

Declassified E.O. 12356 Section 3.3/NND No. 785015

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100/498

PROGRAMS & MATERIALS,
CHREA TRAINING CENTER
MAY, JUNE 1943

99/28

Programs and materials
used for the instruction
of the first two classes
at the Chief Training Center
AMBOT.

under the direction of
Major Henry T. Rowell
CMP
Chief Instructor

NOTES

CHINA TRAINING CENTER

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B I G O TMOST SECRETCURRICULUM OF THE TRAINING CENTER AT CHREAA - PURPOSE

1. The purpose of the Training Center at Chrea is to provide British and American officers with intensive training in duties to be performed in connection with operation HUSKY. The curriculum which is submitted herewith is designed to achieve that purpose within the framework of existing conditions. It was drawn up by the undersigned after consultation with the School Commandant, Lt. Col. Aitken, and revised by direction of Major General Lord Rennell.

B - CONDITIONING FACTORS

2. There are three factors which vitally affect the establishment of a curriculum:
 - (a)

The student officers will not arrive all at once but in different groups. So far as can be ascertained at the moment, they will arrive at Chrea in the following groups on the following dates:

- | | | |
|-----|----------|---------------|
| (1) | May 27: | 37 British |
| (2) | June 3: | 118 Americans |
| (3) | June 15: | 30 Americans |
| (4) | June 25: | 50 British |

In addition to these officers, some 12 Americans are expected to arrive by air from the U.S.A. in groups of twos or threes before June 1. The total number of student officers who are expected to attend the school is thus 247.

- (b) Several British officers who have held high administrative posts in the military government of Tripolitania have kindly consented to give the school the benefit of their practical experience in lectures and conferences. Their time at the school, however, will be necessarily limited.

- (c) The 37 British officers arriving on May 27 have attended the Civil Affairs Staff Centre at Wimbledon. Of the total of 160 American officers, at least half may be assumed to have had special training in their future duties either at Charlottesville or Fort Custer. The rest, both British and American, are an unknown quantity so far as previous training and experience are concerned.

C - GENERAL PLAN

3. In view of these circumstances, it seems advisable to divide the work done at the Centre into two classes or terms of approximately three weeks each. The first class will include the 37 British officers arriving on May 27 and the 118 Americans arriving on June 3. The second class will include the 50

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3. In view of these circumstances, it seems advisable to divide the work done at the Centre into two classes or terms of approximately three weeks each. The first class will include the 37 British officers arriving on May 27 and the 118 Americans arriving on June 3. The second class will include the 50 British officers arriving on June 25. The 30 Americans arriving on June 15 will attend part of both classes. Students who have finished their formal course of studies but have not yet left the Centre will be expected to continue their language study and to devote themselves to other material pertinent to their future duties.

4. In order that both classes may have the advantage of hearing the visiting lecturers from Tripolitania, it is necessary to arrange different schedules for each class. The subjects for both classes will be the same but their place in the curriculum of each class will be different. As example, the lectures by the officers from Tripolitania will come at the end of the first class and at the beginning of the second. This is the only way by which these officers will be able to instruct both classes within the limited time which they will spend at the school.

5. The subjects to be studied have been selected with the purpose of providing instruction which will be of benefit to all students. In each instance, a single consideration was paramount in making the choice; the extent to which the information in question would assist the student to perform his future duties effectively. Given the wide variety of previous training and experience, it is unavoidable that certain subjects be taught which will be familiar to some students of each class. It is not desirable, however, that any student be excused from any exercise on the grounds that he is already familiar with the subject. In the first place, no student can be too familiar with his future duties and, secondly, each class must function as a whole, so far as possible, for purposes of discipline, administration and esprit de corps.

D - DAILY ROUTINE

6. At a conference with the Training Centre Commandant, Lt. Col. Mitken, it was decided that there should be a uniform routine for each day of the week.

(a) For week days, the following schedule is proposed:

6:45	Reveille	
7:30	Breakfast	
8:30 - 10:00	Language study	
10:15 - 11:15	Lecture	
11:30 - 12:30	Lecture	
13:00	Luncheon	
14:00 - 17:00	Committee work	} three days a week
17:00 - 17:30	Tea	
17:30 - 19:30	Individual study	

or

14:00 - 19:00	Military training (including physical training) three days a week
19:30	Dinner
20:30	Occasional lectures or informal talks

It was agreed that the Committee work and the Military Training should come on alternate days, one coming on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, the other on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays. The assignment of its cycle to each subject will be decided later in accordance with certain administrative considerations.

(b) The schedule for Sunday morning depends on the time when a minister will be available for Divine Services and the facilities for hearing Holy Mass. It was agreed, however, that on hour and a half of language study should be held at some time Sunday morning and that two hours of Committee work should be done in the afternoon. A tentative Sunday schedule will be:

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7:30	Reveille
8:15	Breakfast
9:00 - 10:30	Language study
11:00	Church parade or Mass
13:00	Luncheon
14:00 - 16:00	Committee work
19:30	Dinner

E - TIME ALLOTTED TO THE SEVERAL COURSES

7. The daily schedules given above provide the following number of hours for each course over the three weeks duration of a class.

31½ hours of language study
36 hours of lectures
33 hours of committee work
45 hours of military training

Individual study will be done between 17:30 and 19:30 on the week days on which Committee work is scheduled, and after dinner on all days of the week except when lectures or informal talks by prominent persons are scheduled.

F - LANGUAGE

8. The students attending the Centre will differ widely in linguistic ability from complete fluency to utter ignorance. Nevertheless, they can be divided for purposes of instruction into three groups:

- (a) Those who can speak well enough to perform their duties competently without the aid of an interpreter.
- (b) Those who can speak well enough to attend to simple or routine matters without assistance, but who will need an interpreter to handle complicated or technical affairs.
- (c) Those who do not know the language at all.

9. To meet the different requirements of these groups, the following system of study is proposed:

- (a) That the first group (a) above meet with its instructor solely for the purpose of conversation and practice.
- (b) That the second group (b) above be given actual instruction in grammar, reading, conversation and idioms of the kind given in an advanced college course.
- (c) That the third group (c) above devote its entire time to pronouncing and mastering the phrases and idioms which will be most useful in performing routine duties. It would be wasted effort to attempt to accomplish more than this within a period of three weeks.

10. To be effective, the larger language groups mentioned above should be subdivided into sections. At the most there should be no more than twenty-five officers in any section and the size should vary in accordance with the competence of the students. The more proficient students, as needing less personal attention, would compose the larger sections.

G - LECTURES

11. There will be 36 regular lectures, about half of which deal with fundamental aspects of the Kingdom of Italy (National Government, Local Government, Courts, Public Education, etc.). The other half will

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G - LECTURES

11. There will be 36 regular lectures, about half of which deal with fundamental aspects of the Kingdom of Italy (National Government, Local Government, Courts, Public Education, Fascist Party, etc.). The other half will be devoted to the recent experience of the British in military government, certain military topics and the general functions of the C.A. officers within the organization of AMGOT.

12. The purpose of the lectures is to furnish all students of the Centre with a general comprehension of the area in which they will perform their duties and adequate knowledge of the duties themselves. Specialization is reserved for the Committees. A list of lectures for both classes is appended in Annex A.

13. It is recommended that the lecture proper be limited to 50 minutes and that the remaining 10 minutes be devoted to questions from the floor.

H - COMMITTEE WORK

14. This work is primarily designed for those students whose duties will be of a specialized nature in order to enable them to study their specialities in detail. The work of the committees will closely follow the organization of AMGOT as planned for HORRIFIED. Consequently each Committee will be assigned one of the following subjects:

- (a) Legal affairs
- (b) Fiscal affairs
- (c) Civilian supply
- (d) Public health
- (e) Public safety
- (f) Enemy property
- (g) General administration

15. The internal organization of a Committee will be as follows:

- (a) To achieve the best results it is felt that the committee should be no larger than twenty students. This means two or more sections of each committee in the specialties that call for the largest number of officers such as the administrative, legal, fiscal and public safety committees.
- (b) Each committee will be guided and instructed by a faculty assistant who has the proper qualifications of study and experience. He will be responsible for the instruction and program of study undertaken by his committee. Discipline, promptness and other routine administrative matters will be the responsibility of the senior officer of the committee.
- (c) Whereas the legal, fiscal, civilian supply, public health and public safety officers will be expected to devote themselves rather exclusively to their specialties, the general administrators should acquire as much knowledge of the problems which they are apt to meet in these specialized fields and their proposed solutions. It is therefore planned that the instructors of the more specialized committees should meet with the administrative committees to give them the necessary instruction. The main task of the administrators will be to acquire a thorough understanding of the local and national government of the general area in which they may be stationed, the chains of civil authority, the public services, and the complexion of the local inhabitants. If security permits, their final studies should be devoted to acquiring an intimate knowledge of the exact spot where they will be stationed.
- (d) It is suggested that the future custodians of enemy property spend a good part of their time working with the legal and fiscal

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 - (d) It is suggested that the future custodians of enemy property spend a good part of their time working with the legal and fiscal committees.
 - (e) All committees should keep in constant touch with each other as there is hardly a committee problem which does not have ramifications extending into the provinces of the other committees. The committee instructors will see to it that arrangements are made for the informal exchange of all pertinent information.

I - MILITARY TRAINING

16. The program of military training is left to the responsibility of the School Commandant, Lt. Col. Aitken. It is understood that it will include physical exercise in the form of hikes. In addition to basic training in map reading and the use of gas mask, pistol and first aid kit, a certain number of military lectures will be given out of doors at hiking stages. These will be on subjects not included in the program of regular lectures.

J - OCCASIONAL LECTURES AND TALKS

17. It is the intention of Major General Lord Rennell to invite prominent officers to the Training Center from time to time to address the staff and student body informally. These talks will be given after dinner on dates convenient to the visitors. It is hoped that the Centre will have the privilege of hearing two or three of these talks per week.

K - REQUIRED READING

18. Before leaving the Centre, each student will be required to certify in writing that he has read the following documents in the order prescribed below:

- (a) The AMGOT plan.
- (b) British Manual of Military Law, Section 8, Chapter 14.
- (c) FM 27-10.
- (d) Notes on Military Government of Occupied Enemy Territory (Parts I and II).
- (e) FM 27-5.

It is also understood that each student will devote at least two hours every day to language study and reading of assigned material such as military handbooks of the area, the penal code, etc.

L - SIFTING OF STUDENTS

19. On arrival at the Centre, each student will fill out a form giving in detail his education, linguistic ability, past professional ability in civil life and military career. On the basis of this information and after a personal interview with the Director of Instructions, he will be tentatively assigned to a language group and a committee. The language instructor and the committee instructor will then examine the student's qualifications for admission to their respective courses and either admit him or return him to the Director with appropriate recommendations.

M - INSTRUCTORS AND CLASS ROOMS

20. The assignment of committee instructors and lecturers will be submitted in a separate memorandum within the next few days. Assignment of working space is a purely administrative matter and will be handled by the academic administration in cooperation with the Camp Commandant.

(a) The ANGOT plan.

- (b) British Manual of Military Law, Section 8, Chapter 14.
- (c) FM 27-10.
- (d) Notes on Military Government of Occupied Enemy Territory (Parts I and II).
- (e) FM 27-5.

It is also understood that each student will devote at least two hours every day to language study and reading of assigned material such as military handbooks of the area, the penal code, etc.

L - SITTING OF STUDENTS

19. On arrival at the Centre, each student will fill out a form giving in detail his education, linguistic ability, past professional ability in civil life and military career. On the basis of this information and after a personal interview with the Director of Instructions, he will be tentatively assigned to a language group and a committee. The language instructor and the committee instructor will then examine the student's qualifications for admission to their respective courses and either admit him or return him to the Director with appropriate recommendations.

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ANGOT

The School of Instruction
CHREA, May 23, 1943

HENRY T. ROWELL
Major, CIP
Director of Instruction.

AMGOT

SYLLABUS OF CLASS I

CHREA TRAINING CENTRE

May 31 to June 26, 1943

Monday, 31 May 1943

0830 - 0900 Orientation Lecture - Major Rowell
0900 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "Italy and the Mediterranean" - Major Rowell
1130 - 1230 Lecture "Internal Geography and Communication" - Major Rowell
1400 - 1700 Committee (Syndicate) Work

Tuesday, 1 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "The Constitution" - Major Rowell
1130 - 1230 Lecture "The Fascist Party" - Major Rowell
1400 - 1900 Military Training

Wednesday, 2 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "The Province and the Commune" - Major Rowell
1130 - 1230 Lecture "Labor and the Corporate State" - Major Hancock
1400 - 1700 Committee Work

Thursday, 3 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "Agriculture" - Captain Chayton
1130 - 1230 Lecture "Industry" - Major Hancock
1400 - 1900 Military Training

Friday, 4 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "Industry" - Major Hancock
1130 - 1230 Lecture "Principles of Administration" - Maj. Gen. Lord Rennell
1400 - 1700 Committee Work

Saturday, 5 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes

Tuesday, 1 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "The Constitution" - Major Rowell
1130 - 1230 Lecture "The Fascist Party" - Major Rowell
1400 - 1900 Military Training

Wednesday, 2 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "The Province and the Commune" - Major Rowell
1130 - 1230 Lecture "Labor and the Corporate State" - Major Hancock
1400 - 1700 Committee Work

Thursday, 3 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "Agriculture" - Captain Chayton
1130 - 1230 Lecture "Industry" - Major Hancock
1400 - 1900 Military Training

Friday, 4 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "Industry" - Major Hancock
1130 - 1230 Lecture "Principles of Administration" - Maj. Gen. Lord Rennell
1400 - 1700 Committee Work

Saturday, 5 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "Finances" - Lt. Col. Gunston
1130 - 1230 Lecture "Finances" - Lt. Col. Gunston
1400 - 1900 Military Training

Sunday, 6 June 1943

0900 - 1030 Language Classes
1430 - 1630 Committee Work
2100 - 2200 Special Lecture - Rt. Hon. Harold Macmillan, British Minister
Resident at Allied Force Headquarters

Monday, 7 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Lecture "The Italian Empire and Overseas Aspirations" ³³⁸
Major General Lord Rennell
1130 - 1230 Lecture "Health" - Colonel Cheyne
1400 - 1700 Committee Work
1800 - 1900 Special Lecture - Major General A. A. Richardson.

Tuesday, 8 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "Church and State" - Major Rowell
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "The Custody of Enemy Property" - Captain Corbin
 1400 - 1900 Military Training

Wednesday, 9 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "International Law" - Lt. Col. Chanler
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "Civil Affairs in Tunisia" - Lt. Col. Gorry
 1400 - 1500 Special Lecture on "Security" - Colonel Gibson
 1515 - 1700 Committee Work

Thursday, 10 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "Military Courts" - Lt. Col. Rowe
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "Evacuation of Refugees" - Major Rodi
 1400 - 1700 Military Training
 1800 - 1900 Special Lecture - General Eisenhower

Friday, 11 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "American Staff Organization" - Brig. Gen. McSherry
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "Public Welfare" - Major Witte
 1400 - 1700 Committee Work

Saturday, 12 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "The Maintenance of an Army in the Field in North Africa" - Major General C. H. Miller
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "Maintenance and Supply in the American Army" - Brig. Gen. A. L. Hamilton
 1400 - 1900 Military Training

Sunday, 13 June 1943

0900 - 1030 Language Classes
 1430 - 1630 Committee Work

Monday, 14 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "Protection and Care of Monuments" - Captain Hammond

1015 - 1115 Lecture "Military Courts" - Lt. Col. Rowe
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "Evacuation of Refugees" - Major Rodi
 1400 - 1700 Military Training
 1800 - 1900 Special Lecture - General Eisenhower

Friday, 11 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "American Staff Organization" - Brig. Gen. McSherry
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "Public Welfare" - Major Witte
 1400 - 1700 Committee Work

Saturday, 12 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "The Maintenance of an Army in the Field in North Africa" - Major General C. H. Miller
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "Maintenance and Supply in the American Army" - Brig. Gen. A. L. Hamblen
 1400 - 1900 Military Training

Sunday, 13 June 1943

0900 - 1030 Language Classes
 1430 - 1630 Committee Work

Monday, 14 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "Protection and Care of Monuments" - Captain Hammond
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "The Civil Courts of Italy" - Major Rowell
 1400 - 1700 Committee Work

Tuesday, 15 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Study of The Angot Plan and Basic Handbook
 1130 - 1230 Lecture "The American Army" - Major General Huebner
 1400 - 1900 Military Training
 2030 - 2230 Study of Basic Handbook and Angot Plan

Wednesday, 16 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Study of Angot Plan
 1130 - 1230 Lecture and Discussion of Angot Plan - Lt. Col. Maxwell
 1400 - 1700 Committee Work and Study of Angot Plan and Basic Handbook

Thursday, 17 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "First Duties of a C.O." - Lt. Col. Gerry
 1130 - 1230 Study of Proclamations
 1400 - 1700 Military Training
 1830 - 1930 Special Lecture - Brigadier Airey

Friday, 18 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1230 Lecture and Discussion of Proclamations - Lt. Col. Chandler
 1400 - 1700 Committee Work and Study of Angot Plan, Proclamations and
 Basic Handbook

Saturday, 19 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Lecture "The Educational System of Italy" - Major Rowell
 1400 - 1900 Military Training

Sunday, 20 June 1943

0900 - 1030 Language Classes
 2100 - 2200 Special Lecture - Major General H. M. Gale

Monday, 21 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 Procedure of Military Courts - Lt. Col. Rowe
 1130 - 1230 Morale in Italy at Present - Major Stump
 1400 - 1700 Individual Problem

Tuesday, 22 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 General Administrative Instruction No. 4 - Colonel Bolles
 1130 - 1230 General Administrative Instruction No. 2 - Colonel Cheyne
 1400 - 1900 Military Training and Moot Court Rehearsal

Wednesday, 23 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
 1015 - 1115 General Administrative Instruction No. 3 - Lt. Col. Graffey-Smith
 1130 - 1230 General Administrative Instruction No. 1 - Lt. Col. Spofford
 General Administrative Instruction No. 8 - Captain Hammond
 1400 - 1700 General Administrative Instruction No. 5 - Major Nolen
 General Administrative Instruction No. 7 - Lt. Col. Chandler
 General Administrative Instruction No. 9 - Major Rowell
 Critique of Individual Problem - Major Rowell and Lt. Col. Sneek

Sunday, 20 June 1943

0900 - 1030 Language Classes
2100 - 2200 Special Lecture - Major General H. M. Gale

Monday, 21 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Procedure of Military Courts - Lt. Col. Rome
1130 - 1230 Morale in Italy at Present - Major Stange
1400 - 1700 Individual Problem

Tuesday, 22 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 General Administrative Instruction No. 4 - Colonel Bolles
1130 - 1230 General Administrative Instruction No. 2 - Colonel Cheyne
1400 - 1900 Military Training and Moot Court Rehearsal

Wednesday, 23 June 1943

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 General Administrative Instruction No. 3 - Lt. Col. Graffey-Smith
1130 - 1230 General Administrative Instruction No. 1 - Lt. Col. Spofford
1400 - 1700 General Administrative Instruction No. 8 - Captain Hammond
General Administrative Instruction No. 5 - Major Nolen
General Administrative Instruction No. 7 - Lt. Col. Chanler
General Administrative Instruction No. 9 - Major Rowell
Critique of Individual Problem - Major Rowell and Lt. Col. Snook
Distribution of Group Problem
2030 - 2230 Work on Group Problem

Thursday, 24 June 1943

0830 - 1230 Work on Group Problem
1400 - 1900 Pistol Practice and Moot Court Rehearsal
2030 - 2230 Work on Group Problem

Friday, 25 June 1943

0830 - 1230 Work on Group Problem
1400 - 1700 Moot Court
1730 - 1900 Critique of Moot Court - Lt. Col. Chanler

Saturday, 26 June 1943

0830 - 1230 Presentation of Group Problem
1400 - 1900 Military Training

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ANGOT ACADEMIC SCHEDULE

DATE	8:30 - 10:00	10:15 - 11:15	11:30 - 12:30	14:00 - 17:00
Monday, 31 May 1943	Orientation Lecture Major Rowell (Ski Club) Language Classes	Lecture Major Rowell	Lecture Major Rowell	Free
Tuesday, 1 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Major Rowell	Lecture Major Rowell	Committee Work
Wednesday, 2 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Major Powell	Lecture Major Hancock	Committee Work
Thursday, 3 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Capt. Chayton	Lecture Major Hancock	Military Training Physical Training
Friday, 4 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Major Hancock	Lecture Col. Cheyne	Committee Work
Saturday, 5 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Lt. Col. Grafftey-Smith	Lecture Lt. Col. Gunston	Military Training Physical Training
Sunday, 6 June 1943	9:00 - 10:30 Language Classes	11:00 Church Parade	-----	14:30 - 16:00 Committee Work

Note: Unless announced otherwise, all lectures will be held in

Henry T.
Major, C
Chief In

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AMGOT ACADEMIC SCHEDULE

	10:15 - 11:15	11:30 - 12:30	14:00 - 17:00	17:30 - 19:30
	Lecture	Lecture	Free	Free
	Major Rowell	Major Rowell		
	Lecture	Lecture	Committee Work	Individual Study
	Major Rowell	Major Rowell	Committee Work	Individual Study
	Lecture	Lecture	Military Training including	
	Major Rowell	Major Hancock	Physical Training and hikes.	
	Lecture	Lecture	Committee Work	Individual Study
	Capt. Cheyten	Major Hancock		
	Lecture	Lecture	Military Training including	
	Major Hancock	Col. Cheyng	Physical Training and hikes.	
	Lecture	Lecture		
	Lt. Col.	Lt. Col. Gunston		
	Grafftey-Smith			
	11:00	-----	14:30 - 16:30	-----
	Church Parade		Committee Work	

As announced otherwise, all lectures will be held in the Ski Club.

Henry T. Rowell
Major, CMP
Chief Instructor.

AMCOT
CLASS I
Announcement of Lectures
First Week

Monday, May 31

- | | |
|---|--------------|
| 1. Italy and the Mediterranean | Major Rowell |
| 2. Internal geography and Communication | Major Rowell |

Tuesday, June 1

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------|
| 3. The Constitution | Major Rowell |
| 4. The Fascist Party | Major Rowell |

Wednesday, June 2

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------|
| 5. The Province and the Commune | Major Rowell |
| 6. Labor and the Corporate State | Major Hancock |

Thursday, June 3

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| 7. Agriculture | Captain Chayton |
| 8. Industry | Major Hancock |

Friday, June 4

- | | |
|-------------|----------------|
| 9. Industry | Major Hancock |
| 10. Health | Colonel Cheyne |

Saturday, June 5

- | | |
|--------------|-------------------------|
| 11. Finances | Lt. Col. Graffley-Smith |
| 12. Finances | Lt. Col. Gunston |

AMGOT

1 June 1943.

Subject: Changes in Lecture Schedule.

1. The following changes are made to the announcement of lectures for the first week.

Friday, 4 June

- 9. As announced.
- 10. Principles of Administration - Major General Lord Rennell

Saturday, 5 June

- 11. Finance - Lt. Col. Gunston
- 12. As announced.

HENRY T. ROYALL
Major, GMP
Chief Instructor.

Chreia Training Centre.

AMGOT ACADEMIC SCHEDULE (Second Week)

Date	8:30 - 10:00	10:15 - 11:15	11:30 - 12:30	14:00 - 15:00
Monday, 7 June 1943	Language Classes Student Officers Mess & Ski Club	Lecture Maj. Gen. Lord Rennell	Lecture Colonel Cheyne	Committee W
Tuesday, 8 June, 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Major Rodd	Lecture Capt. Corbin	Military Tr Training an
Wednesday, 9 June, 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Lt. Col. Chanler	Lecture Lt. Col. Gerry	Committee V
Thursday, 10 June, 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Major Rowe	Lecture Gen. Huebner	Military Tr Training an
Friday, 11 June, 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Reserved	Lecture Gen. McSherry	Committee V
Saturday, 12 June, 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Maj. Gen. Killer	Lecture Gen. Hamblen	Military Tr Training an
Sunday, 13 June, 1943	9:00 - 10:30 Language Classes	11:00 Church Parade	-----	14:30 - 15:30 Committee V

Note: Unless announced otherwise, all lectures will be held in the Silence
Student Officers' Mess.

Chreia Training Centre
6 June 1943

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All Chiefs of Planning Section
All Student Officers
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AMGOT ACADEMIC SCHEDULE (Second Week)

	10:15 - 11:15	11:30 - 12:30	14:00 - 17:00	17:30 - 19:30
s	Lecture	Lecture	Committee Work	Individual Study
s	Maj. Gen. Lord Rennell	Colonel Cheyne		
s	Lecture	Lecture	Military Training including Physical Training and Hikes	
s	Major Rodd	Capt. Corbin		
s	Lecture	Lecture	Committee Work	Individual Study
s	Lt. Col. Chanler	Lt. Col. Gerry		
s	Lecture	Lecture	Military Training including Physical Training and Hikes	
s	Major Rowe	Gen. Huebner		
s	Lecture	Lecture	Committee Work	Individual Study
s	Reserved	Gen. McSherry		
s	Lecture	Lecture	Military Training including Physical Training and Hikes	
s	Maj. Gen. Miller	Gen. Hamblen		
s	11:00		14:30 - 16:30	
s	Church Parade	-----	Committee Work	-----

therwise, all lectures will be held in the Silence Room of the Mess.

Henry T. Rowell
Major, CMP
Chief Instructor.

AMGOT

6 June 1943.

Subject: Changes in Lecture Schedule.

1. The following changes are made to the Announcement of Lectures for the second week.

Tuesday, 8 June

- 3. Church and State - Major Rowell
- 4. As announced.

Thursday, 10 June

- 7. As announced.
- 8. Evacuation of Refugees - Major Rodd

Friday, 11 June

- 9. American Staff Organisation - Brigadier
General McSherry
- 10. Public Welfare - Major Witte

HENRY T. ROWELL
Major, CMF
Chief Instructor.

Chreia Training Centre.

AMGOT
CLASS I
Announcement of Lectures
Second Week

Monday, 7 June

1. The Italian Empire and Overseas Aspirations - Major General
Lord Rennell
2. Health - Colonel Cheyne

Tuesday, 8 June

3. Problems of Evacuation - Major Rodd
4. The Custody of Enemy Property - Captain Corbin

Wednesday, 9 June

5. International Law - Lt. Col. Chanler
6. Civil Affairs in Tunisia - Lt. Col. Gerry

Thursday, 10 June

7. Military Courts - Major Rowe
8. The American Army - General Huebner

Friday, 11 June

9. Reserved.
10. American Army Staff Organization - Brigadier General McSherry

Saturday, 12 June

11. The Maintenance of an Army in the Field in North Africa -
Major General C. H. Miller
12. Maintenance and Supply in the American Army -
Brigadier General A. C. Hamblen

AMGOT ACADEMIC SCHEDULE (Third Week)

Date	0830 - 1000	1015- 1115	1130 - 1230	1400 - 1700
Monday, 14 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Capt. Hammond	Lecture Major Rowell	Committee Work
Tuesday, 15 June 1943	Language Classes	Study of Angot Plan and Basic Handbook	Lecture Maj. Gen. Huebner	Military Training Training and Hik
Wednesday, 16 June 1943	Language Classes	Study of Angot Plan	Lecture Lt. Col. Maxwell	Committee Work
Thursday, 17 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Lt. Col. Gerry	Study of the Proclamations	Military Training Training and Hik
Friday, 18 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Lt. Col. Chanler	Lecture Lt. Col. Chanler	Committee Work
Saturday, 19 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Major Rowell	Study of Basic Handbook	Military Training Training and Hik
Sunday, 20 June 1943	0900 - 1030 Language Classes	1100 Church Parade	-----	-----

NOTE: Unless announced otherwise, all lectures will be held in the Silence Room of the S

CHREA TRAINING CENTRE

12 June 1943

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Chief Instr

3381

AMCOT ACADEMIC SCHEDULE (Third Week)

	1015- 1115	1130 - 1230	1400 - 1700	1730 - 1900
ees	Lecture Capt. Hammond	Lecture Major Rowell	Committee Work	Individual Study
ses	Study of Angot Plan and Basic Handbook	Lecture Maj. Gen. Huebner	Military Training including Physical Training and Hikes	
ses	Study of Angot Plan	Lecture Lt. Col. Maxwell	Committee Work	Individual Study
ses	Lecture Lt. Col. Gerry	Study of the Proclamations	Military Training including Physical Training and Hikes	
ses	Lecture Lt. Col. Chanler	Lecture Lt. Col. Chanler	Committee Work	Individual Study
ses	Lecture Major Rowell	Study of Basic Handbook	Military Training including Physical Training and Hikes	
ses	1100 Church Parade	-----	-----	-----

Otherwise, all lectures will be held in the Silence Room of the Student Officers' Mess.

HENRY T. ROWELL
Major, C/P
Chief Instructor.

AMGOT

CLASS I

Announcement of Lectures

Third Week

Monday, 14 June 1943

- 25. Protection and Care of Monuments, etc.
- 26. The Civil Courts of Italy

Captain Hammond
Major Rowell

Tuesday, 15 June 1943

- 27. Study of The Angot Plan and Basic Handbook
- 28. The American Army

Major General Hushner

Wednesday, 16 June 1943

- 29. Study of The Angot Plan
- 30. Lecture and Discussion of Angot Plan

Lt. Col. Marshall

Thursday, 17 June 1943

- 31. First Duties of a C.A.O.
- 32. Study of the Proclamations

Lt. Col. Gentry

Friday, 18 June 1943

- 33. The Proclamations
- 34. Discussion of The Proclamations

Lt. Col. Chandler
Lt. Col. Chandler

Saturday, 19 June 1943

- 35. The Educational System of Italy
- 36. Reserved.

Major Rowell

AMGOT ACADEMIC SCHEDULE (Fourth Week)

Date	0830 - 1000	1015 - 1115	1130 - 1230	1400 - 1700
Monday, 21 June 1943	Language Classes	Lecture Lt. Col. Rowe	Lecture Major Stampe	Individual Problem
Tuesday, 22 June 1943	Language Classes	General Adminis- trative Instruc- tion No. 4 Colonel Bolles	General Adminis- trative Instruc- tion No. 2 Colonel Cheyne	Military Training in Training and Hikes. hearsal
Wednesday, 23 June 1943	Language Classes	Instruction No. 3 Lt. Col. Grafftey-Smith	Instruction No. 1 Lt. Col. Spofford Instruction No. 8 Capt. Hammond	Instruction No. 5 Major Nolen Instruction No. 7 Lt. Col. Chanler Instruction No. 9 Major Rowell Critique of In- dividual Problem Major Rowell Distribution of Group Problem
Thursday, 24 June 1943	-----Work on Group Problem-----			Pistol Practice, Milit and Moot Court Rehears
Friday, 25 June 1943	-----Work on Group Problem-----			Moot Court
Saturday, 26 June 1943	-----Presentation of Group Problem-----			Military Training in Training and Hikes.

NOTE: Unless announced otherwise, all lectures will be held in the Silence Room of the S
CHREA TRAINING CENTRE

19 June 1943

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Major,
Chief

AMGOT ACADEMIC SCHEDULE (Fourth Week)

1015 - 1115	1130 - 1230	1400 - 1700	1730 - 1900	2030 - 2230
Lecture Lt. Col. Rowe	Lecture Major Stampe	Individual Problem	Individual Study	
General Administrative Instruction No. 4 Colonel Balles	General Administrative Instruction No. 2 Colonel Cheyne	Military Training including Physical Training and Hikes. Moot Court Rehearsal		
Instruction No. 3 Lt. Col. Grafftey-Smith	Instruction No. 1 Lt. Col. Spofford Instruction No. 8 Capt. Hammond	Instruction No. 5 Major Nolen Instruction No. 7 Lt. Col. Chanler Instruction No. 9 Major Rowell Critique of Individual Problem Major Rowell Distribution of Group Problem	Individual Study	Work on Group Problem
Work on Group Problem-----		Pistol Practice, Military Training and Moot Court Rehearsal		Work on Group Problem
Work on Group Problem-----		Moot Court	Critique of Moot Court	
Presentation of Group Problem-----		Military Training including Physical Training and Hikes.		

se, all lectures will be held in the Silence Room of the Student Officers' Mess.

HENRY T. ROWELL
Major, CMP
Chief Instructor.

AMGOT

INDIVIDUAL PROBLEM

Monday, 21 June

1400 - 1700 hours

1. (For all officers except CAPO's and Civilian Supply Officers)

You are the only CAO on the staff of a tactical commander. Five hours previous to the time of this problem, the enemy forces completed their evacuation of X, an Italian Provincial Capital of about 60,000 inhabitants. You enter the town at about 1800 hours slightly behind the advance units of your own forces. Describe your actions and orders during the following 48 hours.

2. CAPO's will assume that they accompany the CAO under the circumstances described in paragraph 1.

3. Civilian Supply Officers will assume that they accompany the CAO under the circumstances described in paragraph 1.

AMGCT

22 June, 1943

GROUP PROBLEM

1. The Italian Province of Lucina (population 912,113, Area 5214 sq. km., Number of Communes 81) has the following provincial officers and institutions:

I Provincial Administration

Prefect (Prefetto)
 Deputy Prefect (Vice-Prefetto)
 Chef de Cabinet (Capo Gabinetto)
 Director of Press Censorship (Capo Ufficio Stampa)
 Officer in charge of religion (Capo Ufficio Culto)
 President of the Provincial Rectorate (Presidente del Rettorato) (Provinciale)
 Vice-President of the Provincial Rectorate (Vice-Presidente del Rettorato Provinciale)
 General Secretary (Segretario Generale)
 Chief Engineer (Ingegnere Capo)
 Police

Chief Constable (Questore)
 Deputy Chief Constable (Vice-Questore)
 Chef de cabinet (Capo Gabinetto)
 II Party Officials

Federal Secretary (Segretario Federale)
 Deputy Federal Secretary (Vice-Segretario Federale)
 Head of Women Fascists (Fiduciaria Provinciale del Fascio - Femminile)

Vice-Commandant of GIL (Vice-Comandante GIL)
 Inspector of GIL (Ispettore del Dopolavoro)
 Political Secretary of GUF (Segretario Politico GUF)
 Provincial Commandant of UNPA (Air-raid Precautions) (Comandante Prov. Cell. UNPA)
 III Judicial Officials

First President of the Court of Appeal (Primo Presidente del R. Corte d'Appello)
 Presidents of Sections (Presidenti di sezione)
 Procurator at Court of Appeal (Procuratore Generale del Re)
 Chief Councillor of the Courts (Cancelliere Capo)
 Public Prosecutor-General (Procuratore del Re)
 Attorney-General (Avvocato Generale)
 Secretary-General (Segretario Generale)

(Provinciale)
 Vice-President of the Provincial Rectorate (Vice-Presidente del Rettorato Provinciale)
 General Secretary (Segretario Generale)
 Chief Engineer (Ingegnere Capo)
 Police

Chief Constable (Questore)
 Deputy Chief Constable (Vice-Questore)
 Chief de cabinet (Capo Gabinetto)

II Party Officials

Federal Secretary (Segretario Federale)
 Deputy Federal Secretary (Vice-Segretario Federale)
 Head of Women Fascists (Fiduciaria Provinciale del Fascio Femminile)
 Vice-Commandant of GIL (Vice-Comandante GIL)
 Inspector of GIL (Ispettore del Dopolavoro)
 Political Secretary of GUF (Segretario Politico GUF)
 Provincial Commandant of UMPI (Air-Laid Precautions) (Comandante Prov. Calli UMPI)

III Judicial Officials

First President of the Court of Appeal (Primo Presidente del R. Corte d'Appello)
 Presidents of Sections (Presidenti di sezione)
 Procurator at Court of Appeal (Procuratore Generale del Re)
 Chief Chancellor of the Courts (Cancelliere Capo)
 Public Prosecutor-General (Procuratore del Re)
 Attorney-General (Avvocato Generale)
 Secretary-General (Segretario Generale)
 President of the Labour Courts (Sezione Magistratura del Lavoro: Presidente)
 Court of Assize (Corte d'Assisi) 4 Presidents
 Prosecutor-General (Procuratore del Re)
 President of the Courts (Presidente del Tribunale Civile e Penale)
 Judge of Tribunal (Giudice del Tribunale)
 Central Prisons Director (Carceri Giudiziarie Centrali)
 Central Prisons Deputy Director
 Public Services

Provincial Surveyor (Ingegnere Capo del Corpo Reale del Genio Civile)
 Provincial Water Surveyor (Direttore del Servizio Idrografico)
 Trade and Labour

Provincial Council of Corporations (Consiglio Provinciale delle Corporazioni)

Milano, 1938

Corporate Organisations

Fascist Provincial Unions (Unioni Provinciali Fascisti)

- (i) Agriculturalists (degli Agricoltori)
- (ii) Traders (dei Commercianti)
- (iii) Industrialists (degli Industriali)
- (iv) Professional Men and Artists (dei Professionisti ed Artisti)
- (v) Credit and Insurance Enterprises (Aziende Credito e Assicurazione)
- (vi) Workers in Agriculture (Lavoratori Agricoli)
- (vii) Workers in Commerce (Lavoratori del Commercio)
- (viii) Workers in Industry (Lavoratori dell' Industria)
- (ix) Workers in Credit and Insurance Enterprises (Lavoratori Aziende Credito e Assicurazione)

Syndicate for Journalists (Sindacato per giornalisti)

Provincial Autonomous Fascist Institute for the erection and management of dwellings for the working-classes: Special section for dwellings for sulphur miners.

Provincial autonomous Fascist Union for the review of economic activities (Per la rassegna di attività economiche)

Tobacco Cultivators' Union (Unione Coltivatori Tabacco)

Provincial Food Office, Distribution Department

VI Financial Administration

Financial Superintendent (Intendente di Finanza)

Director of the Provincial Section of the Treasury (Sezione del Tesoro: Direttore)

Customs Officer (Direttore del R. Dogana)

Director of State Monopolies (Monopoli di Stato: Direttore)

Registrar of Property (R. Ufficio del Catasto)

State Advocate (avvocato Capo)

Inspector of Direct Taxes (Ispettore delle Imposte Dirette)

VII Communications

Provincial Director of Posts and Telegraphs (Direttore Provinciale delle e dei Telegrafi)

Department Director of State Railways (Capo Compartimento FF.SS.)

Chief Inspector of State Railways (Ispettore Principale FF.SS.)

Chief Manager of State Railways (Capo gestione I.a. classe)

Passenger Manager of State Railways (Capo personale viaggiante principale FF.SS.)

Inspector-General of Private Railways, Trams and Cars (Ispettore generale delle Ferrovie, Tramvie e Autos)

Prov. Service of Roads, Chief Engineer (Ingegnere Capo del L.S.S.)

Provincial Fire Officer (Comandante de Corpo Prov. Vigili del Fuoco)

Military Commander of the Province (Comandante Militare della

for dwellings for sulphur miners.
Provincial Autonomous Fascist Union for the review of economic activities (Per la rassegna di attività economiche)
Tobacco Cultivators' Union (Unione Coltivatori Tabacco)
Provincial Food Office, Distribution Department
VI Financial Administration

Financial Superintendent (Intendente di Finanza)
Director of the Provincial Section of the Treasury (Sezione del Tesoro: Direttore)
Customs Officer (Direttore del R. Dogana)
Director of State Monopolies (Monopoli di Stato: Direttore)
Registrar of Property (R. Ufficio del Catasto)
State Advocate (Avvocato Capo)
Inspector of Direct Taxes (Ispettore delle Imposte Dirette)

VII Communications

Provincial Director of Posts and Telegraphs (Direttore Provinciale delle e dei Telegrafi)
Department Director of State Railways (Capo Compartimento FF.SS.)
Chief Inspector of State Railways (Ispettore Principale FF.SS.)
Chief Manager of State Railways (Capo gestione l.a. classe)
Passenger Manager of State Railways (Capo personale viaggiante principale FF.SS.)
Inspector-General of Private Railways, Trams and Cars (Ispettore-generale delle Ferrovie, Tramvie e Autos)
Prov. Service of Roads, Chief Engineer (Ingegnere Capo del A.A.SS.)
Provincial Fire Officer (Comandante de Corpo Prov. Vigili del Fuoco)
Military Commander of Harbour Defences (Comando Militare della difesa Marittima)
Harbour Master (Comandante del Porto)
Deputy Harbour Master (Comandante in Seconda)
Port Sanitary Inspector (Medico di Porto)
Port Veterinary Officer (Veterinario di Porto)
Emigration Officer (Comissario di Bordo)
Harbour Commander (Capannello di Porto)

VIII Education

Provincial Education Officer (Provveditore agli Studi)
Chief Secretary to Prov. Education Officer (Primo Segretario)
Chief Inspector of Schools (Ispettore Capo)
Chief Archivist (Direttore dell'archivio di Stato)

2. The provincial capital of Lucia (population 482,000 - inhabitants) has the following communal officers and institutions:

Municipal Authorities

Mayor (Podesta)
 Deputy Mayor (Vice-Podesta)
 General Secretary (Segretario Generale)
 Chief de Cabinet (Capo Gabinetto)
 Chief Registrar (Capo Ufficio Servizi Demografici)
 Sanitary Inspector (Ufficiale Sanitario)
 Borough Surveyor (Ingegnere Capo Servizi Tecnici)
 Chief Inspector of Taxes (Direttore dei Servizi Tributarî)
 Food Controller (Capo Ufficio Annona)
 Contracting Firm for Town Food Taxes (Direttore Ditta Appaltatrice)
 Chief of Municipal Police (Capo Ufficio Polizia Urbana)
 Head of the Fire Brigade (Comandante dei Vigili Urb.)

Party Officials

The chief Party official for the province is also the chief Party official for the city.

Judicial Officials

Chief Stipendiary Magistrate (Pretore dirigente)
 Chief Secretary (Cancelliere Capo dirigente)
 Arbitrators (Cancellieri) (14)

Public Services

Bus Company Manager (Direttore del S.A. Industr. Autobus)
 Tram Company Manager (Direttore del S.A. Trazione Elettrica della Sicilia)
 Electricity Company Manager (Direttore del Soc. Gen. Elettrica della Sicilia)
 City Gas Company (Aziende Municipale del Gas)
 Administrative Manager (Direttore Amministrativo)
 Technical Manager (Direttore Tecnico)

Communications

(ii) Post and Telegraphs
 Central Post Office, Head Post Master (Direttore)
 Central Telegraph Office, Chief Telegraph Officer (Direttore)
 Central Station P.O. Head Post Master (Direttore)

Education

Royal University of Lucia (R. Università)
 Rector (Rettore)

3378

Chief of Municipal Police (Capo Ufficio Polizia Urbana)
Head of the Fire Brigade (Comandante dei Vigili Urb.)
Party Officials

The chief Party official for the province is also the chief
Party official for the city.
Judicial Officials

Chief Stipendiary Magistrate (Pretore dirigente)
Chief Secretary (Cancelliere Capo dirigente)
Arbitrators (Conciliatori) (14)
Public Services

Bus Company Manager (Direttore del S.A. Industr. Autobus)
Tram Company Manager (Direttore del S.A. Trazione Elettrica
della Sicilia)
Electricity Company Manager (Direttore del Soc. Gen. Elettrica
della Sicilia)
City Gas Company (Azienda Municipale del Gas)
Administrative Manager (Direttore Amministrativo)
Technical Manager (Direttore Tecnico)
Communications

(ii) Post and Telegraphs
Central Post Office, Head Post Master (Direttore)
Central Telegraph Office, Chief Telegraph Officer (Direttore)
Central Station P.O. Head Post Master (Direttore)
Education

Royal University of Lucia (R. Università)
Rector (Rettore)
Registrar (Direttore della Segreteria)
Secondary Education

5 Lyceums (Licei)
3 Normal Schools (Istituti Magistrali)
1 Nautical School (Istituto Nautico)
5 Technical Schools (Istituti Tecnici)
5 Vocational Schools (Scuole Di Avviamento Professionale)
2 Large Private Schools (Convitti)
Cultural Institutions

Royal Academy of Lucia
Royal Academy of Medical Studies
Institute for Fascist Culture

Libraries and Museums

City Library (Biblioteca Comunale)
University Library (Biblioteca dell' Università)
National Museum and Gallery (Museo e pinacoteca)
Ecclesiastical Administration

Archbishop
315 Priests
16 Monasteries
24 Convents

Banks

Banco di Lucia (Central Office and 6 branches)
Banca Commerciale Italiana
Banca d'Italia
Banca Nazionale del Lavoro
Credito Italiano
Several Private Banking Houses
Savings Bank (Cassa di Risparmio) Central Office and 11 branches

Newspapers

2 Daily Newspapers
1 Political Fortnightly
2 Agricultural Newspapers
3 Journals of Commerce
8 Religious Publications

Public Health

10 Public Hospitals
2 Military Hospitals
Branch of the Italian Red Cross
Institute for the Blind
Psychiatric Hospital
Venereal Clinic

Hotels

Bella Vista (130 Rooms, 212 Beds)
Lucia (120 Rooms, 150 Beds)
Suisse (90 Rooms, 160 Beds)

3. Italy surrendered unconditionally before the Allied Ground Forces reached the Province of Lucia. Province and Comune have escaped bombing almost completely.

4. You are ordered as a group to move into the province and to establish military government first in the Capital and secondly in the

Banca Nazionale del Lavoro
Credito Italiano
Several Private Banking Houses
Savings Bank (Cassa di Risparmio) Central Office and 14 branches
Newspapers

- 2 Daily Newspapers
- 1 Political Fortnightly
- 2 Agricultural Newspapers
- 3 Journals of Commerce
- 8 Religious Publications
- Public Health
- 10 Public Hospitals
- 2 Military Hospitals
- Branch of the Italian Red Cross
- Institute for the Blind
- Psychiatric Hospital
- Venerable Clinic
- Hotels

Bella Vista (130 Rooms, 212 Beds)
Lucia (120 Rooms, 150 Beds)
Suisse (90 Rooms, 160 Beds)

3. Italy surrendered unconditionally before the Allied Ground Forces reached the Province of Lucia. Province and Commune have escaped bombing almost completely.
4. You are ordered as a group to move into the province and to establish military government first in the Capital and secondly in the Province as soon as practicable.
5. A week after your arrival, you submit a report to the CCAO on the progress of the group to date. It may include sections by individual members of the group on their specialized activities but the parts must be combined into a well coordinated whole.
6. Although each group must turn in a written report as a solution to the problem, the oral presentation of twenty minutes may take the form of an oral report to the CCAO.
7. Presentation will be made Saturday morning 26 June. Order of presentation will be fixed by lot.
8. Written solutions will be handed in after the last presentation. They should be restricted to 25 pages of manuscript.

AMGOT

Memorandum to: All Officers Concerned.

1. The following groups are established for work on the Group Problem.

<u>Group No. 1</u>	<u>Group No. 2</u>	<u>Group No. 3</u>
Lt. Col. Jordan - Grp Ldr.	Lt. Col. Irish - Grp Ldr.	Lt. Col. Smith - Grp Ldr.
Major Drake	Major Gilshenan	Major Sanford
Capt. Abel	Capt. Canby	Capt. Jequier
Capt. Scarlett	Capt. Todd	Capt. Spencer
Capt. A. C. Wright	Capt. Levitt	Capt. Puccinelli
Capt. Maxse	Capt. Withers	Capt. Pety
Capt. Chaney	Capt. Davis	Lt. Poyet
Lt. Adams	Lt. Cholis	Lt. Shannon
Lt. Bryant	Lt. Criley	Lt. Smith
Lt. Conklin	Lt. Hill	
	Lt. Guccia	

<u>Group No. 4</u>	<u>Group No. 5</u>	<u>Group No. 6</u>
Major Deutsch - Grp Ldr.	Major Dring - Grp Ldr.	Major Meader - Grp Ldr.
Capt. Lewis	Capt. deBourbon	Capt. Staples
Capt. Anderson	Capt. Maude	Capt. Downs
Capt. Smith	Capt. Ball	Capt. Nolan
Capt. Cox	Capt. Glenn	Capt. Kait
Lt. Critchley	Lt. Lovett	Lt. Fearnside
Lt. Crichton	Lt. Hahn	Lt. Kovanich
Lt. Fiorella	Lt. Humold	Lt. Loeb
	Lt. Raingo	Lt. Becker

<u>Group No. 7</u>	<u>Group No. 8</u>
Major Howe - Grp Ldr.	Major Hildebrand - Grp Ldr.
Capt. Mavis	Capt. Fuller
Capt. Pino	Capt. Little
Capt. Frampton	Lt. Neufeld
Capt. Liddell	Lt. Wimmer
Capt. Pearl	Lt. Peterson
Lt. Giammarco	Lt. Strash
Lt. Maki	Lt. O'Toole
Lt. Mitchell	
Lt. Hennessey	

Capt. Scarlett
Capt. A. C. Wright
Capt. Maxse
Capt. Chaney
Lt. Adams
Lt. Bryant
Lt. Conklin

Group No. 4
Major Deutsch - Grp Ldr.
Capt. Lewis
Capt. Anderson
Capt. Smith
Capt. Cox
Lt. Critchley
Lt. Crichton
Lt. Fiorella

Group No. 7
Major Howe - Grp Ldr.
Capt. Mavis
Capt. Pino
Capt. Frampton
Capt. Liddell
Capt. Pearl
Lt. Giammarco
Lt. Maki
Lt. Mitchell
Lt. Hermandinger

Group No. 10
Major Mercer - Grp Ldr.
Capt. Head
Capt. Phillips
Capt. Savin
Capt. Minard
Capt. Rein
Lt. Sacken
Lt. Shaine

Capt. Todd
Capt. Levitt
Capt. Withers
Capt. Davis
Lt. Cholis
Lt. Criley
Lt. Hill
Lt. Guccia

Group No. 5
Major Dring - Grp Ldr.
Capt. deBourbon
Capt. Maude
Capt. Ball
Capt. Glenn
Lt. Lovett
Lt. Hahn
Lt. Humold
Lt. Baingo

Group No. 8
Major Hildebrand - Grp Ldr.
Capt. Fuller
Capt. Little
Lt. Neufeld
Lt. Nimmer
Lt. Peterson
Lt. Strash
Lt. O'Toole

Group No. 11
Major Hannaforl - Grp Ldr.
Capt. Shove
Capt. Wilimovsky
Capt. R. H. Wright
Capt. Vecchiolla
Lt. Kirkpatrick
Lt. Wolfson
Lt. Manzelli

Capt. Spencer
Capt. Puccinelli
Capt. Pety
Lt. Poyet
Lt. Shannon
Lt. Smith

Group No. 6
Major Meader - Grp Ldr.
Capt. Staples
Capt. Downs
Capt. Nolan
Capt. Kait
Lt. Fearnside
Lt. Kovanich
Lt. Loeb
Lt. Becker

Group No. 9
Major Mason - Grp Ldr.
Capt. Grizzard
Capt. Perry
Capt. Patrick
Lt. Raab
Lt. Root
Lt. Vlcek
Lt. Snyder

2. The Group Leaders will meet with Major Rowell in the Silence Room on Wednesday afternoon at 1700 hours.

Chaco Training Centre
22 June 1943.

HENRY T. ROWELL
Major, GMP
Chief Instructor.

AMGOT

CLASS II
SECOND WEEK

Monday, 5 July

0830 - 1000 Language Classes.
1015 - 1115 Health Directives. Col. Cheyne
1130 - 1230 The Corporative State. Major Rowell
1400 - 1700 Committee Work
1730 - 1830 Language Classes

Tuesday, 6 July

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 The Custody of Enemy Property Major Ringuist
1130 - 1230 The Italian Penal Code Major Howe
1400 - 1500 Medical Aspects of Manpower
1500 - 1800 Physical Training

Wednesday, 7 July

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 The Civilian Courts Major Hannaford
1130 - 1230 Police Directives Col. Bolles
1400 - 1700 Committee Work
1730 - 1830 Language Classes

Thursday, 8 July

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Staff Organization Brig. General McSherry
1130 - 1230 Conservation of Monuments Capt. Hammond
1400 - 1800 Physical Training

Friday, 9 July

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Church and State Major Rowell
1130 - 1230 Civilian Supply Major Nolan
1400 - 1700 Committee Work
1730 - 1830 Language Classes

Saturday, 10 July

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Public Welfare Major Witte
1130 - 1230 Education Major Rowell
1400 - 1600 Physical Training

Sunday, 11 July

0900 - 1030 Language Classes
1430 - 1700 Committee Work

AMGOT

Class II
First Week

Tuesday, 29 June

1400 - 1430 Orientation
1430 - 1700 Study of Angot Plan

Wednesday, 30 June

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Military Government and International Law - Lt. Col. Chanler
1130 - 1230 Study of Proclamations
1400 - 1500 Discussion of Proclamations - Lt. Col. Chanler
1500 - 1700 Committee Meetings
1730 - 1830 Language Classes

Thursday, 1 July

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 The Financial Situation - Lt. Col. Gunston
1130 - 1230 Fiscal Directives - Lt. Col. Grafftey-Smith
1400 - 1800 Military Training

Friday, 2 July

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 Italy and the Mediterranean - Major Rowell
1130 - 1230 Military Tribunals - Lt. Col. Rowe
1400 - 1700 Committee Work
1730 - 1830 Language Classes

Saturday, 3 July

0830 - 1000 Language Classes
1015 - 1115 The Italian Government - Major Rowell
1130 - 1230 Military Tribunals - Lt. Col. Rowe
1400 - 1800 Military Training

Sunday, 4 July

0900 - 1030 Language Classes
1430 - 1700 Committee Work

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ITALY'S POSITION IN THE MEDITERRANEAN AND HER FOREIGN POLICY

ABSTRACT

Editor: Henry T. Howell

The insular nature of the Kingdom of Italy is readily apparent on any map of the Mediterranean. The Kingdom is composed of a peninsula and two large islands, Sicily and Sardinia, with a total area of 119,764 square miles. Of this area the peninsula proper accounts for 100,717, Sicily for 5,860 and Sardinia for 9,187 square miles. The peninsula, therefore, is about five times as large as the two islands taken together.

The peninsula, moreover, is far more important than the islands in other ways. Of the 42,444,588 inhabitants of the Kingdom, according to the census of 1936, all but about 5,000,000 inhabit the peninsula. The capital and the largest cities, the industrial and agricultural wealth, the greatest institutions of education and culture, all these are situated in the peninsula. Even when we speak of Italy, it is naturally peninsular Italy or the mainland which we have in mind, although Sicily and Sardinia are integral parts of the Kingdom of Italy with the same political institutions which prevail on the mainland.

Apart from the small province of Zara in Dalmatia which is administratively a part of the Kingdom, it is only in the north that Italy has a common frontier with foreign powers. Here for an extent of 1,227 miles, Italy borders on France, Switzerland, Germany and Yugoslavia along a wide arc running from northwest to northeast. This may be called a natural frontier inasmuch as the Adige and watershed of the Alps quite closely and has been recognized as the natural boundary of Italy by Italians since the middle ages.

As against this land frontier of 1,227 miles, the coast of the peninsula is 5,512 miles long. It is marked by the following parts of the Mediterranean: the Adriatic Sea on the northeast, the Tyrrhenian on the west, the Ionian on the south, the Aegean on the east. Between the sea on west and east, the peninsula varies in width between 150 and 180 miles. Consequently, peninsular Italy has predominantly the aspect of an island, and is surrounded with certain problems which are peculiar to insular territory. So shall return below to the special character given to these problems by these factors.

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Apart from the small province of Fiume in Dalmatia which is administratively a part of the Kingdom, it is only in the north that Italy has a common frontier with foreign powers. Here for an extent of 1,227 miles, Italy borders on France, Switzerland, Germany and Yugoslavia along a wide arc running from northeast to northwest. This may be called a natural frontier inasmuch as it follows the watershed of the Alps quite closely and has been recognized as the natural boundary of Italy by Italians since the Middle Ages.

As against this land frontier of 1,227 miles, the coast of the peninsula is 5,312 miles long. It is marked by the following parts of the Mediterranean: the Ligurian Sea on the northwest, the Tyrrhenian on the west, the Ionian on the south and the Adriatic on the east. Between the seas on east and west, the peninsula varies in width between 150 and 180 miles. Consequently, a peninsula Italy has prominently the aspect of an island, and is certainly with certain problems which are peculiar to insular territory. We shall return below to the special character given to these problems by other factors.

However, in relation to the Mediterranean as a whole, Italy has a different aspect. Together with the island of Sicily which prolongs the toe of the boot to south and west, Italy forms a barrier which divides the Mediterranean into two basins connected by the straits of Messina and the channel which lies between Sicily and Tunisia. The former are about 2 miles wide at their narrowest point, the western extremity; the latter is 94 miles wide between Tunisia in Sicily and Cape Bon in Tunisia. The western basin of the Mediterranean is slightly

more than half the size of the eastern basin exclusive of the Sea of Marmara, the Black Sea and the Adriatic (571,161 square miles as against 595,462 square miles).

Now it is demonstrably true that a country's relations with her neighbors are influenced to a greater or lesser degree by geographical factors. Other factors, of course, are present in the equation - economic, historical, cultural and sentimental - and the present tendency to elevate geography above its due level of importance has led to some unfortunate conclusions. A purely geographical interpretation of history is as apt to be erroneous as a purely economic one. Nevertheless, it may be stated without serious danger of contradiction that Italy's geographical position has been of extraordinary importance in shaping her foreign policy. Her geography is also so inextricably intertwined with her economy and political history that it is a natural starting point for a discussion of Italy's relations with other nations.

To begin with the part played by Italy's insular nature, let us first turn to some highly significant commercial facts. In the year 1934, a Royal Decree estimated that 86 per cent of Italian foreign trade was by sea. This fact alone would be sufficient explanation of the efforts made by the Fascist government to build up Italy's maritime power and navy, as well as to increase her self-sufficiency in oil. But there is sufficient naval power, including aviation, to ensure that commercial shipping may keep an island nation's imports flowing, even though the flow may be reduced to a dangerous trickle in emergency operations. Italy is faced with another problem which is illustrated by the following figures.

Of the total of Italy's sea borne imports, some 70 per cent came through Gibraltar, 15 per cent through Suez and 15 per cent through the Mediterranean Sea. Consequently other nations were in a position to cut off Italy's maritime communications outside of the Mediterranean and so strike a blow at her foreign trade. It was obvious that in the event of a war with England, Gibraltar and Suez would be closed to Italian shipping and it is fact was appreciated by the Italians long before the outbreak of the present war.

The situation was further aggravated by the nature of the imports and exports of Italy. During the years immediately preceding the outbreak of the present war, it is estimated that Italy had to import over 50 per cent of her crude oil. Of this importation,

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So far as the part played by Italy's insular nature, let us recall that her most highly significant commercial facts. In the year 1939, when the Italian Ministry estimated that 86 per cent of Italian imports came from the sea. This fact alone would be sufficient explanation of the efforts made by the Fascist government to build up Italy's sea power and navy, as well as to increase her self-sufficiency in food. But there are sufficient naval power, including aviation, and commercial shipping may keep an island nation's imports at a low level, even when the flow may be reduced to a dangerous trickle by armed operations. Italy is faced with another problem which is illustrated by the following figures.

Of the 80 per cent of Italy's sea borne imports, some 70 per cent come through Suez; 15 per cent through the Red Sea and 15 per cent through the Mediterranean. Suez or the Dardanelles were under Italian control. One quality of other nations were in a position to cut off Italy's communications outside of the Mediterranean and to place her at a disadvantage. It was obvious that in the event of a war with England, Gibraltar and Suez would be closed to Italian shipping and the fact was emphasized by the Italians long before the outbreak of the present war.

The situation was further aggravated by the nature of the imports which came from Gibraltar and Suez. During the years immediately preceding the outbreak of the present war, it is estimated that Italy had to import over 50 per cent of her crude oil. Of this importation, 25 per cent passed through Gibraltar or Suez and 13 per cent came from Romania by way of the Danubius, the Danube or by rail. Of Italy's total imports of oil, comprising 27 per cent of her total consumption, 19 per cent came from Northern Europe by way of Gibraltar and 11 per cent by rail. All of Italy's crude rubber reached her through Suez or Gibraltar. Of her total importation of cotton comprising 20 per cent of her consumption, 80 per cent reached her through Gibraltar.

as for metals, Italy was approximately 25 per cent self-sufficient in iron, 12 in copper and 10 in tin. Of her iron importation, although most of her own iron ore and pig iron came from countries from which she could not be cut off entirely by closing Gibraltar or Suez, 66 per cent of her scrap came from the United States; that is, by sea, through Gibraltar. Through Gibraltar, too, her imported copper and through Suez her imported tin.

Finally with regard to food, Italy suffered the most from an inadequate production of animal fats and silage in which she was only 5 per cent self-sufficient. The rest she had to import and 65 per cent of her importation passed through Gibraltar or Suez. We need not consider here such non-essential parts of the Italian diet as coffee and Argentine beef, her entire supply of which reached her through Gibraltar or Suez.

Now it does not lie within the scope of this paper to discuss the shortages which Italy is now suffering due to the closing of the Mediterranean or the way in which they may have been somewhat alleviated by land transportation. Rather, these statistics have been presented to explain what the Italian was thinking of when he spoke of his country as a prisoner in the Mediterranean before the present war. It was obvious to him that whereas Italy might not be starved out physically by the closing of Gibraltar and Suez, industrially she could be reduced to near impotence, especially in the production of the implements of modern warfare. Thus in shaping her foreign policy and in making her friends and enemies among nations, Italy's industrial dependence upon others and the precarious condition of her maritime communications have played an all important part.

There was, however, another side to the medal. As has been pointed out above, Italy forms a natural barrier across the Mediterranean. This barrier not only divides a vast inland sea but lies across one of the world's most important commercial routes. With the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, Italy found herself no longer off the beaten track of international commerce, but on the chief maritime highway between Europe and the East. Of the countries of Western Europe, she was the nearest to the whole eastern basin of the Mediterranean, to large parts of North Africa, to the Suez Canal, and, hence, to the lands beyond. It was natural that Italy should look again to the south and east for commercial and colonial exploitation as she had done before in the recent days of Venice, Genoa and Pisa. It was also natural that she should make every effort to strengthen her one trump card in the event that war closed Gibraltar and Suez to her commerce; namely, her potential ability to control the Mediterranean.

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There are two more factors which deserve consideration before we undertake analysis of modern Italy's international relations. The first has more to do with her internal geography than with her position in the Mediterranean. It is her rapidly increasing population and the resulting emigration. Italy is a poor country. Her lack of raw materials prevented her from developing her industries to a degree comparable to that of her northern European neighbors. On the other hand, although condemned by nature to be essen-

tionally an agricultural country, she is far from being the garden park also depicted by visiting poets and tourists. 39.6 per cent of the Kingdom is mountainous country, another 40 per cent is covered by hills, and a bare 20.4 per cent is flat, easily cultivated land. In contrast with the Po Valley and Campania which are extremely fertile, there are vast tracts throughout the central and southern parts of the peninsula and on the islands which are hardly suited to agriculture at all. Indeed, in comparison with the rest of Europe, excepting Spain and Greece, it may be stated categorically that Italy is very ill favored so far as agriculture is concerned.

But in spite of these facts, Italy's population increased from 26 to 42 millions between 1870 and 1936. Even the poorest land was cultivated with the patience and skill which have come to characterize the Italian farmer throughout the world. Yet living conditions, especially in the south, were such that emigration to a foreign land was undertaken by large numbers of Italians as the only escape from the poverty and misery from which they were unable to free themselves at home.

In 1913 Italian emigration was at flood tide. Of the 872,593

Italians who emigrated that year, the greater proportion went overseas in search of new homes, with the result that the United States took in 376,776 and the Argentine 111,500. Then came the First World War and by 1918 the number of overseas emigrants had fallen to 5015.

Immediately after the war, Italian emigration to all countries began to increase again until it reached the figure of about 360,000 in 1924. But the severe restrictions imposed by the United States, similar measures adopted by the Argentine, Brazil, Uruguay, Canada and France, and a diminishing demand for foreign labor throughout the world, reduced the stream of Italian emigration to about 150,000 in 1928. It further decreased to about 60,000 in the course of the next ten years. During the same period, however, the population continued to increase at an average of over 400,000 per year. Thus the Italian Government from 1924 on was faced with the problem of limited space at home, inadequate outlets abroad and a rapidly and constantly growing population.

As Mussolini has said in speaking of his foreign policy, "it is determined by a certain order of facts, geographical, historical, economic". So far, we have touched upon some of the salient aspects of the geographical and economic factors. Now it is necessary to consider what Mussolini found behind him in the way of historical precedent when he came to power at the end of 1922.

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By the conquest of Rome in 1870, Italy achieved her unity under the House of Savoy. The boundaries of the Kingdom were then identical with those of today except in the North where the Tyrol and the Istrian peninsula, including Trieste, were still in the possession of Austria-Hungary. After the wars, rebellions and turmoil of the Risorgimento (the period of resurrection) during which the country was freed of foreign domination and the nation created the chief problem of the new nation was reconstruction and consolidation. "We have made Italy", said one of the great Italians of the period, "now we must make Italians." And this, after centuries of political, economic and cultural disunity, was no easy task.

Italy, then, was in a very bad position to compete with Great Britain, France and Germany for the spoils of the moribund Ottoman Empire. What is more, there was a territorial problem much closer to home than that of colonies across the sea. It was the problem of the territory still held by Austria south of Italy's natural frontier, a large part of which was inhabited by people of Italian blood, language and culture. Although the Tyrol was unmistakably Germanic, Trieste was just as unmistakably Italian. Italians called these Austrian possessions Italian irredenta (unredeemed Italy); to Austria-Hungary, however, Trieste, with its superb port on the Adriatic, was the "lung" of the Empire.

So it was natural that Italy's territorial aspirations directly after the unification of 1870 should center on Italy irredenta. Practically, however, there was very little that Italy could do to realize this. She was not strong enough to take the desired territory by force and the principal task facing her statesmen and recognized by the vast majority of her people was to put the new nation in order. A war against Austria-Hungary at the time would have carried with it not only the probability of military defeat, but also the risk of losing the unity and independence which had just been achieved. So the country as a whole kept its cannon silent and the agitation for the unredeemed territory carried on by private groups and individuals was not allowed to become a matter of official national policy.

In 1878 a Congress of Powers was held at Berlin under the presidency of Bismarck in order to revise the settlement reached by Russia and Turkey at the end of the Russo-Turkish war. From it, Austria-Hungary returned with Bosnia-Herzegovina, England with Cyprus and Italy with nothing on, as the Italian Minister put it, with "clean hands". This cleanliness, though admirable, had not been entirely voluntary, for the Italians had made a few tentative suggestions to Bismarck regarding the question of the unredeemed territory and had only succeeded in eliciting the Iron Chancellor's scorn. That the Italians did not persevere was that France could not be treated so cavalierly and could obtain compensation for the acquisitions made by the other great powers in short order.

With the moral support of England and Germany, France established a protectorate over Tunisia in 1881. At the time, over 10,000 Italians (mostly Sicilians) were living in Tunisia as against a few hundred Frenchmen, and, of the European nations, Italy had by far the greatest commercial stake in the country. Of equal or greater importance, moreover, was Tunisia's

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it were the decisive factors in the scramble for colonies which was going on at the time. In spite of the privileges granted to Italians living in Tunisia by the Franco-Italian Convention of 1896, suspended in 1918, but tacitly observed until 1935 when a new accord was reached by Laval and Mussolini, the "Tunisian question" never ceased to be a major stumbling block in the path of Franco-Italian relations.

The French occupation of Tunisia also made Italy realize that she was not strong enough to play a lone hand successfully among the great powers of Europe. The Congress of Berlin had marked the peak of German ascendancy in continental Europe, and Italy's immediate neighbor, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, was allied with Germany. Geographically, the three countries formed a block covering all of Central Europe from the Baltic to the Mediterranean. To Bismarck, a triple alliance between Germany, Austria and Italy would serve to prevent Russia and France from uniting their forces. To Italy, it would mean a guarantee against Austrian aggression, protection from France and a freer hand in the Mediterranean. Italy might continue to be the poor relation at the table of the great powers, but at least she would have some influential friends.

So in spite of the unrefracted lands, the hereditary hatred and distrust of the Austrians, the old friendship with England and the sympathy of the liberal and educated classes for French democratic institutions and culture, Italy concluded the Triple Alliance in 1882.

The Alliance was essentially defensive in character. Article III provided that "if one or two of the high contracting parties, without direct provocation on their side, should be attacked and should find themselves engaged in a war with two or more powers other than the signatories of the present treaty, this would constitute the casus foederis for all other contracting parties". At the same time, Italy was assured by Article VII that she would receive just compensation for any territorial changes effected in the Balkans or on the Adriatic or Aegean by Austria-Hungary. This provision, of course, was stated in terms of reciprocity, but it was meant to allay Italy's jealous fear of further Austrian expansion into territory which she considered vital to her own interests. Finally, an express declaration was made that the Triple Alliance should not be construed as aimed against Great Britain. Italy was well aware of Britain's naval control of the Mediterranean and she did not wish and could not afford to antagonize the power on whose friendship her communications with the world beyond the Mediterranean depended.

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In the meantime, the Rubattino Shipping Company had acquired land on the Bay of Assab in 1869 to serve as a coaling station for Italian ships plying the Red Sea. In the year of the Triple Alliance (1882), this private company sold its possession to the Italian Government and shortly thereafter Italian sovereignty over Assab was recognized by Great Britain. Such were the modest beginnings of Italian imperialism.

In 1885 Italy occupied Massawa over which Egypt exercised a precarious sovereignty and from there she extended her power along the Red Sea and inland toward the Abyssinian plateau, until the land thus occupied was organized as the Colony of Eritrea in 1890. At the same

time Italy made a commercial treaty with the Sultan of Zanzibar which was to lead to protectorates over parts of the Somali coast and finally to the colony of Italian Somaliland, which was constituted in 1906. In 1891, an agreement was reached between Italy and Great Britain whereby Italy was apparently given a free hand to extend her sphere of influence over all of northeast Africa with the exception of French and British Somaliland. Two years before Italy had signed a treaty with Menelik II, King of Abyssinia, in which, in the Italian version at least, Italy assumed the role of "protector" of Abyssinia. But as Italy expanded into Tigre province, the Abyssinians became alarmed; the treaty of 1889 was disavowed and open warfare broke out in 1894. At first, success favored the Italians and Tigre province was overrun by their forces. But the terrible defeat sustained at Adwa in 1896 put an end to the Italian conquest of Abyssinia for many years. Francesco Crispi, the Prime Minister, whose colonial policy of vigorous expansion in Africa had led to the disaster, was forced to resign and it was not until 1935 that Mussolini carried out the conquest of which Crispi had dreamed.

We may pause here for a moment to examine the significance of this colonial movement in northeast Africa. In 1882, when the Italian Government bought Asenb from Rubattino Company, Pasquale Mancini, the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, stated: "The keys of the Mediterranean are in the Red Sea." This statement can be taken to mean that Italy hoped to control one of the chief approaches to the Mediterranean beyond Suez by possession of a long strip of the Western Coast of the Red Sea. But here, too, Great Britain and France saw to their own interests; the former by the acquisition of British Somaliland and Aden, the latter by the acquisition of French Somaliland. Moreover, Italian occupation of Eritrea had been encouraged by Great Britain, an encouragement which would hardly have been given, if Great Britain had seen any real or potential danger in the Italian occupation. Rather, it is more likely that Mancini entertained the hope of using the Red Sea possessions as a starting point for expansion to the northwest which would reach the Mediterranean through Libya which was then under Turkish rule.

It must be recalled here, however, that the Italian imperialists represented a very small fraction of the population at this time. In 1882, when Great Britain moved into Egypt and invited Italy to participate in the movement, Italian public opinion was adverse to the proposal that the Government had to decline. Eritrea and Somaliland were financial liabilities and the surplus population of the Kingdom continued to pour into other European countries and lands across the ocean where

Francesco Crispi, the Prime Minister, whose colonial policy of vigorous expansion in Africa had led to the disaster, was forced to resign and it was not until 1935 that Mussolini carried out the conquest of which Crispi had dreamed.

We may pause here for a moment to examine the significance of this colonial movement in northeast Africa. In 1882, when the Italian Government bought Assab from Rubattino Company, Pasquale Mancini, the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, stated: "The keys of the Mediterranean are in the Red Sea." This statement can be taken to mean that Italy hoped to control one of the chief approaches to the Mediterranean beyond Suez by possession of a long strip of the Western Coast of the Red Sea. But here, too, Great Britain and France saw to their own interests; the former by the acquisition of British Somaliland and Aden, the latter by the acquisition of French Somaliland. Moreover, Italian occupation of Eritrea had been encouraged by Great Britain, an encouragement which would hardly have been given, if Great Britain had seen any real or potential danger in the Italian occupation. Rather, it is more likely that Mancini entertained the hope of using the Red Sea possessions as a starting point for expansion to the northwest which would reach the Mediterranean through Libya which was then under Turkish rule.

It must be recalled here, however, that the Italian imperialists represented a very small fraction of the population at this time. In 1882, when Great Britain moved into Egypt and invited Italy to participate in the movement, Italian public opinion was as adverse to the proposal that the government had to decline. Eritrea and Somaliland were financial liabilities and the surplus population of the Kingdom continued to pour into other European countries and lands across the oceans where favorable opportunities awaited the emigrant instead of into the unhealthy Eritrean coast or the Somali desert. After expansion into the more attractive land of Abyssinian plateau had been checked by the defeat at Adawa, Eritrea and Somaliland were treated more than ever as step-children born of imperialist folly, and if it had not been for the serious damage to national prestige involved therein, there were times when Italy might have rid herself entirely of her colonial burdens in East Africa.

From the Red Sea, Italy turned her attention back to the Mediterranean. As early as 1904, France had indicated that she harbored no intentions of conquest with regard to the two Turkish vilayets of

Tripolitania and Cyrenaica, the only part of North Africa, with the exception of Morocco, which had not fallen under European control. Still Italy hesitated until the French seizure of Morocco in 1911 guaranteed her a completely free hand in Libya. In that year, Italy invaded Tripoli and the war with Turkey ended the following year with Tripolitania and Cyrenaica under the complete sovereignty of Italy. Furthermore, during the war Italy had occupied Rhodes and the Dodecanese Islands. In the peace treaty, Italy pledged herself to relinquish them as soon as the Turks had evacuated Libya; but this she did not do. In 1915, she was promised full sovereignty over these islands by the secret treaty of London, a sovereignty which was confirmed by Turkey in the Treaty of Secres in 1920.

It does not lie within the scope of this discussion to make a detailed study of the intricate negotiations by which the Allied Powers won Italy away from the Triple Alliance and persuaded her to enter the war on their side in 1915. The culmination of these negotiations was the Secret Treaty of London, signed on April 26, 1915, whereby Italy was promised certain gains, chiefly territorial, upon the successful termination of the war.

The most important piece of territory promised to Italy was the land held by Austria south of Italy's natural frontier. This was the unredeemed land toward which Italian aspirations had been directed since 1870. Less justifiable was the promise contained in Article V that Italy should receive the Austria province of Dalmatia on the eastern coast of the Adriatic which was preponderantly inhabited by Slavs and could in no way be considered vital to Italy's security. Outside of Europe, it was further agreed that in the event of a total or partial division of Asiatic Turkey, Italy should obtain an equitable part in the Mediterranean region adjoining the province of Adalia. Finally, it was also agreed that if France and Great Britain should increase their colonial domains in Africa at the expense of Germany "these two powers recognize in principle that Italy may claim equitable compensation, notably in the settlement in her favor of the questions concerning the frontiers of the Italian colonies of Eritrea, Somaliland and Libya and of the neighboring colonies of France and Great Britain". In view of these promises and some others of less importance, Italy went to war on the Allied side.

Out of the confused mass of negotiations which followed the end of the war, a few facts may be chosen as particularly explanatory of the frustration and disillusion which Italy was destined to suffer in regard to her claims. In the first place, President Wilson regarded the Treaty of London as a private agreement which was not binding on

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In the second place, Italy weakened her case by demanding the city of Fiume which had not been promised to her in the Treaty of London.

In fact, under Article V, Fiume was included among territories which "shall be attributed by the four Allied powers to Croatia, Serbia and Montenegro". That Fiume was essentially a city of Italian character could hardly be disputed. But it was equally clear that it was the one first-class port and commercial outlet on the Adriatic for the new state of Yugoslavia. Italy, unfortunately for her later claims, had strengthened Yugoslavia's hand by the Pact of Rome (April 10, 1918) which concluded a Congress of Oppressed Nationalities in that city. In it the Italian Government pledged itself unofficially to support the claims of Yugoslavia at the Peace Conference.

Now it was obviously illogical for Italy to claim Fiume on the Wilsonian principle of ethnic self-determination and in the same breath to claim Slavic Dalmatia on the basis of the promise made in the Treaty of London. But Fiume had begun to obsess the Italian mind and the obsession soon reached the point where the Italian mind and who were negotiating Italy's claims in Paris felt obliged to make Fiume their chief point of insistence.

In doing so, they not only did themselves and their country a grave disservice, but magnified what should have been a minor contention, sensibly settled, into one of the sorest spots of the entire Peace Conference. President Wilson insisted that Italy should abandon both Fiume and Dalmatia. France and Great Britain proclaimed themselves obligated to respect the provision of the Treaty of London to which their signatures were affixed. But carrying out these provisions would have meant giving Dalmatia to Italy and Fiume to Yugoslavia and both of these acts would have been a violation in deed and spirit of President Wilson's fundamental principle of self-determination. Confronted with President Wilson's refusal to yield on the question of Fiume, the Italians protested by leaving the Peace Conference.

This was a sorry mistake. On their return to Paris (May 7, 1919), the Italians found that the question of African mandates had been all but settled in their absence. In vain did they appeal to Article XIII of the Treaty of London mentioning equitable compensation for increase of French and British colonial domains in Africa. At first, they were told that mandates were not colonial domains, and, consequently, that the former German colonies which France and Great Britain had divided among themselves in the form of mandates did not constitute the increase of colonial domain intended in Article XIII. When the Italians refused to be persuaded by this form of reasoning, France made some territorial concessions on the Tunisian border while Great Britain ceded Jubaland. This was the nearest that Italy came to sharing in the African spoils and, in truth, it must be said that this nearest fell very short of satisfying her desires.

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In Asia, Italy fared no better than in Africa. This was not due so much to selfishness of her late Allies as to the rise of a strong and independent Turkey under Mustafa Kemal. Nevertheless, Italy France and Great Britain cannot be excused from having created Italy as an unfortunate inferior during the period when a prostrate Caliphate appeared to give the powers a free hand in settling the fate of Turkey in Europe and Asia.

So, a nation which had paid the price of about 500,000 dead and 1,000,000 maimed or wounded for its final victory, to say nothing of the suffering and privations endured by the populace at home, found itself deprived by its allies of what it considered the just fruits of its efforts. The resulting bitterness and disillusion were no small factors in the triumph of fascism, but that subject must be reserved for another discussion. Here it is sufficient to point out that none of Italy's vital problems was solved by the post-war settlement. She had not acquired any new sources of raw material; she still suffered from the disadvantages of her geographical position. But, in addition, she had been unnecessarily humiliated because of her weakness and had been taught the lesson once again that however valid her claims might seem to her in the light of justice and fair play, their realization depended on the good pleasure of others so long as she lacked the material strength to back them up.

This, in brief and imperfect form, was the background of Italian foreign relations which Mussolini found on coming to power in 1922. In addition, he found France and Great Britain more firmly established than ever in the Mediterranean by virtue of their new post-war mandates in Syria and Palestine, a vigorous, new Turkey, French influence paramount in the Balkans and an attitude, particularly on the part of France, that everything had been permanently settled and that the chief task of post-war Europe was to maintain the status quo. On the other hand, Italy, for a while at least, had nothing to fear from a crashed Germany and a dismembered Austria.

Under these conditions, it was natural that the new, highly nationalistic, Fascist Government of Italy should press vigorously for a revision of the status quo. A revision such as Italy envisaged could only be achieved in two ways: either by peaceful revision of existing treaties or by military conquest. For each, Italy needed two things desperately: sufficient arms to put teeth into her diplomatic negotiations and strong allies to support her both at the conference table and in case of war. Past experience had taught Italy only too well that she was not strong enough to engage any single great power by herself with reasonable prospects of success and Mussolini was not one to neglect the lesson.

Mussolini then, as a master opportunist, proclaimed that Italy stood for peaceful revision, but might not stop short of war if she could not attain her ends peacefully. The Italian sabre was rattled, unsheathed, brandished or sheathed according to exigencies of the moment and the impressionability of the masses. At the same time, the sabre was continually improved and the search for a strategically well-placed

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Before considering these aspects of Italy's post-war foreign policy in some detail, it will be profitable to consider the reasons which were offered for its justification. The first was that Italy had been cheated of what she had been promised by her allies and had earned by her own efforts during the First World War. The second was that Italy's constantly increasing population entitled her to colonies where her emigrants might settle without becoming lost to Italy politically, culturally or economically. The third was that Italy's position as a world power entitled her to raw materials and a less precarious economic

existence at the hands of those nations which possessed their sources. To these were added less tangible claims of Italy's cultural superiority with appropriate references to Rome's civilizing mission and the halcyon days of the ancient Roman Empire, when Italy, indeed, dominated the civilized world of the West. The glorious ghost of ancient Rome, which had never ceased to haunt the Italian mind entirely, was again abroad with a vengeance.

In the meantime, until other nations could be persuaded or forced to accept these views and to fulfill the claims which were based upon them, Mussolini attacked the problems of Italy's excess population in other ways. At home, a program of land reclamation, public works, industrial development and expansion of the armed forces was promoted to furnish land or work for extra hands. Abroad, an effort was made through local organizations to impose fascist concepts and loyalties on the immigrant enclaves strengthening his ties with the "mother" land, even though he might be removed from it by a generation or two.

To return now to treaty revision, the clearest expression of the Italian attitude is contained in a speech delivered by Mussolini on June 5, 1938, after more than five years of fascism. It was not the first time that he maintained that "the Peace Treaties are not eternal", for he had already expressed this opinion as early as 1931 before he came to power. In the speech of 1938, however, the subject is fully elaborated.

The kernel of the speech is contained in the following sentences: "No treaty has ever been eternal, because the world moves on, peoples are formed, grow, decline, sometimes die. The eternity of a treaty would mean that at a given moment humanity, by some monstrous prodigy, had undergone a process of mummification; in other words, had died."

After citing the Treaty of Sevres as a recent example of a treaty of brief duration, Mussolini refers to Article XIV of the Covenant of the League of Nations. It reads: "The Assembly may from time to time advise the reconsideration by Members of the League of treaties which have become inapplicable and the consideration of international conditions whose continuance might endanger the peace of the world."

This was undoubtedly a trump card in the game of peaceful revision which Mussolini was intently playing. But unfortunately for Italy, she found that the nations which had profited territorially by the peace treaties recognized more than one kind of trump. The "haves" at the time of this speech were immeasurably stronger than the "have-nots" and it was a principle far clearer and stronger than the Covenant of the League of Nations.

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In March 1933, however, it began to appear that Mussolini was meeting with some success in his attempts to achieve a peaceful revision of the status quo. At that time, France, Germany, Great Britain and Italy entered into the Four Power Pact. In the original draft the nations in question not only pledged themselves to collaborate towards

the maintenance of peace but also pledged themselves "within the Bureau submit to such a course of action as may make also third parties, if the necessity arises, adopt such a policy of peace". The same powers also reaffirmed "in accordance with the clauses of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the principle of the revision of the peace treaties, in those conditions which might lead to a conflict between the states, but they declare that such principle of revision can only be applied within the ambit of the League of Nations and through mutual comprehension and solidarity of reciprocal interests". Finally, after an article dealing with Germany's rearmament, the four powers pledged themselves to a common line of conduct in political, non-political, European, extra-European and colonial questions.

Mention of the League and "mutual comprehension" did little to lull the fears of the smaller European nations that such revision as the Pact appeared to contemplate would be carried out at their expense and by force if necessary. The presence of Italy, especially, among the signatories was alarming. The equality of all nations, big or little, a fundamental principle of the League, seemed to be giving way to a dictatorship of great powers, and internationalism seemed to be triumphing over international democracy. The Little Entente, Poland and Belgium protested vigorously. Czechoslovakia saw it plain that she would defend her existing frontiers by force.

Such repercussions bore ill for Mussolini's aspirations. Both England and France hastened to assure the smaller nations that the intention of the Pact had been misunderstood and that no infringement of their sovereign rights had been contemplated. Furthermore, the Pact was rewritten in a form acceptable to the smaller nations. The signatories stated expressly that they were "mindful of the rights of every state which cannot be affected without the consent of the interested party", and the offensive subject of revision was buried decently in a provision that the signatories would examine between themselves and without prejudice to others "all proposals relating to methods and procedure calculated to give due effect" to Article XIV of the League Covenant.

Although Mussolini proclaimed that the changes introduced into the final form of the Pact had not altered it substantially, it is clear that his plans for peaceful revision of the territorial status quo had suffered severely. For a moment, Italy had seemed near to obtaining the adherence of France and Great Britain to more than abstract principle to her territorial claims. But although her former allies prudently withdrew their support, Italy did not abandon her aims. Another, she realized more clearly than ever that she needed a strong friend who shared her aspirations to travel the road with her and that there was more than one road

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As early as 1922, Italy had taken a tentative step along the road which she was ultimately to travel: the road of force. Judging from the present vantage point of time and the outcome of the event, one can say that the Corfu incident was less an attempt to acquire foreign territory on the part of Italy than a test of the reactions of France, Great Britain and the League of Nations to an action which disturbed the peace and involved occupation of foreign territory without infringing upon the sovereignty of the two great powers or directly involving the security of the

other members of the League.

The incident arose from the murder of some Italian officers who were serving on a commission to establish the Greco-Albanian frontier under direction of the Conference of Ambassadors of the Allies. Soon after the murder, Italy presented an ultimatum to Greece demanding, among other things, that an indemnity of 50,000,000 lire be paid within five days, that an investigation be conducted at the place of murder in the presence of the Italian Military Attache, and that all guilty of the crime be executed. Greece rightly deplored the crime, disowned responsibility and refused to comply with the conditions given above as infringing upon her sovereignty. In reply, the Italians bombarded and occupied the Greek Island of Corfu.

The conference of Ambassadors under whose authority the Italian officers had been functioning, took up the matter directly with Greece and counseled her to make amends. This she declared herself ready to do, but at the same time she referred the entire matter to the Council of the League of Nations. The Council returned it to the Conference of Ambassadors with detailed suggestions for a settlement. Upon proposal of the latter, Greece paid Italy the indemnity of 50,000,000 lire. Mussolini then evacuated Corfu as the British fleet gathered at Malta. The League later decided that it was legally competent to deal with the matter, a competence which had been challenged by Italy.

Apart from the death and wounds inflicted upon some fifty people, the majority of whom were civilians, the Corfu incident might be considered a trivial affair which was quickly and smoothly ironed out. In its implications, however, it was of no small importance.

Apart from the jurisdictional difficulties arising between the Conference of Ambassadors and the League and apart from the respective rights of the two countries involved, one thing was made clear: the desire to find a hasty expedient by which the matter might be cleared up without causing further trouble. An act of aggression had been perpetrated by a relatively strong country against a relatively weak neighbor without a declaration of war. In return for this act, the strong country received moral condemnation and the indemnity which she had demanded. Mussolini was not yet sufficiently sure of himself or of Great Britain's determination to risk the conflict with Great Britain that night have followed a permanent occupation of Corfu, but he learned the way the democratic wind was blowing, a wind which was later to take him in safety to Abyssinia.

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It was not long after Fascism came to power that Italy began to search for allies who would support her policy of revisions. Italy's past experience had taught her plainly that she was not strong enough to walk alone. Yet the two strongest powers of Europe who had been Italy's recent allies and were most closely bound to her strategically, economically and sentimentally were precisely the powers who were the chief guarantors of the status quo. Around them was a group of small nations who had profited by Versailles and looked to London and Paris to keep their profits intact. Austria, Hungary and Bulgaria might feel sympathy for Rome's aspirations but they were hardly in a position to bring effective aid. Germany even less so at the time. There remained Russia.

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In 1922, Germany had been the first of the powers to give de jure recognition to the Prussian government and to plan commercial arrangements with it. England's recognition came on February 2, 1924, and five days later Italy followed suit. At the time Russia was the strongest European nation identified with the principle of revision. But more than that, she could supply Italy with vital raw materials such as wood, grain and oil. As these materials did not have to pass through British-controlled Gibraltar or Suez, Italy had strategic as well as diplomatic reasons to foster Russian friendship. There were, to be sure, glaring ideological differences between the governments of the two countries and it was Fascism's proudest boast that it had annihilated Communism in Italy. But Mussolini was not one to allow his political philosophy to stand in the way of oil for his navy of powerful support at the conference table.

As Germany faced west again under Stresemann and sought to reach working agreements with France and Great Britain, the friendship between Italy and Russia increased. But Hitler's rise to power in 1933, caused Russia to change her tactics. A strong Germany with declared intentions of attacking the Ukraine on the west and a Japan which was already taking over Manchuria on the east made it imperative for Russia to look for more substantial aid than Italy could give. Security began to take the place of revision as the goal of Russian diplomacy. Security, however, meant alliance with the status quo countries and France in particular. France, though suspicious and reluctant, could not afford to refuse Russia's support in view of the Nazis' political victory and all that it implied. On May 2, 1935, France and Russia signed a treaty of mutual assistance. Its ratification was delayed for many months but Hitler's renitization of the Rhineland in March 1936 put an end to further delay.

As Russia began to change front, Italy saw herself slipping into quasi isolation. She was becoming further than ever removed from her goal of Fascist revision. She was losing her only important ally, and Germany who was rapidly becoming the strongest revisionist nation in Europe was still filled with deep suspicion because of the Nazi machinations in Austria. Mussolini's reaction to the murder of Chancellor Dollfus in July 1934 and his determination to maintain the independence of Austria showed Italy's isolation here.

Faced with this awkward and uncomfortable situation, Mussolini made a fateful decision. He was alone and to walk alone, if necessary. The latter was not entirely necessary since a convenient companion presented himself in the person of M. Pierre Laval. Laval, who was then responsible for French foreign policy, had a long talk with Mussolini on the night of January 6, 1936. The occupation of French diplomacy at the time was to establish friendly relations with allies. Italy is now

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The main result of the Laval-Mussolini conversations. The tangible result, which was made public were some unimportant territorial concessions in the Sudan in North Africa, the transfer to Italy of some shares in the Abessinian-Harar railroad and the extension to 1965 of certain privileges enjoyed by Italian citizens residing in Tunisia. Mussolini stated categorically that "all disputes between ourselves and

France were settled by the agreement of January 7". But it is not Mussolini's way to settle for so little.

At any rate, whatever the pledge may have been that Laval made to Mussolini with regard to Abyssinia - and it is reasonable to conclude that one was made - Laval had failed to reckon with Great Britain. The English people would not tolerate the suppression of Abyssinian independence without protest. Great Britain became the champion of collective security. France, where public opinion was more evenly divided, vacillated between losing Italian friendship so recently acquired and breaking with Great Britain who had now rallied to the very institution, the League of Nations, upon which France in the past had attempted to build her structure of security within the status quo. Reluctantly France followed Great Britain's lead in the application of sanctions.

There was one sanction which could have crippled Italy's military operations: an embargo on oil. But Mussolini had made it quite plain that an embargo on oil meant war in Europe and the Mediterranean. Neither

Great Britain nor France was ready or willing to fight that war and consequently Italy continued to receive sufficient oil for the prosecution of her conquest during the period of sanctions.

On the other hand, the sanctions which were imposed and more or less observed by the nations who had imposed them served to bring discomfort and hardship upon the Italian civilian population, to embitter it particularly against Great Britain and France as leaders of the opposition and to rally it around the government. From reliable reports, the Abyssinian war before the application of sanctions was more popular with many Italians who saw in it a foolhardy and unprofitable adventure. But the organization of foreign hostility along economic lines placed the average Italian in a situation to which it was only hard to react with a feeling of "my country right or wrong" and the determination to support the government at any cost. Finally, the victorious conclusion of the war left the Italians with the belief that his country had successfully defied fifty-two nations and that Great Britain and France were incapable of going to war for anything at any time.

Germany was not among the nations who joined Great Britain and France in voting and applying sanctions on Italy. Italy's own disappointment at Versailles and her internal troubles had soon inclined her to take a sympathetic attitude toward Germany in whom she saw a fellow-sufferer. As early as 1920, Miti, then Prime Minister of Italy, had proposed that the indemnities imposed upon Germany should be adjusted to Germany's ability to pay and that a reasonable policy of disarmament and peace should be adopted to the benefit of all Europe.

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When France occupied the Ruhr, Italy did not join in the occupation and in 1925 she was the first of the former allies to sign a commercial treaty with Germany. This treaty was the forerunner by a year of the Treaty of Friendship and Arbitration between the two nations. After the Locarno Pact of 1925 in which France and Germany pledged themselves to a peaceful settlement of their differences, Italy, as a guarantor of the Pact, was instrumental in having Germany admitted to the League and given a permanent seat on the Council. When Germany stated categorically at the Disarmament Conference that she would not

enter into any agreement that was not based on equality of rights, Mussolini recognized the justice of the German contention and after Germany's withdrawal from the Conference and the League, Mussolini faced the fact of Germany's rapidly growing strength as an inevitable reality.

There was, however, another side to this picture of Italy as the just and understanding friend of an ailing Germany. With the acquisition of the Upper Adige, Italy acquired a German-speaking, strongly pro-Austrian minority which did not take kindly to Italianization. The situation, difficult in itself, was further aggravated by the attitude of many Germans who considered Germany the champion and protector of German minorities everywhere and protested against Italy's "persecution" vehemently. To Mussolini, the problem was purely internal in character and admitted no interference from abroad.

From time to time, the quarrel burst forth in an exchange of bitter words and mutual recriminations, but it was not allowed to interfere with the fundamental relations of the two countries. In fact, Hitler in spite of his Pan-Germanism and his Greater Reich, refused to recognize the Germanic minority in Italy as an obstacle to the friendliest relations with that nation. In October 1939, a compromise was reached whereby the Germanic inhabitants of the Alto Adige were given the choice of becoming German citizens with attendant removal to Germany or of retaining their Italian citizenship with attendant removal to the South of Italy. The resettlement was to be effected before December 31, 1942. It had been postponed to December 31, 1943, because of the war.

The question of the Anschluss or union of Austria and Germany was viewed by Italy as far more serious. Its realization would have brought a Germany considerably increased in territory and population face to face with Italy across the Brenner Pass. This was a danger which Italy could only avoid by maintaining an independent Austria as a buffer state. Consequently, Italy found herself in accord with France in opposing the Anschluss and Mussolini stated bluntly in 1925 that it could not be permitted.

Six years later, when Germany and Austria proposed entering into a customs union in place of the political union from which they had been deterred by the other powers, Mussolini showed himself less forbidding. Professing scepticism as to the economic advantages to be derived from the union, he was at least willing to leave its legality passed upon by the International Court of Justice. An adverse decision made it unnecessary for him to take further steps.

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In 1934 the Austrian Nazis, abetted by Germany, attempted to take over the Austrian Government by force. In this Futsch, Chancellor Dollfus was brutally assassinated. Mussolini replied by massing troops on the Brenner Pass as a warning to Germany to keep out. Hitler was evidently not ready or willing to force the issue at the time and Austria was allowed to preserve her nominal independence for a few years more. This incident was the last occasion on which Germany and Italy were found in substantial disagreement.

Looking back over the relations between Italy and Germany up to the Abyssinian war, it is evident that Mussolini was following a policy dictated by his much vaunted sense of political realism. He had soon realized the impossibility of keeping Germany indefinitely in a position of impotent inferiority and had determined to profit by Germany's position among the nations who, like Italy, were hostile to the status quo. At the same time, his friendship was cut to the measure of Germany's strength. Until Hitler's accession to power, Russia, as the strongest nation among the revisionists, had been the particular object of Italy's diplomatic wooing. In the crisis which followed the assassination of Dollfus, Italian strength was equal or superior to German, and Mussolini threatened to use it in order to keep Germany away from the Brenner. But as Russia abandoned revisionism and Germany continued to remain under a regime which in practice and theory was the Germanic counterpart of Italian Fascism, it was quite consistent with Italy's policy of obtaining strong allies to support her revisionist claims that she looked increasingly toward Germany.

We have spoken of Germany's neutrality toward Italy during the Abyssinian war. In reality, it was much more than that. In March 1936, when German troops marched into the Rhineland in violation of the Treaty of Versailles and the Treaty of Locarno, an international situation prevailed which greatly diminished Hitler's chances of meeting firm opposition. Apart from the facts well known to Hitler that France was inclined to avoid any action which might precipitate a war of any kind and that certain elements in England would view his move with a none too hostile eye, there was a real obstacle which blocked swift, concerted action on the part of France and Great Britain.

This obstacle had been provided by Italy in the form of the Abyssinian war. The sanctions, imposed under the leadership of Great Britain, had failed to stop Italy from waging war and now Great Britain, in the person of Mr. Eden, was urging the immediate adoption of an embargo on oil. Mussolini had threatened war in the event that the embargo was adopted and the prospect of hostilities in the Mediterranean preoccupied the French and British governments. Convinced of Mussolini's determination and ability to carry out his threat, they found themselves in no position to run the risk of starting an immediate war with Germany by opposing the revilitization of the Rhineland by force. Thus, Mussolini had furnished Hitler with the proper circumstances for his move.

On the other hand, it must not be forgotten that Italy was also in a situation where she would have been unable to take any effective action against a German move on the Continent which offended her immediate interests. Preoccupied as she was with the Abyssinian war, she could have done

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On the other hand, it must not be forgotten that Italy was also in a situation where she would have been unable to take any effective action against a German move on the Continent which offended her immediate interests. Preoccupied as she was with the Abyssinian war, she could have done little more than make a formal protest, and Hitler decided at that time to carry out his plans to bring Austria into the German Reich. This he did not do, which was a negative blessing for Italy. But the lack of firmness and decision shown by France and Great Britain in dealing with Hitler's fait accompli, and the relaxation of their sanctionist pressure upon Italy when faced with the never before on the Rhine, could not have failed to impress Mussolini with the tangible advantages which active collaboration between Italy and Germany would produce. On his side, Hitler, confronted with Franco-Russian encirclement, needed an ally in a position to menace France and to offset her influence in the Balkans. Even without the

to collaboration and peace can also collaborate".

The chief aim of Italo-German collaboration was to detach Russia from France and Great Britain in the policy of maintaining the Status quo. When Russia was not invited to Munich in September 1938, to participate in the dismembering of Czechoslovakia, this end seemed achieved. It was apparent that the western powers were more frightened of the "red menace", insistently played up by Germany and Italy for external as well as internal consumption, than of the Nazis and Fascists. Russia's alliance with the West had been finally destroyed and the western powers immeasurably weakened. It was the moment to shout for Corsica, Tunis and Nice.

Indeed, it was high time for the Fascist Government to offer the Italian people something more tangible than promises and expectations. The growing intimacy with Germany was not popular because of traditional sentiments and it could solely be justified on the grounds of political advantage. At Munich, Germany had obtained part of Czechoslovakia. Earlier in the same year (March, 1938) she had incorporated Austria into the German Reich. Italy felt that the next turn was rightly hers. A Mediterranean Munich was sorely needed with Corsica, Nice and Tunis taking the place of the Sudetenland.

Hitler, however, had other plans. A year after Austria's incorporation, Germany absorbed the rest of Czechoslovakia. Italy countered by absorbing Albania the following month. Since Albania had been virtually an Italian protectorate for years, it cannot be said that Mussolini presented the Italians with anything very new or very valuable. Yet German political and economic influence was rapidly replacing Italian influence in the Balkans and something had to be done. Hitler still refused to join Italy in pressing France for territorial concessions having undoubtedly ascertained that such a step would cause France to hasten her military preparations. The French people were slowly but surely beginning to pull together as a nation in the face of obvious danger and Italy's demands for French territory were met with a blunt declaration that France would not cede an inch of ground under threats.

On May 22, 1939, Italy and Germany signed a formal military alliance. Although she had yet to obtain any considerable advantages from Germany, she had travelled too far along the road with Germany to turn back and Germany alone offered her the possibility or, as it then seemed, the probability of achieving the aims of seventeen years of Fascist foreign policy: territory, resources and a place in the sun. Italy had tried every device from peaceful revision of the status quo to was against a weaker state in twenty years between the two world wars. In spite of the peaceful negotiations, the threats and the violence, in spite of the agreements, conventions and alliances.

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So the old search for a strong ally had brought Italy back again to Germany. From the period of sanctions on, there was a question on the lips of all but the most professional Fascist: "Why had France and Great Britain driven Italy into the arms of Germany?" They disliked the road

which was leading to an alliance with Germany and now the ultimate danger. On the other hand, the vast majority sincerely believed that the claims of their country were just and reasonable for territory, raw materials and less dependence upon others. Mussolini, it seemed to them, had tried every peaceful method at his command to achieve these aims. Hebuffed he had adopted another way, singularly unsympathetic to his people, but promising results. And it seemed possible that the threat of war might suffice instead of the war which all but a few dreaded.

The unmistakable relief evinced by the Italian people when Italy did not enter the war immediately encouraged the wishful thought among many on the Allied side that the change of alliances made in 1915 might repeat itself. We know now that Italy permitted by the anxious concessions made by the Allies in an attempt to win her away from Germany in the winter of 1939-40, and that she continued to serve Germany well. Italy's geographical position, her economic situation, her political history and the foreign policy pursued by her dictator between the two wars far outweighed any factors of an emotional nature such as dread of war and aversion to the German alliance which were both strongly felt by the Italian people as a whole. History and circumstances had long been preparing the declaration of war of June 10, 1940.

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ALCOT

SURVEY OF THE GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF ITALY

Major Henry T. Rowell

The Kingdom of Italy is a constitutional monarchy which is governed by a legalized dictatorship. Its present form of government is based on traditional elements so modified and extended as to assure the complete domination of one man supported by a political party which he, in turn, dominates.

THE CONSTITUTION

The fundamental document of the Italian Constitution is the Statute which was promulgated on March 4, 1848, by Charles Albert, King of Sardinia. It was an act of royal authority, which had been absolute up to that time, by which that authority placed limitations upon its own powers in order to meet the circumstances of the times and the interests and dignity of the people. It was not considered by an elective constituent assembly or ratified by a plebiscite. The Statute was modeled after the French Constitution of August 4, 1830, which was drawn up along principles of democratic government established in England and the United States. It makes provision for a Senate and Chamber of Deputies, administration through the King's ministers, courts of law and powers of the monarchy. It establishes the rights of assembly, association and the press. Originally the Statute applied to the Kingdom of Sardinia alone. But as the present Kingdom of Italy was formed by decrees around the Kingdom of Sardinia and its royal house, the House of Savoy, the Statute was extended to the new territory and became the constitutional basis of the new Kingdom of Italy which was proclaimed on March 17, 1861, with Victor Emmanuel II as its King.

In the Statute, there is no provision for amendment or revision. This was soon interpreted to mean that it was not necessary to convolve a constituent assembly to change or modify an article of the Statute, but that Parliament itself was always constituent and constituted. There is no Supreme Court to pass on the constitutionality of laws or, consequently, the Italian Constitution, although originally enacted like the American, has become cumulative like the British, where, the Fascist laws which have profoundly affected the whole structure of the state cannot be tested in constitutional terms at the point of view of Italian legal practice or theory. They are simply new laws which have superseded all laws. The Statute remains on the books today in precisely the same form in which it was first promulgated, although many of its provisions have been nullified.

THE MONARCHY

In spite of the dictatorial powers vested by the Prime Minister, Head of the Government and Duce of Fascism, the King of Italy is still nominally the supreme head of the state. He is the fountainhead of authority in administrative matters and his residual powers in the legal field are still intact.

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Under Fascism as before, the main powers and regulation over the execution of the laws are issued in the King's name. He appoints and dismisses his ministers. Justice emanates from the King and is administered in his name. No appointments, judicial officers and exercises the right of pardon and constitution of state, he represents the state in international affairs, declares war and makes treaties of peace. On ascending the throne, he swears to obey the Statute and all the King's official acts, however, will be countersigned by his ministers in order to be valid and have legal force. The use of the former veto in the King was determined by his ministers. Today they are controlled more completely than ever before by the Prime Minister by means of a law which will be considered below. It must be noted, however, that until recently the King of Italy has always been less of a monarch than some other constitutional monarchs. Although the King of Italy has formally been scrupulous to observe both the letter and spirit of the Italian Constitution in its entirety since 1848, the Italian parliament, etc., previous to Fascism, gave the King many opportunities to exercise his personal judgment and influence with regard to the political affairs of the nation. The lack of

cal party with a real majority in the Chamber of Deputies left the King with a wider choice than is given by a two-party system in appointing a Prime Minister around whom a new Council of Ministers would be found. The occasional appointment of a Prime Minister who was seriously opposed by certain political groups has at times served as an occasion for open manifestations against the monarchy as a political institution. But it may be said that until recent years, the Kings of Italy have shown a discretion and good sense which have merited the respect and loyalty of the Italian people.

Finally, as we shall see below, the King still has the legal right to dismiss the present Prime Minister and by a new appointment could bring about sweeping changes in the national government.

THE MINISTERS

By far the most important of the national government is the Administration (Governo) which is operated through the various Ministries. There is hardly any aspect of Italian life which is not controlled directly or indirectly by them. They are the organized instruments by which the dictatorship exercises its powers and the nation is totally coordinated.

Until the Fascists came to power, the convention was observed that the Council of Ministers (Cabinet) was responsible to the Chamber of Deputies. But a relatively large number of political parties made this responsibility vague and a definite

Government program almost impossible. Instead of a Council formed of men from a single party, councils were combinations of coalitions in which the most important parties were represented. The Prime Minister, moreover, did not come necessarily from the party with the strongest representation in the Chamber but was more apt to be a man with a strong personal following who could manage to combine a Council of Ministers by means of his personal influence and astuteness. Needless to say, a Council so constituted made decisions which were chiefly compromises between the widely divergent views held by its several members. Much of its effort was spent in remaining in office rather than in realizing a political program. When the Chamber objected to the policy of any single member of a Council, the Council was reformed without the objectionable member instead of the group standing or falling together as a whole (transformismo). There were 66 Councils before that of Mussolini.

The Fascist law of December 24, 1925, made a fundamental change in the relations of King, Council of Ministers, and Chamber of Deputies. At the same time, it is one of the foundation stones of the present dictatorship of Mussolini. Its chief provisions are these:

In the first place, it states expressly that the executive power is exercised by the King by means of his Government (Governo or Administration). The King's Government is composed of the Prime Minister and other Ministers. The Prime Minister is Head of the Government. The Head of the Government is appointed and dismissed

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These provisions effect a basic change in Italian government in that all Ministers are no longer responsible to the people through their duly elected representatives. In addition, all Ministers except the Prime Minister depend on the Prime Minister for their appointments since it is on his nomination that they are appointed or dismissed by the King. In this way the Prime Minister controls the Administration completely and is expressly responsible for the functioning of the whole. It should be noted however, that the King still has the right to appoint and dismiss his Prime Minister arbitrarily, although the decree must be signed by his successor.

In the legislative field the same law states that no bill can be submitted to the Senate or the Chamber which has not received the approval of the Prime Minister. Thus, the Prime Minister virtually controls all legislation since bills alone which

he approves are presented to Parliament.

It is Fascist theory that Parliament had usurped rights belonging to the King and his Government in the pre-Fascist period and that the balance was redressed by making the King the interpreter of the national will and the best interests of the nation. The Fascists also argue that Parliament no longer represented the will of the people at the time when they came into power. But the fact remains that Parliament is deprived of its traditional right to be the supreme arbiter of its own legislation, and has sunk from being the principal source of legislation to a body which automatically passes the bills sent to it by the Government. To summarize briefly, the law of 1925 overturns the traditional structure of Royal authority, Government, and Parliament so that authority in administrative and legislative affairs flows down from the top instead of up from the electorate. This is a characteristic of Fascist Dictatorship which we shall meet elsewhere.

As to the Council of Ministers, this body is completely subservient to the will of the Prime Minister, who has its members appointed and dismissed arbitrarily and who directs and coordinates all its activities. By the law of 1925, the Prime Minister may take over the direction of one or more Ministries; so Mussolini has had legal sanction for holding more than one portfolio at a time. It has been his custom in general to take over a Ministry whenever he felt its affairs to need his personal supervision. Other Ministers are appointed for two principal reasons: because of their services to the Fascist cause, or because of ability. Often a Minister is appointed to carry out a specific task, and it is understood that he will resign once the task is completed.

Apart from the Presidency of the Council of Ministers, an office which handles affairs of particular interest to the Prime Minister or not falling within the sphere of any of the regular Ministries, the national administration is composed of fifteen Ministries. Their names, numbers of employees and annual budgets as of July 1, 1938 are the following:

Ministry of	Employees	Budget in Lire
Finances	53,778	575,131,000
Justice	21,633	288,230,000
Foreign Affairs	3,004	135,230,000
Italian Africa	79,895 (a)	748,582,000
National Education	147,303	1,518,560,000
Interior	28,977	355,110,000
Aeronautics	20,004	299,603,000
Public Works	8,767	113,645,000
Communications	2,379	51,586,000
War	127,026 (b)	1,330,494,000
Naval	12,070	151,387,000

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War	127,026 (b)	1,330,494,000
Navy	42,072 (c)	451,387,000
Agriculture and Forests	6,335	69,762,000
Corporations	1,973	21,209,000
Popular Culture	354	5,694,000
Foreign Exchange	290	5,960,000
Total	543,820	5,951,183,000

a. Includes 79,178 officials in the Colonies.

b. Includes officers and non-commissioned officers of the army and all personnel of the Royal Carabinieri.

c. Includes officers and petty officers of the navy.

Each of these Ministries are divided into two sections. For example, the Ministry of Corporations is divided into:

1. Office of the Secretary of the Council of Corporations.
2. Professional Associations
3. Labor, Social Security and Welfare.

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4. Industry.
5. Commerce.

Most of the sections of the various Ministries have the title Direzione Generale, (general management), and are the highest units of administration in the several matters assigned to their charge. The function of others is inspectorial rather than administrative.

Although the main public services ^{operated} by the State are connected with a Ministry through the person of the Minister, they are autonomous agencies with their own directors, budgets, and administrations. The Minister of the Ministry with which an agency is affiliated presides over that agency. Names, Ministries with which affiliated, numbers of personnel and annual budgets as of July 1, 1938, are as follows:

<u>Name and Ministry</u>	<u>Employees</u>	<u>Budget in Liro</u>
Railroads (Communications)	137,687	1,790,481,000
Post and Telegraph (Communications)	59,733	570,847,000
Telephones (Communications)	1,414	16,613,000
State Roads (Public Works)	7,874	67,613,000
National Forests (Agriculture)	53	1,287,000
State Monopolies (Finance)	28,186	167,313,000
<u>Totals</u>	<u>234,947</u>	<u>2,614,154,000</u>

Of these agencies, Post and Telegraph, National Forests and State Monopolies furnish all the services within their respective spheres of activity. With regard to railroads, the Railroad Agency operates the 10,625 miles of track, including all main lines, which belong to the State. The remaining 3,907 miles belong to and are operated by private companies. Telephone service within the cities is supplied by five private companies under the supervision of the State Telephone Agency which also operates the interurban lines which are not conceded to private enterprise. The agency of State Roads maintains about 13,000 miles of highway, it being the function of local government, provincial and communal, to look after most of the roads within its territory.

In addition to the Ministers who preside over the Ministries described above, it should be noted that the Secretary of the Fascist Party was made a Minister and hence a regular member of the Council of Ministers in 1937. But since the Fascist Party in which he has power second only to the Duce is not a Ministry, he should be considered a Minister without portfolio. Also, it should be noted that the Undersecretaries, who are apt to be the men who do the actual work of administration in all governments have become increasingly unimportant in the Fascist Ministries. In fact, there are several Ministries in Italy which no longer have an Undersecretary.

THE GRAND COUNCIL OF FASCISM

The Grand Council of Fascism was called together by Mussolini for the first time in Rome on January 12, 1925. It was composed of outstanding members of the Fascist Party who met to advise Mussolini on the many problems which confronted the Party as a political organization and as the basis upon which a new form of national

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Permanent constitutional functions were given to the Grand Council of Fascism by the law of December 9, 1926, which the Council itself formulated. This law defines the composition and function of the Council and its essential parts are now

given together with certain modifications introduced in recent years.

The members of the Council fall into three categories:

1. Surviving members of the quadrumvirate of the March on Rome. They enjoy life membership.
2. Members ex officio. These are the presidents of Chamber and Senate; the ministers of Foreign Affairs, Interior, Justice, Finance, Education, Agriculture and Forests, Corporations, Popular Culture; the presidents of the Royal Academy of Italy; the secretary of the Fascist Party; the commanding general of the Fascist Militia; the president of the Special Tribunal for the Defense of the State; the presidents of the National Confederations of Employers and Employees in industry and agriculture.

These men are appointed by royal decree on proposal of the Head of the Government.

3. Members of the government, secretaries of the Fascist Party since 1922, and others who have deserved well of the nation and the Fascist revolution. They may be appointed for three years by decree of the Head of the Government.

Let us note here that the composition of the Fascist Grand Council is controlled directly or indirectly by the Head of the Government, who is a member ex officio and who presides over its meetings. With regard to the second category, members appointed by royal decree, the men are not only proposed by Mussolini for appointment to the Council but have been previously proposed by Mussolini for the ministries or offices which make them eligible for appointment to the Council. With regard to the third category, it is Mussolini himself who does the appointing. Only the two surviving members of the first category are not directly indebted to Mussolini for their membership and may not be removed by him arbitrarily.

As to the functions of the Grand Council, the law states in general that "the Grand Council of Fascism is the supreme organ that coordinates and integrates all the activities of the regime." In other words, it is the chief organ by which the policies and activities of State and Party are given a common purpose and kept in close collaboration when not actually fused in a single whole. To effect this integration the Council has two kinds of functions, which we may call Fascist and constitutional.

The chief Fascist functions are to direct the policy of the Party, to discuss the nomination and dismissal of its highest officials and to give its opinion on proposed changes in the Party Constitution.

In matters of state, it must be consulted on all matters of a constitutional nature. "Matters of a constitutional nature" had to be defined by the Grand Council arbitrarily since the Italian Constitution, as we have seen above, is in fact the large body of laws and practices which have grown up around the original Statute, the provisions and spirit of which are still in force.

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1. The succession to the throne, the attributions and the prerogatives of the Crown;
2. The composition and the functioning of the Grand Council, the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies;
3. The attributions and the prerogatives of the Chief of the Government, Prime Minister, Secretary of State;
4. The power of the Executive Authority to issue judicial rules (laws in the form of decrees not passing through the usual parliamentary procedure);
5. The syndical and corporative order;
6. The relations between the State and the Holy See;

7. International Treaties which involve changes in the territory of the State and the Colonies, or renunciation of the acquisition of territories.

On these matters, the Grand Council must be consulted. Otherwise, the Head of the Government may convoke it whenever he thinks it necessary.

Finally, the Grand Council in agreement with the Head of the Government keeps a list of names up-to-date which is to be presented to the Crown if the office of Head of the Government becomes vacant. From this list, presumably, the King would appoint a new Head of the Government. But two things should be noted in this regard: first, there is no law compelling the King to limit his choices to the men designated in the list. In the second place, the Head of the Government is a Fascist title given to Mussolini in 1925 in addition to that of Prime Minister. It was given to him in the law on which much of his dictatorial power is founded (see above under The Ministers), and it expresses his position as dictator. Under a different regime, a new Prime Minister might well be appointed by the King without the title of Head of the Government. In fact, the dissolution of the Fascist Party would give both the office of Head of the Government and the Grand Council of Fascism no further reason for existing.

PARLIAMENT AND LEGISLATION

The present Italian Parliament is composed of a Senate and a Fascist and Corporative Chamber (Governo dei Fasci e delle Corporazioni). In pre-Fascist Italy, Parliament was the chief legislative organ of the State. For a bill to become law, it had to be passed by both the Senate and the Chamber and then sanctioned and promulgated by the King. Royal sanction was automatic except in exceptional cases and, even then, it is debatable whether the King had the legal right to refuse his approval.

Bills may be introduced in Parliament either by the Administration or by individual members of the Senate or the Chamber. An Administration bill is presented in the name of the King by the Minister most closely concerned and must be considered. A private-member bill must first receive a favorable vote of consideration before it is discussed. As mentioned above, it must also have the approval of the Head of the Government before it is introduced.

Today, a law as opposed to a decree-law can still be made by Parliament alone. But the creation of decree laws by a law of January 31, 1926, affords the Administration a device by which it can legislate at least temporarily without the consent or action of Parliament.

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A decree-law has the same force as a law passed by Parliament. It is issued in the King's name after deliberation by the Council of Ministers. It may be issued on matters over which authority has been delegated to the Administration by law or in cases of "urgent and absolute necessity". Parliament alone is entitled to judge the urgency and necessity of the case.

After a decree-law is promulgated, it must be presented to Parliament for conversion into a full law. If either House rejects the bill for conversion, the decree-law becomes immediately invalid. If Parliament does not act upon it, the decree-law automatically lapses at the end of two years.

Although Fascist Parliaments have never refused to pass important bills sent to it by the Administration through the usual channels (presentation by a Minister), the Administration has used the decree-law as a quick and convenient method of carrying out its own legislative program. Thus it has reduced the function of Parliament still further from that of a source of legislation to that of an automatic rubber stamp. In the twenty-ninth legislative (1934-1939) only four bills were introduced which did not come directly from the Administration and of the 2,705 Administration bills, about sixty per cent were for the conversion of decree-laws. There were no interpellations and only thirty-four oral and written questions addressed to the Administration.

THE SENATE

The Law of December 12, 1929, has made few changes in the organization or legal status of the Senate as established by the Statute of 1848. This body is composed of men appointed to life tenure of office by the King in an unlimited number. There are now about 435 senators. Until 1901, the King acted without formal advice in making his selections. Since that time, appointment has been made on the proposal of the Council Ministers.

Princes of the Royal House become members of the Senate at the age of twenty-one by right of origin and obtain the right to vote at twenty-five. All other senators must have attained the age of forty and must belong to one of twenty-one categories. These categories embrace the highest offices in the political, military, and cultural life of the country. They may be summarized as follows:

1. Church: Archbishops and Bishops;
2. National Government: Ministers and former Deputies;
3. Diplomacy: Ambassadors, Envoys, and Colonial Governors;
4. Judiciary: Judges and Officers of the Courts;
5. Armed Forces: Generals and Admirals;
6. Local Government: Prefect^s and Prefectorial Councillors;
7. Arts and Sciences: Academicians;
8. Education: Members of the Superior Council of National Education.

In addition to these categories, all of which are connected with definite offices, there are two of a more general nature: men who have merited well of their country and men who pay 50,000 lire or more in direct taxes. These categories make it possible for men of distinction who have not held an official position in the state to be admitted to the Senate.

The Senate has the right to reject a royal appointee but only on the grounds that he does not belong to one of the categories mentioned above. The character and reputation of an individual, however, is also weighed when his candidacy is examined. Once confirmed by the Senate in his new office, the Senator must take an oath to be loyal to the King, to obey the laws, and to work for the sole good of King and country.

Senators enjoy the traditional immunities. They cannot be proceeded against legally for opinions expressed on the floor; they are not subject to arrest (except for flagrant crime) except by order of the Senate; and if arrested, they must be tried by a court composed of fellow senators.

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The President of the Senate is appointed by the King. He is assisted by four Vice Presidents, also appointed by the King, and two Questors, and six Secretaries elected by the Senate from their own number. Presidents and Vice Presidents preside; Questors attend to the Finances; Secretaries to the rolls, minutes, etc.

In the section on Ministers we have seen that no bill may be presented to the Senate or Chamber of Deputies which has not previously obtained the consent of the Head of the Government. This, of course, is a fundamental restriction of the original right of the Senate as a legislative body to initiate whatever legislation it saw fit except financial bills, which were first considered by the Chamber. On the other hand, true laws (Leggi) as distinct from decree-laws (Decreti-leggi) must still be passed by Senate and Chamber before being promulgated by the King. We have seen above how the institution of the decree-law allows the Dictatorship to legislate freely without previous consultation of Parliament.

To handle legislation, the Senate is divided into eight Committees (Comitati).

appointed by the President. Such committee consists of at least thirty members and handles an important field of legislation such as Agriculture, Armed Forces or Education. Bills need only to be passed by a plenary session. Bills relating to national budgets, legislative delegations of a general character and "constitutional" matters as defined in the section dealing with the Great Council of Fascism above, all require a plenary session. Within thirty days of a bill's introduction, a committee must take action. If it fails to do so, the Administration is entitled to put the bill into effect by royal decree.

Apart from its chief work as a legislative body, the Senate also exercises certain judicial functions. The most important of these is the sitting of the Senate as a High Court of Justice. It can be constituted as such in three cases: 1, to judge crimes of high treason when such crimes are transferred to the jurisdiction of the Senate by royal decree from the jurisdiction of the Tribunal for the Defense of the State; 2, to judge ministers impeached by the Chamber of Deputies; 3, to judge its own members. In the first two cases, the Senate must sit in judgement as a body; in the third case, the Senator is tried before a standing commission. There is no appeal from the Senate's decisions in these matters.

It should be quite clear by now what the Senate was meant to be. It was meant to be a body of the most distinguished men of the nation, whose age, success, and experience had made relatively conservative and from whose mature deliberation and thoughtful political action could be expected. Life tenure of office and royal appointment removed its members from the pressure of electioneering and political debts and hence from catering to a particular group, social, economic, or territorial, at the expense of the national good.

This was the theory, and, indeed, until Fascism came to power, the Senate had a commendable record of diligent and intelligent work. By its very composition, it was naturally more conservative than the Chamber. But it could not obstruct the will of the Chamber indefinitely while the Ministers were responsible to the Chamber, because since 1901, at least, the Ministers have in the power, acting through the King, to appoint a number of new Senators sufficient to create a majority favorable to the legislation voted by the Chamber. Generally the threat of doing so alone has obtained the desired results. But even so, a situation for the abolition of the Senate on the part of the more radical political groups was long a familiar feature of Italian politics. Worthy of note is the way in which Mussolini bided his time with respect to this body. In 1919, he called for its abolition; in 1922, on becoming Prime Minister, he treated the Senate with a deference which was emphasized by the open contempt which he reserved for the Chamber.

After twenty years of Fascism, the Senate, of course, is full of good Fascists and the opposition to certain Fascist policies, which was vigorously if ineffectively voiced by certain Senators as late as 1923, is no longer heard. Yet, an examination of the results of secret balloting in a session of December 1934, shows that of the 261 members taking part, 25 voted against two highly important Government bills.

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As in the Chamber, bills are no longer introduced by individual Senators, and the legislative function of the Senate has been reduced to vetting the legislation proposed by the Government. Occasionally a slight criticism may be made on the floor or an unimportant amendment suggested by the reporting committee. But in the majority of cases, the Senate applies the rubber stamp with enthusiasm and without discussion.

THE CORPORATE STATE

Since the latent organization of the Italian Chamber is closely connected with the present organization of Italian economy, the latter must be explained before the Chamber is described.

ASSOCIATION OF EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES

In Italy, Capital, Management, Labor and Production are organized in two ways,

vertically and horizontally. The vertical organization governs the relations between Capital and Management, on the one hand, and Labor, on the other. These elements are organized into Confederations of Employers and Confederations of Employees, corresponding to each other in large fields of endeavor. The nine Confederations recognized by the state are those of Employers and Employees in Agriculture, Industry, Commerce, and Credit and Insurance, and a single Confederation of Professional Persons and Artists. These Confederations are further subdivided along territorial and occupational lines. With the exception of the Confederation of Professional Persons and Artists which is divided into National Syndicates, each Confederation whether of employers or employees is divided into National Federations on the basis of occupational categories. For instance, the Confederation of Agricultural Employees is divided into four National Federations as follows:

1. Technical and administrative employees of agricultural or forestry undertakings.
2. Tenant farmers and share croppers.
3. Wage workers and laborers.
4. Specialized personnel in agriculture, animal husbandry and forestry.

The number of Federations forming part of a Confederation runs from 47 (employers in industry) to 4 (employees in agriculture). It is not necessary for the Federations of Employers and Employees within the same field of general activity to correspond to each other in number. As example, the Employers in Commerce are divided into 37 federations representing different businesses, while the Employees in Commerce fall into five groups, each organized as a Federation. Below the National Federations are the territorial groups, provincial or inter-provincial syndicates. They include either the employers or the employees within a province or a number of provinces who belong within an occupational category represented by a Federation. When a Federation has more than one syndicate in a province, which frequently happens, each syndicate represents a further specialization of the general activity represented by the Federation.

The work of coordinating the various provincial and inter-provincial syndicates of National Federations which belong to the same Confederation is done by offices of the Confederations, called Provincial or Inter-provincial Unions. They are the bodies by which the highest units in the chain of authority, the Confederations, keep in active touch with the main territorial units.

The chief functions of these Fascist associations are these: they make collective labor contracts, represent their members in the labor courts and exercise certain forms of welfare. But it must be emphasized that the lower units in the chain of authority are closely controlled by the higher in their activities. From the legal point of view, the Provincial Syndicates are branches of the National Federations. They must have the approval of their respective National Federations in order to make labor contracts and their contractual position is that of agents of the Federation.

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In 1938, the four Confederations of Employers had 2,761,513 members; the four corresponding Confederations of Employees, 7,506,874; the Confederation of Professional Persons and Artists, 162,139. All workers or employers do not belong to these associations, but contracts made by them bind every person within the occupational category, whether a member or not. Non-members must also pay the regular dues.

At the top of this elaborate machinery stands the Ministry of Confederations.

It passes upon labor contracts and constitutions of Associations and has the right to reject, change and abolish. In some matters it acts directly, in others through the Confederations. In the final analysis, the whole structure of Employers' and Employees' Associations, from Confederation to Provincial Syndicate, is designed to furnish a chain of authority by which the government may exercise a total control of labor relations throughout the country.

In addition to the associations which furnish the machinery for the control of labor, the national government has another legal device which enables it to control other factors of economic production. That device is the Corporation which operates in a horizontal manner.

The Fascist Corporation is an organization which coordinates the activities of a given field of economic activity. There are twenty-two such fields, each covered by its own Corporation. They are: (1) Cereals, (2) Vegetables, fruits and flowers, (3) Wine and Oil, (4) Animal husbandry and fisheries, (5) Wood, (6) Textiles, (7) Clothing, (8) Metals, (9) Mechanics, (10) Chemicals, (11) Liquid fuels, (12) Paper and printing, (13) Building industry, (14) Water, gas and electricity, (15) Extractive industries, (16) Glass and ceramics, (17) Land communications, (18) Sea and air communications, (19) Theatre, (20) Hotels and tourist trade, (21) Professions and arts, (22) Insurance and credit.

In theory each corporation is composed of all the people, employers and employees, who are engaged in the production or distribution of a category of goods or services. In fact, it is operated through a Council composed chiefly of representatives of the various Employer and Employees Associations which labor within the Corporation's field of activity and representatives of the Fascist Party.

There are twenty-two Corporations. The membership in each council is divided between active members and associate members. The sum total of all members of the twenty-two Corporations is 1,000; 500 active and 500 associate.

Each Council has three active members representing the Fascist Party, one of whom serves as Vice President. The rest of the active membership is drawn from the Associations of Employers and Employees and the National Fascist Association of Cooperatives. It varies in size by Corporations, although employers and employees must be numerically balanced.

To illustrate, we may take the composition of the Council of the Corporations of Insurance and Credit. Its active membership includes three members representing the Fascist Party, two from agriculture, two from industry, two from Commerce, thirty-four from Credit and Insurance, two from Professional Persons and Artists, one from Cooperatives and one from Small Business, making a total of forty-seven (47) members. Its associate membership includes thirty-seven members drawn mainly from the category of Credit and Insurance.

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The Corporation is an organ of the State. All its members must be appointed or approved by the Administration. Apart from its general function of coordination, it represents the interests of its component parts and attempts to conciliate labor disputes between them. It may establish fees and prices subject to the approval of the Corporative Central Committee.

This committee is the highest organization for economic planning in the country. It is composed of the heads of the Government, Ministers and Undersecretaries of State, Vice-Secretaries and the Administrative Secretary of the Fascist Party, the 22 representatives of the Fascist Party who serve as Vice Presidents of the separate Corporations, the Presidents of the Confederations of Employers and Employees and the President of the National Fascist Association of Cooperatives. It is the body which deals with economic matters on the national scale and coordinates and supervises the separate Corporations.

THE FASCIST AND CORPORATIVE CHAMBER

The organization of the present Chamber based, as a law of January 19, 1939, is

closely connected with the economic organization of the nation as previously described. Elections have been abolished and all members, now called National Councilors, hold their seats ex officio.

The membership may be divided into three categories:

1. The Duce and the Grand Council of Fascism.
2. All members of the National Council of the Fascist Party.
3. a. The Corporative Central Committee;
b. The active members of the 22 Corporations.

Categories 1 and 3 have already been described. The National Council of the Fascist Party is composed of the National Directorate of the Party (Party Secretary, 3 Vice-Secretaries, Administrative Secretary and 6 other members), the 94 Federal (Provincial) Secretaries, the Party Inspectors, the Secretary, Vice-Secretary and two Inspectors of the Fascist groups abroad, and the Presidents of the two National Veterans Associations. All members are appointed by the Duce upon nomination by the Secretary of the Party.

This new Chamber had 684 members when it first met on March 23, 1939. It is entirely the creature of the Head of the Government, since all members directly or indirectly are indebted to him for the offices which give them the right to a seat. Moreover, that right must be formally confirmed by the Head of the Government before the seat is occupied so that he exercises a double control over the entire membership.

The legislative work is done by 12 Committees of 25 to 40 members, which are appointed by the President of the Chamber, who in turn is appointed by royal decree. The President has also the right to choose the Committee to which a bill will be assigned. As in the case of the Senate, the approval of a Committee is enough to pass any bill, the specific character of which does not require a plenary session. It hardly need be added that a body so constituted serves as a mere rubber stamp for bills proposed by the Administration, and that here as in the Senate the legalized dictatorship of the Prime Minister and Head of the Government functions without opposition or criticism.

THE FASCIST PARTY

Although the extraordinary political powers of the Head of the Government emanate from laws passed by a subservient Parliament or decrees issued by a compliant King, the real foundation of his strength lies in the Fascist Party (Partito Nazion-ale Fascista = P.N.F.).

In its constitution, the Fascist Party is defined as a voluntary civil militia under the orders of the Duce and at the service of the Fascist State. It is the only party of the regime and its task is the defense and development of the State.

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The highest officers of the Fascist Party are the Duce who gives the orders and the Secretary of the Party who is responsible for their execution. The latter, as we have seen, enjoys the position of a Minister of State and is appointed by royal decree upon nomination by the Head of the Government.

The basic unit of organization is the fascio di combattimento which is found in the city or exclave. Within the boundaries of a province, the local fasci form a Federation. The local fascio has a political secretary at its head who is advised by a local Directorate while the provincial Federation is headed by a federal secretary advised by a provincial Directorate. The federal secretary is appointed by the Head of the Government upon nomination by the secretary of the party. The federal secretary then nominates the members of his Directorate for appointment by the secretary of the party. The political secretary of the local fascio is appointed by his immediate superior, the federal secretary of the province. The local Directorate

is also appointed by the federal secretary upon nomination by the local political secretary. Hence, no elections and a chain of authority reaching down directly from the Duce through the secretary of the party to the provincial and local leaders.

Apart from this chain of authority, the Fascist Party has advisory and executive bodies at the top. The most important of these is the Grand Council of Fascism which deliberates the guiding principles of the party and integrates its activities with those of the national government. The National Council is a purely advisory body which may be called to give its opinion by the Secretary of the Party. The National Directorate is composed of representatives from all levels of authority from the secretary of the party to local leaders and is the chief administrative committee. In addition, there are inspectors on the national, provincial and local levels.

Apart from Italian citizenship, the chief quality required of a Fascist is unquestioning obedience to the orders of the Duce. Mussolini's formula "believe, obey, fight" is the party creed. The Fascist party has an elaborate and effective system for punishing its members for any breach of party discipline.

Since 1932, it has been the principle of the Party that new members should enter the Party only through the Fascist Youth Organization which is divided into sections according to age and sex. Together with the Female and University groups, the Youth Organization belongs to the Party. On October 28, 1937, membership in the Party and Party Associations was as follows:

The Party	2,152,240
University Groups	82,004
Youth Organization	7,541,983
Female Groups	1,532,936
	<u>11,409,163</u> of about

42,000,000 inhabitants.

It is clear from these figures that the population of Italy in time would have become almost entirely members of the Fascist Party or affiliated with it as the older non-Fascists died out and the Youth Association extended its preparation of new members throughout the land.

The Fascist Party is not legally an organ of the State. It is, however, the pool from which the national government draws its personnel; it performs certain functions which belong to the State, many of its high officials are ex officio State officials and it permeates the government with its beliefs and principles. Above all, by its obedience and loyalty to the Duce of Fascism who is also Head of the Government, it supports his dictatorial powers and the present structure of government built around them.

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LOCAL GOVERNMENT

There are two political subdivisions in Italy: the Province and the Comune. The present organization of both is based on the decree-law of March 3, 1934.

There are 94 provinces and 7,339 communes in Italy today. Communes, corresponding in general to our cities or townships, vary in size from twenty cities with over 100,000 inhabitants to small towns of under 2,000 inhabitants. The average population per commune is relatively small: 5,753 inhabitants.

Provinces, corresponding in general to our counties in size, are composed of a number of communes. They show great variety both in population and number of communes. For example, the Province of Milan has a population of 1,975,220 inhabitants, distributed among 247 communes, while the Province of Massa Carrara in Tuscany has a population of 194,584 inhabitants, distributed among 17 communes. The capital of a province is the largest commune within its territory. Such a commune has its own communal government and also serves as the seat of provincial government.

THE PROVINCE

The province has two aspects, politically speaking. It is an organ of the

National Administration and an autonomous entity governing the province and the communes of which the province is composed.

The head of the province is the Prefect (Prefetto). He depends directly on the Ministry of the Interior and is the highest authority of the state in the province. His general function is to integrate in conformity with governmental directions the activities of State and local government, except insofar as Justice, the Armed Forces or the railroads are concerned. He is empowered to exercise supervision over all the public services within his province, to give orders to the royal police (carabinieri reali) and to take emergency measures to ensure public safety. He has a Vice-Prefect to take his place in case of absence.

A Prefectorial Council serves as his advisory body. It is composed of the Prefect and two Councillors. Its advice may be rejected or is binding according to the nature of the matter under discussion. The Council also audits the accounts of province and communes.

The Provincial Administrative Commission (Giunta) is composed of the Prefect, the Chief Provincial Inspector, the two members of the Prefectorial Council, the Chief Accountant and four members of the Fascist Party nominated by the Secretary of the Fascist Party and appointed by the Minister of the Interior. The Fascist members are supposed to be technical experts. The Commission is essentially an organ of control. It reviews the decisions of the mayors (podestà) of the communes and of the Decedent (Preside) of the province and is empowered to settle administrative differences.

Each province has its own inspection service which is in the hands of officials from the Ministry of the Interior but under the direct orders of the Prefect. Its task is to inspect the functioning of the provincial and communal administrations.

In contradistinction to the national functions of coordination and control performed by the Prefect, Prefectorial Council and Provincial Administrative Commission, the purely local affairs of a province are administered by a President and a Rectorate (rettorato).

The President is appointed for four years by royal decree. He is assisted by a Vice-President appointed in the same way. No salary is attached to either office, but in exceptional circumstances the Minister of the Interior may order a salary to be paid from the provincial budget.

The President is the chief executive officer of purely provincial affairs. He convokes and presides over the Rectorate, executes its decisions and signs the contracts which it has voted, prepares the annual budget, appoints the local officials and supervises their activities.

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The Rectorate is composed of the President and the Rectors. The latter are appointed by the Minister of the Interior for four years. The number of ordinary Rectors varies according to the population of the province: eight for 600,000 inhabitants or over; six for between 300,000 and 600,000, four for under 300,000. Two substitute Rectors are appointed in all provinces regardless of size to take the place of the ordinary Rectors in case of absence.

The property of the province is administered by the Rectorate. It draws up the provincial budget, contracts debts, stipulates contracts and fixes local taxes. Provincial public services are under its supervision and it fixes provincial ordinances.

Apart from these organs of political administration, there are two bodies which supervise the health and economy of the province.

The Provincial Council of Sanitation is composed of the Prefect, who presides, the President of the Civil and Criminal Courts of the provincial capital, the provincial health officer, the provincial veterinarian and the Federal Secretary of the Fascist Party. These men are members ex officio. In addition, the administration appoints doctors and technicians of its own choosing.

The Council exercises matters of public health affecting the province as a whole. It proposes to the Prefect the sanitary measures and investigations which it considers necessary. It gives its opinion on existing regulations insofar as public health is concerned.

The Provincial Council of Cooperative Economy represents the economic interests of the province and coordinates them in harmony with the interests of the nation. It is divided into a Presidential Committee and a General Council.

The Presidential Committee is composed of the Prefect, who presides, the Vice-Prefect, the Federal Secretary of the Fascist Party, the Presidents and Vice Presidents of the economic sections (see below), and representatives of the Provincial and Inter-provincial Unions of Employers and Employees.

The General Council is composed of the members of the Presidential Committee, the ordinary members of the Sections and the following six officials ex officio: the cooperative inspector, the agricultural inspector, the director of the agricultural lecture service, the commander of the Forest Militia, the chief civil engineer and the provincial veterinary.

The sections are divisions of the Provincial Council assigned to specific branches of economic activity. They are established by decree of the Minister of Corporations who also has the right to create special permanent committees attached to the Council.

Apart from its general function of coordinating the economic activities of the province, the Council cooperates with the associations of Employers and Employees in perfecting production, promoting welfare and improving social conditions. When authorized by the Minister of Corporations it may found and conduct agencies or services in the interests of agriculture, industry or commerce. Furthermore, it exercises general supervision over all public institutions in the province which promote production, credit savings, social welfare and professional instruction. It supervises the provincial employment offices.

The executive bureau of the Provincial Council of Cooperative Economy is the Provincial Office of Cooperative Economy. This office is a branch of the Ministry of Corporations and is staffed partly by employees of this Ministry. Its national function is to collect economic information on the province for the Ministry, but it also serves as the executive bureau of the Provincial Council. Its expenses are paid by the Council from taxes and fees, defined by royal decree and collected from local sources.

The province has relatively few services which it is obliged to maintain by law. In the field of public health, it must maintain laboratories, prophylactic stations and dispensaries with suitable personnel. It is also obliged to maintain a provincial insane asylum, to take care of abandoned infants and to provide for the blind and deaf-mutes. In the field of public works, its chief responsibility is

cultural lecture service, the commander of the Forest Militia, the chief civil engineer and the provincial veterinary.

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In addition to these provincial functions, it must share in the expenses of some of the services furnished by the State, especially in the fields of Public Health and Public Works, and provide buildings and maintenance thereof for State educational institutions and national charities. But the burden of local expenses is carried by the communes and in 1936 the communes spent six times as much money as the provinces throughout Italy.

THE COMUNE

The chief officer of the commune is the Podesta. He is appointed by royal decree for a period of four years. In communes of from 20,000 to 100,000 inhabitants he is assisted by a Vice-Podesta appointed by the Minister of the Interior; in communes of over 100,000 inhabitants, he is assisted by two Vice-Podests.

The Podesta governs the commune by administrative ordinances. He is responsible

for the public services and all administrative and legislative measures in the commune including the budget, taxes, administration of public property and salaries of the local employees. His work, however, is subject to the supervision of the Prefect of the province within which his commune is situated and the Prefect has the right to remove him from office for delinquencies.

The Communal Council (consiglio municipale) consists the Podesta in a purely advisory capacity. The number of its members depends on the population of the commune. Communes of over 100,000 inhabitants may have from 24 to 40 members, of 10,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, from 10 to 24 members. Communes of under 10,000 inhabitants may have no Council at all.

Candidates for the Council are nominated by the Associations of Employers and Employees at the invitation of the Prefect of the Province. The Prefect then appoints the members with regard to the economic importance of each association within the Commune. As usual, there must be an even representation of employers and employees.

The opinion of the Council must be sought by the Podesta in certain matters defined by law. Otherwise, the Podesta may or may not consult it. The matters on which consultation is obligatory are mostly financial. The Podesta is not obliged to follow the advice of the Council, even in matters where consultation is obligatory. But when he does not do so, it must be stated expressly in his records and reports. The Council may be dissolved at any time by the Prefect.

Unlike the Podesta and the members of the Communal Council, the communal secretary is a professional civil servant who is appointed by the Minister of the Interior. He is dependent, however, on the Podesta. His position is permanent and thus assures the presence of one official, at least, who is professionally familiar with the detailed affairs of the commune.

With regard to services furnished by the commune, two of the largest are almost entirely provided by the National Government: police and education. Otherwise, the usual city services such as fire department, sewers, water, streets, parks, public markets, and some medical and welfare services not provided by the provincial or national government are the responsibility of the commune.

To summarize, it is clear from what has been said above that local government in Italy is well controlled by the National Administration. Elections have been abolished and the provincial and communal officers are directly or indirectly appointed by and responsible to the Ministry of the Interior. Local economic activities are under the control of the Ministry of Corporations. There is no part of political or economic Italy which functions independently of the National Administration.

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ORREA TRAINING CENTER

June 1943

3358

Affairs

Brief Notes for Civil Administration Officers on the protection and care of Monuments, Historic Buildings, Works of Art, etc. in Occupied Areas.

I. Historic and cultural monuments, works of art, archaeological sites or objects, museums, etc. are likely to be neglected in the stress of war. Among his many duties, the Civil Administration Officer should provide for their protection and preservation for at least two reasons:

1. They are important in themselves for their artistic, historic, cultural, or even sentimental value.
2. They are objects of pride to the local inhabitants and respect for them will create good feelings.

II. The damage which such objects may suffer during war can be classified roughly under three heads:

1. Damage from military operations, as from shells, bombs, occupation by troops, and the like.
2. Loss or damage during occupation, as confiscation by the occupying authorities, looting by soldiers or by civilians, accidental or wanton defacement, etc.
3. Deterioration due to neglect and lack of protection from fire, weather, etc.

Affairs

III. The Civil Administration Officer can take protective measures against all of these types of damage:

1. While he should not persuade the commander to sacrifice military objectives to the interest of works of art, he may urge that certain targets have not sufficient military importance to justify the odium which would be incurred by destroying monuments involved. For example, the use (if true) of Reims Cathedral as an observation post by the French during the last war was probably insufficient reason for the Germans to arouse hostility throughout the world by shelling it. Also the CAO can prevent the use of public buildings for the quartering of troops or other military uses if other quarters are available. In this connection it should be noted that the Mediterranean lands contain many important classical sites which have but few ruins above ground and which seem suitable places for encampment unless intelligently protected.
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2. The CAO should see that the occupying forces treat monuments etc. with respect. He should warn against defacement, removal of souvenirs like bits of sculpture or mosaic, and the like. He should remember that from a historical or archaeological aspect, even small objects like coins or stamped bricks are of great value and, if found, should be deposited with some competent authority and a record made of the time, place, and circumstances of discovery.

3. The CAO should make such repairs as are absolutely necessary but no more. He should see that monuments and collections are properly safeguarded from theft or defacement and from damage through fire, weather, handling, etc.

IV. Some recommended measures are the following:

1. Consult local authorities, as town officials or the clergy, to find out what monuments, collections, etc. are in the neighborhood.
2. Protect these against looting, defacement, etc. If possible, continue in office regular caretakers, curators, etc. 335
wise lock securely and post military guards if necessary.
3. Protect against weather, heat, cold, etc.

4. Protect against fire. Most antitank extinguishers will damage works of art. Use carbon dioxide if available, otherwise water.
5. Where adequate inventories are not available or where buildings or objects have been damaged, make an inventory or description to prevent future claims for damage during occupation.
6. Care first for undamaged objects, to prevent future damage, then for damaged ones.
7. In case of damage, make only the minimum repairs necessary for preservation. Preserve all fragments with notes as to source, cause of damage, etc. Do not remove or tidy up debris unless absolutely necessary. The proper restoration of works of art is a highly skilled technique and the smallest fragment may be important.
8. Do not move objects unless absolutely necessary for their protection or to make place for military needs. If objects are moved, see that they are inventoried, carefully packed, if possible by experts, clearly marked, and carefully stored under adequate protection against theft or damage of any sort, especially from damp, heat, cold, etc.
9. Have all objects discovered in the course of military operations, such as trench-digging, reported at once and deposit them in some appropriate place with notes as to the circumstances of discovery.
10. Prevent the removal or disturbance by military or civilian personnel of any object of artistic or archaeological value, however insignificant these may seem at first sight.
11. If necessary, prohibit the sale, transportation, or export of works of art and the like in order to prevent theft under false pretenses of ownership.
12. In cases of absent, unknown, or disputed ownership, inventory and safeguard the objects. Do not attempt to settle disputes; leave these for experts or for courts.
13. In case of claims of looting by the enemy, collect the evidence for the use of later commissions. If claims are made against occupying forces, investigate them and, if proved, see that restitution is made and punishment inflicted by the proper authorities. Similarly follow up charges of damage or disrespect.
14. Urge the occupying forces to respect both local customs and prejudices, like the removal of hats in churches, and also sites of historical, artistic, cultural, traditional, or sentimental importance.

V. Remember two points:

1. The restoration and care of works of art etc. is already technical. As in first aid, the novice may do more harm than good by bungling excesses of zeal.

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V. Remember two points:

1. The restoration and care of works of art etc. is a highly technical. As in First Aid, the novice may do more harm than good by bungling excesses of zeal. Do only the minimum necessary for protection and preservation.

2. The care and respect shown towards material objects, as well as towards local sentiment, will consolidate good will but neglect and looting leaves such bitter memories as still pursue the vandals.

CUREA TRAINING CENTER
JUNE 10, 1943
Capt. M. Hammond

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Summary of Italian Grammar - Preface

The thirteen Lessons are based very largely on Hugo's Italian Grammar Simplified. Use was also made of material provided by Professor Bergin to the course in Italian at the US School of Military Government at Charlottesville, Va. The lessons are not meant necessarily to be consecutive but simply to provide material to the instructor from which he can select and also to give the student a means of rapid review. Save in the earlier lessons the instructors or students must provide their own vocabulary and exercises. The lessons are meant to be used with Collins' (Pocket) Italian-English, English-Italian Dictionary; US War Department Technical Manual, TM 30-249, Italian Phrase Book, and Marlborough's Pocket Italian Self-Taught Phrase Book. These will supply phrases and lists of words, numerals, verbs and the like. Some selections for reading are included with the lessons, from Bergin's Vita D'Oggi and from other sources.

Many errors may be detected by instructors and students which have been due partly to haste of preparation, partly to the difficulty of reproduction. The following have already been noted.

Lesson I

Italian U might better be illustrated by oo in "pool" rather than "poor", which is sometimes almost disyllabic. "Diphthongs" is misspelled. In the examples of pronunciations, several English meanings for the Italian words have been omitted. These may be supplied by the instructor. Gi and ce might better be illustrated by giro, a turn, tour, etc. and by gente, people. Stamp: press in the sense of newspapers. Zio means uncle; zia, aunt. In the vocabulary (6) tempo means both "time" and "weather". A Comune is a town in the sense of township, the town and its outlying houses, etc.

Lesson II

On p. 1 under the first examples, read zio for sio. Under Translate into English sentence d, L'ufficiale for il ufficiale and dalla for della. On p. 2 in the first set of examples, interno for intero. In the next set girls' for girls. In the next set e for e. Under Present Tense, fourth column, "understand" for "take". Under Translate into English sentence e, read L'ufficiale for il.

Lesson III

In the vocabulary, to ieri and domani, add oggi, today. Città means city or town (paese, village or country). Severamente not e. On p. 2, under III no. 3, congestione not e. Under 8 no. 6, acqua for agua. Under 8 no. 12, molto for molto. Under 8 no. 14, lo for ho.

Lesson IV

Under subject pronouns, the third plural fem. is esse (not a). Under 4, examples, denaro (not e). Under 5, INDIRECT object pronouns PRECEDE DIRECT (not vice versa as in text). On p. 2 under 8d, parliamogli for parliamoli. The second pers. plur. poss. pron. is il vostro etc. (not vestro). In the examples under the omission of the article for close relations, povere (not i).

Many errors may be detected by instructors and students which have been due partly to haste of preparation, partly to the difficulty of reproduction. The following have already been noted.

Lesson I

Italian U might better be illustrated by co in "pool" rather than "poor", which is sometimes almost dissyllabic. "Diphthongs" is misspelled. In the examples of pronunciations, several English meanings for the Italian words have been omitted. These may be supplied by the instructor. Gi and ce might better be illustrated by gira, a turn, tear, etc. and by gente, people. Stampa: press in the sense of newspapers. Zio means uncle; zia, aunt. In the vocabulary (6) Tempo means both "time" and "weather". A Corone is a town in the sense of township, the town and its outlying houses, etc.

Lesson II

On p. 1 under the first examples, read zio for sio. Under Translate into English sentence d, L'ufficiale for il ufficiale and dalla for della. On p. 2 in the first set of examples, intorno for intero. In the next set girls' for girls. In the next set e for e. Under Present Tense, fourth column, "understand" for "take". Under Translate into English sentence e, read L'ufficiale for il.

Lesson III

In the vocabulary, to ieri and domani, add oggi, today. Città means city or town (paese, village or country). Severamente not e. On p. 2, under III no. 3, congestione not e. Under 8 no. 6, acqua for acqua. Under 8 no. 12, molto for molto. Under 8 no 14, lo for ho.

Lesson IV

Under subject pronouns, the third plural fem. is esse (not a). Under 4, examples, denaro (not e). Under 5, INDIRECT object pronouns PRECEDE DIRECT (not vice versa as in text). On p. 2 under 8d, parliamogli for parliamoli. The second pers. plur. poss. pron. is il vostro etc. (not vestro). In the examples under the omission of the article for close relations, povere (not i). In the last example on the page, casa (not e).

Lesson V

The accents on ebbero and furono are typographical faults. The AUXILIARY with ESSERE is ESSERE, not avere. Correct to: sono, sia, ero, fossi, sarò sarei, stato/a. On p. 2 under Parlare, past def. first plur. parlammo (not e). Under Credere, the Imperative 2nd sing. is credi (not e). Under finire, pres. ind. 2nd sing. finisci for finsici.

Lesson VI

On p. 1 par 2, for further on the subjunctive see Lesson XII. Under 3, examples, per for par. Under 6, examples, once for once. On p. 2, under 13, example 3, biglietti (not e). Under 14, example 2, siamo for ciamo. Put "men" in parentheses. Under 13, see also Lesson VII 7, XI 11. Under 16, "or" for "of". Under 17 (and 15), see Lesson XII for the Impersonal Reflexive. Under 19, Ecco also means "there is/are", demonstratively. See Lesson VII 14-15.

Lesson VII

On p. 1 under 3e, in the third example, identità (not a). On p. 2 under 6, example 1, correct uomo. Under 14, example 3, più (not u).

Lesson VIII

Under Fare, Imperf. Subj., the second form should be faceessi, not faceessi. As from p. 2 through Lesson IX, the instructor should supply the meanings for the verbs. Under Cadere, the past participle is caduto, not caduto.

Lessons IX and X, none.

Lesson XI

On p. 1 under par. 3, in the third (-ire) conjugation, the stem is obtained not only by dropping -ndo but also by changing -e- to -i-. Under par. 7, in the first conjugation, the 2nd sing. imperative ends in -a not -i, as do the other two. On p. 2 under 17, insert "I sew" as equivalent to Cucio. Under 20, lui for Lui. Under 23, the simple negative non should be mentioned. It precedes the verb (or auxiliary) and any object pronouns (direct and indirect and ne). Under 24, remove the comma after "(or alcuna)".

Lesson XII

On p. 2, under C 4, join comparare. Under "Two' after Verbs", add Lesson XIII under Use of Propositions par. 3 on the use of Di after verbs.

Lesson XIII

On p. 1 under par. 1, "form" for "forma", Under 6, underline (stress) the i in farmacia. Under 8, note that words of more than one syllable accented on the final syllable usually are feminine in -a. On p. 2 under Use of Preps. par 3, example 1, mostrarglielo. Under par. 10, example 2, "tell" for "teel". Under Partitive Constructions par. 2, example, no.

AMGOT, 141 Force

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29 June - 11 July, 1945.

LESSON I

PRONUNCIATION (General suggestions)

1 VOWELS: (the lips must not move while pronouncing the single vowels).

A, like a in father: la casa - the house
 E, like e in fate: mese - month
 I, like i in machine: il ministro - the minister
 O, like o in polo: come - how, or as
 U, like oo in poor: cura (no y sound before the u) - cure

E and O also have short sounds in certain cases; these can be learned later.

2 DIPHTHONGS:

Each vowel is pronounced separately unless one of the two vowels is I or U, in which case A, E or O is more stressed than I or U.
 pieno, miei, dovei, piove, tuona - full, my (Plural Masc.) - it is raining, it is thundering.

3 CONSONANTS:

I. Pronounce as in English except for the following:
 CH, like ch in character: che, chiamò - which, I call
 C before I or E, like ch in church: ce, provincia (second I is silent)
 SC before I or E, like sh in ship: fascismo, scelta - Fascism, selection.
 G before I or E, like g in gem: già, giustizia (I is not pronounced after G)
 GH, like g in go: paghiamo, righe - we pay, lines
 H, silent: ho, ha, hanno
 QU, like qu in queen: qui, questo, quattro - here, this, four
 S, between vowels, like z: rosa, mese - rose, month
 otherwise, like s in fast: podestà, stampa - mayor, the press
 Z, usually like ts: zia, pranzo - uncle, dinner

II. Double consonants: they are always emphasized and distinct: cit-tà, an-no, fat-to. - city, year, made or done

III. Liquid sounds:

GLI, like ll in million: meglio, sbaglio - better, mistake
 GNI, like ny in canyon: ogni - every

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Each vowel is pronounced separately unless one of the two vowels is I or U, in which case A, E or O is more stressed than I or U. pieno, mie-, dovrei, piove, tuona - full, my (plural Masc.) - it is raining, it is thundering.

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II. Double consonants: they are always emphasized and distinct:

cit-tà, sa-no, fat-to. - city, year, made or done

III. Liquid sounds:

GLI, like li in million: meglio, sbaglio - better, mistake

GNI, like ny in canyon: ogni - every

4 STRESS:

1. Normally on the next to last syllable: parlo, canto, pro-vin-

cia

2. In the third person plural, and in a number of nouns, the accent falls on the 2nd syllable from the last: par-la-no, can-

ta-no, sa-zì-e

3. A grave accent (`) indicates that the stress falls on the last syllable: par-le-rò, can-te-rà, gio-ven-tù, - I shall speak, he will sing, youth.

Lesson

1 Present Tense of "to have" - AVERE:

(io) ho - I have	(noi) abbiamo - we have
(tu) hai - thou hast	(voi) avete - you have
(egli) ha - he has	(essi) hanno - they (Masculine) have
(essa) ha - she has	(esse) hanno - they (Feminine) have
(Lei) ha - you have (Polite)	(Loro) hanno - you Plural Polite have

NOTE: The pronouns, in parentheses, are used only for Emphasis, or to distinguish between Masculine or Feminine.

2 "not" is translated NON, and it is placed before the verb:

Non ho - I don't have
 Non abbiamo? - Don't we have?
 Maria non ha - Mary doesn't have
 Non ha Giorgio? - Doesn't George have?

3 GENDER: Most nouns ending in a or ione are Feminine; most others are Masculine.4 PLURAL: Masculine nouns change the final vowel to i:

dottoressi, dottori - doctors
 libro, libri - books
 mese, mesi - months
 anno, anni - years
 signora, signore - ladies
 casa, case - houses

Feminine nouns ending in a change the final vowel to e:

porta, porte - doors
 ragazza, ragazze - girls

5 A, AN or ONE is translated as follows: UN before a Masculine noun, UNA before a Feminine noun. UN becomes UNO before g or impure s (s followed by a consonant); UNA becomes UN' before a vowel.

un signore - a gentleman
 una signora - a door
 uno sbaglio - a mistake
 un' ora - an hour

6 VOCABULARY:

tempo - time	compartimento - region
affaire - affair	banco, or banca - bank
civile - civil	polizia - police
due - two	ufficiale - officer
tre - three	ufficio - office
quattro - four	capo - chief
cinq - five	inglese - English, or an Englishman
comune - town	americano - American, or an American
provincia - province	italiano - Italian, or an Italian

7 SENTENCES:

a. Il compartimento ha cinque province.

4. PLURAL: Masculine nouns change the final vowel to i:

dottore, dottori - doctors
libro, libri - books

Feminine nouns ending a change the final vowel to e:

porta, porte - doors
ragazza, ragazze - girls
signora, signore - ladies
casa, case - houses

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un' ora - an hour

6 VOCABULARY:

tipo - type
affare - affair
civile - civil
due - two
tre - three
quattro - four
cinque - five
comune - town
provincia - province

compartimento - region
banco, or banca - bank
polizia - police
ufficiale - officer
ufficio - office
capo - chief
inglese - English, or an Englishman
americano - American, or an American
italiano - Italian, or an Italian

7 SENTENCES:

- a Il compartimento ha cinque provincie.
- b Questo signore ha fatto uno sbaglio. (FATTO - made)
- c La casa ha due porte.
- d Il comune ha un banco.
- e Questo comune ha quattro banche.
- f Non ha il dottore una casa?
- g Giorgio parla italiano.
- h Maria non parla italiano; parla inglese.
- i Essi cantano meglio di noi. (MEGLIO DI: better than)
- j Ha questa provincia un ufficiale di affari civili?

Summary of Italian Grammar - The Definite Article.

1. Before a singular word beginning with a CONSONANT,
 Masculine: il - Feminine: la
 EXCEPT that before a masculine singular word beginning with Z (alone)
 or S followed by another consonant (S impure) the Masculine is lo.
2. Before a singular word beginning with a VOWEL, l' is used for both genders
 (elision from le or la.)
3. Before a plural word:
 Masculine: i, Feminine: le.
 EXCEPT that before a masculine plural word beginning with a vowel,
Z, or S impure, the masculine is gli.

Masculine	Feminine
il podestà, the podestà	la valigia, the valise
il povero, the poor	la valigia, the valise
il albergo, the hotel	l'ora, the hour
lo sbaglio, the mistake	la scuola, the school
lo zio, the uncle	la zecca, the mint
	la zecca, the mint

Present Tense of Essere "to be"

(io) sono - I am	(noi) siamo - we are
(tu) sei - thou art	(voi) siete - you are
(egli) è - he is	(essi) sono - they (m) are
(essa) è - she is	(esso) sono - they (f) are
(Lei) è - you (s) are	(Loro) sono - you (p) are

Vocabulary

il Municipio - the Town Hall	(io) vado - I am going
la chiesa - the church	(egli) viene - he comes
la piazza - the square	si trova - is (in the sense of "finds itself")
la strada - the highway	quanto - how much
la via - the street (in the city)	costa - it costs
la camera - the bedroom	troppo - too much
la sala da pranzo - the dining room	
buono - good	il pane - bread
	la carne - meat

EXAMPLES

feminine

il podestà, il podestà
the mayor(s)
l'albergo, gli alberghi
the hotel(s)
lo sbaglio, gli sbagli
the mistake(s)
lo sio, gli sio
the uncle(s)

Present Tense of Essere "to be"

(io) sono - I am
(tu) sei - thou art
(egli) è - he is
(essa) è - she is
(Lei) è - you (s) are

(noi) siamo - we are
(voi) siete - you are
(essi) sono - they (m) are
(esse) sono - they (f) are
(Lor.) sono - you (p) are

Vocabulary

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"finds itself")
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la carne - meat

Translate into English

- Dov'è il Municipio
- Si trova nella piazza
- Vado all'albergo
- Il ufficiale viene dalla sua camera
- La Banca Commerciale si trova nella Via Garibaldi
- Quanto costa questo pane?
- La carne costa troppo.

Travel to into Italian

- Where is the hotel?
- I am going to the dining-room
- The church is in Roma Street
- Bread and meat are good
- The gentleman comes from the Town Hall
- How much is a room in this hotel?
- Four police officials are on the highway

(Over)

Summary of Italian Grammar Cont'd.

Prepositions.

The common Italian Prepositions contract with the Definite Article as follows:

to	with	from	of	in	on
a	con	da	di	in	su
al	col	dal	del	nel	sul
ai	coi	dai	dei	nei	sui
allo	collo	dallo	dello	nello	sullo
agli	cogli	dagli	degli	negli	sugli
all'	coll'	dall'	dell'	nell'	sull'
alla	colla	dalla	della	nella	sulla
alle	colle	dalle	delle	nelle	sulle

Examples: del cameriere, of the waiter.

degli inglesi, with the Englishmen

nelle case, in the houses

sulla tavola, on the table

dall'interno, from the interior

ai signori, to the gentlemen

allo scopo di, for the purpose of

Italian has no Possessive case (as "the man's house") and must express it by the use of di plus the noun.

Examples: il soprabito dell'uomo, the man's overcoat

le camere delle signorine, the girl's rooms

Con occasionally united with the disjunctive pronouns me, te, and se to form meco, teco, and seco.

Examples: Egli e venuto meco, he came with me.

The indefinite partitive "some" or "any" before a noun is expressed in Italian by di.

Examples: C'ha del vino? Is there any wine?

Noi non abbiamo della birra, we have no beer.

Voglio dell'acqua calda. I want some hot water.

The indefinite partitive pronoun is ne.

Examples: C'ha del pane? Sì, ce ne ha. Is there any bread? Yes there is.

Ha trovato lei delle buste? Sì, ne ho trovate alcune nel cassetto.

Did you find any envelopes? Yes, I found some in the drawer.

The Present Tense of the Three Conjugations.

Students should supply the appropriate pronouns.

		Infinitive		to take <i>understand</i>	
to send	to believe	to start	capire	capisco	(capisci)
mandare	credere	partire		capisco	capiamo
		Indicative		(capite)	capiscono
mando	credo	parto			
(mandi)	(credi)	(parti)			
manda	crede	parte			
mandiamo	crediamo	partiamo			
(mandate)	(credete)	(partite)			
mandano	credono	partono			

ai signori, to the gentlemen
 allo scopo di, for the purpose of
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mandare	credere		(capisci)
mandando	credo		capisce
(mandi)	(credi)		capiamo
manda	crede		(capite)
mandiamo	crediamo		capiscono
(mandate)	(credete)		
mandano	credono		

dove, where	prendere, to take
gli scavi, the excavations	mangiare, to eat
legume, vegetable	il pranzo, lunch
insalata, salad	la cena, dinner
freddo, cold	finire, to finish
portare, bring	dormire, to sleep
svegliare, to awake	il letto, bed
la colazione, breakfast	bene, well
Translate into English:	Translate into Italian:
a. Dove si trovano gli scavi?	Where is my room
b. Voglio della carne con legumi.	We eat bread with our salad
c. La prego di svegliarmi alle otto	Please bring my breakfast at nine
d. Quanto costa la cena?	Cold water is good
e. Il ufficiale capo non sta bene	George talks Italian well
f. Noi dormiamo bene in questa camera	He believes that I am here
g. Che cosa mangia lei?	They are finishing their dinner
h. Prendo la colazione alle sette e mezzo	Do you take lunch at one?

LESSON III

1. The Nominative Pronoun (*io, tu, egli, etc.*) is usually omitted, since the verb itself indicates the meaning.

2. Phrases like "a friend of his", "a relative of mine" are translated: *in suo amico, un mio parente.*

3. Qualifying Adjectives agree in Gender and Number with the noun which they qualify, and generally follow the noun: Examples: *un libro italiano* - an Italian book. *Un ufficiale d'affari civili* - a Civil Affairs officer. *Un lezione facile* - an easy lesson.

4. FEMININE AND PLURAL OF ADJECTIVES: If the masculine ends in -o, the feminine is formed by changing -o to -a. ALL OTHER ADJECTIVES ARE ALIKE whether Feminine or Masculine: Examples: *un ragazzo studioso* - a studious boy; *una ragazza studiosa* - a studious girl; *una rivista recente* - a recent magazine; *un libro recente* - a recent book. The Plural of adjectives is formed like the Plural of nouns: by changing final -o into -i for the Masculine; final -a into -e for the Feminine; and final -e into -i whether Masculine or Feminine. Examples: *Ragazzi studiosi* - studious boys; *ragazze studiose* - studious girls; *riviste recenti* - recent magazines; *libri recenti* - recent books.

5. QUESTIONS: These are formed either by putting the subject after the verb, or by the use of an affirmative statement with an interrogatory inflection and a question mark: Examples: *Ubbidisce il ragazzo? Does the boy obey? Crede Lei? Do you believe? Maria sa parlare italiano? Does Mary know how to speak Italian?*

6. VOCABULARY:

perché - why, because

busta - envelope

studente - student

scuola - school

montagna - mountain

pianura - plain

Algeri - Algiers

Francia - France

francese - French, Frenchman

Inghilterra - England

Gli Stati Uniti d'America -

The U.S.A.

La Gran Bretagna - Great Britain

Italia - Italy

già - already

ieri - yesterday

domani - tomorrow

paio - pair

classe - class

città - city

grande - large

piccolo - small

povero - poor

ricco - rich

lavoro - labour

lavoratore - labourer

agente di polizia - policeman

la parte - the part

idea - idea

scarpa - shoe

difesa - defence

contravvenzione - violation, misdemeanor

delitto - crime

punito - punished

la legge - the law

soveramento - severely

ecco - here is, here are

pubblica sicurezza - public safety

soldato - soldier

dimentico - I forget

the final of adjectives is formed like the final of the Masculine; final -o into -i for the Masculine; final -a into -e for the Feminine; and final -e into -i whether Masculine or Feminine. Examples: Ragazzi - studious boys; ragazze - studious girls; riviste - recent magazines; libri recenti - recent books.

QUESTIONS: These are formed either by putting the subject after the verb, or by the use of an affirmative statement with an interrogatory inflection and a question mark: Examples: Ubbidisce il ragazzo? Does the boy obey? Crede Lei? Do you believe? Maria sa parlare italiano? Does Mary know how to speak Italian?

6. VOCABULARY:

perché - why, because
 busta - envelope
 studente - student
 scuola - school
 montagna - mountain
 pianura - plain
 Algeri - Algiers
 Francia - France
 francese - French, Frenchman
 Inghilterra - England
 Gli Stati Uniti d'America - The U.S.A.
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 Italia - Italy
 già - already
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 scarpa - shoe
 difesa - defence
 contravvenzione - violation, misdemeanor
 delitto - crime
 punito - punished
 la legge - the law
 severamento - severely
 ecco - here is, here are
 pubblica sicurezza - public safety
 soldato - soldier
 dimentico - I forget

(OVER)

LESSON III Cont'd

7. EXERCISES:

- I. a. My friend's house; b. He is a student of mine; c. Is the house full?
 d. Where is the Mayor's office? e. The labourer has already finished his work; f. Is he a Civil Affairs officer? g. The crime is severely punished.
- II. a. recent excavations; b. poor soldiers; c. a rich Italian; d. French law;
 e. a pair of shoes; f. a cold lunch; g. Hot water; h. Large rooms.

III. 1. Today I have given two lessons to a student.

2. Why haven't you sent the letter?
 3. The plain is large and the road to the mountain is ~~very~~ ^{very} steep.
 4. Five policemen are in the town.
 5. The prefect has a large office.
 6. She is not in Algiers, she is in France.
 7. The officer has not yet (ancora) sent the magazine.
 8. Here is the policeman; he has a letter of mine.
 9. Why aren't you there (là)?
 10. This (questo) misdeed is severely punished.
 11. The lesson is not easy, but the boys are studious.
 12. This is a recent law.
 13. I forget the books every day.
 14. Isn't the Mayor's office in Napoli street?
 15. We are in a large city.

8. SENTENCES:

1. Dovrei avere una lettera dal mio amico oggi.
 2. Ha Lei finito il lavoro?
 3. Ecco il prefetto della Provincia di Luois.
 4. Ho un paio di scarpe nuove, ma non sono abbastanza grandi.
 5. Dove si trova l'ufficio del capo della polizia?
 6. Credo che l'acqua è molto fredda.
 7. Voglio prendere la colazione coi miei amici.
 8. Due americani sono in questa casa; dovrei parlare con essi.
 9. Lo zio parte oggi in treno per Algeri.
 10. Dove sono le riviste che ho mandato a casa? ~~eri?~~
 11. Non crede Lei che gli scavi sono molto grandi?
 12. Sì, lo credo, e sono anche molto antichi.
 13. Perché partono domani e non oggi?
 14. Non ha capisco; hanno un lungoviaggio da fare.
 15. Ha dormito bene, Giorgia? Sì, grazie, molto bene.

LESSON IV

Summary of Italian Grammar - Personal Pronouns

Subject	Object	Indirect Object	Ind. Obj. before Dir. Obj.	Disjunctive after Prepositions
1. io	mi	mi	me	me.
2. tu	ti	ti	te	te
3. masc, egli	lo	gli	glie	lui
esso				
4. fem, essa	la	le	glie	lei
Lei	La	Le	glie	Lei
5. polite reflexive -	si	si	se	se
noi	ci	ci	ce	noi
voi	vi	vi	ve	voi
6. masc, essi	li	loro	-	loro
7. fem, essa	le	loro	-	loro
8. Loro	Le	Loro	-	Loro
9. reflexive -	si	si	se	se

Use of Personal Pronouns.

1. Subject pronouns are omitted save when emphatic.
Examples: sta bene? "are you well?"
gli altri sono già partiti ma noi aspettiamo qui.
"the others have already gone but we are waiting here".
2. For polite address, use Lei (sing.) or Loro (plur.) with the third person of the verb. Though these pronouns are in origin feminine, they are used for both genders and agreement is according to the true gender of the person addressed.
Example: Lei non è degno della nostra confidenza. "You are not worthy of our confidence".
3. The second person singular is used only to intimates. The second person plural is occasionally used by inferiors to superiors (soldiers to officers) or in formal addresses to groups. STUDENTS ARE ADVISED ALWAYS TO USE THE POLITE THIRD PERSON SINGULAR AND PLURAL.
4. Object pronouns ordinarily PRECEDE THE VERB (in compound tenses, the auxiliary) except for loro. In negative statements they come between non and the verb. (See below for four cases when pronouns follow the verb.)
Examples: Io lo so. "I know it." (Io lo conosco. "I know him.")
Non mi hanno veduto. "They have not seen me."
Domani darò loro il denaro. "Tomorrow I will give them the money."
5. Direct object pronouns PRECEDE indirect both before and after the verb.
Example: Me lo dà, per favore. "Give it to me, please."
6. The indirect object pronouns third person singular gli (masc.) or le

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5. Direct object pronouns PRECEDE indirect both before and after the verb.

Example: Me lo dà, per favore. "Give it to me, please."

6. The indirect object pronouns third person singular gli (masc.) or le (fem.) followed by a direct object pronoun become gli and combine with it to form one word.

Example: Egli glielo ha dato. "He gave it to him (or her)."

7. Indirect object pronouns may be clarified or emphasized by the addition after the verb of the preposition a followed by the appropriate disjunctive pronoun.

Examples: Glielo ho dato a lui. "I gave it to him." (not "her")

Me lo dà a me. "Give it to ME."

8. Object pronouns FOLLOW THE VERB in four cases. They preserve the order indirect before direct (except that loro follows) and are attached to the verb to form one word, without, however, changing the verb's accent.

a. After the INFINITIVE, which drops its final e.

Examples: La prego di cercarlo. "Please give it to me."

Gli ho detto di mandarlo loro. "I told him to send it to them."

b. After the PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

Example: Sto facendolo. "I am doing it."

c. After the DIRECT AFFIRMATIVE IMPERATIVE second person singular or plural.

Examples: Mostramelo. "Show it to me." (over)

esso
essa
Loro
polite
reflexive
le
Loro
si
se
Loro
Loro
se

LESSON IV Cont'd

Summary of Italian Grammar Cont'd

But Non me lo mostri. "Don't show it to me." (polite)
 Or Me lo mostri, per piacere (polite hortatory subjunctive).
 "Show it to me please."

But Non parlate loro. "Don't speak to them." (addressed to a group)
 After the DIRECT AFFIRMATIVE HORTATORY SUBJUNCTIVE first person plural.
 Examples: Parliamgli. "Let us speak to him."

Contrast Me lo mostri, per piacere, or Me lo dia, (both above) which are third person.

9. The Past Participle MUST AGREE WITH A PRECEDING DIRECT (not indirect) OBJECT PRONOUN.

Examples: Gli ha dato la carta postale? Sì, gliela ho data.
 "Have you given him the postcard? Yes, I gave it to him."
 But Ha Lei dato il libro alla signorina? Sì, glielo ho dato.
 "Did you give the book to the girl? Yes, I gave it to her."

Possessive Pronouns or Adjectives.

Singular		Plural	
masc.	fem.	masc.	fem.
1. il mio	la mia	i miei	le mie
2. il tuo	la tua	i tuoi	le tue
3. il suo	la sua	i suoi	le sue
1. il nostro	la nostra	i nostri	le nostre
2. il vostro	la vostra	i vostri	le vostre
3. il loro	la loro	i loro	le loro

Possessive Pronouns or Adjectives agree in Gender and Number with the THING POSSESSED, not with the possessor.

Examples: La nostra ordine. "Our order." (where "our" might be a group of officers).

Il suo documento. "His document." (or "her" or "your")
 Where the sense does not make the reference of the possessive clear (it usually DOES), the preposition di followed by the appropriate disjunctive pronoun may be substituted.

Example: La casa di lei. "Her house", (not "his")

The Article is usually omitted with the possessive pronoun after the verb essere "to be" when possession is emphasized but expressed when existence is emphasized. The use of the article in the first case emphasizes the object in contrast to others.

Examples: La macchina è sua. "The automobile is his."
Questo cappello è il mio. "This hat is mine." (not someone else's).

Lei ha il suo libro. Dov'è il mio? "You have your book. Where is mine?"

The Article is usually omitted before a singular noun unmodified and signifying a close relation.

Examples: Mio padre è morto. "My father is dead."

"Did you give the book to the girl? Yes, I gave it to her."

Possessive Pronouns or Adjectives.

Singular

- | | | |
|----|-----------|-----------|
| | masc. | fem. |
| 1. | il mio | la mia |
| 2. | il tuo | la tua |
| 3. | il suo | la sua |
| 1. | il nostro | la nostra |
| 2. | il vostro | la vostra |
| 3. | il loro | la loro |

Plural

- | | | |
|--|----------|-----------|
| | masc. | fem. |
| | i miei | le mie |
| | i tuoi | le tue |
| | i suoi | le sue |
| | i nostri | le nostre |
| | i vostri | le vostre |
| | i loro | le loro |

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Where is mine?

The Article is usually omitted before a singular noun unmodified and signifying a close relation.

Examples: Mio padre è morto. "My father is dead."

But I miei fratelli non sono qui. "My brothers are not here."

Or Le nostre poveri sorelle non hanno niente da mangiare.

"Our poor sisters have nothing to eat."

The Possessive Adjective may follow the noun in phrases like "a friend of his or "two servants of mine."

Examples: Un amico suo me lo ha detto or un suo amico. "A friend of his told it to me."

Due domestici miei se ne sono scappati or due miei domestici.

"Two men servants of mine ran away."

But Le mie due domestiche sono entrate nella casa.

"My two (maid) servants went into the house."

The Possessive Adjective is usually omitted where the sense makes it clear to whom the thing in question belongs.

Example: È tornato alla casa. "He returned to his house."

Imperfect	Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive
	avevo	avessi	ero	fossi	sono	siano
	avevi	avessi	eri	fossi		
	aveva	avesse	era	fosse		
	avevano	avessero	erano	fossimo		
	avevate	aveste	eravate	foste		
	avevano	avessero	erano	fossoro		
Indicative	Futuro	Conditional	Futuro	Conditional		
	avrò	avrei	sarò	sarei		
	avrai	avresti	sarai	saresti		
	avrà	avrebbe	sarà	sarebbe		
	avranno	avrebbero	saranno	sarebbero		
	avrete	avreste	sarete	sareste		
	avranno	avrebbero	saranno	sarebbero		
Indicative	Past Definite (Preterit)	Pes. Imperative	Past Definite (Preterit)	Pes. Imperative		
	ebbi	(ha)	ful	(sei)		
	avesti		festi			
	ebbe		fu			
	avamo	(abbiamo)	fummo	(siamo)		
	aveste	(avete)	foste	(siate)		
	ebbero		furono			

Compound Tenses.

Past Indefinite (Perfect)	Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive
	ho avuto	abbia avuto	ho stato	abbia stato
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
Pluperfect	avevo avuto	avessi avuto	avevo stato	avessi stato
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
Indicative	Future Perf.	Cond. Perf.	Future Perf.	Cond. Perf.
	avrò avuto	avrei avuto	avrò stato	avrei stato
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

Note: In many cases where English uses "to be" the Italian employs STARE, not ESSERE, notably to express state, position, or condition as against mere existence.

Examples: Sto bene. I am well. But Sono buono. I am good.
Stavano nella casa. They were staying in their house (position).

But Erano qui. They were here (simple existence).
 Note: For the use of STARE with the Present Participle (Gerund) to denote continued or progressive action, see the Paradigms of Regular Verbs.

(over)

LESSON V Cont'd

Summary of Italian Grammar - Paradigms of Regular Verbs
Students should supply the appropriate Pronouns.

	to speak	to fear	to hear	to finish
Pres. Inf.	parlare	temere	sentire	finire
Pres. Part.	parlante	temente	sentente	finente
(Adjective)				
Pres. Part.	parlando	temendo	sentendo	finendo
(Gerund)				
Past Part.	parlato	temuto	sentito	finito
	Present Indicative			
	parlo	temo	sento	finisco
	parli	temi	senti	finisci
	parla	teme	sento	finisce
	parliamo	temiamo	sentiamo	finiamo
	parlate	temete	sentite	finite
	parlano	temono	sentono	finiscono
	Present Subjunctive			
	parli	tema	senta	finisca
	parli	tema	senta	finisca
	parli	tema	senta	finisca
	parliamo	temiamo	sentiamo	finiamo
	parliate	temiate	sentiate	finite
	parlino	temano	sentano	finiscano
	Imperfect Indicative (endings as in <u>Avere</u>)			
	parlavo	temevo	sentivo	finivo
	parlassi	temessi	sentissi	finissi
	parlerò	temerò	sentirò	finirò
	parlerei	temerei	sentirei	finirei
	Future Indicative (endings as in <u>Avrei</u>)			
	parlerò	temerò	sentirò	finirò
	parlerei	temerei	sentirei	finirei
	Conditional (endings as in <u>Avrei</u>)			
	parlerei	temerei	sentirei	finirei
	Past Definite (Präterit)			
	parlai	temei (temetti)	sentii	finii
	parlasti	temesti (temesti)	sentisti	as
	parlò	temè (temette)	sentì	sentii
	parlavamo	temevamo (temevamo)	sentivamo	
	parlaste	temeste (temeste)	sentiste	
	parlarono	temerono (temettero)	sentirono	
	Present Imperative			
	parla	crede	senti	finisci
	parliamo	crediamo	sentiamo	finiamo
	parlate	credete	sentite	finite
2nd sing.				
1st plur.				
2nd plur.				

Compound Tenses

The Past Indefinite (Perfect) Indicative: Forms of ho and the Past Participle, ple, parlato, temuto, sentito, finito. Certain intransitive verbs, and all reflexive verbs, use the forms of sono and the Past Participle: Io sono partito, I sono partiti.

Present Subjunctive		
parli	tema	sentia
parli	tema	sentia
parli	tema	sentia
parliano	temano	sentiamo
parliate	temate	sentiate
parlino	temano	sentano
	Imperfect Indicative (endings as in Avevo)	finisca
parlavo	tenevo	finisca
	Imperfect Subjunctive (endings as in Avevsi)	finisca
parlassi	tenevsi	finiamo
parlerò	tenerò	finiate
	Future Indicative (endings as in Avrò)	finiscano
parlerei	tenerèi	finirei
	Conditional (endings as in Avrei)	finirei
parli	tenerei	finirei
parlasti	tenesti	finirei
parlò	tenette	finirei
parlano	tenono	finirei
parlaste	teneste	finirei
parlarono	tennero	finirei
	Present Imperative	finirei
parla	credo	finirei
parliano	crediamo	finirei
parlate	credete	finirei
	Compound Tenses	finirei
2nd sing.		finirei
1st plur.		finirei
2nd plur.		finirei

The Past Infinitive (Perfect) Indicative: Forms of ho and the Past Participle, ple, parlato, tenuto, sentito, finito. Certain intransitive verbs, and all reflexive verbs, use the forms of sono and the Past Participle:

Io sono partito, I went; Io mi sono lavato. I washed myself.

The Pluperfect Indicative: Forms of avevo, or, as above, ero, with the Past Participle.

The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive: Forms of abbia (or sia) and avessi (or fossi) with the Past Participle.

The Future Perfect and Conditional Perfect Indicative: Forms of avrò (or sarò) and avrei (or sarei).

Progressive Tenses

Forms of sto, stavo, etc. with the Present Participle (Gerund), parlando, tenendo, sentendo, finendo.

Examples: Sto parlando. I am talking.

Stavo finendo la mia lezione. I was finishing my lesson.
Note: For various translations of English "I am going to" see Notes on Moods and Tenses Par. 8.

LESSON VI

Summary of Italian Grammar - Notes on the Moods and Tenses etc.

1. The indicative is the mood of simple, unqualified statement.
La Signorina è partita. The young lady has gone.
2. The Subjunctive is the mood of uncertainty, wish, exhortation, and the like. Its proper use is one of the refinements of Italian most difficult for the foreigner to learn. Its most frequent use is as a Hortatory Subjunctive in place of the Present Imperative.
Examples: *S'accomodi.* Sit down; *Senta.* Listen; *Andiamo.* Let's go.
The Present Imperative properly exists only in the Second Person Sing. and Plural but the First Person Plural, probably in origin a Hortatory Subjunctive, has been sufficiently assimilated to take the object pronouns after (see on Pronouns). The direct imperative is used only to children or inferiors.
Example: *Va via.* Go away (to a begging child).
~~STUDENTS ARE ADVISED NEVER TO USE THE IMPERATIVE BUT ALWAYS EITHER THE HORTATORY SUBJUNCTIVE OR A CIRCUMLOCUTION.~~
Examples: *Me lo legga, per favore.* Read it to me, please.
La prego di portarmi i documenti. Please bring me the documents.
4. In the Present Indicatives, Subjunctive and Imperative, the Third Conjugation (-ire) verbs have the same endings as the second save in the second person plural (-ite). Note, however, the large class of -ire verbs which, like *finire*, insert -isc in the three persons of the sing. and in the third person plural.
The Imperfect Indicative first person sing. in older Italian ended in *a*.
Examples: *Aveva, parlava, teneva, sentiva.*
STUDENTS ARE ADVISED TO USE THE ENDING -O.
6. The Imperfect is used to express.
a. Continued action in past time.
Example: *Egli era buon Fascista prima della nostra occupazione.* He was (all along) a good Fascist before our occupation.
But: *È stato pretore.* He was (once) a judge.
b. Habitual action in past time.
Example: *Visitava il quartiere generale tedesco ogni volta che veniva in città.* He used to visit the German headquarters every time he came to town.
c. Action in past time during which some other action occurred.
Example: *Stavo nella casa quando è stato ferito il soldato americano.* I was in my own house when the American soldier was wounded.
The Future expresses action in future time.
Example: *Lo farò domani.* I will do it tomorrow.
Note, however, that immediate futurity may be expressed by the present or by *stare per*. Do not use *andare* to translate English "I am going to" unless actual motion is meant.
Examples: *Parlo adesso.* I am going to speak now.
Or *Sto per parlare adesso.* I am about to speak now.

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7. Note, however, that immediate futurity may be expressed by the present or by stare per. Do not use andare to translate English "I am going to" unless actual motion is meant.

Examples: Parlo adesso. I am going to speak now.

Or Sto per parlare adesso. I am about to speak now.

But Parlerò domani. I am going to speak tomorrow.

Vado a dirglielo. I am going (I am on my way) to tell it to him.

8. In the Future and Conditional, the -a- of the present infinitive termination

(-are) is changed to -e-, parlare - parlerò.

9. The Conditional expresses future possibility.

10. The ordinary tense to express a simple act in past time is the compound Past Indefinite (Perfect) and STUDENTS ARE ADVISED TO USE THIS. The Past Definite (Preterit) is more a literary form, useful to know for reading. It emphasizes the singleness of the act.

Examples: Ho comprato un libro. I bought (have bought) a book.

Comprai un libro. I bought a book (once and for all).

11. In the Past Definite of the Third Conjugation, STUDENTS ARE ADVISED TO USE THE SHORTER FORMS FOR REGULAR VERBS. But for many irregular verbs only the longer (-etti) forms exist. These verbs must be learned from practice.

LESSON VI Cont'd

13. When the Auxiliary for Compound Tenses is Avere the Past Participle MAY AGREE in gender and number with a PRECEDING DIRECT OBJECT (usually a relative pronoun) and MUST if this object is a PERSONAL PRONOUN (Pronouns par. 9).
Examples: La lezione che ho imparata (or imparato). The lesson which I have learned. I biglietti che egli ha comprati (or comprato). The tickets which he has bought. Dove sono i biglietti? Non li ho trovati (NOT trovato). Where are the tickets? I have not found them. Le signore hanno detto che il loro vicino non le hanno vedute (NOT vedute). The ladies said that their neighbor did not see them.
14. When the Auxiliary for Compound Tenses is Essere, the Past Participle MUST AGREE in gender and number with the SUBJECT (in the case of Reflexive Verbs, with the preceding reflexive pronoun, which naturally has the same gender and number as the subject).
Examples: Le macchine sono partite. The automobiles have left. Noi ci siamo svegliati alle sette. We men woke up at seven.
15. The Passive Voice is formed in Italian with Essere and the Past Participle. Those verbs which use Essere, as the auxiliary in the active voice are verbs which do not allow of a passive construction (Intransitive Verbs). However, Italian frequently uses a Reflexive instead of the Passive.
Examples: Le case sono vendute or Si sono vendute le case. The houses have been sold. Qui si parla inglese. English is spoken here.
16. The second person singular is used only to close intimates and the second person plural only by inferiors to superiors of formally to a group. STUDENTS ARE ADVISED ALWAYS TO USE THE POLITE THIRD PERSON SINGULAR AND PLURAL OF VERBS with the pronouns Lei and Loro (see Pronouns par. 3).
Examples: Tu sei cattivo. You are naughty (to a child). Lei è molto gentile. You are very kind. Voi siete soldati audaci. You are bold soldiers (a general to his troops). Loro sono amici. You are friends.
17. Many Italian Verbs are used Impersonally, corresponding to the English "it" or "there" constructions.
Examples: Mi sembra. It seems to me. Le bisognerà andare al Municipio. You will have to go to the Town Hall. Basta questo. This is enough. Ha piovuto ieri. It rained yesterday. Ha fatto bel tempo qui? Has it been good weather here?
18. The adverbial particles ci or (less commonly) vi (to be distinguished from the objective forms of the first and second plural personal pronouns) are used with the third person singular or plural of essere to express English indefinite "There is, are, was, were, etc." Before ne (partitive pronoun) they become ce or ve.
Examples: Vi sono due uomini abbasso. There are two men down stairs. Ce ne saranno sei. There will be six of them. Ci sarebbe abbastanza tempo? Would there be enough time?
19. "Here is" when demonstrative in English is expressed by questo in Italian.

- number as the subject).
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19. "Here is," when demonstrative in English is expressed by Ecco in Italian, which takes the object pronoun after and attached.
- Examples: Eccolo. Here it is; Eccoci. Here we are.
20. When such verbs as vorlio, I wish, or posso, I can, are followed by the infinitive and an object pronoun, the pronoun may either precede the main verb or follow (and be attached to) the infinitive.
- Examples: Non posso trovarlo or Non lo posso trovare. I cannot find it.

LESSON VII

1. DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

Questo, "This" or "This one"; Quello, "that" or "that one". Like other adjectives and pronouns, these agree in gender and number with the word which they modify or to which they refer (their antecedent).

Examples: Questa signora, This gentleman. Quella provincia, That province. Questi comuni, These communes (towns, parishes). Quelle montagne, Those mountains. Che cosa è questa? What is this? Quello era il Profetto, That (man) was the Prefect.

2. CONTRACTIONS OF QUESTO AND QUELLO resemble those of the definite article.

a. In the singular, an apostrophe (') replaces -o or -a before ANY VOWEL.

Examples: Quest' affare, This affair. Quell' istituzione, That institution.

b. Quel is used for the masculine singular Adjective Quello before any consonant except impure s (s followed by another consonant) or z.

Examples: Quel letto, That bed. Quello spettacolo, That spectacle.

c. The masculine plural Quelli when Adjectival, becomes Quegli before a vowel, an impure s, or z. Otherwise it is Quei before consonants.

Examples: Quelli sono i miei fazzoletti, Those are my handkerchiefs. (pronoun)
Quegli ufficiali hanno la responsabilità per quegli scavi, Those officials are responsible (have the responsibility) for those excavations. (Adjective)
Quei comitati non funzionano bene, Those committees do not work well. (Adjective)
 Compare: Il or Quel bicchiere, The or That glass. (for liquid)
 Lo or Quello specchio, The or That mirror. Lo or Quello zelo, The or That zeal. L' or Quell' uomo, The or That man. I or Quei Carabinieri, The or Those Carabinieri. Gli or Quegli indizi, The or Those addresses. (of a house or person). Gli or Quegli sbagli, The or Those mistakes.

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

a) Pronouns:

Chi? Who or Whom? Di chi? Whose? One? or Che cosa? What?

Examples: Chi è la? Who is there? Chi a visto Lei nella via? Whom did you see in the street? Di che è questa carta d'identità? Whose is this pass (identity card)? Che Le è accaduto? What happened to you? Che cosa fanno? What are they doing? (in speech, often simply Cosa fanno?)

b) Che (but not Chi) may be used as an Interrogative Adjective.

Example: Che casa preferisce Lei? What house do you prefer?

c) Where there is a contrast, use Quale, plural Quali, for both genders as Pronouns or Adjective. Quale, masculine singular, is often shortened to Qual before masculine singular nouns except those beginning with s impure or z.

Examples: Qual ufficio? Which (specific) office (of several)? Qual treno prende Lei? Which train are you taking? Quali posti sono già occupati? Which places are already taken? Quali hanno presi? Which ones (Masculine) did they take?

d) When WHAT is followed by TO BE and a NOUN, use Qual, quale, Quali instead of Che.

Examples: Qual è la sua offerta? What is his (her) offer? Quali sono le loro idee? What (Feminine Plural) are your (Plural) ideas?

4. Vocabulary (for full military ranks, see TM 30-249 pp. 26-27).

la recluta, the recruit. il soldato, the private. il militare, the soldier. il bersagliere, the marksman.

Quegli ufficiali hanno la responsabilità per quegli scavi. Those officials are responsible (have the responsibility) for those excavations. (Adjective) Quei comitati non funzionano bene. Those committees do not work well. (Adjective). Compare: Il or Quel bicchiere, The or That glass. (for liquid). Lo or Quello specchio, The or That mirror. Lo or Quello zelo, The or That zeal. L' or Quell' uomo, The or That man. I or Quei Carabinieri, The or Those Carabinieri. Gli or Quegli indiziati, The or Those addressees. (of a house or person). Gli or Quegli sbagli, The or Those mistakes.

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

a) Pronouns.

Chi? Who or Whom? Di chi? Whose? Che? or Che cosa? What?

Examples: Chi è là? Who is there? Chi a visto Lei nella via? Whom did you see in the street? Di che è questa carta d'identità? Whose is this pass (identity card)? Che Le è accaduto? What happened to you? Che cosa fanno? What are they doing? (in speech, often simply Cosa fanno?)

b) Che (but not Chi) may be used as an Interrogative Adjective.

Example: Che casa preferisce Lei? What house do you prefer?

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Examples: Qual è la sua offerta? What is his (her) offer? Quali sono le loro idee? What (Feminine Plural) are your (Plural) ideas?

4. Vocabulary (for full military ranks, see TM 30-249 pp. 26-27).

la recluta, the recruit. il soldato, the private. il militare, the soldier. il borghese, the civilian. l'ufficiale, the officer, il servizio militare, military service. L'accompagnato, the encampment. la marcia, the march. la fermata, the halt. Alt! Halt! la classe, the military class or year. Chiamare in servizio, to call to service. Fare il servizio militare, to do one's term of military service. Essere sotto le armi, to be in service (under arms). Anno, year. Mestiere, profession.

5. Sentences (for military phrases, see TM 30-249 pp. 110ff.). Translate into English: a) Lei era recluta? b) Che grado ha tenuto? c) Sono borghese, non militare. d) Quando era chiamato Lei in servizio militare? e) Quanti anni ha Lei? f) Sono sotto le armi da cinque anni. Translate into Italian: a) Are you an officer? b) I was in the class of 1920. c) I did my service in the Alpini. d) What is your profession? e) They made a long march. f) The halt was near the encampment.

(over)

LESSON VII Cont'd

6. RELATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

He is the most common pronoun for Who, Whom, Which, What.

Examples: L'uomo che ha trovato questo. The man who found this, I documented.
che erano sulla scrivania. The documents which were on the desk. La camicia che cercavo. The shirt for which I was looking.

7. The Past Participle MAY AGREE in gender and number WITH A PRECEDING OBJECT RELATIVE PRONOUN, see Lesson VI 13.

Examples: La chiesa che ho chiuso/a, The church which I closed. I biglietti che il portiere ci ha comprato/i, The tickets which the concierge bought for us. Le case che hanno venduto/e, The houses which they sold.

Remember that Past Participles used Adjectively or with Essere (Some intransitive and all passive or reflexive verbs) must agree with the subject in gender and number.

Examples: I soldati feriti erano mandati all'ospedale, The wounded soldiers were sent to the hospital. La finestra non è aperta, The window is not open. Le mie scarpe non sono state pulite, My shoes have not been polished. Sua madre è ritornata a casa, His mother has returned home. La ragazza si è accorta del suo delitto, The girl perceived her crime.

8. Che used as a Relative Pronoun MUST NEVER BE OMITTED IN ITALIAN as it is colloquially in English.

Example: Dov'è la carne che ho comprato/a? Where is the meat I ordered?

9. Il quale; la quale, i quali, and le quali or Cui alone are used after Prepositions for Which or Whom.

Examples: La carta sulla quale (su cui) ho fatto le mie note, The paper on which I made my notes. (Not su che) Le scatole nelle quali (in cui) il impiegato ha infilato le carte, The boxes in which the clerk filed the papers. La persona alla quale (a cui) parlerò, The person to whom I shall speak. Gli uomini coi quali (con cui) egli è uscito, The men with whom he went out.

10. Il cui, la cui, i cui, or le cui are used for Whose (NEVER il di cui etc.).

The Article agrees in gender and number with the thing possessed, not with the possessor.

Examples: Il signore, la cui macchina è stata rubata, The gentleman whose automobile was stolen. La donna il cui lavoro era il migliore, The lady whose work was best.

11. Ciò che is used for That which (What).

Example: Hanno portato ciò che desideravo, They brought what (that which) I wanted.

12. Chi alone stands for He who, Whoever, etc.

Example: Chi ha commesso questo delitto sarà punito severamente, Whoever committed this crime will be punished severely.

13. Ciò is often substituted for Questo or Quello when used as a neuter pronoun.

Example: Chi ha fatto ciò (questo)? Who did this?

14. Ci or Vi are used as indefinite subjects corresponding to English There is (are). They should be distinguished from the object pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person plural. Before the partitive Ne (above Lesson II under Prepositions), they become Ce or Ve. Before vowels they elide.

Examples: C'era un pacco per Lei, There was a package for you. Non v'è tempo? Isn't there time? Ce ne sono di più. There are more of them.

15. Poco is used for the adverbial phrase Not much (a little). Chien pro-

- La ragazza si è accorta del suo delitto, the girl has discovered her crime.
8. Che used as a Relative Pronoun MUST NEVER BE COMMITTED IN ITALIAN as it is colloquially in English.
Example: Dov'è la carne che ho comperato/a? Where is the meat I ordered?
9. Il quale, la quale, i quali, and le quali or Qui alone are used after Prepositions for Which or Whom.
Examples: La carta sulla quale (su cui) ho fatto le mie note, The paper on which I made my notes. (Not su che) Le scatole nelle quali (in cui) il impiegato ha infilato le carte, The boxes in which the clerk filed the papers. La persona alla quale (a cui) parlerò, The person to whom I shall speak. Gli uomini coi quali (con cui) egli è uscito, The men with whom he went out.
The Article agrees in gender and number with the thing possessed, not with the possessor.
10. Il cui, la cui, i cui, or le cui are used for Whose (NEVER il di cui etc.).
Examples: Il signore, la cui macchina è stata rubata, The gentleman whose automobile was stolen. La donna il cui lavoro era il migliore, The lady whose work was best.
11. Ciò che is used for That which (What).
Example: Hanno portato ciò che desideravo, They brought what (that which) I wanted.
12. Chi alone stands for He who, Whoever, etc.
Example: Chi ha commesso questo delitto sarà punito severamente, Whoever committed this crime will be punished severely.
13. Ciò is often substituted for Questo or Quello when used as a neuter pronoun.
Example: Chi ha fatto ciò (questo)? Who did this?
14. Ci or Vi are used as indefinite subjects corresponding to English There is (are). They should be distinguished from the object pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person plural. Before the partitive Ne (above Lesson II under Prepositions), they become Ce or Ve. Before vowels they elide.
Examples: C'era un pacco per Lei, There was a package for you. Non v'è tempo? Isn't there time? Ce ne sono di più. There are more of them.
15. Ecco is used for the strongly demonstrative Here or There is (are). Object pronouns are attached to it.
Examples: Ne hanno? Eccone. Have they any? Here are some. Eccolo, There he is.
16. Various indefinite Adjectives and Pronouns.
Ogni (invariable), Every - Ogni uomo, Every man; Ogni cosa, Everything. Qualche cosa, Something (NB Che cosa, What, Above). Alcuno (-a, i, e), Some (plural A few). Alcune donne, A few women. Qualcuno (-a,), Someone; Ognuno (-a), Everyone. Ciascuno (-a), Each or Each one. Tanto (-a, i, e), So much; Quanto (-a, i, e), How much.
17. Quanto meaning How is invariable. Quanto costa questo? How much does this cost? Quanto è bella sua sorella, How beautiful his sister is.
18. Such adverbs as Molto, Much; Troppo, Too much; Tanto, So much; Poco, Little are invariable. As adjectives they agree in gender and number. Examples: Questo costa troppo, This costs too much. Lei ha bevuto troppa birra, You have drunk too much beer. Ho molte buste, I have a lot of envelopes.
19. Abbastanza, Enough, is adjective (invariable) or adverb or substantive. Examples: Ce n'è abbastanza, There is enough of it. Non è abbastanza diligente, He isn't diligent enough. Ho mangiato abbastanza pasta, I have eaten enough pasta.

LESSON VIII

Conjugations:

Dare, dando, dato - to give

Pres. Ind.
do diamo
dai date
dà danno

Pres. Subj.
dia diamo
dia diate
dia diano

Imperative
da' date

Imperf. Ind.
davo, davi, etc., (Reg.)

Imperf. Subj.
dessi dossimo
dessi deste
desse dessero

Past Def.
diedi (detti) dammo
desti deste
diede diedero (dettero)

Fut. (Reg.)
darò, darai etc.

Conditional (Reg.)
darei, daresti, etc.

Compound Tense (Reg.)
ho dato

Stare, stando, stato - to stand

Pres. Ind.
sto stiamo
stai state
sta stanno

Pres. Subj.
stia stiamo
stia stiate
stia stiano

Imperative
sta' state

Imperf. Ind.
stavo, stavi, etc., (Reg.)

Imperf. Subj.
stessi stessimo
stessi stesto
stesse stessero

Past Def.
stetti stemmo
stesti steste
stette stettero

Fut. (Reg.)
starò, starai, etc.

Conditional (Reg.)
starei, staresti, etc.

Compound Tense (Reg.)
sono stato (a)

Andare, andando, andato - to go

Pres. Ind.
vado andiamo
vai andate
va vanno

Pres. Subj.
vada andiamo
vada andiate
vada vadano

Imperative
va' andate

Imperf. Ind.
andavo, andavi, etc., (Reg.)

Imperf. Subj.
andassi, etc., (Reg.)

Past Def.
andai, andasti, etc., (Reg.)

Future
andrò, andrai, etc.

Conditional
andrei, andresti, etc.

Compound Tense
sono andato (a) etc.

Fare, facendo, fatto - to do

Pres. Ind.
faccio facciamo

Pres. Subj.
faccia facciamo

Imperative
faccia

Pres. Ind. sto stiamo stai state sta stanno	Pres. Subj. stia stiamo stia stiate stia stiano	Imperative sta' state
Imperf. Ind. stavo, stavi, sto	Imperf. Subj. (Reg.) stessi stessimo stessi steste stesse stessero	Past. Def. stetti stemmo stesti steste stette stettero
Fut. (Reg.) starò, starai, etc.	Conditional (Reg.) starei, starèsti, etc.	Compound Tense (Reg.) sono stato (a)
Andare, andando, andato - to go		
Pres. Ind. vado andiamo vai andate va vanno	Pres. Subj. vada andiamo vada andiate vada vadano	Imperative va' andate
Imperf. Ind. andavo, andavi, etc.	Imperf. Subj. (Reg.) andassi, etc., (Reg.)	Past Def. andai, andasti, etc., (Reg.)
Future andrò, andrai, etc.	Conditional andrei, andresti, etc.	Compound Tense sono andato (a) etc.
Fare, facendo, fatto - to do		
Pres. Ind. faccio facciamo fai fate fa fanno	Pres. Subj. faccia facciamo faccia facciate faccia facciano	Imperative facciamo fa fate
Imperf. Ind. facevo, facevi, etc.	Imperf. Subj. (Reg.) facessi, faccessi, etc., (Reg.)	Past. Def. feci faccimo facesti faceste fecce fecero
Future farò, farai, etc., (Reg.)	Conditional farei, faresti, etc., (Reg.)	Compound Tense (Reg.) ho fatto etc.

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(over)

LESSON VIII Cont'd

Volere, volendo, voluto - To wish, be willing

Pres. Ind. voglio vuoi vuole	Pres. Subj. voglia voglia voglia	Past Def. volsi volesti volle
Imperf. Ind. volevo, (Reg.)	Imperf. Subj. volessi, (Reg.)	Past Def. volsi volesti volle

Cond. vorrei (Reg.)	Imperative vuali, vogliamo, volete	Compound Tenses ho voluto etc.
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Potere, potendo, potuto - To be able

Pres. Ind. posso puoi puo	Imperf. Ind. potevo (Reg.)	Pres. Subj. possa (Reg.)
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Future potrò, (Reg.)	Past Def. potui, (Reg.)	Imperf. Subj. Potessi, (Reg.)
Cond. potrei, (Reg.)	Imperative Nono	Compound Tenses ho potuto, etc.

Irregular Verbs: Irregularities in Capitals.Sapere, sapendo, saputo

Pres. Ind. so SAPPILAMO SAI sapete SA SANNNO	Pres. Subj. SAPPIA SAPPIAMO SAPPIA SAPPIATE SAPPIA SAPPILINO	Imperative SAPPILAMO SAPPI SAPPIATE
Imperf. sapevo, etc.	Imperf. Subj. sapessi, etc.	Past Def. SAPPII sapemmo sapesti sapeste SAPPPE SAPPERO

Fut. SAPRO, etc.	Conditional SAPPREI, etc.	Compound Tense ho saputo
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NB 1. Sapere resembles avere.
NB 2. Sapevo translates "I know"; sappi translates "I found out".

Cadere, cadendo, caduto

Pres. Ind. Pres. Subj.
 posso possiamo possa (Reg.)
 puoi potete
 puo possono

Future
 potrò, (Reg.)

Cond.
 potrei, (Reg.)

Imperf. Subj.
 Potessi, (Reg.)

Compound Tenses
 ho potuto, etc.

Irregular Verbs: Irregularities in Capitals.

Sapere, sapendo, saputo

Pres. Ind. Pres. Subj.
 SO SAPPIAMO SAPPILA SAPPIAMO
 SAI sapete SAPPILA SAPPIATE
 SA SANNO SAPPILA SAPPIANO

Imperf. Subj.
 sapevo, etc.

Imperative
 SAPPILA SAPPIAMO
 SAPPILA SAPPIATE

Past Def.
 SEPII sapemmo
 sapesti sapeste
 SEPE SEPPERO

Compound Tense
 ho saputo

Fut.
 SAPRO, etc.
 NB 1. Sapere resembles avere.
 NB 2. Sapevo translates "I know"; seppi translates "I found out".

Cadere, cadendo, caduto

Pres. Ind. Pres. Subj.
 cado, etc. cada, etc.

Imperf. Subj.
 cadevo, etc. None

Imperative
 cadi, etc.

Past Def.
 CADDI cademmo
 cadeste cadeste
 CADDE CADDERO

Compound Tense
 sono caduto (a)

Conditional
 CADEREI, etc.

LESSON IX

Irregular Verbs:

Dovere, dovendo, dovuto

Pres. Ind.
DEVO DOBBIAMO
DEVI dovete
DEVE DEVONO

Pres. Subj.
DEVA DOBBIAMO
DEVA DOBBIATE
DEVA DEVANO

Imperative
none

Imperf.
dovevo, etc.

Imperf. Subj.
dovessi, etc.

Past Def.
dovei or dovetti, etc.

Fut.
DOVERO

Conditional
DOVREI

Compound Tense
ho dovuto

Sedere, sedendo, seduto

Pres. Ind.
SIENO sediamo
SIEDI sedete
SIEDE SEDONO

Pres. Subj.
SIEDA SEDIAMO
SIEDA SEDIATE
SIEDA SEDANO

Imperative
SIEDI SEDIAMO
SEDETE

Imperf.
sedevo, etc.

Imperf. Subj.
sedessi, etc.

Past Def.
sedei or sedetti, etc.

Fut.
sederò, etc.
NB "To sit down" is sedersi.

Conditional
sederai, etc.

Compound Tense
ho seduto

Vedere, vedendo, veduto (or VISTO).

Pres. Ind.
vedo, etc.

Pres. Subj.
veda, etc.

Imperative
vedi, etc.

Imperf.
vedevo, etc.

Imperf. Subj.
vedessi, etc.

Past Def.
VIDI vedemmo
vedesti vedeste
VIDE VIDERO

Fut.
VEDRÒ

Conditional
VEDREI

Compound Tense
ho veduto (or VISTO)

Giacere, giacendo, giaciuto

Pres. Ind.
GIACCIO GIACCIAMO
giaci giaccete
GIACCIO GIACCONO

Pres. Subj.
GIACCIA GIACCIAMO
GIACCIA GIACCIATE
GIACCIA GIACCANO

Imperative
GIACCIA
giaci giaccete

Pres. Ind.
SIEDO sediamo
SIEDI sedete
SIEDE SEDONO

Imperf.
sedevo, etc.

Fut.
sederò, etc.
NB "To sit down" is sedersi.

Pres. Subj.
SIEDA SEDIAMO
SIEDA SEDILATE
SIEDA SEDANO

Imperf. Subj.
sedessi, etc.

Conditional
sederei, etc.

Vedere, vendendo, veduto (or VISTO).

Pres. Ind.
vedo, etc.

Imperf.
vedevo, etc.

Pres. Subj.
veda, etc.

Imperf. Subj.
vedessi, etc.

Fut.
VEDERÒ

Conditional
VEDEREI

Giacere, giacendo, giaciuto

Pres. Ind.
GIACCIO GIACCiamo
giaci
giace GIACCiono

Imperf.
giacevo, etc.

Pres. Subj.
GIACCIA GIACCiamo
GIACCIA GIACCiate
GIACCIA GIACCiano

Imperf. Subj.
giacessi, etc.

Fut.
giacerò, etc.

Conditional
giacerei, etc.

Imperative
SIEDI SEDIAMO
SEDETE

Past Def.
sedei or sedetti, etc.

Compound Tense
ho seduto

Imperative
vedi, etc.

Past Def.
VIDI vedemmo
vedesti vedeste
VIDE VIDERO

Compound Tense
ho veduto (or VISTO)

Imperative
GIACCiamo
giaci giaccete

Past Def.
GIACQUI giacemmo
giacesti giacceste
GIACQUE GIACQUERO

Compound Tense
sono giaciuto (a)

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LESSON IX Cont'd

Piacere, piacendo, piaciuto

Pres. Ind. PIACCIO
 piaci
 piace

Pres. Subj. PIACCIA
 PIACCIA
 PIACCIA

Imperative
 PIACCIA
 piaci piaccete

Imperf. piacevo, etc.

Imperf. Subj. piaccessi, etc.

Past Def. PIACQUI
 piaccetti
 PIACQUE

Put. piacerò, etc.

Conditional piacerai, etc.

NB Piacere takes an indirect object; "it pleases him" is to be thought of as "it is pleasing to him" gli piace. This is also the common way of saying "He likes it".

Compound Tense sono piaciuto (a)

Tacere, tacendo, taciuto

Pres. Ind. TACCIO
 taci
 tace

Pres. Subj. TACCIA
 TACCIA
 TACCIA

Imperative
 TACCIA
 taci tacete

Imperf. tacevo, etc.

Imperf. Subj. tacessi, etc.

Past Def. TACQUI
 tacetti
 TACQUE

Fut. tacerò, etc.

Conditional tacerai, etc.

Compound Tense ho taciuto

Solere, SOLITO

Pres. Ind. SOGLIO
 SUOLI
 SUOLE

Pres. Subj. SOGLIA
 SOGLIA
 SOGLIA

Imperative
 none

Imperf. solevo, etc.

Imperf. Subj. solessi, etc.

Compound Tense sono solito (a)

NO OTHER TENSES

of as "it is pleasing to him" gli piace. This is also the common way of saying "He likes it".

Tacere, tacendo, taciuto

Pres. Ind.
TACCIO TACCIAMO
taci tacete
tace TACCIONO

Pres. Subj.
TACCIA TACCIAMO
TACCIA TACCIASTE
TACCIA TACCIONO

Imperative
TACCIA
taci tacete

Imperf.
tacevo, etc.

Imperf. Subj.
taceessi, etc.

Past Def.
TACQUI tacemmo
tacesti taceste
TACQUE TACQUERO

Fut.
tacerò, etc.

Conditional
tacerai, etc.

Compound Tense
ho taciuto

Pres. Ind.
SOGLIO SOGLIAMO
SUOLI solete
SUOLE SOGLIONO

Pres. Subj.
SOGLIA SOGLIAMO
SOGLIA SOGLIASTE
SOGLIA SOGLIONO

Imperative
none

Imperf.
solevo, etc.

Imperf. Subj.
solessi, etc.

Compound Tense
sono solito (a)

NO OTHER TENSES

Dolere, dolendo, doluto

Pres. Ind.
DOLGO DOGLIAMO
DUOLI dolete
DUOLE DOLGONO

Pres. Subj.
DOLGA DOGLIAMO
DOLGA DOGLIASTE
DOLGA DOLGANO

Imperative
none

Imperf.
dolevo, etc.

Imperf. Subj.
dolessi, etc.

Past Def.
DOLSI dolammo
dolesti doleste
DOLSE DOLSERO

Fut.
DORRÒ, etc.

Conditional
DORREI, etc.

Compound Tense
sono doluto (a)

NB 1. The construction is like that with piacere. "It hurts him" is to be thought of as "it is painful to him" and translated gli duole.
NB 2. The imperfect is much more in use than the past definite.

LESSON X

Irregular Verbs (forms in caps are irregular).

Rimanere, rimanendo, RIMASTO (RIMASO): To remain.

Pres. Ind. RIMANGO rimaniamo
rimani rimanete
rimane RIMANGONO RIMANGANO.

Pres. Subj. RIMANGA rimaniamo
RIMANGA rimaniate
RIMANGA RIMANGANO.

Imperative

rimani rimanete

Imperf. rimanetevo (Reg)

Imperf. Subj. rimanessi (Reg)

Past Def. RIMASI rimaniamo
rimanesti rimaneste
RIMASSE RIMASERO.

Fut. RIMARRO (Reg)

Conditional RIMARREI (Reg)

Compound Tense sono RIMASTO/A (RIMASO/A,) etc.

Pres. Ind. TENGO

teniamo
TIENI tenete
TIENE TENGONO

Tenere, tenendo, tenuto: To hold, have.

Pres. Subj.

TENGA teniamo
TENGA teniate
TENGA TENGANO

Imperative

teniamo
TIENI tenete

Imperf. tenevo (Reg)

Imperf. Subj. tenessi (Reg)

Past Def. TENNI teniamo
tenesti teneste
TENNE TENNERO

Fut. TENERO (Reg)

Conditional TENEREI (Reg)

Compound Tense

ho tenuto, etc.

NB Tenere is commonly used instead of Avere for 'Eg. "to have" when holding is emphasized.

Examples: Tengo il mio libro, I have my book (in my hand). But ho un libro, I have (own) a book.

CONDURRE, conducendo, CONDOTTO: To lead, conduct

Imperative

conduci (Reg)

Pres. Ind. conduco (Reg)

Pres. Subj. conduca (Reg)

Imperf. conducevo (Reg)

Imperf. Subj. conducessi (Reg)

Past Def. CONDUSSI conduciamo
conduceste conduceste
CONDUSSE CONDUSSERO

Fut. CONDURRO (Reg)

Conditional CONDURREI (Reg)

Compound Tense

ho CONDOTTO etc.

NB Similarly Tradurre, To translate; Indurre, To induce; Produrre, to produce; and other verbs in -durre.

tenere, ~~tenere~~, ~~tenere~~ To hold, have.

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Subj.	Imperative
TENGO teniamo	TENGA teniamo	teniamo
TIENI tenete	TENGA teniate	TIENI tenete
TIENE tengono	TENGA tengano	

Imperf.	Imperf. Subj.	Past Def.
tenevo (Reg)	tenessi (Reg)	TEINI teniamo
		tenesti teneste
		TEINE TENIERO

Conditional
TENEI (Reg) ho tenuto, etc.

NB Tenere is commonly used instead of avere for Eng. "to have" when holding is emphasized.

Examples: Tengo il mio libro, I have my book (in my hand). But ho un libro, I have (own) a book.

CONDURRE, conduco, CONDOTTO: To lead, conduct

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Subj.	Imperative
conduco (Reg)	conduca (Reg)	conduci (Reg)

Imperf.	Imperf. Subj.	Past Def.
conducevo (Reg)	conducessi (Reg)	CONDUSSEI conducevamo
		conducesti conducevate
		CONDUSSETE CONDUSSETE

Put. CONDURRE (Reg) CONDURREI (Reg)
NB Similarly Tradurre, To translate; Indurre, To induce; Produrre, to produce; and other verbs in -durre.

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PORRE, ponendo, POSTO: To put, place

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Subj.	Imperative
PONGO poniamo	PONGA poniamo	poni (Reg)
poni ponete	PONGA poniate	
pone pongono	PONGA pongano	

Imperf.	Imperf. Subj.	Past Def.
ponevo (Reg)	ponessi (Reg)	POSSI poniamo
		ponesti poneste
		POSE POSERO

Conditional
POMEI (Reg) ho POSTO etc.

NB Similarly Comporre, To compose; Supporre, To suppose; etc.

(over)

[illegible]

Pres.	Ind.				
MUOVO	moviamo			Pres Subj.	MUOVERE, movendo, MOSSO: To move
MUOVI	movete	MUOVA	moviamo		Imperative
MUOVE	MUOVONO	MUOVA	moviate		moviamo
		MUOVA	MUOVANO		muovi movete

Imperf.	Imperf. Subj.	Past Def.
movevo (Reg.)	movessi (Reg.)	MOSSI
		movetti
		moveste
		MOSSE
		MOSSERO

Fut.
moverò (Reg.)
NB Often used reflexively, Muoversi, To move (intransitive),
Example: Eppure se muove. Yet it does move (Galileo).
NB Similarly Scuotere, scuotendo, scosso/a, scossi, To shake.

	Conditional moverei (Reg.)	Compound Tense ho mosso etc.
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Venire, venendo, VENUTO: To come

Pres Ind.	veniamo	Pres. Subj.	veniamo	Imperative	veniamo
VENGO	venite	VENGA	veniate	VIENI	venito
VIENI	VENGONO	VENGA	VENGANO		
VIENE					

Imperf.	Imperf. Subj.	Past Def.
venivo (Rog.)	venissi (Rog.)	VENNI venirno
		venisti veniste
		VENNE VENNERO

Fut. VERRO (Reg.)	Conditional VERREI (Reg.)	Compound Tense sono VENUTO/A etc.
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Uscire, To go out; Udire, To hear; U-

NUOVERE, movendo, MOSSO: To move	
Pres Subj.	Imperative
NUOVA moviamo	moviamo
NUOVA moviate	muovi movete
NUOVA MUOVANO	

LESSON XI

NOTES ON IRREGULAR VERBS

1. Attention is called to the Paradigms (examples) of the three conjugations of regular verbs in Collins' Pocket Dictionary at the end of the Italian section, pp. 227-232, and to the list of Principal Parts of Irregular Verbs immediately following, pp. 233-240. Students are advised to STUDY THESE COMMON VERBS. A list of Idiomatic Phrases with various common verbs will be found at the end of the English section, pp. 439-446.
2. It will be observed that the majority of Irregular Verbs belong to the Second (-ere) Conjugation. Only four, Andare, Dare, Fare, and Stare, have infinitives in -are (apparent first conjugation); these are given in Lesson VIII above. A few, some given at the end of Lesson X above, end in -ire (third conjugation). However, the large class of -ire verbs which take -isc- in the three persons of the singular and in the third plural of the present indicative and subjunctive should be recalled, above Lesson V.
3. It will be observed that where the Infinitive is irregular, the stem of the verb can be found in the Present Participle by dropping the ending -ndo. Since Collins' list does not give the Present Participle, the first person singular of the Present Indicative may be used in some cases by dropping the final -o e.g. Conduco (Irreg), Conduco (Reg) yields Conduco. However, the 1st sing. of the Pres. Ind. is likely also to be irregular and recourse must be had to the first person plural of the Pres. Ind. The verbs in Lessons VIII-X cover most such cases.
4. It will be observed that when the 1st. sing. of the Pres. Ind. is irregular, the 3rd sing. uses the same stem, as do the three persons sing. and the 3rd plur. of the Pres. Subjunctive. The 2nd and 3rd sing. of the Pres. Ind. either return to the normal stem e.g. Piaccio, piaci, piace, or have a different irregularity, e.g. Vengo, vieni, viene.
5. The Imperfect Indicative is formed by adding -v- and the appropriate personal endings (-o, i, a, amo, ate, ano) to the REGULAR STEM, i.e. to the present participle minus -ndo.
6. For the Imperfect Subjunctive, drop -sti from the 2nd sing. of the Past Definite and add -ssi, ssi, sse, ssimo, ste, ssero. In most verbs the stem here is the same as the regular stem, but there are some exceptions; contrast Parla-sti yields Parla-ssi etc. with De-sti yields De-ssi etc. Note that in Collins' paradigm of Sentire, p. 229, in the 2nd plur. Imperf. Subj. Sente-iste is a misprint for Sentiste.
7. The three forms of the Imperative are those of the 2nd sing. and 1st and 2nd plur. of the Pres. Ind. STUDENTS ARE ADVISED TO USE THE POLITE HORTATORY SUBJUNCTIVE in place of the Imperative, above Lesson VI 3.
8. The Future is usually formed by dropping the final -e of the infinitive and adding the appropriate personal endings (-o, ai, a, amo, ate, anno). A few verbs contract, e.g. Venire, Verrò; Andare, Andrò; and others given in Lessons VII-X. Remember that the Regular First Conjugation also changes the -a- of -are to -e-; contrast Parlare, Parlerò with Dare, Darò.
9. Similarly the Conditional adds to the Future Stem (formed as described in 8) the appropriate personal endings (-ei, esti, ebbe, ammo, este, ebbero).
10. In the Past Definite (Preterit), when the 1st person sing. is irregular, the 3rd sing. and plural follow it but the 2nd sing. and 1st and 2nd plur. return to the

- e.g. *Conduco* (Irreg), *Conduco* (Reg) yields *Conduco*. However, the 1st sing. of the Pres. Ind. is likely also to be irregular and recourse must be had to the first person plural of the Pres. Ind. The verbs in Lessons VIII-X cover most such cases.
4. It will be observed that when the 1st. sing. of the Pres. Ind. is irregular, the 3rd sing. uses the same stem, as do the three persons sing. and the 3rd plur. of the Pres. Subjunctive. The 2nd and 3rd sing. of the Pres. Ind. either return to the normal stem e.g. *Piace*, *piaci*, place, or have a different irregularity, e.g. *Vengo*, *vieni*, *viene*.
5. The Imperfect Indicative is formed by adding -v- and the appropriate personal endings (-o, -i, -a, -mo, -e, -te, -ano) to the REGULAR STEM. i.e. to the present participle minus -do.
6. For the Imperfect Subjunctive, drop -sti from the 2nd sing. of the Past Definite and add -ssi, -ssi, -ssi, -ssimo, -ste, -ssero. In most verbs the stem here is the same as the regular stem, but there are some exceptions; contrast *Parla-sti* yields *Parla-ssi* etc. with *De-sti* yields *De-ssi* etc. Note that in Collins' paradigm of *Sentire*, p. 229, in the 2nd plur. Imperf. Subj. *Sente-iste* is a misprint for *Sentiste*.
7. The three forms of the Imperative are those of the 2nd sing. and 1st and 2nd plur. of the Present Indicative. STUDENTS ARE ADVISED TO USE THE POLITE HORTATORY SUBJUNCTIVE in place of the Imperative, above Lesson VI 3.
8. The Future is usually formed by dropping the final -e of the infinitive and adding the appropriate personal endings (-o, -i, -a, -mo, -e, -te, -anno). A few verbs contrast, e.g. *Venire*, *Verrò*; *Andare*, *Andrò*; and others given in Lessons VIII-X. Remember that the Regular First Conjugation also changes the -a- of -are to -e-; contrast *Parlare*, *Parlerò* with *Dare*, *Darò*.
9. Similarly the Conditional adds to the Future Stem (formed as described in 8) the appropriate personal endings (-ei, -esti, -ebbe, -anno, -este, -ebbero).
10. In the Past Definite (Preterit), when the 1st person sing. is irregular, the 3rd sing. and plural follow it but the 2nd sing. and 1st and 2nd plur. return to the regular stem with the appropriate endings. This is equally true of third conjugation verbs forming the 1st sing. past def. with -etti, see Tenetti, above Lesson V.
11. Recall the rule that in the Compound Tenses, the Past Participle of verbs using the auxiliary *Avere* MAY AGREE in gender and number with a PRECEDING DIRECT OBJECT (usually a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun) and MUST AGREE with a PRECEDING DIRECT (not indirect) OBJECT PERSONAL PRONOUN, but the Past Participle of verbs using *Essere* must AGREE WITH THE SUBJECT. Above Lessons V, 9, VI 13, VII 7.
12. In general, verbs compounded from irregular verbs follow the conjugation of the simple verb. Also, irregular verbs with similar stems often closely resemble one another in irregularities.
13. Verbs ending in -care or -gare add h after the c or g before terminations beginning with e or i to preserve the hard sound of the c or g. Examples: *Cercare*, *Vi cercherò*, To look for, I shall look for you. *Pagare*, *Lo paghi*, To pay, I pay it (polite)

(over)

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LESSON XI Cont'd

- Most verbs which end in -iare, drop the i before a termination beginning with i. But some verbs, which stress the i in the singular of the Pres., drop the i only before iamo and iate, not elsewhere. Examples: Copiare, Copi la lettera, To copy, Copy the letter (polite). Inviare, Inviamo, Invi il pacco, To send, We send (or let us send), Send the package (polite).
- Verbs ending in -ciare or -giare omit the i before terminations beginning with i or e, since in these cases the c or g is soft in any case. Examples: Mangiare, Che cosa mangia? To eat, What will he eat? Rilasciare, Rilasciamo, To release, We release.
- Verbs ending in -chiare or -gliare retain the i in the future and conditional. Examples: Consigliare, Consigliamo, Consigliavamo, To advise, We advise, we will advise.
- Observe that the above stem changes to preserve the soft or hard character of c or g appear only in the First Conjugation, not in the Second or Third, except in the verb Cucire; To sew, which takes i before a or e to preserve the soft c. Examples: Dire, Diciamo, Dico, To say, We say, They say. Fuggire, Fugge, Fuggiamo, To flee, He flees, Let them flee. But Cucire, Cucio, Cucia, To sew, Let him sew.
- Adverbs are usually formed by adding -mente to the FEMINE SINGULAR of Adjectives. Final -e following i or r is dropped before -mente. Examples: Raro, Para, Raramente, Rarely, Convenientemente (masc. or fem.); Convenientemente, Convenient (suitable); Convenientemente (suitably); Eguale (masc. or fem.) Equal mente, Equal, Particolarmente, Particularly, Particularly.
- COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.
- Italian has no terminations (save in a few irregular comparisons, below, 21), to indicate comparison equivalent to Eng. -er, -est. For the Comparative, use the adverb più and for the Superlative, il più. Comparative or Superlative adjectives usually follow the noun. Examples: più grande, Il più grande, The big, Bigger, Biggest. Comprerò una casa grande, I will buy a bigger house. San Pietro e Roma è una delle chiese più grandi (or delle più grandi chiese) del mondo. St. Peter's at Rome is one of the largest churches in the world. Lentamente, Più lentamente, More slowly, More slowly than before. E lui più lentamente, per piacere, Please speak more slowly. Il nostro lavoro progredisce (or si avvanza) il più lentamente possibile, Our work progresses as slowly as possible.
- The usually stands for than before a Verb, Adverb, or Adjective. Di is used before a Noun, Verb or Pronoun. The Pronouns after Di are The Disjunctive Forms; He, to, bid, lei, se, noi, voi, loro, Loro, see Lesson IV. Di is used after the Superlative for In or Of. Examples: Palermo è più grande di Catania, Palermo is larger than Catania. Sono più stupidi che cattivi, They are more stupid than wicked. Parla più speditamente che correttamente, He talks more quickly than correctly. Lei comincia più presto di noi, You walk more rapidly than we (as Presto is both adjective and adverb). Dormire è più piacevole che lavorare, To sleep is more pleasing than to work. Egli ha commesso più di sei contravvenzioni, He committed more than six misdemeanors. Egli è l'uomo il più ricco del paese, He is the richest man in the town.
- Irregular comparisons:
- buono, migliore, ottimo - good, better, best. cattivo, peggiore, pessimo - bad, worse, worst. grande, maggiore, massimo (also più grande, il più grande) big, bigger, biggest. piccolo, minore, minimo, (also più piccolo, il più piccolo)

final e following l or r is dropped before ente. Examples: Raro, Rara, Raramente, rare, rarely, Conveniente (masc. or fem.), Convenientemente, Convenient (suitable), Conveniently (suitably). Eguale (masc. or fem.) Equalmente, Equal, Equally. Particolare (masc. or fem.) Particolarmente, Particular, Particularly.

COMPARISONS OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

19. Italian has no terminations (save in a few irregular comparisons, below, 21), to indicate comparison equivalent to Eng. -er, -est. For the Comparative, use the adverb più and for the Superlative, il più. Comparative or Superlative adjectives usually follow the noun. Examples: più grande, il più grande, più grande, il più grande, più grande, il più grande, il più grande, il più grande. San Pietro e Roma è una delle chiese più grandi (or delle più grandi chiese) del mondo. St. Peter's at Rome is one of the largest churches in the world. Lentamente, il più lentamente, il più lentamente, il più lentamente, il più lentamente, il più lentamente, il più lentamente, il più lentamente. Il nostro lavoro progredisce (or si avvanza) il più lentamente possibile. Our work progresses as slowly as possible.

20. The usually stands for Then before a Verb, Adverb, or Adjective. Di is used before a Noun. Non or Prima. The Pronouns after Di are The Disjunctive Forms; Me, to, lui, lei, se, noi, voi, loro, loro, loro, loro, loro. Di is used after the Superlative for In or Of. Examples: Palermo è più grande di Catania, Palermo is larger than Catania. Sono più stupidi che cattivi, They are more stupid than wicked. Parla più speditamente che correttamente, He talks more quickly than correctly. Lei cammina più presto di noi, You walk more rapidly than we (il Presto is both adjective and adverb). Dormire è più piacevole che lavorare, To sleep is more pleasing than to work. Egli ha commesso più di sei contravvenzioni, He committed more than six misdemeanors. Egli è l'uomo il più ricco del paese, He is the richest man in the town.

21. Irregular comparisons:

buono, migliore, ottimo - good, better, best. cattivo, peggiore, possimo - bad, worse, worst. grande, maggior, massimo (also più grande, il più grande) big, bigger, biggest. piccolo, minore, minimo, (also più piccolo, il più piccolo) small, smaller, smallest. bene, meglio, il meglio - well, better, best. male, peggio, il peggio - badly, worse, worst.

22. Intensification of adjectives or adverbs is attained by using Molto, Assai: Very or Most or by adding the suffix -issimo to the stem. Examples: Essa è molto bella, She is very beautiful. Essa è bellissima, She is extremely beautiful. L'ha fatto benissimo (adverb), He did it very well. La ragazza è bella assai, The girl is very beautiful.

23. NEGATIVES. Niente or Nulla, Nothing. Né...né, Neither...Nor. Nemmeno, Neanche, Neppure, Nor, Not even. Nessuno, Nobody (pronoun), Nessuno/a, No, not any (adjective). When the negatives follow the verb, Non, Not, must be used before the verb. When they precede, Non is not used. Examples: Non aspettiamo nessuno, We aren't expecting anybody. Non ho né tempo né denaro, I have neither time nor money. Non ho avuto nessuno (or alcuno), occasion, He has not had any opportunity. Nessuno era in casa, No one was at home. Nessuna stanza sarebbe abbastanza grande, No room would be large enough. Ne questa casa né quella ci piace, Neither this house nor that pleases us.

25. Non mai, Never, Non più, Only. Non affatto, Not at all. Non più, No more, No longer. Examples: Non finisce mai il suo lavoro, He never finishes his work. Essa non ha affatto pazienza, She has no patience at all. Non ho che cinquanta lire, I have only fifty lire. Ed Only may also be translated by Solamente, Solo, Solanto. Example: Ho soltanto cinquanta lire, I have only fifty lire.

LESSON XII

THE SUBJUNCTIVE:

The subjunctive is used in the following cases in Italian:

I In independent clauses:

- a) for the formal imperative.
Mi dia il Suo cappello, Signore. Give me your hat, Sir.
Non se ne vadano, signori. Don't go away, gentlemen.
- b) as an exhortation.
Vuole cantare? Che canti allora.
Does she want to sing? Then let her sing.
- c) to express a wish unfulfilled or unlikely to be fulfilled.
Ah, fossero qui con noi! Oh, if they were only here with us!

II In dependent clauses as follows:

A) noun clauses when

- 1) the main verb indicates desire.
Voleva che lo lasciassero in pace.
He wanted them to leave him in peace.
Desidero che mi porti un'altra bottiglia.
I want him to bring me another bottle.
- 2) the main verb indicates emotion.
Gli dispiaceva che lei si vestisse di nero.
He didn't like her to dress in black.
Son contento che abbiate capito tutto.
I am glad you have understood everything.
- 3) the main verb indicates doubt.
Dubitava che lo volessero prendere in giro.
He doubted that they wanted to make fun of him.
- 4) the main verb indicates negation.
Non dico che non abbia sofferto molto.
I don't say that he hasn't suffered a great deal.
Non sapevamo che ci fossero degli orsi in quel bosco.
We didn't know there were bears in those woods.
- 5) the main verb indicates opinion.
Credo che gli alunni siano molto pigri.
I believe the students are very lazy.
Pareva che la primavera non venisse mai.
It seemed that spring was never coming.
- 6) the main verb is an impersonal expression.
Bisogna che l'asse sia vinto.
It is necessary that the axis be conquered.
E' possibile che sia già partito.
It is possible that he has already left.

EXCEPTIONS.

- a) contrary to (2) sperare, to hope, is usually followed by the indicative when the following clause refers to future time.
Spero che vi divertirete. I hope you will have a good time.
- b) Impersonal expressions denoting truth or certainty are followed by the

desidero che mi porti un'altra bottiglia.
I want him to bring me another bottle.
2) the main verb indicates emotion.
Gli dispiaceva che lei si vestisse di nero.
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Son contento che abbiate capito tutto.
I am glad you have understood everything.
3) the main verb indicates doubt.
Dubitava che lo volessero prendere in giro.
He doubted that they wanted to make fun of him.
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Non dico che non abbia sofferto molto.
I don't say that he hasn't suffered a great deal.
Non sapevano che ci fossero degli orsi in quel bosco.
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Credo che gli alunni siano molto pigri.
I believe the students are very lazy.
Pareva che la primavera non venisse mai.
It seemed that spring was never coming.
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Bisogna che l'asse sin vinto.
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EXCEPTIONS.

a) contrary to (2) sperare, to hope, is usually followed by the indicative when the following clause refers to future time.

Spero che vi divertirete. I hope you will have a good time.
b) Impersonal expressions denoting truth or certainty are followed by the indicative.

E' certo che vinceremo. It is certain that we shall win.
E' vero che la lingua italiana è facile.

It is true that the Italian language is easy.

B) adjective clauses where the antecedent is

1) negative.

Non aveva un cane che gli volesse bene.
He didn't even have a dog that loved him.

2) indefinite.

Cercava un lingua che non avesse un congiuntivo.

He was looking for a language that didn't have a subjunctive.

3) modified by any of the words: solo, unico, primo, ultimo.

Sposò l'unico uomo che potesse capirla.

She married the only man who could understand her.

Era l'ultima sera che dovessero passare insieme.

It was the last evening they were to spend together.

4) modified by a superlative.

Questa è la più bella canzone che abbia mai scritta.

This is the most beautiful song he has ever written.

(over)

LESSON XII Cont'd

c) adverbial clauses after conjunctions indicating

1) purpose.

Nascese il vino affinché i soldati non lo bevessero.

He hid the wine in order that the soldiers might not drink it.

Te lo ripeto un'altra volta perché lo ricordi bene.

I repeat it to you again so that you will remember it well.

2) uncertainty.

Non impareranno nulla a meno che il professore non sappia mantenere la disciplina. They will learn nothing unless the professor can keep discipline.

3) concession.

Si vede che è americano benché parli benissimo il francese.

One can see he's American though he speaks French very well.

Per quanto siano forti dovranno cedere.

However strong they may be they will have to yield.

4) negation.

Andò a comprare il nuovo cappello senza che il marito ne sapesse nulla.

She went to buy the new hat without her husband knowing anything about it.

5) after.

Prima che, avanti che meaning before.

D) in the if-clause of a contrary to fact or doubtful condition

Sarebbe veramente bella se non masticasse la gomma.

She would be really beautiful if she didn't chew gum.

The following notes are important:

1) When the verb of the main clause is in the present or future, the verb of the dependent clause is in the present subjunctive. In all other cases the imperfect is used.

Cercheranno chi sappia parlare italiano.

They will look for some one who can speak Italian.

Vorrei che voi altri non foste così pensosi.

I wish you weren't so sad.

There is an occasional exception to this rule when logic calls for it.

Credo che ce ne fossero due.

I think there were two of them.

2) THE SUBJUNCTIVE IS NOT USED WHEN the subject of the main verb is the same as the subject of the dependent verb. In such cases the Italian uses the dependent infinitive.

Voglio lasciarti in pace. I want to leave you in peace.

Dice di aver molto sofferto. He says he has suffered much.

Credo avere spiegato l'affare. I believe I've explained the matter.

3) THE SUBJUNCTIVE IS NOT USED in the if-clause of a simple condition. The Italian uses the present indicative, as the English, or sometimes the future.

Se ubbidite al maestro sarete felici.

If you obey your teacher, you will be happy.

"TO" AFTER VERBS.

1) Many verbs which are followed by "to" and the infinitive in English take a simple infinitive in Italian. Some are: Bastare. To Suffice. Bisognare. To be

She went to buy the new hat without her husband knowing anything about it.

5) after.

- D) Prima che, avanti che meaning before.
 in the if-clause of a contrary to fact or doubtful condition
 Sarebbe veramente bella se non nasticasse la gamba.
 She would be really beautiful if she didn't chew gum.

The following notes are important:

- 1) When the verb of the main clause is in the present or future, the verb of the dependent clause is in the present subjunctive. In all other cases the imperfect is used.

Cercarono chi sappia parlare italiano.
 They will look for some one who can speak Italian.
 Vorrei che voi/altri non foste così pensosi.
 I wish you weren't so sad.

There is an occasional exception to this rule when logic calls for it.

Credo che ce ne fossero due.

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- 2) THE SUBJUNCTIVE IS NOT USED WHEN the subject of the main verb is the same as the subject of the dependent verb. In such cases the Italian uses the dependent infinitive.

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- 3) THE SUBJUNCTIVE IS NOT USED in the if-clause of a simple condition. The Italian uses the present indicative, as the English, or sometimes the future.
 Se ubbedite al maestro sarete felici.

If you obey your teacher, you will be happy.

"TO" AFTER VERBS.

- 1) Many verbs which are followed by "to" and the infinitive in English take a simple infinitive in Italian. Same are: Bastare, To Suffice, Bisognare, To be necessary. Dovere, Ought to (must). Fare, To make. Intendere, To intend. Lasciare, To let. Potere, To be able. Preferire, To prefer. Sapere, To know how. Sembrare, To seem. Sentire, To feel. Solere, To be accustomed. Sperare, To hope. Volere, To wish.
 2) Udire (sentire), to hear and Vedere, to see, take a direct infinitive for the English gerund. Example: L'ho visto farlo, I saw him do it. Ho sentito gridare il uomo, I heard the man scream.
 3) Essere used impersonally with adjectives takes a direct infinitive where English uses "to". Examples: Sarà difficile convincerlo, It will be difficult to convince him. È meglio tacere, It is better to be quiet.
 4) A followed by the infinitive is used after certain verbs where English uses "to". Same are: Aiutare, to help. Andare, to go. Avere, to have. Cominciare, to begin. Continuare, to continue. Ignorare, to learn. Insegnare, to teach. Invitare, to invite. Mandare, to send. Venire, to come.
 5) Da and the infinitive is used where "to" and the infinitive in English can be translated by the Passive Voice. Examples: Egli ha una macchina da vendere, He has an auto to sell (to be sold). Questo è un proclama da leggere, This is a proclamation to read (to be read).
 6) See Collins' Pocket Dictionary pp. 444-446 for verbs which take di or a before nouns.

LESSON XIII

FORMATION OF PLURALS

1. Masculine nouns ending in o or a and all nouns ending in e from the plural by changing the final vowel to i.
Examples: Il libro, i libri, The book(s). Il dottore, i dottori, The doctor(s). Il poeta, i poeti, The poet(s). La parte, le parti, The part(s).
2. Feminine nouns ending in a change this to e in the plural.
Example: La porta, le porte, The door(s).
3. Adjectives form their plurals like nouns: those whose singulars have o masculine and a feminine form the respective plurals by i and e. Those in e masc. and a fem. form the plural for both by changing to i.
Examples: Un ragazzo studioso, tre ragazzi studiosi, A (three) studious boy(s). Una ragazza studiosa, due ragazze studiose, A (two) studious girl(s). Un ufficiale diligente, degli ufficiali diligenti, A (some) diligent official(s). Una donna prudente, delle donne prudenti, A (some) prudent woman (women).
4. Nouns and Adjectives ending in co or go, or ca or ga, insert an h in the plural before i or e to preserve the hard c or g.
Examples: Il luogo largo, i luoghi larghi, The wide place(s). Il fuoco, i fuochi, The fire(s). Il monarca tedesco, i monarchi tedeschi, The German monarch(s). Una bocca lunga, delle bocche lunghe, A (some) long mouth(s). La bottega, le botteghe, The shop(s).
The are certain exceptions in co where the h is not inserted, particularly where the stress falls on the third syllable from the end.
Examples: Il amico ricco, i amici ricchi, The rich friend(s). Un medico magnifico, dei medici magnifici, A (some) magnificent doctor(s). But una veduta magnifica, delle vedute magnifiche, A (some) magnificent view(s).
6. Nearly all nouns ending in cia or gia omit the i in the plural, unless it is stressed in the singular.
Examples: La provincia, le province, The province(s). La valigia, le valigie, The valise(s). But La farmacia, le farmacie, The drugstore(s), (chemist's shop(s)).
7. Nouns ending in io drop the i in the plural unless it is stressed in the singular.
Examples: Il spazio, i spazi, The space(s). Il dispacio, i dispacchi, The dispatch(es). But Il zio, i zii, The uncle(s). Il rio, i rii, The stream(s).
8. Words ending in a consonant or in a stressed vowel are alike in singular and plural. All monosyllabic words are therefore invariable.
Examples: Il lapis, i lapis, The pencil(s). Il re, i re, The king(s). La difficoltà, le difficoltà, The difficulty(ies).
9. Certain words in the singular are masculines in -o but in the plural feminines in -e.
Examples: Il uovo, le uova, The egg(s). Il muro, le mura, The wall(s), the plural, external walls). Il miglio, le miglia, The mile(s), and a few others.

4. Nouns and Adjectives ending in co or go, or ca or ga, insert an i in the plural before i or e to preserve the hard c or g.

Examples: Il luogo largo, i luoghi larghi, The wide place(s). Il fuoco, i fuochi, The fire(s). Il monarca tedesco, i monarchi tedeschi, The German monarch(s). Una bocca lunga, delle bocche lunghe, A (some) long mouth(s). La bottega, le botteghe, The shop(s).

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Examples: Il spazio, i spazi, The space(s). Il dispiaccio, i dispiacci, The dispatch(es). But il zio, i zii, The uncle(s). Il rio, i rii, The stream(s).

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Examples: Il uovo, le uova, The egg(s). Il muro, le mura, The wall(s); the plural, external walls). Il miglio, le miglia, The mile(s). and a few others.

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES

1. Adjectives usually follow the noun which they modify. They may precede: a)

If adjectives of common use, as Grande, Big; Buono, Good, etc. and: b)

If they are shorter than the noun and: c) If they are used figuratively. In general, the position is often a matter of sound and sometimes influences the meaning or emphasis.

Examples: La povera donna, The unfortunate woman. But La donna povera, The poverty-stricken woman. Una facile impresa, An easy enterprise (figurative). Un corto viaggio (or Un viaggio corto), A short trip.

2. The following Adjectives have variable forms before the noun.

Alone	Before a Vowel	Consonants	s impure or z
grande	grand'	gran	grande
buono	buon	buon	buono
bello	bell'	bell	bello
belli (plur)	begli	bei	begli

Examples: Buon giorno, Good day. Un grand'effetto, A great effect. Una bella ragazza, A pretty girl. Il grande zelo, The great zeal. I bei giardini, The beautiful gardens. But I giardini di Frascati sono belli, The gardens of Frascati are lovely.

(over)

LESSON XIII Cont'd

NUMERALS

Attention is called to the list in TM 30-249 pp. 24-26.

IMPERSONAL REFLEXIVES

In addition to the Uses of the Reflexive given in Lesson VI 15, it often occurs impersonally.

Examples: Si dice, It is said (People say). Si fa così, It is done this way (This is the way to do it). Si mangia bene al Ristorante Terminus, One eats well (Food is good) at the Terminus Restaurant.

USE OF PREPOSITIONS AND CONJUNCTIONS

1. Prepositions precede the word which they govern.

2. Verbs after Prepositions must be in the Infinitive (see Lesson XII, end).

Examples: Prima di partire, m'ha comandato di rimandare qui. Before leaving, he ordered me to stay here. Se n'è andato via senza trovarmi, He went away without finding me.

3. Add to the statement at the end of Lesson XII on "to" after the infinitive that, apart from the cases there listed, di is the usual translation for "to" after Verbs except when it means "in order to" when it is per.

Examples: Non riuscì di mostrarglielo, Don't refuse to show it to him. Ha detto ciò per persuadere loro, He said that to persuade you.

4. Innanzi a or Davanti a mean Before in the sense of In front of, as against Prima di or Avanti di, Before (temporal).

5. Fra means "in" in the sense of time within which.

Example: Sarà qui fra un'ora, He will be here in an hour.

6. Da means "since" and the verb is present or imperfect where English uses perfect or pluperfect.

Examples: Sono qui da tre settimane, I have been here three weeks. Erano a Roma da due anni prima della guerra, They had been in Rome two years before the war.

7. Fa means "ago" and follows the expression of time.

Example: La guerra è scoppiata quattro anni fa, The war broke out four years ago. A before the names of towns and in before names of countries translate English "to, at, in".

Examples: Siamo arrivati in Italia, We arrived in Italy. Non l'ho trovato a Messina, I did not find him at Messina.

9. Da is used for "to, at" a person's house.

Example: Vado dalla mia amica, I am going to my friend's house. Il proclama è dello stampatore, The proclamation is at the printer's.

10. The Verb following Quando, when, Appena or Testo che, as soon as, and Se, if, must be Future if it refers to the future.

Examples: Lo farò domani, se avrò tempo, I will do it tomorrow, if I have time. Testo che egli arriverà, glielo dirò, As soon as he arrives, I will tell him it.

Verbs except when it means "in order to" when it is Per.

Examples: Non riuscì di mostrarglielo. Don't refuse to show it to him. Ha detto ciò per persuadere loro, he said that to persuade you.

4. Innanzi a or Davanti a mean Before in the sense of In front of, as against Prima di or Avanti di, Before (temporal).

5. Pre means "in", in the sense of time within which.

Example: Sarà qui fra un'ora, He will be here in an hour.

6. Da means "since" and the verb is present or imperfect where English uses perfect or pluperfect.

Examples: Sono qui da tre settimane, I have been here three weeks. Erano a Roma da due anni prima della guerra, They had been in Rome two years before the war.

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Example: La guerra è scoppiata quattro anni fa, The war broke out four years ago.

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Example: Vado dalla mia amica, I am going to my friend's house. Il proclama è dallo stampatore, The proclamation is at the printer's.

10. The Verb following Quando, when, Appena or Tosto che, as soon as, and Se, if, must be Future if it refers to the future.

Examples: Lo farò domani, se avrò tempo, I will do it tomorrow, if I have time. Tosto che egli arriverà, glielo dirò, As soon as he arrives, I will tell him it.

PARTITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

1. Di and the article translates English Some or Any before a noun.

Examples: Non ci sono dei soldati, There aren't any soldiers here. Abbiamo del denaro, we have some money.

2. The Pronoun Ne before the verb stands for Some or Any alone, see Lesson II under Prepositions.

Example: Non ne hanno comprato, They didn't buy any.

3. Di alone, without the article, is used after expressions of quantity.

Examples: Egli ha bevuto più di vino di me, He drank more wine than I, Ho mangiato un po' di pane, I ate a little bread. Ho una tasca piena di denaro, I have a pocket full of money.

4. The noun stands alone, as in English, without article or preposition when reference is to the whole class or type. Example: Dove egli tè or caffè?, Does he drink tea or coffee? But egli ha bevuto del tè stamattina, He drank (some) tea this morning.

5. When a preposition precedes the noun, the noun stands alone. Examples: Venne con i soldati, He came with (some) soldiers. Mi portò delle patate con carne, Bring me some potatoes with (some) meat. NB. If some is to be emphasized, use qualche or Un po' di (a little) in the singular and Alcuni/e in the plural. Example: Venne con alcuni truppe, He came with some troops (not many). L'ho visto con qualche amico, I saw him with a friend (some friend or other). Mi dà del vino con un po' di acqua, Give me some wine with some (a little) water.

LA LINEA MARETH E' CROLLATA! L'ASSE POTREBBE RESISTERE A NORD DI GABES

L'Ottava Armata ha sfondato la linea Mareth. L'intero, poderoso sistema difensivo apprestato dall'Asse è ora in mano britannica.

L'Ottava Armata ha occupato, sabato scorso, Mareth, Toujane e Matmata. E' inoltre manifesto che i Tedeschi si accingono ad evacuare Gabes.

Le forze germaniche che si ritirano verso nord sono martellate senza posa al loro fianco dalle forze britanniche operanti nella regione di El Hamma.

Oltre seimila prigionieri sono stati catturati dall'inizio dell'attacco sferrato il 20 marzo.

Ed ora vedremo, scrive un corrispondente, come Ramel farà a ritirarsi. I Tedeschi non hanno affatto rinunciato alla lotta.

Poderose forze resistono ancora alle truppe Alleate nella regione di El Hamma.

Le sfavorevoli condizioni atmosferiche non hanno permesso agli Alleati di trarre vantaggio dalla loro superiorità aerea, ed hanno ridotto il numero degli aerei che sarebbe stato possibile effettuare sulle colonne di Ramel in ritirata.

Questa battaglia di importanza vitale per la liberazione dell'ultimo lembo di territorio occupato dall'Asse in Africa, è stata decisa con quel che un corrispondente ha definito come un doppio colpo.

In un primo tempo, egli scrive, il nemico è stato colpito dal nostro destro, poi da un poderoso sinistro.

L'ingente numero di carri armati, di cannoni e di automezzi abbandonato dalle forze dell'Asse, mostra quanto duramente esse siano state colpite.

Il comunicato ufficiale diramato ieri dal Quartier Generale Alleato nel Nord-Africa reca:

Sul fronte dell'Ottava Armata l'attacco sferrato venerdì notte contro le posizioni fortificate dell'Asse, situate a sud di El Hamma, ha costretto il nemico a ritirarsi dalla zona del Mareth.

Tale attacco è stato condotto con l'intenso appoggio dell'Aviazione Alleata ed ha causato gravissime perdite al nemico.

Il comunicato aggiunge che numerosi Tedeschi sono stati fatti prigionieri. Nella giornata di Sabato, aspri combattimenti si sono svolti nella zona del Mareth, dove le truppe dell'Ottava Armata avevano notevolmente progredito.

Le intere posizioni fortificate del Mareth, continua il comunicato, sono ora nelle nostre mani.

Il totale dei prigionieri catturati dall'Ottava Armata, dal 20 marzo, ammonta ad oltre 6,000.

Ad est di El Guettar, gli Alleati hanno progredito nonostante le difficili condizioni di terreno.

Sul fronte centrale pattuglie alleate sono state particolarmente attive mentre nello scacchiere nord un'avanzata locale coronata da successo è stata effettuata nella regione del Gebel Abied, dove alcuni prigionieri sono stati catturati.

Nonostante il maltempo, cacciatori e caccia-bombardieri alleati hanno continuato i loro attacchi contro i mezzi di trasporto nemici nella Tunisia meridionale, abbattendo quattro velivoli avversari nel corso di combattimenti aerei.

Nel settore centrale i caccia alleati hanno effettuato ulteriori azioni offensive. Due aerei alleati sono mancanti.

La radio di Algeri ha annunciato la scorsa notte che la forza del Commando

ente in definito come un doppio colpo.

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Due aerei alleati sono mancanti.

La radio di Algeri ha annunciato la scorsa notte che le forze del Generale Montgomery, combattendo con crescente impeto, hanno occupato El Hamra.

Un corrispondente riferisce che è significativo il fatto che i Tedeschi tentano di rendere inutilizzabile il loro campo d'aviazione di Gabes.

Ciò di cui abbiamo maggiormente bisogno ora, scrive un altro giornalista dal fronte, è il buon tempo, onde poter realmente concentrare tutta la potenza di struttura della nostra aviazione sulle forze di Rommel in ritirata.

Corrispondenza speciale per il Corriere di Tripoli

Il Corriere di Tripoli pubblica la seguente corrispondenza dal fronte traversata ieri notte alla redazione del giornale:

Il nemico ha abbandonato la linea Mareth o il sistema difensivo sussidiario di El Hamra.

Sono stati fatti più di un migliaio di prigionieri che si aggiungono così al totale dei cinquemila annunzato ieri, 33,000

Nel corso di una dura lotta svoltasi sul fianco sinistro del nemico, l'Ottava Armata ha catturato ieri 34 cannoni e 3 carri armati, impegnando in aspri combattimenti le forze della 15 Divisione Corazzata germanica, dislocata in questo settore.

(over)

Fra i cannoni catturati si sono trovati alcuni da 88 mm, ed altri pezzi anticarro da 76,2 mm, di fabbricazione russa.

Un reggimento moto-corazzato da solo ha catturato 732 prigionieri italiani, appartenenti tutti alla Divisione La Spezia.

Una divisione di fanteria ed una formazione corazzata britanniche hanno avanzato con irruenza verso nord-est in direzione di Gabes, incalzando il nemico che tentava di spartire l'accesso a El Hamma dal sud. Il nemico oppose una accanita resistenza finché, nelle ore notturne, non abbandonava il campo di battaglia alle forze dell'Ottava Armata e rinunciava al caposaldo di El Hamma.

Sul fronte del Mareth una munitissima posizione presidiata dal nemico veniva presa d'assalto nella mattinata di ieri.

Nel pomeriggio dello stesso giorno i veterani dell'Ottava Armata erano a Mareth. Altre truppe britanniche, operanti sul centro dello schieramento, raggiunsero giovani Menizelten, Matmor e Toujan.

Il nemico si è ritirato in disordine ed è probabile che tenterà di opporre resistenza nella zona situata a 18 km. circa a nord di Gabes, dove il terreno si presta alla difesa.

Condanne del Tribunale Militare Britannico

VICARI PIETRO - Reo di non aver consegnato un apparecchio radio in conformità ai termini del Proclama n. 9 - condannato a 12 mesi di prigione.

MASSAUD Ben MOHAMED - Reo di essere in possesso di (armi) accusato d'aver ferito un altro arabo con revolver) - condannato a 7 mesi di prigione.

BESCIER Ben MOHAMED - Reo di aver venduto pane al di sopra del prezzo stabilito - condannato all'ammenda di lire sterline 25 oppure, in mancanza di queste, a 6 mesi di prigione.

NAVARO GAETANO - Reo di essersi trovato in un ritrovo pubblico dopo le ore 19 senza permesso - condannato a 2 mesi di prigione.

DELFINO CHIARETTI - Reo di aver acquistato dalle truppe una quantità di razioni alimentari - condannato a un mese di prigione.

GRANCHI ALFREDO - Reo di essere in possesso di 449 scatole di carne, già appartenenti all'Esercito Italiano, 17 teli per branda militare ed una tenda dell'Esercito Italiano - condannato all'ammenda di lire sterline 25 coll'alternativa di 3 mesi di prigione.

ATTI UFFICIALI

Come già comunicato oggi 3 aprile scade improrogabilmente la data di rilascio delle Tessere Anonarie aprile-settembre.

Il giorno 4 aprile i consumatori devono effettuare la prenotazione consegnando le tessere ai loro rivenditori.

I rivenditori, a loro volta, dovranno consegnare le tessere dei prenotati all'Ufficio Distribuzione e Consumi nei giorni e nell'ordine seguente:

GIORNO 5 APRILE: dalla lettera A alla lettera C.

GIORNO 6 APRILE: dalla lettera D alla lettera L.

GIORNO 7 APRILE: dalla lettera M alla lettera N.

GIORNO 8 APRILE: dalla lettera O alla lettera Z.

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I rivenditori dovranno consegnare le tessere accompagnate da un elenco in duplice copia contenente: Cognome, Nome, Numero della Tessera e numero del foglio di famiglia. Si avverte tutta la popolazione che la prenotazione del pane e dei generi tesserati deve essere effettuata presso lo stesso minuterio, cioè non è ammesso prenotare in un negozio il pane e in un altro i generi tesserati.

Si comunica alla popolazione di Tripoli che appena ultimato il controllo delle tessere anonarie e delle prenotazioni effettuate presso i Rivenditori (Minuteri) verrà fatta una prima distribuzione di generi alimentari tesserati nella seguente misura:

Zucchero gr. 237 a persona a Lire 3,10 per razione.

Riso gr. 125 a persona a Lire 1,90 per razione.

Olio di cotone gr. 139 a persona a Lire 3,35 per razione.

Thè gr. 57 a persona a Lire 5,80 per razione.

Questa prima distribuzione avrà inizio il 12 aprile. Le successive distribuzioni saranno effettuate regolarmente nei giorni 6 e 21 di ogni mese.

COPIED FROM THE CORRIERE DI TRIPOLI dated March 30, 1943 and April 5, 1943.

L'AUTOMOBILE

Mia sorella sta imparando a guidare una macchina ed è uno spettacolo che diverte la famiglia. È una cara e simpatica fanciulla, Luisa, ma delle cose meccaniche non capisce gran che. Il babbo non le ha mai permesso di condurre la sua vettura; secondo lui una donna al volante è più pericolosa d'un soldato colla mitragliatrice. Sicché Luisa ha comprato una macchina per conto suo. È un nuovo modello a sei cilindri tutto lucido, cofano e cassa rossi con ruote e razze gialle. Ha persuaso il nostro autista a darle qualche lezione. Povero Giorgio! I primi giorni Luisa confondeva sempre il freno di soccorso e la leva del cambio di velocità... Dopo le riparazioni fatte sui parafranghi e le porte della rimessa e in seguito ad una scenata col babbo, Luisa è andata sulla strada maestra colla macchina. Così si ha più spazio per manovrare, mi spiego, e poi devo imparare a guidare ad una certa velocità. Ebbene, finora non ha ammazzato che due galline e Giorgio ci assicura che si comporta colla maggior disinvoltura anche nei momenti più critici. Una volta per poco non mise la testa attraverso il paravento. Dovendo passare per un crocicchio non si era accorta di un camione che veniva dalla destra e che dimostrava ogni intenzione di investire la piccola Lancia di Luisa. L'ho scampata bella quella volta, ammette Luisa, senza scomporsi. Ma cosa vuoi; sono cose che succedono. Fra poco avrò la patente e non avrò più bisogno di Giorgio che mi dà soggezione coi suoi modi tirannici. Devo ancora imparare a far indietreggiare la macchina e mi manca l'esperienza nel traffico di una grande città. Ma sono piccolezze; in fondo condurre un'automobile è una cosa semplicissima.

Favorisca quindici litri di benzina. -Sì, signore.

Questa è la strada per Volterra, non è vero? Si signore, o la strada maestra. Lei ha ancora cento chilometri da fare; ha fatto bene a riempire il serbatoio.

Grazie. Ci sarei già arrivato se non mi fosse scoppiata una gomma. E il copertone di ricambio è sciupato... Vorrei giungere a Volterra prima che si faccia scuro perché i miei fanali non sono molto forti. Dovrei far ricaricare la batteria. La strada è buona? -Oh, non dubiti, signore; fino a Volterra è come Lei la vede qui, tutta dura e liscia. Un po' in salita si capisce.

Speriamo che non sarò costretto ad andare in seconda... Aspetti, vuol vedere se c'è una candele che non funziona? -Nessignore, tutto in ordine.

Vabbene. Quanto mi fa? -Cinquanta, lire, signore.

Eccole. Ora vediamo se mi riesce di metterla in moto... Evviva! Eppur si muove. Arrivederci! -Buon viaggio, signore.

...ione che veniva dalla destra o che dimostrava l'gi intenzione di investire la piccola Lancia di Luisa. L'ho scampata bella quella volta, ammette Luisa, senza scomporsi. Ma cosa vuoi; sono cose che succedono. Fra poco avro la patente e non avro piu bisogno di Giorgio che mi da soggezione coi suoi modi tirannici. Devo ancora imparare a far indietreggiare la macchina e mi manca l'esperienza nel traffico di una grande citta. Ma sono piccolezze; in fondo condurre un' automobile e una cosa semplicissima.

Favorisca quindici litri di benzina. -Si, signore.

Questa e la strada per Volterra, non e vero? Si signore, e la strada maestra. Lei ha ancora cento chilometri da fare; ha fatto bene a riempire il serbatoio.

Grazie. Ci sarei gia arrivato se non mi fosse scoppiata una gomma. E il copertone di ricambio e sciupato...Vorrei giungere a Volterra prima che si faccia scuro perche i miei fanali non sono molto forti. Dovrei far ricaricare la batteria. La strada e buona? -Oh, non dubiti, signore; fino a Volterra e come Lei la vede qui, tutta dura e liscia. Un po' in salita si capisce.

Speriamo che non sare costretto ad andare in seconda...Aspetti, vuol vedere se c'e una candelella che non funziona? -Nossignore, tutto in ordine.

Vabbene. Quanto mi fa? -Cinquanta, lire, signore.

Eccole. Ora vediamo se mi riesce di metterla in moto...Evviva! Eppur si muove. Arrivederci! -Buon viaggio, signore.

...

CHI VA PIANO VA SANO E VA LONTANO

IL MERCATO

Un mio collega un po' eccentrico - come del resto tutti i professori - passa una gran parte del suo tempo al mercato. Scapolo cinquantenne sa cucinare e far la spesa meglio della massaia tradizionale. Mi è spesso toccato accompagnarlo al mercato; e un luogo che piace anche a me. Infatti nella nostra città c'è un gran mercato dove si può trovare una gran varietà di viveri; non solamente le cose comuni come patate, fave, piselli, rape, spinaci ecc. ma anche i legumi più ricercati come per esempio i carciofi, i funghi, il finocchio e certe cipolline che al mio amico piacciono molto; se ne serve per un suo piatto speciale. In un cantuccio del mercato c'è anche un fruttivendolo al cui banco si può trovare ogni sorta di frutto, mele, arance, fragole, ciliege anche fuori stagione. I prezzi non son modici a dir vero ma la roba è sempre buona. Egli vende anche conserve e marmellate. A me piace molto la conserva di ribes e anche quella di susine. C'è anche un banco dove vendono la pasta: maccheroni, spaghetti, cappellini, cappelletti, tagliatelli, fettuccine. Ma una mia amica napoletana m'assicura che la miglior pasta è sempre fatta in casa e confesso che essa sa fare certi ravioli che fanno venire l'acquolina in bocca solo a pensarci. In genere gli italiani meridionali amano molto la pasta mentre al nord preferiscono un buon risotto oppure la polenta.

To', chi si vede! Ti credeva in villeggiatura. - Villeggiatura per modo di dire. Ma non stiamo mica lontano dalla città e siccome da noi non si può comprare nulla io devo venire in città ogni tanto a far la spesa. Elena mi dà la lista, coll'aggiunta di tante commissioni anche per lei si capisce.

Ebbene, dove vai ora? Io devo andare dal parrucchiere. Vogliamo attraversare la strada qui? - Non posso accompagnarti, mi dispiace. Io devo andare... vediamo... prima dal macellaio - costollette e vitello per l'arrosto, poi al mercato - carote, barbabietole, cavolfiori, aglio e lattuga - poi alla farmacia, poi...

Oh, poverino, mi fa pena sentirti parlare. Senti, anch'io ho qualche piccola commissione nei magazzini e devo anche passar dal ciabattino. Ma fra un'ora e mezzo mi sbrigo. Perché non ci vediamo a quella pasticceria in faccia al municipio? - Vabbene ma se non ti dispiace preferirei prendere un gelato in quella piccola latteria all'angolo della strada. Vi potro comprare il belpaese e la ricotta di cui ho bisogno. Poi in faccia c'è la drogheria ed il formai. Ci stai?

Siamo intesi, mettiamo fra due ore, cioè alle quattro. Ma scusa non hai dimenticato la chincaglieria, la cartoleria, il calzolaio? - Non scherzare ti prego; è un affare serio. Se per caso dimenticassi qualche cosa guai a me! Figurati che devo anche riportare un monopattino per il bimbo!

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CHI NON SA L'ARTE CHIUDA BOTTEGA, CHI NON SA NUOTARE
CHE SI ANNECHI

LA SALA DA PRANZO

La zia ha una magnifica sala da pranzo. Lo stile dei mobili mi piace molto; sono tutti di stile Rinascimento. La tavola è grande assai e c'è una bella credenza in mogano del Seicento spagnolo, le sedie sono coperte di cuoio intagliato a mano. È uno stile che si conforma allo spirito della zia, la quale è, a dir vero, una signora un po' all'antica anche lei. Sono stato da lei ieri l'altro per celebrare una festa di famiglia e come al solito ho avuto dell'insieme un'impressione di forza e di dignità. Le posate - coltelli, forchette, cucchini - sono di argento massiccio ed i piatti, le tazze, e le sottocoppe della più fine porcellana. La tovaglia ed i tovagliuoli di lino. Ho ammirato anche lo zio; in capo alla tavola col trinciante nella destra e il forchettone nella sinistra era una figura imponente davvero. Avrà almeno settant'anni ma siccome ha ancora un portamento militare, una florida carnagione e capelli folti, questi settant'anni non li dimostra affatto. È un buongustaio lo zio, insiste per far da sé l'insalata; ha una salsa tutta sua la cui formula tiene gelosamente nascosta. E ci vorrebbe un uomo temerario per discutere con lui di vini o di formaggi. La vita in casa degli zii si svolge con una certa formalità, e ricordo che da bambino vi andavo sempre malvolentieri e con un senso d'impaccio ma ora mi fa sempre piacere andare a trovarli.

Favorisci la saliera e il macino del pepe, Giulia... Grazie. E buona questa insalata. -Allora se vuoi condirla tu, cocoti anche olio e aceto.

E la mostarda. Grazie. Sai, ho letto oggi nel giornale che il prezzo della carne sta per salire. -Ma è già salito da un pezzo. Non oserei dirti quanto ho pagato il pollastro che abbiamo mangiato. È una buona bistecca soltanto i milionari la possono mangiare ora.

Coraggio. Io preferisco la pasta. -Sì, ma non sai che per far quella salsa bolognese che ti piace tanto ci vuole una discreta quantità di carne. E anche per un buon brodo, sai.

Allora non pensiamoci più. Pazienza. Vuoi che ti riempi il bicchiere? Ci ho qui la caraffa. -Grazie. Per il dolce stasera puoi scegliere. Zuppa inglese, frutta, o Gorgonzola.

Ma che ricchezza! Datti una pera e un po' di Gorgonzola. Il caffè lo prendo dopo nel salotto, quando verrà Giovanni. E perché non un bicchierino di cognac?

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CHI NON LAVORA NON MANGIA

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IL TRENO

Mi ricordo che una volta quando andai da Napoli a Roma mi capitavano tutti i guai possibili ad un viaggiatore. Ci manca poco che prendessi il treno per Palermo che si trovava su un binario vicino; ero un po' distratto pensando all'a mancia che dovevo dare al facchino che portava le mie valigie. Quando finalmente tutto fu aggiustato e mi trovai per fortuna nel direttissimo per Roma provai gran difficoltà a trovare un posto libero. Il treno era affollato e tutti i migliori posti erano occupati. Finalmente mi sedetti fra un commesso viaggiatore assai antipatico e una donna con un bambino. Faceva caldo e c'era una discussione fra il commesso viaggiatore che essendosi messo la spolverina non faceva nessun caso della polvere e la donna che sosteneva che il finestrino aperto sarebbe la morte del suo prezioso fanciullo. Il ferroviere chiamato aveva ragione alla donna; si può immaginare come si sudava. Poi quando venne il controllore per controllare i biglietti, con mio grande imbarazzo non potevo più trovare i miei. Poi vicino a Caserta il treno dovette rallentare la velocità; un treno merce era deragliato. Insomma si perse un'ora e mezzo. Arrivato a Roma giurai solennemente di viaggiare nell'avvenire sempre prima classe o in carrozza con letto o meglio di restare a casa. Ho dimenticato di dire che non c'era vagone ristorante e dovetti sfamarmi con un cestino da viaggio.

Scusi, signore, e preso questo posto? -No, si accomodi. Grazie, che ca'de, eh? -Altro che! e il treno si sta affollando. Piene zeppo; mancano ancora venti minuti all'appartenza e in terza non c'è un posto libero. A che ora l'arrivo alla frontiera?

Verso le undici secondo l'orario. Bisogna uscire per la visita della dogana? -Non credo; i doganieri salgono sul treno.

Meno male che abbiamo la locomotiva elettrica. Tutta la linea è elettrizzata, adesso, non è vero?

Sì. Prima era molto spiacevole passare per le gallerie. Il fumo entrava per i finestrini e se erano chiusi si soffocava. Ebbene si parte. Vuol chiudere lo sportello per piacere?

Voce del capostazione: Signori viaggiatori in carrozza.

AMARE LA VICINA
E UN GRAN VIAGGIO, SI VEDE SPESO E NON SI FA VIAGGIO

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AMARE LA VICINA

E UN GRAN VANLAGGIO, SI VEDE SPESSE E NON SI FA VIAGGIO

Lettura Varia

I. SCIOGLILINGUA:

1. Chi seme di senapa secca semina.
sempre semi di senapa secca raccoglie.
2. Porta aperta per chi porta.
Chi non porta porta pur, che non importa aprir la porta.
3. Sa chi sa che non sa; non sa chi non sa che non sa.
4. C'è il questore a quest'ora in questura?
Il questore a quest'ora in questura non c'è.
5. Il cuoco cuoce in cucina e dice che la cuoca giace e tace perché
la sua cugina non dica che le piace cuocere in cucina col cuoco,

II. PROSA:

Non c'erano nuvole ancora; ma proprio nel mezzo del cielo, il turchino cominciò a diventare più scuro, finché all'improvviso vi nacque una nuvola grigia, che si faceva sempre più scura. Poi altre nuvole si accostarono insieme. Pareva che dovessero pigliar fuoco, perché all'interno scintillavano tutte e nel mezzo si facevano quasi nere. Quando tutte furono chiuse l'una con l'altra, un lampo abbarbagliò gli occhi e fece luccicare le ruote del carro, gli aratri e tutti gli strumenti di ferro sull'aia. La luce era livida. Allora i tuoni cominciarono, come se avessero dovuto schiantare anche le case, e le prime goccioline si sentirono picchiettare sulle tegole o sui mattoni. Poi l'acqua venne giù sempre più grossa.

Federico Tozzi, "Il podere".

III. POESIA:

1. PINI

All'estremo orizzonte, i grandi pini
se n'andavano curvi in lunga traccia,
a uno a uno come pellegrini;
e ciascuno recava per bisaccia,
alto sopra la livida brughiera,
una nuvola d'oro della sera.

Diego Valeri.

2. FIDES

Quando brillava il vespero vermiglio
o il cipresso pareva oro, oro fino,
la madre disse al piccolotto figlio:
--Così fatto e lassù tutto un giardino.--

Il bimbo dorme e sogna i rami d'oro,
gli alberi d'oro, le foreste d'oro,
mentre il cipresso nella notte nera
scagliasi al vento, piange alla bufera.

Giovanni Pascoli, Myricae

LA CASA

Un mio amico italiano a forza di frequentare il cinema s'è formato un concetto bizzarro dell'architettura domestica americana. Secondo lui tutti gli americani hanno delle case magnifiche e opulenti. Ogni casa americana possiede una magnifica sala di ricevimento con una scala nel fondo che fa pensare ad un palazzo romano. Il salotto con pavimento lucido, soffitto alto e pareti a riquadri in legno costoso. In ogni angolo qualche capolavoro dell'arte plastica. In ogni dimora che non sia una povera catapecchia c'è uno studio o una biblioteca, e una sala da ballo non manca mai. La sala da pranzo è abbastanza vasta da poter capirvi una cinquantina di ospiti almeno. Le camere da letto al piano superiore hanno un'abbondanza di specchi, ed i letti, cassettoni, armadi, ecc. sono di un lusso favoloso. Telefono e radio in tutte le stanze si capisce. La camera da bagno tutta scintillante di mattoncino con doccia e una vasca affondate nel suolo. Ogni casa americana ha un bel giardino attorno grande quanto la Villa Borghese ed è inconcepibile una dimora senza la rimessa per due o tre automobili. Invece non sembrano avere né soffitte né cantine, e il mio amico m'assicura che gli americani fanno a meno di cucine e dispense.

Dicono che Léi ha comprato una casa nella campagna. Sì infatti, prima volevo far costruire una casa proprio come volevo io ma poi mi è capitata quest'occasione. La casetta è vecchia ma è ancora in buona condizione. E di mattoni e le travi, porte e pavimenti sono di quercia.

C'è il riscaldamento centrale? No, ma dicono che non costerà molto mettervi il calorifero e i termosifoni.

E le condutture? Abbastanza moderne. Vorrei avere un'altra camera da bagno. Poi vogliamo abbattere una parete fra due camere al primo piano per farne una sola assai grande. E bisogna anche pensare all'impianto della luce elettrica.

Poveretto! Léi sarà un'altra vittima dei trabai, muratori, imbianchi, tapezziere e di tutta quella gente. Sì, confesso che ho avuto qualche momento di dubbio. Dopo quindici anni in questo appartamento sono abituato al servizio, al portinaio, all'ascensore, al riscaldamento. Ma mi piace avere una casa propria. Si è più liberi. I nostri vicini hanno fatto baldoria stanotte fino alle due della mattina. Ma se abbaiava il mio cane tutti protestano. E poi non ho posto per ospiti. Spero che Léi verrà a trovarci in campagna.

Volentieri. Le porterò le ultime notizie, magari i giornali. Ma poi non so se metterà conto; Léi sarà tanto occupato: avrà da tagliare l'erba, affari i fiori, sorvegliare l'orto, le vacche - Ma per carità! Si tratta di un modesto villino, non è mica un podere.

LA SALUTE

La salute è importantissima. Quando non si sta bene non si può lavorare né giocare né far nulla. Quando pensiamo a tutti i mali possibili in questo mondo: mal di testa, mal di denti, mal di stomaco, ecc., bisogna dare ragione al proverbio che dice che si nasce per soffrire. Generalmente però le persone che si riguardano hanno poco da temere e stanno sempre bene. Non tutti certamente possono avere una salute di ferro ma se ci curiamo bene e cerchiamo di evitare i raffreddori e le altre malattie contagiose possiamo sperare di sfuggire ai maggiori guai. Molte volte il moto aiuta a tenerci forti ma non bisogna naturalmente strapazzarci.... I medici hanno consigliato la ginnastica ad un certo mio amico piuttosto malaticcio e il poverino si è storto un piede giocando alla palla in una palestra. Ha dovuto restare a letto due settimane ma adesso si rimette. Si dice spesso che la salute è un tesoro ed è vero; infatti è un po' come la ricchezza; chi ce l'ha non l'apprezza e chi non ce l'ha la cerca.

- - - -

Buon giorno, Signor Bianchi, come sta Lei? - Io sto bene, grazie, e Lei?

Non c'è male, grazie. E in casa? - Tutti benissimo. Ieri sera a tavola il mio fratellino Luigi diceva di star male e di non aver appetito. E andato a letto lamentandosi di un mal di capo ma oggi si è alzato alle sette, dichiarando che stava benone. Mia madre dice che un pranzo mancato gli avrà fatto bene. Di solito mangia troppo.

-Bè', è giovino, è naturale. Dunque non hanno chiamato il medico? Oh no, era una cosa da nulla, niente di grave.

- - - -

Carcere, malattia e necessita, si conosce l'amista.

- - - -

Copied from THOMAS G. BERGIN's
"LA VITA D'OGGI"

SIMPLE ANECDOTES
(with nearly Literal Translations)
(Copied from Hugo's Simplified)

Come è che sapete tutti i segreti della famiglia che abita al primo piano?

Li so, perchè ne ho comprato il pappagallo.

How is it that you know all the secrets of the family that lives on the first floor?

I know them, because I have bought their parrot.

Una graziosa signorina entrò in una bottega, scelse un paio di guanto e ne domandò il prezzo.

Un bacio, rispose con galanteria il commesso di negozio.

Va benissimo, disse la signorina, datemene tre paia, ed oggi dopopranzo manderò mia nonna per il pagamento.

A pretty young lady entered in a shop, selected a pair of gloves, and of them asked the price.

A kiss, replied with gallantry the shopman.

Very good, said the young lady, give me of them three pairs and this afternoon I will send my grandmother for the payment.

(without translations)

Un vecchio avaro, per tenere al suo servizio un domestico, il quale viveva molto frugalmente, aveva fatto questo testamento:

Lascio al servitore che mi chiuderà gli occhi mille lire.

Finalmente, il padrone morì; allora il servo non indugiò a domandare agli eredi l'ammontare del lascito a suo favore.

Uno d'essi volle leggere il testamento, e giunto alle parole che mi chiuderà gli occhi esclamò con gioia:

La donazione non è valida.

E perchè? domandò il servo.

Perchè mio zio era cieco, e per conseguenza tu non hai potuto chiudergli gli occhi.

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