ambushade. A position was selected, admirably adapted for this purpose, about two miles west from Oriskany, and about six miles distant from Fort Stanwix. About eleven o'clock in the morning, Herkimer, riding at the head of his column on a white horse, reached the ravine. His  
10 people followed him slowly, going into the ravine and deliberately ascending the western height where Herkimer waited for them.

The small force had in part ascended the western slope, a greater part was still in the ravine, while the baggage train had just entered. Only the rear guard, consisting of Colonel Fischer's regiment, was still on the eastern slope. Suddenly at a given signal the Tories and Indians broke forth from the forest and thick brushwood, and with tremendous noise and hideous yells fell upon the unsuspecting militiamen.

Though taken by surprise, Herkimer's men rallied under his noble example, and after firing their guns, met the onslaught of the Indians with their knives  
20 and the butts of their guns. It was about noon, after Herkimer had succeeded in getting the regiment stationed in some sort of order on the plateau, when he was hit below the knee by a bullet which shattered his leg and killed his horse. Immediately he had his saddle brought to the foot of a large beech tree, and taking his seat upon it, directed the fight from that position. He lighted his pipe and continued to order the progress of the battle with firmness and composure, until the final retreat of the enemy.

The terrible hand-to-hand struggle lasted longer than half an hour, until the Royalists were gradually pushed backward. Suddenly the thundering of cannons was heard from the direction of Fort Stanwix, and the British,  
30 fearing to be attacked in the rear, left the battle-field in possession of the brave peasants. The sortie from the fort was due to a plan of Herkimer's.

The effect of this sortie was of great importance. In the first place it decided the retreat of the British force, and in the second it increased the discontent of the Indians. They had sustained the loss of a large number of their chiefs and best warriors, and now, on returning to camp, they found themselves deprived of all their comforts. To revenge themselves they plundered the baggage of English officers and took possession of the boats on Wood Creek. The battle of Oriskany thoroughly discouraged and demoralized the Indians and made them unfit as allies.

40 The losses of the Palatines were great also, to be sure. About two hundred, one fourth of the number that had gone into battle, had been slain or were severely wounded.

The most severe loss to the patriot cause was the death of General Herkimer, which followed shortly after the battle. "It was Herkimer", said George Washington, "who first reversed the gloomy scene" of the Northern

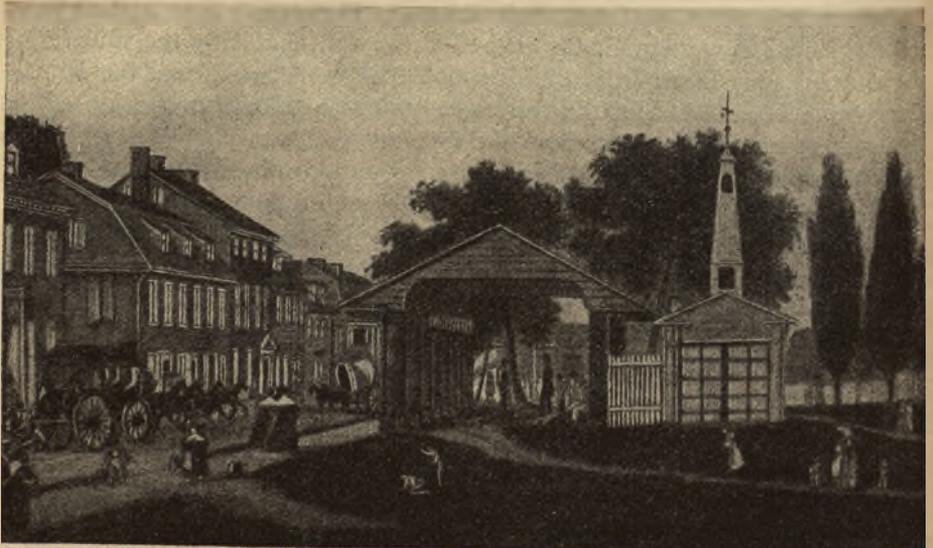
campaign. The pure-minded hero of the Mohawk Valley "served from love of country, not for reward. He did not want a Continental command or money".

The results of the battle of Oriskany were far greater than the small number of men engaged might indicate. Had not the Palatines of the Mohawk Valley stopped the advance of St. Leger, the rich harvests of their farms would have been used to feed the army of Burgoyne. St. Leger's auxiliary forces, with the Mohawk Valley accessible to them, would probably have prevented Burgoyne's surrender. The other far-reaching result was the effect the battle had on the Indians. They had not expected such obstinate resistance nor <sup>10</sup> such severe losses. They grew discontented with their allies, the British, and the latter considered their Indian allies a failure.

*From A. B. Faust: The German Element in the United States. The Steuben Society of America. New York. 1927.*

#### 4. Pennsylvania-Dutch

The school question, that is, the introduction of the German language into the public schools, was a cause for which the Germans in various localities brought pressure to bear at the polls. The Germans in Ohio, having given powerful support to the Democratic Party in the election of 1836, began to feel that the party owed them some recognition. The preservation of the <sup>20</sup> German language in the next generation has always been a fond aim of the German immigrant; so it was in Cincinnati. Though there existed a Pres-



Germantown

byterian school and a Catholic institution in which German instruction was given, nevertheless a more general opportunity was desired. According to their idea, English was not to be excluded, but German was to be taught, parallel with the language of the country, in the public schools. The German element turned to the legislature of Ohio, and the latter in 1838 passed a law by which the German language might be taught in the public schools in those districts where there was a large German population and the people desired it. The law was expected to be enforced by the school board, who, however, interpreted the law as advisory and not compulsory. In the succeeding  
10 election of 1839 pledges were taken from the candidates that the wording of the law should be revised so as to prevent any possibility of loopholes. Accordingly the law was changed in 1840, which marks the date of the introduction of German-English public schools in Cincinnati and Ohio. The leading German advocates in this movement were Renz, Molitor, Rädter, Rehfuß, Mühl, Klauprecht, and some others.

The introduction of the German language into American legislative bodies was attempted in Pennsylvania in 1836. The legislature of Pennsylvania, following an ancient precedent, ordered the important laws that had been enacted during its session to be published also in the German language.  
20 The movement also had the result that in Pennsylvania the messages of governors were printed in both the English and German languages. The custom, however, fell into disuse after the German newspapers grew in numbers and importance. In the year 1837 a law was passed by which German schools were to be founded (1) on an equal basis with English, and (2) some in which all instruction was to be given in German. Nowhere else was the latter privilege asked for or obtained.

German as a spoken language in the United States always had a hard struggle to maintain its existence against the established national language, just as the French language in Canada, the English in Mexico, or South  
30 America. Equality could exist only in isolated instances, where there was a strong concentration of German immigration. In the 18th century there was such a concentration of the Germans in the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, but though the German population was large, it did not number more than one-third of the total population of the colony. In certain counties, however, such as Lancaster, Berks, Montgomery and York, the Germans numbered from fifty to seventy-five per cent of the population.

These large numbers gave rise to a myth, often repeated, about as follows: Immediately after the Revolutionary War, the German population equalled in numbers the native population of Pennsylvania, and the question was  
40 raised in the State Legislature, which of the two languages should be the official language of the State. The question when put to a vote, resulted in a tie, and the decision, it was said, was made by the presiding officer, Frederick Augustus Mühlenberg, who, though of pure German blood, decided against the German language. This act was described, on the one hand, as that of a patriot, on the other, as the treachery of a Judas, for Frederick August

Mühlenberg represented the best of the traditions of the German immigrants of the 18th century. He was a son of Heinrich Melchior Mühlenberg, the founder of the Lutheran Church of the United States, and on his mother's side descended from Conrad Weiser, the famous Indian interpreter. Since this myth had the faculty of spreading rapidly and gaining credence, the author thought it worth while to trace the story to its origins, and ascertain whether there was any shadow of truth in it. The result of a search of the records of Pennsylvania (incl. *Minutes of the Council of Censors*, of which F. A. Mühlenberg was president, the *Journal of the First and Third Congresses*, of which Mühlenberg was Speaker, and the *Minutes of the Pennsylvania Assembly until 1781*), conducted by Thomas L. Montgomery, State Librarian, Harrisburg, showed that F. A. Mühlenberg was never put into the embarrassing position of deciding for or against the language of his father. The confusion may have come somewhat in the following way: Frederick Augustus Mühlenberg was the first Speaker of the House of Representatives of the United States; he was a member of the first four sessions of Congress and was re-elected Speaker of the House in the Third Congress. He was also repeatedly President of the Assembly of Pennsylvania. But only once in his career was he called on to cast a deciding vote upon a very important matter. It was when Congress had resolved on the question of the Jay treaty,<sup>20</sup> exceedingly unpopular everywhere because considered too favorable to England. As chairman, Mühlenberg on April 29, 1796, cast the deciding vote in favor of the treaty, and thus incurred some of the disfavor which the unpopular treaty carried with it. The tenacity with which the Pennsylvania Germans clung to their language may have given rise to the legend that a struggle for supremacy had existed in the State.

*From A. B. Faust: The German Element in the United States. The Steuben Society of America. New York, 1927*

### Das Alt Schulhaus an der Krick<sup>1</sup>

Heit is's 'xäctly zwansig Johr,  
 Daß ich bin owwe naus;  
 Nau bin ich widder lewig z'rick  
 Und schteh am Schulhaus an d'r Krick,  
 Juscht neekscht an's Dady's Haus.

30

Oh horcht, ihr Leit, wu nooch mir lebt,  
 Ich schreib eich noch des Schtick:  
 Ich warn eich, droh eich, gebt doch Acht,  
 Und nemmt uf immer gut enacht  
 Des Schulhaus an der Krick!

<sup>1</sup> The first and the last stanzas of the most celebrated poem of Pastor Harbaugh<sup>40</sup> (1817—67) in Harbaugh's *Harfe*; rev. ed.; Philadelphia 1902, p. 112. Other strains from Harbaugh's harp are given in *Pennsylvania-Dutch*, by Maynard D. Follin: *American Speech*, 1929.

## 5. German Influence in American Education and Culture

All through the eighteenth century there were thriving German settlements in Pennsylvania where the German language flourished, but the Pennsylvania Germans were not in touch with the new intellectual currents of their old homeland, hence they were not mediators between the intellectual life of Germany and that of the United States. The Pennsylvania Germans were for the most part deeply religious. The Bible and the Church supplied their intellectual needs. They have the distinction of having issued the first Bible in the United States—the German Bible printed by Christopher Sauer in  
10 Germantown in 1743—while the English settlers imported their Bibles from England. They have played an important part in the history of religious movements in the United States, but they did not transmit the intellectual thought of Germany to their English-speaking fellow-citizens.

Madame de Staël's book on Germany gave an appreciative account of the work of the great German poets and thinkers—Lessing, Herder, Goethe, Schiller and others and of the new German idealistic philosophy. It also contained a short chapter on German universities, which the author calls the most learned universities in Europe. It gave an account of the new education in Germany brought about by the adoption of the system of  
20 Pestalozzi, which Madame de Staël considered far superior to the educational teaching of Rousseau because it was practical and adaptable to all children in contrast with the lack of these qualities in Rousseau's ideas.

Madame de Staël's book has been called the discovery of a new continent of intellectual and spiritual ideas. In France, England and the United States it aroused an eagerness to know more about these German ideas.

An interest was awakened in the study of the German language as a part of collegiate education. Harvard College and the University of Virginia were the first American universities to introduce the study of German.

In the early nineteenth century the German States, especially Prussia,  
30 had thoroughly reorganized and modernized their schools to give all the people, rich and poor, intellectual and moral training. It was the idealistic spirit of German classicism, Kant's and Fichte's moral teachings which, together with the devastating effects of the Napoleonic wars, induced the paternal governments of the German States to build up a system of popular education that would raise the moral and intellectual level of the whole people.

Horace Mann places Prussia and the other states of the Germanic Confederation at the head of European countries in matters pertaining to education. The best handwriting he has seen in the Prussian schools. "I can hardly  
40 express myself too strongly on this point," he writes. "In Great Britain, France, or in our own country, I have never seen any schools worthy to be compared with theirs in this respect."

The objection made again and again in America that the introduction of Prussian methods of instruction and of the preparation of teachers would

open the door for the coming in of Prussian despotism, he brushes aside as bigoted and worthless. "If the Prussian school-master has better methods of teaching reading, writing, grammar, geography, arithmetic, etc. so that, in half the time he produces greater and better results, surely we may copy his modes of teaching these elements, without adopting his notions of passive obedience to government, or of blind adherence to the articles of a church."

About the middle of the century a new movement came from Germany deeply affecting the education of very young children and adding a new word to the vocabulary of American English, Froebel's kindergarten. 10

The first to make the American public acquainted with the ideas of the kindergarten was a German, Johannes Kraus, a personal disciple of Froebel and an ardent advocate of the new movement, who came to this country in 1851. By lectures and articles written for the press he called attention to the ideas of Froebel. Henry Barnard, the first United States Commissioner of Education (1867—70), invited him to become associated with the United States Bureau of Education. Kraus accepted, as this gave him the opportunity of promoting his kindergarten ideas on a national scale.

John D. Pierce is the founder of the public school system of Michigan. His model in the formulation of his duties as Superintendent of Public In- 20struction was the Prussian minister of instruction. When his office was belittled at the constitutional convention of 1850 he defended himself and his office by saying: "Why is it that Prussia stands at the head of education in Europe? For the simple reason she has a Minister of Public Instruction to superintend and foster everything relating to the education of her people."

In the practical application of the Prussian system, however, it was found that many modifications were necessary to make the system workable in a new country. Moreover, lack of funds prevented the execution of some of the plans. But "it has been the boast of the state that her system of public instruction is based on 'the Prussian idea', the idea that the state should 30 create, support and supervise a system of free public instruction, comprehending the three grades, elementary schools, secondary schools, and the university. The constitution of the State, framed in 1835, incorporated these ideas in outline."

The University of Michigan is the first institution of higher learning in this country avowedly based, in theory at least, upon the German model.

German influence upon American education and culture during the nineteenth century has been beneficial and profound. It extends to the kindergarten, common schools, normal schools, universities, productive scholarship, and it includes two significant movements in the intellectual and 40 spiritual life of America. The influence of German music has not been touched upon in this sketch. It is not likely that the present century will see anything like it.

*From Dr. John A. Walz: German Influence in American Education and Culture. Philadelphia. 1936.*

## 6. German-Americans during the World War

One of the most curious features in the collection of the third Liberty Loan was the generosity of the Middle West. The list of towns that had most quickly subscribed or over-subscribed their quota was headed by four or five German towns. Were the German-Americans richer? Were they super-patriots? Or was there a simpler cause, something with the fears of tar and feathers in it? Three young stalwart Americans in one of these districts won remarkable success in their collecting tour. Their method, as explained to me, was as simple as effective. Their spokesman asked each householder his name. "Fritz Müller, did you say? Ah!" "And, Herr Müller, have you subscribed to the Liberty Loan?" If Mr. Müller offered to subscribe five hundred dollars, it was suggested to him to make it five thousand as a first instalment of ten thousand in case the town's quota was behindhand. And with this a paper and a fountain pen were slipped into Mr. Müller's hand. There was no fulminating mercury in the pen, as in some of those left by the Germans in their retreat, but Mr. Müller hastened to sign and give it back. The repetition of his name and a determined young American were enough. Everywhere Germans gave freely. Opposite my club in New York was this notice:

20                                   Kauft Freiheit's Bonds,  
  America's FREIHEIT ist die unserige.

It read queerly. But as soon as it became quite clear that no hyphens were to be permitted in America, it is certain that millions of Müllers in their deliberate conscious manner solemnly at a particular moment put the choice before themselves. Should they, being German-Americans, select the name on the left or the right of the hyphen? A story is told of one household that held a "conseil de famille" to thresh out the question, and that all the children attached themselves to the party of the right: they voted American. Everyone knows the zeal of the convert. Real converts perhaps contributed  
30 to the preeminence of Cincinnati and Milwaukee in providing money for the Liberty Loan.

*From Sir William Beach Thomas: A Traveller in News.*

## V. On History and Politics of the U.S.A.

### 1. The Declaration of Independence

In Congress, July 4, 1776

#### The Unanimous Declaration of the Thirteen United States of America

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes <sup>10</sup> which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will <sup>20</sup> dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience has shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security.—Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king <sup>30</sup> of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation <sup>40</sup>

in the legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined, with others, to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

30 For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the  
40 same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy of the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their 10 friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have 20 warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in 30 general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain, is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on 40 the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes and our sacred honor.

## 2. The Constitution

In the earlier years of the Revolutionary War, the State governments were formed, in compliance, it is true, with the advice of Congress. As time went on and the first feeling of enthusiasm gave way to a sense of depression, the people of the several States turned to their respective local governments as representing the old order of things and as the organizations with which they had the most to do and over which they exercised the most effective control. The central authority of Great Britain, which had bound them together, no longer acted as arbiter or protector. They determined to replace  
10 it by a central authority having such powers as they maintained the British government had possessed and no more. By the Articles of Confederation, therefore, they limited the functions of the national government—the United States in Congress Assembled—and gave it no coercive power whatever.

The Articles of Confederation, as the frame of government for the union was called, were elaborated by a committee of the Congress, appointed in June, 1776. They were not completed until November, 1777. Three years elapsed before the articles were ratified by the States, and they did not come into force until March, 1781.

20 The colonies had been united under a common executive, the British king—at least that was the theory. They replaced him by a Congress composed of delegates from the several States, each State having one vote and the assent of nine States being necessary for the transaction of important business. Congress furthermore was designed to act as arbiter in disputes between the several States. The Congress had almost no legislative power, no power to lay taxes, nor to regulate commerce with foreign powers or between the States. It could recommend legislation to the States and make requisitions for money. On paper its executive powers were ample. To it belonged, for instance, the determination of war and peace, the regulation of  
30 the monetary standard, and the right to coin money. The weak point in the scheme was the absence of a sanction. The next few years demonstrated the viciousness of this system, and accordingly it was swept away and a strong consolidated government established in its stead.

A government so weak at home was neither feared nor respected abroad. The conviction gained ground rapidly in 1786—87 that the several states could not long continue on the existing basis without civil war.

Finally, however, a resolution was passed inviting all the States to send delegates to a convention to consider the trade and commerce of the United States as a whole. This convention met at Annapolis in 1786. The dele-  
40 gates passed a resolution providing for a convention to amend the Articles of Confederation to be held at Philadelphia in the next year, 1787.

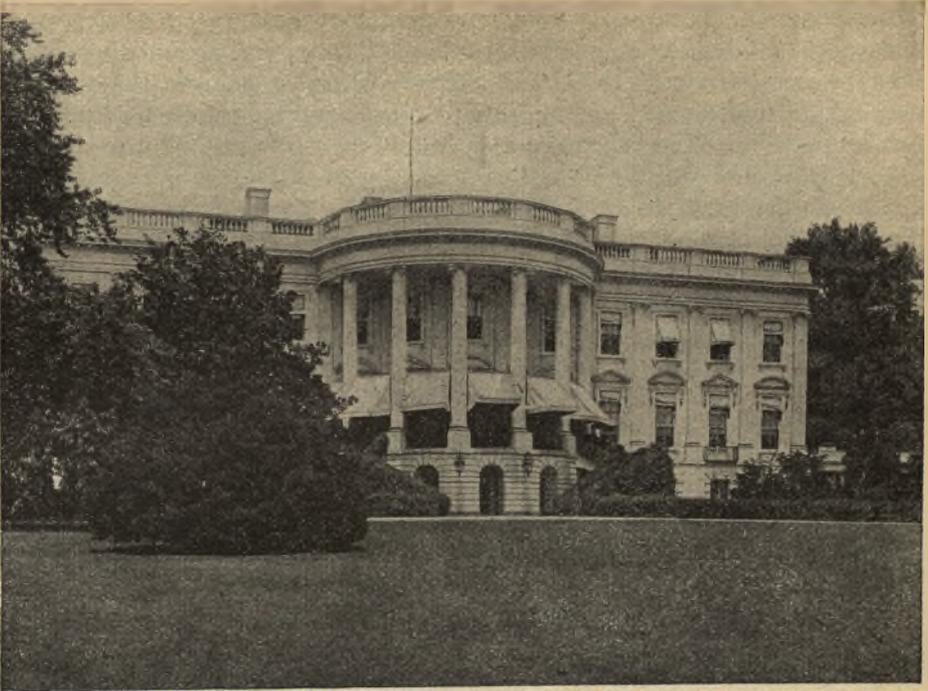
The Federal Convention met at Philadelphia, May 25th, 1787, and held daily sessions, with brief adjournments to facilitate the work of committees, until September 17th. Its sessions were secret, and it was not until

its final adjournment that the people knew anything about the proposed change of government.

Few deliberative bodies contained so many men of experience and knowledge. Among its members were Washington and Franklin. Over seventeen hundred amendments to the Constitution have been proposed in an official manner. Of these fifteen have been adopted. The first ten of them, forming a Bill of Rights, were declared in force December 15th, 1791. The Eleventh Amendment (1798) limited the power of the Supreme Court. The Twelfth Amendment (1804) provided a new method for the election of the President and Vice-President. The other three amendments (1865—1870) were the 10 outcome of the Civil War and made such changes as were necessary to make the Constitution the organic law of a non-slaveholding country. The fact that from 1804 to 1865—a period of sixty years—there was no amendment made to the instrument shows at once its great stability and at the same time its elasticity. It was natural for the constitution makers to provide also a tribunal or tribunals which could review the acts of the government. The Supreme Court consists of judges appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate—this being the usual manner of appointment of all the higher administrative offices. But at the moment of appointment, the 20 comparison between the judges and the other officials ceases. The Judges of the Supreme Court hold their office during good behaviour and receive salaries "which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office". The first question to be decided in most cases is whether the Act of Congress or of a State Legislature, under which a case has arisen, is constitutional or unconstitutional. If the Court decides that the law is unconstitutional and therefore of no force, that is an end of the matter.

The Representatives are elected every alternate year and serve for two years. The President is elected for four years. The Senators are elected by the State legislatures for the still longer term of six years. Moreover one-third of the Senate is renewed each second year. Thus it often happens that 30 the President and one house of Congress will belong to one party, while the other house will be in the hands of the opposition.

The Government established under this Constitution proved to be unusually strong from the very beginning. Many things tended to produce this strength. Among the rest, the wide scope of the grant of power to the national legislature. The best way to understand this grant of power is to turn to the Constitution, Article I, Section 8. The first clause of that section reads as follows: "Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States." Passing over the remainder of the 40 section one comes to the last clause which authorizes Congress "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof." It must be plain, no matter what construction the Supreme Court placed on the words,



White House (Washington)

that laws "necessary and proper" to provide for the levying of "taxes, . . . to provide for the general welfare" cover an enormous field. The Supreme Court, moreover, has interpreted the phrase "necessary and proper" in a very broad manner, and thus Congress has exercised most important functions, many of which may never have occurred to the members of the Federal Convention.

The United States Government is often spoken of as if the executive, legislative, and judiciary were distinct branches. As a matter of fact this is  
10 not true of the first two of the three branches. The President is the chief executive officer of the nation. But he also enjoys great legislative power, as by his veto he can compel a reconsideration of any act of Congress; but an act which commands a two-thirds majority at this second consideration becomes law without the President's consent. Furthermore, the President shares a considerable portion of his executive powers with the Senate. Thus no treaty can be ratified without the consent of two-thirds of the Senators present, at the time the vote is taken. The consent of the Senate is also necessary to all appointments to the higher offices.

The President in other respects possesses ample powers. He acts on his  
20 own responsibility. He may consult the heads of departments, but need not follow their advice. At his inauguration he takes an oath prescribed in the Constitution "to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the

United States". The President is the "Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States". He must take care that the laws be "faithfully executed" and he has power to grant pardons for "offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment". In time of war, especially of civil war, the powers exercised by the President as Commander-in-Chief—for the defence of the Constitution—may be those of a dictator. Persons obstructing the execution of the laws of the United States are amenable to the United States—be they State governors or railroad employees—and the President, for the defence of the Constitution, concerns himself with the individual and not with the State.

An attempt was made in the Constitution, however, to separate the functions of the United States and of the several States. To this end the States were forbidden (Article I, Section 10) to have any negotiations with foreign States, coin money, make anything except gold and silver a "tender in payment of debts," pass any law "impairing the obligation of contracts," etc.

Like all great political settlements, the Constitution was largely the result of compromises. It was proposed that the representation in both houses of Congress should be apportioned according to wealth. This was to avoid one of the great faults of the existing system which gave to the small States, Delaware, for instance, an equal voice with the large States like Virginia or Pennsylvania. Naturally, the delegates from the small States disliked this radical departure. The matter was settled by giving each State equal representation in the Senate, and providing for an apportionment of representation in the lower house according to population.

There could be no question as to the first President, and Washington received the unanimous vote of all the electors.

*From Edward Channing: The United States of America. Cambridge, 1896*

### 3. Lincoln's Gettysburg Address<sup>1</sup>

Address at Gettysburg. November 19, 1863.<sup>30</sup>

Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

<sup>1</sup> The address at Gettysburg is engraved in the Lincoln-Memorial; the pupils of most of the North-American schools have to learn this address by heart.<sup>40</sup>

But, in a larger sense we cannot dedicate—we cannot consecrate—we cannot hallow—this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us—that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom; and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

*Selections from Lincoln. Heath's English Classics. Boston—New York—Chicago*

#### 4. Sectional Conflict in America

The United States are today divided into three sections or regions, a North, a South and a West, each with geographical boundaries that can be defined with reasonable accuracy, and each with a fairly distinctive culture and way of life. The North and the South began, in New England and Virginia, at about the same time; they joined forces, on not very unequal terms, in achieving independence, and they developed thereafter with something of political balance until 1850, when they faced the third section—the West. There the great plains offered an insurmountable barrier to further advance, and the great open country was practically untouched when the two older sections fought for supremacy and control.

In the Civil War the North destroyed the military power of the South, Northern reconstruction destroyed its political power, and war and reconstruction between them reduced its economic power to the vanishing point. The North, on the other hand, emerged from the war triumphant, powerful, prosperous and vindictive. It lost its political control of the South after 1876, and the admission of New Mexico and Arizona as States, in 1912, marked the end of its political control of the West, but in the meantime it had built up an economic imperialism through which it has continued to dominate both sections.

The process began with the passage, in 1862, of the Homestead Act, which the South had opposed, and the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad on a route that made the West tributary to the North. It continued with high protective tariffs which favored Northern Industries, with Civil War pensions nearly 90 per cent of whose payments have gone to the North, with the flow of pension money into developing manufactures, and with multiplying patents of which 90 per cent or more of those that produce money are owned in the North.

Far the larger part of the natural wealth of the country, on the other hand, is in the West and South. How, then, has the North been able to gather to itself practically all the economic fruits of a nation's industry and labor? The explanation is in the development of giant corporations based on finance capitalism, and corresponding in many respects to the feudalism of an earlier age. This corporate feudalism, whose sole aim is profits, constitutes a third division of government, economic where State and national government is political, undemocratic where political government is democratic, and threatening to become more powerful than the political government of either nation or States.

10

This corporate feudalism has worked transformations in the smaller American communities and rural district. The automobile, the tractor, the filling station and electric current have turned farmers and free laborers into dependents, the chain-stores are driving local merchants to the wall, and schools and universities depend largely upon feudal lords of industry and finance for their endowments. The machine, which great corporations control, produces unemployment. It was made when work was a burden. It did so well that work has already become a privilege.

*The New York Times. January 9, 1938.*

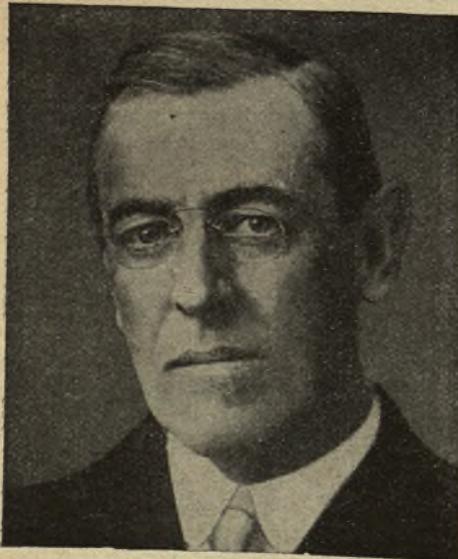
## 5. Woodrow Wilson and the Great War

20

When President Wilson faced the world situation in the summer and fall of 1914, there were certain definite facts upon whose clear perception our foreign policy rested. To misread the facts was to misdirect the policy.

*First*, by our trade relations with Europe we were in self-interest bound to maintain a strict neutrality. We bought and we sold in England and in Germany. Both were excellent customers. It was to our national interest to keep them as such.

*Second*, our national mood made neutrality easy. It was a far-off war in distant lands. We knew little of the issues which lay behind the outbreak, but dimly sensed that this was another imperial struggle, in which we had no immediate stake. We had no great emotional urge to take sides, not at least until the propaganda mills had been grinding



President Wilson

for many weeks. Some, because of blood or training, inclined toward England; others, toward Germany. About France, we knew little and suspected much. About Russia, we had only a sense of vast bewilderment. About the other parties to the conflict, there was an unresolved mass of complete indifference. The ordinary man in America in August, 1914, would have said: This is not our war, we will go on about our business as usual, buying and selling. He did not know that in time of war the business of buying and selling is beset by strange world forces over which he has no direct control. He did not know the rules of neutrality, and the danger  
10 which lies in his government's breaking those rules. But the average citizen of the United States would have doggedly voted against war, had his rulers consulted him. In 1917 our historic stand should have been reinforced by the disparate characters of our population.

*Third*, all our national traditions pointed to neutrality as the natural and the judicious course. Ever since 1789, as a result of bitter colonial experience, neutrality in foreign wars had been the dominant note in American foreign policy. Our involvement with Britain in 1812, the one conspicuous departure, was ostensibly to protect our neutral rights, actually to further our expansionist policies on the frontier. Woodrow Wilson, by his neutrality proclamation of  
20 August 4, 1914, was following the way of American life, and the sound way of reason.

But distant events, in whose determination a few rulers played decisive and hidden roles, were to out-balance the dictates of sanity in America.

The steps by which we were transformed from by-stander to participant in Europe's war are easily apparent.

In August, 1914, we were officially neutral. The president said so, the people felt so. There was, of course, increasingly strong tugging at the hearts of American sons of England and American sons of Germany. For such personal feelings, the Government had no responsibility. Neutrality must  
30 rule official attitudes, it cannot control personal convictions. That these differences need not conflict, if rulers do their duty, is attested by the cases of Hamilton and Jefferson during the war between France and Britain in 1793. Jefferson favored the French, Hamilton the British, but both preserved the utmost correctness of official attitude. The difference between their leadership and the leadership of 1914 was sizable. Jefferson and Hamilton made very plain the reasons for neutrality and the methods of achieving it. But in 1914 our leaders did not enlighten American citizens who, without experience of a major war, had little idea of how neutrality works. We had no experience, for instance, with the insidious undermining of neutrality by  
40 propaganda. Indeed, we did not realize that almost from the beginning our war news was colored by the Allies. They were "fighting our war", we were assured. A week after hostilities began, the cables from Germany were cut and from then on our news of Germany came by way of England.

We had small experience also with the strain to which neutrality is subjected by the weight of mounting trade. Proceeding as good neutrals to sell what we

had for sale to whomever wanted to buy it, few Americans realized the complications of inflated war trade increasingly confined to one belligerent side and financed by American money.

By the fall of 1914, the United States awoke to the fact that it was the chief market place for a world which desperately needed every kind of raw material and finished product.

In the spring of 1914, there had been a depression, but by fall our humming looms and belching smoke-stacks attested recovery. Deserted factories were being opened and fitted for the production of guns and shells. There were work and profit for all—purchasing agents arrived on every steamer from 10 Cherbourg and Southampton. Mr. Henry P. Davison of the Morgan firm was in London, making contracts, arranging for the orders which were to lift our sales to Europe from a billion and a half in 1914 to three and three-quarter billions in 1916.

We were neutral. We sold to all comers. We delivered our goods on the New York dock, or we loaded American or foreign ships and engaged to deliver at British or French or neutral ports. We delivered no goods at German ports. The Allies, by November 5, 1914, had taken care of that by illegally closing the North Sea.

International practice had previously limited contraband to materials 20 directly used for war, but England rapidly undertook to change the rules in order to keep all commodities out of Germany and thus starve her into submission. The British Order in Council of March 11, 1915, prohibited all trade with neutrals except that which Great Britain conducted or to which she consented. This Order struck at our neutral right to sell our goods and virtually banned all trade with Germany. Britain had decided upon a swift, if illegal, procedure. Prime Minister Asquith announced to Parliament that this British course with Germany would not "be strangled in a network of juridical niceties"—and thus another "scrap of paper" was shredded. As neutrals, *we were bound to resist such illegality. But we did not resist.* The 30 administration accepted the unprecedented list of contraband.

No such acquiescent attitude was taken toward Germany. On the contrary, when Germany, in reprisal for the British illegal starvation campaign, resorted to the submarine and declared the waters around Britain to be a war zone in which enemy merchant ships would be sunk, Mr. Wilson professed to see no connection between the British provocation and the German reprisal. He undertook to hold Germany to "strict accountability" for the loss of American life or property on British ships and sought to hold the submarine to rules of cruiser warfare for which there was no legal warrant.

Furthermore, we accepted with faint protest the "paper blockade" of 40 Germany. This acquiescence was a reversal of our historic position as a neutral. In 1806 Thomas Jefferson refused to accept such a paper blockade from England and Napoleon. But in 1915 we had no Thomas Jefferson, and the British "blockade" of Germany was successful. Its effectiveness was due

to the seizure—and the threat of seizure—of all ships and goods destined to Scandinavia or Holland, the British assumption being that such goods were in fact destined to Germany unless proof to the contrary were afforded. All ships had to call at British ports for examination. In addition, England used the "black list" to control much of the trade of the neutral nations, including that of the United States. Through that black list, the British gave orders to all British brokers, merchants, ships, and producers everywhere, *Do not serve or sell to any on this list*. Thus, at a single word, the British could put almost any exporting firm in the world out of business. When objections  
10 were made to their high-handed tactics, the invariable reply was, "but our orders are for British citizens only". But the black list of July, 1916, undertook to prevent an American citizen from trading with Germans or even Chileans in Chile if their names had been placed on the list. Thus, the black list became practically a monopoly by means of which the British decided who could trade in the world markets. Merchantmen were deflected from the course their owners had chosen, and sent to the market which the British dictated. Without, or with perfunctory, protest we accepted British Orders in Council as to what we should sell, and to whom we should sell, even to such neutral nations as Holland and Scandinavia. Not until the war was long  
20 over did we discover—thanks to Admiral Consett, British Naval Attaché in Copenhagen during the war—that the British had sold to Germany through Scandinavia some of the very goods which they had seized from us.

"Necessity knows no law"—that was Germany's philosophy, or so American school boys were taught in the spring of 1915. These school boys did not know, they were never told, that mighty Britain also stooped. They did not know, nor do they know today, that Asquith had translated necessity's scorn of law into plain English when he demanded freedom from "juridical niceties".

So the ring of steel—and of paper—was drawn around Germany. Food supplies dwindled, children were without milk. Then the Germans struck  
30 back with their submarines. The United States again protested. As we have seen, the administration refused to see any connection between the British "blockade" and the German counter-attack with submarines. Excuse for this refusal was found in the distinction between the loss of American property and the loss of American lives—although in fact down to February 3, 1917, all but three of the American lives lost were lost on Allied ships, armed or unarmed, where according to law and practice they ran all the risks of their belligerent location.

A further betrayal of our neutral role was Wilson's insistence upon the right of Americans to travel unmolested on such armed or unarmed Allied  
40 merchantmen. We warned Germany that an attack upon such ships with an American aboard was an attack upon us. In effect, we said to England: Use our citizens as security. When leading members of Congress protested, warning against the dangers of such a policy, Wilson announced, "I cannot consent to the abridgement of the rights of American citizens in any respect. The honor and self-respect of the Nation is involved." The Gore-McLemore

Resolutions warning Americans against taking passage on armed ships was defeated by the overpowering efforts of the Wilson administration in March, 1916.

It is an elementary principle of international law that a belligerent ship is belligerent territory. Therefore, even on unarmed merchant ships, Americans took passage at their own risk. This should have settled the issue long before the *Lusitania* case. The administration had no right to demand safety for Americans who voluntarily took passage on a British ship carrying 4,200 cases of ammunition through a war zone. Bryan called that fact to the President's attention, but Mr. Wilson preferred to follow his "strict accountability" note <sup>10</sup> of February, 1915, rather than to follow the law. While admitting that he ought to warn American citizens off belligerent ships, as Bryan begged, he declined to do so because it might "weaken" the force of his *Lusitania* note.

The administration was equally unneutral in the policy of lending money to the Allies.

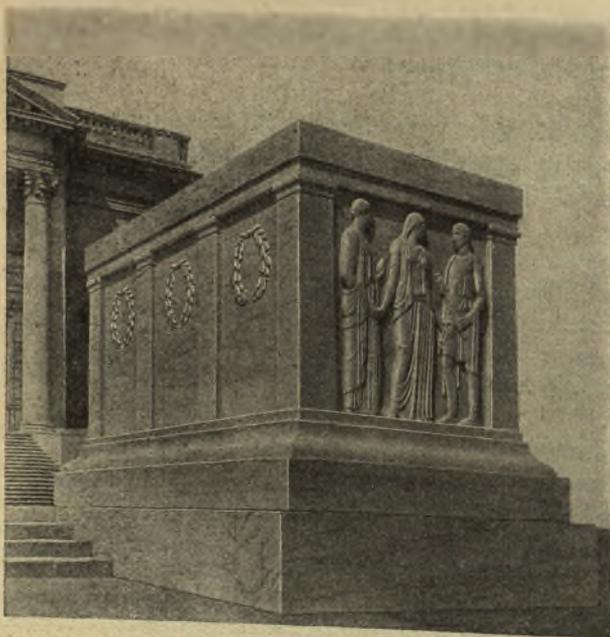
In August, 1914, the Wilson administration announced that the floating of loans for the belligerents was "inconsistent with the spirit of neutrality". In October of that very year, in order to keep the flow of munitions and food-stuffs moving, the same administration winked at a subterfuge, and permitted "bank credits" for financing such trade. By August, 1915, these credits had <sup>20</sup> become so great that they could not be increased. The bankers pointed out that credits must be funded or trade would stop. That meant loans. Mr. Wilson yielded, the Federal Reserve Banks were permitted to discount bills

and acceptances. The United States as a nation was now financing the munitions trade for one of the belligerents.

Such were the broad lines of our consistent <sup>30</sup> and unrepentant unneutrality from August, 1914, to April 1917.

They were the lines which led to war.

And then, having given away our case, we went to war, quite unaware of what it was <sup>40</sup> all about (even Wilson declared that he did not know of the secret treaties, under which the partition of the



Tomb of the Unknown Warrior

German and Austrian empires and the redrawing of the Balkan map were arranged), and in blissful unconsciousness of its threat to our national future.

Woodrow Wilson, on January 22, 1917, in one of those flashes of insight to which he did not remain constant, spoke of the advantage of "peace without victory" and prophesied that an imposed peace "would be accepted in humiliation . . . and would rest upon a quicksand." His words were met with anger in England and contempt in the eastern United States. But peace without victory might have saved the world. Instead, our peacemakers—Wilson, Lloyd George, and Clemenceau—had not even the farsightedness of the peacemakers at Vienna in 1815, where Wellington made his appeal against the dismemberment of France, and his prophecy of the ills which would ensue. And the peace of Versailles, written with the violent ink of revenge, was made possible by American arms. We shared a war which yielded a destroying peace, which cradled in its greedy articles the seeds of a dozen new wars. We gave the world a League of Nations, Sir Edward Grey's child of hope, eagerly adopted by Wilson, which, in the hands of old world diplomacy, became the hostage of the victorious nations, and was used by them to protect their winnings.

We paid for the war. We paid with the lives of the 126,000 dead, of the 234,300 mutilated and wounded. We paid with the dislocated lives of hundreds of thousands whom the war wrenched from their accustomed places in a peaceful world. We paid in the imponderable damage to our national moral through the lashing of war hysteria. We paid with a period of economic confusion from which we have not yet escaped. The direct bill for the war has reached the figure of fifty-five billions of dollars. The indirect bill can never be reckoned.

The old professional army sent at the bidding of a ruler is gone. This, true in 1917, is doubly true in 1938. Armies become the manhood of a nation, conscripted, compelled. Back of them must be the united will of an angry and determined people.

Those who lead us into war have first the task of persuasion, or "education", as Robert Lansing put it. They must take people who do not wish to fight and make them want to fight. They must take peace-loving people and convince them that the war is a just war, a generous war, a war for their own good and for the ultimate good of future generations.

This was what Woodrow Wilson did for us in the years 1914—17. When the Archduke fell before an assassin's bullet on June 28, 1914, Americans yawned and turned the page. When German troops pressed through Belgium into France, Americans—although disturbed—remained convinced that it was no business of theirs. The teachers persuaded them of their error.

Woodrow Wilson hated war, despised the militarists, but was finally responsible for taking the United States into the great European war and for militarizing his own country. He was a persuasive teacher because he first persuaded himself. He never saw that the times he was helping to shape were also shaping him, that the world he was busy saving would draw his

nation into the general lostness. His ends were continually defeated by his means, but the unquestioned sincerity of his conflicting purposes served to sanctify self-deception. He became the foremost protagonist of peace through war.

High-minded, quick tempered, possessed by a messianic vision of greatness, fired by that peculiar blend of righteousness and stubbornness which is born out of evangelicalism by Scotch blood, Woodrow Wilson envisaged a new world order to be created, and he was to draw the design. Unfortunately his hand was trained to the drawing of moral lines when the map he had to chart needed finer shadings than the white and black of right and wrong. He would be neutral but he could not be objective. He would preach moderation, righteousness, peace, justice—never did Scotch preacher use the words of Holy Scripture with more grace—and then with Calvinistic zeal he could propose that these gifts of the spirit should be won by the sword. He would condemn the sinners and exalt the saints, but he could not see that German submarine horrors were intimately related to the lawlessness of the British blockade. He would quote "principles of humanity" in denouncing the sinking of the *Lusitania*, but he could also forget that American passengers on a belligerent merchantman—possibly armed and certainly carrying munitions—were on that ship at their own risk and without right to American protection. He would appeal to "higher morality" and allow his ecstasy in the phrase and its connotations to lead him to an irresponsibility which brought wreckage to the nation. When reminded that the Allies did not hold to his own exalted opinion of a just peace, he could respond "when the war is over we can force them to our way of thinking, because by that time they will be . . . financially in our hands." He would carry America on in self-denial and self-forgetfulness, demanding no spoils of war, and then he could make possible the writing of a peace in which the victorious Allies parted the garments of defeated Germany, calling this territorial division by such sonorous names as "mandates". He maintained that peculiar casuistry which goes with evangelical honesty. A scholar and a historian who should have known the flowing and fusing of nations and centuries, he accepted a treaty under which boundaries were to be effectively frozen and assured.

Twenty years have elapsed. The war which Woodrow Wilson declared was fought and won. But, if Wilson's war aims are taken as the norm, that victory was defeat. Today there is less democracy, less security for small nations, less respect for international agreements, less hope for peace than there was in 1917. If the gods be merciful, they have granted Woodrow Wilson a dreamless sleep.

Today, Franklin D. Roosevelt with debonair grace invited the American people to again set out upon the quest of the Holy Grail.

The appeal of Mr. Roosevelt is a paraphrase of the appeal of Mr. Wilson: America wants peace. But American peace is jeopardized by a sinful world.

Therefore, America must join with the peace-loving in stopping the warmakers.

Yes, that tune caught our ear before. It led us into a futile war, and through that war to a fatal peace. The notes are the same in this bugle call. The field is differently blocked out. The uniforms have been changed somewhat. Some who were yesterday the allies of Right are today the supporters of Wrong. But the tune is an old tune. A sorry tune. A dangerous tune.

*From Hubert Herring: And so to War. New Haven—Yale University Press. 1938.*

## 6. The Almighty Dollar

*Corral the fifty wealthiest Jews and there will be no more wars.*  
(Henry Ford)

10 So great was the influence exerted by Jews holding high office in the Wilson Government, both on the chief executive and on members of Congress, that the national policy of the U.S.A. was virtually controlled by Jews, amongst the most powerful of whom was the Zionist Louis Dembitz Brandeis, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court and President of the Zionist Association of America. He was closely associated with President Wilson, by whom he was invariably consulted on all matters relating to War Finance, and was on intimate terms with the British Financial Commission to the U. S., headed by Rufus Daniel Isaacs, Lord Chief Justice of England.

Also, Bernard Mannes Baruch, a member of the New York Stock Exchange  
20 whom President Wilson appointed to the Advisory Committee on National Defence and Chairman of the War Industries Board, controlling raw materials, minerals and metals as well as every kind of manufacture.

As a member of the Committee in charge of all purchases on behalf of the Allies in the U. S. he too was in close touch with Isaacs' Financial Commission. Baruch stated publicly that in his official capacity during the War he "probably exercised more power than any other man in the country".

Working hand in glove with the Jewish financial dictators were Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labour, and the brothers Isidore, Nathan and Oscar Salomon Strauß, the latter one time U. S. Am-  
30 bassador to Turkey and a member of Theodore Roosevelt's Cabinet.

Also Julius Klein of the Department of Commerce, and Eugen Meyer, head of the Federal Reserve Board with his two principal associates Felix and Paul Warburg, brothers of Max Warburg, the Zionist Inner Actions Committee's agent in Berlin. The Warburgs were related to and associated with Jacob Schiff in Kuhn Loeb & Co. Paul had a controlling influence in the Executive Council of the U. S. Federal Banks and it was he who was responsible for the famous circular recommending the American Banks to cease lending money to the Allies. President Wilson appointed Paul Warburg to be a Director of the Committee charged with reforming the banking  
40 system of America.

Under growing Zionist influence the "assimilated" American Jewish Committee was superseded by the more powerful American Zionist Con-

gress. During 1917 while this Congress was not sitting, Jewish affairs were conducted by the international Inner Actions Committee under Dr. Schmaryar Levin and by the Greater Actions Committee, two executive bodies elected by the American Zionist Congress.

As a result of intense propaganda Zionism won over the masses and most of the leaders of American Jewry, including the notorious President of Kuhn Loeb, Jacob Schiff himself, who since 1905 had been an active financial supporter of the Russian revolution, the "blessings" of which had convinced him of the efficacy of Zionism.

Schiff was the greatest financial supporter of the "German" Jews' Mutual Aid Society, and during the War, before America intervened, he and his colleague Heusch formed the American Neutral Conference Committee which aimed at coercing the belligerents to make peace on Jewish terms. It was this Committee which spread the idea of a League of Nations of which the nominal centre was to be Geneva, but its real centre was of course already firmly established in the home of international finance, under whose régime of international control all the nations would be welded into one vast servile state. The British King-Emperor's Ambassador to the U.S.A. was indeed the right man in the right place. Lord Reading was in his element.

*The Eighth Crusade. Uncensored Disclosures of a British Staff Officer. Berlin 1939.* 20

## 7. The Powers of President Franklin D. Roosevelt

In the conduct of foreign affairs, the President of the United States is the most powerful constitutional ruler of our times. For all of the constitutional checks upon him, he exerts an almost absolute power in the area of the greatest national danger. He can on sole responsibility take steps which make war inevitable for hundred and thirty millions.

The President is the Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy. There is no power on earth to prevent his parading our fleet under the very shadow of Fuji—he did it in 1935 and 1937—to keep him from maintaining gunboats in the Yangtze River, or stringing our battleships in any sort of strange design across the Pacific. Such manœuvres may be consummated at his simple command, without advice from his cabinet, without an act of Congress. The exercise of such power invites incidents which lead on to war.

The President appoints the Secretary of State and the Secretary's chief assistants. These men, subject to the President's will, determine foreign policy by their interpretation of reports from war zones, actual and threatening, and by the way in which they convey the news to the public. Their instructions to our missions abroad serve either to mollify or to embroil our relations with other peoples. These men are the collectors and the interpreters of the raw material of war or peace. If they are moved by their passions, their reports reflect those passions. If they have an objective understanding of the panorama of world events, their reports will be more philosophical.

The President also appoints the men who represent us in negotiations with foreign governments. Here again he can choose men who will press the interests of the United States with wisdom and effect, or he can pick men on grounds of personal liking and political availability. Mr. Roosevelt's choices include excellent, mediocre, and dangerous men. These men, in a crisis, can say the word or do the act which provokes war.

Moreover, the President can say whatever he pleases, whenever he pleases, upon any subject of international moment. By such impulsive utterance, swiftly cabled to all the capitals of the world, he can commit one hundred  
10 and thirty million free citizens of the United States to a course not of their choosing. By words for which he is alone responsible, and in the framing of which he has neither asked nor accepted the counsel of his associates of the Congress, he can take us on the road to war. Mr. Roosevelt's Chicago speech of October 5, 1937, is sufficient instance. To be sure, the bulk of the speech had been prepared in the State Department, but in his last-minute enthusiasm, and in one of those flashes of genius which make Mr. Roosevelt dangerous, he inserted the sentence advocating "quarantines", a word which brought consternation to the more cautious officials in the State Department.

In other words, the President, by his uncontrolled right to send notes of  
20 any tenor, by his right to make speeches which are inevitably interpreted as the expression of the official view of the nation, by his right to grant or to withhold recognition from any new government, by his major hand in treaty-making, by his appointment of diplomatic officers, by his dominance over the State Department, and by his powers as Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces, can bring about international situations that make war likely, and invite those "incidents" which make war inevitable. These rights, added together, give the President of the United States the power to make war . . .

Despite the warnings of the framers of the Constitution, the example of  
30 Jefferson and Jackson, and the further warning of the Supreme Court, the President of the United States today possesses the power to embroil us through naval manœuvres and the movement of troops to foreign territory and to commit us fatally through ill-advised and irresponsible statements. The President's power to create a situation in which war is practically unavoidable is recognized almost unanimously by competent students.

John M. Mathews writes in *American Foreign Relations*: The President very largely controls the determination of the question as to whether there shall be peace or war, and may manipulate the situation, through the exercise of his diplomatic and military powers, so as practically to compel Congress  
40 to declare war . . . The President may, through the exercise of his diplomatic and executive powers, bring on a situation such that Congress, even against its wishes, will be practically compelled to support his war policy.

The steps by which the President has won this war-making power were various and devious. The exigencies of the Civil War concentrated new powers in the President's hands. During the years which followed, the war

with Spain and our imperialistic plunges into Caribbean republics, seldom labeled as wars, served to magnify the President's position as chief of the army and the navy, chief also in foreign affairs. To Wilson, however, belongs the chief responsibility for departure from our traditional American doctrine of the exclusive right of Congress to initiate and declare war. From first to last, he withheld from Congress vital knowledge of his purposes and commitments, and told them such things, and only such things, as he thought suitable for their ears.

When Woodrow Wilson at last presented the Treaty of Versailles to Congress in 1919, it was the last chapter in five years of usurpation of power.<sup>10</sup> The war had been finally voted by a Congress which did not know the prior commitments of our new Allies, which was misinformed and not consulted about American or Allied war aims, a Congress which had been given no warning as to the financial demands which those Allies would make upon us. The war was finally settled in a peace treaty in the writing of which Congress had not been consulted. At last Congress rebelled, appealed to their constitutional rights, and refused ratification of the instrument of Versailles. The revolt was five years overdue.

The concentration of power in the hands of the President has been further accelerated under Franklin D. Roosevelt. Grants of power may well prove<sup>20</sup> dangerous in the formulation of domestic policies, but they are doubly dangerous in the contriving of foreign relations . . .

The well-nigh dictatorial power of the American President to say the words and to take the first steps which make war is not consistent with the genius of democracy. It is a power possessed by no other head of a democratic state. In France it would be unthinkable for a Premier to make a declaration on foreign policy without counsel of the Committee on Foreign Affairs of the Chamber of Deputies. In England, no Premier or Foreign Minister would presume to make a public utterance upon foreign affairs without the counsel and the substantial assent of his cabinet. Nor would he take any action, or<sup>30</sup> dispatch any note which committed the nation, without tangible assurance of the support of his Parliament. To do so would be to invite a swift note of "no confidence" and his unseating.

It is time that an amendment be launched by Congress and submitted to the states for ratification limiting the President's powers in the control of foreign affairs.

There should be definite limitation of the President's powers in the making of international agreements. Formal treaties have been subject to the advice and consent of the Senate, but there have been innumerable agreements with foreign powers in the making of which the Senate has exercised no control.<sup>40</sup>

Again, the United States should learn from other nations the value of bringing cabinet members to the floor of Congress. The secretaries of the various departments should be subject to the open questioning of the Senate and the House. In this way, the final responsibility of the executive to the legislative would be made more certain.

And most important, a way should be found to divide the powers of the President, already discussed, among a larger body of advisers. The President will take the proposal as an affront but he need not. No constitutionally elected President of the world's greatest democracy has reason to resent a redefinition of his constitutional powers.

Such an amendment will not work miracles. But had there been such check, Franklin D. Roosevelt would not have used the deadly word "quarantine" in Chicago.

And if the friends of Mr. Roosevelt dislike the proposal and condemn it  
10 as unnecessary and unjustified, let any qualified historian take them aside and recite tactfully and clearly the story of Woodrow Wilson, of the way in which his good intentions were defeated by his secret commitments to Great Britain, by his failure to uphold the neutral rights of the United States, and by his insistence on demands upon Germany that had no legal warrant. It will not be necessary to draw lessons from the living. The dead offer abundant evidence of our dire need for effective restraint upon the chivalrous instincts of presidents who would rush us to the succor of other peoples.

*From Hubert Herring: And so to War. New Haven—Yale University Press. 1938.*

## 8. British Propaganda in the U.S.A.

20 In the annals of war few Great Campaigns rival the exploits of the British Army of Propaganda in America shortly after World War I began. Its landing was accomplished without a single casualty; not a shot was fired. In fact, the native populace turned out, in awe or in wonder, to welcome the expeditionary force that Sir Gilbert Parker commanded by remote control. If Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton, the course of World War I was momentarily influenced at luncheon tables and in private salons in America. There the British case was presented informally, inferentially, innocently. For two and a half years the great, and the near great, literary men of London advanced in single file through America.

30 And when the long procession of Allied lecturers, official emissaries, self-appointed envoys, and tea-table diplomats had returned to England, the memory of its deeds remained. Like most armies of occupation, whether at first they are greeted with laurel wreaths or rebellion, this one left a trail of disenchantment. By the time World War II started Americans had pondered the confessions of the propagandists themselves, read or heard about Sir Gilbert Parker's chronicles of British propaganda in this country. Whatever their thoughts about the war, they critically scrutinized the identity of lecturers and ambassadors at large who sought to tell them what to think.

40 Sensing the atmosphere, the British moved cautiously in the autumn of 1939. When they lifted the ban forbidding any lecturers at all, they emphasized that lecturers came here "under their own steam". But the lecturers came. In the last war American newspapers were deluged with literature, news,

and photographs prepared by British hands. This time most of the material was circulated quietly and unostentatiously by the British Library of Information in New York. At all costs the impression had to be avoided that a new army of occupation was on its way. There were compensations for these hardships. For one thing, of course, the ranks of "the soldiers of the King" were filled to a much larger extent than in 1914 with native volunteers. Where one Anglophile had grown before, there were twenty now. Many of them had served in the propaganda process in the last war. Others were raw recruits. All of them, in one way or another, were prepared to carry the pro-Ally message to America. They were not paid propagandists from Nicholas Murray Butler to Anne Morgan, from socially-conscious leaders of women's clubs to internationally-minded labor leaders. In 1914 the press had been sharply divided on the war. In 1939 the press, whether isolationist or interventionist in its conclusions, was overwhelmingly sympathetic to the Allies, and did not need too much stimulation from abroad.

While the burden of the propaganda offensive was publicly carried by Americans, however, the British were not inert. Again the most fruitful pastures were the lecture halls and the dining rooms. There were public meetings and private gatherings. The British could gain entry where no Nazi apologist would have dared to tread. This was not merely a tribute to their superior social graces, it was a reflection of America's unneutrality. The British spokesmen in America were roughly divided into two groups: one was the standing army led by the Marquess of Lothian, British Ambassador to the United States. The other was composed of lecturers making either their annual or emergency trips to America.

*From Laving & Wechsler: War Propaganda and the United States. New Haven 1940.*

## 9. The English and the U.S.A.

"To and for the establishment, promotion and development of a Secret Society, the true aim and object whereof shall be the extension of British rule throughout the world, the perfecting of a system of emigration from the United Kingdom, and of colonization by British subjects of all lands where the means of livelihood are attainable by energy, labour and enterprise, and especially the occupation by British settlers of the entire Continent of Africa, the Holy Land, the Valley of the Euphrates, the Islands of Cyprus and Candia, the whole of South America, the Islands of the Pacific not heretofore possessed by Great Britain, the whole of the Malay Archipelago, the seaboard of China and Japan, the ultimate recovery of the United States of America as part of the British Empire, the inauguration of a system of Colonial representation in the Imperial Parliament which may tend to weld together the disjointed members of the Empire, and finally, the foundation of so great a Power as to hereafter render wars impossible and promote the best interests of humanity."

*Rhodes's First Testament. 1877.*

I told Carlyle that . . . I surely know that as soon as I return to Massachusetts I shall lapse at once into the feeling, which the geography of America inevitably inspires, that we play the game with immense advantage; that there and not here is the seat and centre of the British race; and that no skill or activity can long compete with the prodigious natural advantages of that country, in the hands of the same race; and that England, an old and exhausted island, must one day be contented, like other parents, to be strong only in her children. But this was a proposition which no Englishman of whatever condition can easily entertain.

10

*Ralph Waldo Emerson. 1856.*

We are coming (thanks to the war) to a nationality. Put down your foot and say to England, I know your merits and have paid them in the past the homage of ignoring your faults. I see them still. But it is time to say the whole truth, that you have failed in an Olympian hour, that when the occasion of magnanimity arrived, you had it not,—that you have lost character. Besides, your insularity, your inches are conspicuous, and they are to count against miles. When it comes to divide an estate, the politest men quarrel. Justice is above your aim. You are self-condemned.

*Ralph Waldo Emerson. 1863.*

<sup>20</sup> Again we will be told that England and America are one people blessed with the same Laws, Customs, Language and Religion; again as in 1917 we will be told that "Our Interests are Identical", that if England loses, we lose: That as England is fighting our battle, we should join in that battle and fight for England. — Yes, if we act like sheep, and follow the "big fellows" over the fence and in to the War. And here's the evidence: In 1915, when the English and French armies in the West, and the Russian armies in the East, were being defeated on every battlefield, and England was fighting with her back to the wall Winston Churchill said to his fellow-Cabinet-Officers, — "Locked in the deadly struggle with the danger of Russian  
<sup>30</sup> collapse staring them in the face, and with their very existence at stake, neither Britain nor France was inclined to be particular about the price they would pay for the accession to the alliance, of a new first class power". Reduced to plain English, Mr. Churchill meant that conditions were so desperate they would pay any price for another first class ally. We do not charge that the "Lusitania" was a part of the price, but it did much to draw America into the war. But this fact is certain. At about the same time, 1915, Lord Northcliffe, England's great publisher and propagandist was sent to America, "to find out just what particular type of propaganda Americans would be most likely to swallow." After interviewing numerous Editors, College professors and  
<sup>40</sup> politicians, Lord Northcliffe returned to London, and said to his friends: — "The American people Look alike, Think alike, Dress alike, they are a nation of sheep." Which is to say, we would believe any kind of propaganda.

Think of it: Lord Northcliffe comes here to get our aid at a time when England was fighting for her life; then goes home and says to his friends, "the Americans are a nation of sheep", they will believe anything. Well, Lord Northcliffe was right 23 years ago; what about today, in 1940?

*The Truth about England. New York 1940.*

We hope it won't happen until we, our children, and our children's children are out of the picture, but some day the British Empire is going to come to an end . . .

What nations should be the heirs of the British Empire, when and if it finally goes the way of all previous empires? We might as well do some<sup>10</sup> thinking on that subject now, in case all goes not so well with Britain in the present war.

With the ultimate disposition of British possessions in Asia, Africa, and the South Seas the United States has no proper concern that we can see.

But in the Western Hemisphere, the United States should become the heir of the British Empire south of Canada. We mean we should inherit the British West Indies, Bermuda, Jamaica, the Bahamas, British holdings in the Leeward and Windward Islands, etc. plus British Honduras in Central America, British Guiana in South America, and the Falkland Islands off lower Argentina.

<sup>20</sup>

If we don't take those properties over from a cracked-up British Empire, some European nation or nations will try to meaning we'll have to put up some sort of fight to keep our Caribbean and South Atlantic exposures from becoming too exposed. We'd better let it be understood around the world that we are going to move into those places when, as, and if the British move out.

Regarding Canada in event of the British Empire's dissolution, we do not think there ought to be any United States attempt to annex it.

It may be that the Canadians will want to come into the Union of their own accord. If so, we ought to negotiate to admit them on terms of full<sup>30</sup> equality with the present 48 States — the Canadian Provinces to be admitted as States with full rights under our Constitution, each of these new States to have two Senators at Washington and as many Congressmen as its population warrants. But Canada ought to start any such move, and we ought to make sure that the Majority of Canadians really want to join us before we send any diplomats to talk over the deal.

All this is purely speculative, of course. But time and change can overtake the British Empire; and we ought to understand that fact, and do some thinking now and then about the tremendous implications which that fact carries for us as well as for the rest of the world.

<sup>40</sup>

*Washington Times-Herald, March 1940.*

## VI. On Economic and Social America

### I. Education in the U.S.A.

There is in Washington a Federal Bureau of Education. It has no authority over the schools of the nation, but has had growing importance as a medium of information. It has divisions representing every field of education and its reports have been called a "handbook of information not only in the United States but in the world at large". The World War occasioned a movement toward centralization. It was found that great alien groups were not reached by the English language or by American sentiments. Many young men could not understand their military officers and many fathers of recruits got their news of the war in a foreign-language press. Illiteracy was found in menacing magnitude.

*Elementary Schools.*—The "little red school house" was a product of the frontier. It could not be otherwise, and it should not be claimed that it was more than a stop-gap in American life. To condemn it is to condemn the conquest of a new country. Poor as it was, it made statesmen, preachers and financiers, men of science and great teachers. The brilliant lights that fall upon us to-day do not make the torch of the wilderness less good for its time.

The lower schools commonly cover eight grades. They take the children at five or six years of age and their teaching may be preceded by more or less of the beginnings of the kindergarten. These schools belong to a public-school system, which is administered by the several states. Let it be observed that "*public*" in relation to schools does not carry the English meaning in America. Schools are public when supported by taxation and directed by chosen representatives of the citizens. The control is close in some states and loose in others, and the length of terms, the competence of teachers and the housing of schools vary greatly.

In cities and large towns, the lower schools are part of a system which begins with the kindergarten, passes up through the grades, rises to the secondary, or high schools, and may in larger centres culminate in municipal colleges for varied training.

There are thousands of private elementary schools. These are maintained mainly for two reasons. First comes the fact that in larger centres the public schools are much occupied by children of new populations coming from unsanitary homes and without common refinements. Private schools are supported by well-to-do classes to safeguard the children. Then there are the parochial schools maintained by church aid and governed by church authority, that religious instruction may be given, which may not be given in the public schools. Schools of this sort do not receive public funds, though they may conform to legal standards of efficiency.

*The Secondary School.*—In common practice the pupil passes from the grades to four years of secondary instruction. If the school belongs to the public system it is known as the high school. This is the common name, though some communities may call their public high school a free academy, or by some other name. The important fact historically is that high school was developed from the grades upward, not from the universities downward.

Such public high schools are found in all large villages, and in all cities. In the smaller centres the grades and the high school are under one roof and one principal. In the larger places there are many grade schools, and several high schools. For the latter the housing in many cities is now not less than palatial. The classrooms, teachers, libraries, laboratories, gymnasiums and playgrounds are open to every boy and girl who has passed the grade tests. These schools may lead toward a business or professional life for youth of the poorest origin. If there be a prime excellence in American education and life, it is in this—the diffusion of opportunity.

The weakness of the high school is in its variety of purpose and miscellaneous gathering of abilities and aptitudes.

*Private Secondary Schools.*—Viewed at the present time, a multitude of private secondary schools have grown up in the public-high-school period. Some have survived from early days and grown great and prosperous. They are governed by efficient boards of trustees, have acquired large foundations and material equipment, maintain high standards and admit boys only, giving the most advanced and thorough preparation for some of the older universities.

They are the American counterpart of the great public schools of England. Similar schools exist for girls and there is further a great number of private schools and seminaries of good but less exacting standards.

*The College.*—It is not easy to define the American college to those familiar with European types of higher education. Here also the key to understanding is in origin and history. The college, like the high school, is the outgrowth of pioneer experience. The founders of Harvard doubtless looked upon the English college as their model. Harvard was Harvard College, not Harvard University, until the last century was far gone, but it had always conferred degrees. In the same way Yale was Yale College until a late period.

American colleges are largely recruited from the high schools, and the inherited gains are less common. The certificate of completion of the high-school course often admits to college, but now many colleges have raised their standards and require severe examinations, such as those of the College Entrance Examination Board.

Most American colleges were founded by religious bodies. The older and more efficient may retain this historical connexion, but are non-sectarian both in profession and in substance.

*The American University.*—The University is peculiar in this respect—it embraces a college, which has been surrounded and co-ordinated with higher schools. The college was historically first and the schools have developed

out of it, or have been grafted upon it. There is a graduate school of arts and sciences, in which personal and seminar instruction and more or less independent study and research lead to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. There may be also schools of theology, law, medicine, dentistry, engineering, economics or science, making up the university group. Where there is a university the degrees are all conferred by it. If there be only a college it is chartered to confer degrees. This is the American anomaly in higher education. There are various stages of partial development between the college and the true university. Thus the University of Rochester was 10 long but a college. Now by aid of enormous endowments it is building great schools of medicine and of music. In time other schools may be added to this group.

The development of graduate work in America was for many years carried out somewhat on the model of German universities, to which many Americans went for advanced study.

*Technical Schools.*—Here we class a variety of schools which may or may not be parts of universities. There are many schools of engineering, of which perhaps the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute of Troy is the oldest and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology of Boston is the greatest. Agricultural 20 education covers a wide field and is elaborately organized through the Land Grant Universities, by schools of agriculture both in and apart from universities, through the United States Department of Agriculture, state departments and innumerable county organizations, by which the remotest places are reached by expert help for the fields and the homes.

Schools of Education are numerous, in union with the universities, or they are separate institutions, such as teachers' training colleges and normal schools, some being of high grade and elaborate equipment. There are schools of Forestry, of Journalism, of Architecture and of Business Administration. We may add the schools of great corporations, in which the graduates of 30 universities are trained for insurance, banking and other pursuits.

*From Albert Perry Brigham: The United States of America. London 1927*

## 2. Luther Burbank

All that Luther Burbank became as a man he foreshadowed by his life in boyhood. To him the old proverb applies remarkably well: "As the twig is bent, so is the tree inclined."

Luther's father, Samuel Walton Burbank, a Massachusetts farmer, succeeded just a little better than his neighbors. He conducted a farm from which he made a good living, and he also had the enterprise to make use of the clay found upon his land, and manufactured pottery and brick. Belonging 40 to the sturdy English stock that had made early New England, he believed in hard work, penny-saving thrift, and simple ambitions. Luther's mother, Olive Ross Burbank, was of Scotch descent. She owed her love of beauty to the



Luther Burbank

same race that produced not only Allan Ramsay and Robert Burns, but also that Gawain Douglas who wrote of Scottish gardens rich with "purple, azure, gold, and gules".

The boy Luther saw his father at work upon his farm and his mother pleasantly occupied in the home and the garden. When he was old enough to take charge of a garden of his own, even though still only a small boy, he took pride in raising corn for the table a full two weeks ahead of his neighbors. He made his corn mature earliest, because he planted seeds in boxes in the house, gave them the proper attention, and then planted the new corn outdoors at the earliest moment.

Almost by instinct, even at the start, he made his gardening scientific.

In his ambition to excel in the work that he saw around him, he began to study soils and fertilizers as well as seeds and plants. He questioned his mother, his father, and any of the neighbors who happened to gain marked success. When he wished to learn more than these good friends of his could teach, he turned to books.

Before Luther Burbank had passed the age when most boys devote their time to games and unproductive amusements, he had made many really valuable experiments in plant development, in the selection of seeds, in cross pollination, and even in the difficult art of grafting, of which most farmers' sons know little.

When Luther Burbank sat in class in that red brick country school, he appeared the least likely of all the pupils to make himself famous. He was so delicate and slender in figure that he looked as if he lacked physical strength to meet the ordinary battles of life. Then his father died, the family moved

from the pleasant red house with its shading elm trees, to Groton, and the young man had to get work. He found a position with a nurseryman!

In 1875, in his twenty-sixth year, after he had suffered from a partial sunstroke, he resolved to set out for California, whither many people from his neighborhood had gone.

When at last Luther Burbank reached the land of his dreams, he found a state very different from the California of to-day. Where we now see southern cities, he saw small semi-Mexican towns. Where we delight in fruit-orchards and in plantations of walnuts, he saw only arid expanses.

10 Instead of going to any of the more important places, Burbank went some fifty miles north of San Francisco to Santa Rosa, a place then possessed of fewer than five thousand inhabitants. There, in a wide valley, he found especially fertile soil and a climate well adapted to the work he wished to carry on. There he remained and there he worked, until, without his intending to do so, he made the place famous.

He had delighted in obtaining work at one of the nurseries in Santa Rosa, but he delighted less when he tried to sleep in his close, hot room. He stifled in the heat and the heavy odors. However successful he became in later life, he did not find it easy to climb the hard ladder that led to success.

20 Luther Burbank, once again in his favorite work, now busied himself industriously with plants and flowers, did his best for his employer, saved money, and looked ahead to the future. When the proper time came, and he made it come soon, he established a nursery business of his own. In 1877 he succeeded so magnificently that he made exactly fifteen dollars and twenty cents! Nevertheless, willing to work night and day, he determined to go on in the nursery work. Seven years later, from his nursery business, he made more than ten thousand dollars a year. Best of all, he saw orders pouring in upon him at an increasing rate, and knew that he could anticipate greatly increased returns. He had brought this about through hard work and  
30 through almost unexampled ingenuity.

One day, in this early period of his success, he received an order for 20,000 young trees. He felt overjoyed at such an order, until he learned that the would-be purchaser would cancel it if he could not have the trees at once. As a practical nurseryman, Burbank knew that the slow growing prune trees would take nearly three years to develop to the size desired. He wished to fill the order. What was he to do? How could he make prune trees grow more rapidly?

"Why didn't the man ask for almond trees?" Burbank thought. "I can grow them over night."

40 Then immediately he thought, "Why not grow prunes on almond trees?"

At once he planted no less than a hundred thousand of the rapidly growing almond trees, and rejoiced to see them spring up quickly, in accordance with their nature. From these he then selected the strongest and the best, to the number of 20,000. On the best of the strong, vigorous, quick-growing almond trees he grafted prune cuttings. In nine months, much less than half the time

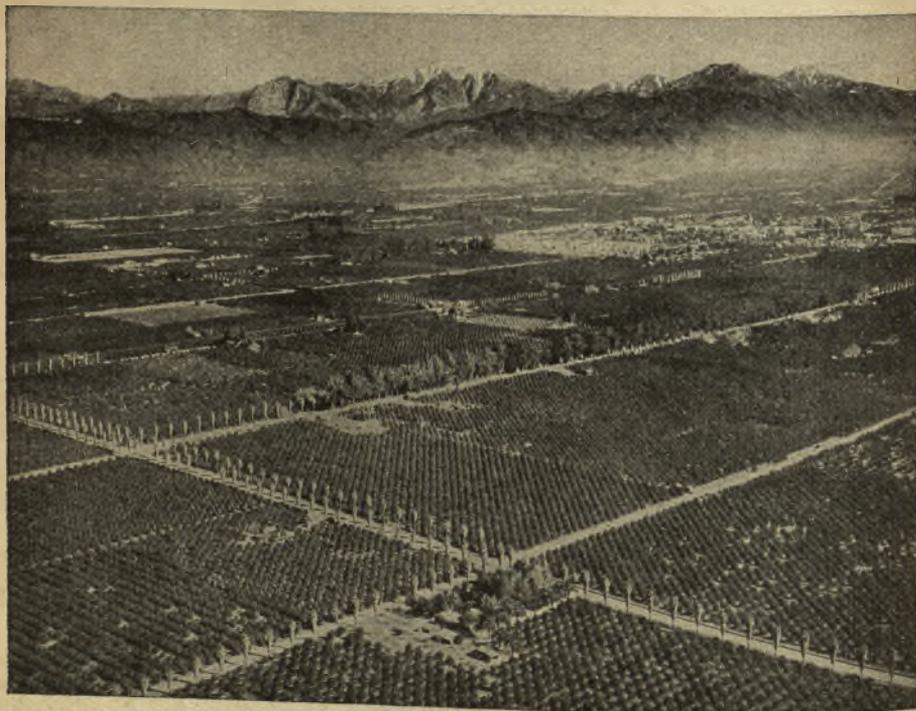
required by nature, he sent word to the man who had given the order: "Here are your 20,000 prune trees." The plant magician had made almond trees, because of their grafts, bear, not almonds, but prunes!

New patrons piled order upon order; visitors made long pilgrimages to see the wonder-worker, and people at great distance wrote eager letters of inquiry.

Because he saw a new and greater work before him, Luther Burbank abandoned the success of his nurseries, as well as the excellent income that it brought him, in order to strike out boldly into a new field, that of developing new growths. That entry into a new career he made in 1884 when he was thirty-five years old. About Christmas time, 1885, he bought a farm at Sebastopol, California. From that time to his death, he conducted experimental work on a great scale. In his quiet gardens he accomplished results almost beyond belief.

Burbank, interested in all plant life, saw around him on the desert expanses, the cactus, so common in the arid regions of the Southwest. He saw the plant a menace to every form of life, thorny, unfriendly, forbidding, keeping cattle and men alike at a distance. Then he experimented until he produced a variety of cactus that forgot to grow the thorns that had characterized its kind for centuries!

Burbank found the cactus of the desert practically useless, even without its 20 thorns, for it contained a hard fibre harmful to cattle. He grew a cactus



Orchards in California

that had neither thorns nor dangerous fibre! He aided nature, trained the savage species, civilized and softened it, and led to the growth of a cactus that provided food valuable for cattle. He made what once menaced men and animals alike, become a blessing.

In the same way Burbank trained other plants to put aside their weapons. He led walnut trees to grow nuts with thin shells; blackberry vines to throw aside the thorns that prick and scratch; and plums to grow without pits. He induced strawberries to forget the seasons, and to grow throughout the year under his protecting hand. He led the white calla lily to develop a perfume that matched its beauty of appearance. He changed the disagreeable odor of the dahlia to an inviting fragrance.

Burbank heard fruit-growers complain of the danger of frost, whose sudden coming, they said, destroyed thousands upon thousands of dollars' worth of fruit. He studied both the trees and the conditions, and then brought about the growth of fruit-trees that could endure the most sudden changes of temperature. He had taken the trees as if they had been children, and had taught them how to take care of themselves.

In one test alone Burbank used 500,000 plum trees, an almost incredible number!

20 As for working hours, Luther Burbank forgot all about such a thing as the "eight hour day". In fact, his interest was such that he made his day of labor more frequently one of eighteen hours than one of eight.

Luther Burbank's love for his chosen work was such that in labor he found the greatest pleasure. "No man," said he, "ever did a great work for hire." In that, he sets forward one of the greatest prescriptions for happiness and contentment.

Of his work, the Dutch botanist Hugo De Vries said, "The flowers and fruits of California are less wonderful than the flowers and fruits which Mr. Burbank has made."

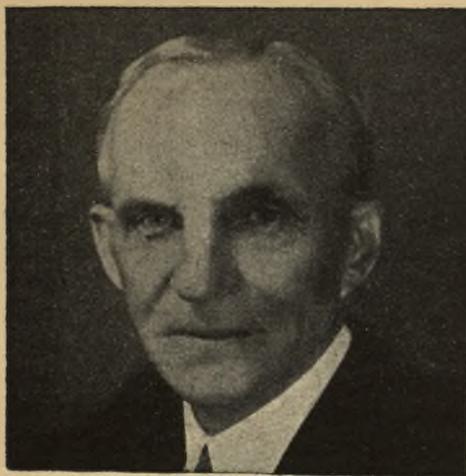
30 Such a man sets an example of the joy and the success that one may gain when he has his heart in his work.

*From Frederick Houk Law: Modern Great Americans. — New York—London.*

### 3. Henry Ford

#### (His Principles of Service)

I think that we have already done too much toward banishing the pleasant things from life by thinking that there is some opposition between living and providing the means of living. We waste so much time and energy that we have little left over in which to enjoy ourselves. Power and machinery, money and goods, are useful only as they set us free to live. They are but means 40 to an end. For instance, I do not consider the machines which bear my name simply as machines. If that was all there was to it I would do something



Henry Ford

else. I take them as concrete evidence of the working out of a theory of business which I hope is something more than a theory of business—a theory that looks toward making this world a better place in which to live. The fact that the commercial success of the Ford Motor Company has been most unusual is important only because it serves to demonstrate, in a way which no one can fail to understand, that the theory is right. Considered solely in this light I can criticize the prevailing system of industry and the organization of money and society from the standpoint of one who has not been beaten by them.

As things are now organized, I could, were I thinking only selfishly, ask for no change. If I merely want money the present system is all right; it gives money in plenty to me. But I am thinking of service. The present system does not permit of the best service because it encourages every kind of waste—it keeps many men from getting the full return from service. And it is going nowhere. It is all a matter of better planning and adjustment.

The natural thing to do is to work—to recognize that prosperity and happiness can be obtained only through honest effort. Human ills flow largely from attempting to escape from this natural course. I have no suggestion which goes beyond accepting in its fullest this principle of nature. I take it for granted that we must work. All that we have done comes as the result of a certain insistence that since we must work it is better to work intelligently and forehandedly; that the better we do our work the better off we shall be. All of which I conceive to be merely elemental common sense.

There is in this country a sinister element that desires to creep in between the men who work with their hands and the men who think and plan for the men who work with their hands. The same influence that drove the brains, experience, and ability out of Russia is busily engaged in raising prejudice here. We must not suffer the stranger, the destroyer, the hater of happy humanity, to divide our people. In unity is American strength—and freedom.

There is plenty of work to do. Business is merely work. Speculation in things already produced—that is not business. It is just more or less respectable graft. But it cannot be legislated out of existence. Laws can do very little. Law never does anything constructive. It can never be more than a policeman, and so it is a waste of time to look to our state capitals or to Washington to do that which law was not designed to do. As long as we

look to legislation to cure poverty or to abolish special privilege we are going to see poverty spread and special privilege grow. We have had enough of looking to Washington and we have had enough of legislators—not so much, however, in this as in other countries—promising laws to do that which laws cannot do.

The slogan of “less government in business and more business in government” is a very good one, not mainly on account of business or government, but on account of the people. Business is not the reason why the United States was founded. The Declaration of Independence is not a business  
10 charter, nor is the Constitution of the United States a commercial schedule. The United States—its land, people, government, and business—are but methods by which the life of the people is made worth while. The Government is a servant and never should be anything but a servant. The moment the people become adjuncts to government, then the law of retribution begins to work, for such a relation is unnatural, immoral, and inhuman. We cannot live without business and we cannot live without government. Business and government are necessary as servants, like water and grain; as masters they overturn the natural order.

The welfare of the country is squarely up to us as individuals. That is  
20 where it should be and that is where it is safest. Governments can promise something for nothing but they cannot deliver. They can juggle the currencies as they did in Europe (and as bankers the world over do, as long as they can get the benefit of the juggling) with a patter of solemn nonsense. But it is work and work alone that can continue to deliver the goods—and that, down in his heart, is what every man knows.

There is little chance of an intelligent people, such as ours, ruming the fundamental processes of economic life. Most men know they cannot get something for nothing. Most men feel—even if they do not know—that money is not wealth. The ordinary theories which promise everything to  
30 everybody, and demand nothing from anybody, are promptly denied by the instincts of the ordinary man, even when he does not find reasons against them. He knows they are wrong. That is enough.

The economic fundamental is labour. Labour is the human element which makes the fruitful seasons of the earth useful to men. It is men’s labour that makes the harvest what it is. That is the economic fundamental: every one of us is working with material which we did not and could not create, but which was presented to us by Nature.

If we cannot produce we cannot have—but some say if we produce it is only for the capitalists. Capitalists who become such because they provide  
40 better means of production are of the foundation of society. They have really nothing of their own. They merely manage property for the benefit of others. Capitalists who become such through trading in money are a temporarily necessary evil. They may not be evil at all if their money goes to production. If their money goes to complicating distribution—to raising barriers between the producer and the consumer—then they are evil capitalists

and they will pass away when money is better adjusted to work; and money will become better adjusted to work when it is fully realized that through work and work alone may health, wealth, and happiness inevitably be secured.

There is no reason why a man who is willing to work should not be able to work and to receive the full value of his work. There is equally no reason why a man who can but will not work should not receive the full value of his services to the community. He should most certainly be permitted to take away from the community an equivalent of what he contributes to it. If he contributes nothing he should take away nothing. He should have the freedom of starvation. We are not getting anywhere when we insist that every man ought to have more than he deserves to have — just because some do get more than they deserve to have.

There can be no greater absurdity and no greater disservice to humanity in general than to insist that all men are equal. Most certainly all men are not equal, and any democratic conception which strives to make men equal is only an effort to block progress. Men cannot be of equal service. The men of larger ability are less numerous than the men of smaller ability; it is possible for a mass of the smaller men to pull the larger ones down — but in so doing they pull themselves down. It is the larger men who give the leadership to the community and enable the smaller men to live with less effort.

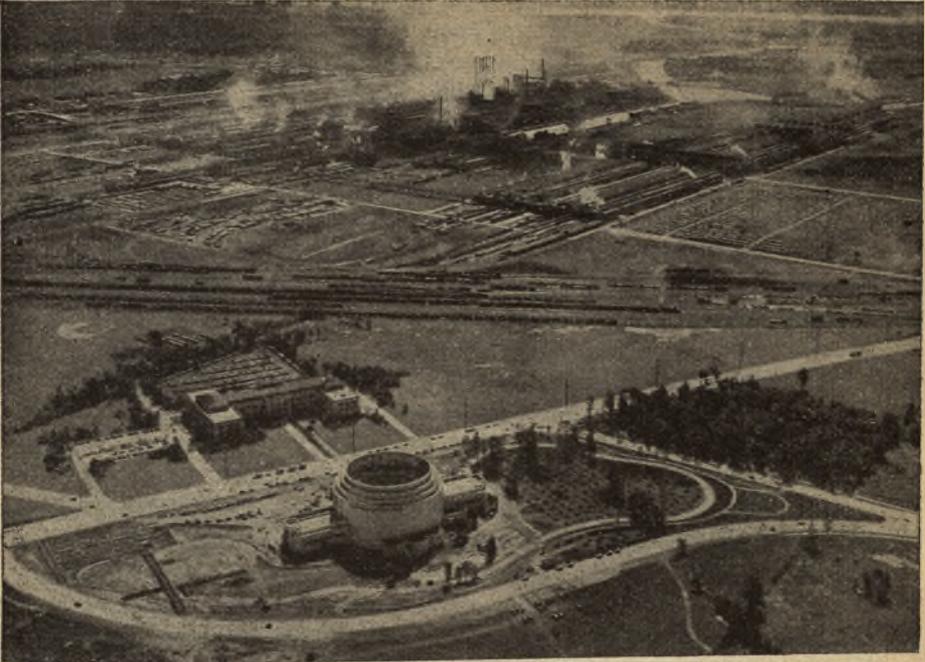
The producer depends for his prosperity upon serving the people. He may get by for a while serving himself, but if he does, it will be purely accidental, and when the people wake up to the fact that they are not being served, the end of that producer is in sight.

My effort is in the direction of simplicity. People in general have so little and it costs so much to buy even the barest necessities (let alone that share of the luxuries to which I think everyone is entitled) because nearly everything that we make is much more complex than it needs to be. Our clothing, our food, our household furnishings — all could be much simpler than they now are and at the same time be better looking. Things in past ages were made in certain ways and makers since then have just followed.

I do not mean that we should adopt freak styles. There is no necessity for that. Clothing need not be a bag with a hole cut in it. That might be easy to make but it would be inconvenient to wear.

The way to attain low-priced, high-volume production in the factory or on the farm — and low-priced, high-volume production means plenty for everyone — is quite simple. The trouble is that the general tendency is to complicate very simple affairs. Take, for an instance, an "improvement".

When we talk about improvements usually we have in mind some change in a product. An "improved" product is one that has been changed. That is not my idea. I do not believe in starting to make until I have discovered the best possible thing. This, of course, does not mean that a product should never be changed, but I think that it will be found more economical in the end not even to try to produce an article until you have fully satisfied yourself that utility, design, and material are the best. If your researches do not



Ford Motor Company (Detroit)

give you that confidence, then keep right on searching until you find confidence. The place to start manufacturing is with the article. The factory, the organization, the selling, and the financial plans will shape themselves to the article. You will have a cutting edge on your business chisel and in the end you will save time. Rushing into manufacturing without being certain of the product is the unrecognized cause of many business failures. People seem to think that the big thing is the factory or the store or the financial backing or the management. The big thing is the product, and any hurry in getting into fabrication before designs are completed is just so much waste time. I spent twelve years before I had a Model T—which is what is known to-day as the Ford car—that suited me. We did not attempt to go into real production until we had a real product. That product has not been essentially changed.

An unsatisfactory product is one that has a dull cutting edge. A lot of waste effort is needed to put it through. The cutting edge of a factory is the man and the machine on the job. If the man is not right the machine cannot be; if the machine is not right the man cannot be. For any one to be required to use more force than is absolutely necessary for the job in hand is waste.

20 The essence of my idea then is that waste and greed block the delivery of true service. Both waste and greed are unnecessary. Waste is due largely to not understanding what one does, or being careless in the doing of it. Greed

is merely a species of nearsightedness. I have striven toward manufacturing with a minimum of waste, both of materials and of human effort, and then toward distribution at a minimum of profit, depending for the total profit upon the volume of distribution. In the process of manufacturing I want to distribute the maximum of wage—that is, the maximum of buying power. Since also this makes for a minimum cost and we sell at a minimum profit, we can distribute a product in consonance with buying power. Thus everyone who is connected with us—either as a manager, worker, or purchaser—is the better for our existence. The institution that we have erected is performing a service. That is the only reason I have for talking about it. The principles of that service are these:

1. An absence of fear of the future and of veneration for the past. One who fears the future, who fears failure, limits his activities. Failure is only the opportunity more intelligently to begin again. There is no disgrace in honest failure; there is disgrace in fearing to fail. What is past is useful only as it suggests ways and means for progress.
2. A disregard of competition. Whoever does a thing best ought to be the one to do it. It is criminal to try to get business away from another man—criminal because one is then trying to lower for personal gain the condition of one's fellow man—to rule by force instead of by intelligence.
3. The putting of service before profit. Without a profit, business cannot extend. There is nothing inherently wrong about making a profit. Well-conducted business enterprise cannot fail to return a profit, but profit must and inevitably will come as a reward for good service. It cannot be the basis—it must be the result of service.
4. Manufacturing is not buying low and selling high. It is the process of buying materials fairly and, with the smallest possible addition of cost, transforming those materials into a consumable product and giving it to the consumer. Gambling, speculating, and sharp dealing, tend only to clog this progression.

*From Henry Ford: My Life and Work—New York, 1923.*

#### 4. Corporations and Trusts

For many years after the application of steam-power to the turning of factory machinery the United States continued to be a nation of farmers and small-scale business men in competition with one another. Then after the Civil War came an era of combination. The small producer found himself in competition with the greater corporation which, with its large-scale production, had many advantages over him. It could drive him to the wall with its cheaper production and its manipulating of the markets. The process continued until great numbers of small business men were forced out of business or forced to sell to the big concern and join it as employees. The change would have been a good thing for the public but for the fact that too

often the great corporations were carried on for the benefit of the owners and managers. Regardless of the fact that large scale production, with its costly machinery and its more efficient management, was cheaper than before, the public had to pay higher prices than under the old system of competition.

First to combine into large units were the railroads. After a short period under state control, the railroads passed into private hands. Small companies were organized and roads were built from town to town to supply local needs. But these could not satisfy the necessities of a growing and expanding population and some years before the war the process of consolidation was begun...

10 The whole people took pride in the rapid growth of the railroads and in a large measure approved the integrating process; but the railroads fell into evil ways. By underpaying their employees, by rebates and discriminations, they lost in public favor and contributed to the bringing on of the great railroad strike of 1877, the most disastrous in the history of American industry.

In the organizing of Big Business the outstanding example of that period is found in the Standard Oil Company. The discovery of oil in western Pennsylvania a few years before the war caused an excitement almost equal to that of the gold discovery in California. Thousands of people rushed to the new land of promise; farm lands were leased or purchased; wells were  
20 drilled as fast as possible and the country round was soon a forest of derricks. Hundreds of oil companies were organized and people of all classes hastened to invest their money. Some of the companies were pure fakes. Sometimes, it was said, a company with no assets, except a few maps and a few bottles of oil in the office window, would sell a million dollars' worth of stock in less than a week. At length the excitement died away and the people realized that a great new industry of vast importance was added to the assets of the country.

In 1865 there was a young man of twenty-two in a commission house in Cleveland, Ohio, named John D. Rockefeller. He was a man of rare busi-  
30 ness capacity and keen foresight. He became interested in oil; he became the founder of the world-famous Standard Oil Company (1870) and was its managing genius for many years. Gathering about him a few kindred spirits, Rockefeller set out to monopolize the oil business, regardless of the rights of others and unscrupulous as to the methods employed.

Within a year or two the Standard had absorbed twenty of the twenty-five oil companies in Cleveland. By the end of 1875 it had gathered in nearly all the great oil refineries of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. The company acquired great underground pipe lines, built storage tanks and factories to make its own barrels. By 1880 it had control of ninety per cent of  
40 all the oil refineries in the country. It then reached out for the retail trade. An agent was sent into a district and was required to secure the entire oil business of his territory. The methods employed were ruthless and unethical. The Standard would go into a town where an independent company was doing an honest and flourishing business and set up a rival agency. It would then cut prices in that locality to a point below cost and thus steal the trade

of its rival until the rival was forced out of business, whereupon the Standard would raise the price and quickly make up its losses incurred during the price war. In its dealing with the railroads the Standard was equally unscrupulous. As it was a very large shipper the railroads were anxious for its trade. Taking advantage of this condition the Standard demanded and secured secret rebates on its freight bills. The independent oil companies, thus paying much higher freight rates, were at a great disadvantage when competing with this gigantic octopus in the oil markets of the East. In 1882 Rockefeller made an arrangement with certain other companies, bringing the business of all under the unified control of nine directors with himself at the head. This combination was known as a "trust", and it was the forerunner of many other trusts. John D. Rockefeller had made himself the "richest man in the world".

Big business developed in many other lines. The most notable example, perhaps, was in the steel industry and with it the name of Andrew Carnegie will always be associated. Born in Scotland in 1835, Carnegie came to America when a boy of thirteen. He learned telegraphy and railroading. In 1860 he was superintendent of the western division of the Pennsylvania Railroad. During the war he had charge of the eastern military railroads and telegraph lines. Like Rockefeller he was a business genius of the first rank. On a visit to Europe he became convinced that the Bessemer process of making steel was the best and in 1868 he introduced it in America. With prophetic foresight he saw that iron bridges and steel rails would enter into the future of railroad building and he organized the Keystone Iron Bridge Company and the Union Iron Mills. He secured control of the Works at Homestead near Pittsburg and other great steel plants around that city. Later he organized the Carnegie Steel Company, and after amassing an immense fortune he sold out to the United States Steel Corporation in 1901. Mr. Carnegie spent the years of his retirement distributing his fortune, building libraries, and founding institutions for public service. Mr. Rockefeller also gave vast sums for education and charity.

*From Henry William Elson: History of the United States of America. New York. 1937.*

## 5. The American Plutocracy

*The money power will endeavor to prolong its reign by working upon the prejudices of the people until all the wealth is aggregate in a few hands.*

*(Abraham Lincoln's message to Congress in 1861)*

The United States is owned and dominated today by a hierarchy of its sixty richest families, buttressed by no more than ninety families of lesser wealth. Outside this plutocratic circle there are perhaps three hundred and fifty other families, less defined in development and in wealth, but accounting for most of the incomes of \$ 100000 or more that do not accrue to members of the inner circle.

These families are the living center of the modern industrial oligarchy which dominates the United States, functioning discreetly under a *de jure* democratic form of government behind which a *de facto* government, absolutist and plutocratic in its lineaments, has gradually taken form since the Civil War. This *de facto* government is actually the government of the United States — informal, invisible, shadowy. It is the government of money in a dollar democracy.

Our concern is mainly with the sixty families. Under their acquisitive fingers, and in their possession, the sixty families hold the richest nation <sup>10</sup> ever fashioned in the workshop of history. The whole long procession of states, nations, and empires that strained and sweated up to the threshold of the Industrial Revolution amassed much less material wealth than the United States alone possesses. The vaunted Roman Empire, for example, could be placed in the land area west of the Mississippi, with room to spare; all Europe is, indeed, only slightly larger than is the United States.

Bigness alone, however, means little; China, too, is very big. But in the economically decisive requisites of accumulated capital and equipment, technical knowledge and facilities, natural resources and man power, the United States is unique. Yet most of its people are, paradoxically, very poor; <sup>20</sup> most of them own nothing beyond a few sticks of furniture and the clothes on their backs.

Instead of decreasing in wealth and power during the crisis of 1929—1933 America's sixty richest families were actually strengthened in relation to the hordes of citizens reduced to beggary. And even though many people have since been lifted from extreme low economic levels by some restoration of employment, the grotesque, basic inequalities, issuing from no fundamental differences in skill or merit, remain as great as ever. Paralleling re-employment, which has reduced the aggregate of joblessness from about twenty million in 1932 to about ten million in 1937, fantastic dividend and interest <sup>30</sup> payments have been automatically returned to the top income group, which at its maximum comprises no more than six thousand adults.

The United States, it is apparent even to the blind, is a nightmare of contradictions. It has not only nurtured the wealthiest class history has ever known, but it has also spawned an immense, possibly permanent, army of paupers — the unemployed. In the advanced economic and cultural environment of North America, with all its natural resources, the phenomenon is little short of incredible. In the light of the nation's professed ideals it is tragically absurd.

*From Lundberg, F.: America's 60 Families. New York. 1937.*

## 6. Controlling other People's Money

*Whoever controls the money of a nation, controls that nation.*  
(President Garfield)

The power of the American financial oligarchy did not lie in its own wealth so much as in its ability to manipulate the wealth of others. Many fortunes greater than Morgan's were without significance as determining factors in the nation's political and economic history.

The most effective weapon in the hands of any financial operator is ready cash. The investment bankers did not overlook this fact in their work of concentration. The 34 banks and trust-companies directly controlled by the Morgan associates held \$ 1983000000 in deposits. This gave members of Morgan and Company not only the power to lend vast sums to themselves but also, what is more significant, the power to prevent these funds from being lent to competing interests.

It is not the actual possession of vast resources that makes for industrial absolutism but the ability to control and direct other people's money. It is the ability to change the static wealth of others into a dynamic force working to the advantage of the controller that makes the position of the investment banker dangerous. These men, who through their control over the funds of railroads and industrial companies are able to direct where such funds shall be kept and thus to create these great reservoirs of the people's money, are the ones who are in a position to tap those reservoirs for the ventures in which they are interested and to prevent their being tapped for purposes of which they do not approve.

The foregoing general survey at least indicates that such a thing as a Money Trust existed in 1913. Woodrow Wilson, when Governor of New Jersey, 1911, had declared that the great monopoly of this country was the money monopoly; that our system of credit was concentrated.

The Money Trust Committee confirmed President Wilson's declaration. A small group of investment bankers was found to control not only vast resources of their own, but also great reservoirs of other people's wealth. The Committee came to this conclusion in spite of the contrary testimony of J. P. Morgan.

Mr. Morgan's denial of the possibility of money control or of credit control, his denial of any relation between money and credit, his refusal to admit that collateral is the ordinary basis upon which money is borrowed, his contention that he was conscious of no power in any department of industry baffled his investigators and rendered his testimony practically worthless.

Speaking of his refusal to admit that he had power in any department of industry the Committee says:

This again illustrates that Mr. Morgan's conception of what constitutes power and control in the financial world is so peculiar as to invalidate all his conclusions based upon it.

It seems to our committee, that among other things, his testimony as to the circumstances under which he obtained control of the Equitable Life

Assurance Company from Mr. Ryan demonstrates his possession of power in the fullest sense, and also that he knows how to exercise it.

*Untermeyer*: . . . Did Mr. Ryan offer this stock to you?

*Morgan*: I asked him to sell it to me.

*Untermeyer*: You asked him to sell it to you?

*Morgan*: Yes.

*Untermeyer*: Did you tell him why you wanted it?

*Morgan*: No; I told him I thought it was a good thing for me to have.

*Untermeyer*: Did he tell you that he wanted to sell it?

10 *Morgan*: No; but he sold it.

*Untermeyer*: He did not want to sell it; but when you said you wanted it, he sold it?

*Morgan*: He did not say that he did not want to sell it.

*Untermeyer*: What did he say when you told him you would like to have it and thought you ought to have it?

*Morgan*: He hesitated about it, and finally sold it.

This reasoning is very similar to that used by modern "racketeers" when they decide "to muscle in" on someone else's territory. When asked why they wanted such and such a territory the type of answer generally given is:

20 "I thought it would be a good thing for me to have".

The Committee found that members of J. P. Morgan and Co., and the directors of their controlled trust-companies, held a total of 311 directorships in 112 of the dominant financial railroad, industrial, public utility and insurance corporations, with aggregate resources of capitalization of \$ 22,245,000,000.

If the firms not directly under the control of the inner group are taken into consideration it will be found that in all, 180 individuals representing 18 financial institutions in New York, Boston and Chicago held 746 directorates in 134 corporations with aggregate resources of more than \$ 25,000,000,000.

30 *Morgan*, like *Baker*, conceded that centralized control of money could be used harmfully if it got into incompetent hands, but felt that there was no danger of its getting into such hands. He apparently thought that he and his group were especially destined by "Providence" to take care of the financial and industrial, if not the political, welfare of the country. A correspondent for the *New York World* writes as follows:

The underlying argument in the testimony of J. Pierpont Morgan before the Money Trust Investigation Committee today was to establish his belief that his group of financiers rules the commerce of America by something akin to divine right.

40 Mr. Morgan appeared to be convinced — at least, that is the impression he gave — that there is no power in the state or Federal Government competent to pass a set of laws that will stop much criticized practices that are common in the business world.

*From Charles C. Chapman, S. J.: The Development of American Business and Banking Thought 1913—1936. London — New York 1936.*

## 7. A Paradox of Rich Land and Poor People

Living conditions on the fertile lands of the Missouri lowlands, which include the seven southeastern counties of Missouri, refute the American myth that a region of rich agricultural lands will always be populated by healthy, happy, farm people living in security and enjoying the benefits of a rich community life.

As soil fertility diminished over large areas of the United States owing to improper land use, we became conscious of a definite decline in the level of living of farm people and in the institutions of the farm community. This was brought forcefully to our attention in 1910 by the report of the 10 Roosevelt Country Life Commission.

As a result of our alarm over the rapid depletion of our soil resources most of our research has been centered on land-use adjustment problems and we have often lost sight of the fact that the only reason we need be concerned about these problems is because of their relationship to human welfare and security. We have become solicitous about the erosion of the soil and have been willing to spend more time and money in correcting it than we have been willing to spend in assisting the human beings living on eroding land to adjust themselves to a new economy where they can attain social and economic security for themselves and their children. 20

Until rather recently we have ignored, except where soil depletion was a factor, the social and economic insecurity of the farmers in regions in which a one-crop system of agriculture — usually cotton or tobacco — has developed. In contrast to general farming, one-crop farming is characterized by its demand for seasonal hand labor which can be performed by poorly trained people. In the cotton and tobacco fields have evolved the cotton tenant, the sharecropper, and the farm laborer. As the crop share and the wage rate are low and the work season limited, there has evolved a quasi feudal system in which the mass of the farmers are dependent upon and subservient to the landowners. Low and insecure level of living, illiteracy, super-30 stitution, resentment, malnutrition, and disease are the rule. The long seasons of unemployment, with the attendant economic uncertainty, result in a dissatisfaction with the present and a marked fear of the future among sharecroppers, laborers, and the less thrifty renters. The primary concern of those in the ascendancy is usually the immediate profits to be derived from the land, rather than its conservation or the well-being of the people who work it.

The lowlands of southeast Missouri are an example of the conditions previously cited. Its soils are mostly of moderate to high productivity, and are adapted to the growing of a wide variety of crops. The growing season is long, averaging 188 days, and the rainfall is generous and distributed 40 throughout the year. The long growing season and adequate rainfall encourage the growing of cotton. The fertile soils produce abundant crops but the level of living of the people who till the soil is lower than that of families living in the slum districts of our large American cities.

At one time the lowlands had a rich natural resource in its virgin timber. In about two decades this resource was almost completely exploited. Lumber companies came into the territory between 1890 and 1910, stripped the timber and disposed of the land as quickly as possible. Large numbers of families brought in for timber work found themselves stranded without a means of livelihood and suffered the accompanying destruction of fundamental values in family life. At the present time agriculture is about the only industry in the area. The few small commercial industries which exist are engaged in the processing of the cotton crop.

<sup>10</sup> *Unemployment and Relief: — Hearings before a Special Committee to investigate Unemployment and Relief, United States Senate, Seventy-Fifth Congress, Washington 1938.*

## 8. The Agricultural Crisis in the U.S.A. and its Causes

Rarely has a crisis swept through all its familiar features more swiftly and dramatically than that which followed the close of the Great War. In the United States every industry and every class of people were involved in the avalanche of descending prices. The turn in the tide from optimism, expansion, speculation, and extravagance to the reaction of deflation and depression occurred about the middle of 1920 and at about the time when  
<sup>20</sup> the grain crop of the United States was beginning to go on the market. The prices of live stock and live-stock products had already begun to decline, and these facts together, coupled with a failing export demand, were undoubtedly responsible for earlier and more rapid decline in the prices of agricultural products compared with the prices of other groups of commodities.

In assessing the importance of exports as a factor in determining the price of the domestic product, it must be remembered that agricultural products for the most part are produced in surplus quantities and that a relatively inconsiderable increase or decrease in exports has more than a correspondingly great influence upon the prices. Excess production, unless absorbed by  
<sup>30</sup> exports, tends to depress the price. With the exhaustion of the credits extended by the United States Government on European Governments during the war, of which there was a balance of \$ 2500000000 at the close of the war, the purchasing power of European peoples began to decline. This failing purchasing power was immediately felt in a decline of exports from this country.

As prices of agricultural products declined, the purchasing power of the agricultural population, representing nearly 40 per cent of the total purchasing power of the country, began to diminish. As the purchasing power of the American farmer diminished, the production of industries that produced  
<sup>40</sup> the commodities of commerce began to decline, and unemployment, resulting in diminishing consumption, gave further impulse to the avalanche of prices. Influential and important as these economic forces are in their effect upon

prices of commodities, the psychology and attitude of 100000000 people, once directed either by optimism and the influences of expansion or by pessimism and the influences of depression, must not be overlooked.

*The Agricultural Crisis and its Causes. House of Representatives. 67th Congress, 1st Session. Report No. 408. Washington 1921.*

## 9. The Slump of 1929 in the U.S.A.

In 1929 production had outstripped all records. The annual output of automobiles was nearly three millions. For every six living souls, men, women and children, white and black, there was a car in use. The growth of huge office blocks and tall apartment buildings was phenomenal; the top 10 of the newest skyscraper was two hundred feet nearer heaven than anything that had yet been built. Everyone shared in the prosperity, although farmers grumbled because their proportion of the mess of pottage was not so great as that of the townfolk. Unemployment was slight. Work was plentiful. Not only nominal earnings but real purchasing power had increased.

In America, however, speculation on the stock exchange was universal. In the hectic days of 1929, the bell-boy in a hotel would impart the news that at midday General Motors had risen two points or U. S. Steel was a shade easier; rooms were provided where a constant succession of prices hot from the stock exchange were thrown upon a screen and where men and 20 women would sit scanning the changes intently. The public wished to gamble and they were incited to do so. Men who wished to borrow money found people ready to press it upon them. New issues were multiplied of shares, good, indifferent and bad, with scant sense of responsibility as to their intrinsic value. The Federal Reserve Banks were unable to control the situation. The checks which they could impose were futile when rich corporations used their resources to finance stock exchange loans, and when men in England borrowed money at 7 per cent to lend again in America at greatly enhanced rates. The end was inevitable. The cord of credit was so stretched that it could not but snap. The autumn of 1929 ended with a collapse in stock 30 exchange values bringing disaster to the vast majority of those involved.

Grievous as was the harm inflicted by this national bout of speculation, it would be a parody of the truth to say that it was the sole cause of all the troubles which vexed the United States for the next four years. A depression of some severity was inevitable, in any event. Under prevailing conditions of production and trade it seems that the world must pay a two-fold price for the luxury of a war of great magnitude—a depression of moderate extent at the end of the war, followed after a short interval by another depression of much greater intensity. The years from 1923 to 1928 were a time of growing prosperity throughout the whole world, with the exception of Great Britain. But towards the end of that period there were increasing signs 40

that this prosperity had no stable basis. Among the chief causes of this instability were the payment of reparations and war debts and the change of the United States from a debtor to a creditor country. As it was, the American tariff wall prevented the import of goods in payment for exports and as interest on the debts owing to her. She had, in consequence, an annual surplus in the balance of trade. The situation was met temporarily by re-lending these surpluses abroad, especially to Germany, and by drawing gold from other countries. This system of loans could not go on indefinitely, however, and its cessation cut short the fictitious prosperity in the countries  
10 to which they were made. In addition, the absorption of gold by the United States, the great war creditor, and by France, the great recipient of Reparations, led to a shortage of monetary gold in other countries, and accentuated the fall in prices. Other causes contributed to the trouble, but they were of less importance.

It is true that without confidence recovery goes haltingly. Confidence alone, however, will not stop a decline. Once the depression started, it developed continuously. By July 1930 industrial production had fallen by one-fifth. In July 1931 it had sunk to two-thirds and, in the midsummer of 1932, to less than one-half of what it had been three years previously.  
20 The real intensity of the fall can be judged from the fact that in England the decline in production at its worst was less than one-fifth. Prices, employment, pay-rolls all followed the same downward course as production in those three years. Wholesale prices fell by one-third; employment in factories by 40 per cent; pay-rolls by 60 per cent.

During this period of increasing hardship and misery in industry the course of agriculture was different, but no less disastrous. In America the population dependent on agriculture forms so great a part of the productive force and of the buying capacity of the country that its fortunes affect not only the farmers and their immediate surroundings, but the entire nation.  
30 In the autumn of 1929 farm prices, taken as a whole, had been tolerably stable<sup>1</sup> for more than six years. The gross income of farmers during that period had exceeded \$ 11 billion—over \$ 2200 million annually. When the break came, the average value of farm products followed at first much the same course as that of manufactured goods. Subsequently, however, its fall was even more rapid. In 1930, farm prices were 83 per cent of the prices of 1929, but in 1931 they fell to 57 per cent, and in 1932 to 43 per cent. In other words, the gross income of farmers had fallen in the three years from over \$ 11 billion to under \$ 5 billion—or from \$ 2200 million to under \$ 1000 million. In one point there was a likeness between the misfortunes  
40 of the farmers and those of the industrialists. The incidence of the slump was not uniform. It bore with very uneven severity on different crops, but producers of wheat, cotton, corn and hogs all suffered very severely.

Meanwhile the unemployed suffered great hardship. At the beginning of the depression there was no provision whatever, federal, state or municipal,

<sup>1</sup> With the exception of cotton.

for the relief of the able-bodied unemployed. There was no unemployment insurance; no "dole"; no Poor Law save for a few remnants of the old Elizabethan Poor Law, brought from England, still existing here and there throughout the States. The reason is not far to seek. Until recently the nation had been developing so rapidly that it could absorb not only its natural increase in population, but large numbers of immigrants. A moderate degree of unemployment could be met by a check on immigration. It is true that in 1921 for a short time there had been a large number of unemployed, estimated at 4000000. But this had not lasted long, and the proposals then made for planning schemes of work-relief in advance were allowed to drop during the <sup>10</sup> prosperity of the succeeding years. The view that unemployment should be cared for by organized charity was hallowed by tradition and it took an unconscionable time in dying. Towards the end of 1929 President Hoover called a meeting of leaders in industry, commerce and labour. States and municipalities were called on to enlarge their public-work undertakings. Little if any impression was made, however, on the growing volume of unemployment. The numbers of the workless continued to grow. According to the accepted estimates, there were 3216000 unemployed at the beginning of 1930; 7160000 in 1931; 10197000 in 1932, and in January 1933 the total reached 12986000. The only agency available to deal with the situation <sup>20</sup> consisted of charitable organisations, which dispensed funds obtained from private sources.

*From Sir Arthur Steel-Maitland: The New America. London 1934.*

## 10. A Survey of the Current Relief Situation in Illinois, Winter of 1938

Chicago.—Autumn decline in Chicago employment and pay-rolls was largest in 14 years. In November 1937 families on relief were 84495. In December 1937 families on relief were 91889. Sixty-eight thousand now employed on Works Progress Administration. City's appropriation for relief probably will be all spent by March or April, leaving only State money, about \$2000000 <sup>30</sup> a month. Outlook for 1938 very poor. "Crisis will deepen and State and city governments will have an even worse problem than now confronts them", one observer states.

Significant that many persons applying for relief who never applied before. Skilled workers from steel industries. Others who have been off relief for several years and economically independent now applying. Also notable younger men coming now for relief. Apparently in some places increase in nonresidents, suggesting that people from rural areas are coming into Chicago.

Illinois State Employment Service reports increasing number of applicants, <sup>40</sup> decreasing number of job openings.

Monthly relief budget for family of four:

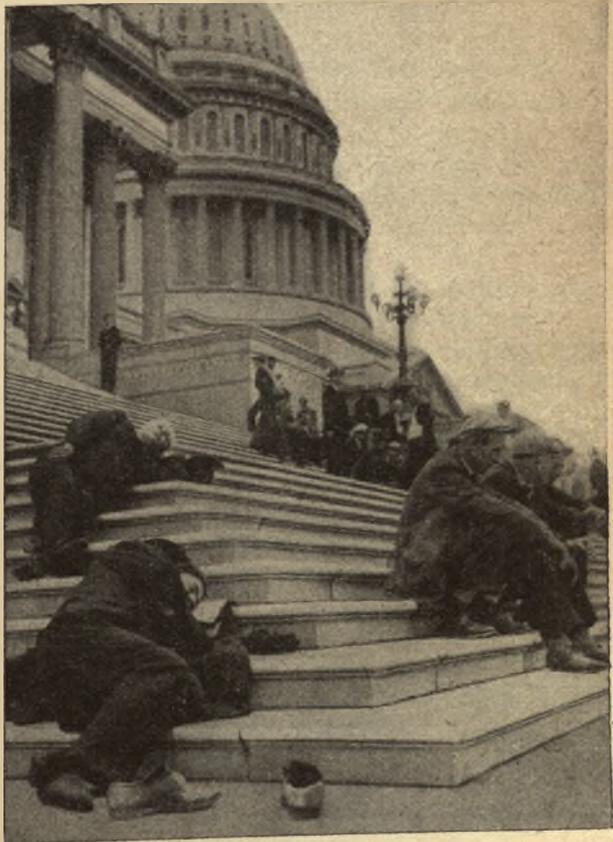
Food .....	\$ 29,03
Rent <sup>1</sup> .....	\$ 7,50
Coal .....	\$ 5,75
Gas .....	\$ 1,50
<hr/>	
Total:	\$ 43,78

No provision for light. Case workers have interviewed families in the dark.

Clinic section, Council Social Agencies reports difficulties not due to lack of medical service but to fact that patients do not have basic necessities  
10 of life.

Sample cases:

The B family consists of two adults and five children ranging in age from six to 17 years. Mr. B has been laid off Works Progress Administration recently because of ill health, and the family is totally dependent for support upon the Chicago relief administration. Mrs. B. recently underwent a  
20 major operation. Both parents are receiving medical care through one of the private clinics and three of the children are attending another private clinic. They have been under medical supervision because of repeated colds,  
30 serious ear infections, and malnutrition. These children were also exposed to tuberculosis when a sister died with the disease. At the present time one patient, the 10-year-old girl, is 20 pounds underweight and another patient, the  
40 8-year-old child, is undersized and malnourished. All three



<sup>1</sup> One-half the rental is permitted — \$ 10 for family of more than 7.

children are without sufficient clothing, and in order to attend clinic have to borrow clothes from a neighbor's children.

Mr. X fainted while waiting his turn in the relief line. He was picked up and taken to the Cook County Hospital, where he later died of stomach hemorrhages. It is believed that his illness was aggravated by poor diet.

Survey made of clothing needs of 100 men on relief showed: 72 without overcoats, 7 without any kind of jacket, 40 with had shoes, with foot showing, 21 had practically worthless underwear while 10 had not underwear of any kind. Out of all clothing of the 100, only enough decent shoes, underwear, jackets, and overcoats to clothe 28 men could be collected. 10

*Unemployment and Relief. — Hearings before a Special Committee to investigate Unemployment and Relief. United States Senate. Seventy-fifth Congress. Third Session. Volume 2. — App. 3. — Washington 1938.*

## 11. A New America?

Throughout the world the old order is changing. The great experiment in the United States is one of the manifestations of a period of transition. As an example of empiricism in the dynamics of change it is noteworthy; it is still more significant as evidence of the new currents of thought which alone make changes practicable, and indeed inevitable.

But how intriguing is the experiment in itself. It challenges all the cardinal <sup>20</sup> principles of the existing economic system—competition, profit-making, the gold standard—but it does not make a final break with any of them save one, the principle of leaving the trade cycle to work its own cure. Reforms are carried through by frontal attacks on powerful interests that are strongly entrenched. Experiments are made on a great scale in industry, in agriculture, in currency, in finance and in public works—experiments which are only possible in a country which is still young, able to repair the effect upon itself of possible mistakes, and careless of the result of such experiments upon neighbour nations. At the same time, they are experiments of value to older countries during a period of transition, when men are groping for <sup>30</sup> truth and eager to welcome it, whether it is born of theory or discovered by practice.

This is not the place for a general discussion of the relative merits of capitalism or socialism as the economic ideal, or of possible methods of international co-operation in economic affairs, a vital element in either case. But it is very pertinent to consider the lessons that can be learned in this connection from the great experiment in the United States.

Experience in the United States during the last four years indicates that, by careful investigation, methods of control may be found within the capitalist system which can prevent the extravagances of the boom and the depths of <sup>40</sup> the slump which have characterised the great depression. Such a remedy may seem unheroic as compared with a great change of system.

The old order is changing. The world will not rest content with the prospect of a future which will bring a repetition of the hardships of the last few years. If the capitalist system is jettisoned, it will be because the mass of mankind will be ready to try a new system, proved or unproved, which holds out a hope of escape from the uncertainties and the hardships which they have been led to believe are inseparable from the old. "Dum vitant stulti vitia in contraria currunt."

The old order must change. What is the new order to be?

*From Sir Arthur Steel-Maitland: The New America. London 1934.*



# Anmerkungen zum Amerikakundlichen Lesebuch

## Vorbemerkung

Die amerikanische Sprache entfernte sich bis zum Beginn des 20. Jahrhunderts immer mehr von der englischen Stammsprache im Wortschatz, in der Schreibung und in der Aussprache. Besonders die Entlehnungen aus fremden Sprachen (Einfluß des "Melting Pot") nahmen immer mehr zu. Seit dem Weltkrieg scheint aber eine stetige Annäherung zwischen dem Englischen und Amerikanischen stattzufinden, indem immer mehr Amerikanismen in die englische Sprache Eingang finden. H. L. Mencken<sup>1</sup> sagt im Vorwort zu seiner umfangreichen Schrift über die amerikanische Sprache darüber: "When I became interested in the subject and began writing about it (in the Baltimore Evening Sun in 1910), the American form of the English language was plainly departing from the parent stem, and it seemed at least likely that the differences between American and English would go on increasing. This was what I argued in my first three editions. But since 1923 the pull of American has become so powerful that it has begun to drag English with it, and in consequence some of the differences once visible have tended to disappear. The two forms of the language, of course, are still distinct in more ways than one, and when an Englishman and an American meet they continue to be conscious that each speaks a tongue that is far from identical with the tongue spoken by the other. But the Englishman, of late, has yielded so much to American example, in vocabulary, in idiom, in spelling and even in pronunciation, that what he speaks promises to become, on some not too remote tomorrow, a kind of dialect of American, just as the language spoken by the American was once a dialect of English. The English writers who note this change lay it to the influence of the American movies and talkies, but it seems to me that there is also something more, and something deeper. The American people now constitute by far the largest fraction of the English-speaking race, and since the World War they have shown an increasing inclination to throw off their old subservience to English precept and example. If only by the force of numbers, they are bound to exert a dominant influence upon the course of the common language hereafter." — Der Ausgang des Englischen Krieges wird diese Entwicklung beschleunigen.

Gute englische Wörterbücher geben neben der englischen Schreibung, Aussprache und Bedeutung meist auch die amerikanische (wie z. B. James-Wildhagen). Wir beschränken uns daher darauf, die in den vorliegenden Texten häufig wiederkehrenden Amerikanismen kurz zu kennzeichnen.

### I. Changed Meanings:

#### English:

shoe  
boot  
high-boots

shop (= small retail establishment)  
store (= large establishment)  
rock (= a large mass)

to haul (= to move by force or violence)  
to jew (= to cheat)

#### American:

slipper (= Engl. shoe)  
shoe (= Engl. boot)  
boots (= coverings reaching at least to the knee)  
shop (= factory, e. g. machine-shop)  
store (= Engl. shop).  
rock (= a small stone; e. g. rock-pile, to throw a rock)

to haul (= to transport in a vehicle)  
to jew (= to haggle; e. g. to jew down = to indicate an effort to work a reduction in price)

etc.

<sup>1</sup> H. L. Mencken, *The American Language*. Fourth Edition. Alfred A. Kopf, New York 1937.

## II. Surviving Differences:

English:	American:
flat	apartment
dust-bin	ash-can
motor-car	automobile
luggage	baggage
baker's shop	bakery
banking-account	bank-account
banknote (or note)	bill (money)
grilled	broiled (meat)
sweets	candy
biscuit	cookie
maize, or Indian corn	corn
chemist	druggist
lift	elevator
fishmonger	fish-dealer
sitting-room	living-room
porridge	oatmeal (boiled)
nursery	play-room
footpath (pavement)	sidewalk
staircase	stairway
railway	railroad

etc.

## III. American Spelling:

Es gab in Amerika im Laufe des 19. Jahrhunderts eine Bewegung zur Vereinfachung der Schreibweise des Amerikanischen (Simplified Spelling Movement), als deren Vater Noah Webster angesehen werden kann. Diese Bewegung griff auch auf England über. In beiden Ländern bildeten sich Ausschüsse, die in der Presse und in besonderen Veröffentlichungen gewisse Vereinfachungen der Schreibweise vorschlugen. Die Vorschläge hatten keinen besonderen Erfolg. — Häufig finden wir aber (auch in den vorliegenden Texten) folgende Abweichungen von der englischen Schreibweise:

Englisch:	Amerikanisch:
Endungen: -our	-or (color, honor, labor etc.)
-re	-er (theater, center etc.)
ll und rr: traveller	traveler
powerful	powerfull
preferred	prefered

etc.

In diesem Rahmen kann auf die Unterschiede zwischen dem Englischen und Amerikanischen nicht weiter eingegangen werden. Es wird empfohlen, das Wörterbuch (insbesondere bei Entlehnungen aus anderen Sprachen und bei Eigennamen) fleißig zu Rate zu ziehen.

## I. On Climate and Settlement in the U.S.A.

### 1. The Settlement of the East and Middle West

Seite 5. Henry William Elson ist ein zeitgenössischer Geschichtsschreiber in den Vereinigten Staaten. Seine *History of the United States of America* wird in den USA. weitgehend als maßgebend angesehen. — Z. 4. opening Öffnung; Beginn; günstige Gelegenheit (Aussicht). — Z. 5. *salaried* [*'salarid*] bezahlt, besoldet. — Z. 7. *primeval*, -aeval [*prai'mi:val*] uranfänglich, Ur-. — Z. 18. *to delve* graben;

sich eingraben. — Z. 18. molasses [mə'leɪsɪz] Melasse, Sirup. — Z. 25. barren ['bærən] unfruchtbar. — Z. 33. Jersey ['dʒɜ:zi]. — Z. 35. Quaker ['kweɪkə] Mitglied der Society of Friends; gegr. 1648/50. (vgl. Anm. zu IV, 1 — William Penn.) — Z. 36. Pennsylvania ['pensɪl'veɪnjə] vgl. Anm. zu IV, 2. — Z. 40. indented = indentured kontraktlich verpflichtet.

Seite 6. Z. 1. Delaware ['deləweɪə]. — Z. 8. Virginia [və'dʒɪnjə]. — Z. 18. Carolina [kə'rɔ:ləɪnə]. — Z. 20. Charleston ['tʃɑ:lstən]. — Z. 21. malarial [mə'leəriəl] Malaria.

## 2. The Settlement of the West

Seite 6. Z. 30. "empire" hier der „Westen“ gemeint im Vergleich zum „Mutterland“ (13 Staaten). — Z. 33. prospector [prə'spektə] Schürfer. — Z. 36. to cater for (Lebensmittel) einkaufen; (fig.) sich bemühen um. — Z. 37. Homestead Act Wohnheimstättengesetz. Es wurde im Mai 1862 erlassen und gab jedem Bürger in den USA. das Recht, sich auf öffentlichem (staatlichem) Grund und Boden anzusiedeln. Das zugeteilte Land hatte eine Größe von 160 Morgen (acres) [1 acre = 40,467 Ar]. Nach fünf Jahren ging das Land in das Eigentum des Siedlers über, wenn er für jeden Morgen 1,25 \$ bezahlte. — Z. 40. by leaps and bounds mit gewaltigen Sprüngen; rasend. — Z. 41. California [kælɪ'fɔ:niə].

Seite 7. Z. 2. lucrative ['lu:kɹətɪv] einträglich. — Z. 6. "forty-niners" im Februar 1848 entdeckte der Ingenieur Marshall beim Bau einer Mühle an einem Nebenfluß des Sacramento, daß der Flußsand Gold enthielt. Die Nachricht verbreitete sich über die ganze Welt; es entstand ein wahres Goldfieber, wodurch Abenteurer aus allen Erdteilen angelockt wurden, vor allem im Jahre 1849. — Z. 9. strike hier: (Glücks-) Erfolg, Fund. — Z. 18. Colorado [kələ'rɑ:dou]. — Z. 19. Idaho ['aɪdəhou]. — Z. 19. Wyoming [waɪ'oumiy]. — Z. 20. Montana [mən'ta:nə]. — Z. 26. Dakota (North and South) [də'kɔ:tə]. — Z. 34. entrepreneurs [ɔn'tɹəprə'nɔ:] (aus dem Französ.) Unternehmer. — Bild: the narrows (meist plur.) Engpaß. — Bild: Zion Canyon [ˈzaɪən'kænɪən] Zionsschlucht (Teil des Grand Canyon). — Z. 39. frontier hier: Grenze zwischen den „13 Kolonien“ und dem „Wilden Westen“. — Z. 42. Yellowstone ['jeləustəʊn, -stən]. — Z. 43. Yosemite [ˈjəʊ'semɪtɪ] Tal in den Rocky Mountains (Kalifornien). — Z. 43. Grand Canyon Tal des Coloradoflusses.

## 3. Climate and Man in the U. S. A.

Seite 8. Z. 2. scope [ʃəʊp] Ziel; Rahmen. — Z. 3. range [reɪndʒ] die äußersten Grenzen; Reichweite. — Z. 10. intermediate [ɪntə'mɪdɪət] dazwischenliegend. Zwischen-. — Z. 10. goal Ziel, (Bestimmungs-) Ort. — Z. 11. Asheville ['æ'vi:ɪl]. — Z. 11. Appalachians [æpə'leɪʃjənz] Appalachen (Alleghanies), Gebirgssystem, das den Osten Amerikas von dem mittleren Westen trennt (etwa 2000 km lang, erhebt sich nirgends über 2000 m). — Z. 16. zero ['zɪərəʊ] Null; Gefrierpunkt. — record ['rekə:d] Rekord, Höchstleistung. — Z. 17. pronounced ausgesprochen, bestimmt, ausgeprägt. — Z. 18. tubercular [tju'bɜ:kjələ] tuberkulös, schwind-süchtig. — Z. 19. Mexico ['mekɪkəʊ]. — Arizona [æri'zəʊnə]. — throng [θrɒŋ] Gedränge, Schar, Menge. — Z. 34. porch Säulenhalle, Vorhalle. — Z. 36. rambling weitschweifig, unregelmäßig angelegt. — bungalow ['bʌŋgələʊ] leichtes, einstöckiges Landhaus. — Z. 42. Charles Kingsley ['kɪŋslɪ] (1818—1875) englischer Dichter. — Z. 43. Longfellow ['lɒŋfələʊ] (1807—1882) amerikanischer Dichter.

## II. The Melting Pot

### 1. Immigration and Population

Seite 9. Z. 15. record ['rekə:d] authentische urschriftliche Niederschrift; records (Mehrz.) Urkunden, Akten, Berichte. — Z. 16. average ['ævərɪdʒ] Durchschnitt.

Seite 10. Z. 3. Carl Schurz (vgl. Hirts Mittelstufenlesebuch), geb. 2. 3. 1829 in Liblar bei Köln a. Rh., besuchte dort das Gymnasium und später die Universität Bonn. Aus politischen Gründen ging er zunächst nach London, später nach Amerika. Er war ein glänzender Redner und wurde Führer der republikanischen Partei. Er bewährte sich als Soldat und Staatsmann in den verschiedensten Ämtern. Lincoln schätzte ihn sehr. — Franz Sigel, geb. 18. 11. 1824 zu Sinsheim, war Leutnant in einem badischen Infanterieregiment, studierte später die Rechte; 1849 beteiligte er sich wie Schurz am badischen Aufstand. Nach der Niederlage ging er zunächst in die Schweiz, dann nach London, von da nach Amerika. Als Offizier der Bundesarmee (zuletzt Brigadegeneral) zeichnete er sich in vielen Gefechten und Schlachten aus. — Z. 18. scale [skeɪl] Tonleiter, Abstufung (Skala), Maßstab. — Z. 25. public charge öffentliche Last. — Z. 30. to curtail [kə'teɪl] verkürzen, beschneiden.

Seite 11. Z. 7. stanch (= staunch) [stɑːn(t)ʃ] zuverlässig, unerschütterlich, treu. — Z. 30. census ['sensəs] Volkszählung. — Z. 33. the quota . . . two per cent Nach diesem Einwanderungsgesetz von 1928 betrug die deutsche Quote 26000, die Großbritanniens (einschl. Nordirlands) 66000, die Italiens 6000. Seit 1930 werden nur noch 10% dieser Quoten zugelassen. — Z. 44. Ku Klux Klan ['kjuː'klʌks'klaɪn] Die Südstaaten wurden nach dem Nordamerikanischen Bürgerkriege von gewissenlosen Abenteurern an den Rand des Bankrotts gebracht. Diese ließen sich (von den Neger!) in einflußreiche und gut bezahlte Stellungen hineinwählen und füllten ihre Taschen. Die ansässige heimische Bevölkerung schloß sich zu einem Geheimbunde zusammen, dem Neger, Juden und Katholiken nicht angehören durften. Es gelang ihm, die Ausbeuter der Südstaaten zu vertreiben und den Einfluß der Neger (Analphabeten) auf die Verwaltung einzuengen bzw. teilweise unmöglich zu machen. — Noch heute können Neger in einigen Südstaaten von ihrem Wahlrecht kaum Gebrauch machen, da sie zuvor eine Intelligenzprüfung abzulegen haben, die meist negativ ausfällt. — Der heutige Ku Klux Klan ist ein Wiederaufleben dieses alten Geheimbundes, der Anhänger in allen Staaten in USA. besitzt.

Seite 12. Z. 6. to lay claim to Anspruch erheben auf. — to take sides Partei ergreifen. — Z. 12. Teutonic [tjuː(')tɒnɪk] germanisch. — Z. 15. Alpine ostisch.

## 2. The Negro Problem

Seite 12. Z. 41. Arkansas (Staat) ['ɑːkənsɔː]. — Georgia ['dʒɔːdʒiə] Georgien. — Louisiana [luːɪzɪ'æniə].

Seite 13. Z. 5. aggregate ['ægrɪɡɪt] gehäuft, vereinigt. — Z. 13. to stand the test der Prüfung standhalten. — Z. 17. to frame formen, entwerfen. — restrictive franchise laws ['fræntʃaɪz] einschränkende Gesetze über das Stimmrecht.

Seite 14. Z. 9. Alabama [əlbə'mɑː]. — Z. 19. core [kɔː] Kern. — Z. 20. experience z. B. nach dem Bürgerkriege. — Z. 38. populist legislature gesetzgebende Körperschaft der Populisten (= Anhänger der People's Party). Diese Partei war 1892 gegründet worden. Ziel: Öffentliche Kontrolle der Eisenbahnen, Begrenzung des Privateigentums usw.

## 3. Harlem

Seite 15. Z. 6. Survéy Grâphic eine in Harlem erscheinende Negerzeitschrift. — Z. 16. pawn-shop [pɔːn] Pfandhaus, Pfandleihe. — Z. 17. beauty parlor Haus für Schönheitspflege. — restaurant ['restərɒn]. — cabaret ['kæbəret, 'kæbəreɪ]. — Z. 18. pool-room Raum für das Poulespiel (Billiard). — drug-store Drogerie.

Seite 16. Z. 1. lodge hier: Loge (z. B. Freimaurerloge). — Z. 3. gambling den Spielhölle. — Z. 5. intellectual verstandesmäßig, gedanklich. — spiritual seelisch, geistig. — Z. 6. the longings of the mass die Sehnsucht der (Neger-)Massen.

#### 4. The Education of Negroes in America

Seite 16. Z. 11. relation Beziehung, Verhältnis. — the body politic der Staat. — Z. 13. illiterate [i'lɪtəri:t] ungebildet; des Lesens und Schreibens unkundig. — Z. 15. elementary grades vgl. VI, 1. — Z. 18. negligible ['neglɪdʒəbəl] unbedeutend. — Z. 20. denomination [dɪnəmi'neɪʃn] Sekte, Konfession. — philanthropic agencies [fɪlənθrəpɪk 'eɪdʒənsi:z] menschenfreundliche Vereinigungen. — Z. 27. college vgl. VI, 1.

#### 5. The Jews in the United States

Seite 16. Die Streitschrift, der unser Text entnommen ist, erschien ohne Jahreszahl in Boston und konnte durch Irvin L. Potter bezogen werden.

Seite 17. Z. 4. spectacular [spek'tækjʊlə] in die Augen fallend, offensichtlich. — Z. 12. scrutiny ['skru:tɪni] (forschende) Untersuchung, Prüfung. — Z. 18. to mould [maʊld] formen, gestalten. — Z. 19. department store (amerik.) Warenhaus. — Z. 20. Gentile ['dʒentail] Heide (vom Juden aus gesehen). — Z. 23. to feature ['fi:tʃə] darstellen (z. B. im Film), zeigen. — Z. 25. meat-packing industry Konservenfleischherstellung. — Z. 26. ready-made clothing Fertigungsbekleidung. — Z. 27. smelting industry Schmelzwerke. — Z. 29. backing Unterstützung, Hilfe. — Z. 44. stakes (plur.) Preis, Gewinn. — Z. 45. Bolshevism ['bɒlʃəvɪzəm].

#### 6. A Homogeneous American People in the Future?

Seite 18. Madison Grant gehört neben Lothrop Stoddard zu den bekanntesten Rassenforschern der Vereinigten Staaten. Sein Buch "The Passing of the Great Race" erregte bei seinem Erscheinen (1916) Aufsehen. Theodore Roosevelt schrieb ihm einen anerkennenden Brief. "... It shows a fine fearlessness in assailing the popular and mischievous sentimentalities and attractive and corroding falsehoods which few men dare assail. It is the work of an American scholar and gentleman; and all Americans should be sincerely grateful to you for writing it." Trotzdem hat das Buch auch heute noch nicht die allgemeine Anerkennung und Verbreitung in Amerika gefunden, die es verdient. Die öffentliche Diskussion von Rassefragen ist in Nordamerika fast unmöglich, weil die Judenfrage damit aufgerollt wird. Da die Juden aber die Presse, die Universitäten, die Lichtspielhäuser, die Theater, die Rechtsprechung, die Politik und das Wirtschaftsleben beherrschen, ist das Anschneiden von Rassefragen für den betreffenden mutigen Vorkämpfer geradezu gefährlich (vgl. z. B. das Schicksal von Henry Fords Schrift über die Juden). In seiner Einleitung zur vierten Auflage sagt Grant darüber: "One of the curious effects of democracy is the unquestionable fact that there is less freedom of the press than under autocratic forms of government. It is well-nigh impossible to publish in the American newspapers any reflection upon certain religions or races which are hysterically sensitive even when mentioned by name." — Z. 9. homogeneous [hɒmə'dʒi:niəs] gleichartig. — Z. 34. the sweepings (Mehrz.) Kehricht, Auswurf, Abschaum. — jail, gaol [dʒeɪl] Gefängnis, Kerker. — Z. 35. asylum [ə'saɪləm] Asyl, Hospital; Irrenhaus.

Seite 19. Z. 1. mental geistig. — Z. 3. stratum ['streɪtəm] (Mehrz. strata) (geol.) Lage, Schicht; (übertr.) Schicht. — Z. 7. to submerge [sʌb'mə:dʒ] untertauchen. — Z. 13. flotsam ['flɒtsəm] Seetrift, Strandgut. — Z. 20. fatuous ['fætjuəs] albern, dumm, sinnlos. — Z. 21. efficacy ['efɪkəsi] Wirksamkeit, Zugkraft. — Z. 22. environment Umgebung, Einflüsse der Umwelt. — Z. 24. to obliterate [ə'blɪtəreɪt] auslöschen, verwischen. — Z. 27. to sanitize (geistig) gesundmachen. — Z. 28. helot ['helət] Helote, Sklave. — Z. 39. to sap untergraben. — Z. 40. blissful glückselig. — Z. 45. Slovak ['sləʊvək]. — Syrian ['sɪriən].

Seite 20. Z. 10. suicidal [ʃjuɪ'saɪdɪ] selbstmörderisch. — Z. 20. Alexandria [æliɡ'zɑ:ndriə]. — Byzantium [baɪ'zæntɪəm]. — Z. 21. cloaca [klou'eɪkə] Kloake (Pfuhl); *cloaca gentium* (lat.) Völkersumpf. — Z. 22. hybrid ['haɪbrɪd] Bastard, Mischling. — Z. 23. anthropologist [ænthrə'pɒlədʒɪst] Anthropolog, Völkerkundler. — to unravel [ʌn'rævəl] ausfasern; entwirren, enträtseln. — Z. 32. Seven Seas sieben Ozeane.

### III. A Glimpse on American Traits

#### 1. Puritan Laws and Character

Seite 21. Betr. Henry William Elson s. I, 1. — Z. 9. paternalism [pə'tɔ:nəlɪz(ə)m] absolutes (väterliches) Bestimmungsrecht. — Z. 14. lace [leɪs] Schnürband, (geklöppelte) Spitze. — Z. 14. slashed geschlitzt. — Z. 16. offense = offence. — Z. 17. to court huldigen, werben um. — Z. 20. stocks (Mehrz.) (Zwangs-)Stock (als Strafe). — Z. 21. lewd [l(j)u:ɪd] liederlich, unzüchtig. — unseemly [ʌn'si:mli] unziemlich, unschicklich. — Z. 24. Harvard ['hɑ:vəd]. — the great exodus ['eksədəs] 1620, Überfahrt der Pilgrim Fathers. — Z. 25. Massachusetts [mæsə'tʃu:sets]. — Z. 28. requirement Forderung; Bedingung. — Z. 29. feature ['fi:tʃə] Grundzug, Merkmal. — Z. 31. fabric ['fæbrɪk] Gebäude; Struktur, Gefüge. — Z. 32. to mollify ['mɒlɪfaɪ] besänftigen, mildern. — Z. 33. legalism ['li:ɡəlɪz(ə)m] Gesetzmäßigkeit. — grace Gnade. — Z. 39. overwrought ['ouvə'rɔ:t] überarbeitet, überreizt.

Seite 22. Z. 7. loath [louθ] abgeneigt. — Z. 10. stragglng zerstreut (liegend). — Z. 12. tavern ['tævən] Schenke, Wirtshaus. — Z. 17. rod Reis, Rute. — tithing-man ['taɪθɪŋmən] Zehntschaftsführer. — Z. 18. doze [dɔuz] Schlummer, Schläfchen. — Z. 22. ordinary ['ɔ:dɪnəri] Mahlzeit; Speisehaus. — Z. 27. fine [faɪn] Geldstrafe. — General Court gesetzgebende Versammlung. — rum [rʌm] Rum. — Z. 28. cider ['saɪdə] Apfelwein. — Z. 32. surveyor [sə(ɪ)'veɪ(ɪ)ə] amtl. Verwalter; Feldmesser. — Z. 39. King Philip's War (1674—1676) King Philip, Häuptling der Wampanoags. 13 Städte in Neu-England wurden niedergebrannt, über 1000 junge Farmer wurden getötet. Die Indianer wurden vernichtet, Philip wurde gefangen und getötet.

#### 2. The Gospel of Manliness and National Activism

Seite 23. Theodore Roosevelt (Am.) ['rouzəvɛlt]; (engl.) ['ru:svɛlt] wurde in Amerika bekannt im Kriege gegen Spanien (1898). Als Oberst einer Truppe von 534 Reitern (Rough Riders) eroberte er San Juan auf Cuba. Als Präsident McKinley 1901 ermordet wurde, trat Roosevelt als bisheriger Vizepräsident automatisch an seine Stelle. Aus seiner Amtszeit sind bemerkenswert die Beilegung des Bergarbeiterstreiks (1902), die Übernahme der Fertigstellung des Panamakanals durch die USA. (Februar 1902). Als Columbia den Vertrag nicht annehmen wollte, veranlaßte die Regierung Roosevelts einen Aufstand in Panama. Die Aufständischen wurden von Roosevelt schon nach drei Tagen als selbständige Regierung Panamas anerkannt. Die Republik Panama gestand den USA. die Oberhoheit über das Kanalgebiet in einer Breite von 10 Meilen längs des Kanals zu. — Roosevelt vermittelte im Russisch-Japanischen Krieg, der durch den Frieden von Portsmouth (New Hampshire) im August 1905 beendet wurde. 1906 erhielt Roosevelt dafür den Nobelpreis. 1906 fand ein gewaltiges Erdbeben in San Francisco statt, das ungeheure Verwüstungen anrichtete. Im Jahre 1907 erschütterte eine Wirtschaftskrise von gewaltigem Ausmaß das Land. Nicht nur seine Gegner, auch Anhänger Roosevelts nahmen ihm übel, daß er nicht mit durchgreifenden, sondern nur mit halben Maßnahmen gegen die Trustbildungen und die damit verbundene Abdröselung der kleinen Betriebe und Gewerbetreibenden vorging. So duldeten er z. B. die Vereinigung der Tennessee Fuel

and Iron Company mit der United States Steel Corporation (gegründet von Andrew Carnegie). Im März 1909 wurde Roosevelt durch Präsident Taft abgelöst. — Sein krankhafter Ehrgeiz verführte ihn dazu, seine dritte Wahl zu betreiben. Als die Republikanische Partei auf dem Parteitag in Chicago (Juni 1912) ihn nicht als Präsidentschaftskandidaten aufstellte, trennte er sich vorübergehend von ihr und übernahm die Leitung der neugegründeten Fortschrittspartei (Progressive Party). Gewählt wurde aber später der Demokrat Woodrow Wilson. Roosevelt kehrte bald zur Republikanischen Partei zurück. — Z. 1. gospel Evangelium, Lehre. — manliness Mannhaftigkeit. — activism Tatendrang. — Z. 2. pioneer [paɪə'niə] Pionier; Vorkämpfer, Bahnbrecher. — Z. 7. dull [dʌl] dumm, stumpf; untätig. — Z. 17. plow (amerik.) = plough. — Z. 21. stubborn ['stʌbən] stur, beharrlich, standhaft. — Z. 27. thews [θju:z] Muskeln; Kräfte (körperliche; übertr.: geistige Kräfte). — Z. 34. Minnesota [mɪn'soutə]. — Z. 36. blunder ['blʌndə] (grober) Fehler, Mißgriff. — Z. 38. to wrest [rest] gewaltsam herausreißen; abringen. — Z. 41. shortcoming Unzulänglichkeit, Fehler.

Seite 24. Z. 2. scornful verächtlich, spöttisch. — Z. 4. endeavo(u)r Streben, Mühe.

### 3. Two Characteristic American Traits

Seite 24. Der Verfasser gibt in seinem umfangreichen Werk *Slums and Housing* die Ergebnisse einer amtlichen Studienkommission wieder, die mit der Untersuchung der Wohnverhältnisse in Neuyork beauftragt worden war. — Z. 6. trait [treɪ] Zug. — Z. 8. unreflective gedankenlos. — materialism Materialismus. — Z. 9. individualism Individualismus. — Z. 10. to incorporate einverleiben. — Z. 17. trend Richtung, Neigung. — Z. 21. to indenture [ɪn'dentʃə] verdingen, vertraglich binden. — convict ['kɒnvɪkt] Sträfling. — Z. 22. stereotype ['steriətaɪp] Phrase, Schlagwort. — mental stereotypes allgemeine Geisteshaltung. — Z. 24. rabbinical [ræ'bɪnɪk(ə)l] culture: Der Verfasser ist offenbar projüdisch eingestellt. Die jüdische „Kultur“ ist auch heute wie bisher eine „rabbinische“, d. h. rücksichtslose Ausbeutung vor allem der Nichtjuden unter Anwendung gesetzmäßiger und noch mehr ungesetzlicher Mittel. Der Talmud ist richtungweisend für das jüdische Denken und Handeln. — Z. 25. deferential [defə'renʃ(ə)l] ehrerbietig. — Z. 29. savoir vivre [sə'vʊə:'vɪvə] (frz.) Lebensart, -gewandtheit. — Z. 34. in essence inhaltlich, im Kern. — Z. 38. competitive display Wetteifer (Übertumpfen) im Prunk.

Seite 25. Z. 3. hierarchy ['haɪərɑ:kɪ] Rangordnung. — Z. 8. instrumental als Mittel dienend; dienlich, förderlich. — ultimate äußerst; End-, Ziel-.

### 4. The Standardised American Citizen

Seite 25. Sinclair Lewis ['h(ɪ)lɪz], geb. 1885, ist einer der erfolgreichsten Schriftsteller Amerikas. Sein Ruf wurde durch die Romane „Main Street“ und „Babbit“ (1922) begründet, die satirische Betrachtungen der durchschnittsamerikanischen Gesellschaft sind. Der Name des Mr. Babbit, des ausgesprochenen Typs des Herdenmenschentums unter den Amerikanern, ist sogar zum Gattungsnamen geworden und bezeichnet den spießbürgerlichen Durchschnittsamerikaner. Die realistische Wirkung seiner Romane erhöht Lewis durch ausgedehnte Verwendung des Slang; aber hierin liegt für den nichtamerikanischen Leser ein Nachteil. Der amerikanische Slang ist so eigengewachsen, daß Romane wie *Babbit*, sollen sie von Engländern verstanden werden, in England mit Glossar herausgebracht werden müssen. Die englische Ausgabe des „Babbit“ wies ein Glossar von etwa 125 Wörtern auf. — Z. 15. standardised normiert, vereinheitlicht; Durchschnitts-. — Z. 17. bungalow ['bʌŋɡələʊ] leichtes, einstöckiges Landhaus. — Z. 20. to tend sich bewegen (in bestimmter Richtung), streben. — there's to = there is to = es soll. — Z. 21. once

in a while gelegentlich, dann und wann. — to size up richtig abschätzen, beurteilen. — Z. 23. a whale of a lot enorm viel, kolossal. — Z. 25. bird-dog (Am.) Hühnerhund. — sassiety = society. — Z. 26. to kick about (urspr. Cowboy-sl., da Vieh, wenn es den Brandstempel erhält, um sich schlägt) stoßen, schlagen; sich beklagen, einwenden; sich kümmern um. — Z. 27. zip (lautm.) Zischen, Surren, Pfeifen. — to put the zip into a th. etwas mit „Schwung“ betreiben. — Z. 29. to sneak schleichen, heimlich (schüchtern) tun; hier das Gegenteil: dienstfeurig sein — to put in practice in Gang bringen — he sneaks in some practice putting frei übersetzt: (als gehorsamer Ehemann) ist er eifrig bemüht, sich im Haushalt zur Beseitigung von Schäden nützlich zu machen. — Z. 30. kiddy (fam.) Kind. — movies (fam.) stummer Film (Ggs. talkies). — Z. 31. fist Faust, Hand. — a fist of eine Handvoll, etwas. — Z. 33. to visit about (amerik.) sprechen (plaudern) über. — Z. 35. mite [mail] Heller, Scherflein. — Z. 37. canny schlau, vorsichtig.

Seite 26. Z. 2. hearthstone Herdstein (-platte); hier: Familie. — Z. 8. chest Brust, Brustkasten. — Z. 10. cover Deckung, Schutz, Obdach. — Z. 11. cyclone ['saikloun] Wirbelsturm. — clumsy ['klamzi] plump, taktlos, ungeschickt. — Z. 12. He-man Kerl. — with zip and bang (zip s. o. — bang = Knall, plötzliche Bewegung) mit Schneid und Schwung (vgl. auch Anm. zu V, 7 Franklin D. Roosevelt).

#### IV. The German Element in the USA.

##### 1. German Exiles fall among Sea Sharks and Land Sharks

Seite 26. William Penn (1644—1718), der Führer der Quäker (vgl. IV, 2), und später Königin Anna (1702—1714) luden deutsche Bauern, vor allem aus dem Rheinland und der Pfalz, ein nach Amerika zu kommen, wo ihnen politische und religiöse Freiheit zugesagt wurde. Viele folgten dem Rufe. Schurkische Schiffskapitäne lockten Auswanderungslustige auf ihre Schiffe. Absichtlich wurden die Schiffe vollgepfropft mit Menschen, die von ihrer Habe mitnahmen, was sie glaubten drüben brauchen zu können. Während der Fahrt wurde den Unglücklichen eröffnet, daß man zu wenig Wasser und zu wenig Nahrungsmittel mitgenommen habe. Geringste Mengen Wasser oder Lebensmittel wurden nur gegen höchste Bezahlung abgegeben. Nach und nach brachten diese Verbrecher die gesamte Habe der Auswanderer in ihre Hand. Viele starben unterwegs, vor allem Kinder. Der Rest wurde nicht im Bestimmungshafen, sondern an einer einsamen Küste ans Land gesetzt und seinem Schicksal überlassen. In Unkenntnis der amerikanischen Gesetze und Vorschriften begannen viele Einwanderer, Land urbar zu machen, ohne sich vorher das Eigentumsrecht an dem betreffenden Boden gesichert zu haben. Nachdem sie den Urwald gerodet, Haus und Scheunen erbaut und den Acker bestellt hatten, kamen plötzlich gewissenlose Betrüger und wiesen einen Schein vor, der ihnen das Eigentumsrecht an den bereits urbar gemachten Landstücken zusprach. Wieder waren die unglücklichen Einwanderer heimatlos. Mitleidige Indianerstämme, vor allem Irokesen, nahmen sie eine Zeit lang gastlich bei sich auf. „Wir Wilden sind doch bessere Menschen.“ — Z. 20. to till (Land) bestellen, pflügen. — Z. 21. Palatinate [pə'latiniət] Pfalz. — Z. 26. respite ['respaiit] Frist; Erholungspause. — Z. 38. Queen Anne 1702—1714, Tochter Jakobs II. Nach dem Tode des kinderlosen Wilhelm von Oranien gelangte sie auf den Thron. — 1707 sandten die Schotten erstmalig Vertreter in das engl. Parlament (Personalunion bereits seit 1603). — 1713 Friede zu Utrecht.

Seite 27. Z. 2. soulless seelen-, gefühllos; gewissenlos. — Z. 23. to writhe [raɪð] sich krümmen, sich winden. — Z. 30. Martha ['ma:θə]. — Z. 35. coarse grob, roh; schlecht. — Z. 42. to constrain nötigen, zwingen.

Seite 28. Z. 27. refugee [refju(:)'dʒi:] Flüchtling. — Z. 32. Iroquois ['iɹokwəɪ] Irokese.

## 2. The Pennsylvania Dutch dot Penn's Land with Red Barns

Seite 28. William Penn, geb. 14. 10. 1644 zu London als Sohn des Admirals Sir William Penn. In Oxford wurde er unter dem Einfluß von Thomas Loe Quäker und mußte das College verlassen. Mit Fox und Robert Barclay unternahm er eine Reise zur Ausbreitung der Lehre Loes nach Holland und Deutschland. Sein Vater hinterließ ihm außer einem beträchtlichen Vermögen eine Schuldforderung an die Regierung von 16000 £. Die Sekte der Quäker wurde schwer verfolgt, und Penn wurde mehrfach gefangen gesetzt. 1682 reiste er nach Amerika, wo ihm die Regierung am Delaware einen großen Landstrich gegen seine Schuldforderung abtrat. Wegen der vielen Waldungen nannte man den Landstrich Sylvania. König Karl II. fügte Penn zu Ehren später seinen Namen hinzu. Die Verfassung, die Penn der Kolonie gab, sicherte den Siedlern weitgehend politische und religiöse Freiheit. Er verbesserte auch die Lage der Indianer und Neger. Philadelphia wurde von ihm begründet. Er rief Deutsche, vor allem Rheinländer und Pfälzer, ins Land. Durch ihren Fleiß und ihre Sparsamkeit wurde Pennsylvania zum blühendsten Staat entwickelt. Dr. Benjamin Rush, einer der Mitunterzeichner der *Declaration of Independence*, feiert die Deutschen Pennsylvaniens als Vorbilder und als Rückgrat der Vereinigten Staaten, insbesondere der amerikanischen Finanzwirtschaft (vgl. Hirts und Velhagen & Klasings Engl. Unterrichtsmerk. Teil A 3). — Z. 41. Jesus ['dʒi:zəs]. — Nazareth ['næz(ə)rɪθ]. — Quaker ['kweɪkə] Quäker.

Seite 29. Z. 2. to harass ['hærəs] quälen, plagen, beunruhigen. — Z. 3. émigré (frz.) Auswanderer. — Z. 10. en route (frz.) unterwegs. — Z. 17. sterling gediegen, echt. — Benjamin Rush ['benʒ(ə)mɪn 'rʌʃ]. — Z. 22. economist [i(:)'kɒnəmɪst] guter Wirtschaftler, sparsamer Haushälter. — Z. 28. proficiency [prə'fɪ(ə)nʃi] Fertigkeit, Tüchtigkeit, Leistung. — Z. 31. horticulture ['hɔ:ʃtɪkʌltʃə] Gartenbau. — Z. 33. inclosure = enclosure. — Z. 34. luxuriance [lʌg'ʒjuəriəns] Üppigkeit, Reichtum. — Z. 42. William Cullen Bryant (1794—1878). — Z. 43. Bethlehem ['beθliheɪm]. — Z. 44. John Grennleaf Whittier ['wɪtiə] 1807—1892.

Seite 30. Z. 3. ear [ɪə] Ähre. — Z. 6. to purple [pə:pəl] purpurn färben. — Z. 7. porch [pɔ:ts] Säulenhalle, Vorhalle. — humming-bird Kolibri. — Z. 8. bill Schnabel. — petal [petl] Blumenblatt. — to stir in Bewegung setzen, bewegen. — Z. 11. bough [bau] Zweig, Ast. — russet ['rʌsɪt] rotbraun. — Z. 13. fragrance ['freɪgr(ə)nʃ] Wohlgeruch, Duft. — birch [ba:ts] Birke. — pine [paɪn] Fichte, Kiefer; Pinie. — Z. 14. life-everlasting Immortelle, Strohblume. — bay [beɪ] Lorbeer. — eglantine ['egləntaɪn] Heckenrose. — Z. 15. subtle [sʌtl] fein, zart.

## 3. General Nicholas Herkimer

Seite 30. Im Nordamerikanischen Unabhängigkeitskrieg haben die Deutschen in den Vereinigten Staaten wesentlich zum Siege Washingtons beigetragen. Die Bedeutung des Generals von Steuben wurde bereits früher gewürdigt (vgl. Hirts und Velhagen & Klasings Unterrichtsmerk. Teil A 3). Im vorliegenden Bericht wird der heroische Einsatz des amerikadeutschen Generals Nicholas Herkimer ['nikələs 'hɜ:kɪmə] und seiner Truppe dargestellt. — Z. 18. Mohawk Valley ['mouhə:k]. — Schoharie ['fouhəri] Nebenfluß des Mohawk. — Z. 21. Six Nations = Iroquois, Oneidas, Mohawks, Cayugas, Senecas, Onandagas, unter denen die Irokesen die Führung hatten. — Z. 25. incentive [ɪn'sentɪv] Anreiz, Antrieb. — Z. 29. legitimate [lɪ'dʒɪtɪmɪt] recht-, gesetzmäßig. — Z. 39. Burgoyne ['bɜ:gɔɪn] Befehlshaber der englischen Streitkräfte und der indianischen Hilfstruppen.

Seite 32. Z. 3. St. Leger ['ledʒə]. — Z. 4. Albany ['ɔ:lbəni]. — Z. 6. Montreal [mɒntri'ɔ:l]. — Z. 7. plateau ['plætəu] Hochebene. — Z. 11. Stanwix ['stænwɪks]. — Z. 12. militia [mɪ'lɪʃə] Miliz, Bürgerwehr. — Z. 14. Oriska ['ɔ:rɪskə]. — Oriskany ['ɔ:rɪskəni]. — Z. 28. Tory ['tɔ:ri] zunächst Anhänger Jakobs II. (Gegensatz: Whig); strenger Konservativer (Gegensatz: Liberal). — Z. 32. to extricate ['ekstrikeit] herausziehen, freimachen (from) aus.

Seite 33. Z. 4. Brant [brænt]. — Z. 6. ambushade [æmbas'heid] Versteck, Hinterhalt. — Z. 9. ravine [rə'vi:n] tiefe Schlucht, Hohlweg. — Z. 19. onslaught ['ɒnslɔ:t] heftiger Angriff. — Z. 20. butt (-end) dickes Ende, Kolben. — Z. 24. beech [bi:tʃ] Buche. — Z. 32. sortie [sɔ:'ti:(i)] (frz.) Ausfall.

#### 4. Pennsylvania-Dutch

Seite 34. Das Pennsylvanien-Deutsch entspricht weitgehend dem pfälzischen Dialekt. Nach und nach wurden englische Wörter übernommen. Die Hauptstadt des von Pfälzern bewohnten Teiles von Pennsylvanien war Germantown, die heute mit Philadelphia verschmolzen ist. Das Gebiet, in welchem das sogenannte Pennsylvanien-Deutsch gesprochen wird, erstreckt sich über 17500 Quadratmeilen in den Staaten Pennsylvanien und Maryland. Um 1775 waren bereits 90000 Deutsche hier eingewandert aus der Pfalz, Baden, Elsaß, Württemberg, Hessen, Sachsen, Schlesien und der Schweiz. Die Pfälzer waren in der Mehrzahl; daher ähnelt das Pennsylvanien-Deutsch dem Pfälzer Dialekt. Sie nannten ihre Sprache selbst [deɪʃ], woraus ihre englischen und schottisch-irischen Nachbarn [dætʃ] machten. Die Bibel wurde bereits dreimal in Pennsylvanien-Deutsch gedruckt, bevor die erste in Amerika in englischer Sprache gedruckte Bibel erschien. — Z. 18. pressure ['preʃə] Druck, Drängen. — to bring to bear verwenden — poll [pəʊl] Wahlort, -urne; at the polls an der Wahlurne. — Z. 20. recognition [rekəg'nɪʃ(ə)n] Anerkennung. — Z. 22. Cincinnati [sɪnsɪ'næti].

Seite 35. Z. 5. legislature ['ledʒɪsleɪtʃə] gesetzgebende Körperschaft. — Z. 8. school board Schulverwaltung. — Z. 9. advisory [əd'vaɪzəri] beratend; as advisory Kannbestimmung. — as compulsory Mußbestimmung. — Z. 11. loophole ['lu:phəʊl] Schlupfloch, Ausflucht. — Z. 18. precedent ['presɪd(ə)nt] Präzedenzfall, maßgebender früherer Fall. — Z. 29. Mexico ['meksɪkəʊ]. — Z. 30. isolated ['aɪsəleɪtɪd] allein liegend, abgeschlossen. — Z. 35. Lancaster ['læŋkæstə]. — Berks [bɜ:kz] = Berkshire. — Montgomery [mɒŋ(t)'gæm(ə)n]. — York [jɔ:k]. — Z. 37. myth [mɪθ] Mythe, Sage, Legende. — Z. 42. tie [taɪ] Gleichstand, unentschieden. — Z. 45. Judas ['dʒu:ɪdəs].

Seite 36. Z. 4. interpreter [ɪn'tɜ:pɪtɪ] Dolmetscher. — Z. 8. incl. = including. — minute ['mɪnu:t] Entwurf; Denkschrift; minutes Protokoll. — censor ['sensə] Zensor, Sittenrichter; Council of Censors Zensoramt. — Z. 9. journal Tagebuch, Sitzungsbericht. — Z. 11. librarian [laɪ'breəriən] Bibliothekar, Bibliotheksdirektor. — Z. 20. Jay treaty: 1794 wurde der Advokat Jay nach London gesandt, um mit der englischen Regierung einen Vertrag zu schließen. Obwohl der Entwurf weder England noch die Vereinigten Staaten befriedigte, wurde er ratifiziert. — Z. 29. Krick = creck. — Z. 30. 'xactly = exactly. — Z. 31. owwe = oben (d. h. nach Norden). — Z. 31. nau = now. — Z. 32. lewig = lebendig. — Z. 34. juscht = just. — neekscht = next. — Dady Vater.

#### 5. German Influence in American Education and Culture

Seite 37. Die deutschen Einwanderer waren und sind nicht nur die fleißigsten, geschicktesten und sparsamsten Landwirte der Vereinigten Staaten, wodurch sie den Wohlstand und die geordnete Finanzwirtschaft der Vereinigten Staaten begründeten, sondern sie erwarben sich auch Verdienste auf anderen Gebieten des öffentlichen Lebens. An der Entwicklung der Industrie haben Deutsche hervorragend Anteil gehabt. Die Bauten deutscher Ingenieure, z. B. die Brooklynbrücke des Deutschen Roebling, erregten die Bewunderung der Welt. Aber auch auf kulturellem Gebiete, besonders auf dem der Erziehung, der Leibesübungen (Turnvereine), der Musik (Gesangvereine), der schmückenden Kunst (Malerei und Skulptur), hat das Deutschum in Nordamerika bleibende Werte geschaffen. — Z. 2. thriving ['θraɪvɪŋ] gedeihlich, blühend. — Z. 4. current Strom, Lauf; currents Strömungen. —

Z. 5. mediator [*'mi:diəɪtə*] Vermittler, Mittler. — Z. 14. Madame de Staël [*'mædəm də 'stɑ:l*] berühmte französische Schriftstellerin, lebte von 1766—1817. Sie schrieb ein Buch über Deutschland *De l'Allemagne*, London 1813. Dieses Buch erregte Aufsehen und veranlaßte das Ausland, sich mit diesem Deutschland, das damals keine politische Rolle spielte, näher zu beschäftigen. — appreciative [*ə'pri:ʃiəti:v*] hochschätzend, verständnisvoll. — Z. 21. Rousseau [*'ru:sou*]. — Z. 27. collegiate education [*kə'li:dʒi:ɪt*] akademische Erziehung. — Z. 34. paternal government absolute Regierung (Gegensatz: demokratische Regierung). — Z. 37. Horace [*'hɔ:rəs*] Mann studierte die preußische Erziehung auf einer Reise durch Preußen.

Seite 38. Z. 2. bigoted [*'bi:gəti:d*] bigott, engstirnig. — Z. 15. Commissioner of Education Staatsbeauftragter für Unterrichtsangelegenheiten. — Z. 17. Bureau [*bju:(ə)'rou*] of Education Unterrichtsverwaltung. — Z. 20. superintendent [*'sju:(i)'prɪn'tendənt*] Oberaufseher, Inspektor. — Z. 22. to belittle verkleinern, herabsetzen. — Z. 28. lack of funds Mangel an Mitteln. — Z. 39. productive erzeugend, schöpferisch; pr. scholarship Berufsschulbildung. — Z. 42. sketch Skizze. — likely [*'laɪkli*] wahrscheinlich.

## 6. German-Americans during the World War

Der Verfasser ist ein Deutschenfeind. — Nicht nur die Reichsdeutschen, auch Amerika-Deutsche wurden während des Weltkrieges im „Land der Freiheit“ verfolgt, an ihrem Hab und Gut geschädigt und in Konzentrationslagern und Gefängnissen eingesperrt. Das gleiche Verhalten der Amerikaner erleben wir jetzt im zweiten Weltkrieg. Aus Kanada geflüchtete deutsche Kriegsgefangene wurden z. B. in Fesseln (Offiziere!) an Kanada ausgeliefert, als die USA. noch nicht im Kriegszustand mit Deutschland sich befanden. — Auch die hier im Text wiedergegebene Greuellüge von den mit Knallquecksilber gefüllten Füllhaltern deutscher Soldaten ist für den Verfasser bezeichnend. — Allerdings muß zugegeben werden, daß die erdrückende Mehrheit der Amerika-Deutschen wenig Verständnis für Deutschland und noch weniger Rückgrat und Würde gegenüber dem erpresserischen Verhalten der Amerikaner zeigten.

Seite 39. Z. 2. Liberty Loan Kriegsanleihe. — Z. 6. tar and feathers Pferde diebe und verbrecherische Neger werden in den USA. durch Volksjustiz (lynching) geteert und gefedert. — Z. 16. fulminating mercury Knallquecksilber. — Z. 22. queer (ly) sonderbar, komisch. — Z. 28. conseil de famille (frz.) [*kɔ'sɛj də fa'mi:j*] Familienrat. — Z. 31. pre-eminence [*'pri:'eminəns*] Vorrang, Überlegenheit.

## V. On History and Politics of the USA.

### 1. The Declaration of Independence

Seite 40. Die amerikanische Unabhängigkeitserklärung wurde veranlaßt durch die zahlreichen Übergriffe der englischen Regierung auf allen Gebieten des Lebens in Nordamerika. Die Erklärung wurde von Thomas Jefferson verfaßt und von dem Präsidenten des Kongresses, John Hancock, und den 55 Vertretern der 13 nordamerikanischen Staaten unterzeichnet. Sie rechnet scharf ab mit dem englischen König und seiner Regierung, zugleich aber auch mit dem englischen Volk, das weder den Bitten noch Warnungen des amerikanischen Volkes Gehör schenkte. Angeprangert werden darin auch die englischen Kriegsmethoden, die später das deutsche Volk im Weltkrieg und jetzt wieder im Englischen Krieg kennenlernte. — Z. 13. to endow [*in'dau*] schenken, ausstatten, — unalienable [*'ʌn'eɪljənəbl*] unveräußerlich. — Z. 22. transient [*'trænzjənt*] vorübergehend, vergänglich. — Z. 23. to right oneself sich wiederaufrichten; sich Recht verschaffen. — Z. 30. present king

George III. (1760—1820). — Z. 33. to submit to übergeben. — Z. 40. to relinquish [ri'liŋkwɪʃ] aufgeben, verzichten auf.

Seite 41. Z. 4. depository [di'pɒzɪt(ə)rɪ] Niederlage, Verwahrungsort. — Z. 9. annihilation [ənaɪə'leɪʃ(ə)n] Vernichtung, Aufhebung. — Z. 30. to quarter unterbringen, einquartieren. — Z. 31. mock trial Blendwerk, Schein-(Theater-)Prozeß. — Z. 38. arbitrary ['ɑ:bɪtrəri] willkürlich, eigenmächtig.

Seite 42. Z. 5. mercenary ['mɜ:sɪnəri] Söldner. — Z. 22. unwarrantable [ʌn'wɔ:(ə)ntəbl̩] ungerechtfertigt, untragbar. — Z. 27. consanguinity [kɒnsæŋ'gwɪnɪti] Blutsverwandschaft. — Z. 28. to acquiesce [ækwɪ'es] (in) ruhig hinnehmen, sich fügen (in). — Z. 32. rectitude ['rektɪtju:d] Redlichkeit. — Z. 35. allegiance [ə'li:dʒəns] Untertanenpflicht. — Z. 41. Divine Providence Göttliche Vorsehung.

## 2. The Constitution

Seite 43. Die vorliegende Darstellung der Entwicklung der amerikanischen Fassung wurde dem bekannten Werk des Geschichtswissenschaftlers Edward Channing entnommen: *The United States of America*. — Z. 3. compliance [kəm'plaiəns] Einwilligung; in c. with gemäß. — Z. 9. arbiter ['ɑ:bɪtə] Schiedsrichter. — Z. 13. coercive power [kə(u)'ɔ:sɪv] zwingende Gewalt, Vollstreckungsgewalt. — Z. 25. legislative gesetzgebend. — Z. 28. requisition Forderung. — ample [æmpl] groß, ausführlich. — Z. 30. monetary standard ['mʌnɪt(ə)rɪ] Münzfuß. — Z. 31. scheme [skɪm] Schema, Methode. — sanction [s'æŋ(k)(ə)n] Sanktion, Zwangsmaßnahme. — Z. 32. viciousness ['vɪʃəsni:s] Fehler-, Mangelhaftigkeit. — Z. 39. Annapolis [ə'næpəlɪs]. — Z. 40. to amend [ə'mend] verbessern; ändern. — Z. 42. Philadelphia [fɪlə'delʃiə]. — Z. 42. Federal Convention Bundesversammlung.

Seite 44. Z. 1. adjournment [ə'dʒɔ:nmənt] Verschiebung, Vertagung. — Z. 3. deliberative [dɪ'libəreɪtɪv] überlegend, beratend. — body Körperschaft. — Z. 4. Benjamin Franklin (1706—1790). Er wurde als 16. Kind unbemittelter Eltern in Boston geboren. Nach Erlernung der Buchdruckerkunst gab er in einer eigenen Druckerei eine Zeitung und einen Almanach heraus. Bald wurde er berühmt. Als Generalpostmeister aller englisch-amerikanischen Kolonien zeichnete er sich aus. Er wirkte mit an der Abfassung der Unabhängigkeitserklärung. Während des Krieges war er Gesandter in Paris und unterzeichnete den Frieden mit England für die USA. — Er betätigte sich auch als Physiker (Erfinder des Blitzableiters). — Z. 8. Supreme Court [sju:(s)'pri:m:kɔ:t] Oberster Gerichtshof. — Z. 15. elasticity [elæ'stɪsɪti] Elastizität, Spannkraft. — Z. 19. administrative offices Verwaltungsbehörden. — Z. 22. salary ['sæləri] Gehalt. — Z. 35. scope [skəʊp] Gesicht-, Wirkungskreis; Gebiet. — Z. 38. impost ['ɪmpəʊst] Abgabe, Steuer. — Z. 39. excise [ek'saɪs] Akzise, Verbrauchsabgabe (Gewerbesteuer usw.). — Z. 40. remainder Rest. — Z. 43. to vest (in) einsetzen (in). — Z. 44. department [dɪ'pɑ:tmənt] (amer.) Ministerium.

Seite 45. Z. 21. inauguration [ɪnə:ɡju'reɪʃ(ə)n] Einführung, Einsetzung. — Z. 22. militia [mɪ'lɪtə] Miliz, Bürgerwehr. — Z. 7. dictator [dɪk'teɪtə] Diktator, Gewalthaber. — Z. 15. tender hier: Zahlungsmittel. — Z. 19. to apportion verhältnismäßig zu-, verteilen. — Z. 21. Delaware ['deləweə]. — Z. 27. unanimous [ju:(s)'næmɪməs] einmütig.

## 3. Lincoln's Gettysburg Address

Kurz nach der Schlacht bei Gettysburg wurde vorgeschlagen, einen Teil des Schlachtfeldes zu einem nationalen Ehrenfriedhof zu machen. Der Friedhof sollte am 19. 11. 1863 seine Weihe erhalten. Am 2. 11. wurde Präsident Lincoln gebeten, die Weiherede zu halten. In den zwei Wochen kam er zu keinem ruhigen Augenblick, um die Rede vorzubereiten. Am Tage vor seiner Abreise aus Washington schrieb er die erste Hälfte nieder. Er trug sie am folgenden Tage mit matter Stimme vor, so daß

sie ohne Wirkung blieb. — Sie gehört zu den schönsten Reden, die je in Amerika gehalten worden sind.

Seite 46. Z. 29. Gettysburg [*'getizbɜ:ɡ*] 3. Juli 1863 erste Schlacht im Amerikanischen Bürgerkrieg (die Nordstaaten verloren 23000 Mann). — Z. 31. fourscore [*'fɔ:skɔ:*] achtzig. — Z. 35. conceived empfangen, geboren.

Seite 47. Z. 2. to hallow [*'hæləu*] heiligen, weihen. — Z. 3. to detract entziehen, herabsetzen.

#### 4. Sectional Conflict in America

Seite 47. Z. 26. Civil War Bürgerkrieg (1861—65). — Z. 27. reconstruction Wiederaufbau, Wiederherstellung. — Z. 30. vindictive [*vin'diktiv*] rachsüchtig, strafend. — Z. 31. New Mexico [*nju: 'meksikou*]. — Arizona [*æri'zəunə*]. — Z. 35. Homestead Act (vgl. Anm. zu I, 2). — Z. 36. Union Pacific Railroad [*pə'sifik*] diese Eisenbahngesellschaft begann den Bau bei dem Ort Omaha in Richtung Westen, die Central Pacific von Sacramento in Richtung Osten. Am 10. Mai 1869 trafen sich beide bei Ogden im Staate Utah. — Z. 38. protective tariff [*'tærif*] Schutzzölle. — Z. 40. pension [*'penʃən*] (Pension) Ruhegehalt, Rente. — Z. 41. patent [*'peitənt*] Patent.

Seite 48. Z. 4. corporation (vgl. VI, 4) amerikanische Handelsaktiengesellschaft. — Z. 6. feudalism [*'fju:ðəlɪzəm*] (Feudalysstem) Lehnswesen. — Z. 14. chain-stores Unternehmen mit vielen Filialen. — to drive to the wall in die Enge treiben; an die Wand drücken; zum Konkurs treiben. — Z. 16. endowment [*in'daʊmənt*] Ausstattung; hier Stiftung.

#### 5. Woodrow Wilson and the Great War

Seite 48. Hubert Herring rechnet in seinem Buch *And so to War* in schonungsloser Kritik mit der heuchlerischen sogenannten „Neutralitätspolitik“ der Vereinigten Staaten während des Weltkrieges ab. Er zeigt, wie der Präsident der USA., Wilson, zwar seinen Reden nach das Beste wollte, aber weder den hetzerischen jüdischen Finanzkreisen Amerikas, noch bei den Friedensverhandlungen den gerissenen Diplomaten Clemenceau und Lloyd George gewachsen war. Sein „Friede“ wurde ein Unglück für die ganze Welt. Leider fand das Buch in Amerika nicht die verdiente Beachtung. — Z. 22. perception Wahrnehmung, Erkenntnis. — Z. 33. national mood Volksstimmung.

Seite 49. Z. 3. bewilderment Verwirrung. — Z. 13. disparate [*'dispəri:t*] ungleichartig. — Z. 17. involvment Verwicklung. Um sich gegen Napoleons Kontinentalsperre zu wehren, erließ Großbritannien 1807 eine Order in Council, wonach jedes neutrale Schiff eine Steuer an England zu entrichten hatte, das einen für Großbritannien verschlossenen Hafen anlaufen wollte. Das brachte Spannung mit den USA., die 1812 zu kriegerischen Verwicklungen führte. — conspicuous [*kən'spɪkjʊəs*] bemerkenswert. Z. 32. Hamilton [*'hæm(i)lt(ə)n*]. — Jefferson [*'dʒefəm*]. — Z. 39. insidious [*in'sidiəs*] heimtückisch, gemein.

Seite 50. Z. 8. loom [*lu:m*] Webstuhl, Webmaschine. — to belch [*belʃ*] (Rauch) speien, ausstoßen. — smoke-stack Schornstein. — Z. 11. Davison [*'deivɪsn*]. — Morgan [*'mɔ:ɡ(ə)n*]. — Z. 23. Order in Council Beschluß des Staatsrates. — Z. 27. procedure [*prə'si:dʒə*] Verfahren, Handlungsweise. — Asquith [*'æskwiθ*] engl. Ministerpräsident während des Weltkrieges. — Z. 29. juridical niceties [*dʒuə'ridik(ə)l*] juristische Spitzfindigkeiten. — “scrap of paper” Fetzen Papier (Anspielung auf Bethmann-Hollwegs Stellungnahme zum Einmarsch in Belgien 1914). — Z. 32. acquiescent [*əkwɪ'esnt*] ergeben, fügsam. — Z. 37. accountability Verantwortunglichkeit. — Z. 40. warrant [*'wɜ:(ə)n(ə)nt*] Vollmacht, Berechtigung.

Seite 51. Z. 10. high-handed anmaßend. — Z. 13. Chilean [*'tʃiliən*]. — Chile [*'tʃili*]. — Z. 15. to deflect ablenken, umbiegen. — Z. 17. perfunctory [*pə'fʌŋ(k)-t(ə)rɪ*] gewohnheitsmäßig, nichtssagend. — Z. 20. Consett [*'kɒnsət*]. — Z. 25. to

stoop [stʊ:p] sich beugen; sich erniedrigen. — Z. 44. abridgement [ə'brɪdʒmənt] Abkürzung, Beschränkung. — Z. 45. Gore [gɔ:]-McLemore [mə'klemə].

Seite 52. Z. 7. Lusitania [lu:si'teɪnjə]. — Z. 19. to wink blinzeln, ein Auge zu-drücken. — subterfuge ['sʌbtəfju:dʒ] Vorwand, Ausflucht. — Z. 23. bill Rechnung, Wechsel. — Z. 24. acceptance Akzept, Annahme (eines Wechsels).

Seite 53. Z. 2. blissful glücklich. — unconsciousness [ʌn'kɒn'sɪsɪs] Unwissenheit, Unkenntnis. — Z. 3. flash of insight plötzliches Auftauchen innerer Einsicht. — Z. 14. to cradle in die Wiege legen; in sich bergen. — Z. 21. to wrench herausreißen. — Z. 22. imponderable [ɪm'pɒnd(ə)rəbl̩] unwägbar, nicht abzuschätzen. — Z. 23. hysteria [hɪ'sɪəriə] Hysterie. — Z. 32. Robert Lansing ehemaliger Staatssekretär des Äußeren unter Wilson. — Z. 37. Archduke ['ɑ:tʃ'dju:k] Thronfolger Erzherzog Franz Ferdinand, ermordet am 28. 6. 1914 in Serajewo.

Seite 54. Z. 3. to sanctify ['sæŋ(k)tɪfaɪ] heiligen, weihen. — self-deception Selbsttäuschung. — protagonist [prɒ(u)'tæɡənɪst] Hauptperson, Vorkämpfer. — Z. 5. messianic [mesi'ænik] messianisch. — messianic vision of greatness eines Messias Traum von Größe. — Z. 6. blend Mischung, Sorte. — righteousness ['raɪtəsɪs] Rechtschaffenheit. — stubbornness Eigensinn, Halsstarrigkeit. — Z. 7. evangelicalism [ɪv'æŋ'dʒelɪkəlɪz(ə)m] Lehre der „Evangelischen Partei“ (Low Church). — to envisage [ɪn'vɪzɪdʒ] sich (im Geiste) vorstellen. — Z. 10. to chart [tʃɑ:t] (Karte) entwerfen. — Z. 21. ecstasy ['ekstəsi] Ekstase, krankhafte Erregung. — Z. 22. connotation [kɒnɒ(u)'teɪ(ə)n] Nebenbedeutung; Begriffsinhalt. — Z. 30. casuistry ['kæzjuɪstri] Kasuistik, Spitzfindigkeit. — Z. 40. Franklin ['fræŋklɪn] D. = Delano [də'leɪnə] Roosevelt ((amer.) 'rouzəvelt; (engl.) 'ru:svelt). — debonair [debə'neə] höflich; heiter. — Z. 41. Holy Grail ['həʊli'greɪl] Heiliger Gral. — Z. 42. paraphrase ['pærəfreɪz] Umschreibung, freie Wiedergabe. — Z. 43. to jeopardize ['dʒepədaɪz] gefährden, aufs Spiel setzen.

Seite 55. Z. 1. tune [tju:n] Weise, Melodie. — futile ['fju:taɪl] nutzlos. — Z. 2. bugle call ['bju:gl̩'kɔ:l] Hornstoß.

## 6. The Almighty Dollar

Der Verfasser ist ein ungenannter höherer britischer Offizier, der mit der Politik der englischen Plutokratie nicht einverstanden ist. Er verließ England und wählte freiwillig Deutschland als Gastland.

Seite 55. Z. 8. to corral [kɔ'rɑ:l] einschließen; in ein Konzentrationslager bringen. — Z. 11. chief executive (vgl. V, 2) hier: der Senat. — Z. 12. virtual ['vɜ:tʃjuəl] eigentlich, tatsächlich. — Z. 14. Chief Justice Oberrichter. — Supreme Court (vgl. V, 3) Oberster Gerichtshof. — Z. 16. to be on intimate terms auf vertrautem Fuße stehen, nahe Beziehungen haben. — Z. 18. Rufus Daniel Isaacs ['ru:fəs'dænjəl'aɪzəks] Sein Vater Joseph Isaacs war Fruchthändler und Schiffsmakler. Rufus Daniel Isaacs betätigte sich zunächst als Börsenmakler und entging nur auf merkwürdige Weise verschiedentlich dem Staatsanwalt. Dann wurde er selbst Rechtsanwalt und errang einen Sitz im Parlament. Im Jahre 1912 beteiligte er sich, obwohl er damals Kronanwalt war, zusammen mit Lloyd George an einem Börsenschwindel seiner beiden Brüder mit Marconiaktien. Alle Beteiligten verdienten ungeheure Summen. Die Regierung veranlaßte den parlamentarischen Untersuchungsausschuß, die Angelegenheit nicht zu prüfen. Mr. Asquith ernannte Rufus Isaacs später zum Lordoberrichter (Lord Chief Justice). Zwei Monate später wurde er geadelt (Baron Reading of Erleigh)! Im Juni 1915 erhielt er das Ritterkreuz des Bathordens und ein Jahr später wurde er Viscount. 1917 ging er als Unterhändler des Britischen Reiches nach Washington. — Später erhielt er weitere hohe Orden und wurde zum Marquess of Reading ernannt. — Z. 19. Bernard Mannes Baruch ['bɜ:nəd'mænz'bærək]. — Stock Exchange Börse. — Z. 21. Chairman of the War Industries Board Präsident des Ausschusses für die Rüstungsindustrie. — Z. 27. hand in glove with freundschaftlich mit. — Z. 28. Federation of Labour

Gewerkschaft. — Z. 29. Isidore [*'izido:*]. — Nathan [*'neibən*]. — Oscar [*'oskə*]. — Salomon [*'sələmən*]. — Z. 30. Theodore Roosevelt (vgl. Anm. zu III, 2). — Z. 31. Department of Commerce Handelsministerium. — Z. 32. Federal Reserve Board = a board of seven directors controlling the Federal Reserve Bank, including the secretary of the treasury, the controller of the currency, and five members appointed by the President. The term of service is ten years. (Nach dem Federal Reserve Banking Law, von Wilson unterzeichnet am 23. Dez. 1913). — Z. 36. Executive Council of the U.S. Federal Banks Verwaltungsrat der einzelnen Bundesbank. Statt einer Zentralbank gibt es 12 "regional reserve banks", die auf 12 Städte im Lande verteilt sind. Jede dieser Banken ist Mittelpunkt eines größeren Bezirks. Jede Bundesbank wird von 9 Direktoren verwaltet, die wieder dem Hauptverwaltungsrat (s. oben!) in Washington unterstehen. Jede Bank hat große Geldreserven aus Staatsmitteln; sie kann auch Papiergeld in Form von "Federal Reserve treasury notes" ausgeben. Diese Ausgabe richtet sich nach dem Geldbedarf von Wirtschaft und Handel und wird genau überwacht. — Z. 37. famous circular Als Paris und London im Jahre 1915 eine eigene Finanzpolitik treiben wollten, zeigte Wall Street seine Macht. Paris und London gehorchten sofort wieder. — Z. 39. Director of the Committee Hier macht Wilson den Bock zum Gärtner. Er bestellt eine der führenden jüdischen Bankhyänen zum Leiter des Ausschusses, der das amerikanische Banksystem reformieren sollte (man beurteile die Wirkung der Wilsonschen Antigeldtrust-Gesetzgebung an der Wirtschaftskrise von 1929 — VI, 5 u. 6).

Seite 56. Z. 10. Jews' Mutual Aid Society Gesellschaft für gegenseitige jüdische Hilfe. — Z. 15. Geneva [*dzi'nivə*]. — Z. 17. to weld zusammenschweißen, vereinigen.

## 7. The Powers of President Franklin D. Roosevelt

Franklin Delano Roosevelt war entfernt verwandt mit dem früheren Präsidenten der USA. Theodore Roosevelt (vgl. Anm. zu III, 2). Seine Mutter, Sarah Delano, ist jüdischer Herkunft. Franklin bekam bei der Taufe den jüdischen Familiennamen seiner Mutter als zweiten Vornamen. Er wuchs als einziges Kind sehr reicher Eltern in Hydepark auf. Bis zum 15. Lebensjahre besuchte er keine Schule, sondern wurde privat unterrichtet. Als er während eines Kuraufenthaltes seines Vaters in Nauheim die dortige Schule besuchte, haben ihn die Lehrer wohl zu viel zur Arbeit angehalten, die ihm nicht liegt. Er hat aus Deutschland weder von deutscher Geschichte noch deutscher Kultur auch nur die geringste Kenntnis mitgenommen. An der Harvard-Universität gab er sich mit vollen Zügen studentischen Vergnügungen hin. Im Examen fiel er durch. Gleichwohl erhielt er auf Grund seiner Beziehungen die Zulassung als Rechtsanwalt. Diese Beziehungen wurden noch dadurch verbessert, daß er die Nichte Theodore Roosevelts, Eleanor Roosevelt, heiratete. — Seit seinem Eintritt in die Politik ist Franklin D. R. ohne Idee und Programm gewesen. Als Unterstaatssekretär für die Marine unter Woodrow Wilson nahm er an den Verhandlungen in Paris teil. Heute ist Wilson, der große Betrüger im Weltkrieg, Roosevelts bewundertes Vorbild. Zusammen mit seiner geschäftstüchtigen Frau verdient er gut an der Politik. Sein jüdischer „Gehirntrust“, der auch Wilson gedient hat, entwirft ihm nicht nur Programme und Gesetze, sondern sogar seine politischen Reden. Noch mehr als unter Wilson wird Nordamerikas Schicksal geleitet von den Baruch, Morgenthau, Morgan, Frankfurter, Rosenman usw. Roosevelt, der Freimaurer im 33. Grad, ist ihr vorgeschobener Strohmann. Daher ist es kein Wunder, daß in dem jüdisch-britischen Krieg zuletzt Roosevelt als der Hauptkriegstreiber entlarvt wurde. Es gelang ihm, das amerikanische Volk mit in den Krieg hineinzuzerren, obwohl er vor seiner dritten Wiederwahl dem Volke das Gegenteil versprochen hatte. So hat er Wilson in einem bereits erreicht — im Wortbruch.

Seite 56. Z. 24. check [tʃek] Hemmnis, Hindernis. — Z. 29. Fuji [ˈfudʒi] Fudschijama, feuerspeiender Berg auf Nippon — gilt den Japanern als Nationalheiligtum. — gunboat Kanonenboot. — Z. 30. Yangtze River [ˈjæŋtʃi(:)ˈri:və] Yang-tse-kiang. — Z. 31. manœuver [mæˈnu:və] Manöver, Truppenübungen. — Z. 38. mission Gesandtschaft. — to mollify [ˈmɒlɪfaɪ] besänftigen, beruhigen. — to embroil [ɪmˈbrɔɪl] verwirren, verwickeln. — Z. 39. collector [kəˈlektə] Sammler. — interpreter [ɪnˈtɜ:pɪtə] Ausleger, Dolmetscher. — Z. 42. panorama [pænəˈrɑ:mə] Rundblick; freier Überblick.

Seite 57. Z. 4. availability [əveɪləˈbɪlɪti] Verfügbarkeit, (innenpolitisch) Zweckmäßigkeit. — Z. 5. mediocre [ˈmi:diəukə] mittelmäßig, zweitklassig. — Z. 14. bulk [bʌlk] Umfang, Größe. — Z. 15. State Department in Amerika: Auswärtiges Amt. — Z. 17. quarantine [ˈkwɔr(ə)ntɪn] Quarantäne, Isolierung. Roosevelt teilte die Welt ein in eine Mehrheit von friedliebenden Völkern und wenige kriegliebende (aggressor-states). Diese müßten unter Quarantäne, d. h. unter internationale Aufsicht gestellt werden. Die ganze Welt faßte diese Rede als Angriff gegen Deutschland, Italien und Japan auf. — Z. 30. Supreme Court; vgl. Abschn. VI. — Z. 36. Mathews [ˈmæθju:z]. — Z. 38. to manipulate [mæˈnɪpjuleɪt] künstlich (durch Kniffe) beeinflussen. — Z. 44. devious [ˈdi:vɪəs] abwegig, falsch, irrig. — exigency dringendes Bedürfnis, Erfordernis.

Seite 58. Z. 1. Caribbean [kæriˈbi(:)ən] karibisch. — Z. 2. to label [leɪbl] kennzeichnen, bezeichnen. — Z. 6. commitment Übergeben, Auslieferung; vertragliche Verpflichtung. — Z. 10. usurpation [ju:zəˈpeɪ(ə)n] widerrechtliche Aneignung. — Z. 11. prior [ˈpraɪə] vorhergehend. — Z. 18. overdue überfällig, zu spät. — Z. 26. Premier [ˈpremjə] (Premierminister) Ministerpräsident. — Z. 27. Committee on Foreign Affairs Ausschuß für auswärtige Angelegenheiten. — Z. 28. Chamber of Deputies [ˈdepjutɪz] Abgeordnetenversammlung. — Z. 30. substantial [səbˈstænʃ(ə)l] assent wesentliche Zustimmung. — Z. 31. tangible [ˈtæŋ(d)ʒəbl] greif-, fühlbar. — Z. 42. floor of Congress Sitzungssaal des Kongresses. — Z. 43. department Ministerium.

Seite 59. Z. 3. affront [əˈfrʌnt] Beleidigung, Schimpf. — Z. 4. to resent [riˈzent] verübeln, übelnehmen. — Z. 5. redefinition [ri:deftˈni:(ə)n] erneute Begriffsbestimmung, Neufestsetzung. — Z. 16. dire [ˈdaɪə] gräßlich, schrecklich. — chivalrous [ˈʃɪv(ə)lrəs] ritterlich, edel. — Z. 17. succor [ˈsʌkə] Hilfe, Beistand.

## 8. British Propaganda in the U. S. A.

Seite 59. Z. 20. exploit [eksˈplɔɪt] Heldentat. — Z. 21. World War I = 1914 bis 1918. — Z. 23. populace [ˈpɒpjuləs] der gr. Haufe, Pöbel. — Z. 24. remote weit entfernt; aus der Ferne. — Z. 27. informal zwanglos, ungezwungen. — inferential folgernd; durch Schlußfolgerung. — Z. 28. innocent harmlos, arglos. — Z. 30. official emissary amtlicher Bote; Gesandter. — self-appointed envoy [ˈenvɔɪ] Gesandter auf Grund eigener Ernennung. — Z. 33. wreath [ri:θ] Kranz; Ehrenkranz. — Z. 34. World War II der englisch-jüdische Krieg ab 1939. — to ponder erwägen, überlegen. — Z. 35. confession Beichte; Enthüllung. — Z. 37. to scrutinize [ˈskru:tɪnaɪz] genau prüfen. — Z. 38. at large in der Gesamtheit. — Z. 40, to lift the ban den Bann (das Verbot) laut verkünden. — Z. 42. to deluge [ˈdelju:dʒ] überfluten; überschütten.

Seite 60. Z. 2. unostentatious [ˈʌnɒstənˈteɪʃəs] nicht prunkend; unauffällig. — British Library of Information Britische Propagandabücherei. — Z. 4. compensation Ersatz, Ausgleich. — Z. 5. hardship Unbequemlichkeit. — Z. 8. recruit [riˈkru:t] Rekrut, Neuling. — Z. 11. socially-conscious überzeugt sozialistisch. — Z. 12. internationally-minded international gesinnt. — Z. 13. isolationist [aɪsəˈleɪʃənɪst] Anhänger der Neutralität Amerikas im zweiten Weltkrieg. — interventionist Anhänger der Einmischung Amerikas in den Krieg. — Z. 17. inert

[t'nə:t] träge, untätig. — Z. 20. Nazi apologist ['nɑ:tsi ə'pɒlədʒɪst] Verteidiger des Nationalsozialismus. — Z. 21. grace Schicklichkeit, Anstand. — Z. 23. Marquess of Lothian ['mɑ:kwi:s əv 'ləʊdiən]. — Z. 25. emergency trip unerwartete, plötzliche Reise.

## 9. The English and the U. S. A.

Erst nach dem Verlust seiner Kolonien in Nordamerika erkannte Großbritannien deren Wert und damit die Größe seines Verlustes. Im Parlament wurden die gemachten Fehler in der Behandlung der Kolonisten vor und während des Unabhängigkeitskrieges scharf gerügt (Burke! Vgl. Hirts Englandkundliches Lesebuch IV, 10). Die meisten Engländer sprachen oder träumten von einer zukünftigen Wiedervereinigung. Am brutalsten drückte es Cecil Rhodes aus, der in seinem „Testament“ auch gleich die Angliederung Südamerikas anempfiehlt. — Z. 34. Euphrates [ju'freɪtɪz] Euphrat. — Cyprus ['saɪprəs]: Zur Stärkung seiner Macht im Mittelmeer besetzte England (1878) die Insel Cypern. — Z. 35. Candia ['kændiə] Kreta. — Z. 36. Malay [mə'leɪ] malaiisch; Malaie. — archipelago [ɑ:kɪ'pelɪgəʊ] Archipel, Inselgruppe.

Seite 61. Z. 1. Emerson ['eməs(ə)n] amerikan. Schriftsteller 1803—1882. — Im Oktober 1847 landete Emerson in England, um seine Gesundheit wiederherzustellen. Er fand in Carlyle [kɑ:'laɪl] einen Freund. Nach seiner Rückkehr hielt Emerson Vorlesungen über England, die ihren Niederschlag fanden in den im Jahre 1856 veröffentlichten „English Traits“. Die Texte sind der Centenary Edition dieser Schrift entnommen. — Massachusetts [mə'sɑ:tʃʊsets] Staat in USA. an der gleichnamigen Bucht östlich des Staates Neuyork. — Z. 2. to lapse abfallen; verfallen (into in). — Z. 3. to play the game richtig spielen; mit ehrlichen Mitteln kämpfen. — Z. 9. to entertain unterhalten; in Erwägung ziehen; eingehen auf. — Z. 11. war = Amerikanischer Bürgerkrieg, in den England zugunsten der Südstaaten einzugreifen drohte. — to put down one's foot energisch auftreten. — Z. 15. magnanimity [mæɡnə'nɪmɪti] Großmut. — Z. 16. insularity [ɪnsju'lærɪti] insulare Lage, (insulare) Beschränktheit. — inch Zoll; Bißchen; inches hier: kleines Ausmaß der Inseln. — conspicuous [kən'spɪkjʊəs] deutlich, auffallend. — Z. 20. Dieser Text ist einer politischen Kampfschrift entnommen, die unter dem Titel „The Truth about England“ im Jahre 1940 erschien. Leider schenkte ihr die amerikanische Öffentlichkeit, die weitgehend unter jüdisch-englischem Einfluß steht, nicht die gebührende Beachtung. — Z. 24. big fellows Die führenden Leute in England und Amerika, vor allem Churchill und Franklin Delano Roosevelt. — Z. 25. fence Zaun, Hindernis (gemeint ist das Neutralitätsgesetz). — evidence Klarheit, Beweis. — Z. 28. with one's back to the wall in die Enge getrieben. — Z. 31. to be particular about es genau nehmen mit. — Z. 34. to charge anklagen, beschuldigen. — Z. 40. Lord Northcliffe ['nɔ:θklɪf] Er wurde als Sohn des Rechtsanwalts Harnsworth 1865 in Irland geboren. Mit 13 Jahren gab er bereits eine Schulzeitschrift heraus und wurde schon mit 17 Jahren ein gesuchter Schriftleiter. Er stellte sich auf den Geschmack des breiten Leserkreises ein. Ein Wort ist z. B. bezeichnend für ihn: „Religion braucht Reklame wie jede andere Ware.“ Im Weltkrieg war er der größte Hetzer gegen Deutschland. Die meisten Greueltaten gehen auf die von ihm geleitete Presse zurück. Männer ohne Herz und Gewissen sammelte er um sich, um Deutschland und seine Verbündeten nach einem raffiniert ausgedachten Plan zu trennen, zu zersetzen und zu verderben. Die Northcliffeschen Flugblätter wurden in Millionenaufgaben nach Deutschland geschmuggelt und über der Front oder der Heimat mit eigens konstruierten Ballonen abgeworfen. Er predigte Meuterei, Aufruhr und Offiziersmord. — 1922 unternahm dieser „Zerstörer der deutschen Zuversicht“ unter dem Namen Mr. Brown eine Reise in das Rheinland, wo er sich als „alter Freund“ Deutschlands aufspielte. Offenbar schlug ihm doch das Gewissen, als er das Elend in Deutschland sah, das er selbst mit angerichtet hatte. Von da ab litt er an Verfolgungswahn. Er

glaubte, die Deutschen würden ihm nie vergeben. In geistiger Umnachtung fand er ein furchtbares, verdientes Ende.

Der letzte Abschnitt zeigt, mit welchen Absichten Roosevelt Amerika in den Krieg führte. Er will aus dem kommenden Zusammenbruch des Empire für Amerika retten, was zu retten ist.

Seite 62. Z. 7. to be out of the picture nicht mehr sichtbar sein, verschwinden. — Z. 15. hemisphere ['hɛmɪsfiə] Halbkugel, Erdhälfte. — Z. 17. Bermuda [bə(:)'mɪdə]. — Jamaica [dʒə'meɪkə]. — the Bahamas [bə'hɑ:məz]. — Z. 18. leeward ['li:rwəd, 'lu:əd] windabgekehrte Seite (Gegensatz: windward). — Honduras [hɒn'dʒuərəs]. — Z. 19. Guiana [gɪ'a:nə]. — Falkland ['fæklənd]. — Z. 20. Argentina [ɑ:dʒən'ti:nə]. — Z. 22. to put up leisten. — Z. 37. speculative ['spekjʊlətɪv] theoretisch; nur erdacht (wahrscheinlich aber ein Versuchsballon Roosevelts, um die Stimmung der Amerikaner zu erkunden). — Z. 39. implication Folgerung, Verwicklung.

## VI. On Economic and Social America

### 1. Education in the U. S. A.

Seite 63. Z. 3. Federal Bureau of Education Bundesamt für Erziehung (ähnlich dem preußischen Zentralinstitut für Erziehung und Unterricht). — Z. 5. division hier: Abteilung. — Z. 7. but in the world at large Dieser Zusatz ist bezeichnend für die amerikanische Überheblichkeit. Wo der Amerikaner sitzt, ist das Dach der Welt (I am sitting on top of the world). Er redet stets zur ganzen Welt (I'll tell the cockeyed world). Amerikanisch ist der Inbegriff alles Höchsten auf Erden: Amerika hat die höchsten Berge, Bäume und Bauwerke, die größten Äpfel, Kartoffeln und Heuschrecken, das fruchtbarste Land der Welt und die riesenhaftesten Felswästen, das reichste Volk der Welt und die größten Schwindler, die größten menschlichen Entdeckungen und die gemeinsten Räuber und Mörder. Ein ernster Amerikaner ist beleidigt, wenn man einen seiner Ansprüche bezweifelt ("God's own country"). — Z. 8. alien ['eɪliən] fremd, ausländisch. — Z. 11. recruits ['ri:kru:ɪt] Rekrut. — Z. 14. frontier Grenze zwischen den 13 ersten colonies und dem Mittelwesten (Apalachen-Mittelgebirge). — Z. 15. stop-gap Lückenbüßer. — Z. 20. grade (amerik.) Schulklasse, Stufe. — Z. 32. college hier: Fachschule. — Z. 36. common refinements allgemeine Bildung. — Z. 38. parochial [pə'roukʃəl] Pfarr-, Gemeinde-. — Z. 41. legal standards of efficiency vorgeschriebener Wissensstand.

Seite 64. Z. 2. grades = elementary school. — Z. 9. principal ['prɪnsəpəl] (amerik.) Direktor. — Z. 11. palatial [pə'leɪʃəl] palastartig. Diese glänzende Kulisse darf nicht über die Wirklichkeit hinwegtäuschen. Obwohl die Stadt New York mit einem jährlichen Schuletat von 150 Millionen Dollar noch am besten daran ist, wurde 1939 amtlich festgestellt, daß 10% aller Oberschüler in den Klassenräumen nur Stehplätze hatten, während 20 Grundschulen ohne Leiter und 46 andere unzureichend mit Lehrkräften versehen waren. — gymnasium [dʒɪm'neɪʒəm] Turnhalle. — Z. 14. prime excellence erstklassige Leistung, besonderer Vorzug. — Z. 15. diffusion of opportunity die große Zahl (Verbreitung) von Möglichkeiten zum Vorkommen. — Z. 21. board of trustees Schulverwaltungsrat. — foundation Grundlage; Stiftung. — Z. 22. material equipment äußere Ausstattung. — Zahlreiche Schulen, zum Teil auch Universitäten in Nordamerika, sind von einzelnen Männern (Millionären) oder von kirchlichen oder kulturellen Vereinigungen gegründet worden und werden durch Stiftungen unterhalten. Oft reichen diese Stiftungen nicht aus. Es gibt Universitäten, die in der Hauptsache von ihren Fußballfonds leben. Die Professorengehälter werden gekürzt, um durch „Kau“ angesehener Sportler als „Studenten“ die Sportmannschaft konkurrenzfähig zu erhalten. Professoren dürfen

überhaupt nur lehren, was der jeweilige Verwaltungsausschuß billigt. — maintain high standards Sicher gibt es einzelne Schulen mit hohem Leistungsstand. Aber im November 1941 wurden in der Stadt New York 70000 Oberschüler ohne ausreichende Lesekenntnisse festgestellt. Bei den Rekrutenaushebungen im Sommer 1941 mußten innerhalb von zwei Monaten 92000 Analphabeten zurückgewiesen werden. — Z. 31. Harvard [*'hɑ:vəd*] Das College wurde 1638 von Harvard in Cambridge (Massachusetts) gegründet. Es ist heute die älteste Universität Nordamerikas. — Z. 34. Yale [*'jeil*] 1790 von Gouverneur Yale in Newhaven (Connecticut) gegründet. Es ist die zweitälteste Universität Nordamerikas. — Z. 36. certificate of complétion (Reifezeugnis) Abschlußzeugnis. — Z. 38. College Entrance Examination Board Aufnahmeprüfungsausschuß für das College (Universität). — Z. 44. to embrace einschließen, einbegreifen.

Seite 65. Z. 1. to graft upon aufpfropfen, anschließen. — Z. 6. to confer degrees (Wissenschafts-)Grade verleihen (B.A. = Bachelor of Arts; M.A. = Master of Arts; D. = Doctor z. B. D. V. M. = Doctor of Vétérinary Médecine). — Z. 7. to charter Rechte verleihen (durch Urkunden). — Z. 10. endowment [*in'daʊmənt*] Stiftung, Gabe; Ausstattung. — Z. 18. Rensselaer [*rensə'laɪ*] county im Staate New York. — polytechnic [*pɒli'teknik*] polytechnisch — Troy [*troi*] Hauptstadt von Rensselaer County, am östlichen Ufer des Hudson. — Z. 20. Land Grant University Landwirtschaftliche Hochschule mit Mustergütern (Versuchsfeldern). — Z. 22. United States Department of Agriculture Landwirtschaftsministerium der USA. — state departments Länder(Staaten-)Regierungen. — Z. 23. county organizations Kreisorganisationen (-bauernschaften). — Trotz dieser nach außen hin eindrucksvollen Organisation der Landwirtschaft in den USA. sind die Farmer seit mehr als 20 Jahren die Stiefkinder Amerikas. Zu Tausenden kamen landwirtschaftliche Betriebe unter den Hammer. Die Regierung war genötigt, in einer Reihe von Staaten insgesamt 36 Flüchtlingslager für Farmer einzurichten. — Z. 26. normal schools Lehrerseminare. — Z. 29. corporation (Aktien-)Gesellschaft. — Z. 30. insurance [*in'sʊərəns*] Versicherung.

## 2. Luther Burbank

Seite 65. Z. 32. Luther Burbank [*'lu:θə 'bɜ:bæŋk*] ist einer der erfolgreichsten Pflanzenzüchter der Neuzeit. Kalifornien verdankt ihm die große Verbesserung zahlreicher Obstsorten. Es gelang ihm auch, Kakteen ohne Stacheln und ohne harte Fasern zu züchten, die als Nahrungsmittel für Tiere Verwendung finden können. Das eröffnete für manche Wüstengegenden bessere Zukunftsaussichten. — Z. 33. to foreshadow [*fɔ:'ʃædəʊ*] vorher andeuten, ahnen lassen. — Z. 36. Samuel [*'sæmjʊ(ə)l*]. — Walton [*'wɔ:l(ə)n*]. — Z. 40. sturdy [*'stɜ:di*] stark, derb. — stock Stamm, Geschlecht. — Z. 41. Olive [*'ɒliʋ*] Olivia. — Z. 42. Ross [*rɒs*].

Seite 66. Z. 2. Allan Ramsay (*'æln 'ræmzi*) schottischer Dichter, 1686—1758. Sein bekanntestes Werk ist das Schäferspiel: Gentle shepherd. — Robert Burns [*'rɒbət 'bɜ:nz*] schottischer Dichter (1759—1796). — Z. 5. Gawain Douglas [*'gæweɪn 'dɒgləs*], Bischof von Dunkeld (1474—1522), einer der ältesten schottischen Dichter und Glied der alten schottischen Adelsfamilie der Douglas. — Z. 8. gules [*gju:lz*] Rot. — Z. 23. mature [*mə'tjʊə*] reif. — Z. 31. scientific [*saɪəntɪfɪk*] wissenschaftlich, systematisch. — Z. 33. fertilizer [*'fɜ:tɪlaɪzə*] Düngemittel. — Z. 40. cross pollination [*'krɒs pɒli'neɪj(ə)n*] gekreuzte Bestäubung, Kreuzung. — grafting [*'grɑ:ftɪŋ*] Pfropfen. — Z. 43. likely [*'laɪkli*] wahrscheinlich.

Seite 67. Z. 2. nurseryman Züchter. — Z. 9. arid expanses [*'ærid ɪks'pænzɪs*] ausgedehnte trockene (dürre) Flächen. — Z. 11. Santa Rosa [*'sæntə 'rɒuzə*]. — Z. 18. to stifle [*stɑɪfl*] ersticken. — odor [*'ɒʊdə*] Geruch, Wohlgeruch. — Z. 33. would-be angeblich. — to cancel [*'kæns(ə)l*] durchstreichen, widerrufen. — Z. 38. almond [*'æmənd*] Mandelbaum.

Seite 68. Z. 11. Sebastopol [sɪ'bəstəpəl]. — Z. 15. cactus ['kæktəs] Kaktus. — Z. 16. forbidding verbietend; abstoßend, abschreckend.

Seite 69. Z. 2. species ['spi:ʃi:z] Art, Sorte. — Z. 7. pit Grube; Narbe. — Z. 9. calla lily ['kælə 'lɪli] Calla, Schlangenkraut.

### 3. Henry Ford

Seite 69. Henry Ford ist eine der bemerkenswertesten Persönlichkeiten der nord-amerikanischen Industrie. Aus kleinsten Anfängen hat er ein riesiges Werk, die Ford Motor Company, aufgebaut. In zahlreichen Ländern, auch in Deutschland, befinden sich Tochterunternehmungen. Ford hat früh das verderbliche Wirken der jüdischen Rasse erkannt und in einer Schrift gebrandmarkt. Er fand in seinem Kampf in Amerika kaum Unterstützung. Über sein Willen und Wirken legt Ford Rechenschaft ab in dem Buche "My Life and Work". Der vorliegende Auszug gibt seine grundsätzliche Einstellung zum „Geldverdienen“ und zum „Dienst“ an der Allgemeinheit wieder.

Seite 70. Z. 2. theory of business Theorie (Sinn) der Arbeit. — Z. 14. to prevail sich durchsetzen, vorherrschen. — Z. 24. to go nowhere nirgends gelingen, nirgends Erfolg haben. — adjustment Einrichtung; Ordnung; Ausgleich. — Z. 31. forehanded (mit Vorhand) mit Vorteil. — to be well off gut daran sein. — Z. 33. sinister ['sɪnɪstə] element: Kommunismus unter Führung der Juden. — Z. 36. prejudice ['preɟʒudɪs] Voreingenommenheit, Vorurteil; Schaden. — Z. 42. graft [gra:ft] unehrlicher Gewinn, Diebstahl, Schiebung.

Seite 71. Z. 6. slogan ['sləʊgən] Feldgeschrei; Losung; Schlagwort. — Z. 10. schedule ['ʃedju:l] (amer. ['ʃkedʒu:l]) Stundenplan, Fahrplan; Plan. — Z. 14. adjunct ['ædʒʌŋ(k)t] Beigabe, Nebenumstand. — retribution [retri'bju:/(ə)n] Vergeltung, Strafe. — Z. 19. squarely direkt, rundweg, einfach. — to be up to a person jemandes Pflicht (Sache) sein. — Z. 21. to juggle Kunststücke machen mit. — Z. 22. currency Kurs, Währung. — Z. 23. patter Geschnatter.

Seite 72. Z. 13. absurdity [əb'sɜ:dɪtɪ] Albernheit, Unsinn. — Z. 15. conception Auffassung. — 22. to get by durchkommen. — Z. 32. freak style ['fri:k 'stɑɪl] schrulliger (grotesker) Lebensstil.

Seite 73. Z. 5. cutting edge Schneide. — chisel [tʃɪzəl] Meißel, Stemmeisen. — Z. 9. backing Unterstützung, Unterlage. — Z. 17. job [dʒɒb] Akkordarbeit, Arbeit auf vollen Touren; ein Stück Arbeit.

Seite 74. Z. 5. maximum of wage ['mæksɪmə] Höchstlohn. — Z. 12. veneration Verehrung, Anbetung. — Z. 17. competition [kəm'pi:tɪ/(ə)n] Konkurrenz, Wettbewerb. — Z. 30. to clog [klɒg] hemmen, verstopfen.

### 4. Corporations and Trusts

Seite 74. Z. 32. corporation (amerik.) Handels-, Aktiengesellschaft. — trust Treuhänder; Trust; Untermehring. — Z. 35. small-scale business man kleiner Unternehmer, kleiner Geschäftsmann. — competition Wettbewerb (Konkurrenz). — Z. 38. to drive a p. to the wall jemanden zum Konkurs treiben. — Z. 41. concern [kən'sɜ:n] Geschäft, Firma.

Seite 75. Z. 9. the war = Civil War. — Z. 11. the integrating process der Vorgang der Zusammenfassung. — Z. 12. rebate ['ribeɪt] Rabatt, Nachlaß. — discrimination Vergünstigung oder Benachteiligung (d. h. unterschiedliche Behandlung der Kunden). — Z. 16. Big Business Mammutgeschäft, Mammutfirma. — Z. 19. wells were drilled Bohrlöcher wurden in die Erde getrieben. — Z. 20. derrick Drehkran; hier: Bohrturm. — Z. 22. fake [feɪk] Schwindel, Betrug. — Z. 23. asset Aktivposten; Besitz. — Z. 29. Cleveland ['kli:vlənd]. — Rockefeller ['rɒkɪfələ]. — Z. 32. kindred geistesverwandt, gleichgesinnt. — Z. 37. refinery ['ri:fʌɪnəri] Raffinerie. — Philadelphia [fɪlə'delʃi:ə]. — Baltimore ['bɔ:ltɪmə:]. — Z. 38. storage tank Speichertank. — Z. 42. ruthless ['ru:θlis] grausam.

Seite 76. Z. 4. shipper Verfrachter, Verlader. — Z. 8. octopus ['ɔktəpəs] Polyp (Tintenfisch). — Z. 14. Andrew Carnegie ['ændru kɑ:'neɡi]. — Z. 17. superintendent ['sju:prɪn'tendənt] Inspekteur; Oberaufseher. — Z. 20. Bessemer, Henry, geb. 1813 in Hertfordshire, besonders bekannt geworden durch das Bessemerverfahren zur Erzeugung von Stahl (= Umwandlung von Roheisen in Stahl durch Einblasen von Luft in flüssiges Roh Eisen — seit 1856). — Z. 25. Pittsburg ['pɪtsbɜ:ɡ]. — Z. 26. to sell out ausverkaufen, restlos verkaufen.

## 5. The American Plutocracy

Seite 76. Z. 32. plutocracy ['plu:təkɹəsi] Geld-, Geldsackherrschaft. — Z. 34. prejudice ['predʒudɪs] Vorurteil; (Mehrz.) Denkweise. — Z. 36. hierarchy ['haɪərə:ki] (Priester-)Herrschaft. — Z. 37. to buttress ['bʌtrɪs] stützen, stärken. — Z. 39. to account for Rechenschaft ablegen über. — Z. 40. to accrue [ə'kru:] zuwachsen, zufließen.

Seite 77. Z. 1. oligarchy ['olɪgɑ:kɪ] Oligarchie. — Z. 2. de jure (lat.) (staats-)rechtlich. — Z. 3. de facto (lat.) tatsächlich. — absolutist ['æbsəlʊtɪst] unumschränkt. — Z. 4. lineament ['lɪniəmənt] (Gesichts-)Zug, Eigenart. — Z. 11. to strain anstrengen, sich abmühen. — to sweat schwitzen; sich abschinden. — up to bis — threshold ['θreʃ(h)əʊld] Schwelle, Anfang. — Z. 17. requisite ['rekwɪzɪt] Erfordernis, notwendige Bedingung. — Z. 22. crisis of 1929—1933 ['kraɪsɪs] vgl. VI, 8—9. — Z. 28. joblessness Arbeitslosigkeit. — Z. 31. adult ['ædʌlt] Erwachsene. — Z. 32. nightmare ['naɪtmɛə] Alpdrücken, Schreckgespenst. — Z. 33. to nurture ['nɜ:tʃə] (er)nähren; hegen, aufziehen. — Z. 34. to spawn [spɔ:m] gebären; erzeugen, hervorbringen.

## 6. Controlling other People's Money

Seite 78. Z. 3. President Garfield wurde 1881 Präsident, aber im gleichen Jahr ermordet. — Z. 4. oligarchy (s. S. 77). — Z. 6. John Pierpont Morgan ['pi:pɒnt 'mɔ:ɡən] Größte Bankfirma in New York. — Z. 8. ready cash stets bereites Bargeld. — Z. 9. investment banker Bankier für Anlagekapital (andere Banken: joint-stock-bank Aktienbank; savings-bank Sparbank; bank of circulation Giro-bank usw.). — Z. 11. associate Gesellschafter. — deposit [dɪ'pɒzɪt] Depot. — Z. 14. competing interests Konkurrenzunternehmen. — Z. 15. to make for verursachen, veranlassen. — Z. 17. static ['stætɪk] statisch, bewegungslos; dynamic [daɪ'næmɪk] dynamisch, wirksam, bewegend. — Z. 21. reservoir ['rezəvwa:] Sammelbecken, Vorrat. — Z. 22. to tap anzapfen, erschließen; benutzen. — Z. 29. Money Trust Committee von Wilson eingesetzter Untersuchungsausschuß. — Z. 35. collateral [kə'lateral] in der Seitenlinie verwandt, in Geschäftsverbindung stehend. — Z. 36. to baffle durchkreuzen; täuschen. — Z. 37. investigator [ɪn'vestɪɡeɪtə] Untersucher. — Z. 41. to invalidate [ɪn'vælɪdeɪt] entkräften, wertlos machen. — Z. 44. equitable billig, gerecht; (jur.) billigerrechtsrechtlich.

Seite 79. Z. 1. Ryan ['raɪən]. — Z. 17. racketeer [ræki'tiə] Erpresser, Gangster. — Z. 18. to muscle in (Slang) (mit Gewalt) eindringen. — Z. 24. aggregate ['ægrɪɡeɪt] gehäuft, gesamt, vereinigt. — Z. 30. Baker ['beɪkə] 2. Direktor im Morgan-Bankkonzern. — Z. 41. state or Federal Government Staats- oder der Zentral-Bundes-)Regierung.

## 7. A Paradox of Rich Land and Poor People

Seite 80. Z. 3. to refute [rɪ'fju:t] widerlegen. — Z. 11. Roosevelt, Theodore (vgl. Anm. zu III, 2). — Z. 12. depletion [dɪ'pli:ʃən] Entleerung, Erschöpfung. — Z. 16. solicitous [sə'lɪsɪtəs] besorgt. — erosion [ɪ'rəʊʒən] Zernagung; Auswaschung. — Weite Steppengebiete wurden umgepflügt, einige Jahre landwirtschaftlich ausgebeutet und dann im Stich gelassen. So entstanden weite Sandwüsten.

Das unregelmäßige Abholzen gewaltiger Waldgebiete führte zur Versteppung dieser Gegenden. — Z. 27. *sharecropper* Teilpächter (*tenant* = Gesamtpächter). — *crop share* Anteil an der Ernte. — Z. 28. *quasi* [*'kweisai*] gleichsam, gewissermaßen. — Z. 30. *illiteracy* [*i'litərəsi*] Unwissenheit, Analphabetentum. — *superstition* [*sju:pə'stɪʃən*] Aberglaube. — Z. 31. *resentment* Empfindlichkeit; Verärgerung. — *malnutrition* [*mæl'nju:'trɪʃən*] Unterernährung. — Z. 34. *renter* Mieter, Pächter. — *those in the ascendancy* diejenigen, die bestimmenden Einfluß haben.  
Seite 81. Z. 1. *virgin timber* (unberührter) Urwald. — Z. 3. *timber* Nutzholz

## 8. The Agricultural Crisis in the U. S. A. and its Causes

Seite 81. Z. 14. *familiar features* bekannte Grundzüge, kennzeichnende Merkmale. — Z. 17. *avalanche* [*'ævələ:nʃ*] Lawine. — Z. 21. *live stock* lebendes Inventar, Vieh. — Z. 24. *commodities* (plur.) Güter. — Z. 25. *to assess* abschätzen, veranschlagen, festsetzen.

Seite 82. Z. 1. *psychology* [*sai'kɒlədʒɪ*] Psychologie, seelische Haltung. — *attitude* äußere Haltung.

## 9. The Slump of 1929 in the U. S. A.

Seite 82. Z. 7. *to outstrip* [*aut'strip*] überholen, übertreffen. — Z. 10. *office block* Block von Bürogebäuden. — Z. 13. *mess of pottage* Gericht dicker (fetter) Suppe (vgl. im Deutschen: es regnet Brei). — Z. 16. *stock exchange* Aktienbörse. — Z. 17. *hectic* hektisch, krankhaft, aufregend. — *bell-boy* Laufjunge. — *to impart* [*im'pa:t*] mitteilen. — Z. 18. *General Motors* bekannte Automobilfabrik (Aktiengesellschaft). — U S. Steel = United States Steel Corporation (größter Stahltrust in den USA. — vgl. IV, 4 letzter Abschnitt). — Z. 20. *screen* (Film)-Leinwand. — Z. 23. *new issues of shares* neue Ausgaben von Aktien. — Z. 24. *intrinsic* wahr, wirklich. — Z. 25. *Federal Reserve Banks* (vgl. Anm. zu V, 6). — Z. 26. *check* Hindernis, Hemmung. — Z. 32. *bout* [*baut*] Wechselfolge; Anfall. — Z. 33. *parody* [*'pærədi*] Entstellung, Verzerrung. — Z. 35. *to vex* plagen, quälen. — Z. 36. *to prevail* [*'pri:veɪl*] sich Geltung verschaffen, vorherrschen.

Seite 83. Z. 6. *surplus* [*'sɜ:ppləs*] Überschuß. — Z. 9. *to cut short* unterbrechen, (schnell) abschneiden, abkürzen. — Z. 11. *recipient* [*i'ri:piənt*] Empfänger. — Z. 15. *recovery* Genesung, Erholung. — *halting* [*'hɔ:lɪŋ*] zögernd, unsicher. — Z. 30. *tolerable* erträglich, leidlich. — Z. 31. *gross* [*grəʊs*] hier: Brutto-, Roh-. — Z. 33. *average value* Durchschnittswert. — Z. 40. *incidence* [*'ɪnsɪdəns*] Auftreten, Umfang. — Z. 42. *hog* [*hɒg*] Schwein.

Seite 84. Z. 2. *dole* Almosen; Arbeitslosenunterstützung. — *remnant* Rest, Überbleibsel. — Z. 10. *work-relief* Arbeitsentlastung, Ersatzarbeit. — Z. 12. *to hallow* [*'hæləʊ*] heiligen, weihen. — Z. 13. *President Hoover 1929—1933* (Vorgänger von Franklin D. Roosevelt). — Z. 20. *available* zugänglich, brauchbar, verfügbar.

## 10. A Survey of the Current Relief Situation in Illinois, Winter of 1938

Seite 84. Z. 24. *survey* Bericht, Übersicht, Gutachten. — *relief* Unterstützung. — *Illinois* [*ɪli'noɪ*]. — Z. 26. *Chicago* amerik. [*'ʃi:kə:ɡəʊ*]. — *pay-rolls* Lohngehälter, Gehälter. — Z. 29. *Works Progress Administration* In dem ursprünglichen NIRA law (= National Industrial Recovery Act), dem Hauptgesetz des Roosevelt'schen New Deal, war auch eine Summe von \$ 3300000000 vorgesehen für Arbeitsbeschaffung (*Public Works Administration* = PWA.). Neben der Finanzierung von Staatsaufgaben, wie der Schutz der staatlichen Forsten (600000000 acres) und Aufforstung von Ödland (558000000 trees) durch das *Civilian Conservation Corps* (CCC.) wurden aus diesen staatlichen Mitteln die Mittel der gemeindlichen Ämter

für Arbeitsbeschaffung verstärkt. — Z. 29. City's appropriation for relief = die im Jahre 1938 von der Stadt (Chicago) für Arbeitslosenunterstützung ausgeworfenen Mittel. — Z. 38. nonresidents Nichtansässige. — Z. 40. Illinois State Employment Service staatliches Arbeitsamt von Illinois. — Z. 41. job openings Eröffnung neuer Arbeitsmöglichkeiten.

Seite 85. Z. 7. case workers Bearbeiter der Frage (= des Arbeitslosenelends). — Z. 8. clinic section Medizinische Abteilung. — Council Social Agency Kreiswohlfahrtsamt. — Z. 11. sample [sɑ:mpəl] Probe, Muster. — Z. 13. to lay off (amerik.) entlassen. — Z. 20. major ['meidʒə] größere. — Z. 28. supervision [sju:pə'vi:zən] Aufsicht, Kontrolle. — Z. 33. tuberculosis [tjuba:kju'lousis] Tuberkulose, Schwindsucht. — Z. 41. undersized ['ʌndə'saizəd] im Wachstum zurückgeblieben.

Seite 86. Z. 3. relief line Schlange (von Menschen) vor der Kasse des Amtes für Arbeitslosenunterstützung. — Z. 4. stomach hemorrhage ['stʌmək 'hemərɪdʒ] Magenblutung; Blutsturz. — Z. 5. diet ['daɪət] Ernährung, Kost.

## 11. A New America?

Seite 86. Z. 16. period of transition ['piəriəd əv træn'si:zən] Übergangszeit. — Z. 17. empiricism [em'pɪrɪsɪzəm] Empirismus = Handeln und Denken auf Grund der Erfahrung. — dynamics [daɪ'næmɪks] Kräftespiel. — Z. 18. evidence Beweis, Zeugnis. — Z. 20. intriguing [ɪn'trɪ:ɡɪŋ] ränkevoll, fesselnd, interessant. — Z. 23. trade cycle der regelmäßige Wechsel zwischen wirtschaftlichem Aufschwung (prosperity; boom) und wirtschaftlichem Niedergang (depression; slump). — cure [kjʊə] Kur, Genesung. — Z. 30. to grope for [gru:p] im Dunkeln tappen nach. — Z. 36. pertinent treffend; gehörig; angebracht.

Seite 87. Z. 3. to jettison ['dʒetɪsən] über Bord werfen. — Z. 6. Dum vitant stulti vitia in contraria currunt Während die Narren auszuweichen suchen, eilen die Übelstände (= Plutokratenherrschaft) der entgegengesetzten Richtung (Kommunismus) zu.

\*KSIEGARNIA\*

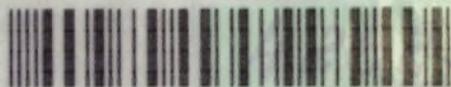
ANTYKWARIAT



687248 E

Wojewódzka Biblioteka  
Publiczna w Opolu

4262 S



001-004262-00-0

Sygn. 311 001