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THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Introductory Survey

Location, Climate, Language, Religion, Flag, Capital

The United States of America comprises mainly the North American continent between Canada and Mexico. Alaska, to the north-west of Canada, and Hawaii, in the central Pacific Ocean, are two of the 50 States of the USA. There is considerable climatic variation, with mean annual average temperatures ranging from 29°C (77°F) in Florida to -13.3°C (10°F) in Alaska. Annual rainfall averages 735 mm (29 in), ranging from 1,640 mm (64.6 in) in Alabama to 106 mm (4.2 in) in Nevada. Much of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada and Utah is desert. The language is English, although there are significant Spanish-speaking minorities. Christianity is the predominant religion. The national flag (proportions 19 by 10) has 13 alternating stripes (seven red and six white) with a dark blue rectangular canton, containing 50 white five-pointed stars, in the upper hoist. The capital is Washington, DC.

Recent History

The threat of communist advances in Asia led the USA to provide most of the support required by UN forces in the Korean War of 1950-53 and to President Kennedy's promise in 1961 to aid the South Vietnamese. Following Kennedy's assassination in 1963, his successor, Lyndon Johnson, increased the scale of US involvement in Viet Nam. The growing unpopularity of the war and the transfer of the presidency in 1969 to Richard Nixon, a Republican, who was re-elected in 1972, resulted in 1973 in the withdrawal of US troops from Viet Nam. A series of scandals involving the presidency and senior administration officials on charges of corruption and obstruction of justice, known as the 'Watergate' affair, eventually led to Nixon's resignation in August 1974 and his replacement by the Vice-President, Gerald Ford.

In November 1976 Jimmy Carter, a Democrat, was elected President. The new administration took the initiative on several foreign policy issues, including attempts to solve the impasse in the Middle East, which culminated in the signing in 1979 of a peace treaty between Egypt and Israel. In 1978 the USA severed formal links with Taiwan and established diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China. Domestically, economic recession and inflation preoccupied the Carter administration, and in 1979 Carter's political popularity was affected by his failure to implement effective measures against a domestic energy crisis, caused by a shortage of crude oil imports, resulting from events in the Middle East. Carter's management of the economy was a decisive factor in his defeat by the Republican candidate, Ronald Reagan, in the 1980 presidential election. The Republicans also secured control of the Senate, although the Democrats retained a majority in the House of Representatives.

The conservative orientation of the Reagan administration was expressed domestically in a programme aimed at transferring to the individual states the financial responsibility for many federal social programmes, while expanding expenditure on defence. Despite problems of severe economic recession and high unemployment, the Republicans retained their previous level of congressional representation in the November 1982 elections. With the resumption of economic growth in 1983, and its strong resurgence through 1984, unemployment and inflation fell, and in November Reagan was re-elected for a further four-year term, securing the largest majority of electoral votes in US history. The Republicans maintained a majority in the Senate, with the House of Representatives remaining in the Democrats' hands.

In foreign affairs, the Reagan administrations generally pursued a firmly anti-communist line, notably in their active support of right-wing regimes in Latin America, where the US military occupation of Grenada in November 1983 attracted considerable international criticism, and in Africa and the Middle East. Generally friendly relations were, however, maintained with the People's Republic of China. Relations with the USSR followed an uneven course. The change of leadership in the USSR in November 1982 was followed by a period of deterioration in contacts between the two countries.

Negotiations, held in Geneva, between the USA and the USSR on the reduction of medium-range missiles proved unsuccessful and were terminated by the USSR in November 1983. Formal disarmament talks, which coincided with the assumption of leadership in the USSR by Mikhail Gorbachev, were eventually resumed in Geneva in March 1985. Their subsequent course, as well as that of US-Soviet relations generally, was overshadowed by President Reagan's pursuit of his Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI). Initiated in 1983, this advanced technology research programme aimed to create a space based system of defences against nuclear attack. The Reagan Government consistently refused to negotiate the termination of SDI, although it offered to share these research findings with the USSR, which viewed the programme as a potential source of arms escalation and a first step in the militarization of space.

In November 1985 Reagan and Gorbachev held a summit meeting in Geneva. While no agreements were reached on major arms control issues, the talks established a cordial framework of relations between the two leaders. Agreements were concluded on a number of other matters, including the prohibition of the manufacture and stockpiling of chemical weapons, the sharing of research on the sun as an energy source, and the resumption of US-Soviet cultural exchanges, which were sharply curtailed by the US Government following Soviet military intervention in Afghanistan in 1979.

During 1985 and 1986, US foreign policy continued to focus on the support of anti-communist activism in areas experiencing political and military unrest. In May 1985 a trade embargo was imposed against Nicaragua, although the President experienced difficulties in securing congressional funds on a regular basis for the support of the Nicaraguan Contras (anti-government insurgents). In Africa, the Reagan administration provided support for guerrilla forces opposing the Angolan Government, which was continued despite the 1988 accord reached by Angola, Cuba and South Africa over Namibian independence, in which the USA acted as an unofficial mediator and which provided for the withdrawal of Cuban troops from Angola. In 1985 President Reagan opposed the imposition of economic sanctions against the South African Government, but in 1986 his veto was overturned by Congress.

The USA has adopted a forceful stance (generally welcomed by other Western governments) on international air and sea terrorism, although certain acts of intervention, such as the interception in October 1985 by US military aircraft of an Egyptian airliner carrying alleged Palestinian maritime hijackers, led to a temporary breach of friendly relations with Egypt and Italy. A ban on trade with Libya, which President Reagan alleged to be promoting terrorist activity, met with little support from other Western countries in 1985. In March 1986 US and Libyan forces came into armed conflict during the course of US naval manoeuvres in the Gulf of Sirte. In April, following a terrorist outrage against US military personnel in West Berlin, President Reagan ordered the selective bombing of government offices and military installations in Tripoli and Benghazi. Direct US military involvement in the Middle East, which had been minimized since its withdrawal in 1984 from peace-keeping operations in Lebanon, was reactivated in July 1987, when Reagan agreed to a request by Kuwait to provide military protection for its petroleum tankers in the Persian (Arabian) Gulf, following attacks on them by Iran. Subsequent incidents in the Gulf brought the USA and Iran into armed confrontations. In April 1988 the USA was a signatory, with the USSR, Afghanistan and Pakistan, of an agreement for the phased withdrawal of Soviet troops from Afghanistan, which was completed in February 1989.

Negotiations on the issue of arms control were maintained between the USA and the USSR during 1986. In October Reagan and Gorbachev met for a two-day summit conference in Reykjavik, Iceland. The meeting made some headway in delineating long-range nuclear weapon limitations and verification procedures, but achieved little progress overall because of Reagan's refusal to scale down the US commitment to SDI research. In November the USA abandoned the weapon

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deployment limits set by the 1979 Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty (SALT II), which, although never ratified by Congress, had been informally observed by both the USA and the USSR. In March 1987, however, the US Government responded favourably to an indication by the USSR that it was willing to expedite an agreement to eliminate medium-range nuclear missiles from Europe by 1992.

These discussions, which were subsequently extended to include short-range nuclear weaponry, resulted, in September 1987, in an agreement in principle on terms under which both countries would eliminate all stocks of medium- and short-range nuclear missiles. The resultant Intermediate Nuclear Forces (INF) treaty, the first to terminate an entire class of offensive nuclear weapon, was formally signed by Reagan and Gorbachev at a summit meeting held in Washington, DC, in December. The two leaders also agreed to pursue negotiations towards a new Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START) to reduce long-range nuclear weaponry by up to 50%, and a further summit conference took place in Moscow in May-June 1988 at which the INF treaty was ratified and activated. Some initial progress was made towards finalizing terms for START. The USSR, however, continued to oppose the further advancement of SDI, whose future had become increasingly conjectural: the US Congress proved reluctant to allocate its high funding requirements, and during 1988 and 1989 expressed doubts about the feasibility of the project's goals. The USSR, while maintaining its objections to SDI, agreed in February 1990 to exclude it from the ambit of negotiations on START.

In November 1986 details were disclosed, in the press, of covert foreign policy operations by senior members of the Reagan administration in relation to US contacts with the Government of Iran. The ensuing scandal, known as the 'Iran-gate' or 'Iran-Contra' affair, developed into a major political embarrassment, bringing into question the credibility and competence of the President. Subsequent investigations by an independent commission, and by the US Congress, concluded that secret arms sales had been made to the Government of Iran, in return for an undertaking by Iran to help to secure the release of US hostages held by pro-Iranian Islamic groups in Lebanon, and that Reagan had been misled by officials of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and the National Security Council (NSC) into authorizing the arms transactions, and bypassing the required congressional consultative procedures. It was also determined that considerable evidence existed to support allegations that between \$10m. and \$30m., derived from the arms sales, had been secretly diverted into bank accounts held by the Nicaraguan Contra rebels. Reagan, who accepted full personal responsibility for the 'Iran-Contra' affair, was exonerated of any deliberate attempt to misrepresent his role in the events. The closing months of Reagan's presidency were clouded by further political embarrassments, which included the resignation of the Attorney-General, who had been under judicial investigation for alleged ethical conflicts arising from his personal business interests.

The competence and integrity of the Reagan administration formed a major theme of the 1988 presidential election campaign of the Democratic candidate, Michael Dukakis. Vice-President George Bush, the Republican nominee, who based his campaign on Reagan's record of management of the economy and conduct of foreign affairs, was elected to the presidency, although the Senate and House of Representatives both retained Democratic majorities. The initial months of the Bush administration were dominated by concern over the formulation of effective measures to contain the federal budget deficit, and over the future course of arms reduction negotiations with the USSR. In June 1989, following an agreement to resume START discussions, President Bush proposed the initiation of new negotiations aimed at achieving substantial reductions in NATO and Warsaw Pact countries' conventional ground forces in Europe. In September the USA and USSR finalized agreements on the monitoring of chemical weapons and procedures for the verification of limits on strategic forces and nuclear tests. A summit meeting between Bush and Gorbachev followed at Valletta, Malta, in December, where further progress was made on proposals for the eventual total elimination of chemical weapons. This meeting, which was declared by both leaders to have marked the opening of a new era in US-Soviet relations, examined prospects for new agreements by the mid-1990s for reductions of 50% in nuclear strategic arms, together with substantial reductions in the size of conventional forces based in Europe. In addition to disarmament issues, the two

leaders discussed developments in Eastern Europe (see below), confirmed the termination of US aid to the Nicaraguan Contras, and proposed the strengthening of US-Soviet bilateral trade.

The withdrawal by the USSR in late 1989 and early 1990 from the exercise of direct political influence on the internal affairs of the countries of Eastern Europe was accompanied by a further improvement in US-Soviet relations, and by the implementation of programmes of US economic aid for several of the former Soviet 'client' states. In September 1990 the USA and USSR, with France and the United Kingdom, the other powers that occupied Germany at the end of the Second World War, formally agreed terms for the unification of the two post-war German states, which took effect in the following month. US-Soviet relations came under some strain, however, following the assertion by Lithuania of independence from the Soviet Union and subsequent Soviet measures to blockade the Lithuanian economy. This issue was included in discussions at a second summit meeting between Bush and Gorbachev, held in May-June in Washington, DC, at which the two leaders expressed confidence that further arms limitation agreements would be finalized during 1990. A trade accord favouring Soviet economic interests was signed, although its implementation by the US Government was made subject to a liberalization of Soviet emigration laws. In July the USA, together with the world's six largest industrial democracies, agreed to provide the USSR with economic and technical assistance in undertaking a change-over to a market economy. In the same month, a summit meeting of NATO members proposed that the USSR and the other members of the Warsaw Pact alliance join in a formal declaration that the two military groupings were no longer adversaries and would refrain from the threat or use of force. This initiative was followed in November by the signing in Paris, by members of NATO and the Warsaw Pact, of a Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE), which provided for bilateral limits to be placed on the number of non-nuclear weapons sited between the Atlantic Ocean and the Ural Mountains. Immediately following the signing of the CFE Treaty, Presidents Bush and Gorbachev were present at a meeting of the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE), at which the USA, the USSR and 32 other countries signed a charter declaring the end of the post-war era of confrontation and division in Europe. The signatories also undertook to conduct their future relations on the basis of 'respect and co-operation'. The charter provided for the establishment of a CSCE secretariat and the convening of regular bi-annual meetings of heads of state and government, with effect from 1992. A further meeting of the CFE Treaty signatories, to begin negotiations on specific weapon reductions, was held in February 1991. Although US-Soviet relations maintained a generally cordial tone during 1990 and early 1991, there was disquiet in the USA over President Gorbachev's opposition to independence movements in Estonia and Latvia, as well as Lithuania, together with wider unease that many of Gorbachev's earlier reforms remained vulnerable to political change and unrest within the USSR.

In September 1989 President Bush outlined the terms of a federal programme aimed at combating drug abuse, which in recent years had become a serious social problem in the USA. The initiative received co-operation from the governments of Bolivia, Colombia and Peru, but the activities of drugs-traffickers operating from Panama, allegedly with the collusion of the regime controlled by Gen. Manuel Noriega (who was sought for trial in the USA on drugs-trafficking charges), had been unaffected by US sanctions, in operation since 1988. In September 1989 the USA broke off diplomatic relations with Panama, and in the following month an internal coup attempt, carried out with non-military US support, was suppressed by the Panamanian authorities. On 20 December, following incidents involving US personnel, the USA sent in 23,000 troops with the stated objectives of protecting US residents in Panama, safeguarding the Panama Canal, restoring democratic government and bringing Noriega to face trial in the USA. The invasion, which was condemned by the UN Security Council, installed an elected government and eventually apprehended Noriega, after some delay, in January 1990. US troops were withdrawn in February, and relations with Panama were normalized in April. In Nicaragua the departure of the Sandinista government, as the result of a general election held in February 1990, was followed by the resumption of cordial relations with the US Government.

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During 1990 the Bush administration pursued domestic policy reforms in a number of areas, particularly in education and banking, although considerable delay was encountered in obtaining congressional approval for the federal budget, in which tax increases formed an unpopular part of measures aimed at containing persistently heavy deficits. At legislative elections held in November, there was no change in the Republicans' control of the Senate, while the Democrats retained a majority in the House of Representatives. President Bush's political popularity, however, was considerably enhanced by his management of the US involvement in an unexpected conflict in the Middle East.

Following the invasion of Kuwait by Iraqi forces on 2 August 1990, and the subsequent annexation of that country by Iraq, the US Government assumed a leading international role in the implementation of political, economic and military measures to bring about an Iraqi withdrawal. The imposition of mandatory economic sanctions against Iraq by the UN Security Council on 6 August was quickly followed by 'Operation Desert Shield', in which US combat troops and aircraft were dispatched to Saudi Arabia, at that country's request, to secure its borders against a possible attack by Iraq. Tensions were heightened in mid-August by Iraq's detention of Western nationals resident in Kuwait and Iraq, and the harassment of Western diplomatic personnel in Kuwait. An offer, subsequently repeated, by President Saddam Hussain of Iraq to link withdrawal from Kuwait with a resolution of other outstanding Middle Eastern problems, was rejected, and in late August the UN Security Council endorsed the use of military action to enforce its economic sanctions. Despite intense diplomatic activity, in which the USSR was prominent, the crisis deepened. On 9 September Presidents Bush and Gorbachev held an emergency summit meeting in Helsinki, Finland, and jointly demanded an Iraqi withdrawal, although the USSR expressed reluctance to support military operations by the UN. In late September the UN Security Council intensified its economic measures against Iraq. However, the ineffectiveness both of economic sanctions and of diplomatic negotiation had become evident by late November, and the USSR gave its assent to the use of force against Iraq, although it did not participate in the multinational force that was now arrayed in the Gulf region and included, under US command, air, sea and ground forces from the United Kingdom, France, Italy, Egypt, Morocco, Kuwait and the other Arab Gulf states. Jordan, which was active throughout the crisis in seeking to promote a negotiated settlement, was perceived by the US Government as sympathetic to Iraq, and US financial aid programmes to that country were suspended.

On 29 November 1990 the UN Security Council authorized the use of 'all necessary means' to force Iraq to withdraw from Kuwait, unless it did so by 15 January 1991. By early January, US troop deployment in the Gulf region exceeded 430,000 ground troops, together with 1,300 fighter and support aircraft, 2,000 tanks and 55 warships. An unsuccessful meeting between the US Secretary of State and the Iraqi Minister of Foreign Affairs, on 9 January, was followed, three days later, by the US Congress's adoption of motions authorizing President Bush to initiate armed action against Iraq, and on 17 January 'Operation Desert Storm' was launched, with massive air and missile attacks against Iraqi positions, both in Iraq and Kuwait. (For a detailed account of military operations, see *Recent History of Iraq*, p. 1471.) In the course of the conflict, more than 110,000 attacking air missions were flown over Kuwait and Iraq by multinational air forces, while naval support operations were conducted from the Gulf. In the following weeks, severe damage was inflicted on Iraqi military and economic targets, while counter-attacks by its air force, and attempts to draw Israel into the conflict by launching missile attacks on population centres, proved ineffective. A ground offensive by the multinational force was launched on 23-24 February, and Iraqi positions were quickly overrun. Hostilities were suspended on 28 February. The Government of Iraq accepted cease-fire terms on 3 March, leaving the multinational forces in control of Kuwait, together with an area of southern Iraq, comprising about 15% of that country's total national territory. Troop withdrawals from the occupied area of Iraq commenced in March, with the remaining US troops evacuated in early May, to be replaced by a UN peace-keeping force. A US military presence was, however, maintained within Kuwait, at the request of that country's Government. In late 1991 the US military presence in the Gulf numbered 35,000 troops.

Following the conclusion of hostilities, in which 148 US troops died in combat, internal rebellions broke out within Iraq by groups opposed to President Saddam Hussain. The severity with which these were suppressed, particularly in the northern region among the Kurdish ethnic group, and the subsequent flight of refugees into neighbouring areas of Turkey and Iran, prompted large-scale international relief operations, as well as widespread criticism of the US Government for its refusal to support the anti-government insurgents and to take action to depose Saddam Hussain. In May 1991 the USA responded by airlifting troops to northern Iraq to establish 'safe' enclaves, to which Kurdish refugees were encouraged to return. The US military continued to monitor events in these Kurdish areas from operational bases in Turkey.

In the period following the Gulf War, the US Government actively pursued initiatives to convene a regional conference, under joint US and Soviet sponsorship, to seek a permanent solution to the wider problems of the Middle East. In early August 1991 the US Secretary of State, James Baker, obtained the agreement of Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon and Syria to take part in such a conference, the opening session of which was convened in Madrid, Spain, in October. Successive negotiating sessions failed to make any substantive progress, and traditionally close relations between Israel and the USA subsequently came under strain, following pressure by the US Government on Israel to suspend the construction of Jewish settlements in occupied territories, pending the eventual outcome of the peace negotiations.

During the second half of 1991 concern at the implications of economic dislocation and political unrest within the USSR was the dominant preoccupation of US foreign policy. In June President Bush offered the USSR guarantees of up to \$1,500m. in loans for grain purchases, together with assistance in restructuring the Soviet food distribution system. In the following month Presidents Bush and Gorbachev met at an international economic conference in London, when further assistance was promised by the leaders of the major industrial democracies. In late July the USA and USSR signed START, providing for a 30% reduction in long-range nuclear weapons over a seven-year period. Further moves towards bilateral disarmament followed in September, when the USA announced that it was to begin the phased elimination of sea and air tactical nuclear weapons in Europe and Asia; in October the USSR offered to reduce its holdings of nuclear weapons to below the levels agreed in START.

The advancing prospect of the political dissolution of the USSR prompted President Bush, on a visit to the Ukraine in August 1991, to promise US support for Soviet republics pursuing policies of democratic and economic reform. In September the newly-independent Baltic republics were granted modest economic aid, and in the same month the USA and USSR discontinued military assistance to rival guerrilla factions in Afghanistan. Worsening economic conditions within the USSR during December led the US Government to provide an additional \$100m. in humanitarian aid, and airlifts of food by military aircraft to Russian cities.

In December 1991, following the replacement of the USSR by the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) comprising 11 of the republics of the former Soviet Union, the independence of each republic was recognized by the USA, although diplomatic relations were initially established with only five republics, on the grounds that the remainder had yet to achieve acceptable standards of democratic practices and human rights guarantees. In January 1992 a meeting was held between President Bush and President Yeltsin of Russia, the dominant republic within the CIS. President Bush expressed concern that effective measures should be taken by the Russian Government to ensure that the nuclear weapons and related technical expertise of the former USSR did not become available to countries not in possession of nuclear weapons capability, or to nations in the Middle East or to the Democratic People's Republic of Korea. At a subsequent meeting held in February, the Russian leader assured President Bush that immediate safeguards were in force, and that all short-range nuclear warheads would be moved into Russia from sites in other CIS republics by July 1992. President Yeltsin also proposed that the USA and Russia should share in the joint future development of the SDI project (see above), and further reductions in nuclear arsenals were agreed by the two leaders. In the following months the USA continued to assist Russia and the other CIS members to achieve political and economic inte-

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gration within the international community, and actively supported an application by Russia to join the International Monetary Fund. In May 1992 the US Government announced that it would participate in a multinational aid programme for Russia of \$24,000m. Concern remained, however, at the potential global dangers if Russian controls on nuclear weapons movements should prove ineffective.

At a summit meeting held between Presidents Bush and Yeltsin in June 1992 in Washington, DC, agreement was reached on further substantial reductions in nuclear arms, under which, by the year 2003, total holdings of nuclear warheads would be reduced to less than one-half of the quotas contained in START. Agreements covering other areas of co-operation, including the encouragement of US private-sector investment in Russia, arrangements for mutual assistance in the event of accidents in space, and the outline of a joint ballistic missiles protection system, were also signed.

In its relations with the former communist countries in Europe, the USA augmented its commitment to the CSCE with economic support, and promoted the membership of former members of the Warsaw Pact in the North Atlantic Co-operation Council, an offshoot of NATO. Contacts were also revived between the USA and Viet-Nam, and in May 1992 there was a partial relaxation of a 19-year trade embargo. Relations with Iraq remained tense following the discovery, made in November 1991 by UN representatives, that President Saddam Hussain's regime was seeking to conceal its continuing development of nuclear weapons capability. In November 1991 the US Government indicated that it had not excluded the possibility of military intervention in Libya to secure the extradition for trial in Britain of two Libyan nationals accused of complicity in the bombing of a US passenger aircraft, with heavy loss of life, in December 1988.

Following the conclusion of the Gulf War in early 1991, Bush's political popularity began to decline sharply, amid growing public perception that the Government was assigning greater priority to foreign affairs than to addressing the problems of the US economy, which had been in recession since early 1989. Criticism was also directed at the administration's alleged neglect of other domestic issues, particularly in the areas of social welfare, medical costs and health care, and the increasingly interrelated issues of urban poverty and civil rights. In 1990 Bush vetoed legislation providing financial compensation for those victimized by discrimination in employment, although a compromise version was eventually approved in November 1991. In April 1992 serious rioting broke out in Los Angeles and spread briefly to several other cities. The underlying causes of the disorders were widely ascribed to the worsening economic and social plight of the impoverished urban black minority. An outbreak of rioting in New York in July prompted a congressional proposal to provide \$27,000m. in long-term urban aid, but this plan was vetoed by President Bush, following the November elections, on the grounds that it would be adverse to the interests of small businesses and urban workers, and would violate fiscal discipline.

The 1992 presidential election campaign, in which Bush was opposed by Bill Clinton, a Democrat state governor, and Ross Perot, a populist independent, was dominated by domestic social and economic issues. The problems of health care, urban crime and the legal status of abortion were major topics of debate, although Bush's record of economic management, particularly in relation to the persistence of federal budget deficits, provided the major line of attack by the opposing candidates. The perception of the electorate that the Bush presidency had neglected urgent domestic problems in its concentration on foreign affairs proved to be the decisive factor in the election: the turn-out of voters, at 55.2%, was the highest at any presidential election since 1968, and gave a decisive majority, of 43.0% to 37.4%, to Bill Clinton. Perot, whose campaign had concentrated on the question of federal deficit spending, obtained almost 19% of the popular vote.

Foreign relations remained in the forefront of the final months of the Bush administration. In July 1992 contention arose between the Government of Iraq and the UN over the rights of UN observers to inspect Iraqi nuclear facilities, and in the following month the US Government sought to limit internal military operations by the Iraqi Government by imposing an air exclusion zone south of latitude 32°N. This was followed, in January 1993, by the US air force's participation in selective bombings of Iraqi missile sites. In December 1992 relations with the People's Republic of China, which had been

strained since 1989 by the Chinese Government's persistent suppression of political dissent, were revived by the removal of a US embargo on sales of military equipment. In the same month President Bush launched 'Operation Restore Hope', under which 24,000 US troops were sent to Somalia, as part of an international force under US command, to protect shipments of food aid and to assist in the restoration of civil order.

Shortly before the transfer of the presidency to Bill Clinton in January 1993, Presidents Bush and Yeltsin met in Moscow to sign a second Nuclear Arms Reduction Treaty (START II), which provided for the elimination by 2003 of almost 75% of all US and CIS-held nuclear warheads. The implementation, however, of START I and START II cannot begin until Belarus, Kazakhstan and Ukraine, the other former republics of the USSR which hold stocks of nuclear weapons, have endorsed START I. By June 1993 only Ukraine had not granted such ratification. In the previous month President Clinton announced the termination of SDI.

The initial preoccupation of the Clinton administration was with the formulation of an economic recovery plan, aimed at achieving reductions of \$500,000m. over a five-year period, in the federal budget deficit by means of increased taxation and economies in the cost of government, rather than by reduced levels of federal spending. Military expenditure was a particular area in which economies were proposed, while additional spending was planned for infrastructural projects and measures to stimulate economic activity. A major restructuring of the US health care system was also planned, and a commission to formulate proposals was placed under the chairmanship of President Clinton's wife. Certain aspects of the economic recovery plan, particularly those relating to higher income tax and a new energy tax, encountered initial opposition in the Democrat-controlled Congress, but were eventually approved, in a modified form, by the House of Representatives in May 1993. Approval by the Senate, following further amendments, took place in late June. By mid-1993, however, the President's initial popularity had fallen sharply, owing in part to perceptions of indecisiveness by Clinton in formulating effective policies. There was also widespread criticism of the competence of some of his appointees and advisers.

In April 1993 President Clinton met President Yeltsin at a summit conference held in Vancouver, Canada, at which the USA undertook to provide \$1,600m. of emergency short term aid in technical assistance, food and medical supplies. In the following month the USA transferred command of operations in Somalia to the UN, although about 4,000 US troops remained as part of the peace-keeping operation. In June the US led air attacks against the Somali military faction led by Gen. Aidid. By mid-1993 the crisis in former Yugoslavia had assumed increased importance as a foreign policy issue, leading to disagreements between the USA and the Western European powers, which opposed US proposals to launch direct air strikes against military positions held by Bosnian Serbs. In the Middle East the Clinton administration renewed the initiatives taken by President Bush in promoting a settlement between the Arab states and Israel. In late June the US Government launched a missile attack against the headquarters of Iraqi military intelligence in Baghdad, in retaliation for an alleged plot by Iraq to assassinate ex-President Bush in Kuwait in April.

Government

The USA is a federal republic. Each of the 50 constituent states and the District of Columbia exercises a measure of internal self-government. Defence, foreign affairs, coinage, posts, the higher levels of justice, and internal security are the responsibility of the federal government. The President is head of the executive and is elected for a four-year term by a college of representatives elected directly from each state. The President appoints the other members of the executive, subject to the consent of the Senate. The Congress is the seat of legislative power and consists of the Senate (100 members) and the House of Representatives (435 members). Two senators are chosen by direct election in each state, to serve a six-year term, and one-third of the membership is renewable every two years. Representatives are elected by direct and universal suffrage for a two-year term. The number of representatives of each state in Congress is determined by the state's population. Ultimate judicial power is vested in the Supreme Court, which has the power to disallow legislation and to overturn executive actions which it deems unconstitutional.

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Statistical Summary

INTERNATIONAL RESERVES (\$ million at 31 October)

	1990	1991	1992†
US gold stock*	11,060	11,059	11,000
IMF Special Drawing Rights	10,876	10,710	11,560
Reserve position in the IMF	9,066	9,065	9,260
Foreign exchange	51,850	43,674	42,330
Total	82,852	74,508	74,210

* Valued at \$42.2222 per troy ounce.

† Source: IMF, *International Financial Statistics* (figures are rounded to the nearest \$10 million).

CURRENCY AND COIN IN CIRCULATION*

(\$ million at 31 March)

	1990	1991	1992
Total	257,664	286,675	303,215

* Currency outside Treasury and Federal Reserve banks, including currency held by commercial banks.

Source: Financial Management Service, US Department of the Treasury.

COST OF LIVING (Consumer Price Index for all urban consumers, average of monthly figures, Base: 1982-84 = 100)

	1990	1991	1992
Food and beverages	132.1	136.8	138.7
Housing	128.5	133.6	137.5
Rent	140.0	146.3	151.2
House ownership	144.6	150.2	155.3
Fuel and other utilities	111.6	115.3	117.8
Furnishings and maintenance	113.3	116.0	118.0
Clothes and upkeep	124.1	128.7	131.9
Transport	120.5	123.8	126.5
Medical care	162.8	177.0	190.1
Entertainment	132.4	138.4	142.3
Other goods and services	159.0	171.6	183.3
All items	130.7	136.2	140.3

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, US Department of Labor.

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS

National Income and Product (\$ million at current prices)

	1989	1990	1991*
Compensation of employees	3,115,476	3,307,213	3,407,000
Operating surplus	1,039,776	1,048,277	1,021,579
Domestic factor incomes	4,155,252	4,355,490	4,428,579
Consumption of fixed capital	662,612	687,571	714,665
Statistical discrepancy	1,032	5,377	21,822
Gross domestic product (GDP) at factor cost	4,818,896	5,048,438	5,165,066
Indirect taxes	414,691	444,193	475,215
Less Subsidies	29,078	27,836	29,481
GDP in purchasers' values	5,204,509	5,464,795	5,610,800
Factor income received from abroad	157,490	160,590	143,464
Less Factor income paid abroad	133,850	131,543	116,782
Gross national product (GNP)	5,228,149	5,493,842	5,637,482
Less Consumption of fixed capital	662,612	687,571	714,665
National income in market prices	4,565,537	4,806,271	4,922,817
Other current transfers received from abroad	4,300	9,038	47,141
Less Other current transfers paid abroad	29,949	37,076	34,292
National disposable income	4,539,888	4,778,233	4,935,666

* Preliminary.

Expenditure on the Gross Domestic Product (\$ million at current prices)

	1989	1990	1991*
Government final consumption expenditure	916,832	975,725	1,023,200
Private final consumption expenditure	3,420,469	3,933,800	3,762,810
Increase in stocks	34,980	11,754	7,200
Gross fixed capital formation	920,556	920,587	862,178
Total domestic expenditure	5,291,837	5,541,866	5,641,388
Exports of goods and services	500,380	548,832	589,118
Less Imports of goods and services	587,708	625,903	619,972
GDP in purchasers' values	5,204,509	5,464,795	5,610,800
GDP at constant 1985 prices	4,543,860	4,580,732	4,528,080

* Preliminary.

Gross Domestic Product by Economic Activity* ('000 million at current prices)

	1988	1989	1990
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	90.8	104.8	111.0
Mining and quarrying	87.9	84.2	88.5
Manufacturing	961.0	1,004.6	1,018.3
Electricity, gas and water†	143.4	154.5	160.1
Construction	227.6	235.9	241.1
Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	847.9	903.4	920.5
Transport, storage and communications	298.8	308.8	321.0
Finance, insurance, real estate and business services‡	1,028.5	1,102.0	1,168.8
Community, social and personal services	658.1	724.0	790.0
Government enterprises	73.1	78.8	82.7
Producers of government services	511.7	548.7	591.7
Sub-total	4,928.8	5,249.7	5,510.8
Statistical discrepancy	-28.4	1.1	3.1
GDP in purchasers' values	4,900.4	5,250.8	5,513.9

* Figures are provisional. Revised totals (in \$ million) are: 4,850,392 in 1988; 5,204,509 in 1989; 5,464,795 in 1990.

† Including sanitary and similar services.

‡ After deducting imputed bank service charges.

Source (for all National Accounts tables): Bureau of Economic Analysis, US Department of Commerce.

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BALANCE OF PAYMENTS (\$ million)

	1990			1991		
	Credit	Debit	Net	Credit	Debit	Net
Merchandise trade (free alongside ship)	388,705	497,558	-108,853	415,962	489,398	-73,436
Military transactions	9,833	17,651	-7,818	10,691	16,215	-5,524
Travel and transport	81,500	71,358	10,142	88,009	70,891	17,118
Investment income	143,547	124,261	19,287	125,315	108,886	16,429
Other private services	56,636	25,655	30,981	64,243	29,138	35,105
Other government services	668	1,919	-1,251	693	2,097	-1,404
Total goods, services and income	680,890	738,401	-57,511	704,914	716,624	-11,710
Government grants (net)	—	17,597	-17,597	24,487	—	24,487
Other government transfers (net)	—	2,945	-2,945	—	3,462	-3,462
Private transfers (net)	—	12,374	-12,374	—	12,996	-12,996
Current balance (net)	—	90,428	-90,428	—	3,682	-3,682
US Government capital (net)	2,304	—	2,304	3,397	—	3,397
Direct private investments	45,137	32,694	12,443	11,497	27,135	-15,638
US Treasury securities (net)*	—	2,534	-2,534	18,241	—	18,241
Other securities	1,592	28,765	-27,173	34,918	45,017	-10,099
Other capital (net)	26,268	—	26,268	—	13,310	-13,310
Statistical discrepancy	47,370	—	47,370	—	1,078	-1,078
Capital balance (net)	58,678	—	58,678	—	20,487	-20,487
Total balance (net monetary movements)	—	31,750	31,750	—	24,170	-24,170

* Excluding foreign official assets.

Note: Details may not add to totals because of rounding.

Source: Bureau of Economic Analysis, US Department of Commerce.

INTERNATIONAL INVESTMENTS (\$ million at 31 December)

	1989	1990	1991*
US assets abroad:			
US official reserve assets†	168,714	174,664	159,223
Gold†	105,164	102,406	92,561
SDRst	9,951	10,989	11,240
Reserve position in the IMF†	9,048	9,076	9,488
Foreign currencies†	44,551	52,198	45,934
US Government assets, other than official reserve assets	84,207	82,230	78,729
US loans and other long-term assets†	84,225	81,787	77,355
US foreign currency holdings and US short-term assets	328	443	1,374
US private assets:			
Direct investments abroad	552,822	623,587	655,260
Foreign securities	220,865	241,748	305,886
US claims on unaffiliated foreigners reported by US non-banking concerns	106,052	109,821	104,447
US claims reported by US banks, n.i.e.	661,721	652,149	656,756
Foreign assets in the USA:			
Foreign official assets in the USA	337,277	371,101	396,607
US Government securities	265,708	296,971	318,018
Other US Government liabilities§	15,346	17,212	18,812
US liabilities reported by US banks, n.i.e.	36,495	39,830	38,361
Other foreign official assets	19,728	17,038	21,416
Other foreign assets in the USA:			
Direct investments in the USA	433,164	465,515	487,022
US Treasury securities	134,488	134,716	154,665
US securities other than US Treasury securities	484,418	471,888	559,655
US liabilities to unaffiliated foreigners reported by US non-banking concerns	40,549	45,379	43,761
US liabilities reported by US banks, n.i.e.	677,177	693,436	680,094

* Preliminary.

† US holdings of special drawing rights and the reserve position include changes in the SDR based on changes in a weighted average of exchange rates for selected national currencies.

‡ Also includes paid-in capital subscription to international financial institutions and outstanding amounts of miscellaneous claims that have been settled through international agreements to be payable to the US Government over periods in excess of one year. Excludes World War I debts that are not being serviced.

§ Includes, primarily, US Government liabilities associated with military sales contracts and other transactions arranged with or through foreign official agencies.

Source: Bureau of Economic Analysis, US Department of Commerce.

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INTERNATIONAL INVESTMENT INCOME, BY AREA (\$ million)

Area and type of investment	1989		1990		1991	
	Receipts	Payments	Receipts	Payments	Receipts	Payments
Total, all areas	140,692	126,326	143,547	124,261	125,315	108,880
Direct	54,490	6,643	55,428	1,083	49,221	3,075
Other private	80,567	83,827	77,612	85,308	67,990	78,775
US Government	5,635	35,856	10,508	37,870	8,104	38,086
Canada	13,687	3,186	11,732	3,308	10,529	2,177
Direct	6,475	865	4,665	-395	8,075	-1,841
Other private	7,185	2,742	7,042	2,755	7,433	2,806
US Government	27	1,599	25	1,448	21	1,192
Latin America and Other Western Hemisphere	35,070	27,736	32,096	29,359	30,723	26,538
Direct	9,332	284	9,379	-246	9,977	155
Other private	25,214	26,512	23,031	27,150	19,961	22,427
US Government	525	1,508	687	2,455	784	4,256
Western Europe	54,057	60,229	57,048	59,994	49,435	53,791
Direct	26,968	8,485	29,539	4,155	24,136	1,377
Other private	25,221	36,924	24,466	37,706	22,239	33,912
US Government	1,868	14,820	3,043	18,133	3,060	18,590
Other Countries*	37,877	34,875	41,671	31,100	34,628	26,391
Direct	11,715	703	11,845	-2,431	12,033	-3,054
Other private	22,947	17,649	23,078	17,697	18,357	14,500
US Government	3,215	17,929	6,753	15,834	4,239	14,948

* Including international organizations and unallocated transactions.

Source: Bureau of Economic Analysis, US Department of Commerce.

FOREIGN AID (\$ million)

	1989	1990	1991*
International Organizations	1,173	1,301	1,498
AIDB	7	19	-
AIDF	34	75	78
ADB	160	127	146
EBRD	-	-	36
IDB	97	90	74
Inter-American Investment Corp.	-	13	-
IBRD	23	61	72
IDA	852	842	1,051
IFC	-	75	40
Military and Non-Military Assistance	8,871	13,233	-30,545
Western Europe	-247	-58	-5,862
Germany	-1	-338	-6,117
Spain	-474	-122	-76
United Kingdom	-109	-111	-113
Eastern Europe	419	954	274
Poland	524	919	243
Near East and South Asia	4,442	6,675	-20,951
Afghanistan	76	57	59
Bangladesh	138	175	139
Egypt	2,085	4,977	6,315
Greece	306	282	-181
India	71	-8	59
Iraq	-16	-7	336
Israel	1,902	4,454	2,028
Jordan	162	139	37
Kuwait	-	-2,506	-13,550
Pakistan	-387	524	333
Saudi Arabia	-	-1,614	-13,913
Turkey	-91	367	865
United Arab Emirates	-	-361	-3,709
Africa	982	1,836	1,282
Algeria	-77	59	-42
Ethiopia	37	54	89
Kenya	56	110	81
Morocco	-5	95	75
Mozambique	48	80	76
Nigeria	44	156	34
Somalia	38	77	9
Sudan	118	145	88
Zaire	72	241	43
Far East and Pacific	408	-124	-9,181
Japan	-1	-635	-9,393
Korea, Repub.	-132	-192	-331
Philippines	338	566	385
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands†	157	52	18

-continued	1989	1990	1991
Americas	1,224	2,074	1,815
Bahamas	-2	-	-
Bolivia	131	116	176
Brazil	-202	260	22
Costa Rica	143	108	63
El Salvador	406	303	294
Guatemala	161	96	75
Haiti	76	53	67
Honduras	133	223	182
Jamaica	148	108	104
Mexico	-100	141	8
Nicaragua	-	100	382
Panama	8	102	118
Peru	36	87	80
Other International Organizations and Unspecified Areas	1,671	1,916	2,086

* Preliminary.

† Excludes transactions with the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands; includes transactions with the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of the Marshall Islands and the Republic of Palau.

Source: Bureau of Economic Analysis, US Department of Commerce.

External Trade

The customs territory of the USA includes Puerto Rico and the US Virgin Islands. Figures exclude trade with other US possessions.

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES (distribution by SITC, \$ million)

Imports f.o.b.	1991	1992
Food and live animals	21,936	22,611
Fish (not marine mammals), crustaceans, molluscs, etc., and preparations	5,638	5,617
Vegetables and fruit	5,391	5,698
Coffee, tea, cocoa, spices and preparations	3,347	3,212
Beverages and tobacco	4,819	5,389
Beverages	3,609	4,073
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	13,036	13,968
Cork and wood	3,057	3,970
Metalliferous ores and metal scrap	3,561	3,323

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Imports f.o.b.—continued	1991	1992
Mineral fuels, lubricants, etc.	54,056	55,028
Petroleum, petroleum products, etc.	49,762	50,357
Gas (natural and manufactured)	3,497	3,662
Animal and vegetable oils, fats and waxes	850	1,074
Chemicals and related products	24,131	27,684
Chemical elements and compounds	11,429	12,666
Organic chemicals	8,133	9,366
Inorganic chemicals	3,296	3,300
Medicinal and pharmaceutical products	3,047	3,812
Basic manufactures	57,340	60,371
Rubber manufactures	3,334	3,729
Paper, paperboard and manufactures	8,021	7,998
Textile yarn, fabrics, etc.	6,981	7,840
Non-metallic mineral manufactures	9,678	10,170
Iron and steel	9,333	9,317
Non-ferrous metals	8,430	8,501
Other metal manufactures	8,834	9,496
Machinery and transport equipment	210,364	231,975
Non-electric machinery	73,079	82,821
Power-generating machinery and equipment	14,195	15,910
Machinery specialized for particular industries	10,864	11,826
Metalworking machinery	3,605	3,170
General industrial machinery, equipment and parts	14,396	15,522
Office machines and automatic data-processing machines	30,019	36,393
Electrical machinery, apparatus, etc.	58,513	65,547
Telecommunications and sound equipment	23,446	25,319
Transport equipment	78,773	83,607
Road vehicles (incl. air-cushion vehicles) and parts*	70,576	75,252
Motor cars and other motor vehicles for passengers (excl. buses)	45,722	46,894
Motor vehicles for goods transport, etc.	8,207	9,619
Parts and accessories for cars, buses, lorries, etc.*	14,418	16,193
Aircraft and spacecraft and parts*	7,393	7,406
Miscellaneous manufactured articles	83,332	95,009
Furniture and parts; bedding, mattresses, etc.	4,936	5,505
Clothing and accessories (excl. footwear)	26,202	31,242
Footwear	9,554	10,165
Professional, scientific and controlling instruments, etc.	6,783	7,504
Photographic apparatus, etc., optical goods, watches and clocks	7,469	7,921
Other commodities and transactions	17,266	19,217
Total	487,129	532,352

* Excluding tyres, engines and electrical parts.

Exports f.o.b.—continued	1991	1992
Mineral fuels, lubricants, etc.	12,287	11,198
Coal, coke and briquettes	4,781	4,326
Petroleum, petroleum products, etc.	6,770	6,066
Animal and vegetable oils, fats and waxes	1,151	1,453
Chemicals and related products	43,428	44,722
Chemical elements and compounds	15,185	15,399
Organic chemicals	11,044	11,141
Inorganic chemicals	4,141	4,258
Medicinal and pharmaceutical products	4,679	5,446
Plastics in primary forms	7,560	7,203
Basic manufactures	37,778	38,173
Paper, paperboard and manufactures	6,084	6,393
Textile yarn, fabrics, etc.	5,610	5,889
Non-metallic mineral manufactures	4,720	4,864
Iron and steel	4,457	3,556
Non-ferrous metals	5,822	5,075
Other metal manufactures	6,700	7,264
Machinery and transport equipment	200,089	215,017
Non-electric machinery	84,893	88,708
Power-generating machinery and equipment	17,368	18,454
Machinery specialized for particular industries	17,192	17,245
General industrial machinery, equipment and parts	17,567	18,876
Office machines and automatic data-processing machines	29,461	30,933
Electrical machinery, apparatus, etc.	45,376	49,751
Telecommunications and sound equipment	10,896	12,327
Transport equipment	70,321	76,558
Road vehicles (incl. air-cushion vehicles) and parts*	33,133	37,946
Motor cars and other motor vehicles for passengers (excl. buses)	12,277	14,392
Motor vehicles for goods transport, etc.	4,039	3,550
Parts and accessories for cars, buses, lorries, etc.*	14,799	17,038
Aircraft and spacecraft and parts*	35,483	36,594
Miscellaneous manufactured articles	46,730	51,276
Clothing and accessories (excl. footwear)	3,316	4,211
Professional, scientific and controlling instruments, etc.	14,062	14,944
Photographic apparatus, etc., optical goods, watches and clocks	4,247	4,338
Other commodities and transactions	17,106	18,969
Non-monetary gold (excl. gold ores and concentrates)	3,337	4,092
Total	421,730	447,471

* Excluding tyres, engines and electrical parts.

Exports f.o.b.	1991	1992
Food and live animals	30,489	33,793
Meat and meat preparations	3,653	4,228
Fish (not marine mammals), crustaceans, molluscs, etc., and preparations	3,181	3,486
Cereals and cereal preparations	10,927	12,206
Vegetables and fruit	5,908	6,265
Animal feeding-stuff (excl. unmilled cereals)	3,281	3,635
Beverages and tobacco	6,839	7,143
Tobacco and tobacco manufactures	6,028	6,177
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	25,832	25,727
Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits	4,320	4,804
Cork and wood	5,131	5,331
Pulp and waste paper	3,627	3,874
Textile fibres (excl. wool tops, etc.) and their wastes	3,704	3,114
Metalliferous ores and metal scrap	4,163	3,603

PRINCIPAL TRADING PARTNERS
(\$ million)

Imports f.o.b.	1990	1991	1992
Australia	4,447	3,988	3,692
Belgium	4,585*	3,929	4,479
Brazil	7,898	6,717	7,611
Canada	91,380	91,064	98,497
China, People's Repub.	15,237	18,969	25,729
Colombia	3,168	2,736	2,849
France	13,153	13,333	14,811
Germany	28,162†	26,136	28,829
Hong Kong	9,622	9,279	9,799
India	3,197	3,192	3,781
Indonesia	3,341	3,241	4,527
Israel	3,313	3,484	3,812
Italy	12,751	11,764	12,300
Japan	89,684	91,511	97,181
Korea, Repub.	18,485	17,019	16,091
Malaysia	5,272	6,102	8,294
Mexico	30,157	31,130	35,189
Netherlands	4,952	4,811	5,287
Nigeria	5,982	5,168	5,074

Imports f.o.b.—continued	1990	1991	1992
Philippines	3,384	3,471	4,358
Saudi Arabia	10,021	10,900	10,367
Singapore	9,800	9,957	11,318
Spain	3,311	2,848	3,001
Sweden	4,937	4,525	4,716
Switzerland	5,587	5,576	5,643
Taiwan	22,666	23,023	24,601
Thailand	5,289	6,122	7,528
United Kingdom	20,188	18,413	20,152
Venezuela	9,480	8,179	8,168
Total (incl. others)	495,310	487,129	532,498

Exports f.o.b.	1990	1991	1992
Australia	8,538	8,404	8,913
Belgium	10,451*	10,572	9,779
Brazil	5,048	6,148	5,740
Canada	83,674	85,150	90,562
China, People's Repub.	4,806	6,278	7,470
Colombia	2,029	1,952	3,282
France	13,665	15,346	14,575
Germany	18,760†	21,302	21,236
Hong Kong	6,817	8,137	9,069
Indonesia	1,897	1,891	2,778
Israel	3,203	3,911	4,074
Italy	7,992	8,570	8,698
Japan	48,580	48,125	47,764
Korea, Repub.	14,404	15,505	14,630
Malaysia	3,425	3,900	4,396
Mexico	28,279	33,277	40,598
Netherlands	13,022	13,511	13,740
Philippines	2,471	2,264	2,753
Saudi Arabia	4,049	6,557	7,163
Singapore	8,023	8,804	9,624
Spain	5,213	5,474	5,487
Sweden	3,405	3,286	2,844
Switzerland	4,943	5,557	4,536
Taiwan	11,491	13,182	15,205
Thailand	2,995	3,753	3,982
United Kingdom	23,490	22,046	22,808
Venezuela	3,108	4,656	5,438
Total (incl. others)	393,592	421,730	448,156

* Including trade with Luxembourg.

† Excluding trade with the former German Democratic Republic.

Source: Bureau of the Census, US Department of Commerce.

Transport

RAILWAYS

	1989	1990	1991
Passengers carried (million)	351	353	347
Passenger-miles (million)	13,123	13,387	13,512
Freight revenue (\$ million)*	29,922	27,471	26,949
Passenger revenue (\$ million)*	91	94	94

* Excluding Amtrak.

ROAD TRAFFIC

('000 motor vehicles registered at 31 December)

	1989	1990	1991
Passenger cars and taxis	143,026	143,453	142,955
Buses and coaches	625	626	631
Goods vehicles	43,610	44,718	44,785
Motor cycles	4,434	4,259	4,177

INLAND WATERWAYS (freight traffic in million ton-miles)

	1989	1990*	1991*
Coastal waterways	483,889	470,000	450,000
Lake waterways	58,308	57,000	53,000
Internal waterways	272,157	283,000	286,000
Local waterways	1,196	1,200	1,200
Total	815,550	811,200	790,200

* Preliminary.

OCEAN SHIPPING

Sea-going Merchant Vessels

	1989	1990	1991
Number of vessels			
Combination passengers/ cargo	19	10	10
Freighters	371	367	359
Bulk carriers	26	26	24
Tankers	239	233	226
Total	655	636	619
Displacement ('000 gross tons)			
Combination passengers/ cargo	156	91	92
Freighters	7,237	7,264	7,154
Bulk carriers	1,270	1,270	1,034
Tankers	15,574	15,641	14,253
Total	24,417	24,266	22,513

Vessels Entered and Cleared in Foreign Trade in all Ports

	1989	1990	1991
Entered			
Number	64,946	66,424	67,245
Displacement ('000 net tons)	587,101	589,356	515,819
Cleared			
Number	63,042	63,648	55,100
Displacement ('000 net tons)	589,749	592,079	520,717

CIVIL AVIATION

Scheduled Air Carriers (million)

	1989	1990	1991
Passengers	416	423	412
Passenger-miles	329,975	340,231	332,407
Freight ton-miles	4,916	5,075	4,910
Mail ton-miles	1,414	1,489	1,411

Source (for all Transport tables): John A. Volpe National Transportation Systems Center, US Department of Transportation, Kendall Sq., Cambridge, MA 02142; tel. (617) 494-2614.

Tourism

FOREIGN VISITORS BY COUNTRY OF NATIONALITY ('000)

	1990	1991	1992*
Canada	17,263	19,113	19,285
France	716	770	800
Germany, Fed. Repub.	1,203	1,430	1,715
Japan	3,231	3,320	3,894
Mexico	7,217	7,641	8,430
United Kingdom	2,244	2,495	2,782
Total (incl. others)	39,539	42,909	45,400
Tourist receipts (\$ million)	43,418	48,757	55,146

* Preliminary.

Source: Office of Research, US Travel and Tourism Administration, US Department of Commerce.

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Directory

upon them, and for the case of the death of any of the persons from whom the Senate may choose a Vice-President whenever the right of choice shall have devolved upon them.

Section 5

Sections 1 and 2 shall take effect on the 15th day of October following the ratification of this article.

Section 6

This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislature of three-fourths of the several States within seven years from the date of its submission.

AMENDMENT XXI (ratified December 1933)

Section 1

The 18th article of amendment to the Constitution of the United States is hereby repealed.

Section 2

The transportation or importation into any State, Territory or Possession of the United States for delivery or use therein of intoxicating liquors, in violation of the laws thereof, is hereby prohibited.

Section 3

This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by conventions in the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

AMENDMENT XXII (ratified February 1951)

No person shall be elected to the office of President more than twice, and no person who has held the office of President, or acted as President, for more than two years of a term to which some other person was elected President shall be elected to the office of President more than once. But this article shall not apply to any person holding the office of President when this Article was proposed by Congress, and shall not prevent any person who may be holding the office of President, or acting as President, during the term within which this Article becomes operative from holding the office of President or acting as President during the remainder of such term.

AMENDMENT XXIII (ratified March 1961)

Section 1

The District constituting the seat of Government of the United States shall appoint in such manner as the Congress may direct:

A number of electors of President and Vice-President equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives in Congress to which the District would be entitled if it were a State, but in no event more than the least populous State; they shall be in addition to those appointed by the States, but they shall be considered, for the purposes of the election of President and Vice-President, to be electors appointed by a State; and they shall meet in the District and perform such duties as provided by the 12th article of amendment.

Section 2

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

AMENDMENT XXIV (ratified January 1964)

Section 1

The right of citizens of the United States to vote in any primary or other election for President or Vice-President, for electors for President or Vice-President, or for Senator or Representative in Congress, shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State by reason of failure to pay any poll tax or other tax.

Section 2

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

AMENDMENT XXV (ratified February 1967)

Section 1

In the case of the removal of the President from office or of his death or resignation, the Vice-President shall become President.

Section 2

Whenever there is a vacancy in the office of the Vice-President, the President shall nominate a Vice-President who shall take office upon confirmation by a majority vote of both Houses of Congress.

Section 3

Whenever the President transmits to the President *pro tempore* of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives his written declaration that he is unable to discharge the powers and duties of his office, and until he transmits to them a written declaration to the contrary, such powers and duties shall be discharged by the Vice-President as Acting President.

Section 4

Whenever the Vice-President and a majority of either the principal officers of the executive departments or of such other body as Congress may by law provide, transmit to the President *pro tempore* of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives their written declaration that the President is unable to discharge the powers and duties of his office, the Vice-President shall immediately assume the powers and duties of the office as Acting President.

Thereafter, when the President transmits to the President *pro tempore* of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives his written declaration that no inability exists, he shall resume the powers and duties of his office unless the Vice-President and a majority of either the principal officers of the executive department or of such other body as Congress may by law provide, transmit within four days to the President *pro tempore* of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives their written declaration that the President is unable to discharge the powers and duties of his office. Thereupon Congress shall decide the issue, assembling within 48 hours for that purpose if not in session. If the Congress, within 21 days after receipt of the latter written declaration, or, if Congress is not in session, within 21 days after Congress is required to assemble, determines by two-thirds vote of both Houses that the President is unable to discharge the powers and duties of his office, the Vice-President shall continue to discharge the same as Acting President; otherwise, the President shall resume the powers and duties of his office.

AMENDMENT XXVI (ratified July 1971)

Section 1

The right of citizens of the United States, who are 18 years of age or older, to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of age.

Section 2

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

AMENDMENT XXVII (ratified May 1992)

No law, varying the compensation for the services of the Senators and Representatives, shall take effect, until an election of Representatives shall have intervened.

By Article IV, Section 3 of the Constitution, implemented by vote of Congress and referendum in the territory concerned, Alaska was admitted into the United States on 3 January 1959, and Hawaii on 21 August 1959.

The Executive

HEAD OF STATE

President: BILL CLINTON (took office 20 January 1993).

Vice-President: ALBERT A. CORE, Jr.

THE CABINET (May 1993)

Secretary of State: WARREN M. CHRISTOPHER.

Secretary of the Treasury: LLOYD M. BENTSEN, Jr.

Secretary of Defense: LES ASPIN.

Attorney-General: JANET RENO.

Secretary of the Interior: BRUCE E. BABBITT.

Secretary of Agriculture: MIKE ESPY.

Secretary of Commerce: RONALD H. BROWN.

Secretary of Labor: ROBERT B. REICH.

Secretary of Health and Human Services: DONNA SHALALA.